



THE UNIVERSITY OF
WAIKATO
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

Research Commons

<http://researchcommons.waikato.ac.nz/>

Research Commons at the University of Waikato

Copyright Statement:

The digital copy of this thesis is protected by the Copyright Act 1994 (New Zealand).

The thesis may be consulted by you, provided you comply with the provisions of the Act and the following conditions of use:

- Any use you make of these documents or images must be for research or private study purposes only, and you may not make them available to any other person.
- Authors control the copyright of their thesis. You will recognise the author's right to be identified as the author of the thesis, and due acknowledgement will be made to the author where appropriate.
- You will obtain the author's permission before publishing any material from the thesis.

**Oral corrective feedback in a blended learning environment:
Challenges and contradictions faced by teachers in a Vietnamese
university**

A thesis

submitted in fulfilment

of the requirements for the degree

of

Doctor of Philosophy in General and Applied Linguistics

at

The University of Waikato

by

NGUYEN THI HUONG



THE UNIVERSITY OF
WAIKATO
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

2019

ABSTRACT

Although much research has investigated oral correction feedback (OCF), little has addressed EFL teachers' cognition and practices about OCF provision in blended learning environments. This qualitative case study aims to occupy this gap. This study explores four issues: teachers' beliefs about giving OCF; their practices; convergences and divergences between their beliefs and practices; and the key factors influencing these relationships.

Data were collected from six teachers teaching in a blended learning programme in a Vietnamese university. The data collection process began with semi-structured interviews, classroom observations followed by stimulated recall sessions, then focus group discussions, and narrative frames. All data were subjected to a process of grounded analysis.

A key issue that the findings revealed was the appropriate balance between providing immediate feedback and delaying the feedback. Much research has focussed on the former (e.g., Brown, 2016; Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Russell & Spada, 2006), and much less attention has been paid to delaying feedback (e.g., Li, 2018; Quin, 2014; Rolin-Ianziti, 2010).

On the whole, there were more convergences than divergences between the teachers' beliefs and practices. The teachers rarely provided immediate correction while students were performing in pairs or groups: much more often, they delayed their error treatment until the students had finished their performances in front of the whole class. This was because they believed that doing so would promote the students' confidence and fluency and avoid demotivating them. Furthermore, it was found that they mainly corrected the errors in the whole-class setting as they believed that other students could learn from hearing the teachers and peers correct the other student's error and then avoid committing the same mistakes. Although they would like the students to correct the errors, they could not transfer this into their practice. Such approaches to error correction perhaps led to limited improvement in the students' fluency.

The teachers' cognition and practices were also viewed through the lens of principles of scaffolding and the framework of Cultural Historical Activity Theory (Engeström, 1987). Findings indicated the teachers did not fully apply van Lier's (1996) six principles of successful scaffolding; therefore, impeding the students' learning. In addition, findings revealed different levels of contradictions (Engeström, 1987). Primary contradictions occurred between teachers' cognitions, emotions and practices due to cognitive and emotional dissonance. Secondary level contradictions took place between teachers' cognitions, emotions, practices and learning outcome mainly due to: (1) the absence of expert knowledge within the academic community; (2) students' low proficiency level, motivation and autonomy; (3) institutional constraints, such as large size class, time limits, and ineffective regulatory guidelines; and (4) a teacher-led convention. Quaternary contradictions emerged between the central activity (OCF) and its concurrent activity (online learning) because of little cross-referencing between face-to-face and online tasks and lack of online tools for teachers to facilitate students' online learning.

To improve students' learning outcome, the study suggests expansive learning including a transformative change in the activity of OCF and the provision of conditions for boundary crossing to take place, such as relevant teacher professional development/learning.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

On my doctoral candidature, I have received the support and assistance of many people. First and foremost, I would like to express my deepest appreciation to my chief supervisor, Associate Professor Roger Barnard, for his excellent supervision. His wisdom and knowledge has enlightened my perceptions of doing research, of language teaching and learning. The completion of this thesis would not have been possible without his kindness, patience and care, right from the beginning to the end. My heartfelt appreciation also goes out for his wife, Yukari for her hospitality; the memories that my family and I have made at your house will always be lovingly remembered.

I am deeply indebted to my second supervisor, Dr Rosemary De Luca, for her extremely useful and insightful feedback that has contributed to shaping up my thesis. Thank you for believing in me and continuously encouraging me throughout my journey.

I am also grateful to my third supervisor, Dr Jonathon Ryan for his critical comments at the right time. Thank you for supporting me to be confident in my decisions and judgments about my work, particularly in the final stages of my journey, and for providing me with the useful, fine-grained feedback that helped me improve my writing.

Sincere thanks to all my participants for their dedication and enthusiasm, allowing me into their minds and their practices.

I also want to express thanks to MOET Vietnam for their financial support for my four years of study, and specifically to Ms Nguyen Ngoc Lien, and Hoang Kim Oanh for their kind assistance relating to my administration procedures, fees and, allowances.

I owe thanks to the staff members of Department of General and Applied Linguistics, University of Waikato, Athena Chambers, Anne Ferrier-Watson for assisting me in administrative and formatting issues.

To my Mom and Dad for your everlasting unconditional love, you have never put any pressure on my life but always made me feel encouraged and loved. To my

brother and sisters who help me realise that nothing is comparable to siblinghood. To my supportive husband, Nguyen Dinh Tan, especially for his culinary skills that kept me nourished. Your choice to come to New Zealand to support my study despite many barriers is and will always be remembered and highly appreciated. My heart-felt gratitude goes to my beloved children, Nguyen Dinh Trung Dung, Nguyen Dinh Bao Chau, for their sacrifices in letting this thesis to come into being. Thank you Dung for always saying the right words and doing the right things when Mom was really in need. I always feel deeply indebted to your maturity. Thank you Bao Chau for your cheerfulness, your sweet smiles always cheered me up.

I would like to express my sincere thanks to my mother in law who has bravely fought for her life every single day and my father in law for his taking good care of her. Your sacrifices have greatly helped me to focus on my study.

Thank you to my fellow PhD students: Isra, Shazre, Ban and Anita for your friendship, and support. The wonderful memories from our monthly lunches and dinners will be forever in my heart.

Thank you to Sujittra for her support and encouragement during the first year of my study. You are like another sister of mine.

Thanks goes to all my friends here in Hamilton and New Zealand, especially Ha, and Binh, for your continuous emotional support and kindness. You have become part of my life.

Thank you all my friends in Vietnam, particularly Lang-Dung. You all have supported me so much from our home country. Thank you Tan-Trang for your precious support right at the time my family settled down in New Zealand.

Finally, thank you to Meli, Natalie, Kathy, and Helena at Woodstock for your wonderful support and encouragement during my third year of study. You are much more than colleagues to me.

Thank you Phil Pope for reading and commenting on part of my thesis.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BL	Blended learning
CHAT	Cultural-Historical Activity Theory
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
F2F	Face-to-face
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
L1	First language
L2	Second language
OCF	Oral corrective feedback
SLA	Second language acquisition
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	III
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	V
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	VII
LIST OF FIGURES	XII
LIST OF TABLES.....	XIII
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	14
1.1 Motivation for the study	14
1.2 Research objectives	15
1.3 Significance of this study	16
1.4 The context of teaching and learning English in Vietnam	18
1.5 Thesis structure.....	21
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	22
2.1 Blended learning environment	22
2.1.1 Definitions	22
2.1.2 Implementing blended learning	23
2.2 Accuracy and grammar instruction	24
2.2.1 Accuracy versus fluency	24
2.2.2 Grammar instruction.....	25
2.3 Oral Corrective feedback.....	26
2.3.1 Should errors be corrected?	26
2.3.2 Types of Oral Corrective Feedback	27
2.3.3 Types of errors	29
2.3.4 Timing of corrective feedback	31
2.3.5 Who corrects the errors	35
2.3.6 Whole-class, small-group or individual OCF	37
2.3.7 Use of L1 in giving OCF	37
2.3.8 Focus-on-form episodes.....	38
2.4 Teachers' cognition	39
2.4.1 Definition	39
2.4.2 Sources of teacher cognition.....	41
2.4.3 Relationship between teacher cognition and practice.....	42
2.4.4 Emotion and cognition.....	43
2.4.5 Empirical studies about teacher cognition about OCF	44
2.5 Sociocultural Theory	53
2.5.1 Scaffolding.....	54
2.5.2 Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT)	55
2.5.3 Empirical studies about OCF from the perspective of Sociocultural Theory.....	63
2.6 Summary	65
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY.....	66
3.1 Rationale.....	66

3.1.1 Rationale for the interpretive paradigm	66
3.1.2 Rationale for a qualitative, exploratory case study.....	68
3.2 The present study.....	70
3.2.1 Rationale for multi-method research design	70
3.2.2 Selection and description of the participants	70
3.2.3 Ethical issues.....	71
3.3 Data collection methods	73
3.3.1 Interviews.....	73
3.3.2 Classroom observations	75
3.3.3 Stimulated recall	75
3.3.4 Focus group discussions	77
3.3.5 Professional development meetings.....	79
3.3.6 Narrative frames	80
3.4 Data analysis.....	81
3.4.1 Managing and transcribing the data	81
3.4.2 Analysing the data.....	84
3.5 Key criteria for qualitative research	91
3.5.1 Credibility	92
3.5.2 Transferability	93
3.5.3 Dependability.....	93
3.6 Summary	95
CHAPTER FOUR: AN OVERVIEW OF THE BLENDED LEARNING	
PROGRAMME	96
4.1 Overview of the BL programme	96
4.2 The F2F teaching materials	98
4.3 The F2F teaching procedures	104
4.4 The general guideline for testing and assessment	105
4.5 The teacher professional development activities.....	105
4.6 Summary	106
CHAPTER FIVE: FINDINGS.....	107
5.1 Teachers' beliefs about providing OCF	108
5.1.1 Teachers' beliefs about the importance of grammatical accuracy .	108
5.1.2 Teachers' beliefs about the importance of giving OCF.....	109
5.1.3 Beliefs about providing OCF	110
5.2 Teachers' practices regarding giving OCF.....	114
5.2.1 When OCF was given	115
5.2.2 How errors were corrected.....	120
5.2.3 Who corrected the errors.....	142
5.2.4 Which errors were corrected.....	143
5.2.5 Reasons for the use of Vietnamese in giving OCF	144
5.2.6 The use of home tasks.....	146
5.3 Convergences and divergences in beliefs and practices.....	147
5.3.1 Convergences in beliefs and practices in providing corrective	
feedback	147
5.3.2 Divergences in beliefs and practices	152
5.3.3 Conflicting beliefs and practices among the teachers.....	156
5.4 Influencing factors.....	159
5.4.1 Teachers' factors	159

5.4.2 Students' factors.....	160
5.4.3 Institutional factors	162
5.5 Summary of key findings	165
CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION.....	167
6.1 OCF techniques in the strategic planning.....	167
6.1.1 Teachers' beliefs.....	167
6.1.2 Teachers' practices	168
6.2 Timing of OCF regarding immediate correction in the rehearsal stage	169
6.2.1 Teachers' beliefs.....	169
6.2.2 Teachers' practices	170
6.3 Timing of feedback in relation to delayed feedback in the main-task stage	
.....	171
6.3.1 Teachers' beliefs.....	171
6.3.2 Teachers' practices	172
6.4 Setting of delayed feedback in the post-task stage.....	174
6.4.1 Teachers' beliefs.....	174
6.4.2 Teachers' practices	174
6.5 Opportunities to apply OCF	176
6.5.1 Teachers' beliefs.....	176
6.5.2 Teachers' practices	176
6.6 Linguistic target of OCF.....	177
6.6.1 Teachers' beliefs.....	177
6.6.2 Teachers' practices	178
6.7 Who corrected the errors	180
6.7.1 Teachers' beliefs.....	180
6.7.2 Teachers' practices	180
6.8 The use of L1	182
6.8.1 Teachers' beliefs.....	182
6.8.2 Teachers' practices	182
6.9 Explanation for the limited learning outcome in the light of Sociocultural	
Theory	184
6.9.1 Scaffolding.....	184
6.9.2 Cultural Historical Activity Theory	186
6.10 Summary	194
CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION	196
7.1 Brief summary of the key findings.....	196
7.2 Limitations of the study.....	197
7.3 Implications	198
7.3.1 Contextual implications	198
7.3.2 Practical implications.....	199
7.3.3 Methodological implications	207
7.3.4 Theoretical implications.....	208
7.3.5 Suggestions for further research	209
7.4 Personal conclusion.....	210
REFERENCES.....	211
APPENDICES	243

Appendix 1: Letter of Information to teaching participants.....	243
Appendix 2: Consent forms.....	246
Appendix 3: Letter of Ethics Approval	247
Appendix 4: Empirical studies on immediate and delayed feedback.....	249
Appendix 5: Research instruments of the empirical studies of teacher cognition and practices in relation to OCF	250
Appendix 6: Guidelines for initial semi-structured interviews	251
Appendix 7: Observation sheet	252
Appendix 8: A sample of observation notes	254
Appendix 9: Guideline for stimulated recalls.....	255
Appendix 10: The schedules for actual interviews, classroom observations ..	256
Appendix 11: Lesson transcripts	257
Appendix 12: Guidelines for focus group discussions	258
Appendix 13: A sample professional development data	259
Appendix 14: Narrative frames in English.....	260
Appendix 15: A sample data of narrative frames.....	262
Appendix 16: Analysis of one unit in F2F materials.....	264
Appendix 17: Criteria for giving feedback.....	268
Appendix 18: Extracts #2, #3, #7, & #8	269
Appendix 19: Extract #11	271
Appendix 20: Extracts #12 & #13	272
Appendix 21: Extract #15.....	273
Appendix 22: Extracts #17, #18, & #19	276
Appendix 23: Extract #20.....	278
Appendix 24: Extract #21	279
Appendix 25: Extract #22.....	282
Appendix 26: Extract #23.....	290
Appendix 27: Ethic book chapter	293

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2. 1: A model of the ZPD	56
Figure 2. 2: Activity, actions and operations in the first generation of CHAT.....	57
Figure 2. 3: The second generation of CHAT	58
Figure 2. 4: The third generation of CHAT	59
Figure 2. 5: Engeström's (2001) model of strategic learning actions and	61
Figure 3. 1: Data storage by participant	82
Figure 4. 1: The speaking unit.....	102
Figure 6. 1: Contradictions between Instruments-Community-Object.....	188
Figure 6. 2: Contradictions between Subject-Community-Object.....	189
Figure 6. 3: Tension between Subject-Division of Labour-Object	190
Figure 6. 4: Contradictions between Subject-Rule-Object	191
Figure 6. 5: The relationship between the central activity and online learning activity.....	192
Figure 6. 6: The cycle of expansive learning in OCF in the present study	193
Figure 7. 1: Suggested timing of OCF in different stages.....	201
Figure 7. 2: Recommended steps in public correction.....	201
Figure 7. 3: Summaries of the changes in elements within the error correction activity.....	203
Figure 7. 4: Boundary object between the OCF activity and online learning activity.....	204

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1. Types of OCF source	28
Table 2.2: FonF during pre-task, main task and post-task	32
Table 2.3: The features of focus-on-form episodes.....	38
Table 2.4: Empirical studies of teacher cognition and practice about OCF.....	44
Table 2.5: Empirical studies of teacher cognition and/or practice about OCF in Vietnam	51
Table 3.1: The participants' profiles.....	71
Table 3.2: Types and subtypes of FFEs.....	88
Table 3.3: Analysis of Example 1	89
Table 4.1: An overview of the structure of one unit.....	97
Table 4.2: A summary of the descriptions of the tasks 1-8	103
Table 5.1: The conventions used in the data presentation.....	107
Table 5.2: Summary of teachers' beliefs about the timing of giving OCF.....	112
Table 5.3: Teachers' beliefs about types of errors to correct.....	113
Table 5.4: Transcript conventions	115
Table 5.5: Summary of OCF provided in the stages of a lesson	116
Table 5. 6: The provision of OCF within each stage of an activity.....	117

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Oral corrective feedback is one of the most contentious issues in SLA research and language pedagogy. While extensive research has investigated OCF in experimental settings, far less attention has been given to natural classroom contexts. Therefore, practical aspects of error correction have been ignored to a large extent. This study explores how teachers provided oral corrective feedback in a blended learning environment, the underlying reasons, including practical constraints, for such practice and how these impacted on students' learning outcome.

This introductory chapter presents my personal motivation for conducting the research, the research objectives, and the significance of the study. It then provides a brief overview of the context of English language education in Vietnam. Finally, the chapter summarises the structure of the thesis.

1.1 Motivation for the study

I have been teaching English to both majored and non-majored students for more than 10 years in Vietnam. From my own learning experience, I still remember that I used to be corrected quite often by my teachers at high school mainly for grammar and pronunciation errors when answering their questions in English exercises. At tertiary level, the speaking skill is considered one of the four language skills in the curriculum, but I did not have any particular impression on how I was corrected. My teaching practices regarding corrective feedback have mainly been influenced by my high school memories.

As a teacher, my English-majored students learnt to speak English in pairs or groups in speaking lessons. I used to let students finish their pair work or group work either in their own seats or in front of the whole class. Then I provided my comments, which included some error correction. In fact, I did it because I observed other teachers doing it. Yet, deep inside I still wished one day I could find out whether that practice was useful. However, for non-majored students, limited oral corrective feedback was given to their speaking performances as little time was allocated to teach the speaking skill. This was because we needed to

cover three other skills: listening, reading, and writing. Even when students were arranged in pairs or groups, they were unable to complete the speaking tasks because of their limited English. This impression came from my own teaching experience and the observation of other teachers' lessons.

About two years prior to my doctoral study, non-majored students in my university failed their interviews in English with one company that intended to recruit the students. This prompted a request from the institution for a curriculum innovation to develop students' communicative competence. We, the teachers, were told to teach non-majored students in a way so that the speaking skill would be the most emphasised of the four language skills. However, during that time, it was not clear for me how to best improve the speaking skills of those students in classes with an average of 45 learners, or how I could provide feedback on their performances (if any). Just before I moved to New Zealand to commence my PhD study, a blended learning (henceforward, BL) programme was launched at my university and implemented as a timely response to the urgent task of the whole faculty, that is, developing students' oral communicative ability. My concerns about giving corrective feedback to English majors were stimulated, and then they shifted to non-majored students and the context of BL. This is because I was interested in how teachers provided oral corrective feedback (henceforward, OCF) in speaking-focused lessons where they were no longer required to teach the other three skills.

In the next section, I will discuss the research aims of the present study.

1.2 Research objectives

The present study had an overall goal of creating an opportunity for a group of Vietnamese teachers of English as a foreign language (henceforward, EFL) to report their beliefs about giving OCF in a blended learning programme at a university (hereafter referred to by the pseudonym HaBu). The study also investigated their practices and the connection between their beliefs and practices.

To be more specific, the objectives of the investigation are as follows:

- to critically review research into teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to OCF;
- to explore a selected group of Vietnamese teachers' beliefs about giving OCF in a blended learning programme, and the extent of the convergence of these beliefs with their OCF practices;
- to evaluate the impact of underlying factors on teachers' beliefs and their actual practices; and
- to analyse and interpret the findings to make an original contribution to academic understanding of teacher cognition and practices about corrective feedback in a BL environment.

1.3 Significance of this study

This study presents a case study of a group of university teachers' beliefs and practices regarding OCF. I would like this study to make an original contribution to academic understanding in several important areas.

Firstly, to my knowledge, this is the first study to examine the teachers' beliefs and practices of a newly implemented BL programme within a university context in Vietnam. This teaching environment was unusual as, unlike the conventional practices, the teachers no longer provided linguistic input in face-to-face (F2F) classes; instead, they required the students to self-study online to learn relevant linguistic features prior to F2F sessions, and then to use that knowledge to practise speaking English. In the context of Vietnam where the goal of improving students' communicative ability in English has been regarded as crucial, the study, with its particular focus on OCF, will provide an insight into how and the extent to which teachers have adapted their teaching practices to meet the requirement of the innovatory curriculum and to achieve the intended goal.

Secondly, the findings of this study could make an important contribution to the fields of second language acquisition (henceforward, SLA), particularly the issues of feedback timing and setting in corrective feedback. As delayed corrective feedback has received scant attention in SLA, and even less so in blended

learning, this work offers some useful insights into how teachers provide corrective feedback after the students have finished their pair/group work in a BL programme. Moreover, while corrective feedback is recommended to be provided individually in private settings (Nassaji, 2013), the study advances the understanding of whether giving corrective feedback to the whole class in public helps to improve students' learning outcomes.

Thirdly, based on the relevant literature review done to date, data in studies about teacher cognition about OCF are usually collected through questionnaires, interviews, and observations. No studies have been found that examined teachers' beliefs and practices about giving OCF with data gained through a judicious combination of data-collection procedures, such as: interviews, classroom observations, stimulated recalls, focus group discussions, professional development meetings, and narrative frames. Such a way of collecting data helped to provide an in-depth insight into the teachers' cognition as well as their teaching practices.

Fourthly, while several previous studies have adopted scaffolding principles (van Lier, 1996) and Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) (Engeström, 1987) to investigate the connection between beliefs and practices in written feedback, to my understanding, no study has applied these frameworks to the issue of OCF. Particularly, the employment of CHAT in data analysis and interpretation illuminates different levels of contradictions that emerged in the interaction between the teachers' cognition, including emotion, and practices, and the influence of contextual factors on this relationship. This led to the adaptation of the cycle of expansive learning (Engeström, 2001).

Fifthly, this project suggests practical implications for practitioners, such as teachers, curriculum designers, and institutional leaders regarding OCF. Participation in the study assisted the teachers to articulate their pedagogical beliefs about OCF and created opportunities where the teachers could reflect on their OCF practices. In addition, the findings of the study may act as a foundation for institutional leaders to evaluate and reflect on the design and actual implementation of a new English language teaching programme.

Lastly, the study is beneficial for myself as it helps me to clarify my previous concerns about providing OCF to the students during the speaking practices. It provides an opportunity for me to deepen my understanding of corrective feedback in SLA and the essential role of teacher cognition to teaching practices.

1.4 The context of teaching and learning English in Vietnam

“The social, institutional, instructional and physical settings in which teachers work have a major impact on their cognitions and practices” (Borg, 2006, p. 275). One way to attain a deeper understanding of the complexity of teaching is to place due emphasis in the sociocultural and the structural contexts within which the teachers work, and the relationship between these factors (Price, Kirkwood, & Richardson, 2016). In the following part, I will discuss the socio-cultural and educational context of English language teaching (henceforward, ELT) and learning in Vietnam.

Prior to 1975, Vietnam was divided into two parts: the North and the South. At the time, students mainly were taught Russian and Chinese at schools in the North while English was the main foreign language in the South. After the country was reunified in April 1975, English lost its popularity as Russian became the main foreign language at schools nationwide. In 1986, when the government initiated the economic renovation known as *doi moi*, English regained its popular position. Since Vietnam became a member of several regional and international organisations, such as the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC), and World Trade Organization (WTO), English has been the most popular foreign language (Canh, 2011; Nguyen, 2011a; Nguyen, 2011b) as it helps Vietnam to enhance its international relations and economic cooperation.

Aware of the essential role of English, in 2008 the Vietnamese government approved a national education project entitled “*Teaching and learning foreign languages in the national education system in the period of 2008 – 2020*”. The project aimed to reform the teaching and learning of foreign languages at all educational levels in Vietnam, and English was still indicated as the most important foreign language to be taught at all levels (MoET, 2008). One of the

project aims is to train Vietnamese graduates to use a foreign language independently and confidently to communicate, study, and work. Another aim is to enhance language teachers' knowledge and competence to use a foreign language. In 2014, the Ministry of Education and Training (henceforward, MoET) launched the Foreign Education Programme (MoET, 2014) in which English is used as a medium of instruction (MoET, 2014). Subsequently, many universities in Vietnam created many related programmes either on their own or through cooperating with their foreign partner institutions of higher education (Nguyen, 2017a). In summary, English has become the most preferred foreign language and English education, therefore, is in the centre of education reforms in Vietnam.

Despite the curriculum reforms in English education, its outcomes remain of concern (Canh, 2015). At the end of 2017, regarding the outcome of the project 2020, the Minister of the Education and Training Department frankly said that “the project has failed to meet its targets” (Hai & Thu, 2016). One reason is that the teachers continue to use traditional methods which focus on teaching grammar rather than communicative competence (Canh, 2011, 2015; Canh & Barnard, 2009). For instance, Canh (2015) stated that in Vietnam “pedagogies [that] focus predominantly on rote memorization [and] passive learning approaches” (p.183). Additionally, the MoET's assessment policy has influenced the classroom practice. Generally, teachers at all levels spend more class time teaching linguistic knowledge for their students to pass grammar-based tests than developing the ability to use language communicatively.

Moreover, the low proficiency of Vietnamese students is a result of curriculum design. At primary and secondary levels, the teaching practice was mainly based on MoET-mandated English textbooks (Nguyen, 2011a), which strongly focus on developing linguistic knowledge. At tertiary levels, universities often selected imported commercial textbooks by ELT publishers (Nguyen, Fehring, & Warren, 2015; Nguyen & Walkinshaw, 2018), in which the four language skills were integrated. Although, at this level, the class activities can be adapted to accommodate students' various needs, the speaking skill received less attention than grammar, vocabulary and other skills in class (Nguyen et al., 2015; Pham, 2017).

What is more, the poor quality of teaching and learning English in Vietnam is partly due to a lack of appropriate teacher training and teacher professional development (Bui & Nguyen, 2016; Nguyen, 2017a). Last but not least, ELT practice in Vietnam at all levels was deeply influenced by traditional Confucian values (e.g., Canh, 2011; Nguyen, 2015; Nguyen, 2017b; Nguyen, 2013). Confucianism promotes a hierarchical principle, that is, people of low ranks must respect those of higher ranks. In education, teachers are highly respected, and students are expected to listen to and learn from what the teacher transmits. Therefore, English teaching practices have been mainly teacher centred (Hoang & Filipi, 2019; Nghi, 2010; Nguyen, 2011b).

Also, teachers are responsible for providing “students with correct and clear knowledge” and “correctness is considered as the criterion of good teaching” (Nguyen, 2017b, p. 81). University students “just listen and wait to be asked to give an answer, but they seldom ask questions...; they listen passively” (Nguyen, 2011b, p. 186). Another explanation for students’ limited communicative ability is face-saving, which plays a very important role to Vietnamese people. Vietnamese students fear losing face when saying something (e.g., pronouncing a word) inaccurately (Nguyen, 2011b; Pham, 2017). This feature is said to be one of the major resistances to the introduction of interactive pedagogy (Nguyen, 2015; Nguyen, 2011b; Pham, 2017) as a student-centred approach requires students to be autonomous, cooperative, and willing to take part in pair/group work.

Thanks to the rapid growth of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) and its beneficial applications, MoET emphasises the implementation of ICT application at any level of education in Vietnam (Tran & Stoilescu, 2016). However, regarding ELT in higher education, Vietnamese university teachers have limited knowledge and skills in employing technology in teaching (Hoang, 2015; Nhu, Keong, & Wah, 2018), and their pedagogical practices remain traditional with a transmission model of knowledge (Tran & Stoilescu, 2016). Several institutions attempted to use ICT to implement BL in teaching English, but all such practices failed to improve students’ communicative ability (Hoang, 2015).

In summary, despite intensive efforts by the Vietnamese government, English teaching in Vietnam remained transmission oriented, achieving limited outcomes.

1.5 Thesis structure

The thesis consists of six chapters. Chapter 1 has set out the purposes and the significance of the study and provided information on English education in Vietnam, especially at tertiary level. Chapter 2 presents a critical review of current literature relating to principles and practices of BL, oral corrective feedback, teacher cognition and practices, and Socio-cultural Theory. Chapter 3 explains the present study's qualitative interpretive research design and research instruments, and describes the processes of data collection and analysis. Chapter 4 provides a detailed description of the newly-introduced BL programme at the university. Chapter 5 presents the findings of the study, the teachers' beliefs and practices about providing OCF, the convergences and divergences, and factors influencing this relationship. Chapter 6 extracts some key themes from Chapter 5 and discusses them in depth. The discussion focuses the usefulness of the teacher-student OCF interaction to the students' learning outcomes with reference to the findings of other theoretical and empirical studies of OCF and of teacher cognition. It also explains the limited learning outcomes in the light of scaffolding principles (van Lier, 1996) and Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT). Chapter 7 presents the contextual, practical, methodological, and theoretical contributions of the study to current understanding of OCF, and offers implications for the future practice of Vietnamese ELT practitioners, teacher educators, and policy makers. It recommends that professional development for Vietnamese teachers at local levels plays a crucial role in improving English teaching and learning in the BL environment and relatable contexts.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to review research pertinent to my study and related to blended learning (BL), corrective feedback, and teacher cognition. Section 2.1 begins with a definition of blended learning environment and discusses elements related to implementing BL. Section 2.2 examines the role of grammar instruction and accuracy in language teaching. Section 2.3 investigates oral corrective feedback. Section 2.4 explores teachers' beliefs and practices and tensions between these factors. After this, a review of empirical studies on teacher cognition about grammar teaching and OCF will be presented. Section 2.5 will deal with the analytical framework for this study. The final section will identify the research spaces this study will occupy and state the research questions which will be addressed by the present study (Section 2.6).

2.1 Blended learning environment

2.1.1 Definitions

Blended learning appeared in the late 1990s as a term to refer to a new approach in education and, in general, it has been defined as a combination of F2F instruction with online learning (Graham, 2006, 2012). Blended learning might be implemented in the form of F2F learning with instructors, followed up with activities online with peers, community, or instructors. Alternatively, online learning may be dealt with first, then F2F interaction with teachers and other learners. The latter approach is often referred to as flipped teaching (Davies, Dean, & Ball, 2013; Kim, Kim, Khera, & Getman, 2014; Zainuddin & Attaran, 2016). Blended learning in the present study will be used to cover both terms.

As shown in a number of studies, blended learning has a number of advantages. Firstly, the combination of both F2F and computer-mediated instruction makes it possible to have the advantages of both methods (e.g., Lee, Lim, & Kim, 2017; Wu, Tennyson, & Hsia, 2010). In addition, it is claimed to enable students to become more engaged in the learning process (Lee et al., 2017) and promote student learning performance (Chen Hsieh, Wu, & Marek, 2017; Hung, 2015). Moreover, it increases teacher-student and student-student interaction by making

the most use of the F2F class time (Ozdamli & Asiksoy, 2016; Prefume, 2015), resulting in learner-centred instruction (e.g., Bergmann & Sams, 2012; Ozdamli & Asiksoy, 2016). In language teaching, blended learning ideally moves most grammar and vocabulary presentations outside of class, maximising class time for second language (henceforward, L2) use in meaningful contexts (Moranski & Kim, 2016). For these reasons, a number of universities in Vietnam and elsewhere have adopted BL with the aim of improving teaching and learning quality.

So far, although there has been a growing interest in research into blended learning, it is still developing and requires further studies (Smith & Hill, 2019; Zhang & Zhu, 2017). As a number of studies in BL have been carried out on student factors (Alaidarous & Madini, 2016; Owston, York, & Murtha, 2013; Smith, 2013; Vanslambrouck, Zhu, Lombaerts, Philipsen, & Tondeur, 2018; Vu, 2014), further investigation should be made into teacher, policy, and culture factors (Zhang & Zhu, 2017). My study will occupy this gap.

2.1.2 Implementing blended learning

Although BL may be beneficial to learning, there are key relevant elements to ensure its successful implementation regarding students, teachers, and institutions. Firstly, it is crucial for students to engage with the online content prior to coming to class so that teachers can build on this foundational knowledge in advancing them to a higher level in the F2F environment (Chen Hsieh et al., 2017; Herreid & Schiller, 2013; Hockly & Dudeney, 2018; Mok, 2014; Ozdamli & Asiksoy, 2016). For successful independent preparation, it is important for students to possess agency, defined as a capability to take control as well as to perceive and act upon certain learning opportunities or affordances (Liu & Chao, 2018). In other words, students should learn to adapt to learner-centred instruction (Doyle, 2008; Hockly, 2018; Johnson & Marsh, 2016; Van Sickle, 2016).

Secondly, teachers should possess knowledge of English language, of pedagogy, and of ICT (Hoang, 2015; Koehler & Mishra, 2009). Additionally, it is necessary for them to change their transmissive pedagogical beliefs into constructive ones (Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010; Ertmer, Ottenbreit-Leftwich, & Tondeur, 2014; Hoang, 2015) to create a learner-centred instruction (Barnard & Campbell,

2005; Marcum & Perry, 2015; Van Sickle, 2016). This is especially crucial for those in Asian countries where a teacher-centred approach dominates (Hoang, 2015; Wang, 2016). In addition, teachers should maximize teacher-student interaction (Van Sickle, 2016), through, for example, direct error correction, content feedback, checking for confirmation, extended wait-time, and scaffolding (Anderson, 2015). Finally, teachers ought to seek the most feasible methods to make students take responsibility for their outside-class preparation (Van Sickle, 2016).

Finally, it is crucial for institutions to provide teachers with professional development (Gynther, 2016; Hilliard, 2015; Hockly, 2018; Ocak, 2011; Philipsen, Tondeur, Pareja Roblin, Vanslambrouck, & Zhu; Picciano, Dziuban, & Graham, 2013), and for F2F and online components in a blended learning course to complement each other (Hinkelman, 2018; Hockly, 2018).

The conditions described above mean that BL needs to be very carefully planned. If they are not met, BL is unlikely to succeed satisfactorily. It is unknown to what extent Vietnamese universities are ready to meet these conditions.

The following sections will present a theoretical background on the focus of the study, oral corrective feedback, commencing firstly with discussion of accuracy and grammar teaching.

2.2 Accuracy and grammar instruction

2.2.1 Accuracy versus fluency

In order to speak a language, both accuracy and fluency are needed. Accuracy is the ability to produce accurate English in grammar, lexis, and phonology (Yuan & Ellis, 2003) while fluency is the ability to “speak smoothly, at a normal speed, without many pauses and hesitation” (DeKeyser, 2017, p. 19). Accuracy was the focus of most methods for teaching speaking from the late 1950s (e.g., Grammar-translation methods, the Direct method, and the Audio-Lingual Method) where the teachers are the centre of the teaching process. It was also central to the Presentation-Practice-Production (henceforward, PPP) model in the 1970s. However, too much attention to accuracy or forms and the dominant role of

teachers in this mode may result in students' inability to use the language naturally.

Such concerns led to accuracy losing its dominant role in the 1990s with the advent of Communicative Language Teaching (henceforward, CLT). The primary goal of this approach is to develop fluency, but not at the expense of accuracy. However, this approach, when applied in many EFL classrooms, has encountered many obstacles, such as students' inability to speak fluently (Littlewood, 2014; Liu, 2015; Sherwani & Kilic, 2017).

One way to attain accuracy and then fluency is to teach grammar, as discussed in the following subsection.

2.2.2 Grammar instruction

Focus on forms (FonFs) means a primary emphasis on linguistic structures, which are segmented into discrete items and then are presented to the learners in an isolated and decontextualized way. FonFs places a great emphasis on the role of explicit language (consciously learned knowledge) in the acquisition process. That is, explicit knowledge becomes implicit knowledge (subconsciously acquired knowledge) when learners are given abundant opportunities for meaningful practice. In contrast, Focus on form (FonF) involves drawing the learner's attention to linguistic forms briefly in primarily meaning-focused communication. FonF postulates that the best condition for language acquisition to occur is when learners pay attention to forms when those forms arise from a communicative need. In instructional practice, the representation of FonFs is Presentation, Practice, and Production (henceforward, PPP) while the realisation of FonF is Task-Based Language Teaching (henceforward, TBLT).

In TBLT, there is usually no explicit grammar instruction and teachers play a minimal role in the learning process. They focus on certain specific features that arise from the process of task transaction, such as when a learner makes an error in language production. However, TBLT has been found not to be effective in some instructional contexts like East Asia where both teachers and students are familiar with a teacher-centred approach (Ellis, 2016, 2017; Littlewood, 2014). With a growing interest in using ICT in language teaching, it is suggested that

grammar presentation may be done online, leaving class time for students to practise and use language (Hockly & Dudeney, 2018). Apparently, there is little room for explicit grammar instruction in both TBLT and blended learning. However, according to the literature review carried out to date, unlike TBLT, little is known about how teachers assist students in blended learning. My study intends to occupy this gap.

As discussed in the following section, one of the crucial roles of teachers in BL is to give feedback, including corrective feedback.

2.3 Oral Corrective feedback

Over the past decades, the role of corrective feedback in classroom contexts has been extensively discussed in SLA research and language pedagogy. As Ellis (2016) points out, “no type of focus on form has received more attention than corrective feedback” (p. 418) because it is still one of the most contentious issues. Although its crucial role in language acquisition has been confirmed, research reveals mixed results about how to make the most use of corrective feedback. There are many categorisations of corrective feedback. For instance, corrective feedback can be oral, written, or computer-mediated (Sheen, 2010); however, the present study focuses on oral corrective feedback (OCF) only. For the purpose of the study, the definition of OCF as “responses to learner utterances containing an error” (Ellis, 2006, p. 28) will be used.

This section will address fundamental issues related to OCF: (1) whether error correction should be given, (2) types of OCF, (3) types of errors, (4) timing of corrective feedback, (5) who corrects the errors (Ellis, 2009a; Hendrickson, 1978), (6) whole-class, small-group or individual feedback, (7) how teachers should use the students’ first language in giving OCF, and (8) focus-on-form episodes.

2.3.1 Should errors be corrected?

In the past, several scholars argued that corrective feedback should be avoided because it can negatively influence learners’ feelings, and as a result, their language acquisition (Krashen, 1982; Truscott, 1996, 1999). For example, Krashen (1982, p. 75) contends that with regard to spontaneous oral production,

corrective feedback is futile and harmful as it immediately results in “putting the student on the defensive”. Another instance is Truscott (1999) who strongly argued that error correction risked making learners embarrassed, frustrated, or demotivated and therefore should be abandoned. In short, according to these researchers, language can be acquired only through positive evidence, and negative evidence is unnecessary and even harmful for interlanguage development. However, a counter-argument is that negative evidence is necessary to allow learners to detect differences between their interlanguage and the target language (Lyster & Saito, 2010a). Noticing those gaps is essential to language acquisition (Long, 1996; Schmidt, 1990), and negative evidence provided via corrective feedback can assist learners to do this (Gass, 2003; Long, 2007). According to the Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985), it is vital for learners to be “pushed” or “stretched” in their production, to make their messages precise, coherent, and appropriate. Feedback, as Swain explains, can encourage learners to reformulate their utterances and produce more native-like language.

Much research confirms that corrective feedback is beneficial to the acquisition of the target language as it provides learners with both positive and negative evidence (e.g., Ammar & Spada, 2006; DeKeyser, 1993; Ellis, 2009a; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey, Oliver, & Leeman, 2003). All six meta-analyses, all published between 2006 and 2016 (Brown, 2016; Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010b; Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Russell & Spada, 2006) verify the overall effectiveness of corrective feedback. For example, Lyster et al. (2013) state that corrective feedback “plays a pivotal role in the kind of scaffolding that teachers need to provide to individual learners to promote continuing L2 growth” (p. 1). One noteworthy feature is that most of these meta-analyses investigated corrective feedback provided immediately during communicative activities. There has been a lack of further research which explores how corrective feedback is given during the pre-stage and the post-stage of the communicative activities.

2.3.2 Types of Oral Corrective Feedback

Lyster and Ranta (1997) were among the first to identify different types of oral corrective feedback, providing the basis of many subsequent taxonomies of OCF

(Lyster et al., 2013; Ranta & Lyster, 2007; Sheen & Ellis, 2011). However, the present study will employ the latest taxonomy by Lyster et al. (2013) because of its comprehensiveness. According to these authors, OCF can be divided into different types, sub-grouped into reformulations and prompts ranging along a continuum from implicit to explicit. Details of the definitions and the categories can be seen (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1. Types of OCF source

	Implicit	Explicit
Reformulations	<p>Conversational recasts</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A reformulation of a student utterance in an attempt to resolve a communication breakdown <p>Explicit correction</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Often take the form of confirmation checks 	<p>Didactic recasts</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A reformulation of a student utterance in the absence of a communication problem <p>Explicit correction</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A reformulation of a student utterance plus a clear indication of an error <p>Explicit correction with meta linguistic explanation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In addition to signalling an error and providing the correct form, there is also a metalinguistic comment
	Prompts	<p>Repetition</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A verbatim repetition of a student utterance, often with adjusted intonation to highlight the error <p>Clarification request</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A phrase, such as ‘Pardon?’ and ‘I don’t understand’ following a student utterance to indirectly signal an error

Lyster et al. (2013, p. 4) Reprinted with permission

Among many types of OCF types, recasts have received the most attention as this type was found to be the most often used strategy by teachers in both laboratory and classroom settings (see Brown, 2016; Lyster et al., 2013). However, according to these authors, despite their higher frequency, implicit types of OCF, such as recasts, generate lower rates of repair in learners. Lyster (1998a) was the first to explore the nature of recasts. He pointed out that they are ambiguous and less effective in leading to learner uptake because of the similar ways in which teachers used recasts. This point has also been made by Gass (2015) as well as Nicholas, Lightbown, and Spada (2001). In addition, Lyster et al. (2013) pointed out that while recasts only provide positive evidence, prompts both provide negative evidence and withhold positive evidence, and this variety adds to the effectiveness of prompts. Additionally, the process of being pushed for self-repair or self-correction in prompts is said to assist learners to reanalyse what has already been learned and to restructure their interlanguage (Lyster, 2015). As a

result, in many studies, prompts were found to be more effective than recasts, especially in classroom settings (e.g., Ammar & Spada, 2006; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Yang & Lyster, 2010).

Apart from the nature of the feedback itself, the degree of effectiveness of OCF types varies according to learners, particularly their cognitive factors, such as prior knowledge (see Lyster et al., 2013). At the cognitive level, prompts are shown to be more effective than recasts with adult EFL students (Ellis, 2007; Yang & Lyster, 2010) and with lower-level students (Ammar & Spada, 2006). In terms of prior knowledge, according to Lyster et al. (2013), input-based corrective feedback, such as metalinguistic information or explicit correction is more appropriate to a language item relatively new to a learner as teachers may provide extra information on the nature of errors. However, prompts are a better option if the learners have some prior knowledge (see Lyster et al., 2013). It is suggested that the choice of OCF types depends on teachers' pedagogical purposes. Recasts would be the best option if the teachers' purpose is to move the lesson forward and not to interrupt the flow of communication (Lyster, 1998a; Lyster et al., 2013). However, if the teachers' aim is to elicit student correction, prompts are more appropriate strategies (Lyster & Saito, 2010b; Lyster et al., 2013).

In summary, research has been inconclusive about which types of OCF are best overall because of different variables affecting their effectiveness, such as types of errors, the timing, the instructional setting, the use of the first language (henceforward, L1), or teachers, as discussed in the following sections.

2.3.3 Types of errors

A language error is defined as “an unsuccessful bit of language” (James, 1998, p. 1). Errors made by L2 learners can be classified into several types, such as performance errors (mistakes) and competence errors. My study will focus on OCF with regard to both performance and competence errors, with the terms *mistakes* and *errors* here used interchangeably. For the purpose of the present study, the following review is mainly about pronunciation errors.

There are some noticeable findings related to correction of pronunciation errors. The first one is which types of OCF tend to be used with pronunciation errors.

Several studies (Lyster, 1998b; Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000; Saito & Lyster, 2012a, 2012b) revealed that recasts were the most common type of feedback with pronunciation errors.

The second finding is which aspects of pronunciation have more impact on the improvement of intelligibility of L2 pronunciation: segmentals or suprasegmentals (Derwing & Munro, 2005; Gilakjani, 2017). While both play an important role in improving intelligibility, suprasegmentals appear to have the greater impact (e.g., Field, 2005; Hahn, 2004).

The final one is which type of instruction provides most facilitation to the error treatment of pronunciation errors. Research findings have revealed mixed results. For example, Saito and Lyster (2012a) demonstrated that form-focused instruction together with recasts is beneficial for Japanese learners of English. Lee and Lyster (2016) revealed that the Korean learners receiving instruction plus immediate feedback (mainly repetition and explicit correction) gained more than those who were given instruction only. However, Saito and Wu (2014) found that their Cantonese L1 learners did not benefit much from a combination of form-focused instruction and recasts. Such mixed results suggests further research be done in an environment where the students do not receive any prior instruction on pronunciation but only corrective feedback, as is the case in the present study.

In short, research on the treatment of pronunciation errors is scant and reveals mixed results. Several key pedagogical recommendations have been made in the literature. Firstly, to deal with pronunciation errors, teachers should provide immediate feedback (Lee & Lyster, 2016; Saito & Lyster, 2012a, 2012b). Secondly, a proactive approach, that is, pronunciation activities to treat the pronunciation difficulties explicitly, rather than just a reactive approach, should be implemented on challenging features of L2 pronunciation (Foote, Trofimovich, Collins, & Urzúa, 2016). If pronunciation errors are treated via corrective feedback only, it is important to note that corrective feedback appears not to be advantageous to learners with limited L2 phonetic knowledge (Gooch, Saito, & Lyster, 2016). Thirdly, more attention should be paid to suprasegmentals rather than segmentals to attain intelligibility (Field, 2005; Hahn, 2004).

2.3.4 Timing of corrective feedback

Terminology has varied regarding the timing of feedback. The current study adopts the most frequently used terms, namely immediate and delayed feedback (Quin, 2014). In this study, immediate OCF refers to either responses to errors that the students make in teacher-student interaction during the pre-task or to the errors that students commit in student-student interaction while carrying out a task. Delayed corrective feedback refers to feedback after the task has been carried out.

The question of when learners' errors should be corrected was identified by Hendrickson (1978) as one of the most fundamental issues. Subsequently, extensive research has focused on immediate corrective feedback. However, there has been little research on delayed feedback. With respect to theoretical stances, immediate feedback and delayed feedback receive support from different theories. There is support from the Interaction Hypothesis, Transfer-Appropriate Processing, and Skill-Acquisition Theory for the ideas that immediate correction is facilitative to the development of L2 interlanguage, procedural knowledge, and linguistic competence (e.g. implicit knowledge). Via a large amount of practice, procedural knowledge can be fully acquired and automatised, making the behaviour completely fluent and spontaneous (DeKeyser, 2015).

By contrast, delayed feedback receives support in theories in cognitive psychology, namely preparatory attention and memory theory, and reactivation and reconsolidation theory (see Quin, 2014). For example, according to preparatory attention and memory theory, delayed feedback is more favourable as it helps learners to focus solely on meaning while completing tasks, especially difficult ones. In addition, delayed feedback is useful to the development of linguistic knowledge (e.g., explicit knowledge) because it helps to provide the information that learners have realised they need while performing these tasks. Quin (2014) argued that both immediate and delayed feedback can bring about the retrieval and reconsolidation of linguistic forms but delayed OCF is better at doing so because it allows more time for both retrieval and reconsolidation to occur. Overall, based on the mentioned theories in cognitive psychology, delayed corrective feedback helps learners with linguistic knowledge (e.g., explicit

knowledge). Explicit/declarative knowledge, thanks to deliberate practice, may impact on the acquisition of the implicit/procedural knowledge (DeKeyser, 2015; Suzuki & DeKeyser, 2017; VanPatten & Benati, 2010).

Immediate feedback has been investigated extensively while delayed corrective feedback receives scant attention (Li, 2018; Quin, 2014) (see Appendix 4 for a summary of empirical studies of immediate and delayed corrective feedback). The issues of OCF in a task can be broken down into pre-task, while-task and post-task stages, which can be summarised as in Table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2: FonF during pre-task, main task and post-task

Task stages	Possible activities	FonF
Pre-task	<i>Strategic planning:</i> (Planning what to say or write but without the opportunity to rehearse the complete task)	T highlights focal linguistic forms; models the task with Ss; provides audio or video recordings of fluent speakers doing the task (Willis, 1996)
	<i>Rehearsal planning:</i> (Planning takes the form of an opportunity to perform the complete task once before performing it a second time)	T allows Ss opportunity to carry out the complete task (Ellis, 2005)
Main task	<i>Repeated performance</i>	T provides immediate corrective feedback (Ellis, 2016)
Post-task	(1) Ss repeat the same or similar task;	T might provide both pre-emptive and reactive FonF (Ellis, 2016) when necessary
	(2) Ss may reflect on how they performed the task;	T might ask Ss to make an oral presentation (Willis, 1996)
	(3) Ss may focus on linguistic forms that seemed challenging during the main task performance by reviewing errors, performing consciousness raising tasks, or production-practice and noticing activities (Ellis, 2003, pp. 258-262)	T may highlight errors committed during the main task (Ellis, 2003)

*T: the teacher; Ss: students

There are four issues to be addressed: (1) Does immediate feedback occur in pre-task strategic planning? (2) Do teachers provide corrective feedback in rehearsal planning (the first performance)? (3) Should teachers correct students when the student performance is done in public? and (4) What are the effects of delayed corrective feedback? The following paragraphs will deal with these issues.

The first issue is whether teachers correct students' errors during strategic planning, defined as outlining of the task, topic exploration or deliberation on focal words and phrases. Many studies (Baleghizadeh & Shahri, 2017; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Kawauchi, 2005; Li & Fu, 2016; Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008; Ortega, 1999; Park, 2010; Sangarun, 2005; Yuan & Ellis, 2003) investigated the effects of strategic planning on focus on form in task-based performance among

students. However, none of the studies dealt with the interaction between teachers and students. In the preparation phases for the targeted linguistics elements for the task, students may commit some errors, prompting teacher error correction, or teachers may pre-empt likely student errors. However, extensive research in TBLT has focused almost entirely on immediate correction within task, and little has been done to address reactive and pre-emptive FonF in the strategic planning phase. Such a gap may be due to the fact that most of the studies were experimental and quasi-experimental, rather than observational in actual classrooms. Consequently, they do not account for different variables in the pre-task stages, such as teachers, types of strategies to draw learners to forms, and the settings in which forms are attended (e.g., in pairs or groups). This is a matter that the present study will explore.

The second issue is whether teachers should provide corrective feedback during the rehearsal stage, which is defined as an opportunity to allow students to perform the complete task once before performing it a second time. According to the model of speech production by Levelt (1989), task repetition enables learners to conceptualise the content and to choose the necessary language, assisting learners to focus more on form in the repeat performance. Several empirical studies found that rehearsal planning increases complexity and fluency of L2 oral production (Ahmadian & Tavakoli, 2011; Bygate, 1996, 2001; Fukuta, 2016; Gass, Mackey, Alvarez-Torres, & Fernández-García, 1999). However, none of these studies discussed the role of teachers during the rehearsal planning. Several researchers point out that providing feedback for (at least) their first performance is important because students can then improve their subsequent performance (Ellis, 2009b; Sheppard, 2006; van de Guchte, Braaksma, Rijlaarsdam, & Bimmel, 2016). Therefore, it can be inferred that if there is no corrective feedback in the main task stage and no task repetition in the post-task, teachers should provide feedback during the rehearsal planning. Further studies are needed to uncover whether they should provide error correction during such rehearsal. This issue is investigated in the study.

The third issue is whether teachers should correct students immediately when they perform the task in public. Several studies show that public performance often leads to learner anxiety (e.g., Horwitz, 1995; Oxford, 1999; Pham, 2017; Young,

1999). Furthermore, speaking in a foreign language in front of the classmate can be intimidating (Aida, 1994; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). Several studies have reported that learners felt anxious when being corrected in public (Mak, 2011; Rassaei, 2015), and those who were corrected immediately experienced more anxiety than those who received delayed feedback (Rahimi & Dastjerdi, 2012; Shabani & Safari, 2016). From these studies, it appears that delayed correction is preferred over immediate feedback, concerning students' emotions in their performance, particularly in public settings. However, this conclusion is far from conclusive because of such limited numbers. Therefore, it is still worthwhile to uncover whether corrective feedback on public performance should be given immediately or delayed. This is another issue that the present study will address.

The next issue concerns the effects of delayed correction. Not many studies have been conducted about delayed feedback, and most of them are experimental (Li, Zhu, & Ellis, 2016; Nakata, 2015; Quin, 2014; Rahimi & Dastjerdi, 2012; Shabani & Safari, 2016; Siyyari, 2005; Varnosfadrani, 2006). Some experimental studies found no difference in their effect on learning (Nakata, 2015; Quin, 2014; Siyyari, 2005; Varnosfadrani, 2006). Quin (2014) investigated how the timing of corrective feedback on oral production affects L2 learning and learners' reaction to corrective feedback and found that amending the timing of OCF did not affect L2 development distinctively. Li et al. (2016) demonstrated that both immediate and delayed feedback improved learning of the English past passive construction; however, there was some evidence showing the superiority of immediate feedback for those learners that had some prior knowledge of the target structure. I have located only one observational study, conducted by Rolin-Ianziti (2010) that explored delayed feedback.

Rolin-Ianziti (2010) described how teachers gave delayed feedback, revealing that there were two approaches that the teachers adopted. In the first approach, the teacher quoted the wrong form and provided the correct form with little or no student participation. In the second approach, the teachers used several initiators, namely category questions, designedly incomplete utterances, or requests to quote from the role-play in the following turn to prompt students' self-correction. Not explored were the reasons underlying the teachers' practices and description of

how the teachers elicited peer correction in the whole class setting. These issues are to be probed in the present study.

Overall, the findings to date on delayed feedback reveal mixed results, and due to the limited number of studies, the question is still open as to whether immediate or delayed feedback is more effective.

The final issue is whether teachers should repeat a task after delayed correction. It is advisable that learners should be given an opportunity to apply the just-received feedback (Sheppard, 2006; van de Guchte et al., 2016). If class time allows, it is ideal for students to receive such opportunity. In addition, delayed feedback only helps learners to develop explicit rather than implicit knowledge (Spada, Jessop, Tomita, Suzuki, & Valeo, 2014; Spada & Lightbown, 2008), and in order for acquisition occur, extensive repetition is needed (Ellis, 2009b). Task repetition, therefore, is one option for minimising the flaws of delayed feedback (Li, 2018). However, there are two noteworthy issues related to repeating a task. Firstly, “task repetition has an effect on interaction when it involves the same task but not when it involves a different task of the same type” (Ellis, 2003, p. 97). Secondly, it is challenging to keep students motivated and engaged in repetitions of the same task (Kim, 2013; Kim & Tracy-Ventura, 2013). Little is known about whether, since class time is limited, teachers should assign students to repeat tasks at home, or how both the teachers and the students implement it in actual classrooms. The present study can provide some insight into this under-explored area.

2.3.5 Who corrects the errors

There are three positions with respect to the question of who to correct the errors, namely teacher correction, self-correction, and peer correction (Chunhong & Griffiths, 2012).

Teacher correction, self-correction and peer correction all have advantages and disadvantages. While the quality of teacher correction is higher than peer correction (Loewen & Sato, 2018), it might take away a chance for students’ real understanding of why mistakes are made or deprive students of opportunities for self-correction. Self-correction is advantageous for students’ interlanguage development because they are pushed to produce modified output (Ammar &

Spada, 2006; Ellis, 2007; Lyster, 2004; Yang & Lyster, 2010). In addition, self-correction can encourage students to be more self-critical, therefore, promoting autonomy (Yuan & Lee, 2014). However, it is challenging for several students to self-correct because they lack confidence (Chunhong & Griffiths, 2012), and it might also be overly time-consuming (Pawlak, 2014). Moreover, students need to have the necessary linguistic knowledge to self-identify the error and correct it (Sheen & Ellis, 2011).

Furthermore, it is argued that peer correction facilitates L2 learning (Fujii, Ziegler, & Mackey, 2016; Sato, 2017; Sato & Ballinger, 2012). Nevertheless, students may find it too difficult to peer correct because they have limited linguistic capability (Chunhong & Griffiths, 2012; Lyster et al., 2013). Or peer corrective feedback can be a socially unacceptable behaviour from the perspectives of both providers and receivers (Lyster et al., 2013).

As student correction is advantageous to L2 acquisition, it is crucial for teachers to promote it in classrooms. However, interactions in the classroom are largely controlled by teachers with a typical exchange structure: teacher initiation (I), learner response (R), and teacher feedback (F) (henceforward, IRF) (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). The practice of adhering too closely to this exchange structure has been criticised as unproductive as it limits student contribution, thereby limiting the development of oral skills (van Lier, 2014; Waring, 2011). To encourage students to self-correct, it is vital for teachers to minimise teacher-correction discourse and maximise learner-correction discourse in every IRF exchange.

There are various ways in which teachers can promote student correction, within IRF exchange. Firstly, they could use prompts instead of reformulations (Lyster et al., 2013). Secondly, they could use elicitation techniques, such as category/alternative questions or designedly incomplete utterances (Rolin-Ianziti, 2010). Moreover, teachers should extend wait time, ranging from three to five seconds (e.g., Nunan, 1999; Rowe, 1974; Walsh & Li, 2013; White & Lightbrown, 1984).

2.3.6 Whole-class, small-group or individual OCF

OCF can be provided in three participation structures (Nassaji, 2013): given to the whole class, in a small group of three or four students at a table, and in a one-to-one interaction between the teacher and a student.

Each of these structures has benefits and drawbacks. Teacher-fronted OCF is advantageous to other learners if it is given immediately (Chunhong & Griffiths, 2012) because learners gain benefits from vicarious learning experiences (Bandura, 1977). The underpinning idea of vicarious learning is learners not only learn by observing other learners, but will actively want to do so (Mayes, Dineen, McKendree, & Lee, 2002). In the present study, hearing others (teachers and peers) correcting an error may improve students' interlanguage as well as motivate them to self-correct. However, in large classes, many students may not be able to hear either the original oral mistake or a correction made by a peer.

Small-group OCF might be less face-threatening than the former type because the teacher is like a participant rather than an authority (Nassaji, 2013), and the number of students who can hear the feedback is smaller. Therefore, students might feel less intimidated and be more likely to peer correct if being prompted by teachers. One-to-one OCF is far less face-threatening than the other types and is beneficial to the student, who can then focus on the error he/she just committed (Han, 2002; Nassaji, 2013). However, as Han (2002) notes, private or individual feedback can be time-consuming, and these constraints may preclude much use, especially in large-size classes.

It remains premature to reach conclusions about the effectiveness of OCF given these three types of setting since there is a relative scarcity of studies. This suggests further research should be done along this line of inquiry, which the present study intends to do.

2.3.7 Use of L1 in giving OCF

There is an on-going debate about the role of students' first language (L1) in EFL classrooms. Compared with the area of grammar teaching, less attention has been paid to the use of L1 in corrective feedback studies. So far, only one experimental

study, Karagianni (2016), compared the effects of corrective feedback in L1 and L2 on learners' grammatical development. One observational study - Rolin-Ianziti (2010) - mentioned the use of L1 in correcting L2 errors. In her study, L1 was used to: (1) announce a correction or a series of corrections, (2) introduce a quotation of the utterance containing the error, (3) ask the students to repeat the corrected version, (4) encourage the students to quote the errors, and (5) re-initiate the repair. Otherwise, little is known about the use of L1 in error correction or the underlying reasons for such use. The present study can provide some insight into this less-explored area.

2.3.8 Focus-on-form episodes

The unit of analysis in the present study is the focus-on-form episode (FFE) which Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen (2001) use in reference to all discourse focusing on a particular linguistic item. However, only three of these discourse features are relevant to OCF in the present study: type, linguistic focus, and uptake, as presented in the following table:

Table 2.3: The features of focus-on-form episodes

Characteristic	Definition	Categories
Type	When the FFE is instigated	<i>Reactive, Pre-emptive</i>
Linguistic focus	Aspect of language targeted in the FFE	<i>Grammar, Vocabulary, Pronunciation</i>
Uptake	Student response to feedback	<i>Uptake: Student produces response</i> <i>No Uptake: Student does not respond</i> <i>No opportunity: Student does not have a chance to respond</i>

(Akiyama, 2014; Ellis et al., 2001)

Uptake has been defined as “a student’s utterance that immediately follows the teacher’s feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher’s intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student’s initial utterance” (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 49). It is composed of student utterances that are still in need of repair or have been successfully repaired (Lyster, 2015). Where further repair is needed, utterances include “simple acknowledgement, such as *yes*, hesitations, off-target responses, partial repair, and occurrences of either the same or a different error” (Lyster, 2015, p. 218). In the case of successful repair, utterances are the correct reformulation of an error. Uptake plays an important role because it indicates students’ attempts to use forms that they have either

previously used incorrectly or received information about. Therefore, it is one form of pushed output (Swain, 1985) and “*facilitative of acquisition*” (italics in original) (Ellis et al., 2001, p. 287). If uptake is absent, there may be no conditions needed for acquisition to take place.

In addition, it merits mentioning the conditions in which uptake may occur or not. Loewen and Sato (2018) point out that learner uptake occurs more frequently after output-prompting types (such as clarification request, repetition, elicitation, metalinguistic clue, and paralinguistic signal) than others, such as recasts. This is because in the case of recasts, student repetition of the teachers’ correction does not mean they have noticed or understood their error (Gass, 2015; Yoshida, 2010). In addition, uptake may not occur in the whole-class interaction because this type of setting might take away the opportunity for students to respond to the feedback (Oliver, 2000).

In summary, the effectiveness of OCF is closely associated with many factors like types of errors committed, error correction strategies, the timing of feedback, the setting of feedback, who corrects the error, and the use of L1.

However, the effectiveness of OCF is also influenced by teacher variables, the most noticeable feature of which is teacher cognition as this acts as an agent affecting the decision to provide OCF in the classroom. A discussion of this variable will be presented in the following section.

2.4 Teachers’ cognition

2.4.1 Definition

Academic interest in teacher cognition started to develop rapidly in the 1970s and became an established research area in language education in the mid to late 1990s. In the present study, it is defined as “what teachers know, believe and think” (Borg, 2003, p. 81). This term was chosen because it is an overarching term, referring to all the psychological constructs of the teachers’ mental lives, such as knowledge, beliefs, attitude, assumptions, perception and rationale, identities and emotions (Borg, 2003, 2006, 2012). Although teacher cognition is unobservable, such constructs enable “us to peer into the hidden side of teachers’

mental lives” (Johnson, 2018, p. 262). Among these constructs, knowledge and beliefs are the most prominent terms.

Knowledge can be defined as “a set of warranted propositions held by a community of experts” (Murrell & Foster, 2003, pp. 3-4). In BL, teachers’ knowledge consists of technological knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge (Mishra & Koehler, 2006). These types of knowledge all overlap, making TPACK (Mishra & Koehler, 2006), which stands for technical pedagogical and content knowledge. TPACK highlights that teachers’ content knowledge and pedagogical competencies are equally as important as the technology capabilities. However, as the focus of this study is an F2F environment, the former two components will be discussed in more detail.

Language teachers’ content knowledge refers to declarative knowledge of English syntactical, phonological, and lexicological systems, as well as having sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). Of these, with the focus of the study on teacher-student interaction, it is especially important for teachers to possess strategic competence, encompassing strategies employed for successful communication, such as how to initiate, terminate, maintain, and repair a dialogue (Canh & Renandya, 2017).

Pedagogical knowledge is a teacher’s accumulated knowledge about the teaching act (e.g., its goals, procedures, and strategies) that serves as the basis for his or her classroom behaviour and activities (Gatbonton, 2000). In language teaching, it is similar to the procedural knowledge a teacher has formed from experiences of teaching and learning languages (Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004). The overlapping of these two types of knowledge makes pedagogical content knowledge (PCK).

Beliefs are “propositions that are accepted as true by the individual holding the beliefs, but they do not require epistemic warrant” (Murrell & Foster, 2003, pp. 3-4). In this study, they are understood and defined as articulated beliefs of “what should be done” or “should be the case” (Basturkmen et al., 2004, p. 244). For the purpose of this study, beliefs are also interpreted in line with assumptions, which are conceptions that teachers accept as true without proof (Woods, 1996).

However, teachers’ assumptions of students’ personality (Pham, 2004) and their

inability to identify non-major English students' motivation (Ngo, Spooner-Lane, & Mergler, 2017) may constrain their effective practices and students' language proficiency.

In short, teacher cognition is a complex system, but it is important to explore this system because teachers are “active, thinking decision-makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs” (Borg, 2003, p. 81). To do this, Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015, p. 436) propose for language teacher cognition research to “embrace the complexity of teachers' inner lives in the context of their activities” and to understand “*ecologies of language teachers' inner lives*” (italics in original). By ecologies, they mean the relationship between “what language teachers do, why they do it, and how this may impact how their students learn” (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, p. 436). Following the proposal by Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015), the current study seeks the understanding of teachers' PCK, beliefs, and assumptions in the teachers' cognitive systems with respect to OCF, their influences on the teachers' practices, as well as the impact of these elements on the students' outcomes.

2.4.2 Sources of teacher cognition

Teacher cognition is influenced by different sources. The primary influential factor is their schooling or early language learning experiences (e.g., Barnard & Burns, 2012; Borg, 2006; Erkmen, 2014). For instance, the observation of their own teachers in the past influences their initial conceptualisations on how English is taught (Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017). Furthermore, learning experiences as learners also shape the way teachers correct student error (Numrich, 1996).

Another influencing factor is professional coursework (Borg, 2006). Some studies show that in-service education has positive impact on teachers' beliefs (Borg, 2011; Freeman, 1993; Lamie, 2004; Scott & Rodgers, 1995). Borg (2011) found that the in-service education programme provided teachers opportunities to “think more explicitly about, become aware of, and articulate their beliefs, to extend and consolidate beliefs they were initially-and sometimes tacitly-positively disposed to” (p. 370).

In addition, teacher cognition is formed through classroom practice (e.g., Borg, 2006; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017). For instance, according to Öztürk and Gürbüz (2017), classroom experience affects teachers' cognition in positive ways, such as increasing their confidence while it may negatively impact on their cognition like making the teaching predictable and routine.

Another influential factor is the institutional context where there are experienced or respected colleagues (Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017; Senior, 2006) or "other teachers in a wider community of practice" (Barnard & Burns, 2012, p. 3). This means that an understanding of teachers' beliefs requires a comprehensive view of a teacher's language learning experiences, professional coursework, teaching experiences, and contextual factors.

2.4.3 Relationship between teacher cognition and practice

It is widely known language teachers' practices do not always reflect stated beliefs (Barnard & Burns, 2012; Basturkmen et al., 2004; Borg, 2003, 2006, 2012; Cross, 2010). For instance, according to Barnard and Burns (2012), "although teachers may have strongly held beliefs, they do not always put these into practice" (p. 3).

Various reasons for the divergences of beliefs and practices have been suggested. For example, the inconsistencies can be explained in terms of the employment of different types of knowledge in various situations (Basturkmen et al., 2004). Another reason may be the existence of cognitive dissonance within multiple beliefs system. According to Basturkmen (2012), "beliefs in one system, such as beliefs about the use of the target language in the classroom, may, for example, periodically conflict with beliefs in another system, such as beliefs about student factors" (p. 284). Contextual factors are also very influential, for example, prescribed curriculum, time constraints, and high-stakes examinations (Phipps & Borg, 2009). The present study precisely focuses on exploring the consistency and inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and practices and uncovering the influencing factors of these relationships.

2.4.4 Emotion and cognition

To fully understand cognition, it is crucial to understand emotion and acknowledge the dialectic unity between the two (Johnson & Worden, 2014). Emotions and cognition are intrinsically and interactively associated (Golombek & Doran, 2014; Hagenauer, Hascher, & Volet, 2015; Nagamine, Fujieda, & Iida, 2018) and inseparable (Imai, 2010; Swain, 2013). In his argument for the inseparability of mind and body, thought and emotion, Vygotsky (1986) claimed that, “behind every thought there is an affective-volitional tendency, which holds the answer to the last ‘why’ in the analysis of thinking. A true and full understanding of another’s thought is possible only when we understand its affective-volitional basis” (p. 252).

Teaching is often regarded as a rational activity (Schutz & Zembylas, 2009) while it is also an emotional endeavour (Hargreaves, 1998, 2000), and teachers’ emotion correlates with the quality of teaching (Hagenauer et al., 2015). Emotions may be positive, such as desire (Lemke, 2008) or empathy, trust, and confidence (Li, 2012). They can be negative, such as frustration (Ferris, 2014; Nagamine, 2018), uncertainty (Ferris, 2014; Song, 2016), or fear (Lemke, 2008). An emerging issue is what forms teachers’ emotions. According to Gu and Day (2014), among the many people teachers interact with, interactions with the students are the most influential source of their positive or negative emotions (Hagenauer et al., 2015). Similarly, Zembylas (2007) points out that after interacting with a group of students for a certain period of time, teachers may accumulate their interacting experiences and develop their understanding of the students’ feelings in specific teaching situations. This knowledge is named *relational emotional knowledge*, and it also influences teachers’ behaviours (Zembylas, 2007).

Teacher emotions strongly influence how they teach and accordingly how students learn (Agudo, 2018; Reis, 2015). As cognition and emotions cannot be treated separately, an investigation of language teachers’ cognition and practice, therefore, needs to take into consideration their emotion, a point also put forward by Borg (2012).

There have been a growing number of studies examining the role of teachers’ emotions (Agudo, 2018; Borg, 2015). However, language teacher emotions have

received scarce attention (Agudo, 2018; Barcelos, 2015; Benesch, 2016; Swain, 2013), and future studies should be directed toward the analysis of the triggers for teacher emotions (Agudo & Azzaro, 2018; Saric, 2015). In addition, further research can focus on questions, such as “What do teachers believe about their students’ emotions? How do these beliefs affect how they deal with their own emotions and their students’ emotions in the classroom?” (Barcelos & Ruohotie-Lyhty, 2018, p. 120). The present study intends to address these questions.

Research into teacher cognition has expanded vastly into many other aspects apart from the domains pointed out by Borg (2006, 2011, 2012). For the purpose of the study, a more detailed discussion of studies related to teacher cognition about OCF will be presented in the next section.

2.4.5 Empirical studies about teacher cognition about OCF

This section is a review of empirical studies on teacher cognition about OCF over the past 10 years. For convenience, they will be presented in Table 2.4, and discussed below under the following themes: geographical focus, participants, research foci, themes of the main findings, and research methods.

Table 2.4: Empirical studies of teacher cognition and practice about OCF

Source	Focus	Methods	Participants
Agudo (2014)	EFL student teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback	Questionnaire	55 EFL student teachers, Spain
Ahangari and Amirzadeh (2011)	Teachers' use of spoken corrective feedback to learners at different levels of proficiency	Classroom recording, a TOEFL Proficiency test	20 elementary, 20 intermediate, and 20 advanced students, two EFL university teachers, Iran
Fajriah (2018)	Students and teachers' perceptions of OCF in speaking class	Interview, Questionnaire	1 teacher of state vocational school, 5 students, Indonesia
Farahani and Salajegheh (2015)	Teachers' and learners' perspectives of oral error correction	Questionnaire	31 institute EFL teachers; 429 learners, Iran
Firwana (2011)	Teachers' and students' attitudes toward oral errors and their correction	Interview, Questionnaire	102 EFL secondary school teachers and 397 students, Palestine
Garcia-Ponce, Mora-Pablo, Crawford Lewis, and Lengeling (2017)	Effects of teachers' and learners' beliefs on negotiation for meaning and negative feedback in EFL classrooms	Interview, classroom interaction recordings, learner focus groups	63 learners and 3 teachers at a university, Mexico
Gómez Argüelles, Hernández Méndez, and Perales Escudero (2019)	EFL teachers' attitudes towards OCCF	Interview	6 university instructors, Mexico
Junqueira and Kim	Novice and experienced	Interview, Classroom	2 ESL teachers at a

(2013)	teachers' beliefs, corrective feedback	observation, Stimulated recall	university, the USA,
Kaivanpanah, Alavi, and Sepehrinia (2015)	Preferences for interactional feedback	Interview, Questionnaire	200 EFL learners, twenty-five teachers, in language institutes, Iran
Kamiya (2016)	Teachers' beliefs, practices, OCF	Interview, Classroom observation	4 teachers, an intensive English programme, the USA
Kartchava, Gatbonton, Ammar, and Trofimovich (2018)	Teachers' pedagogical beliefs about OCF and their actual teaching practices	Questionnaire, Classroom observation	99 ESL student teachers, Canada
Lee (2013)	Teacher and student preferences of corrective feedback and learner repair	Interview, Questionnaire, Classroom observation	60 ESL graduate students, 60 students from diverse countries, the USA
Méndez and Cruz (2012)	University teachers' perceptions about OCF and practice	Interview, Questionnaire	15 EFL teachers, five of which interviewed, Mexico
Mori (2011)	Teacher cognition, corrective feedback	Interview, Classroom observation, Interview following up a letter, Documents	2 teachers, in a language institute, Japan
Motlagh (2015)	Teachers' preferences for corrective feedback types	Questionnaire	62 EFL teachers, in language institutes, Iran
Ölmezer-Öztürk (2016)	Beliefs and practices of Turkish EFL teachers regarding OCF	Interview, Questionnaire, Classroom observation	8 EFL university instructors, Turkey
Ozmen and Aydın (2015)	Teachers' beliefs about OCF	Questionnaire, Situations for error correction	98 students teacher, 12 of them chosen for the interview, Turkey
Öztürk (2016)	The use of oral corrective feedback in Turkish EFL classrooms	Stimulated recalls, Classroom observation	Four EFL university teachers, Turkey
Pouriran and Mukundan (2012)	Experienced and Novice Teachers in Incidental Focus on Form techniques	Audio/video-recorded lessons	Six EFL teachers, in a private language school, Iran
Rahimi and Zhang (2015)	the differences between novice and experienced teachers' cognition about corrective feedback	Interview, Questionnaire	20 novice and 20 experienced teachers, in private language schools, Iran
Roothoof and Breeze (2016)	EFL teachers and students' attitudes, OCF	Questionnaire	395 students and 46 EFL teachers at secondary schools and private language academies, Spain
Roothoof (2014)	OCF, teachers' beliefs and practices	Questionnaire, Classroom observation	10 EFL teachers from both schools and university language institutes, Spain
Sepehrinia and Mehdizadeh (2018)	Teachers' concerns about OCF	Interview, Classroom observation	37 teachers, seven of whom were observed, in a private institute, Iran
Tomczyk (2013)	Students and teachers' perceptions of oral errors and their corrective feedback	Questionnaire	43 secondary school teachers and 250 learners of English as a foreign language, Poland
Ügü, Sari, and Griffiths (2013)	Teachers' perspectives of error correction	Interview, Questionnaire	51 tertiary EFL non-native teachers, Turkey
Uysal and Aydın (2017)	Foreign language teachers' perception, error correction in speaking classes	Interview, Questionnaire, Reflections, Essay papers	15 EFL instructors in a state university, Turkey

Geographically, twenty-six empirical studies have been located, 16 outside Asia and 10 within Asia. Outside Asia, these studies appear largely confined to America (7) and Europe (9). In America, there have been three studies in the

USA, three in Mexico, and one in Canada. In Europe, four studies were found from Turkey, three from Spain, and one from Poland. Within Asia, most of the studies were conducted in Iran (7), Indonesia (1), Japan (1), and Palestine (1). No studies were found to have been conducted in Vietnam about teacher cognition about OCF.

In terms of the participants, more studies on teacher cognition about OCF have been carried out among in-service teachers than pre-service instructors. Also, the review reveals a bigger number of studies on participants at tertiary level than at secondary, primary, or early childhood education.

In terms of research foci, nearly half of the studies (12 out of 26) compared students and teachers' perceptions/preferences of OCF (e.g., Farahani & Salajegheh, 2015; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Lee, 2013; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016; Tomczyk, 2013). Other studies focus on teachers' beliefs (Agudo, 2014; Motlagh, 2015; Ozmen & Aydin, 2015; Uysal & Aydin, 2017), or the relationship between experiences, cognition, and practice (Pouriran & Mukundan, 2012; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015), or the relationship between training, beliefs, and practices (Junqueira & Kim, 2013). There have been several studies investigating the relationship between beliefs and practices (e.g., Kamiya, 2016; Kartchava et al., 2018; Roothoof, 2014).

Based on the findings of the studies in the above table, the following themes, relevant to the purpose of the present study, are identified: (1) teacher cognition about providing OCF, (2) teachers' practices, (3) mismatches between beliefs and practices, (4) factors influencing teachers' beliefs and practices, and (5) teachers' emotions. The first category is subdivided into (a) whether error correction should be done, (b) error correction strategies, (c) who corrects the errors, (d) when to correct the error, (e) setting of the error correction (private, individual, and public), and (f) the use of L1.

First, regarding the first theme, *teacher cognition about providing OCF*, it has been found that most teachers thought that correcting students' errors is effective and beneficial (Fajriah, 2018; Garcia-Ponce et al., 2017; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018; Tomczyk, 2013; Uysal & Aydin, 2017).

Nevertheless, some teachers reported not thinking OCF is effective (Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016).

In terms of error correction *strategies*, most teachers were found to favour recasts (Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Kamiya, 2016; Lee, 2013; Roothoof, 2014; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018) because they believed that recasts are unobtrusive, thereby not making learners embarrassed, undermining their self-confidence, or threatening their motivation to communicate. There are several factors influencing teachers' choices for OCF techniques. Also, for example, teachers said that learners' level of proficiency affected their frequency of the use of OCF techniques (Méndez & Cruz, 2012; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018), that is to say, advanced learners should be given more feedback because they are emotionally more flexible and more intrinsically motivated to learn (Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018). Furthermore, teachers' choice of OCF techniques is affected by types of errors committed. For instance, in Ozmen and Aydin (2015)'s study, the majority of teachers were reported to opt for explicit correction if the error was on pronunciation.

With regard to *timing* of OCF, several studies (Agudo, 2014; Firwana, 2011; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Méndez & Cruz, 2012; Ozmen & Aydın, 2015; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Tomczyk, 2013) have investigated this aspect. In some studies (Firwana, 2011; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015), most teachers reported that they preferred to provide immediate correction after the learners' erroneous utterances. By contrast, according to Ozmen and Aydin (2015), Rahimi and Zhang (2015), and Tomczyk (2013), the majority of the teachers reported favouring delayed correction, explaining that they did not want to demotivate their learners. By contrast, most of the teachers in Méndez and Cruz (2012)'s study preferred to provide the whole class with corrective feedback at the end of the class time.

Very few studies have investigated beliefs about *who corrects the error*. Several studies revealed that most of the teachers strongly supported self-correction (Agudo, 2014; Ahmadi & Shafiee, 2015; Méndez & Cruz, 2012) because it helps to reduce learners' stress and anxiety (Agudo, 2014). Peer correction received strong support as well (Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Tomczyk, 2013; Uysal & Aydin, 2017), with teachers believing that such approach would allow learners

opportunities to produce pushed output. This contrasts with the views of the participants in Méndez and Cruz's (2012) study who reported that peer correction is sometimes harmful to the relationship in the class. Several teachers believed that teacher correction is more facilitative than peer correction (Agudo, 2014).

Noticeably, none of the studies mentioned teachers' views towards the settings of the error correction or the use of L1 in giving OCF.

Coming to the second theme, teachers' *practices* in giving OCF, it was found that recasts were the most often used techniques (Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kamiya, 2016; Kartchava et al., 2018; Lee, 2013; Öztürk, 2016; Pouriran & Mukundan, 2012; Roothoof, 2014; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018). In Ahangari and Amirzadeh's (2011) study, the Iranian teachers used recasts for all three levels of proficiency. Moreover, the findings of Junqueira and Kim (2013) and Pouriran and Mukundan (2012) showed that recasts were used most frequently by both experienced and inexperienced teachers. These indicate that despite students' level of proficiency and teaching experiences, recasts were the most common strategy in the observed practices.

Related to the third theme, some studies indicated *matches* between beliefs and practices (Kamiya, 2014), some revealed *mismatches* (e.g., Roothoof, 2014), and some demonstrated both matches and mismatches (Kartchava et al., 2018; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2016). Roothoof (2014) revealed that the majority of the teachers believed that it was important to promote fluency and keep interruptions to a minimum. However, in practice, many of them either corrected a high rate of errors or frequently interrupted the students. Ölmezer-Öztürk (2016) indicated incongruity in the timing of OCF; three participants in this 2016 study said that they preferred to provide immediate feedback, but tended to give delayed feedback in their observed practices.

With reference to the fourth theme, *influencing factors* on cognition and practice, the first one is teachers' language *learning* experiences (Agudo, 2014; Gómez Argüelles et al., 2019; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kartchava et al., 2018; Mori, 2011; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). For example, Junqueira and Kim (2013) indicate that "apprenticeship of observation" deeply shaped not only the novice's but also the experienced teacher's beliefs about corrective feedback and consequently their

practices. The second one is their *teaching* experiences (Gómez Argüelles et al., 2019; Mori, 2011; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). Rahimi and Zhang (2015) point out that teachers' personal teaching experiences raised their awareness of the role of mediating factors, such as learner factors, error frequency, types, target form difficulty, instructional focus, and task types, which formed their cognition about necessity, timing, and types of OCF.

Finally, teacher *emotions* in providing OCF have been touched upon in studies on teacher cognition about OCF. Firstly, several studies indicated that teacher cognition and the relationship between cognition and practice are mediated by their *concerns* for learners' reaction to OCF (Gómez Argüelles et al., 2019; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Méndez & Cruz, 2012; Mori, 2011; Öztürk, 2016; Roothoof, 2014; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018; Yoshida, 2010). While teachers believed in the importance of OCF, they often worried about interrupting the communicative flow, or provoking learners' negative affective responses. Therefore, they chose recasts to maintain "students' affective comfort" (Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018, p. 496). They avoided using prompts to prevent the unnecessary embarrassment that attempts to self-correction in front of peer may bring (Yoshida, 2010). Secondly, teacher cognition and practice are also influenced by their *desires* for students (Mori, 2011; Zheng, 2013). Mori (2011) points out that his participants' decision to correct or ignore the errors and their choice of OCF types were influenced by their wish to help the students to "lead fuller intellectual, spiritual and social lives" (p. 464). They wanted to instil non-linguistic values, such as improving student confidence, independence, and communicative ability because such values were not paid high attention in the cultural context in which they were teaching. Thirdly, research revealed teachers' other emotions, such as *uncertainty* about the quantity and types of OCF they provided in the observed lessons (Roothoof, 2014), *confusion* about the proper timing of OCF (Kartchava et al., 2018), and *hopelessness* (Gómez Argüelles et al., 2019). In Gómez Argüelles et al.'s (2019) study, the teachers reported that their beliefs of students' personality (shy or outgoing) and students' potential reactions to feedback influenced their decision of whether or how to implement OCF. This 2019 study showed that the teachers felt hopeless to change their own attitudes

and students' attitudes toward OCF and that their lack of relevant theory-based knowledge was the cause of such negative emotion.

In summary, the findings of the reviewed empirical studies revealed the complexity of OCF through the lens of teacher cognition. Generally, there were both consistencies and inconsistencies in the teachers' cognition about OCF as well as between their beliefs and practices. One of the most prominent features is the interaction between cognition and emotion: while they thought that OCF was necessary and facilitative, they were worried about its negative affective effects. Such interaction was the most influential factor which influenced the teachers' provision of OCF as well as triggered their emotions.

With regard to the *methodology*, the majority of the studies were conducted using questionnaires and interviews (for more detail, see Appendix 5). For the purpose of the study, the following analysis focuses on only eight studies which investigated both teacher cognition and practice about OCF. Five out of eight studies used two research instruments (Kamiya, 2016; Kartchava et al., 2018; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2016; Roothoof, 2014; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018), such as self-report instruments and classroom observation (Kamiya, 2014; Roothoof, 2014; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018) or questionnaire and video-recorded lessons (Kartchava et al., 2018). Three studies adopted a multi-method approach: one used classroom observations, stimulated recalls, and semi-structured interviews (Junqueira & Kim, 2013); the two other studies employed classroom observations, questionnaires, and interviews (Lee, 2013; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2016). It seems that no single study has used a variety of instruments including classroom observations, stimulated recalls, semi-structured interviews, focus group discussion, and narrative frames all together. Such combination of methodologies in teacher cognition studies is deemed necessary in order to provide a complete picture of the researched phenomenon (Barnard & Burns, 2012). Therefore, further studies need to be done to occupy this methodological gap, which this study seeks to do.

Empirical studies containing either teacher cognition and/or practice about OCF in Vietnam

There have been several recent studies exploring some aspects related to Vietnamese teachers' beliefs and/or practices about OCF (Canh, 2011, 2012; Canh & Barnard, 2009; Nguyen, 2013; Nguyen, 2011b; Tran & Nguyen, 2018; Tran, 2015). As above, for convenience, these studies are presented in Table 2.5 as below:

Table 2.5: Empirical studies of teacher cognition and/or practice about OCF in Vietnam

	Focus	Methods	Participants
Canh and Barnard (2009)	EAP teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching	Questionnaire	29 university teachers
Canh (2011)	Beliefs and practices of about grammar instruction	Semi-structured interviews, observations, and stimulated recalls	8 teachers in an upper secondary school
Canh (2012)	Teachers' and students' beliefs about grammar instruction	Narrative inquiry, questionnaire	39 teachers and 515 students at secondary school level
Hoang (2015)	Teachers' perceptions of the BL and their practices and the influencing factors	Interviews and classroom observations, monitoring their activities on the LMS	15 teachers, 3 institutional executives, and 1 executive of online service provider
Nguyen (2011b)	Teachers' conception of input, output and interaction	Pre-workshop interviews, lesson plans, lesson-based interviews, reflective writing, observation of lesson recordings, and a questionnaire	6 teachers at tertiary level
Nguyen (2013)	Teachers' beliefs and practices regarding TBLT	Lesson planning sessions, classroom observation, stimulated recalls, and focus group discussion	11 high school teachers
Tran (2015)	Assessment practices	Classroom observation and interviews	6 university teachers; 2 Executive Officers and 36 students
Tran and Nguyen (2018)	Teachers' OCF practices	Classroom observations and video recording	2 secondary-school teachers

Most of these studies were carried out at secondary levels, except for Tran (2015). Tran (2015) was an observational research about feedback at tertiary level, but her research went broadly with the focus on other aspects of assessments, such as summative tests, and does not therefore provide an in-depth description of teachers' practices of OCF. Neither Tran (2015) nor Tran and Nguyen (2018) illuminate teacher cognition behind their practice.

There are several emerging themes related to OCF from those studies: (1) the role of OCF, (2) types of OCF, (3) types of errors, (4) the setting, and (5) timing of OCF. Firstly, the findings reveal that the majority of the teachers reported

believing that it is important for teachers to correct students' errors, in order to, for instance, help students to speak English accurately (Canh, 2012). Secondly, the most frequently used strategies were recast and explicit correction (Canh, 2011; Nguyen, 2013; Tran & Nguyen, 2018; Tran, 2015). Tran and Nguyen (2018) found that teachers' preference, students' level of proficiency, and the types of errors that students committed influenced the employment of OCF types. Thirdly, Nguyen (2013) found that most of the teachers provided OCF on pronunciation errors while Canh (2011) found that the teachers mainly provided correction on grammatical errors in grammar exercises. Fourthly, the most common approach in the studies is whole-class OCF (Canh, 2011; Nguyen, 2013; Tran, 2015). Canh (2011) found that the teachers corrected explicitly all the errors in grammar exercises: they invited the other students to provide their comments on the errors written on the board; then confirmed the answers, and asked the whole class to repeat after them. Canh (2011, p. 129) names this practice "collectively normative pedagogy" commonly enacted in the observed lessons in Vietnamese high schools. Tran (2015) also found a similar approach at tertiary level, but the errors were noted from the student public performances instead. Finally, with regard to timing, the students' errors were often corrected immediately in high-school classes (Nguyen, 2013), but some university teachers corrected them after the students finished their pair or group work activities (Tran, 2015).

Hoang (2015) was the only study located to investigate teachers' beliefs and practices in a blended learning in the Vietnamese context. However, the study generally focused on teachers' perceptions of the BL and their practices as well as the influencing factors.

So far, no study appears to have provided a full account of both teacher cognition and their practice about OCF in the Vietnamese context, particularly in a blended learning environment. My study intends to occupy this gap.

It is widely accepted that teacher cognition and practice are heavily influenced by the sociocultural context. In the following section, a discussion of Sociocultural Theory is presented.

2.5 Sociocultural Theory

In the light of Sociocultural Theory (SCT), learning is regarded as a social process and takes place in the learners' mind through interaction with more experienced people (Vygotsky, 1962, 1978). The central construct of this theory is the zone of proximal development (ZPD), defined as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). With regard to education, to help the learners to move from their existing capabilities to the next level of understanding and ability, it is the teachers' responsibility to create activities in a ZPD area in which they will enable learners to carry out a task, first with assistance and then later by themselves. To help learners to perform a task, it is necessary for the teachers to scaffold the students. This process will be presented in 2.5.1.

The process in which teachers scaffold students is influenced by teachers' decision-making, knowledge and belief, as major components of teacher cognition (Borg, 2003, 2006). According to Vygotsky (1978), human cognition is a collective and shared activity. It first happens between individuals and then within individuals. The former level can be investigated by the study of an individual's activity within its social contexts or its activity system. The later level can be illuminated by an investigation of internalisation and externalisation. While interacting with other members, individuals internalise meaning into their conceptual framework to update their original stage of cognition. The new stage of cognition is then externalised onto the social plane to share their thoughts and actions with others in a community (Cross, 2010). The way this "distributed cognition" (Cole & Engeström, 1993, p. 1; Pea, 1993, p. 47) is conducted can be illuminated by the use of the framework provided by Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT). The present study focuses on the participants' beliefs and practices about the activity of oral corrective feedback in relation to its immediate and broader context. Following a discussion of how the principles of scaffolding can be applied to the practice of OCF, key points of this analytical framework will be presented in 2.5.2.

2.5.1 Scaffolding

Bruner (1983) applied ZPD concept in the education context and coined the term “scaffolding”. It is a process in which the expert (e.g., the teacher) performs actions for the novice (e.g., the learner) to imitate and learn (Daniels, 2008). Through this assistance, learners can achieve a task which is beyond their current ability. Over the years, several categories of scaffolding have been proposed, such as contingent and reciprocal scaffolding (Aamaas, Duesund, & Lauritzen, 2017) or three pedagogical scales of scaffolding (Walqui, 2006). However, the present study will adopt van Lier’s (1996) six principles of successful scaffolding, which are simple and robust.

In the present study, the activity of correcting errors from the teachers to assist students in their oral performance to move to the next level might be regarded as one form of scaffolding. However, to ensure the success of the scaffold, it is essential for the teachers to keep in mind the following principles:

- (1) Contextual support: Teachers need to provide a relaxing, but challenging learning environment in which learners’ errors are accepted and tolerated.
- (2) Continuity: Teachers need to provide consistent forms of error correction, but in various sequences in order for students to notice the errors, maintaining a balance between routine and variation.
- (3) Intersubjectivity: Both teachers and students need to show a mutual engagement to achieve the same goal whereby students can respond to OCF by showing uptake and self-correction.
- (4) Contingency: Teachers, on the basis of their students’ responses to feedback, can add, change, or repeat their error correction strategies constantly with an aim of having the errors corrected by students.
- (5) Handover/Takeover: When there are signs of improvement in learners’ ability to carry out the task by themselves, teachers can provide opportunities for learners to take over the task on their own.

(6) Flow: Both teachers and students communicate in a natural way with each other.

The more that the principles are operationalised, the more effective will be the error treatment.

2.5.2 Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT)

Models of CHAT have evolved through three generations. The first generation, developed by Leont'ev (1981), focused on the concept of mediation within social activities. This concept emphasizes the influence of culture on an individual's mind and action: "the individual could no longer be understood without his or her cultural means" (Engeström, 2001, p. 134). To act on the object, the subject uses cultural tools, such as language or concepts to mediate cognitive functions. The second generation has been developed by Engeström since 1987 to incorporate societal and contextual components into the original model: as he has pointed out "society could no longer be understood without the agency of individuals who use and produce artefacts" (2001, p. 134). This generation helps to illuminate the process of "distributed cognition" when considering an activity as a collective activity system where knowledge and ideas are formed through interaction among the participants of a community using tools and symbols provided. The third generation of CHAT is used to compare and contrast two different systems within the same culture that are cooperating to achieve common goals (Engeström, 1999). CHAT has been adopted to understand the conduct of the members in a particular community within an activity system and to identify contradictions that emerge when the manner of conducting an activity in one system does not accord with that of another system during the collaboration process. The following section will discuss these three models in greater depth.

CHAT-the first generation

Extending Vygotsky's original work of ZPD, Leont'ev (1981) developed the first generation of CHAT. The model can be seen in Figure 2.2 below:

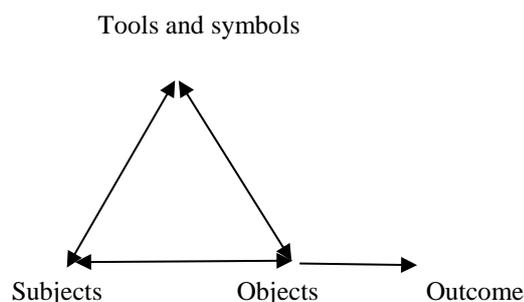


Figure 2. 1: A model of the ZPD

In the diagram, the subject refers to “the individual or subgroup whose position and point of view are chosen as the perspective of analysis” (Sannino & Engeström, 2018, p. 45). The object can be a problem that the activity aims to mould or transform into the desired outcome with the help of tools. Tools are the mediating cultural artefacts, such as material instruments or symbols (verbal and non-verbal), which members of a community use to distribute their knowledge and new ideas in the interaction process. For example, language is a tool for the members of a community to communicate with each other. Object is also the motive of the collective activity, giving the activity its identity and direction. In a language teaching community, both teachers and learners share a common goal, that is, to improve the target language. Therefore, language is a tool and also an object. Leont’ev’s (1981) model has three characteristics. The first feature is that the activity is significant, and it is necessary for all the participants to have the same motivation to achieve a common goal. Specifically, in providing OCF, both teachers and students should share the same point of view that the goal of the treatment of errors is to improve their learning. The second feature means that the activity is shared by members of the community. For instance, the activity of error correction should be done by both teachers and students because without an error committed by a student, there would be no error correction activity. Also, if the teacher corrects the error alone, it means that the student who committed the error may not realise the difference between their utterance and the target output, then modify their output, and ultimately the goal of improving the incorrect language is not achieved. Finally, to achieve the intended goal, the activity must be done systematically. In this version, Leont’ev (1981) broke down an activity into three levels: an activity, actions, and operations. An activity is directed toward a motive, which is the object that the subject eventually needs to achieve: in the present case, error correction is the activity. Actions are lower-level units of

activities, and they are conscious processes oriented to the goals which achieve the activity. Goals can be broken down into sub-goals to fulfil the object. Actions are composed of operations, which are routine processes. Operations are subject to conditions under which the subject is attempting to reach a goal. They can be a result of gradual automatization of a conscious action or of a spontaneous adaptation of an action (See Figure 2.2). However, according to Leont'ev (1981), operations must be learnt consciously as actions until they become totally routinised. Lantolf and Appel (1994, p. 21) distinguish activity, actions, and operations as “the level of motive answers *why* something is done, the level of goal answers *what* is done, and the level of operations answers *how* it is done” (*italics added*).

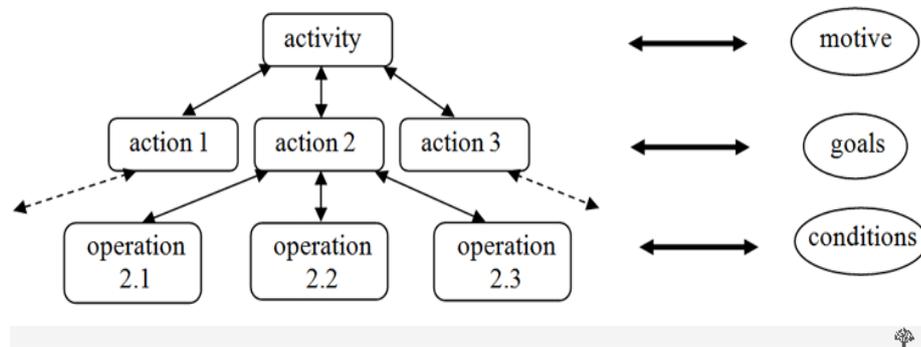


Figure 2. 2: Activity, actions and operations in the first generation of CHAT

(Leont'ev, 1981)

CHAT-the second generation

Considering Leont'ev' model as incomplete as it is individually focused, Engeström (1987) developed the second generation of Cultural-Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) by adding three more dimensions, as illustrated in Figure 2.3.

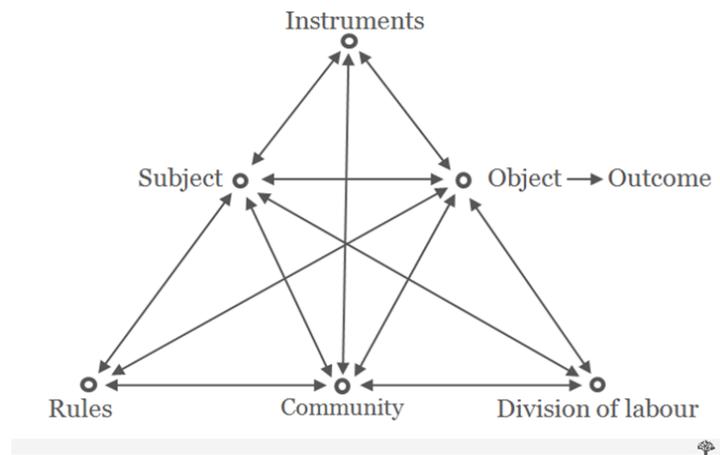


Figure 2. 3: The second generation of CHAT

(Engeström, 1987, p. 78).

The diagram accounts for the complexity of how the participants transform the object the activity is directed at, particularly how the various system components, such as rules, community, and division of labour mediate this transformation. In this expanded model, rules are sets of conditions that help to determine how and why an individual may act. For example, they can be regulations, guidelines, and implicit or explicit policies set out by an institution. The community consists of the participants who share the same object that shapes and lends direction to the individual and shared activity. They can be, for instance, teachers, learners, other fellow teachers, or more broadly, theorists, textbook writers, and publishers (Barnard, 2010). Division of labour refers to activities and actions shared horizontally by equal members of the community and to the vertical division of power and status. Division of labour can be horizontal when the actions are taken by teachers and learners when interacting with each other or discussed among teachers in a teaching group. The division is vertical when those in authority exert power on the teachers and the teachers exert power on students. The added dimensions- rules, community, and division of labour- moved the unit of analysis from individual focus to that of a collective activity system (Bloomfield & Nguyen, 2015).

CHAT-the third generation

The second generation of CHAT did not allow the analysis of combined activities within activity systems, which resulted in the introduction of the third generation

of CHAT by Engeström (1999). The expansion of the basic model is illustrated in Figure 2.4, as below:

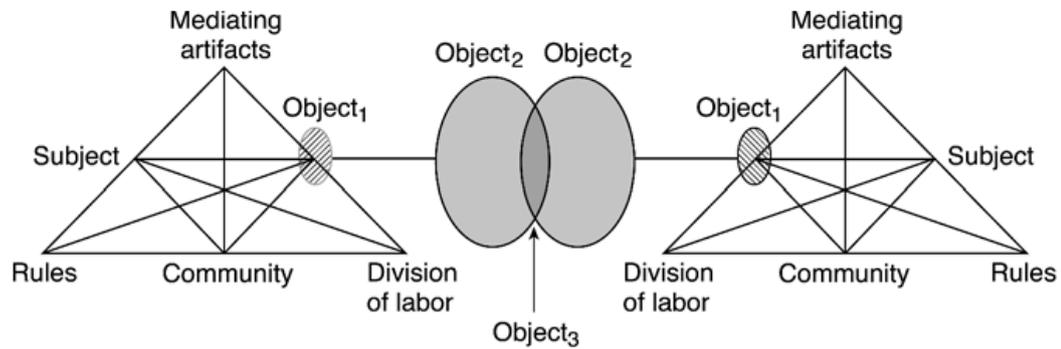


Figure 2. 4: The third generation of CHAT (Engeström, 2001, p. 136)

As shown in the above figure, this new generation of CHAT expands the unit of analysis from one activity system to at least two interacting activity systems as the minimal unit of analysis. It intends to “develop conceptual tools to understand dialogues, multiple perspectives, and networks of interacting activity systems” (Engeström, 2001, p. 135).

In addition, this model allows the analysis of the central activity and its neighbouring activities as well. This is because “an activity system is made up of nested activities and actions all of which could be conceived of as separate activity systems or other instances of the same system depending on one’s perspective” (Barab, Barnett, Yamagata-Lynch, Squire, & Keating, 2002, p. 79). For instance, in the case of the present study, within the same system of a blended learning programme, the activity of error correction is interrelated with the online learning activity as both aim to improve student knowledge and skills. The third generation of CHAT expands the perspectives from the inner workings of individual activity systems to the relationship between two or more activity systems. However, it is challenging to expand the unit of analysis beyond a single activity system to embrace multiple interlinked activities in the increasing distributed and networked processes of education (Engeström, 2016).

Principles of CHAT

Concerning the third generation of CHAT, Engeström (2001) outlines five principles: the prime unit of analysis, the multi-voicedness, historicity, contradiction, and expansive transformation.

Firstly, the basic unit of analysis is a collective, artefact-mediated and object-oriented activity system, which is to be seen in its network relations to other activity systems.

The second principle is that any activity system is multi-voiced because all the participants import their voices from the past - for instance, their historical beliefs, expectations, or values (Westberry, 2009) - into the current activity.

With regard to the third principle, historicity, activities cannot be understood without taking into consideration the larger context through which their actions and operations are realised over a particular period of time (Ekundayo, Wang, & Díaz-Andrade, 2012). This principle helps to illuminate “a sustained cultural history and thus cultural embeddedness or inertia in any activity system” (Bloomfield & Nguyen, 2015, p. 30) and analyse the changes over the course of time in response to such histories.

The fourth principle of CHAT is that of contradiction. In any activity systems, contradictions are inevitable because of changes that occur in the course of time. They consist of four levels: primary, secondary, tertiary, and quaternary (Engeström, 1987).

Primary contradictions or “inner contradictions” (Ekundayo et al., 2012, p. 4) occur within each constituent element of the central activity system. For instance, in the activity of error correction, there may be contradictions between what teachers believe and what they do in practice: perhaps as a result of the provision of inappropriate tools. Secondary contradictions may arise between the constituent elements of the activity system; in the case of error treatment, implicit conventions or regulation may inhibit students’ learning. Tertiary contradictions within an activity system emerge when a more “culturally advanced” (Engeström, 1987, p. 103) activity is introduced into that system; for example, another more

empirically-validated form of OCF from some other context for which teachers and students are not adequately prepared. Quaternary contradictions arise between the central activity and other co-existing neighbouring activities within its network relations. For instance, the activity of online learning might be not compatible with the F2F activity of oral corrective feedback. Among the four levels of contradictions, the present study will first explore the implications of levels 1, 2, and 4 in Chapter 6 (Discussion) and consider the issues arising from level 3 in Chapter 7 (Conclusion).

The fifth principle is that of expansive transformation. Because the components of activity systems are dynamic and continuously interact with each other (Barab et al., 2002), when a new object or a new tool is introduced, the internal structure of the activity system is altered (Blin & Munro, 2008), giving rise to contradictions and possible conflicts. This necessitates making corresponding changes in each component and the relationships between them (Lee, 2014). Expansive transformation means addressing these conflicts by a process of expansive learning in order to design, model, and implement the new model, reflect on the process, and consolidate the new process. According to Engeström (2001), such modification will inevitably lead to further contradictions, as illustrated in the following figure:

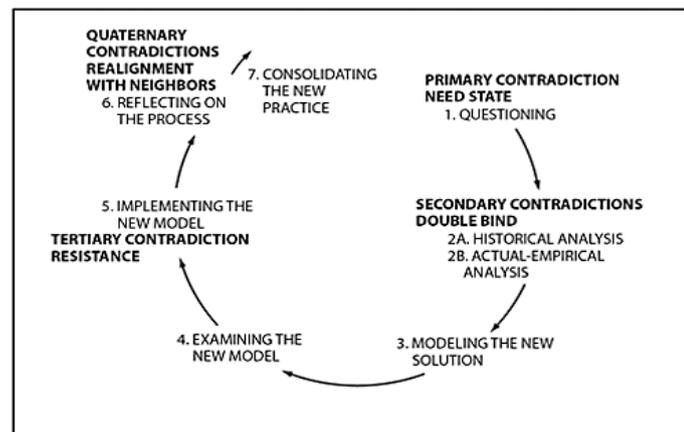


Figure 2. 5: Engeström's (2001) model of strategic learning actions and corresponding contradictions in the cycle of expansive learning (p. 152)

The above model shows the set of contradictions that emerge from the new model as quaternary; logically, in terms of the above discussion, they would seem rather be the third level of contradictions, and this will be discussed in Chapter 7.

Boundary: zone, object, crossing, and tool

To deepen understanding of expansive learning as well as to resolve the contradictions emerging between two interacting activity systems, it is important to consider the concepts of boundary zone, boundary object, boundary crossing, and boundary tool. According to Engeström (2001), a boundary zone is a material and conceptual space between activity systems. Boundary objects are those of two or more activity systems which occupy that zone (Object 3, Figure 2.4). The fundamental feature of a boundary object is its potential to enhance collaboration between the subjects of two activity systems (Bloomfield & Nguyen, 2015; Tuomi-Grohn & Engeström, 2003). This collaboration is achieved through a process of distributed cognition between the subjects of the two activities, referred to in the literature as boundary crossing. This is “a process where multiple communities come together and form new meanings through interaction and negotiation within a boundary zone” (Bloomfield & Nguyen, 2015, p. 35). The mediating artefacts for, and the potential outcome of, this process could be a set of professional standard documents functioning as boundary crossing tools, which again can be used to facilitate further collaboration. The present study will explore how the subjects from two concurrent activities - OCF and online learning - can cross the boundary between them and engage in expansive learning to mutually improve their practice and ultimately optimise student learning.

In summary, the sociocultural theoretical perspective (principles of scaffolding and CHAT) is a useful analytical tool to be used in this project for several reasons. Firstly, it can provide a systematic, comprehensive, and robust framework to illuminate teacher practice of OCF from which to evaluate whether such practice can improve student learning. Secondly, it relates teachers’ cognition to their practices and the broader sociocultural contexts in which these interactions occur (Cross, 2010). Thirdly, it helps to “identify and better understand the contradictions and tensions within cognition” (Cross, 2010, p. 450) as well as contradictions emerging beyond cognition (e.g., between activity systems). Finally, it can provide explanatory insights into resistant factors against an educational innovation (Blin & Munro, 2008). In the present study, that innovation was a very recently introduced blended learning programme.

2.5.3 Empirical studies about OCF from the perspective of Sociocultural Theory

In this section, a review of empirical studies about OCF through the lens of Sociocultural Theory will be presented.

There are a few studies investigating the role of corrective feedback (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Lee, 2014; Nassaji & Swain, 2000; Rassaei, 2014) from the perspective of Sociocultural Theory. Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) showed how the learners received scaffolded assistance and how changes in scaffolding level led to changes in the learners' regulation: from reliance on the tutor to self-regulation in correcting errors. Expanding Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994), Nassaji & Swain (2000) explored the beneficial effects of feedback when provided within the learner's ZPD. The finding demonstrated that within-ZPD assistance is more helpful than random help. Lee (2014) indicated the drawbacks of conventional ways of providing written corrective feedback in FFL contexts. This 2014 study pointed out that the socio-cultural contextual factors, particularly institutional policies and students' expectations were constraints impeding the teachers from bringing their beliefs of the desired practices into their own practice. Rassaei (2014) compared the effects of scaffolded feedback and of recasts on L2 development in a task-based interaction. Results revealed that the students who received scaffolded feedback had better scores in their grammar and oral presentation skills, compared with those who received recasts. However, all the three studies (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Lee, 2014; Nassaji & Swain, 2000) investigated written corrective feedback. Although Rassaei's (2014) study was on OCF, it failed to explain the underlying reasons for the student improvement after receiving scaffolded feedback, partly because of its experimental research design. Therefore, further studies need to be done in natural settings to explore both teacher cognition and practice in providing OCF through the lens of Sociocultural Theory.

CHAT has been also used in several empirical studies about using ICT in teaching and learning (e.g., Gedera, 2016; Ramanair, 2016). More recent empirical studies using CHAT as a framework can be found in Gedera and Williams (2016) and Bloomfield and Nguyen (2015). Nevertheless, for the purpose of this study, the

review only takes into consideration empirical studies about teacher cognition and practice using CHAT as a framework.

There are several studies using CHAT as a lens to examine teacher cognition and practice about feedback (Li, 2012, 2016; Ng, 2015). Li (2012) investigated university tutor cognition of evaluating and giving written feedback on students' written work. The findings revealed that tutor cognition was strongly influenced by contextual factors (particularly, lecturers and/or senior tutors supervising the tutors and other tutors) in the activity system of assessment. This study also indicated that tutors' concerns about students' emotional aspects of assessment, and that their own learning experiences influenced their practices. Interestingly, according to this 2012 study, no formal training was provided to those tutors, and there was no evidence that their practices were guided by the literature of feedback research. Ng (2015) examined the views and practices of both the lecturers and students about assignment feedback, using scaffolding principles (van Lier, 1996) and CHAT as a framework. The findings demonstrated that the lecturers did not fully apply van Lier's (1996) principles' successful scaffolding in ZPD, which limited student learning. In addition, the study indicated that contextual factors (policies, students' low level of English proficiency, and students' expectations of teacher correction) hindered effective feedback. Although like the present study these studies were carried out in the university settings, both studies focused on written feedback rather than OCF.

With respect to *boundary* in education, studies have investigated boundaries across sites (e.g., school vs. university) (see Bloomfield & Nguyen, 2015). Nevertheless, not many studies have focused on boundaries within sites, such as school (Akkerman & Bakker, 2011). The present study intends to examine the boundaries within a setting: university.

To my knowledge, no study has used CHAT to investigate OCF. Moreover, not a single study has used both scaffolding principles and CHAT to analyse and interpret teacher cognition and practice about OCF in a blended learning environment, as was the case in the present study. Last but not least, most activity theory studies have relied on self-report data with little observational data and few

have discussed how to resolve the contradictions identified (Karanasios, Riisla, & Simeonova, 2017). My study sets out to occupy these gaps.

2.6 Summary

In summary, there are several research spaces in the literature that the present study aims to occupy. Firstly, there is a lack of research studies into delayed feedback in natural classroom settings. Secondly, further research needs to be done to explore teacher cognition and emotions and the relationship between cognition, emotions and practices in giving OCF, particularly in blended learning environments. Thirdly, further studies, preferably multi-method, need to be conducted to find out teachers' cognition and practice about OCF. Finally, no studies have combined both scaffolding principles and Cultural Historical Activity Theory in their analysis and interpretation of teacher cognition and practice in providing OCF. Therefore, to occupy all the spaces raised in the literature above, the overarching question of the research is:

To what extent does OCF in F2F interaction promote students' knowledge and skills in communication?

In order to answer the above questions fully, it is necessary to put into consideration both teachers' beliefs and their practices. As a result, the thesis will seek answers to the following research questions:

- 1) What are Vietnamese EFL teachers' beliefs about providing OCF?
- 2) What are these teachers' actual teaching practices regarding OCF?
- 3) To what extent is there convergence between their beliefs about OCF and their classroom practices?
- 4) What are the underlying factors shaping teachers' beliefs and their practices?

The findings derived from the above data led to the following interpretive research questions:

- 5) To what extent can the application of the principles of scaffolding and CHAT framework illuminate the complexity of OCF?
- 6) How do the findings of this study contribute to academic understanding of the relationship between language teachers' beliefs, their practices, and student outcomes?

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

This chapter explains the methodology used in the study. In section 3.1, the justification for the interpretive paradigm and a qualitative case-study approach will be discussed. In section 3.2, the rationales for the adoption of a multi-method design, the selection and descriptions of the participants, and ethical matters will be presented. These are followed by a detailed description of the data collection methods in section 3.3. In the later sections 3.4 and 3.5, the data analysis procedures and the warrants for qualitative research will be described, and the chapter will conclude with a summary.

3.1 Rationale

3.1.1 Rationale for the interpretive paradigm

A research paradigm is “a model or framework for observation and understanding, which shapes what both we see and how we understand it” (Babbie, 2007, p. 32). There are two prevalent research paradigms in educational research, namely positivism and interpretivism. According to Bryman (2016) the former is an epistemological stance that supports “the application of the methods of the natural science to the study of social reality and beyond” (p. 24). The latter advocates the view that differences between people and the objects of the natural sciences should be respected, and the responsibility of social scientists is to “grasp the subjective meaning of social action” (p. 26). Of these two approaches, the interpretivist approach was chosen for my study, and there are several reasons for this choice.

Firstly, this approach was chosen as its nature and characteristics were considered as more likely to enable me to answer the research questions and thereby serve the purpose of the study. An interpretivist approach commences “with individuals” and sets out to “understand their interpretations of the world around them” (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 22). Unlike positivist researchers, who formulate a hypothesis, then operationalise and test the hypothesis (Hennink, Hutter, & Bailey, 2011) with the goal to “uncover causal laws” (Johnson, 1992, p. 31), interpretivists focus on “the subjective world of human experience” (Cohen et

al., 2007, p. 21). The goal of an interpretivist inquiry is to “make sense of a case, to understand a situation” (Johnson, 1992, p. 32). The overall aim of this study was to investigate the beliefs about oral corrective feedback (OCF) on group work undertaken by EFL teachers at HaBu and the relationships between these beliefs and their actual teaching practices. Therefore, the adoption of the interpretivist approach was deemed to be appropriate as it allowed me to provide an understanding of what individual teachers believed and how they behaved in a specific context rather than proposing a hypothesis and testing, or uncovering a cause-effect relationship.

In addition, in interpretivism “theory is emergent and must arise from particular situations”, and “the data yielded will include the meanings and purposes of those people who are their sources” (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 22). These features of interpretivism are of particular relevance in the case of my study. This is because my research was conducted on an innovatory programme implemented in one educational institute rather than in multiple places on a large scale. It aimed to ground theory from evidence collected in a particular type of context rather than testing and validating a pre-determined theory as is the case in positivist research.

From a positivist perspective, reality is composed of facts (Hennink et al., 2011), and investigation of these is intended to be objective (Johnson, 1992). However, as with many other critics of this approach, I would argue that facts are not the only elements of reality. There exist many important contingent factors, such as “emotions, motivations, symbols and their meanings, empathy, and other subjective aspects associated with naturally evolving lives of individuals and groups” (Berg & Lune, 2012, p. 15). Thus, an interpretivist approach “views reality and meaning as co-constructed through dynamic processes of interacting with others and with the wider social, material, and symbolic world” (Duff, 2014, p. 236). In this sense, reality is socially constructed (Hennink et al., 2011; Willis, 2007), and only by taking this paradigm could I obtain an in-depth understanding of the inner world of individual research participants.

Furthermore, positivists “observe and measure reality in an objective way with no influence of the researcher on the process of data collection” (Hennink et al., 2011, p. 14). By contrast, interpretivists “understand, explain and demystify social

reality through the eyes of the participants” (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 19), and also “the researcher’s background, position, or emotions are an integral part of the process of producing data” (Hennink et al., 2011, p. 19). Therefore, adopting an interpretivist approach means that I could obtain and understand teachers’ beliefs about, and attitudes towards, a new teaching programme while acknowledging my own participation in the research.

Another reason for my choice of interpretivism is that this approach adopts the view that there can be multiple perspectives on reality, rather than the positivist assumption of a single truth (Hennink et al., 2011; Thanh & Thanh, 2015), or “within a particular perspective” (Johnson, 1992, p. 31). As a result, the acceptance of multiple perspectives in interpretivism allowed me to achieve a more comprehensive understanding of the research situation. Multiple perspectives in my study could be gained from six core participating teachers with various teaching experiences who would provide different viewpoints about giving OCF. As a result, the data obtained would be more comprehensive, and findings could be more richly interpreted than would be the case in a positivist paradigm.

3.1.2 Rationale for a qualitative, exploratory case study

According to Yin (2009), “a case study is an empirical study that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (p.18). This definition reflects the key features of my study, which is contemporary, in-depth, and part of a real-life context. The study focused on contemporary events, that is, the actual teaching practices related to OCF in a blended learning environment at a specific time, when a new approach to pedagogy (BL) was being implemented. Furthermore, the phenomenon investigated OCF in an innovatory BL programme, and the temporal and physical boundaries in which it occurred were closely intertwined. This is because the type of BL in which learners improve their knowledge of grammar and vocabulary and their skills in listening, reading, and writing prior to their actual classroom speaking practice had just been implemented in the research site for the first time

in Vietnam. Therefore, the phenomenon of OCF in a BL environment could be investigated within its natural setting.

Moreover, case studies can enable researchers to provide “an extensive amount of information about very few units or cases” (Neuman, 2011, p. 42), especially of “participants’ lived experiences of, thoughts about, and feelings for a situation” (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 254). The present study involved only a small number of participants, and the multiple methods of data collection allowed me to obtain and triangulate insights into teachers’ beliefs about, and their practices of, giving OCF in a blended environment.

An interpretive case study can “offer important insights” not gained by other quantitative or statistical methods like experiments (Yin, 2014, p. 21). The crucial benefit of my study is that by uncovering my participants’ beliefs and attitudes towards giving OCF in a new teaching environment, I could attain “a larger story” (Neuman, 2011, p. 42) about how effectively a new teaching programme has been implemented.

By contrast, there are several weaknesses noted in using case studies. The most prominent one is the impossibility of generalisation, given the limited access to only one setting, rather than multiple settings. In interpretive case studies, generalisability can be referred to as transferability which involves “the provision of descriptive and contextualized statements” (Mertler, 2016, p. 210) in order that the readers may judge whether the findings of the study could be applied to similar contexts (Houghton, Casey, Shaw, & Murphy, 2013). In this study, thick descriptions, transparent accounts of the procedures of data collection and analysis, and plausible interpretations of the findings could be provided.

Therefore, with caution, some findings may illuminate other contexts since OCF, the phenomenon of the study, is a common and fundamental practice of any ELT contexts.

In summary, considering the nature and strengths of the research style as well as the research purposes, a wholly qualitative, exploratory case study was chosen as a research approach in the study. The next section outlines the research methods employed in the study.

3.2 The present study

3.2.1 Rationale for multi-method research design

Since the aim of the study is to probe in some depth teachers' cognition and their practices, this study will adopt a multi-method design, which is appropriate for several reasons. First, "human and social phenomena are too complicated and multilayered to be known through a single inquiry lens" (Jang, Wagner, & Park, 2014, p. 129). Second, as Barnard and Burns (2012) stated, "explorations of teachers' beliefs and classroom practices should adopt a judicious blend of methods of data collection in order that the information that emerges can be compared, contrasted and triangulated to provide thick descriptions of the context" (p. 4). The triangulation of findings from various methods of data collection allowed me to obtain multiple perspectives from my participants.

3.2.2 Selection and description of the participants

Selection of the participants

The selection of the participants is influenced by the style of the research, and in qualitative research, the number is usually small (Cohen et al., 2007). Further, at the time my data collection took place, there were a limited number of teachers involving in teaching the BL programme; therefore, I had no alternative to selecting the participants other than by recruiting as many of them as would volunteer to participate.

Description of the participants

The participants of the projects were six teachers on BL courses. Those teachers participated in the entire range of data collection procedures (interviews, classroom observations, stimulated recall, focus group, and narrative frames).

In the present study, teachers' working experiences, English proficiency, and the training courses (see Table 3.1 below) had an influence on their teaching practices to some extent.

Table 3.1: The participants' profiles

T	Gender	Job Title	IELTS Score	Qualification	Full-time service	In-service training
T1	F	Teacher for Faculty A	Not taken	BA	6	None
T2	F	Division Leader, and Teacher for Faculty A	6.5	BA	7	Workshops on Teaching methodology, Test Data Statistical Analysis, Needs analysis
T3	F	Teacher for Faculty A	Not taken	BA	10	Workshops on Teaching methodology, Test Data and Needs analysis
T4	F	Teacher for Faculty A	7.0	BA	15	None
T5	F	Teacher for Faculty A	7.0	BA	2	Workshops on Teaching methodology, Test Data Statistical Analysis, Needs analysis
T6	F	Division Leader, Teacher for Faculty A	7.0	BA	6	Workshops on Teaching methodology, Test Data Statistical Analysis, Needs analysis

Although all the participants could speak English competently, English was a foreign language; thus, it might be rather difficult for them to express complicated thoughts and ideas in English. As a result, in this study, oral communication between the researcher and participants in the semi-structured interviews, stimulated recall sessions, and focus group discussions was conducted in our mother tongue, Vietnamese, and subsequently translated by me. However, to a greater or lesser extent, code switching between Vietnamese and English occurred. The narrative frames were also completed by the participants in Vietnamese in order for them to express their thoughts and reasoning as clearly as possible.

3.2.3 Ethical issues

As this research involved human participants, it was carried out strictly according to the procedures outlined in Ethical Conduct in Human Research and Related Activities Regulations (2008) of the University of Waikato with the approval from the Human Research Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences. The ethics approval letter is provided in Appendix 3.

Doing the research at the institution where I had been working for years had some advantages. For instance, I easily gained approval to access the research site and

the participants via email. Prior to my trip back to Vietnam, I emailed the Rector to ask for his permission to carry out my research in HaBu. On receiving his approval, I emailed twelve potential participants to invite them to participate in the research. Nine of them replied with their willingness to support my study and to become participants. The letter of information and consent forms are attached in Appendix 1 and 2.

However, there were a number of ethical considerations when carrying out this research. Firstly, it was important to attempt to make sure that any participation was entirely voluntary. I chose not to interview several prospective participants as I sensed their unwillingness or reluctance to become involved. At the time, I was aware that some of them might have agreed to participate because they were afraid of harming the collegial relationship with me if they declined. Secondly, in order to collect the best data while maintaining the relationship, it is necessary for an insider researcher to be vigilant of the dual role of being a researcher and a colleague. For example, when I witnessed an argument between two colleagues regarding the teaching methodology for a lesson, I switched back to my researcher role in order to keep a neutral attitude toward the situation.

Thirdly, it is of importance to protect the participants from harm. Most importantly, it was necessary for me to be aware of potential harm arising from the exposure of beliefs or practices that could potentially influence the professional reputation of participants, or in other ways, prompt negative evaluations or even sanctions from institutional authorities. This could, for example, potentially occur if participants revealed being not in favour of the blended learning programme. Therefore, it was essential to protect the confidentiality of participants through reporting (e.g., the use of pseudonyms and the removal of identifying information) and secure data storage and management. There was also an occasion in which I was asked by one participant to share some of the data about another participant, but I refused in order to protect her privacy. To avoid the risk of sanctions, I also attempted to report the findings constructively in order to minimise any possible harm to the university reputation while not compromising the integrity of the research as several findings were not favourable. The risk of harm also arises in other ways, and I tried always to maintain awareness of this and to take the necessary steps to avoid harm. For

instance, I always made sure that observations and interviews did not exacerbate other pressures, such as workload. I did this in particular by always arranging such times at their convenience. Full details of ethical considerations relating to this research project can be found in Nguyen (forthcoming), a version of which is attached in Appendix 27 for ease of reference.

3.3 Data collection methods

3.3.1 Interviews

Interviews can be carried out in two ways: F2F or online. While the former type of data collection method has been applied and discussed extensively in research, the latter is being increasingly utilised thanks to the recent rapid growth of the Internet and its applications (e.g., Bowden & Galindo-Gonzalez, 2015; Janghorban, Roudsari, & Taghipour, 2014; O'Connor & Madge, 2017). In the following sections, I will discuss both of these methods.

Face-to-face interviews

In the study, three of the four face-to-face interviews lasted approximately one hour, and the other lasted half an hour. In these interviews, a format and a general set of questions were used with all the participants; however, I varied the questions in accordance with the newly emerging data (Lichtman, 2010). Open-ended questions or prompts were utilized in the interview to allow “participants to elaborate and researchers to pursue developing themes” (Barkhuizen, Benson, & Chik, 2014, p. 17). According to Cohen et al. (2007), these types of questions also boost collaboration and may form an empathetic bond between the researcher and the participants, which can facilitate the later phases of the study. Moreover, “they allow the interviewer to make a truer assessment of what the respondent really believes” and may lead to “unexpected or unanticipated answers which may suggest hitherto unthought-of relationships or hypotheses” (p. 357). A typical interview guideline is provided in Appendix 6.

Online interviewing

Online interviews may be either synchronous or asynchronous. Asynchronous interviews, such as sending and responding to emails (e-interviewing in the study), do not require researchers and participants “to use the Internet at the same time”, whereas synchronous interviews require both parties to be concurrently participating in conversations in the form of chatting or instant messaging (Jowett, Peel, & Shaw, 2011, p. 355). Little has been reported about using multiple interviewing techniques in one single study nor about the use of online synchronous interviews (Deakin & Wakefield, 2014).

The combination of both online interviewing and F2F interviewing in my research was spontaneous and situation-driven rather than planned. Prior to the actual data collection, my intention was to conduct an initial F2F semi-structured interview with each participating teacher to elicit their beliefs about giving OCF in their specific teaching contexts. I strongly believed that personal talks with my participants, who are also my colleagues, would be much better in terms of creating trust and re-establishing the rapport than online chat, especially as I had been away for one year. However, the BL programme was scheduled to last only 10 weeks instead of the previously-planned 15 weeks, and thus I had to collect the data within a shorter timeframe. I decided to use online interviews as they can overcome constraints of geographical distance and thereby reduce time and travel costs (James & Busher, 2009; Janghorban et al., 2014; Jowett et al., 2011; Mann & Stewart, 2000). This enabled data collection to occur at times and places convenient to both the teachers and me.

In the interview conducted by instant messages, one advantage that became apparent was the effect of both the interviewee and interviewer being in their own comfortable home setting. This empowers interviewees to hold the reins of the interview process (James & Busher, 2009), and this resulted in a useful conversation. It also saved transcribing time. In these ways, I gained in-depth data for the thesis at the convenience of both the participant and myself. I found this a matter of being flexible in how and when to use any available research instrument appropriately, rather than persisting with one pre-planned means and avoiding other supplementary but otherwise convenient methods.

To summarise, the adoption of online interviewing in my study was a complementary alternative to the face-to-face methods. It was time-saving, convenient, and enjoyable. This is despite several drawbacks, such as the lack of elaboration and clarification, the inability to provide visual, non-verbal cues, such as facial expressions (Deakin & Wakefield, 2014; Jowett et al., 2011), and fewer opportunities to create the rapport facilitated by F2F interviews.

3.3.2 Classroom observations

The fundamental benefit of classroom observation, according to Borg (2015), is that it results in the accumulation of immediate evidence about the actual classroom practice, and this evidence will be the “starting point for a grounded analysis of teachers’ beliefs” (p. 495). This method of investigation assisted me to gain multiple kinds of data through observation notes, video and audio recordings. These facilitated my exploration of the teachers’ practices, especially to consider the extent of convergence with their stated beliefs. Four out of six participants were observed at least twice; two teachers were observed only once because they had tight working schedules. All the lessons observed were both video- and audio-recorded for 90 minutes, except one lesson which was only audio-recorded because the participant felt reluctant to be video-recorded. Initially, a template for observation notes was used (see Appendix 7); however, after using this twice, I found it less effective than taking notes in a notebook which provided me more space for capturing the contents of the key episodes and recording other comments when needed.

A one-page sample of notes from my notebook is provided in Appendix 8. Samples of key episodes in classroom observation data are provided in Appendices 18-26.

3.3.3 Stimulated recall

After classroom observations, each teacher participated in a stimulated recall interview. This revealed the extent to which their beliefs underpinned their actual teaching, which resulted in the identification of the convergences and divergences between their beliefs and their actual practices. Stimulated recall is a common

research tool in teacher cognition as it “helps to uncover cognitive processes which might not be evident through simple observation” (Gass & Mackey, 2000, p. 21). According to Borg (2015), this method can yield “a concrete context for the elicitation of teacher beliefs” (p. 493). While watching extracts of their own teaching practices, teachers articulated the decisions they had made in class and commented on any critical incidents that arose during the lesson. The guideline for stimulated recalls was provided to the participants in advance (see Appendix 9).

However, an inherent drawback of this technique is that it is challenging to collect the full thoughts of the participants (Lyle, 2003) because they might not remember all their thoughts while talking to the interviewer. To mitigate this issue, I based each discussion on the detailed notes taken while observing the lesson to provide as many clues as possible to assist the memory of the participants. In addition, stimulated recall is subject to researcher influence (Gass & Mackey, 2000; Paskins, McHugh, & Hassell, 2014) in the sense that it was I who selected the key episodes and probed their thoughts rather than giving the participants the choice to talk about the episodes. However, it was impossible for me to let the participants choose the episodes given the limited time between most of the classroom observations and the stimulated recalls. In addition, there was a high likelihood that the episodes that teachers selected might be repetitive and deviate from my research agenda. To a certain extent, this problem may be alleviated by the rapport I had developed with the participants in earlier stages of the research and by my carefully-chosen forms and tones when soliciting the teachers’ perspectives (Ryan & Gass, 2012).

Another concern is that the participants had limited time for the stimulated recall, so to save time and focus on the research topic, key episodes were chosen on the basis of types of corrective feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster et al., 2013) given by teachers in class. Because there were sometimes so many episodes, I selected one instance of each type. The time lapse between stimulated recall and classroom observation mostly ranged between half an hour and one day with the exception of a one-week time lapse for one participant. Full details of time for the interviews, the actual classroom observations, and stimulated recall timelines can be seen in Appendix 10.

The use of lesson transcripts and online stimulated recall

In this study, I initially intended to use video recordings as the main stimulus for recalls because such visual aids may evoke stronger recall and also prompt participants to “comment or reflect on their non-verbal behaviours” (Paskins et al., 2014, p. 2). However, as it happened, one stimulated recall was delayed for a week, and one stimulated recall was conducted online so other stimuli, lesson transcripts, were used as memory aids. I transcribed the key episodes immediately or very soon after two observed lessons. Under each key episode, one or two questions were raised to ask about their thoughts at the time of giving OCF. Participants appeared to remember those moments with ease, and they could even reflect on their teaching with comments, such as, “Oh I do not think I used as much Vietnamese as that”.

One stimulated recall was conducted online through Facebook Messenger when my participant and I could not arrange a time and place for F2F discussion. I sent her the transcript of her lesson fifteen minutes before I called her to give her some time to read and recall the lesson. The lesson transcripts can be found in Appendix 11.

3.3.4 Focus group discussions

The focus group is “a special qualitative research technique in which people are formally interviewed in a group discussion setting” (Neuman, 2011, p. 459). It has become a popular method for researchers to explore how people reconstruct particularly interesting topics conjointly with one another (Bryman, 2016, p. 501). With this method, researchers can “observe participants sharing ideas, opinions, experiences or even debating each other” (Duggleby, 2005, p. 832).

The advantages of the focus group have been discussed in many studies. For example, belonging to a group can “increase the participants’ sense of cohesiveness and help them feel safe to share information” (Onwuegbuzie, Dickinson, Leech, & Zoran, 2009, p. 2). Also, the setting of the focus group might allow participants to “query one another and explain their answers to one another” (Neuman, 2011, p. 460) or “probe each other’s reasons for holding a certain view (Bryman, 2016, p. 502). As a result, a variety of perspectives on a given matter

would be elicited (Peek & Fothergill, 2009), and even more critical comments than from individual interviews would be generated (Kitzinger, 1995). Moreover, in a focus group, individuals' views can be challenged by each other, which results in "more realistic accounts of what people think, because they are forced to think about and possibly revise their views" (Bryman, 2016, p. 502). Another benefit is to enable researchers to "study the ways in which individuals collectively make sense of a phenomenon and construct meanings around it" (Bryman, 2016, p. 502).

Nevertheless, the focus group has several limitations. It is not easy to organise a suitable time and place for all participants to attend. It is also more time consuming to transcribe recordings of focus groups rather than individual interviews and more challenging to analyse the emerging data (Bryman, 2016). In addition, caution needs to be taken when relying on what participants claim in a focus group as they "may exaggerate, minimise, or withhold experiences depending on the social context (Hollander, 2004, p. 162), especially if power relationships are involved.

In my study, the teachers were divided into two focus groups based on their availability and their teaching subjects, namely those teaching in Faculty A formed one group and those teaching in Faculty B formed another one. According to Neuman (2011), having similarities in roles, backgrounds or demographic details does not always mean that they will be open and willing "to share beliefs and opinions candidly" (p. 459). However, in my study, all the participants were quite familiar with presenting their personal opinions in groups thanks to their regular professional development meetings, especially the second group.

Furthermore, it is believed that in group contexts, "participants may be more prone to expressing culturally expected views than individual views" (Bryman, 2016, p. 522). In other words, the articulation of group norms might "silence the individual voices of dissent" (Kitzinger, 1995, p. 300). I previously thought that this might be particularly true in the context of Vietnam where the participants presumably were likely to act on the grounds of collective perspectives rather than on their individual traits. However, it was found from the focus group data that the participants openly shared their opinions and attitudes even when they were

different from the rest of their group, and they felt free to present their agreements and disagreements with each other.

In this study, the focus group aided me in motivating the teachers to share their understanding of experiences and insights about giving OCF and suggested solutions to any problems that arose in discussion. Because the interpretative frames and the previous experience of the participants might differ, I provided very clear instructions to make the preconditions for focus group participation known to all participants before the discussion started. I then acted as the moderator who introduced the topic of the discussion, involved all the participants, and kept the conversation flowing.

As a qualitative approach with an aim to glean participants' perspectives, I would not carry out an intrusive and highly structured focus group discussion. A set of themes, rather than open-ended questions, was provided to the participants prior to the discussion (see Appendix 12). These topics acted as a guideline for the participants to steer their conversations in the way they felt free with, and they might provide the setting for "new and unexpected insights" from the participants (Bryman, 2016, p. 511). Because of limited time, one of the focus group discussions lasted half an hour as the participants told me they had other activities afterwards. The other one lasted more than an hour.

3.3.5 Professional development meetings

The participating teachers in my Faculty were supposed to attend weekly professional development meetings. The purpose of these was for all the teachers teaching the same subject to review the previously taught lessons and prepare for the upcoming ones, as well as share new teaching methods or difficulties encountered. Therefore, to a certain extent, professional development meetings were similar to focus group discussions. However, they were different from focus groups because the discussion topics were determined by the group leaders, and the main aims were to prepare for the next lessons and reflect on and evaluate teaching of the previous unit. Topics discussed would be summarised in the agreed minutes and signed by all the teachers at the end of the meeting.

Although I had not planned to do so, I considered that being able to attend these meetings could be very useful for me to explore teachers' beliefs during their planning and revising sessions, so I decided to add this source of data into my study. After seeking the approval from the Dean to be present in these meetings, I took every opportunity to collect this type of data. There were three professional development meetings recorded with three core participants teaching English for Faculty A, one of which I audio-recorded when I was not present. I attended the others as a non-participant observer, and these too were audio-recorded. The three teachers involved in these three meetings also formed the focus group discussion at the end of the data collection process. This source of data evidenced how teachers' beliefs were demonstrated in the collective environment and enacted in their own teaching situations. It also enabled me to identify convergences and divergences between what they planned and agreed to do and their actual practices.

Sample data from professional development meetings are provided in Appendix 13.

3.3.6 Narrative frames

Narrative inquiry is "the predominant means of getting at what teachers know, what they do with what they know, and the sociocultural contexts within which they teach and learn to teach" (Golombek & Johnson, 2004, p. 308). In this study, the ESL teachers wrote about their teaching in the form of a narrative frame, which is defined as "a written story template consisting of a series of incomplete sentences and blank spaces of varying lengths" (Barkhuizen et al., 2014, p. 45). Frames can equip the narrators with both the structure and content of what is to be written (Barkhuizen & Wette, 2008). According to Barnard and Nguyen (2010), compared to an interview, a narrative frame can assist the participants in elaborating the narrative inquirer's points, disclosing information more freely, and cogitating upon the mentioned matters more thoroughly.

In the present study, the narrative frames were written in Vietnamese because the participants would find it easier to express their stories in their own languages. All the frames were sent to the six core participants through emails, and five of them

returned their narratives. The data from the narrative frames helped me to triangulate the themes found in the interviews and the stimulated recalls as most of the ideas shared were repeatedly told. Moreover, in the case of Teacher 3, I gained additional data from the narrative frames about her beliefs about the importance of giving feedback and the factors affecting her practices. An English translation and the Vietnamese version of the frame are attached in Appendix 14. Sample data from narrative frames can be found in Appendix 15.

3.4 Data analysis

3.4.1 Managing and transcribing the data

Managing the data

In order to prevent data loss, I duplicated copies of each data file and stored them in my personal laptop, my secured office computer, and in an external hard drive. All the data were put into eight folders, six of them for each individual teacher containing the audio and video files of the lessons, the interviews, the narrative frames, and any transcripts of the data. Another folder contained the audio files for focus group discussions and professional development meetings, and another contained power point slides, syllabi, soft copies of the course books, teachers' books, and teaching timetables provided by the participating teachers.

To ensure anonymity, pseudonyms (numbering in case of the teachers) and abbreviations or initials were used consistently. For instance, T3.COE2 stood for Teacher 3's second classroom observation episode. For a sample of one folder, see Figure 3.1.

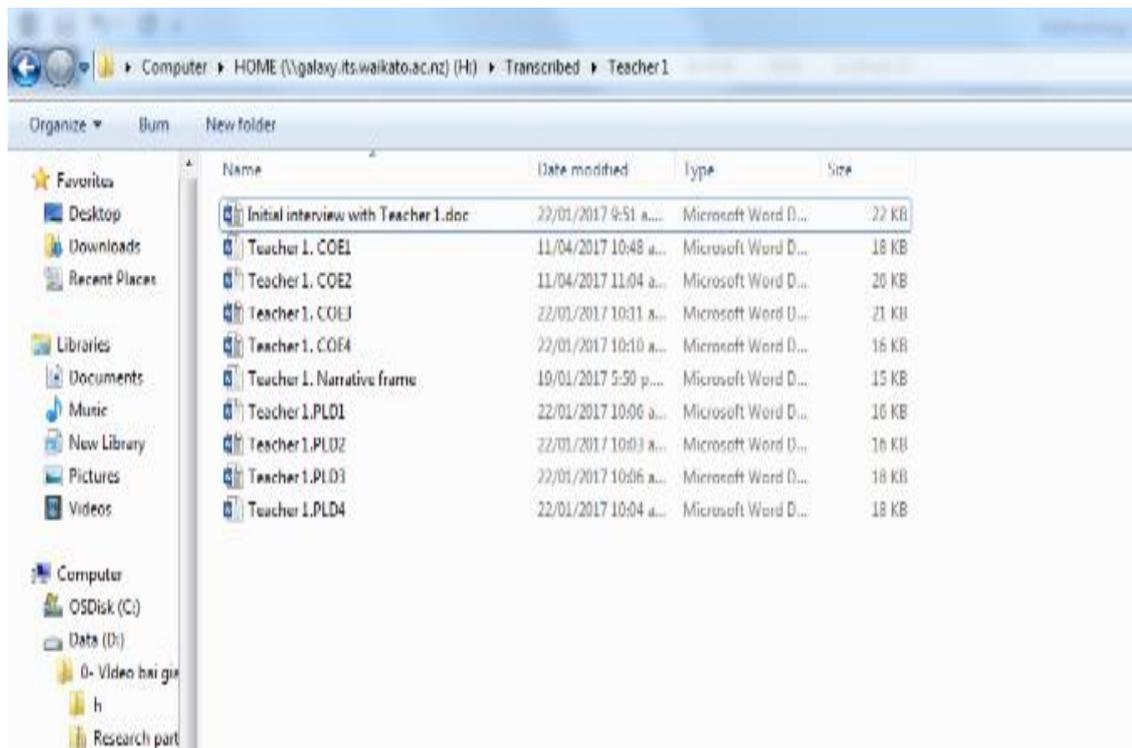


Figure 3. 1: Data storage by participant

Using NVivo

In the present study, Nvivo 11 was used as a complementary tool to facilitate the process of data handling and data analysis. At the first stage of this process, it was used to store and organise different types of the data. Then, it was used in my initial coding and categorising process when I could constantly compare and contrast the data within a single case. I then compared the data across the cases and across the research instruments. However, at the final stages, when I needed to analyse the episodes, I switched to manual analysis as many episodes with delayed corrective feedback were long and required details about pauses and initiators.

Transcribing the data

To gain in-depth analysis, it was necessary to make a preliminary transcription as soon as possible after the data was collected. This enabled me to probe and prompt effectively in the later data collection instruments. I transcribed most of the initial interview data in Vietnam and several sets of classroom observation data. However, due to limited time, the majority of the detailed transcription took

place after my return to New Zealand. I believed that I would analyse, synthesise, and interpret the data better, especially getting to know exactly what the participants meant in my mother tongue. Therefore, the audio files from the interviews, stimulated recalls, focus groups, and professional development meetings were listened to carefully and transcribed verbatim into Word documents in Vietnamese. The key extracts of the data that illustrated the themes after the data analysis, were then translated into English.

For the classroom observation data, the process was more complicated. Firstly, referring to my observation notes, I watched all the video recordings of the lessons, teacher by teacher, and transcribed the key episodes and instructions given by the teachers. I recognised that corrective feedback was intertwined with general feedback so every single word was transcribed verbatim when the teachers started to provide feedback. When students worked in pairs, the background noise at times drowned out the talk of interest, so I had to use the observation notes which told me the time of the key episodes when the teachers gave immediate feedback to make sure that no episodes were skipped during these pair work activities. However, due to such classroom background noise, it was hard to capture clearly what the teachers and students said to each other; I then repeated the transcribing process with the audio-recordings of the lessons, which proved helpful. With inaudible utterances, I referred to both audio and video recordings to extract as much as possible of what the teachers were saying. Ultimately, all the key episodes were able to be transcribed with a high degree of confidence as to their accuracy, and the major events of the lessons were reported.

I paid particular attention to pauses and initiators, such as category questions (those beginning with Wh-words, such as who, what, or when), designedly incomplete utterances, or requests to quote from the role-play to prompt students' self-correction in delayed correction. This is because I wanted to capture moment-by-moment interaction between the teachers and the students to find out the organisational features of the talk in this particular setting. However, several non-verbal features like tones, pitches, gestures, and postures were not transcribed to maintain the readability of the transcripts.

3.4.2 Analysing the data

Grounded theory, a research methodology in qualitative research, was first proposed by Glaser and Strauss (1967). This approach aims to develop a theory grounded in systematically collected and analysed data. However, the issue of how and when to utilise existing literature in this approach is controversial. Glaser and Strauss (1967) argued against conducting prior background literature searches in order not to contaminate the emergence of categories. Strauss later disagreed with this position in his later books. Corbin and he acknowledged the role of the literature as they state that reading before data collection does not necessarily hinder the emergence of the theory (Corbin & Strauss, 2015; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). They recommend using it in “all phases of the research” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 56). The present study supports the latter view. Furthermore, it is necessary for the researcher to “make an informed and justifiable decision regarding how and when extant literature will be employed” (Dunne, 2011, p. 118), or to engage with it critically (Thornberg, 2012).

Another issue is the role of the researcher in grounded analysis. According to Charmaz (2014), the researcher plays a critical role in data collection and analysis because the resulting theory is the result of the researcher’s work to analyse what he or she actually collects and observes in the data. The collected data of the present study were subjected to a process of grounded analysis which aimed to develop theory through analysing data inductively, allowing the data to be prioritised over my assumptions and acquired knowledge while acknowledging the role of the reviewed literature in all the stages of data collection and analysis. However, there is an inevitable risk of bias in my research, which needed to be managed. For example, I could have wished to present the programme in a favourable light, and participants might have wanted to please me as I had been one of the designers of the BL programme and might return to teach in it. In addition, if I had not been involved in the programme, I would have done the research differently. Being vigilant of these influences, I made all attempts to achieve transparency of the research process, such as providing thick description of the contexts, and of the data collection and analysis.

According to Charmaz (2006), the coding process consists of four stages: initial coding, focused coding, axial coding, and thematic coding. NVivo11 was used to store, collate, and facilitate data analysis.

Initial coding

I started analysing with Teacher 1 first because she provided the richest data that I could gain with the highest number of lessons observed and follow-up stimulated recalls. All the data gained from this participant were initially analysed, including the interviews, stimulated recalls, and classroom observations. From these, the following initial open nodes were formed: communicative language teaching, the role of grammatical accuracy, types of OCF, types of errors, factors shaping beliefs and practices, beliefs about teachers and students' roles, attitudes towards BL environment, advantages and disadvantages of BL environment, and emotions in giving OCF.

Focused coding

When coding Teacher 1's beliefs, I paid particular attention to any talk in which she mentioned her thoughts in giving OCF, such as how she corrected the errors, when she did it, and what types of errors she paid the most attention to. These themes have been regarded in corrective feedback literature as fundamental issues. When I coded Teacher 1's practices for OCF episodes, I based my coding on Ellis et al. (2001) for focus on form episodes (FFE).

Below is the detailed description of how focus on form episodes (FFE) were identified.

Identifying focus on form episodes (FFE)

Each FFE was determined when the teachers started to focus on forms and ended when they focused on different linguistic forms.

Coding types of FFEs

Type A: Responding FFE: an episode in which the teacher responds to an utterance produced by a student that is problematic either because its meaning is not clear, or because it contains a linguistic error

Type B: Student initiated FFE: an episode in which a student initiates a focus on a specific linguistic feature because of a gap in his or her knowledge. These FFEs typically begin with a question of some kind.

Type C: Teacher initiated FFE: an episode in which the teacher initiates a focus on a specific linguistic feature because she thinks the feature may be problematic to the students in later stages of the lesson.

For each classroom observation of Teacher 1, I coded each episode manually. When I had decided on the type of episode, I placed a sticker to make sure that every episode was correctly counted. Identification of all the episodes revealed that type A had the largest number of FFEs. This prompted me to carry out further detailed coding with this type of feedback. I used the corrective feedback strategies (Lyster et al., 2013) to code all the episodes of this type.

Furthermore, when analysing Teacher 1's practices, a common feature emerged: the teacher usually waited until the students finished their work to provide feedback. I decided to code all the other five teachers' practices by repeating the above procedure of Teacher 1 and found the same finding. This indicated that the corrective feedback strategies proposed by Lyster et al. (2013) and the classification of FFEs (Ellis et al., 2001) were insufficient for the initial coding. A subsequent literature review revealed that delayed correction received little attention in the area of corrective feedback, as discussed by Quin (2014). However, Quin's thesis examined an experimental setting while my data were collected in a natural setting. However, when moving back and forth with this type of data, I realised there were three basic types of interaction when the teachers provided corrective feedback. That is, they provided feedback with the whole class, they corrected the error with the student who committed it, or they initiated feedback with one or two other students in the class to correct the error committed.

In further reading, the article by Rolin-Ianziti (2010) provided a very detailed description of how teachers in her study provided delayed corrective feedback in classroom settings. I found that the first two types of interaction in my finding matched with her findings. In addition, her article confirmed that little was known about delayed correction.

I created the sub-codes ‘immediate feedback’ and ‘delayed feedback’ as subsets of ‘when to give OCF’. However, I was aware that it is important to know in what type of contexts the teachers provided corrective feedback immediately or delayed their correction. Therefore, I started with Teacher 1’s lessons by segmenting a lesson into chunks based on the chronological order of the lesson procedures: lead-in stage, practice stage, and production stage. Within each task in each of these stages, I paid particular attention to whether the teachers provided immediate corrective feedback or delayed feedback. I also recorded the number of pairs or groups of students that the teachers asked to give in-front-of-class performance for each activity. Once the episodes were identified and grouped under the sub-codes, namely immediate and delayed feedback, I copied them into Word documents and coded manually immediate-feedback episodes using Lyster et al.’s (2013) categories (Type A1) and delayed-feedback sequences (Type A2). The latter type was coded under three types of interaction: teacher correction (Type A2a); teacher initiated, student correction (Type A2b); and teacher initiated peer correction (Type A2c).

Identifying and coding uptake moves

The uptake move occurs as a reaction to some preceding move in which another participant (usually the teacher) either explicitly or implicitly provides information about a linguistic feature (Ellis et al., 2001). In complex FFEs, only the final uptake move was counted because “this was the move that indicated most clearly what students had been able to extract from the episode” (Ellis et al., 2001, p. 297). A summary of all the types of FFEs and their sub-types is illustrated in the table, as below.

Table 3.2: Types and subtypes of FFEs

Types	Subtypes	Strategies	Uptake
Type A: Responding FFE	Type A1: Immediate feedback	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conversation/didactic recasts • Explicit correction • Explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation • Repetition • Clarification request • Metalinguistic clue • Elicitation • Paralinguistic signal 	Uptake or No uptake
	Type A2: Delayed feedback	Type A2a: Teacher correction	No or little evidence for uptake
		Type A2b: Teacher initiated, student correction	Uptake or No uptake
		Type A2c: Teacher initiated, peer correction	No or little evidence for uptake
Type B: Student-initiated FFE			N/A
Type C: Teacher-initiated FFE			N/A

*N/A: Not applicable

No uptake was coded in this study in the case when the student who initially produced an error could not use the linguistic item correctly after the teacher provided information about that item. *No opportunity for uptake* is defined as when the learner was not given an opportunity to respond.

Following these definitions of uptake, only FFEs Type A1 (immediate correction) and Type A2 (delayed correction) were coded for uptake as these involved error treatment by the teacher directed towards the student who initially committed the error. Type A1 was coded as *uptake* or *no uptake*.

Particularly, in Type A2a teachers would explicitly correct student errors, usually with the whole class. If the teachers either provided the correct form or asked the whole class to repeat, these episodes were coded *no or little evidence for uptake* as there was almost no evidence about whether the students who initially committed the errors would repeat the corrected version after the teacher, not to mention whether the linguistic point was correct or not.

In Type A2b, the teacher corrected the error with the student who had committed it, so the uptake was coded as *uptake* or *no uptake*.

Type A2c contained interactions between the teacher and students who did not make the error but were able to identify it; this does not entail any uptake in the student who committed the error. The error-making student may hear the corrected version from peers and teachers, but there is a lack of evidence of uptake. Therefore, these episodes were coded as *no or little evidence for uptake*.

To ease the coding procedure, the focus was on only three main features: OCF type, linguistic focus (pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary), and uptake.

Illustrating the Coding Procedure of an episode

Below is one example of an episode in which Teacher 2 provided immediate correction to the student's error, wrong pronunciation of the word 'Samson':

Example 1

1. T: Can you tell me the name? xxx What about this one ///
 2. Ss: xxx
 3. T: xxx listen to her please, the first one is
 4. S1: <sâm son> (Samson: is the name of a customer on the booking schedule while this student read the word exactly like the name of a tourist spot in VN)
 5. T: Samson hay <sâm son> *Samson* or <sâm son>
 6. Ss: : <sâm son>
 7. T: this <sâm son>
- (All Ss and T laughed)
8. T: Samson, right? What else?

Table 3.3: Analysis of Example 1

Type	A1	Immediate negative feedback
Linguistic focus	Pronunciation	The pronunciation of the word "Samson"
Uptake	No opportunity for uptake	Teacher just provided the correct form and no other opportunity for the student who made the mistake to correct it

Having had an overview of Teacher 1's beliefs and practices from interviewing and classroom observation data, I moved on to code the stimulated recall sessions with her, paying particular attention to the underlying reasons behind her practices. Her views toward giving OCF became clearer when she explained why she provided OCF in key episodes. After that, I went on to read her narrative frame to identify key points in her story. The final source of data I looked at was the focus group discussion where she revealed her very strong opinions about delayed feedback and the reasons for this practice. The following key codes emerged: beliefs about the role of OCF, delayed feedback, how to give feedback, factors affecting practices, and convergences between beliefs and practices.

Axial coding

I repeated this procedure with all the other teachers' data, teacher by teacher. From the analysis of a whole individual case, then across the cases, several new codes emerged, such as teachers' opinions about learning outcomes, their expectations toward students, the role of learner autonomy in the BL environment, and divergences between beliefs and practices.

After that, I consulted the documents that I collected including the curricula, syllabi, rules, and regulations about regular meetings on professional expertise, students' online reports, the students' textbook, the teachers' book for the BL programme, and minutes of regular meetings among teachers. From this point, I would use the term document analysis in the general sense to refer to the documents that I had read. For Rapley (2007), documents "are central to coordinating, constraining, and enabling our actions and interactions" (p. 88). Therefore, document analysis helped me to gain knowledge of how the participants were engaging with the documents within the local context. Furthermore, the document analysis enabled me to identify the actual teaching conditions together with rules and regulations teachers were complying with. For example, from the general guidelines sent to the teachers before the term began, I learned that it was obligatory for teachers to attend regular meetings or bring students' online reports for every lesson. Syllabus analysis helped me to confirm that corrective feedback was formally required, as there had been subsections on suggestions or recommendations on when to give feedback (for further

information of these suggestions, see Section 4.4). Convergences and divergences in patterns of the teaching practices could be explored among faculty staff teaching on the same programme. In this way, I could gain insight into how a formally accepted guideline affected individual choices. All of these sources were the basis for my additional questions on how the curricula, syllabi, and institutional rules affected teachers' beliefs and practices.

Thematic coding

After constantly comparing and relating the codes within each teacher's set of data, across all the teachers' data, or instrument by instrument, I found that several codes recurred in both the teachers' beliefs and practices: when to give feedback, how to give feedback, who corrects the error, and types of errors to correct. I could identify the close relationships among the codes; for example, the types of errors corrected affected when the teachers corrected the feedback as well as the OCF types they employed. In addition, I found that the code *when to give feedback* stood out as the most prominent phenomenon.

The following key themes emerged: teacher's beliefs, teachers' practices, convergences and divergences, and factors affecting the relationship between their beliefs and practices. These themes were formed first by my inductive analysis of the data and then influenced by the research questions. However, the sub themes, particularly *delayed feedback in Teachers' practices* and *three main patterns in delayed feedback* were mainly subject to grounded analysis. These themes and their sub-themes were then further refined and illustrated via the extracts in Chapter 5. Through this constant interrogation, comparison and contrast of the data, it gradually became apparent that scaffolding principles (van Lier, 1996) and Cultural Historical Activity Theory (Engeström, 1987, 1999, 2001; Leont'ev, 1981) provided suitable conceptual frameworks for interpreting the data.

3.5 Key criteria for qualitative research

Two critical qualities of any empirical study are validity and reliability. Validity includes internal validity and external validity. Internal validity means "the findings must describe accurately the phenomenon being researched" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 135), and in qualitative research, this is comparable to credibility

(Davis, 1992). In addition, according to Davis (1992), external validity refers to transferability, which means the findings can be replicable to other context. In qualitative research, “reliability can be regarded as a fit between what researchers record as data and what occurs in the natural setting” (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 149). It can be replaced with other terms, such as dependability or confirmability (Cohen et al., 2007). As the present study is a qualitative interpretative study, each criterion will be presented: credibility, transferability, and dependability.

3.5.1 Credibility

Credibility can be achieved by a detailed description of the data collection procedure (Burns, 2000) or evidence of “prolonged engagement, persistent observation, and triangulation” (Davis, 1992, p. 606). To achieve this in my study, various strategies were adopted. Firstly, a thick description of how data was gained, stored and analysed can be found in the study, specifically in the present chapter. Secondly, my involvement with the research site, particularly my previous eight-year employment there, provides a detailed understanding of the research setting, the participants, their teaching cultures and practices, which I have described as much as possible within the constraints of the thesis. My understanding of the context extends from being one of the designers of the curriculum, the syllabus and the course book of the blended learning programme. In addition, I was kept apprised of changes in the blended learning programme, including the class assignments to teachers, syllabi, and teaching timetables. These were sent to me via email in my capacity as a member of HaBu. I also kept in touch with my colleagues through chatting online about their current teaching activities. Thus, I had a deep, long-term engagement with the research context and participants despite the fact that the actual period of collecting data lasted only from early September 2016 to late November 2016.

Thirdly, credibility can be enhanced through data source triangulation and method triangulation (Carter, Bryant-Lukosius, DiCenso, & Neville, 2014). The present study applied source triangulation through collecting data from six participants with varying teaching experiences. This aided me to look at the teachers’ perceptions and their practices from various angles. Method triangulation, which is defined as “the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study”

(Cohen et al., 2007), was attained through my employment of a range of methods: interviews, observations, stimulated recall sessions, focus group discussion, narrative frames, and professional development meetings.

3.5.2 Transferability

Transferability involves “the provision of descriptive and contextualized statements” (Mertler, 2016, p. 210) and relates to whether the findings of the study can be applied to similar contexts (Houghton et al., 2013). To promote this, I provided a thick description of the research design, contexts, participants, and methods of my study to assist readers to identify with the setting and draw their own conclusions about transferability to their specific contexts. Moreover, although the features of the blended learning programme may have been specific to HaBu, a detailed explanation and description of the programme and the provision of OCF by the teachers may provide useful insights elsewhere.

3.5.3 Dependability

To achieve dependability, researchers should take their findings back to respondents for validation (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 149). In my study, summaries of the content of the semi-structure interviews, stimulated recall sessions, and focus group discussions were given to all the participants for peer checking, or respondent validation. If they disagreed with aspects of the summaries, they could request changes to, or removal of content. In practice, there was only one such occasion, which related to an issue of protecting the participant; otherwise, the participants agreed with the accuracy of all the information in the summaries sent.

Validity in qualitative research “relies more on a dependable, credible researcher and his or her personal integrity, self-discipline, and trustworthiness (Neuman, 2011, p. 169). Neuman further extends this to being “fair, honest, truthful and unbiased” (Neuman, 2011, p. 168). While doing research, I was fully aware of such risks, and acknowledge that despite my best intentions and earnest attempts, my personal opinions, inner feelings, and prejudices will have inevitably shaped the data collection and analysis. Neuman (2011, p. 168) suggests that by

acknowledging and being open about the influences and risks, one can uncover and mitigate their impacts.

For example, to achieve validity in interviews, I tried to minimise the amount of bias through my careful piloting and refining of interview schedules. Also, I attempted to conduct interviews thoroughly, such as by carefully formulating the questions to make interviewees understand them in the same way, avoiding leading questions, examining in detail a variety of examples and themes, and exploring alternative interpretations and perspectives. As explained above, I recorded interviews, transcribed them, sought participant validation, and then analysed them carefully to achieve accuracy.

In addition, with classroom observation, I made sure that I observed the lessons in the same way and using the same coding conventions. I acted as a non-participant observer of the lesson to minimize the effect of my presence on their natural behaviours. Being unobtrusive, I could focus on details and take effective field notes of the events, which I augmented with reflective notes as soon as possible after each observation to obtain fine-grained details. I audio-recorded the lessons of one participant who expressed her anxiety towards the use of video in order to remove the effects of the presence of the cameras. I also waited until the final two weeks of the course to observe another participant who told me she was not ready and healthy enough to be observed at the beginning of the course.

As another instance, a stimulated recall protocol was established for consistency and credibility. These were given to the participants to make sure that they were aware of what they were going to do. I was extremely cautious in what questions would be asked and how, in order to elicit what the participants were thinking when they gave OCF. Every effort was made to gain a full understanding of the circumstances under which verbal reports from the participants were obtained. In addition, I tried my best to make sure that the recall was carried out as soon as possible after the observation to help the participants relive the original event with vividness and accuracy.

3.6 Summary

This chapter presented and discussed the rationale for the choice of research paradigm, rationale for multi-method research design, selection and description of the participants, and data collection methods and procedures in the present study. In addition, the chapter also described the process of data analysis using a grounded approach. Furthermore, it presented ethical issues as well as addressing key criteria in evaluating qualitative interpretive research: credibility, transferability, and dependability. Results of the data analysis will be present in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER FOUR: AN OVERVIEW OF THE BLENDED LEARNING PROGRAMME

As the present study adopts a socio-cultural perspective, to explore the teachers' beliefs and practices, it is of importance to take into consideration the contextual environment. This chapter presents an overview of the blended learning programme, including descriptions of both the online and F2F materials, of the teaching manuals, and of the teacher professional development activities that teachers took part in.

4.1 Overview of the BL programme

The overall objective of the programme was to improve the students' communicative competence. There are two learning modes in this programme: online learning and F2F learning, which were intended to complement each other. The online learning tasks comprise five sections: vocabulary, grammar, reading, listening, and writing. In each section, the number of tasks varied from two to five. In addition, there were mini-tests after each vocabulary and grammar section. Students could access and redo the tasks and the mini-tests as many times as they desired. Most of the tasks were accuracy-focused and close-ended, and the students were given points for each correct answer.

At the time of the data collection, the students completed the online tasks by themselves because there was little online interaction between the students and the teachers. If they had any enquiries about their own online learning, they could raise the questions in F2F lessons. They could also ask for help from the class peer tutors who were selected from the class by the teacher based on having better English. These class tutors dealt with any enquiries, such as difficulties in grammar or vocabulary that a student encountered in online learning tasks. To assist the students and teachers during the term, there were a group of IT technicians who were supposed to provide immediate support for any technical issues students encountered. Apart from the class time, the students could participate in English-speaking clubs in the evening where they could join in group work or team work to improve their English. Moreover, several teachers asked students to record their homework tasks, such as talking about a topic or

making a conversation with a friend, and then post it to a private group on Facebook for later comments from teachers and friends.

F2F class materials all focused on speaking skills and consisted of eight units on average. For the ease of the analysis, all the tasks, exercises, and activities in F2F lessons are labelled “tasks”. Each unit was split into two 90-minute lessons with an average of four tasks per lesson. Two lessons were usually conducted one day apart so that the students could have opportunities to re-practise the online tasks. Both of the online and F2F learning materials were theme-based, and the themes were selected after a needs analysis carried out by the teachers. That is, the English teachers interviewed both the ex-students about their experienced situations at their work place and the subject content teachers about their expertise of the field. The themes were then compiled and the content and tasks selected based on the students’ level of English. During the period when the teachers designed the materials, no training about how to design tasks was provided.

Table 4.1: An overview of the structure of one unit

Online learning tasks		F2F tasks		
Vocabulary	Tasks 1-5	Speaking	Lesson 1 (90 minutes)	Tasks 1-4
Grammar	Tasks 1-5			
Listening	Tasks 1-5		Lesson 2 (90 minutes)	Tasks 5-8
Reading	Tasks 1-5			
Writing	Tasks 1-5			

In each F2F unit, there were four main parts: (1) Overall objectives, (2) Key language knowledge, (3) Online learning checklist, and (4) F2F class materials. While the first part stated the general goals of the unit, the second part reminded the students of the focal words and structures presented in the online learning tasks. The third part was a task checklist for students to tick off online tasks when completed. In the final section, there were about eight tasks on average to help students to improve their speaking skill.

Both online and F2F tasks were designed to practise specific linguistic forms. The students were asked to practise these target items through, for example, matching

activities. Listening, reading, and writing tasks were compiled from different sources on the grounds that they would provide opportunities for the students to hear and see these forms in various contexts. Furthermore, the F2F tasks were designed to help the students revise, practise, and use these target language items. It is noteworthy that both online and F2F tasks are similar in terms of the goal, that is, practising the focal items. However, the online tasks seemed to be unrelated to the F2F tasks, as they were not followed up in class and did not create the contexts for F2F tasks. This is because there was no cross referencing found in those tasks except the checklist contained in F2F materials showing student completion of the online tasks.

In the syllabus, there was another subsection about student eligibility for the final-term exam. That is, they were required to complete 100% of the online tasks prior to F2F sessions and 100% of the online tests. They also had to sit at least 80% of F2F classes. With regard to in-class speaking assessment, each student has to make at least two public performances per term, and these performances had to be marked. They also had to take a mid-term speaking test. It was required that all the students be informed of these requirements in the first lesson of the term.

Because the focus of the present study is on oral corrective feedback, only F2F learning tasks will be analysed in the following sections.

4.2 The F2F teaching materials

In this section, samples of two units in F2F speaking materials for Faculties A and B will be presented, followed by an analysis of the tasks. The analysis is based on the four main characteristics of tasks in TBLT, namely (1) focus (meaning or form), (2) focus on form (implicit or explicit), (3) language in process (predetermined or spontaneous), and solution (open or closed) (Ellis, 2003).

Analysis of one unit in F2F materials for Faculty A

The programme for Faculty A aims to provide the students with vocabulary and structures about topics, such as hotel and restaurant staff, welcoming guests, hotel reservations, hotel amenities and services, hotel check-in and bar services. In addition, its purpose was to improve students' communicative skills in such

situations. The F2F materials typically included model conversations so that students could be familiar with how language is used in these specific situations. Then they were required to practise the target vocabulary and structures in pairs until they could remember and produce the conversation without books. Below is a sample of one unit in the F2F course book.

Sample of one unit in F2F materials

The overall objective of the unit is that students would be able to name jobs in a restaurant and talk about job duties and shifts. There were eight tasks in F2F materials which were split up into two lessons, four tasks each lesson. The content of the unit below was retyped as exactly as the original version, which was in English.

Lesson 1

Task 1: Listen about job duties

Work in pairs. Listen to audios about duties of job. Quickly say out the title jobs. Say out the whole sentences. Get one point for one correct sentence and correct pronunciation.

Task 2: Practice a sample conversation

Listen to a conversation between a manager and a new staff. Put the following statements in order.

Practice the conversation with a partner.

1. No, there are 14 of us
2. Yes. But we do such a superb job that we almost never have to deal with those!
3. My name Lisa. I'm a manager here, which means I'll be responsible for your training in our restaurant.
4. A captain sounds like team leader to me. Can you tell me what captains do in their stations?
5. They take orders, serve food and drinks, clear tables settle bills and handle all kinds of requests from our guests.
6. And what duties do servers do?
7. Generally speaking, captains assign duties to their staff and make sure everything runs smoothly.
8. And complaints?
9. Hi, Lisa. Nice to meet you. My name is Eric. And you the only captain here?

Task 3: Role-play

Work in pairs: one is a manager, one is a new staff

- The manager introduces him/herself and his/her duties in the restaurant
- The new staff asks about what she/he has to do in the restaurant (duties)

Sample conversation:

Manager: My name is I'm a manager here, which means I'll be responsible for your training in our restaurant.

New staff: Hi, Nice to meet you. My name is..... Are you the only captain here?

Manager: No, there are of us.

New staff: A captain sounds like team leader to me. Can you tell me what captains do in their stations?

Manager: Generally speaking, captains assign duties to their staff and make sure everything runs smoothly.

New staff: And what duties do do?

Manager: They.....

New staff: And complaints?

Manager: Yes. But we do such a superb job that we almost never have to deal with those!

New staff: Oh, thank you for welcoming me. I hope we will work well together.

Task 4: Getting acquainted

Work in groups of four: student A is a new waiter/waitress, student B is a manager, student C is a bartender and student D is a chef.

- The manager introduces the new waiter/waitress to the others
- The other staff introduces themselves and their job duties in the restaurant.

Lesson 2:

Task 5: Role-play

Listen to an interview between a manager and an applicant. Complete the conversation by filling in missing words. Check the answer. Practice the conversation with a partner. Role-play by changing title job and duties/experiences.

Headwaiter: Hi, Rebecca. I'm Jim, the (1).....Thanks for coming.

Applicant: (2).....The Post Meridian seems like a great place to work.

Headwaiter: It really is. So, you work at another restaurant right now?

Applicant: Yes. I'm a server at the Riley Cafe'. But I need (3)

Headwaiter: Well, experience as a server is good. What are your (4).....there?

Applicant: I (5)....., deliver food and set out napkins and utensils.

Headwaiter: I see. Sometimes we need our wait staff to help the hosts, too.

Applicant: (6).....I also have experience as a hostess.

Task 6: Practice with cards

Work in pairs. Student A and Student B are working in the same restaurant. Make a conversation asking about your partner's job basing suggestions.

Student A: You are a waiter of the Orchid Restaurant. Ask for student B's information basing on the suggested words:

Student B: Go on page 76.

Questions	Student B's information
• How many/guests/serve/a day?	

• What/shift/work?	
• What/duties?	
• How much/you/earn?	
• What time/start/work?	
• What time/come back/home?	
• What/your colleagues like?	
• You/want/change/job?	

Page 76:

Students B: You are waiter of the Orchid Restaurant. Ask for student A's information basing on the suggested words:

Questions	Student A's information
• How many/guests/serve/a day?	
• What/shift/work?	
• What/duties?	
• How much/you/earn?	
• What time/start/work?	
• What time/come back/home?	
• What/your colleagues like?	
• You/want/change/job?	

Task 7: Further practice with cards

Work in pairs: Make conversation asking about the job.

Student A: You are John. Look at the card on page 51 and ask your partner for information about his/her job. Then, answer his/her questions

Student B: Go on page 76

	Student A	Student B
Name:	John	
Job:	Head chef	
Workplace:	Lotus restaurant	
How long:	5 years	
Duties:	Manage and train other cooks and kitchen workers, take responsibilities for the menu	
Shift:	Day shift	
Salary:	\$1,500.00	
Feelings	Busy	

Student B: You are Jun. Now, let's look at the card, ask for your partner's information, and answer the questions.

	Student A	Student B
Name:	Jun	
Job:	Manager	
Workplace:	Orchid restaurant	
How long:	2 years	
Duties:	Organise and supervise operations, control costs, and manage the wait staff	
Shift:	Split shift	
Salary:	\$1,200.00	
Feelings	Satisfied	

Task 8: Long time no see

Work in pairs. Student A and Student B worked at the same restaurant and haven't seen each other for a long time. Greet and ask about health, family, Ask about current job: workplace, duties, shift, salary,

Figure 4. 1: The speaking unit

In terms of the *task focus*, in *Lesson 1*, both Task 1 and Task 2 focus on forms. For example, Task 1 revises vocabulary about job titles while Task 2 provides several structures used in a conversation between a manager and a new staff. Task 3 builds on the previous structures towards more a meaning-focused activity. In Task 4, the students are asked to role-play freely as a manager and a new staff member, but they may use vocabulary and structures provided in the scripted model conversation. In *Lesson 2*, all the tasks from 5 to 8 move toward focus on meaning. Task 5 is an exercise of vocabulary. Tasks 6 and 7 are information gap activities with different types of prompts given for students to practise. Task 8 is a much more creative role-play with no prompts given.

With reference to *explicit or implicit focus on form*, in *Lesson 1*, the degree of implicitness in focus on form increases from Task 1 to Task 4. Tasks 1 and 2 focus on forms explicitly as the target vocabulary and structures are made salient to students in the audio listening or the scripted conversation. In Task 3, focus on form is less explicit as students need to fill in the blank with the right words. Task 4 is the most implicit as no language forms are provided. Similarly, in *Lesson 2*, the degree of implicitness in attention to form increases toward the end of the lesson. The lesson begins with Task 5 in which a sample is scripted, but in Task 8,

the students are free to tell about jobs, workplace, or shifts as no prompts are provided.

Regarding *language predictability*, the degree of language predictability decreases toward the end of each lesson. In *Lesson 1*, in Task 1, language is most predictable as the students are highly likely to say the target items after the prompts in the listening activity. In Task 4, the language to be used is least predictable as the groups of three students are allowed to use their own language to play the roles as a chef, a manager, and a bartender. Similarly, in *Lesson 2*, Task 5 orients the students to use the structures and language in the model; however, in Task 8, students may use language spontaneously in their conversations when asked to play the role as old friends meeting each other after a long time.

In relation to *solution*, in both *Lessons 1 and 2*, the solutions in most of the tasks are open as they allow students to choose a solution which is not intended to be assessed as correct or incorrect. For example, Task 3 in Lesson 1, the students can freely play the role. Another instance is in Task 7, Lesson 2, the students can exchange their given information about the jobs with freedom. The descriptions of the tasks in the sample unit can be seen in the table below.

Table 4.2: A summary of the descriptions of the tasks 1-8

	Lesson 1				Lesson 2			
Description	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5	Task 6	Task 7	Task 8
Focus	F	F	M	M	M	M	M	M
Focus on form	E	E	E	I	E	I	I	I
Language predictability	P	P	P	S	P	S	S	S
Solution	Closed	Open	Open	Open	Closed	Open	Open	Open

- Form=F, Meaning=F, Predetermined=P, Spontaneous=S, Explicit=E, Implicit=I

In summary, most of the tasks in this unit are meaning-focused and attention to form is decreasingly explicit toward the end of each lesson. Despite different

levels of explicitness and language predictability, they belong to one category, that is, role-play. Although there are elements of information gaps and unpredictability associated with communicative events, none of these tasks requires non-linguistic outcomes.

The format of the sample unit of Faculty B is basically the same as that of the unit of Faculty A (see Appendix 16). First, both of the units start with FonFs tasks in which attention to form is most explicit and language use is most predictable. They end with tasks with the least explicit attention to form and the least predictable language use. Second, the large majority of tasks are structured role-plays in which students are required to practise a predetermined set of vocabulary and grammar items while attending to meaning. Thirdly, there is a similarity in the design of the final tasks of the two lessons in one unit. In the sample unit of Faculty for A, both the final tasks of the two lessons are role-plays, while in Faculty B they are both monologues.

In summary, as the tasks are oriented toward meaning and the overall objective of the programme is to improve the students' communication, it is intriguing to discover the extent to which the teachers attended to form.

4.3 The F2F teaching procedures

The recommended teaching procedures for the F2F tasks could be found in the respective teachers' books for Faculty A and B. There were similar steps for all the tasks: the teachers were expected to ask the students to work in groups and pairs, then call some pairs to perform the conversations in front of the class, followed by either peer or teacher comments, such as error correction. There was no information about how and when to give corrective feedback stated in the teacher procedure. There was no cross-referencing to the online learning tasks in the teaching manual, which could have shown teachers the links between the two learning modes. Because the teachers did not assist the students to learn in the online learning environment, it is worthwhile exploring, as the present study does, how the teachers assisted them in F2F environments to improve their knowledge and skills, particularly, via error correction.

Apart from these materials, there was a general guideline for testing and assessment which was incorporated in the syllabus of the BL programme for teachers to refer to. The content of the guideline is presented in the following section.

4.4 The general guideline for testing and assessment

The general guideline for testing and assessment was expressed in one subsection in the syllabus, acting as a point of reference for the teachers to refer to when needed. There were five main points in this guideline. Firstly, the teachers needed to specify the speaking assessment criteria for each task. They included: (1) message content, (2) vocabulary and grammar range, (3) fluency and coherence, and (4) attitude and comprehensibility (for further details of these criteria, see Appendix 17). Secondly, they needed to invite several individuals or pairs to perform their work in front of the whole class after their rehearsal so that the teachers and other peers could give constructive comments. Thirdly, they needed to create a friendly learning atmosphere for the students to encourage students to perform voluntarily and to reduce stress. Fourthly, if the time was insufficient, teachers could ask the students to repeat the task at home individually, in pairs or groups, then either audio or video record it for further peer- or teacher feedback in the following class. Finally, the teachers could combine their classroom observations and the results of the tests to identify areas where they could assist students in F2F lessons.

There was congruence between these guidelines and the teachers' book regarding the requirement for the students to perform in front of the whole class, followed by peers' and teachers' comments. The study investigates the extent to which these requirements were put into the practice, and how they influenced the activity of error correction.

4.5 The teacher professional development activities

Several months after the programme was launched, the teachers took part in a three-week professional development workshop in teaching methodology. As my data collection commenced some time after this workshop had been conducted, I

could not access its content and procedures. In general, they were trained in how to teach specific skills, such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing and how to scaffold students in these skill-based lessons. It seemed that there was no specific course about how to give feedback.

4.6 Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the BL programme that the teaching participants were teaching, and presented an analysis of the F2F teaching materials, teaching procedures, general guideline, and teacher professional development activities.

Notable features of the BL programme include the lack of cross-referencing between online and F2F tasks and the absence of teacher facilitation in online learning activity. The analysis of the F2F materials revealed a tendency to orient toward meaning in the majority of tasks. In the teaching manuals, the procedure of the tasks seems to be similar: student rehearsal, public performances, and comments including error correction. In addition, there was no guideline about how to provide error correction in these materials. With reference to the general guideline for testing and assessment, there were five suggestions, some of which were about how to provide feedback. Finally, although teacher professional development was provided to the participants, there was none particularly about oral corrective feedback.

CHAPTER FIVE: FINDINGS

The findings presented below are outlined on the basis of the research questions 1, 2, 3, and 4. On the basis of these first four research questions, questions 5 and 6 will be addressed in chapters 6 and 7.

1. What are Vietnamese EFL teachers' beliefs about providing OCF?
2. What are these teachers' actual teaching practices regarding OCF?
3. To what extent is there convergence between their beliefs about OCF and their classroom practices?
4. What are the underlying factors shaping teachers' beliefs and their practices?

The conventions below are used in the presentation of all the data

Table 5.1: The conventions used in the data presentation

I (T1.I)	Interview (Interview with Teacher 1)
COE	Classroom observation episodes
T1.COE1	The first classroom observation of Teacher 1
PLD	Stimulated recall
T1.PLD1	The first stimulated recall of Teacher 1
T1.NF	Narrative frame of Teacher 1
FG	Focus group discussion
[...]	Part of quotation omitted
(...)	Interpretive/narrative comments

In this chapter, I will present the findings of the present studies related to the teachers' beliefs and practices regarding OCF in a BL environment. Overall, it was found that teachers' practices were influenced by a range of beliefs. Specifically, the teachers believed in the important role of grammatical accuracy to avoid misunderstanding in communication while they also attached importance to the role of fluency in students' performance. Along with this belief was an assumption about the students: the teachers thought that they lacked confidence, had limited English ability and almost no experience of speaking English.

Therefore, to help students to be more confident and fluent in speaking, they delayed the feedback on errors until students finished their conversations. Moreover, from their teaching experiences, they believed that the mistakes were committed not only by the students who had just presented their work but also by many other students in the class. This belief prompted the teachers to give delayed correction in public because they believed that doing so could help other students to learn from those mistakes as well. More fine-grained details of their beliefs as well as OCF practices will be presented as follows.

The findings will be presented in five sections: teachers' beliefs about providing OCF (Section 5.1), teachers' practices regarding giving OCF (Section 5.2), extent of convergences in situ in beliefs and practices (Section 5.3), influencing factors (Section 5.4), and summary of key findings (Section 5.5).

Although errors and mistakes are usually differentiated, in practice it was quite difficult to recognise when students made mistakes or errors as I focused only on teacher's cognition and practices. Therefore, the words errors and mistakes will be used interchangeably.

5.1 Teachers' beliefs about providing OCF

Three areas of focus were identified as reflecting features of the teachers' beliefs about OCF: (1) importance of grammatical accuracy, (2) importance of giving OCF, and (3) beliefs about providing OCF.

5.1.1 Teachers' beliefs about the importance of grammatical accuracy

All teachers believed accuracy played a significant role in language learning. Teacher 5, for example, expressed her general view:

For me, accuracy is very important, especially in communicating. It is composed of many factors like accuracy in pronunciation, vocabulary and structure use. If there are too many errors in pronunciation or words or phrases, the listeners would not understand what we are saying, resulting in failure in communication. (T5.I)

In addition, Teachers 1, 2, 3 and 6 said that accuracy is important but it should be considered less seriously. This can be seen in what Teacher 2 said:

Grammatical accuracy plays an important role but not essential because making mistakes is the precondition of an error-free conversation which is a natural feature of learning a language. If teachers pay too much attention to students' accuracy, they would not dare to speak. While teaching, I encourage my students to pay attention to accuracy but take it less seriously.
(T2.I)

In short, all the teachers shared the view that accuracy plays an important role in language teaching, and particularly that grammatical accuracy determines the success of delivering messages or helps to avoid misunderstanding. However, some expressed their concerns that an excessive preoccupation with accuracy could be detrimental, as it could lead to students becoming hesitant to speak in class. The general emphasis on accuracy leads to the teachers' beliefs in the importance of providing OCF.

5.1.2 Teachers' beliefs about the importance of giving OCF

In the BL environment, the F2F component was intended to play an essential role in terms of facilitating students to improve speaking skills as well as helping students to consolidate the language items learnt online. All the teachers believed that giving OCF plays an essential role in the following ways. Firstly, giving OCF is one of the core teaching activities: as Teacher 4 said, "For this type of learning, if teachers do not correct pronunciation mistakes, and improve student speaking ability, [...], there is nothing to teach (T4.I)."

Secondly, according to Teacher 2, giving OCF can foster student confidence, improve their English, and develop assessment skills:

Giving OCF plays a very important role, making students more confident and improving their English when speaking in front of the class. Besides, it helps students to recognise the strong and

weak points in their conversation. For me, giving OCF is an essential method in language teaching. (T2.I)

Thirdly, without OCF, students cannot always identify their own errors: “Teachers are the people who know whether online knowledge is sufficient enough [...] or what mistakes are often committed by students so that they can assist them well” (T4.I). Here, Teacher 4 elaborated the fundamental role of teachers in the BL environment in the sense that they are the people who can detect student knowledge gaps and errors and provide necessary assistance.

5.1.3 Beliefs about providing OCF

In this subsection, based on the interview data, I will discuss the teachers’ beliefs about when and how to give feedback, what types of errors to correct, and who corrects the errors.

5.1.3.1 *Beliefs about timing of giving OCF*

All the teachers thought that corrective feedback should be given immediately when students worked in pairs during the rehearsal stage and should be delayed until they had completed their conversation when they performed in front of the class. They reported that they delayed the correction because they would like to improve students’ confidence by not interrupting the flow of their conversation. However, in general, different teachers had their own approaches under specific circumstances.

In terms of immediate feedback, for example, Teacher 1 said that “I gave instant feedback when I assisted student pair work” (T1.I) while Teacher 2 said “if students make too many mistakes, I would correct immediately” (T2.I). Teacher 4, however, said that she corrected students on the basis of linguistic focus: “with pronunciation and word use errors, I would correct immediately to ask students to repeat in order for them not to forget and give them a chance to practise” (T4.I).

Regarding delayed feedback, all the teachers reported that they used delayed feedback to maintain the flow of student speech and to avoid demotivating students. For example, Teacher 3 said “when they (students) present in front of others, I would correct after they finish in order not to interrupt the conversation.”

(T3.I). Teacher 4 claimed that she provided delayed feedback to grammar errors: “with grammar errors, I often note down and correct them when students have completed their talk” (T4.I). They reported that the other reason for delayed feedback was to prevent the other students from making similar mistakes. For instance, Teacher 2 stated that “based on their performance, I identified mistakes that are the most common and most problematic, which other students could make and noted down on the board, so they could avoid repeating them” (FG.1). Teacher 5, on the other hand, stated that, aside from noting down the mistakes, she provided the correction, asked the whole class to listen and repeat as a way to prevent similar future mistakes:

I think after students talk in pairs or groups, teachers will take notes, give correction, and then ask the whole class to repeat after them. Teachers need to ask the other students to pay attention because they may make the same mistake. (T5.I)

It is noticeable that delayed feedback was given after the student public performances. That is, after letting the students rehearse in pairs or groups, the teachers asked them to repeat the task in front of the whole class. The teacher would ask them to remain in front to listen to comments from the other students and from the teacher himself or herself. The purposes of this activity, as stated by all the teachers were to: (1) to improve their confidence in communication and (2) to help them learn from their friends’ performances. For instance, Teacher 3 said that:

Performing in front of the class is so important. I often ask my students to do that in my lessons. It would make students more confident as standing in front of everyone talking will reduce their shyness and [...] other students can draw some lessons.
(T3. I)

Ignoring the mistakes

Teacher 6 said that “If the mistakes are not serious, I would ignore them” (T6.I) while Lecture 2 mentioned the situations when she let the mistakes go: “If students were speaking fluently and showing their motivation in the conversation,

or the quality of pair work was acceptable, I would never interrupt” (T2.I).

Teacher 3, meanwhile, said that “I only correct the errors which I think deserve being corrected. I do not correct every error” (T3.I).

In short, all the teachers shared common beliefs about when to give immediate or delayed feedback, and when they ignored them. Table 5.2 is a summary of the beliefs about when to give OCF:

Table 5.2: Summary of teachers’ beliefs about the timing of giving OCF

Giving immediate feedback	When students are preparing in pairs or groups When students make too many mistakes If students have a good level of English and high motivation
Giving delayed feedback	When students have completed their conversations either in their place or in front of the class If students have a low level of English
Ignoring the mistakes	If the quality of student work is acceptable If students are showing great interest in taking part in the conversation If students are speaking fluently

5.1.3.2 *Beliefs about which learner errors should be corrected*

When being asked about which learner errors should be corrected, all the teachers mentioned things they often did in their daily lessons. Among three types of errors in grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation, a strong tendency toward mentioning pronunciation errors as a main type was identified. For example, Teacher 4 considered pronunciation as the main focus in F2F teaching: “For this type of learning, if teachers do not correct pronunciation mistakes, [...] if they do not improve students’ pronunciation, [...] there is nothing to teach” (T4.I). Three teachers (Teacher 1, 2, and 3) expressed their desire to make the students better at word stress and intonation. For example, Teacher 2 said that “I often tell my students that it is important to have intonation in speaking as it makes people understand them more easily” (T2.PLD1). Table 5.3 is a summary of the teachers’ beliefs about types of errors to correct.

Table 5.3: Teachers' beliefs about types of errors to correct

Teacher 1	Four criteria: (1) "message content"; (2) "grammar"; (3) "pauses and linking words" and (4) "phonetics"
Teacher 2	No particular aspects were mentioned but reminding students of "vocabulary"; "grammar"; "fluency and accuracy"; "pronunciation; intonation"
Teacher 3	"Expression"
Teacher 4	"Pronunciation" (most important); "grammar"; "word use"
Teacher 5	"Tenses, plural and singular, articles use, vocabulary use" to students at elementary levels; "introductory; linking and ending sentences in free talks" after [students] finished them
Teacher 6	Ingrained "pronunciation errors"; "grammar"

To sum up, all the participants mentioned that vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation errors should be corrected; however, they tended to mention more about their pronunciation error correction.

5.1.3.3 *Beliefs about how learners should be corrected*

In general, all the teachers said that they often took notes of the errors, either in a notebook or on the board to elicit student correction before they provided their own correction. The reason for such collective correction was their belief that the whole class could learn from their friends' mistakes. For example, Teacher 2 said:

While students are practising, I listen attentively to students' conversation and take notes of their mistakes. If the mistakes are serious, I would take notes on the board. After students have finished the conversation, I would ask the whole class to look at the board and give any correction to the mistakes. Then I would give the correction myself. (T2.I)

However, in the interview, Teacher 1 said her approach to error treatment was on the basis of the four criteria suggested by the Faculty: "message content", "grammar", "pauses and linking words", and "phonetics" (T1.I). The details of the Faculty criteria are found in Section 4.4. More specifically, she would take notes of the students' mistakes on the basis of these criteria and ask her students to do the same (based on the four criteria) to their friends' mistakes. Mistakes would be

presented on the board or repeated again leaving the chance for the whole class to recognise and correct. This procedure was formed in the initial weeks of the semester until students were thoroughly familiar with it.

5.1.3.4 *Beliefs about who should correct learner errors*

All teachers claimed that they often asked students to find any mistakes in the conversation, and then correct them. If students could not find any, they would point out the errors, elicit student correction, or explicitly correct them. For example, Teacher 6 said:

I do not correct errors when students are speaking. I let them finish the conversation and ask other students to give any comments. [...] If they can point out some mistakes, I will make a summary and correct them with the whole class. (T6.I)

In short, this section has dealt with the presentation of the findings on the teachers' beliefs about the importance of grammatical accuracy, the role of giving OCF, what, when, and how to correct the errors, and who corrects the errors. The extent to which these beliefs were carried out in practice will be the focus of the next section.

5.2 Teachers' practices regarding giving OCF

In this section, the findings will be presented based on the analysis of classroom observation and stimulated recall data. I will present the findings about: (1) the timing of OCF, (2) how errors were corrected, (3) who corrected the errors, (4) types of errors corrected, (5) reasons for the use of L1, and (6) the use of home tasks. The error correction techniques, type of form-focused episodes (FFEs) and uptake observed and not observed are presented with reference to the categorisations of Lyster et al. (2013), and Ellis et al. (2001) in relation to immediate feedback and the approaches to error correction by Rolin-Ianziti (2010) with regard to delayed feedback.

The following conventions were employed in the presentation of the classroom observation data:

Table 5.4: Transcript conventions

#1, #2	number of extract
01, 02	speaker turn
1, 2	line number
T	Teacher
S1, S2	unknown students
Lan, Hanh	students' pseudonyms
Ss	more than one student speaking
0.1, 0.2, 0.3	pauses of one second, two seconds, three seconds
bold	error made by students (sometimes repeated by teachers)
xxx	unintelligible speech
()	activity associated with the speech + interpretive comment
<>	actual pronunciation of the students or teachers
<i>italics</i>	English translation of Vietnamese speech
H-o-s-t	T speaks and writes at the same time
Question mark (?)	rising intonation to elicit student response

5.2.1 When OCF was given

Both immediate and delayed feedback were given in a very specific teaching situation. Therefore, it is necessary to provide a fine-grained analysis about how they were provided.

The actual teaching context where OCF was provided

To understand the context in which OCF was provided, I will describe the whole structure of the lesson together with the procedures the participants adopted to carry out most of the activities in class. The analysis of the teachers' book revealed that each lesson was developed through three stages, namely revision, practice, and production. In the first stage, teachers did not teach or present language knowledge (as in the presentation stage in the PPP approach), but rather they revised existing knowledge through activities or games. The following two

stages were quite similar to the second and third stages of the PPP approach, whereby students practised the targeted structures in controlled tasks until they mastered them and were able to produce a presentation or dialogue freely on their own.

However, in observed lessons, the practices and contexts for giving OCF were more or less the same in both the practice and production stages. To be more specific, during the practice stage where the focus was on accuracy, accuracy could presumably be achieved by correcting students' errors immediately. However, in many cases, teachers were observed to delay their feedback until the students finished their conversation, apparently with the aim of encouraging fluency. In the production stage where the focus was to improve fluency, the teaching procedure was similar, with feedback given after students completed their performance. One noteworthy thing is that in both stages, pairs of students were called for in-front performance, so that OCF was given in a public manner. As mentioned above, all the teachers claimed that they did so in order for other students to learn from their friends' mistakes as they might make the same errors. This resulted in the observed fact that more delayed feedback was given than immediate feedback and more OCF was given in public manner than in individual settings. Table 5.5 summarizes how OCF was mainly given in an overall lesson:

Table 5.5: Summary of OCF provided in the stages of a lesson

Revision	Immediate feedback Pre-emptive OCF in FFEs
Practice	Little immediate feedback and mainly delayed feedback
Production	Little immediate feedback Mainly delayed feedback

In addition, within an activity, the teaching procedure was found to be similar to that in the practice and production stages. That is, teachers often involved students in a pre-activity stage where grammatical structures, key words, and phrases were highlighted. At this stage, the classroom interaction was teacher-centred and teacher-directed. Once students were familiar with all these items, they were asked to participate in the rehearsal stage where they worked in pairs or groups, practising the target structures. Teachers at that time were observed to go around, making sure

that students were on the right track and providing immediate feedback to any errors corrected. However, it was recorded and observed that little OCF was given during this stage. In Teacher 1’s lessons, after the rehearsal in their own seats, at least one pair was called to come to the front and re-perform the task. It was observed in the lessons by Teachers 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 that two pairs or sometimes up to six pairs were called up for presentations, mostly followed by delayed correction. Actually, it was found in these public performances, students merely either read aloud to each other the model conversations in the book, or read the suggested questions in question-and-answer activities, or read the model monologues scripted in the books with a few substitutions of pronouns and possessive adjectives. Few teachers interrupted during the performance while most of them took note of the errors and corrected them when the performance was finished. Once delayed feedback was given, teachers called another pair for performance or moved to the next activity. This procedure was observed to be repeated in both the practice and production stage in most of the teachers’ lessons. In addition, classroom observation data revealed the higher number of pairs that the teachers called for in-front performances and fewer error correction episodes toward the end of the unit, but the repeated patterns and approaches in providing OCF in all the tasks in both lessons. This also contributed to a higher number of delayed feedback episodes than immediate ones. Table 5.6 summarises how OCF was mostly given within each activity and refers to the extracts that follow:

Table 5. 6: The provision of OCF within each stage of an activity

Pre-activity stage	Strategic planning	Immediate OCF (Extract #1) Pre-emptive FFEs (Extract #2)
	Rehearsal	Immediate feedback to individuals (not captured) Immediate feedback to the whole class (Extract #3)
Public performance		Almost no immediate feedback
Post-activity stage		Delayed feedback (e.g., From Extract #7 to Extract #21)

OCF was given before, during, and after an activity. It occurred in pre-activity stages when teachers were guiding students to do the activity, for example, telling them how to make questions and give answers. During the interaction, students committed errors which were immediately corrected by teachers. For instance,

when Teacher 1 elicited from students how to ask questions about the salary, students mispronounced the word “much”, as in:

Extract #1

- 01 T What about salary?
02 S1 How is your salary?
03 S2 How /mʌt/...
04 T How /mʌt/, how /mʌk/, or how /mʌtʃ/?
05 S2 How /mʌtʃ/

(T1.COE2)

In this case, after recognising the mispronounced word, Teacher 1 employed alternative questions (turn 4) to prompt students to correct his error. This is followed by the student’s correction in the final move.

Another case is when teachers thought that students might encounter a linguistic problem in later stages of the activity, so they brought this matter to class attention. For example, the students were required to ask about their partner’s personal information and one of the questions was “how much do you expect to get paid?” While Teacher 5 instructed her students how to ask their classmates, she said:

Extract #2 (see Appendix 18 for the original transcript)

- 01 T *Do not read ten million to twelve million **Viet Nam dong**, understand? I have heard so many students read it like that, VND, VND or you can say dollar, one thousand dollar*

(T5.COE1)

In Extract #2 above, Teacher 5 presumed that her students would read the Vietnamese currency unit, VND, wrongly as **Viet Nam dong**. This error was commonly committed by so many other students that she reminded her students of it prior to their practice.

In addition, before while-activity stages, immediate feedback was provided when teachers, as they were going around the class, identified/heard mistakes committed by students rehearsing in pairs in their own places. However, only one episode was captured because the teacher brought the linguistic problem to the whole class's attention. I might have missed several immediate feedback episodes occurring during this stage as I could not capture all of them because I sat at the back of the class, and the student and teacher voices from the recording were often soft, not to mention the distracting classroom background noise. The only identified instance was as follows:

Extract #3 (see Appendix 18 for the original transcript)

01 T Hello, hello, students, students, now hello, hello. *I need you to pay a little attention. When we say we work in any shift, we shall not say I **work dayshift**, instead, we say I work in dayshift.*

02 S1 I work in dayshift.

03 T Ok. That's good. *Therefore, you pay attention (to this) for me. Do not say I **work dayshift** instead say I work in dayshift. I work in dayshift not I **work dayshift**, right. Remember that when I go around the class I see that a lot of people, a lot of students make such mistake. Try to remember I work in dayshift. Now continue.*

(T3.COE2)

In the extract above, in turn 1, before correcting the error, Teacher 3 caught the attention of the whole class by saying "hello", then she provided the context for the error: "*When we say we work in any shift*" and then employed explicit correction: "*we shall not say I **work dayshift**, instead, we say I work in dayshift.*" Then one of the students repeated the corrected version, followed by Teacher 3's confirmation and further repetition and reminders.

Another situation where immediate feedback was given was when students were performing in front of the class. This can be seen in the following conversation between students Ha and Ninh, when student Ha asked a wrong question in turn 3 and Teacher 2 interrupted their conversation to correct it.

Extract #4

- 01 Ha Good morning, XX hotel, how can I help you?
02 Ninh Good morning, I'd like to book a room for xx nights.
03 Ha Ok. Let me see. We have a twin room available. Can I /hævə/. Can I /hævə/ spell your name?
04 T What's your name? Say it again. Can I /hæv/ your name? Ok. Can I /hæv/ your name?
05 Ha Can I /hæv/ your name
06 Ninh My name is xxx

(T2.COE1)

After students completed their activities, teachers were found to give delayed feedback. Examples of delayed correction can be seen in many extracts in Section 5.2.2.2.

5.2.2 How errors were corrected

In this subsection, two main findings concerning how errors were corrected will be presented: (1) error correction techniques in immediate feedback and (2) error correction in delayed feedback.

5.2.2.1 Error correction techniques in immediate feedback

In the present study, most of the error correction techniques suggested in the framework by Lyster et al. (2013) were observed in immediate feedback. They are didactic recast, explicit correction, explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, metalinguistic clue, repetition, and elicitation.

Didactic recast

This is the most widely used technique found in the study although Teachers 1 and 6 did not use them in their observed lessons. However, the observed data showed that Teachers 2, 4, and 5 employed this kind of recast as their main strategy in dealing with the errors. The episode below is an example of this technique. As can be seen below, whenever the student produced a wrong utterance, Teacher 4 immediately reformulated a part of the whole utterance.

Extract #5

- 01 S1 It is going to have ten **subsidiary**.
02 T Subsidiaries.
03 S1 It's going to have 100000 **employee**.
04 T1 Oh, 100,000 employees.
05 S1 It's going to produce **clothe** and **shoe**.
06 T Clothes and shoes.

(T4. COE1)

In the episode above, no opportunity for uptake was given because Teacher 4 interrupted the student's talk and provided a recast. However, she did not stop the student for repair. It was observed that she purposely delayed the correction to post-activity stages when she mentioned one of these errors again with the whole class.

Explicit correction

This was the second most commonly used technique by the teachers. In my study, I defined and coded explicit correction based on the combination of two studies, Ellis et al. (2001) and Lyster et al. (2013). According to Ellis et al. (2001), providing prompts like alternatives was regarded as explicit correction. Teacher 1 and Teacher 6 employed this strategy most often in their correcting moves. An example can be seen in Extract #2 above when the teacher gave three alternatives for students to choose from: how /**mat**/, how /**muk**/, or how /matf/.

In addition, Lyster et al. (2013) defined explicit correction as “a reformulation of a student utterance plus a clear indication of an error” (p. 4). An example of explicit correction can be seen below in Teacher 5's lesson. She provided a correct form of the word “subsidiary” right after the error and added: “not /**səb' sɪdaɪəri**/”:

Extract #6

- 01 S1 /**səb' sɪdaɪəri**/
02 T /səb' sɪdaɪəri/, not /**səb' sɪdaɪəri**/
03 S1 /səb' sɪdaɪəri/
04 T Yeah

(T5. COE1)

Explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation

This technique can be found in a few episodes in the data; however, when giving metalinguistic clues, it was observed that the teachers often explained in Vietnamese. For example, in Extract #7 below, the verb “**is**” was inappropriately used (turn 2) because the subject “colleagues” of the sentence is plural. Teacher 3 turned to Vietnamese to explain the rule of subject-verb concord (turns 3 and 5):

Extract #7 (see Appendix 18 for the original transcript)

- 01 T *When asking about what your colleagues are like, how do you ask?
Basing on the suggestions, what and like, how do you make the
question?*
- 02 Ss What **is** your colleagues like?
- 03 T No, no, colleagues. Colleagues *are plural* how “**is**” can be used.
- 04 Ss xxx
- 05 T Yeah. *If our subject is* colleagues, what is, is it ok?
- 06 Ss xxx
- 07 T Ok, what are your colleagues like? What are your colleagues like?
*What are your colleagues like? Your answer should be short when
you prepare. But when you answer the question in a real dialogue, it
should be a full answer: they are and then you describe their
characteristic. For instance, they are friendly and hard working.
They help me a lot in my job...*

(T3.COE2)

Elicitation

Elicitation was the third most frequently used technique. It was observed that Teacher 1 frequently employed this strategy even in giving delayed feedback to elicit the students' responses while other teachers (except Teacher 3) sometimes used it. An example could be seen in turn 6 in the below episode:

Extract #8 (see Appendix 18 for the original transcript)

- 01 Hoa The /'twɛlti/, /'twɛlti/ (T wrote the word “twenty” on the board)
- 02 T /'twɛlti/? Again, again, /'twɛlti/?

- 03 Hoa /'twenti/, /'twelti/
 04 T *September, September...*in English
 05 Hoa September
 06 T (T wrote this word on the board) Do you have another way to say it? Do you have another way to say it? The...the...
 07 Hoa /'twentiəθ/
 08 T The /'twen-ti-əθ/ of...of...September (T wrote 'twentiəθ' on the board). That's good
 (T1. COE2)

As can be seen, in turn 6, Teacher 1 asked whether Student Hoa had another way to say the date and time, which prompted the student to provide the correct pronunciation. Following this is the student's uptake and then the teachers' confirmation, which closes the FFE.

Repetition

This is the second least commonly use technique observed. An instance could be seen in the episode below:

Extract #9

- 01 S1 What **does** the company called?
 02 T What **does** the company called?
 03 S1 What is the company called?
 04 T What is... the company called? Right? That's very good.
 (T4.COE1)

In the episode above, Teacher 4 repeated the error committed by the student in: "what **does** the company called" with her rising intonation at the end of the question (turn 2). This is followed by the student's uptake (turn 3).

Metalinguistic clue

This is the least frequently used technique in the observed data. In fact, only Teacher 3 was found to use it. An example of this type could be seen in Extract #7

(turn 3), when she provided the students with the clue whether it is appropriate to use the verb “is” with the subject in plural form.

In conclusion, all the teachers used most of the techniques mentioned in the literature review, especially with regard to Lyster et al.’s (2013) study. Clarification requests, conversational recasts and paralinguistic signals are techniques that were not observed in the data. In addition, all the teachers in the study used more explicit correction strategies than implicit ones. Also, reformulations were employed more than prompts. One noticeable point is there was a tendency for all the teachers to use only a single error correction strategy. Specifically, three out of six teachers (T2, T3, and T4) tended to use didactic recasts while Teacher 1 and Teacher 6 were observed to use explicit correction frequently.

5.2.2.2 Error correction in delayed feedback

In this section, I will deal with delayed correction in fine-grained details because it is, as discussed in the literature, under-researched and also, there was more delayed correction than immediate correction found in the data.

After students had finished their performance in front of the class, it was found that all the teachers provided feedback, in which corrective feedback was identified. Two approaches were found: (1) providing negative cognitive feedback generally and (2) providing feedback based on criteria for giving feedback in class, suggested by the Faculty (see Appendix 17). The first approach was adopted by five teachers who usually began by providing general (usually positive) comments on students’ performance before correcting the errors committed. The second approach was carried out by only Teacher 1, who generally commented on the performing by going from one criterion to another: (1) message content, (2) vocabulary and grammar range, (3) fluency and coherence, and (4) attitudes and comprehensibility. It was found that correction to errors was given occasionally in each criterion. Noticeably, all the delayed corrections were found to be given in public; that is to say, after students had finished their performance, the teachers often to told them to remain in their own place (in front of the class) and to listen to the comments given either by peers or the teachers.

5.2.2.3 Approach 1: Negative cognitive feedback

In the first approach, four main patterns of delayed correction were found: (1) Teachers only, (2) Teacher-initiated, whole class, (3) Teacher-initiated, student repair, and (4) Teacher-initiated, peer repair. The examples of these patterns and their variations are described as below:

Pattern 1: Teachers only

In this type of interaction, teachers both initiated and completed the episode. This approach was mainly carried out in a public manner. That is to say, after an individual student or a pair finished their conversations, teachers gave delayed feedback to the whole class. An example of this can be seen in Extract #10.

Extract #10:

Original error from the individual talk

S12: /re'spɒnsəbl/

Delayed correction sequence

T Ok. Well done. *Here* /rɪ'spɒnsəbl/not /res/. Yeah, /rɪ'spɒnsəbl/,
 /rɪ'spɒnsəbl/. Ok. Now move to activity 8.

(T5.COE1)

As can be seen, T5 initiated the episode with the transitional word “Ok” and the positive evaluation: “Well done”. She then provided the correct version: “here /rɪ'spɒnsəbl/” together with the partial quotation of the error: “not *res/res*?”. After that, she repeated the correct version twice: “Yeah /rɪ'spɒnsəbl/, /rɪ'spɒnsəbl/”. She ended the episode with the word “Ok” and her transition to the next activity was “Now move to activity 8”.

The kind of interaction above occurred when the students stood up in her own place and produced a single utterance and the teacher listened and gave feedback after she finished. Also, delayed correction was done after eleven other students completed the task in their own place. After student 12 completed her utterance, T5 gave her the above monologic feedback.

Variation 1:

In the above extract where one pronunciation error was corrected, the delayed feedback was short; the delayed correction sequence in Extract #11 was much longer, dealing with one grammar error.

Extract #11 (See Appendix 19 for the original transcript)

Original error from the role play

S1: What are you doing now?

Delayed correction sequence

1 T: Thank you very much (0.2) this pair seems to do a better job. However, there is
2 *one sentence I am not satisfied with, **what are you doing now?** The sentence,*
3 **what are you doing now,** *is not a sentence to ask about jobs but ask about*
4 *present activities. Ok. So if you want to ask what you do now as a natural way to*
5 *lead (a conversation), you should not ask **what are you doing now.** If two of you*
6 *are sitting here and ask what are you doing now? And you ask what are you doing*
7 *now? I am reading a book I am reading in English. If you want to ask about jobs,*
8 *you ask what do you do now? Because the opening sentence is hello long time no*
9 *see, how are you? Because of long time no see, we have not known the job you*
10 *are doing and so you should ask what do you do now, not **what are you doing***
11 **now.** *Ok? The latter part (of the conversation) is very good, except the first part.*
12 *But possibly you misused the question and the tense, the present continuous.*
13 *Despite the word now, you still ask what do you do and you can answer I am a*
14 *waiter at a restaurant. Nga played a good role and I also like Thuy in the way she*
15 *added further information in the follow-up. For example, Nga replied that*
16 *dayshifts and nightshifts. She said that it's so late followed by number of hours*
17 *and then she said that's more than me. That's good. We can add more ideas or*
18 *further information after your friend says something. That is better and more*
19 *interesting. In general, in general, it's good. In general, it's good. I would like*
20 *more eye contact. Now, let's move to activity 6*

(T3.COE1)

In this episode, after saying: “*Thank you very much*”, the teacher began with her general comments about the performance (line 1); she then initiated her negative

feedback by using the word “however”. After this, she began her negative comments: “*there is one sentence I am not satisfied with*” and quoted the error: “*what are you doing now*” (lines 1-2). She then continued with a long explanation about the grammatical rule of present simple and present continuous (lines 2-7). After that, she provided the corrected version: “*If you want to ask about job, you ask what do you do now* (lines 7-8)”. Then she moved on to giving positive feedback (line 11) together with negative comment: “*except the first part*” to the students’ performance. This is followed by her repeated explanation about the use of present simple and present continuous to explain why the first part is not good (lines 12-14). Next, she complimented two students in terms of their use of language by quoting several good words or phrases (lines 14-17). Finally, she concluded that their performance was good.

To summarise, there were two main parts in this delayed feedback episode: negative feedback and positive feedback. In the former part, the teacher just chose one grammatical error to correct, that is, a wrong use of the present simple tense. She explained the rules as if she were reconsolidating the grammatical points with the whole class. In the latter part, she praised the student in terms of her appropriate addition of information in the conversation. The whole episode is a monologue and there was no place in her talk where she initiated the turn for the next speaker. Therefore, it can be said that she created no opportunities for the student who committed the error and for the whole class to identify and fix the error. In other words, there was no opportunity for uptake.

Variation 2:

Extract #12 (see Appendix 20 for the original transcript)

The following episode occurred after a student named Thang finished his talk on behalf of his group.

Original errors from the role-play

1. Thang: What are you doing now?
2. Thang: I **prefer** Company A **than** Company B.
3. Thang: /'sɜ:vais/

4. Thang: /'sænwit/

Delayed correction sequence

1 T2: Right. Thank you. So group 1 choose A. *In your talk, Thang needs to pay*
2 *attention to **prefer than** for me. People do not use (say) like that instead they say*
3 *prefer something to something. For example, I prefer to buy company A to*
4 *company B not **than**, understand? Remember the whole class? Secondly, the*
5 *pronunciation of some words /'s3:vɪs/ not /'s3:vəɪs/. And /'sænwɪtʃɪz/ you*
6 *pronounce it without the ending sound. You all speak slowly. No need to speak*
7 *fast. Remember to correct that. Remember /'s3:vɪs/ not /'s3:vəɪs/. It is fine. Now*
8 *group 1 chooses company A. Now 2*

(T4.COE1)

In this episode, T4 initiated the correction by saying: “*Right. Thank you*” and summarised the group's decision: “*so group one chooses A*” (line 1). Then she repeated one part of the error “**prefer than**” which then is followed by her corrected version: “*People do not use (say) like that; instead, they say prefer something to something*” (lines 2-3). After that, she gave an example using the correct version: “*For example, I prefer to buy company A to company B*”, followed by an emphasis “*not than*” (lines 3-4). Then she inserted two phrases: “*understand? Remember the whole class?*” (line 4) with no pause, which indicates she had not expected students' responses. Teacher 4 turned to the next error by using the listing word “*secondly*” and pointing out the language area of the mistake: “*the pronunciation of some words*” (lines 4-5). After that she provided the correct version and NOT+ quotation of the error: “*/'s3:vɪs/ not /'s3:vəɪs/*”. Before listing error 3, she used the word “and” and then provided the correct version “*/'sænwɪtʃɪz/*” (line 5). Here she pointed out the linguistic area that many students committed the error in: “*you pronounce it without the ending sound*” and suggested the way to improve this error: “*You all speak slowly. No need to speak fast. Remember to correct that*” (line 6). Finally, the episode ended with the repeated correct version, the word “not” and the exact quotation of error 2: “*Remember /'s3:vɪs/ not /'s3:vəɪs/*”.

This is also one-way interaction: teacher-to-students without any evidence of students' participation in the conversation despite her addressing the student by

name. However, unlike Extract #11, several errors instead of one error were listed one after the other.

In summary, despite how many errors were selected for correction by teachers, the general feature in this pattern is the teachers' dominant roles in delayed feedback, with no opportunities given for students' interaction or any indication of uptake. This is the most common pattern of delayed feedback found in the study, reflecting the teacher-centred approach in classroom settings.

Pattern 2: Teacher-initiated, whole class

In this pattern, the teacher provided the correct versions of the word to the whole class, and the whole class then repeated after her. The interaction between teachers and students can be seen in the following extracts.

Extract #13 (see Appendix 20 for the original transcript)

Original errors from the role-play

Trang: /'smóthli/

Trang: /'sʌpə(r)/

Delayed correction sequence

(While students were making conversation, T3 wrote two words: smoothly and superb, on the board)

- 1 T3: Ok. Thank you. *Alright. Did two of them make a better conversation than the*
- 2 *first one?*
- 3 S1: *Yes*
- 4 T3: *This pair communicated better. Look at the book less. Because the language*
- 5 *input of this lesson is more difficult but I want you to remember some phrases by*
- 6 *manager some by staff. It is not necessary to remember every word but we need to*
- 7 *remember key words. In the talk, does anyone remember any pronunciation*
- 8 *errors? (0.2) About meaning (and) content, it is ok because you followed the*
- 9 *sample. Nhi made mistakes with they and their (0.2). Trang needs to pay attention*
- 10 *to two words, which I want to remind the whole class. The first word (She pointed*
- 11 *at the board) we do not read /'smóthli/, /'smu:ðli/.*
- 12 Ss: smoothly /'smu:ðli/

- 13 T3: yeah, /'smu:ðli/ not /'smóthli/ ok /smu:ð/. *The second word, we do not read*
 14 /'sʌpə(r)/, *a light meal after dinner. You misused it as supper a light meal after*
 15 *dinner /'sʌpə(r)/. This word (she pointed at the board); we read it /su:'pɜ:b/.*
 16 Ss: /su:'pɜ:b/
 17 T3: yeah /su:'pɜ:b/ not /'sʌpə(r)/. Right. *Pay attention*

(T3.COE1)

In this episode, after the courtesy word in English: “*Ok. Thank you*”, T3 asked the whole class whether the performances of the students were better than the previous pair: “*Did two of them make a better conversation than the first one? (0.1)*” (lines 1-2); however, the pause lasted only a second, indicating no signal that she was expecting a response from the whole class. She then continued with her own evaluation that the performance of the student was much improved: “*This pair communicated better. Look at the book less*”. Next, she told her students what she expected them to remember from the conversation (lines 4-5). After that she triggered students' memory of the pronunciation error (lines 5-6); however, after two seconds, she moved on to giving comments on the content and meaning of their conversation: “*About meaning, (and) content, it is ok*” (line 8). She then gave the reasons why it was good: “*because you followed the sample*”. After a short pause, she pointed to the first error addressing a specific student: “*Nhi made mistakes with they and their*” (line 9). She did not provide the context of the error, but moved straight forward to the two errors she wanted both the student called Trang and the whole class to pay attention to (lines 9-10). Then she listed the first pronunciation error by saying: “*we do not read /'smóthli/ /'smu:ðli/*” (line 11). After the whole class's repetition of the corrected word (line 12), the teacher confirmed and then switched to L1, moving to the next error with the transitional word: “*the second word*” (line 13). She quoted the wrong version by saying a word, which has quite similar spelling, followed by her own translation (lines 14-15). The whole class then repeated the word without further prompting. Finally, she confirmed the student answer, quoted and explicitly rejected the wrong version, and switched to L1 in line 17.

In this pattern, Teacher 3 dominated the episode through commenting, initiating the errors and providing the corrections and students played a minimal role as

they just repeated after the teacher (lines 9 and 13). Therefore, this pattern is quite similar to pattern 2 in terms of students' and teachers' roles. The only difference is that corrective feedback was done in the-whole-class manner in which the students automatically repeated the correct version after Teacher 3 raised her voice indicating class choral repetition. It is quite typical in Vietnamese classrooms that after teachers raise their voices, the students will repeat after them. However, it is not clear in this pattern whether the student who initially committed the errors could repair the error when the whole class altogether repeated after the teacher.

In summary, there are several common features in pattern 1 and pattern 2. Firstly, all of the extracts contain transitional signals from student performance to teacher correction. The common phrases found are “ok”, “well done” or “right” (sometimes they were in Vietnamese). Secondly, there were teachers' signals that a delayed correction is about to be given: most teachers used words to show contrast like “however” or “but”, either in L1 or L2. Thirdly, the most common technique used by teacher in terms of identifying the error was explicit correction, that is, the correct version + not + quotation of the error. Fourthly, in terms of students' uptake, if teachers were the only participant in the episode, then no opportunities for uptake were given to students. In addition, if the whole class just passively repeated after the teacher, there was little evidence that the students who initially committed the error showed uptake. Finally, most of the episodes closed with (repeated) general comments of the students' performance, such as: “in general, it is good” or action words like: “right” or phrases showing transition to the next activity or a new pair like: “now let's move to the next activity” or “now, next pair please”.

However, several differences were identified among these variations. Firstly, if only one error is corrected, there would of course be no transition from one error to the next; if multiple errors were rectified, transitional words usually indicate ordinal numbers, such as “firstly”, “secondly”, or “finally”, either in L1 or L2. The second difference is the interactional space that teachers created for students. Specifically, in a teacher-only turn, there is no place for students to respond as teachers dominated the episode; but in teacher-the-whole-class episodes, students participated in the interaction although with very limited language.

Pattern 3: Teacher-initiated, student repair

In this pattern, the teacher corrected the error with the student who initially committed it. An example of this can be seen in the following extract:

Extract #14:

Original error from the role-play

1. S1: /si/

Delayed correction sequence

01 T Now. /ʃi/ /ʃi/ not /si/ (shake her head)

02 S1 /ʃi/

03 T /ʃi/not /si/

04 S2 /ʃi/

05 T Ok

(T5.COE1)

In this episode, the interaction between Teacher 5 and the student who made the mistake allowed two opportunities for uptake to take place (turns 2 and 4).

However, in the following extract, the teacher created an interactional space for the whole class to practise the correct version of the mistake.

Variation 1:

One variation of Pattern 3 is a kind of interaction in which the teacher initiated the episode, the student who committed the error repeated after the teacher, followed by whole class choral repetition as in Extract #15 (see Appendix 21 for a full transcript of this complete FFE). For the first part from turn 1 to turn 16, the interaction pattern is similar to that in Extract #1, that is, the teacher proved the correct version followed by the student's repetition after her. However, this episode (Extract #15) is different from that in Extract #1 in terms of the post-expansion of the episode. This can be illustrated from turns 16 to 21 as follows:

Part of Extract #15

16 Nga Do you / **hævə** /

17 T Yeah, do you /hæv/ (She pointed at the board) /hæv/. *If you say*

/hæv/, *there is not /ə/ please*. Do you have a restaurant? Do you /hæv/ a restaurant? Do you /hæv/ air conditioning? Ok. Now the whole class read after me do you /hæv/ a restaurant? (T pointed at the board)

- 18 Ss Do you /hæv/ a restaurant?
19 T Do you /hæv/ a private car park?
20 Ss Do you /hæv/ a private car park?
21 T Yeah, do you /hæv/ a car park?

(T2.COE1)

After the student who committed the error showed uptake (turn 16), Teacher 2 continued to point out the error with whole class by explaining the error and asked the whole class to repeat after her (turn 17). The whole class then repeated the correct version after Teacher 2 in several turns with an indication of some degree of uptake.

While in Extracts #14 and #15, it was the teachers who pointed out the mistakes and corrected them and the students simply repeated the correct version afterwards, in Extracts #16 and #17 below, the students' roles were much more active when given opportunities to self-realise their errors. This is the case in Extract #16.

Variation 2:

Extract #16:

Original error from the role-play

Dung: /**What's**/

Delayed correction sequence

- 01 T *Dung, can you recognise your own mistakes?*
02 Dung **What's**
03 T *Uh what's. He added the words **what's** happened. Is that right, the whole class? It has to be what happened or what was the problem? It is so good when you can recognise your mistake.*

(T4.COE2)

This episode took place almost immediately after the student finished his conversation (0.1). It began with Teacher 4 asking whether the student who initially committed the error could recognise his error: “*Dung, can you recognise your own mistakes?*” Then student Dung quoted the exact error, followed by Teacher 4's repetition of the error: “*Uh what's*”. Here she brought the problem to the whole class' attention with a clue about how to correct the error: “*He added the words **what's happened**. Is that right the whole class?*” After no pause, she began to provide the correct version. Finally, she asked Dung to come back to his seat and provided a general compliment on Dung's self-identification of his own error.

The interaction in the first part of this episode is very different from those in Extracts #1 and #2 when Teacher 4 created the interactional space for the student's self-identification of the error (turn 1). She also gave opportunities for peer correction in the first part of turn 3 by asking the whole class to give evaluation but actually leaving no time for their response. This made the interaction in this turn a teacher-only turn. It is possible that that the student who made the mistake could identify and repair the error if given the opportunity, or the whole class could give the comments or fix the mistake if Teacher 4 generated a space for a next speaker. In addition, there is no evidence of uptake in this extract as it ended with teacher correction only.

In the following episode, there are spaces for peer correction and uptake.

Variation 3:

Extract #17 (see Appendix 22 for the original transcript)

Original error from the role-play

Ninh: /dɪ'skɔs/

Delayed correction sequence

- | | | |
|----|----|---|
| 01 | T | Thank you. <i>Ninh, do you remember how you read the word 'thảo luận'?</i> |
| 02 | S1 | /dɪ'skɔs/ |
| 03 | T | <i>Ah /dɪ'skɔs/, so with the word /dɪ'skɔs/ did your friend read it correctly, the whole class?</i> |

- 04 S1 /dɪ'skʌs/
- 05 T *So it is wrong, isn't it? We need to read /dɪ'skʌs/. In what sentence, what sentence? Hello, Fiona, how can I meet you next week to discuss our ideas for the new software application. Ok? Ninh, do you remember? Ninh, please read the whole sentence? Now, read the sentence again (0.4)*
- 06 Ninh Hello, Fiona, how can I meet you next week to discuss our ideas for the new software application?
- 07 T Ok remember that. Ok, that's good. Thank you.
(T4.COE3)

In this pattern, Teacher 4 asked the student to tell her the wrongly pronounced word at the beginning of the episode and the student S1 then provided the exact quotation. Therefore, the error was pointed out by the student rather than by a teacher. In addition, Teacher 4 created interactional space for the whole class when she asked them to evaluate their friend's pronunciation (turn 3). Here, one student had a chance to peer-correct the error (turn 4). Moreover, Teacher 4 gave opportunities for the student Ninh to show uptake at the end of the episode (turn 5). It can be said that in this short episode, there were two types of interactions: teacher with the whole class and teacher with the student who initially made the mistake and several correction stages: teacher elicits the mistake, peer identifies and corrects the error and the student who committed the error shows uptake.

Pattern 4: Teacher-initiated, peer repair

When students finished their conversation, the teachers often asked the whole class to give comments on the performance. Giving comments in most cases was understood as pointing out any mistakes in the talk. In many cases, I found that many other students could identify the errors by quoting exactly the errors committed by their friends. Then, the errors were corrected either by a peer, or peers, or by the teacher. Peer correction can be seen in the following extract:

Extract #18 (see Appendix 22 for the original transcript):

Original error from the role-play

Lan: **It is specialises in.**

Delayed correction sequence

- 01 T Do you have any comments on her performance? S1 please (0.16)
her company's name is Fast and Fresh, Fast and Fresh.
- 02 S1 *Dear Teacher it specialises in but she said **it is specialise** in.*
- 03 T *Yes, that's right. It specialises in there is no **is**. Is that right? It provides, offers, or produces, all right. With the verb specialise; we do not add the verb to be. Is the whole class clear? It is impossible to say **it is specialises**; (you) have to say it specialises in or it makes offers or provides. Is the whole class clear? Thank you back to your seat.*

(T4.COE1)

The episode began with Teacher 4's initiations of comments from the students and S1 was invited. In his turn, he not only corrected the error by providing the correct version, but also quoted the exact error in Vietnamese: "*it specialises in but she said **it is specialise** in*". Then, Teacher 4 confirmed that S1's answer was correct: "*that's right, it specialises in there is no is*". After that she gave more explanation why it was an error: "*With the verb specialise, we do not add the verb to be*". She then repeated the error: "*It is impossible to say **it is specialises***" and expanded the language areas by giving more examples: "*(you) have to say it specialises in or it makes offers or provides*". After that, she repeated the error and the explanation for the second time and ended the episode by asking whether the whole class is clear about the explanation: "*Is the whole class clear?*"

One distinctive feature in this episode is the active role played by S1 when he not only pointed out the mistake but also corrected it despite the fact that Teacher 4 only asked a similar initiating question to those in approach 2, that is, "Do you have any comments on her performance?" Therefore, if students take a proactive role in correcting the error like S1 in this extract, it seems likely that the interaction would be more interesting and useful to the language learning process as both teachers and learners equally contribute to correction sequences. Unfortunately, there was no opportunity for uptake in this pattern as the whole of the final turn was produced by the teacher.

Variation 1:

The following episodes contain peer error identification and peer correction and opportunity for uptake.

Extract #19 (see Appendix 22 for the original transcript)

Original error from the role-play

Liên: **I am too busy to answer your call.**

Delayed correction sequence

- 01 T Thank you. *What mistakes do you realise that your friend Lien make? Yes, good. You please*
- 02 S1 **I am too busy to answer your call.**
- 03 T Very good. **I am too busy to answer your call.** *We are talking about the past. So how do you correct it?*
- 04 Lien [I was too busy to
- 05 T I was too busy to answer (0.2) your call]. (turned to Lien) *Please repeat the whole sentence*
- 06 Lien I was too busy to answer your call.
- 07 T Thank you thank you. Back to your seat.
(T4.COE2)

Teacher 4 started by asking the whole class whether Lien made any mistakes “*Thank you what mistakes do you realise that your friend Lien make?*” One of the students replied to Teacher 4's question by quoting the exact error committed by Lien: “*I am too busy to answer your call*”. Then Teacher 4 repeated this response, giving Lien a clue “*We are talking about the past*” and then initiated Lien's correction by asking: “*So how do you correct it?*”. Lien then corrected the mistake together with Teacher 4. Teacher 4 then asked her to repeat the whole sentence: “*Please repeat the whole sentence*”, and the episode ended with Lien showing uptake.

This episode is similar to the previous one in terms of how Teacher 4 initiated peer error identification, but it is different in how Teacher 4 gave opportunities for self-correction and uptake. In the previous episode, the teacher's initiation is followed by peer error identification, peer correction, and finally teacher confirmation. In this extract, the sequence is slightly different: the teacher's

initiation is followed by peer error identification, teacher initiation, self-correction and uptake.

Variation 2:

In the Extract #20, the mistakes committed by both students were identified altogether:

Extract #20 (see Appendix 23 for the original transcript)

Original error from the role-play

Dung: My /'bɜ:tdeɪ/

Dung: What's the problem?

Tu: is broken

Delayed correction sequence

- 01 T Thank you. *Two of you did not do well. Dung has been so good at recognising his friend's mistakes. However Dung (0.2) Do you recognise Dung's mistakes?*
- 02 S1 My /'bɜ:tdeɪ/
- 03 T My /'bɜ:θdeɪ/. *Is there anything else? Surely, there is something, isn't it?*
- 04 S1 **What's**
- 05 T *What?*
- 06 S1 [What's
- 07 T What's] what's the problem? *Do you use present tense the whole class? (0.1) What is what?*
- 08 S1 [What was the problem?
- 09 T What was the problem] *How about Tu? Did he speak correctly?*
- 10 S1 **is**
- 11 T *Uh, is broken. Ok. Use the present tense. You remember to use the past tense for last birthday or last week. Now two of you, make the conversation again.*

(T4.COE2)

In this episode, Teacher 4 initiated the correction sequence by saying “thank you” and a negative comment: “*Two of you did not do well*”. This is followed by a

positive feedback on Dung's previous excellence in identifying his friend's mistake and an incomplete sentence: "*However Dung (0.2)*". She then initiated peer correction: "*Do you recognise Dung's mistakes?*" S1 quoted the exact error: "my /'bɜ:tdeɪ/" (turn 2), followed by Teacher 4's provision of the correct error: "my /'bɜ:θdeɪ/". She then continued to initiate another error by asking: "*Is there anything else? Surely, there is something, isn't it?*" (turn 3). S2 provided a partial error "*what's*" followed by Teacher 4's re-initiation "**What's?**" Then both teacher and student co-uttered the mistake "what's the problem?" After giving a linguistic clue: "*Do you use present tense the whole class?*" and another initiator "What is what?" (turn 7), both teacher and student together provided the correct version: "*what was the problem?*" She turned to the other student called Tu and asked the whole class for assessment: "*How about Tu? Did he speak well?*" S1 provided the partial error "is", followed by Teacher 4's confirmation "Uh" and repetition of the error with one verb added "*is broken*". She explained the grammatical rule to the students: "*You remember to use the past tense for last birthday or last week*" (turn 11). The episode ended with Teacher 4's asking two students to make the conversation again.

The extract is similar to the previous two in the way Teacher 4 initiated comments from the students. However, to the first error in pronunciation, she provided the correct version immediately after the student's quotation of the error instead of eliciting peer correction or self-correction. However, with the grammatical error, she provided the linguistic clue to the student and they co-corrected the mistake together. Another striking feature is her direct negative comments on the students' performance at the beginning of the episode, which led to her request of this pair to re-perform the conversation again at the end of the episode.

In summary, in this pattern, students played a more active role in interaction compared with other types of interaction. The interaction involved the participation of the teacher, one peer and the student who committed the error and it ended with the student's uptake.

5.2.2.4 Approach 2: *Delayed feedback with predetermined criteria*

All the extracts above were taken from the lessons of the five teachers who called more than one pair to perform in front of the class after each communicative

activity. However, there was another approach conducted by Teacher 1 who asked only one pair for subsequent public performances. If there were four activities in the lesson, there would be four performances in front of the class and consequently four delayed feedback episodes. Because the number of pairs called for presentation were fewer than that of the other five teachers, the length of the delayed feedback episode was much longer. The teacher (T1) asked the students to swap roles if time allowed. After pair of students came back to their seats, she asked the whole class to give comments on whether they had met the four specified speaking criteria: (1) “message content”, (2) “grammar”, (3) “pauses and linking words”, and (4) “pronunciation”.

Extract #21 is a typical example of her approach (see Appendix 24 for the full version and original transcript).

In the episode, delayed feedback can be divided into four main parts: (1) feedback on the content (turns 1-2), (2) feedback on grammar and vocabulary (turns 3-24), (3) feedback on fluency (turns 25- 28), and (4) feedback on pronunciation (29-85). In terms of feedback on the content, Teacher 1 mainly elicited from students about whether the conversation contained enough information and this lasted a very short time in a single exchange, whereas feedback on grammar and vocabulary lasted longer. She prompted students to remember and repeat the main questions used in the conversation, for example, “*What tense does she use?*” (turn 3) or “*what question what question did she use when she asked about party size?*” (turn 5) or *which tense or which structure did she use in that sentence?* (turn 7). Due to these Wh-questions, students could remember the focal structures in the conversation. My interpretation is that, Teacher 1 wanted her students to pay more attention to and re-practise the structures. Feedback on fluency was limited and so was feedback on student confidence. Possibly, due to the use of Yes/No questions (turns 1 and 25), students were likely to provide short responses (turns 2 and 26). Time was mostly spent on giving corrective feedback on pronunciation with one error pointed out, that is, /ə'vaɪləbl/ and then she focused her students on how to read dates.

In correcting pronunciation errors, Teacher 1 used various techniques to elicit student correction. Examples of these techniques can be found in Extract #22 (see

Appendix 25 for the full version and original transcript). Firstly, she used an incomplete sentence: “*Can you say it again available or ...?*” (turn 31). Secondly, she used Wh-questions, as in “*How precisely do you read it?*” (turn 45) or “*before ordinal number which word do we use?*” (turn 81). Thirdly, she asked for students' repetition, as in “*Can you say it again?*” (turn 45). Finally, she used alternative questions, for example, “*do we use the ordinal or cardinal number here?*” (turn 79). The varied elicitation techniques in her delayed feedback reflected her great effort to prompt students to give the answer themselves instead of her own provision of the correct version. However, the predominant use of this technique might be one of the reasons for much longer episodes and fewer student performances found in her lesson, compared with other teachers' lessons.

In short, the analysis of the extracts in the study reveals that the participating teachers used a variety of initiators within each approach and pattern. In the first approach, delayed correction was not given not based on the recommended speaking criteria. Instead, teachers selected the errors committed and corrected them with different techniques. Firstly, they corrected the errors to the whole class without involving students in the interaction (pattern 1). Secondly, they quoted the error, replaced it with the correct form, and the whole class repeated the correct version after them (pattern 2). Thirdly, they corrected the error with the student who initially committed the error by two sub-approaches (pattern 3). The most common sub-approach was when they provided the correct version immediately after the student completed their performance, followed by the student's repetition of that correct form. The second sub-approach was when teachers initiated the episode by asking the student who initially committed the error to quote the error. Then they either corrected it themselves or asked other students to peer-correct. After that, they either asked the student who made the mistake to repeat the correct version or ended the episode. In the final pattern, pattern 4, they asked other students to give comments on the performance, and then one or several students pointed out several errors afterwards. Then teachers corrected the errors or elicited peer correction and then confirmed it.

By contrast, in the second approach, used only by Teacher 1, the recommended speaking criteria acted as the main initiators of delayed correction. For message

content, pauses and linking words, it was found that the teacher just asked for students' general comments, and the time and turns allocated to these areas were much shorter and fewer than grammar and pronunciation areas. With grammar, the teacher seemed to take the delayed correction as an opportunity for grammar consolidation with the whole class. In terms of pronunciation, the interaction bears similar resemblances to pattern 4 in approach 1, that is, the teacher initiated comments including error identification and correction from peers. She then provided the correction or confirmed peer correction.

5.2.3 Who corrected the errors

In giving immediate feedback, teachers interrupted students and provided the correct versions. Also, there were no data found in the study where students actively initiated a linguistic problem through asking questions.

In the case of delayed correction in reactive FFEs, despite the participation of the students who committed the error and those who did not, teachers played the dominant role in providing feedback. Specifically, there were 20 episodes in which teachers dominated the interaction with no involvement of students. In addition, there were ten episodes where they were almost the main speaker with students playing a minimal role when they simply repeated the correct version after teachers. Even in patterns 3 and 4 where students participated in the conversation more actively in identifying and correcting the mistake, teachers were the only person who elicited students' responses. In other words, there were no episodes found in which students became the dominant speaker and actively led the conversation or interrupted the delayed sequence to participate.

In addition, teachers had a leading role in deciding who was the next speaker in a piece of interaction. It was found that in approach 1, it was teachers who decided who would be the next speaker after their turn. This determined the level of students' participation in delayed correction. More specifically, in pattern 1, teachers were the only speaker and as a result, students played the role of listeners to teacher's correction. In pattern 2, if there were any signals from the teachers like raised pitch the whole class would repeat the correct version. In pattern 3, due to the fact that teachers required the students to identify their own errors, delayed

correction involved the participation of the students who initially committed the error. This is similar to pattern 4 where teachers involved peer error identification and peer correction.

In the second approach, the teacher also governed the interaction when applying the speaking criteria. For each criterion, it was the teacher who elicited the comments from the student, who in turn, briefly responded to eliciting questions from the teacher, pointed out the errors, or repeated after the teachers. It was mainly found that in the second approach, the level of student participation decreased toward the end of the delayed correction when it was the teacher who quoted the correct version and the whole class repeated after her. This made the interaction of the final section of the delayed correction similar to pattern 2 in approach 1.

5.2.4 Which errors were corrected

An analysis of all the episodes revealed that pronunciation errors were corrected the most in both immediate and delayed feedback, followed by grammar errors and vocabulary errors. This can be seen in all the episodes illustrated throughout the chapter. For instance, in the case of immediate feedback, recasts were found to be the most frequently used techniques for pronunciation errors (see Extract #5). In delayed correction, most of the errors listed and corrected by the teachers (see, for instance, Extract #10, #13 or #14), then the students mimicked or repeated after the teachers (see, for example, lines 8, 9 or 12 and 13 in Extract #13). Furthermore, the analysis of pronunciation-error episodes revealed a general tendency for the teachers to focus on segmentals (see Extracts #1, # 6, #8, #10, #12, #13, #14, and #17). For instance, in Extract #1, Teacher 1 focused on correcting the pronunciation of the vowel in the word “much” rather than suprasegmentals, like the intonation of the whole question “how much is your salary”. Noticeably, these teachers expressed their lack of confidence and general knowledge in correcting pronunciation errors. Teacher 2 said “the students do not improve their oral communication much partly because of the teachers’ knowledge” (T1.PLD1). Teacher 2 added that even teachers were not sure about how to pronounce some words, not to mention the students (T2.I). The main

reason for the high frequency of pronunciation errors committed, according to the teachers, was the influence of T1 (for more details see Section 5.3.1.3).

5.2.5 Reasons for the use of Vietnamese in giving OCF

It was observed that Vietnamese was used frequently in the teachers' provision of OCF (see Extracts # 11 (Appendix 19), #13 (Appendix 20), #19 (Appendix 22), #22 (Appendix 25), and #23 (Appendix 26)). According to the interview and stimulated recall data, there were several reasons for this.

Firstly, all the teachers stated that their use of Vietnamese in giving OCF would assist students to understand their feedback better. For instance, in Extract #11, Teacher 3 constantly switched from English to Vietnamese to explain the usage of the present simple and present continuous when the student said “what are you doing now ?” instead of “what do you do ?”. Another instance is in Extract # 12, Teacher 4 said “as “In your talk, Dung needs to pay attention to prefer than for me. People do not use (say) like that instead they say prefer something to something” (Trong bài Dung cần chú ý cấu trúc cho cô prefer than. Người ta không dùng như vậy mà người ta dùng prefer something to something). Both Teachers 3 and 4 explained that the use of L1 in these two cases would make students understand the grammatical rules better. Similarly, Teacher 4 said, “If [I] speak English, they [students] do not understand, I will explain in Vietnamese [...] they can do things that they understand” (T4.PLD1). Teacher 3 elaborated “because there are several students whose levels are low in the class, so some can understand, some cannot (PLD2)”. So, it can be said that the student level affected the use of L1.

Secondly, it was observed that the teachers used L1 to introduce the correction. For instance, in Extract #13, after writing two words smoothly and super on the board, the Teacher 3 said “the first word, we do not read /'smóthli/, /'smu:ðli/. The second word, we do not read /'sʌpə(r)/” (Từ đầu tiên, chúng ta đọc không phải là /'smóthli/ đầu ạ /'smu:ðli/. Từ thứ hai, chúng ta không đọc là /'sʌpə(r)/ bữa khuya đầu). Clearly, in the first case, the purpose of L1 here was to point out the wrong pronunciation and then the correct version of the word smoothly. In the latter case, the use of Vietnamese helped the teacher to provide the meaning of the

word supper to add more clarity for her explanation as the students mistook super for supper. When I asked her why she altered to Vietnamese in the case, she said that “at that time I was not aware, it was like being unconscious” (T3.PLD2).

Thirdly, L1 was used to elicit the student, who committed the error to correct the error. For instance, in Extract #17, Teacher 4 asked the student: *Ninh do you remember how you read the word discuss?* (Vừa rồi Ninh có nhớ Ninh đọc từ thảo luận là gì không Ninh nhỉ?) It was also to elicit peer correction in whole-class setting. For example, in Extract #13, Teacher 3 asked the whole class: *In the talk, does anyone remember any pronunciation errors* (Trong bài vừa rồi có ai nhớ lỗi sai về phát âm của các bạn không?).

Fourthly, the use of L1 was found to elicit the whole class to provide another quotation of the error correction. Taking Extract #20, turn 3 as an example, Teacher 4 elicited the student to identify more committed errors by saying: *Is there anything else? Surely, there is something, isn't it?* (Còn gì nữa không nhỉ? Chắc chắn là còn gì đó đúng không?).

Finally, L1 was used in category questions. Firstly, the teacher asked these questions in L1 to instruct the students who had not committed the error to repeat the passage of the role-play to assist the students to quote the error. This use was typically found in Teacher 1's delayed correction. An example of those category questions were in Extract # 22, turn 7: *Which tense or which structure did she use in that sentence?* (Bạn sử dụng thì nào hay cấu trúc nào trong câu đó?). Secondly, L1 was used to elicit the whole class' feedback, such as in Extract # 22, turn 11: *Is that question fine? The next question* (Câu hỏi đó được chưa? Câu hỏi tiếp theo).

In short, in terms of OCF, the teachers' use of L1 in the present study was to explain grammatical rules, to provide the correct versions and to elicit student error correction. The main reason was to ensure students' understanding of the feedback, taking into low account the students' low level of English.

5.2.6 The use of home tasks

Classroom observation data revealed that after all the activities, all the teachers reminded the students to have further practice at home. However, in observed lessons, four out of six did not check whether the students had done the practice or not. Teacher 1 was the only observed teacher who did it, asking her students to practise the task at home and re-perform it in the next lesson in front of the classroom. However, she was observed to follow the similar approach to the in-class task, that is, public performance followed by delayed correction. Although it was assumed that the students had plenty of time to practise the task at home, they were found to commit many errors, which resulted in a rather lengthy delayed correction (see Extract #21). Unlike Teacher 1, who checked students' assigned home tasks in class, Teacher 6 asked the students to practise the tasks at home, record and post them on private groups on Facebook. The other students and she would listen to them and provided comments and correction. The reason as she explained was she did not have plenty of time to correct the students in the class. However, Teacher 6 stated that she found it so hard to handle these outside-class activities as she were in charge of four classes at the same time. Furthermore, she realized that "the students still wait for my comments" (T6.I) and she could not find and correct all the mistakes committed by the students. Another issue she said she encountered was her inability to control this type of activity as she was too busy with other duties, such as meetings, planning the lessons, workshops, designing mid-term, or final-term tests. Another problem was the students' attitudes toward the home tasks and their strategies to deal with those requirements, as discussed by the teachers in one of the focus groups:

T6: They carried the assigned home task, but they were interested for the first half of the term only. In the second half of the term, they lost their interest, partly because they had to study other subjects, and I had become busier, so I had less time monitoring their activity.

T4: [...] we just ask the students to do it (the task), but we do not control it. Therefore, there is no reason for them to do it because they have to care about other subjects as well.

T6: There are some students who are at a better level.

T4: There are only a few of them like that.

T6: They are very interested in and I appointed them to be the group leaders. However, there was a newly-emerging issue, that is, they wrote all the model conversations for the other students.

T4: That is right. They (the students) are lazy and lack learner autonomy, they would learn the models by heart as it is the fastest way.

T6: even the tutors did the same. After one or two weeks, they started to produce the models for other students.

T4: because it is fast, time-saving, and they did not have to explain and guide others. (FG2)

The above conversation revealed that the implementation of task repetition at home encountered many challenges: teachers' limited time and increasing heavy workload, and students' gradual loss of interest. Given the difficulties mentioned by the teachers, the task repetition seemed to be ineffective.

5.3 Convergences and divergences in beliefs and practices

In this section, the findings related to the matches and mismatches between beliefs and practices will be presented mainly from the use of focus group and narrative frame data.

5.3.1 Convergences in beliefs and practices in providing corrective feedback

There are five convergences between the beliefs and practices in the provision of OCF: (1) importance of grammatical accuracy, (2) the role of giving OCF, (3) types of errors, (4) timing of giving OCF to students' performances, and (5) how to correct the error. These matches will be presents as follows.

5.3.1.1 *Importance of grammatical accuracy*

As indicated in 4.1.1, all the teachers believed that accuracy played an important role and this belief was again mentioned later in the focus group discussion. For instance, in focus group discussion 1, all the teachers mentioned the need to focus on forms through providing corrective feedback to students' performance. For example, Teacher 2 said that:

T2: as now we only focus on communicative teaching, vocabulary and grammar are presented online, we no longer correct students' error like the way we did in the past. We do not explain what the present tense is or how to add s; instead we correct students' errors in their own language production. (FG1)

Quite differently, focus group discussion 2 emphasised the importance of re-explaining the focal grammatical points in the beginning of the lessons:

T4: Although students self-study vocabulary and grammar online, their knowledge of these aspects is insufficient. The thing is we only know how many percent they have completed online tasks and which tasks they have completed, we do not directly teach them. My point of view is to revise all the vocabulary items to the students and remind all the focal grammatical structures in the beginning of the lesson

T6: ...we usually design a game for students to play. Then we read all the vocabulary and structures for one time. I see that after the game, students can remember better. (FG2)

Most of them thought that accuracy should be considered less important than fluency and building student confidence. This belief was found to be enacted in their teaching practices because in all the lessons, all the teachers delayed correction so that students were not interrupted while completing an activity.

5.3.1.2 *The role of giving OCF*

With regard to the role of giving OCF, the teachers' beliefs in the interview converged with what they said in the stimulated recalls and what they did in the classroom. While discussing reasons for their enacted practices, many teachers reconfirmed the role of giving OCF. For example, Teacher 5 clarified the role of teachers in helping students to improve their pronunciation.

For me, in the BL environment because students only study listening, reading and writing online, they see the transcription of the words, but pay no attention to pronunciation. The words are pronounced by speakers from the software "text to speak",

so the reading speed is so fast that students cannot catch up with. If they just see the transcription and learn word meanings, they cannot become familiar with pronouncing the word; pronunciation practice at home is like a fundamental step for other stages. (T5.PLD1)

The views of the role of giving OCF were found to remain unchanged when they took part in the focus group discussion or in what they shared in the narrative frames. For example, according to Teacher 2, “without giving OCF, teaching a foreign language is not effective” (FG1). This view is also similarly reflected in her narrative frame:

I realised that giving OCF is very important in assisting students to be more confident and better at presenting in front of the class. Besides, it enables students to recognise their strengths and weaknesses. I myself realise that giving OCF is a very necessary method in language teaching (T2.NF).

5.3.1.3 *Types of errors*

Pronunciation errors were the type of errors corrected mostly by the teachers, then grammar and vocabulary respectively, reflecting a consistency between the teachers’ beliefs and practices.

Pronunciation errors were also discussed at length in the focus group discussions. For instance, in the focus group discussion 2:

T4: Anyway, these mistakes are very repetitive, what a pity, they are corrected today, but I do not understand, they will be remade the next day. Maybe I do not know how to correct or I have not read about error correction theories.

T6: That’s right, many words...

T4: I am frustrated, sometimes I cannot correct them, I do not want to correct anymore.

T6: Because they become systematic. I cannot correct the word Ha Long Bay now; they always pronounce /bei/, great as /grit/

T4: Always /grit/

T6: The word 'read' as /red/ and (restaurant as) /retərɒn/

T4: Coat as /kwa:t/

T6: Maybe English becomes Vietnamese English

T4: I always talk to them that we are not speaking British English or American English, but Vietnamese English

T6: Vietnamese English

T4: Then all of them burst into laughing. They do not understand. It is so hard. (FG2)

This extract reveals the difficulties in correcting errors, particularly the challenging pronunciation errors. It seemed that in their opinions, there was no feasible solution to this kind of error at that moment because it seemed that students did not show much uptake in this type of error.

Moreover, about one month later, three out of five narratives by the teachers were about their memories of pronunciation errors. For example, Teacher 1 told her story:

The most unforgettable episode to me was when I corrected the pronunciation errors caused by local accents, between L and N (l and n are two initials that Vietnamese people tend to mispronounce). No matter how hard the student tried to correct, he could not fix that as there are so many words containing L and N in English. As he pronounced the words wrongly their meanings hereby changed, which made him too shy to participate in practising speaking skill. (T1.NF)

As can be seen, the errors most of them never forgot were pronunciation errors, not those of grammar or vocabulary.

In short, the teachers considered pronunciation errors as entrenched ones and paid most of their attention to correcting them in practice. These beliefs stayed almost the same when they shared their opinions in groups and later in the narrative frames.

5.3.1.4 *Timing of giving OCF to students' performances*

It is noteworthy that more delayed feedback episodes than immediate feedback ones were found in classroom observation data and delayed feedback was discussed more often than immediate feedback. There were mainly convergences in the teachers' beliefs and practices in the provision of delayed feedback to the public performances. The shared beliefs of the teachers can be found in focus group discussion data. For instance, Teacher 2's approaches to correction by using delayed feedback were strongly supported by other participants:

T2: When students are presenting and working in pairs, I never interrupt if they are producing language at acceptable level.

T3: Never interrupt

T2: No interruption. To let them finish unless they are making too many mistakes

T3: Too many mistakes

T2: Then I will stop them and correct. Sometimes they make mistakes once they start to speak

T3: yeah, too many errors

T2: They keep repeating the mistakes. At that moment, I will interrupt to correct. Otherwise, I will wait until they finish [...]

T1: I do almost exactly the same as you. (FG1)

As can be seen, there was a common belief about giving delayed feedback among three participants.

In the other focus group discussion, Teachers 6 and 4 also shared common views in giving delayed OCF, which could be seen in the following extract:

T6: For this year, I let them finish their conversation, then I correct right afterwards as they now make longer talks, I do not want to demotivate them. I let them finish then I will correct part after part, like errors in vocabulary, in grammar or in pronunciation [...]

T4: We can base on student levels [...]. If students are fairly good, let them produce long speech. We correct and they still remember, they are good, so they can remember.

T6: Yes.

T4: I often do like that. (FG2)

It is found that students' level of proficiency affected these two teachers' decisions to give feedback; they both agreed that mistakes would be corrected when students could produce longer conversations.

All of the six participants showed a convergence between their beliefs and practices, that is, giving delayed feedback to the students when they performed in front of the class, except a temporary change in the case of Teacher 1, which will be presented in the following section.

5.3.1.5 *How to correct the error*

Taking notes of the errors on the board or in a notebook and correcting them later was one of the common activities found in all the teachers' practices, reflecting the congruity between what they said and did. Also, all the teachers shared the belief that their use of Vietnamese in giving OCF would assist students to understand their feedback better, and did so in practice. For instance, Teacher 3 said that she used Vietnamese because students could not understand long and complex rules if they were explained in English. When I asked why she thought that the students would not understand her, she said "because there are several students whose levels are low in the class, so some can understand, some cannot (T3.PLD2)".

5.3.2 **Divergences in beliefs and practices**

This subsection will present three main divergences between the teachers' beliefs and practices: (1) timing of the feedback to students' rehearsals, (2) teacher correction vs. student correction, and (3) segmentals vs. suprasegmentals.

5.3.2.1 *Timing of the feedback to students' rehearsals*

A divergence between the beliefs and practices was found when immediate corrective feedback was given to the students rehearsing in pairs or groups in their

own seats. Interestingly, all the teachers had the belief that they would give OCF (if any) when students were practising in pairs or groups in the seats; however, just one episode occurring under this circumstance was identified in the data, revealing a major mismatch between their beliefs or practices (for the reasons for such identification, see Section 3.4.1).

The only observed episode where the teacher gave immediate feedback while students were rehearsing took place in Teacher 3's lesson. She later explained that "This is a new structure they had not known [...] I recognised two pairs (were making the mistake). I did not want to correct it with just these two pairs. I wanted to correct with the whole class" (T3.PLD2). When I asked her why she did not delay it until they finished their work, she said that "because they were practising, so if they were corrected, they would not commit it (the error) again when presenting in front of the class" (T3.PLD2). Unfortunately, this type of practice was rarely found in the data.

5.3.2.2 *Teacher correction vs. student correction*

It was found that the belief that errors should be corrected by students first before the teachers gave their correction in delayed feedback remained almost unchanged because the same belief was reiterated in stimulated recalls, focus group discussion and narrative frames. For instance, Teacher 2 said that "when students self correct, better English students could share with weaker ones [...], teacher correction is the last resort." (T2.PLD1)

This view is similar to that of Teacher 1 when she often asked students to work in pairs so that they could learn from each other: "I have to put one weak student with a fairly good one. The better one would help the weaker one correct (the utterance). When the weaker one is unable to make the sentence, the other one would provide assistance immediately (T1.PLD2)."

Teacher 3 had the same view:

I like self correction most, then peer (correction) as (firstly) it (the student) is completely active; they self-realise that they are wrong. Secondly, they ask help from the friends who are closest to them; they can meet friends more frequently than me.

Thirdly, they ask assistance from us teachers as a last resort (T3.PLD2).

In the focus group discussion, all three participants advocated the view that students should self correct first. This can be seen in the following extract:

T1: Like you (Teacher 2), I let students self correct first [...]

T3: and not only I but also the whole class recognise the errors.

Some good students can identify them. I highly value those who can do that in class. Students correct each other among themselves and teachers do the final steps.

T1: Yes, that's right. (FG1)

Teacher 6 also advocated student self-correction: "I do not correct when students are speaking. I let them finish the conversation and ask others students to give any comments (T6.PLD1). This belief was again mentioned in the narrative frame:

When giving correction, I often begin with going around and listen to the students who are working in groups to identify any errors. I may correct them with the whole class immediately first, then I call some students to perform in front of the class, ask other students to listen attentively, and give any comments. (T6.NF)

However, it was observed that the teachers almost invariably corrected the mistakes rather than the students. This major mismatch can be seen in the reactive delayed FFEs where the teacher-only and teacher-the-whole-class patterns were found far more frequently than the other feedback patterns and the number of episodes in which students peer-corrected the mistakes was much higher than that where self-correction occurred.

Moreover, even in reactive immediate FFEs, where it is supposed that the teachers would have more opportunities to elicit self-correction because there were no intervals between the time the errors were committed and the time they were corrected, mismatches between beliefs and practices were found to occur. In

practice, they employed more reformulation techniques than prompts, which means chances for self-correction were limited.

All the teachers said that they preferred student correction (see Section 5.1.3.4); however, in the observed lessons, it was teachers who corrected most of the errors. This practice of error correction can be seen in most of the extracts in Section 5.2.2.3, except errors in Extracts #16, #17, and #18, which were spotted as rare cases in which students were prompted to correct the errors themselves.

In short, there were convergences between beliefs and practices in terms of importance of grammatical accuracy, the role of providing OCF, timing of OCF to students' performances, types of errors, and how to correct. Divergences can be found in timing of OCF to students' rehearsals and who was to correct the errors. Also, inherent inconsistencies between beliefs and practices among teachers were found regarding feedback with or without speaking criteria. In addition, there were several observed temporary changes in beliefs and practices in some teachers' lessons with reference to immediate and delayed feedback, teacher correction and student correction.

5.3.2.3 *Segmentals vs. suprasegmentals*

Although half of the teachers expressed the importance of suprasegmentals in improving intelligibility (Section 5.1.3.2), the extent to which these beliefs were put into practice was far from their desires. For instance, in the first stimulated recall session, Teacher 2 strongly emphasised that the students needed improving their intonation to improve intelligibility, however, among many OCF episodes, Extract #15 was the only episode in which she corrected the wrong pronunciation error of the verb "have" and asked the whole class to repeat the whole question after her. She reported that such repetition would help the students understand that the intonation of the question is different from that of a statement (T.PLD1). Similarly, Teacher 1 said that she corrected the errors based on the criteria recommended in the guideline, including pauses, or word stress and that she often told the students to pay attention to these criteria. Nevertheless, most of her treatment of the pronunciation errors were on segmentals rather than suprasegmentals (see Extract #22, for example, turns 31, 37, 50, and 69).

5.3.3 Conflicting beliefs and practices among the teachers

In this subsection, two conflicting beliefs and practices among the teachers will be presented: immediate feedback vs. delayed feedback and with or without speaking criteria.

5.3.3.1 *Immediate feedback vs. delayed feedback*

As mentioned in 5.3.1, all the other teachers combined both immediate and delayed feedback when they thought it was necessary. Teacher 1 always delayed feedback to students' public performances in all the activities in practice and production stages, even when students made many mistakes, whereas all the other teachers combined both. It can be said that Teacher 1 was one of the teachers who had very strong belief and practices in the timing of delayed feedback, which can be illustrated in the conversation below:

T1: I have a habit that I do not interrupt students. I always give delayed feedback to all students, even to both weak and strong ones.

T2: How about a case when one student makes too many mistakes?

T1: I still let him finish his conversation. I have never stopped any pair during their conversation.

T2: Even, for example, too many explicit errors?

T1: No matter how many or how obvious the mistakes are, I would correct only after they finish (FG1)

Her consistent approach stemmed from her previous learning experiences. That is to say, she said that when she was a student herself, she had felt so upset when her teacher interrupted her conversation to give oral corrective feedback (T1. PLD1). This made her never interrupt students' conversations in her lessons for correction. However, it was observed that there was one occasion in which she corrected students immediately in front of the class because she said that the time was going to be up and she wanted to move to the next activity.

In addition, it was observed that in the case of Teacher 4, in one lesson, immediate correction was given to three consecutive errors committed by the student (Extract

#5). She just provided a recast, allowing the student to continue his full-of-error talk.

5.3.3.2 *With or without speaking criteria*

It was observed from classroom data that while Teachers 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 gave oral corrective feedback, both immediate and delayed, in all types of activities at practice and production stages, only Teacher 1 gave delayed oral feedback based on the four speaking criteria in the guideline. Her beliefs underlying these practices, and her colleagues' disagreements, were found in the first focus group as follows.

T1: Before practising, I often preset speaking criteria right at the beginning. They (students) will see whether the pair is meeting those criteria...

T3: I think that basing on the criteria would be rigid because...we do not always base on the criteria to correct the errors, like in the case of some simple utterances.

T1: If you do not divide into four criteria right at the beginning, they (students) would note down only pronunciation and grammar errors.

T2: No, fluency, accuracy, all types, even content

T1: It meant that we still give feedback to the content based on the criteria.

T3: I do not ask students to assess (the performance) based on the criteria to avoid inflexibility...because in most of the suggested cards, the performance does not diverge from the content, but it occurs in free talks.

T1: in card, they [students] have cues and have to follow, don't they. But in my class, some students tend to forget and miss some lines. Therefore, I often ask them to look at the content and see whether the pair had mentioned enough.

T3: I often show the cards on the slides, so they follow the suggestion on the screen in most cases.

T1: They follow but then they forget.

T2: It means each teacher has her own way to correct the errors. I think you [T3] do it properly, step by step. You (T1) by contrast have clear criteria. It is like we are forcing them (students) to fulfil the criteria. I am more similar to Teacher 1 than to you (T3).

T3: I mean that with each type of students, we will suggest different criteria. If we set out four criteria like Teacher 1, eventually we impede students from speaking because to those weak students, they would feel scared (to talk).

T2: No, we do not impede them at all.

T1: They would have to try harder.

(FG1)

Teacher 1 explained that she used speaking criteria as the basis for giving feedback because firstly, she would like her students to evaluate the performance in the same way. Secondly, she said that these criteria would assist them to give comments on all the aspects, instead of focusing only on pronunciation and grammar. Thirdly, the criterion on content could help students not to forget several pieces of information. Finally, she thought that the criteria would be like a kind of goal her students needed to try to reach when practising. By contrast, Teacher 3 stated that pre-setting those criteria before students' practice would be a rigid approach in cases of simple utterances by students. Furthermore, for her, it was not necessary to be concerned about lack of content in the students' performance because all the suggested information was presented on the screen. Also, she added that for lower-level students, the criteria would demotivate students because it would be beyond their capacity to follow the assessment standards.

On the other hand, Teacher 2 did not agree with Teacher 1 that students would give comments only on pronunciation and grammar if they did not set out the speaking criteria. She agreed with Teacher 3 that comments would be given on all the aspects, even content. She meant that she would give feedback based on the criteria, but she did not preset them prior to an activity and went from one criterion to another like Teacher 1.

Teacher 1 was very consistent in her own approach in giving criteria-based feedback, which was different from all other teachers. She provided her own reasons, which could persuade Teacher 2, a group leader, to agree with her. It was uncertain that this change in her beliefs would turn into practice as the focus group discussion was held at the end of the data collection period; but it revealed that assessment criteria from the Faculty's teaching guideline might possibly affect the teaching approaches and teachers' beliefs.

5.4 Influencing factors

In this subsection, three main influencing factors on the teachers' beliefs and practices will be presented in relation to teachers, students, and institutions.

5.4.1 Teachers' factors

Two main factors affecting the teachers' beliefs and practices were their learning and teaching experiences and uncertainty in concepts of corrective feedback as follows.

5.4.1.1 *The learning experiences*

Out of the six participants, only Teacher 1 said that she was mostly affected by her learning experiences as a student. She usually used prompts to elicit students' responses. She said: "I formed this habit when I learned with a Western teacher who corrected students like that" (T1.PLD2).

Other teachers said that they almost had no experiences of being corrected by their school teachers because when they were at high schools, they only studied grammar to pass the exam and did not study speaking skills. From what they said in the interviews, it can be said that their current practices in giving OCF were the results of teaching experiences and peer observation for some years.

5.4.1.2 *Uncertainty in concepts of corrective feedback*

It was found that no teachers explicitly referred to any of the error correction techniques discussed in the previous section. It might be inferred that they had few ideas about these techniques in terms of concepts because if they had strong

and firm knowledge about this, such as delayed feedback, they would mention it on certain occasions like interviews, stimulated recalls, or focus group discussions.

In addition, Teacher 2 talked about her uncertainty about error correction. In the interview when being asked which kind of feedback was more effective, immediate or delayed, she said:

Quite “flexi”. I have not identified which method is more effective than the other [...] I talked about this (with other teachers) in the break, but I do not know which one (which type of CF), after, before, or during the activity is effective. (T1.I)

Teacher 4 mentioned her inability to explain why several errors were committed repeatedly by students of all levels: “During teaching I see that there are some ‘systematic’ errors, which are committed everywhere, by students at any levels. I do not understand why” (FG2). She said that she did not have the right solution and her error correction was merely experience-based: “It is hard but I do not understand deeply about the issue (giving correction), sometimes, I just base it on my teaching experience” (FG2).

5.4.2 Students’ factors

Students' ability levels, attitudes, personality, and school experiences were the factors that influenced teachers’ beliefs and practices

5.4.2.1 *Student level of proficiency*

All the teachers reported that students’ levels of English exerted influence on their use of Vietnamese in giving OCF. For instance, when being asked whether she would like to use English in reactive episodes, Teacher 4 said that: “I think students do not understand my instruction in English, let alone my giving correction in English” (T4.PLD2).

Similarly, Teacher 5 said:

Student level of proficiency and their major affect my correction style. To English majored ones, I corrected in English totally,

my instruction is short, too. I feel that I have less workload. To English non-majors, I find it harder and more time-consuming.” (T5.PLD2)

5.4.2.2 *Students' attitudes toward learning*

All the teachers reported that the students were passive in their learning in general and in participating in the classroom activities (e.g., OCF) in particular. For example, Teacher 6 explained why her students did not peer-correct much in the lesson:

They (students) are too lazy to do so. If they are called by teachers, they would just be able to remember and comment on some minor mistakes. They might not pay attention or sit too far from the pairs to recognise any errors. I want them to listen attentively to correct, but they do not understand what their classmates say, so they cannot give proper answers. (T6.I)

As can be seen, according to Teacher 6, there were four possible reasons for the fact that peer correction was not really common: (1) students' laziness, (2) students' lack of attention to their classmates' conversation, (3) their distant physical seating preventing them from hearing the errors, and (4) their inability to identify their friends' errors.

5.4.2.3 *Student personality*

All the teachers said that their students were shy and lacked communication skills, which particularly impeded them from enacting self-correction and peer-correction. For instance, Teacher 5 said: “I think that most students are quite shy and afraid of making mistakes. They are afraid of being laughed at or being corrected here and then (T5.PLD1)”. Furthermore, on being corrected, “they responded so softly, kept silent” (T2.NF). Teacher 4 said: “In my opinion, our students are lacking in communication skills. Despite being at tertiary level, they are still shy” (T4.PLD1).

Therefore, it can be inferred that it would be very challenging for all the teachers to encourage students to self-correct or peer-correct because they were too shy to talk and afraid of being corrected, let alone give feedback to others.

5.4.2.4 *Students' learning experiences at high school levels*

Teacher 1 wrote that students' learning experiences were one of the reasons why they were not ready for their self correction: "Some students are not really cooperative and pay attention to their self correction during speaking English, perhaps due to traditional method of learning that is, studying to pass the exams" (T1.NF). In addition, Teacher 4 stated that "students committed 'systematic' pronunciation errors when they started to know the words at school levels. Once they made the errors, they became fossilized. In the past, they studied just writing, no speaking" (T4.PLD2).

5.4.3 **Institutional factors**

It was found that institutional factors like the requirement of the blended programme, the general guideline on classroom teaching and assessment, time constraints, and the F2F materials had an influential impact on the teachers' OCF provision.

5.4.3.1 *The requirements of the blended programme*

As noted earlier (Section 4.1), there were two core requirements of the BL programme for students and teachers. First, students had to complete 100 % of the online exercises prior to coming to class and attend 80% of F2F lessons. Second, teachers had to carry out two main duties. One of them was to control students' online learning through reports, and determine the language knowledge and skills needed for F2F revision or consolidation through observing students in classroom activities and results of online tests. The other was to conduct, add or change classroom activities (if needed) to improve students' speaking skill.

With regards to students, from the requirements, it was essential for students to self-study at home to be prepared in terms of language knowledge and skills for oral interaction with teachers and peers. However, all the teachers reported that many students did not really self-study at home. They all claimed that quite a

number of students did not actually do their online tasks. Teacher 4 added that “when I check online (tasks), (I see that) it took some students six or seven seconds to finish one task, (which means) students can’t gain anything” (T4.PLD1). They said that the only way to check whether students had done the online tasks or not was by looking at the online reports. The other more reliable method, as they reported, was checking whether they remembered the meaning of new words through several vocabulary and grammar tasks in the F2F environment. This indicated that it was unlikely that most students came to the class with good preparation in terms of language knowledge and skills for oral interaction with teachers and friends.

In addition, through the interviews, it was found that teachers were given professional development for those skills only to a limited extent. Most of the teachers took part in workshops in teaching methodologies, assessment and testing, and needs analysis; however, none of them were particularly knowledgeable about how to give feedback, and specifically oral corrective feedback. These skills were formed in them just through observation of other colleagues and workshop trainers. For example, Teacher 5 said: “The trainer corrected some of our pronunciation errors, from which we teachers can learn from her” (T5.PLD2). Therefore, it can be said that teachers’ OCF practices were highly unlikely to change despite the new learning environment.

5.4.3.2 The general guideline on classroom teaching and assessment

The syllabuses of the Faculties provided the guideline for teachers about how to evaluate and assess students’ learning. There were five suggestions: (1) to specify the speaking assessment criteria for each task, (2) to invite several individuals or pairs to perform their work in front of the whole class after their rehearsal so that the teachers and other peers could give constructive comments, and (3) to create a friendly learning atmosphere for the students. The fourth suggestion was to ask the students to repeat the task at home individually, in pairs or groups, then either audio or video it for further comments and feedback from peers and the teachers when time did not allow the teachers to practise in class. Finally, the teachers were advised to use the results of online tests to identify the gaps in the students’ knowledge so that they could fill those gaps in F2F lessons.

Observation data reveal that the general teaching practices of all the teachers mostly conformed to the second, third and fourth suggestions. Only Teacher 1 conformed to the first suggestion as she said that making students aware of these criteria was one way to force them to achieve the activity goal. Also, she gave comments on their performance after they had completed any activity and she used the criteria as a guideline to assess and give marks. Teacher 5 seemed to take a similar approach to the activities, but with public performance in the final activity in a lesson only. For the other four teachers, it was observed that they rarely based them on the criteria when giving comments. So it can be said that the teaching guideline had more effect on Teacher 1 than the other teachers. And also, with the same guideline, each teacher had their own approach in giving feedback and comments.

5.4.3.3 *Time constraints*

All the teachers said that limited hours of teaching affected their frequency in giving OCF. For example, Teacher 4 said that “If I have time, I would provide more detailed correction and ask students to practice more” (T4.PLD2). Teacher 5, likewise, said that “I feel uncomfortable as I can’t correct more students because of limit of time” (T5.PLD1); or “If I have more time in class, I would correct more students” (T5.NF). Time constraints also impeded the teachers from providing feedback to more pair work or group work. For example, Teacher 1 said “when the students are rehearsing in pairs or groups, I can provide feedback to one or two pairs or groups only. I only can ask no more than one pair for public performances for commenting (T1.PLD3). In addition, time pressure was one of the reasons preventing this teacher from using other techniques: “When I used the whole sentence to ask students, they hesitate to respond; but with alternative questions, they replied so quickly, so I turn to use things that make them respond faster. I want to do it fast because of my fear about lack of teaching time.” (T1.PLD3)

5.4.3.4 *The F2F materials utilised in the observed practices*

The activities in the F2F materials were oriented toward focus on meaning (see 4.2) and the guidelines anticipated that the teachers could adapt the tasks where necessary. In addition, the models of the conversations or individual talks were

provided in most activities. It was observed that students either when rehearsing or performing the task just learned them by heart or substituted the subject, objects or possessive adjectives with their own information. When being asked about the models provided in the course book, most of the teachers were aware of their disadvantages. Firstly, the models might lead to rote learning. For instance, Teacher 4 said that the programme created a rote-learning environment and students just copied the models, learnt them by heart, and would not be able to communicate in real-life situations: “Students will speak like a parrot in the programme. If they encounter real situations in reality, it will be hard for them to communicate” (T4.PLD2). Secondly, it would be hard for the teachers to gauge the students’ knowledge gap when the mistakes were identified in non-genuine communication environments. That is, the students just read the conversation rather than making it naturally, so they mainly committed pronunciation errors instead of grammar or vocabulary mistakes. For example, Teacher 1 said: “the students memorised the structures so they just made mistakes with ending sounds with “s” only” (T1.I). Moreover, several tasks which required students to use their own language to communicate were considered to be too difficult for students to accomplish, so they were deleted or altered to become activities by teachers (see Section 4.3.2). The teaching environment was described by Teacher 4 to be “pair work after pair work, then presentation. The lesson patterns all are the same.”

5.5 Summary of key findings

In summary, all the teachers believed that accuracy was important in teaching students to speak; some of them said that more attention should be paid to fluency and building students' confidence. Their belief that giving OCF played an important role in the BL environment was found to converge with their practices.

In terms of providing OCF to students, the convergences between beliefs and practices were found in the types of errors to correct. All the collected data revealed that the teachers believed and were observed to put into practice correcting pronunciation errors. In addition, all the teachers believed and practised that delayed feedback should be given to students’ public performance. Also, it was observed that most teachers often tended to use a single correction technique more often in the entire observed lesson rather than a variety of techniques as

suggested in the literature and overall didactic recasts were the most frequently used technique. Finally, the teachers' beliefs in vicarious learning was put into the practice via the public error correction.

Divergences were observed in the timing of feedback to students' rehearsal and who to correct. While all of them said that they should provide OCF when students were working in pairs or groups, very few data were found to reflect this practice. In addition, all the teachers believed that they preferred student self-correction; however, their teaching practices revealed that teacher correction was adopted far more frequently than that desired approach. The interaction between teachers and students in delayed corrective episodes were teacher-led, and teacher-centred; instead of student-centred.

The current beliefs and practices in the study could have been influenced by several factors. Firstly, teachers themselves, who had the most influential impact on providing OCF, gaining experiences from their own teaching practices and observation of others for years while lacking fundamental professional knowledge of OCF. Second, students were supposed to be highly autonomous, motivated and active in their study not only in class but more importantly at home when learning online or taking part in extra-curricular activities whereas they had few of these qualities. Finally, the institutional factors like the requirements of the programme, teaching guidelines, and teaching materials were found to have a profound impact on the practices of the teachers. One particular finding about the teachers' beliefs and practice was their preference for delayed correction. This issue is under-explored in the existing literature, and will be considered in the Discussion chapter.

CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION

The main finding of the previous chapter was that the teachers thought that they should delay correction because of their concerns and assumptions about the students, and desire to achieve the goal of the blended learning programme: to promote student fluency. It was observed that they enacted such beliefs into their practice without realising that they were focusing on accuracy instead. Moreover, it was found that there were a prevalent use of input-providing techniques, an adoption of whole-class correction and a lack of task repetition, and particularly immediate correction. These practices all led to ineffective OCF practice and little genuine communication. This means the overall objective of the programme was achieved to a very limited extent.

In this chapter, I present a discussion of the data in the previous chapter with an attempt to answer the overarching research question:

To what extent does OCF in F2F interaction promote students' knowledge and skills in communication?

In what follows I extract from the findings some significant common themes, namely timing, setting, techniques, linguistic focus, opportunities to apply feedback, who corrects the errors, and L1 use. These themes will be elaborated along with the teachers' beliefs and their actual practices as well as the three stage order of a task: pre-task, main-task, and post-task. They are also reflected in the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 related to blended learning, oral corrective feedback and especially teacher cognition, and to the description in Chapter 4 of the BL programme. An account for the overall learning outcomes will be conducted through the lens of the principles of successful scaffolding (van Lier, 1996) and the three generations of the Cultural Historical Activity Theory.

6.1 OCF techniques in the strategic planning

6.1.1 Teachers' beliefs

None of the OCF techniques were mentioned by any of the teachers in the study (Section 5.4.1.2). This finding is similar to those of Roothoof (2014) and Canh

(2011) in which both Spanish and Vietnamese teachers were reported to have limited explicit knowledge of OCF techniques. However, it contrasts with studies on teacher cognition about OCF in which the participants were aware of OCF strategies, especially recasts, and reported their preference for this technique (e.g., Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Kamiya, 2016; Lee, 2013; Roothoof, 2014; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018).

6.1.2 Teachers' practices

As mentioned in Section 5.2.3.1, all the lecturers were observed to use didactic recasts most frequently, followed (in order of frequency) by explicit correction, explicit correction with meta linguistic explanation, elicitation, repetition, and metalinguistic clues in the strategic planning (see Extracts #5, #6, #7, #8, #9 and #7 respectively). The high frequency of recasts was not unexpected, given the findings of the earlier studies (e.g., Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kamiya, 2016; Kartchava et.al, 2018; Lee, 2013; Öztürk, 2016; Pouriran & Mukundan, 2012; Roothoof, 2014; Sepehrinia and Mehdizadeh, 2018). However, while the teachers in the above-mentioned studies provided recasts during the main task of the communicative activities, in both my study and Nguyen's (2013), most immediate correction (mainly recasts) was provided during strategic planning in the pre-task stage.

While the teachers provided correction in the strategic planning to improve accuracy, their use of reformulations (e.g., recasts and explicit correction) in the pre-task stage seemed not to be the most useful techniques. As pointed out in the literature (see Section 2.3.3), prompts are more effective than reformulations in classroom settings (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Yang & Lyster, 2010) and they help to push learners to self-correct (Lyster, 2015). This suggests that the teachers' employment of more reformulations than prompts in classroom likely led to fewer opportunities for the students to self-correct, restructure their interlanguage (Lyster, 2015), or improve their proceduralised knowledge (Kartchava & Ammar, 2014; Lyster, 2004), or develop their autonomy (Yuan & Lee, 2014).

Additionally, it is possible that the students might not have fully understood the recast feedback when they merely repeated after the teacher's correct version (Gass, 2015). As the teachers mainly provided, rather than elicited, the correct forms, they appeared to control the classroom interaction right from the initial stage of the task. Therefore, the teachers may have provided insufficient learning opportunities to promote student participation even when they had opportunities to interact with each other. This concurs with that of Canh and Renandya (2017) in which two secondary Vietnamese teachers were found to rarely provide affordances to encourage students to extend their turns.

In short, the present study illuminated that reactive focus on form occurred even in the pre-task stage, particularly in strategic planning. It also showed that the use of reformulations as OCF techniques at this stage was not effective for the overall purpose of the BL environment. This might have resulted in limited improvement in accuracy and little effect on fluency. I discuss below whether they should provide error correction during the rehearsal.

6.2 Timing of OCF regarding immediate correction in the rehearsal stage

6.2.1 Teachers' beliefs

All the lecturers said that it is necessary to correct errors immediately when students were practising in pair work or group work. This reflects the idea that within-task OCF facilitates language acquisition (Brown, 2016; Li, 2010, 2018; Lyster & Saito, 2010a; Lyster et al., 2013), and aligns with the pedagogical advice given to teachers to provide immediate feedback during accuracy work (e.g., Brumfit, 1984; Doff, 1988; Harmer, 2001, 2007).

All the teachers further believed in the particular importance of immediate correction when the errors may impede communication (see Section 5.1.1). Similar beliefs were also reported by Agudo (2014) and Firwana (2011) but the teachers' reasoning was different. The majority of the Spanish teachers in Agudo (2014) believed that uncorrected errors would likely result in imperfect learning,

while those in Firwana (2011) felt that it was acceptable for teachers to interrupt students to correct their errors.

6.2.2 Teachers' practices

Classroom observation data reveals that the teachers provided little immediate correction when the students were preparing and rehearsing their conversation with only one episode found (Section 5.3.2), revealing a mismatch between their beliefs and practices. Such scarcity of immediate correction episodes in pair and group work seems contradictory to the reviewed literature about immediate feedback (Section 2.3.4). Immediate feedback, according to theories, such as Interaction Hypothesis, Transfer-Appropriate Processing, and Skill-Acquisition Theory (see Section 2.3.4 for more details), is beneficial for the development of L2 interlanguage, procedural knowledge, and linguistic competence (e.g., implicit knowledge). For instance, based on Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis, when students receive immediate error correction during communication, they should be able to compare their deviant form and the target-like form, which facilitates their interlanguage development. Furthermore, based on Transfer-Appropriate Processing, when students receive immediate feedback while communicating, learning process takes place and this process of learning will emerge for use in subsequent unplanned situations. Moreover, immediate correction is beneficial to the development of implicit L2 knowledge (Spada et al., 2014). However, the teachers failed to provide immediate correction during the rehearsals and this might suggest that the students made little improvement in their interlanguage and implicit knowledge, and might not have been able to transfer their learning into real-life events.

Furthermore, as the students in the present study might have had some prior knowledge of the target structure thanks to the revision and strategic planning stages, immediate correction would have been more effective than delayed feedback in terms of improving the students' knowledge of the language item (Li et al., 2016).

In addition, the students' anticipation of a later public performance was likely to lead to a shift in the students' attention to form during the main task (Skehan &

Foster, 1997, 2012). This might imply that the students were likely to focus on forms rather than meaning during their rehearsals in order to develop their linguistic knowledge during this pre-task stage.

It is possible that the teachers were perhaps not fully aware of the advantages of immediate feedback within-task. This lack of awareness might be due to an absence of effective institutional guidelines on when to give corrective feedback (Section 4.3). Immediate feedback might also have been difficult because of large class sizes (average 30 students) and the challenge of provide feedback to all the groups (Han, 2002). This finding seems convergent with that of Nguyen (2013), regarding Vietnamese high-school teachers.

In summary, in contrast to their beliefs, the teachers provided almost no immediate correction during the rehearsal stage, suggesting students had little opportunity to restructure their interlanguage and improve their procedural knowledge and implicit knowledge. This mismatch between the teachers' beliefs and practices appeared related to a lack of official or professional guidance about when to give corrective feedback, lack of awareness of the crucial role of immediate correction, and contextual factors like big class sizes. Moreover, the students' awareness of subsequent public performances might have led to their focus on accuracy instead of fluency during the rehearsal. The following section will further discuss this point.

6.3 Timing of feedback in relation to delayed feedback in the main-task stage

6.3.1 Teachers' beliefs

All the teachers reported that they avoided correcting their students while they were performing in front of the class and instead waited until they had finished their performance. The underlying belief is well-supported as speaking in public causes anxiety (Mak, 2011; Rassaei, 2015), and immediate correction may cause more anxiety than delayed feedback (Shabani & Safari, 2016; Rahimi, & Dasjerdi, 2012). The teachers explained that they intended not to interrupt the students' conversations in order to improve fluency and confidence. These intentions are in

accordance with Doff (1998) and Harmer (2001, 2007) who recommended delayed correction to enhance fluency in fluency-focused activities. Moreover, delayed correction is congruent with the preparatory attention and memory theory, which posits that it can help students to focus on meaning (see 2.3.4). Finally, the teachers' motivation for delaying correction, to improve student confidence, seemed in line with the humanistic approach in terms of keeping the students' positive self-image (Ur, 1996). Thus for multiple reasons, the teachers' views toward delayed correction are well supported in the literature.

The teachers' view toward delayed correction have been touched upon in the literature (e.g., Ozmen & Aydın, 2015; Tomczyk, 2013). However, where my study may differ from others is in the fronted setting of the main-task stage, rather than private or small group settings.

6.3.2 Teachers' practices

It was observed that all the teachers delayed their correction until the students had finished their public performance, revealing a match between their intentions and practices. However, this convergence does not mean that their aims to improve students' fluency and confidence were fulfilled.

Firstly, it is unlikely that the students could have improved their fluency. When performing in front of the public, the fear of later negative evaluation (Pham, 2017) often leads students to attend to form to avoid committing errors. Therefore, the students in the study might have focused on speaking as accurately as they could as they were aware that they would receive whole-class feedback on form rather than meaning. Additionally, delayed correction is beneficial for the development of linguistic forms (Spada et al., 2014; Spada & Lightbown, 2008) and improves explicit knowledge according to preparatory attention and memory theory, and reactivation and reconsolidation theory (Quin, 2014). This explicit knowledge is facilitative for the development of accuracy (DeKeyser, 2015).

Secondly, it is doubtful whether the students could have improved their confidence in line with the teachers' expectations. Public performance often causes anxiety (Horwitz, 1995; Oxford, 1999; Pham, 2017; Young, 1999), and these students were already described by the teachers as shy, lowly-motivated and

low-proficient (Section 5.4.2). Therefore, although delaying correction might have lowered anxiety (Shabani & Safari, 2016; Rahimi, & Dasjerdi, 2012), the public performances themselves might have caused apprehension. This seems likely to have been exasperated by the limited feedback received on their first performance (the rehearsal), such as what and how to improve their conversation. This type of scaffolding is claimed to be essential for improved subsequent performance (Sheppard, 2006; van de Guchte et al., 2016). Students may, therefore, have not felt confidently ready, and may not have developed real confidence. This seemed to match with the actual observation data, with students observed to clutch and read from their book or from the slides while conversing with each other. Such reading suggests that they paid attention primarily to forms rather than expressing themselves or that they felt so anxious that they were unable to produce a natural conversation. Thus, with such little genuine communication observed, there was little evidence that either confidence or fluency were advanced.

This finding converges with Tran (2015), in which Vietnamese university lecturers were observed to ask students to perform in public for subsequent comments and error correction although it was unreported whether such practice led to an improved learning. My study adds that such practice might possibly improve the students' linguistic forms and could make them less anxious and that in order to help students perform better in public, immediate feedback needs to be provided during the rehearsal stage. Additionally, it might be inferred from the present study that it is necessary for the teachers to provide immediate feedback during the main-task stage in order to improve students' implicit knowledge, interlanguage and linguistic competence.

The previous chapter showed that the teachers delayed their correction until the students finished their performances in public and provided the whole-class error correction afterwards (Section 5.2.3.2). The next section discusses whether the teachers providing OCF in the whole-class setting was useful in terms of improving students' speaking ability.

6.4 Setting of delayed feedback in the post-task stage

6.4.1 Teachers' beliefs

The interview, post-lesson discussion, and focus group data showed that all the teachers believed that students could learn from hearing other students being corrected, and avoid making the same errors later. Such vicarious learning is congruent with the literature (Bandura, 1977; Mayes et al., 2002). However, public correction is also likely to result in students' embarrassment and demotivation, and eventually their unwillingness to interact with the teachers and other classmates (Mak, 2011; Rassaei, 2015; Sheen, 2008). Yet, there was little evidence that the teachers in the study were concerned about this although they cared about negative effects of providing immediate correction in public performances (Section 5.3.1).

6.4.2 Teachers' practices

It was observed that all the teachers provided whole-class OCF after each pair finished their performance. This finding is consistent with several studies in Vietnamese contexts (Canh, 2011; Nguyen, 2013; Tran, 2015), which indicated the "collectively normative pedagogy" (Canh, 2011, p. 129), whereby high school teachers and now university lecturers are found to often correct the students' errors in a whole class setting. However, this finding diverges from that of Rolin-Ianziti (2010), in which the teachers provided error correction in group settings rather than whole-class settings. Rolin-Ianziti did not explore why the teachers did so, but in my study, little immediate feedback was given in group settings because the teachers wanted the whole class to hear the correction and avoid making the same errors. The participants in the present study accounted for this practice as stemming from their assumption that the students tended to commit similar ingrained errors, meaning whole-class error correction could help everyone (Section 5.1.3.3).

However, such assumptions of students' proficiency seemed to prevent the teachers' from effective OCF practices. Firstly, it seemed likely that little explicit L2 knowledge was taken in by the students because there was little to no

opportunity for uptake in teacher-fronted OCF. As discussed in the literature (Section 2.3.8), for uptake to take place, the teachers needed to create opportunities for the students who committed the error to react to the correction by repairing the mistake wholly or partially (Lyster, 2015). Nevertheless, it was observed that the teachers in the study failed to do so because they just provided the correct version and asked the whole class to repeat after them, ignoring or forgetting the student who committed the error (see for instance, lines 10-17, in Extract #13 or turn 2, 4 in Extract #14). The whole class's mere repetition of the correct version did not mean that they understood the feedback, a point made by some earlier studies (Yoshida, 2010; Gass, 2015). Furthermore, concurring with Akiyama (2014) and Oliver (2000), the whole class interaction in this study means that the student who committed the error had few if any opportunities to respond to the feedback individually. This suggests that the teacher-fronted correction was futile in terms of improving the students' explicit knowledge. Individual feedback is the most effective approach (Nassaji, 2013), but as presented in Section 6.2, this seldom occurred with small groups, and only transitorily and ineffectively to individual students in the pre-task stage (Section 6.1). Thus the common adoption of public correction in the present study was far from effective, and possibly face threatening, which might have impeded student communication.

Moreover, there are other approaches in the post-task stage, such as task repetition, task reflection, and focus on forms and in focus on forms, the teachers can also ask the students to review the errors, perform consciousness raising tasks, or production-practice and noticing activities (Ellis, 2003). However, the teachers in the present study adopted just one approach: they reviewed the errors by highlighting and correcting errors committed in the performance. This might imply their delayed correction approach was rather repetitive and failed to lead to the desired learning outcome as it was done in public settings. Overall, the students might have improved some knowledge of linguistic forms or accuracy during such public delayed correction.

In short, the teaching practices during three stages of a task: pre-task, main-task, and post-task might not have been effective in improving the students' learning outcomes. In the pre-task stage, recasts and explicit correction were the most

frequently-used OCF types in the strategic planning and there was little immediate correction provided in the rehearsal stage. Little immediate correction was again observed in the main-task stage when the students performed in front of the whole class. In the post-task stage, the teachers were observed to provide mainly teacher-fronted correction and there was a lack of opportunity for uptake. Generally, such practice might result in little improvement in the students's explicit/declarative knowledge and accuracy.

While learning starts from explicit/declarative knowledge (VanPatten & Benati, 2010), it is a long way to developing this into implicit/procedural knowledge (DeKeyser, 2015). To help learners do so, it is necessary to create opportunities to practise existing declarative knowledge (DeKeyser, 2007; DeKeyser, 2015). In the context of the present study, given the dominant delayed-correction approach, task repetition after delayed feedback is strongly advised (Li, 2013). The following section will discuss whether the teachers in the present study provided such opportunities for the students.

6.5 Opportunities to apply OCF

6.5.1 Teachers' beliefs

The teachers' beliefs about the role of task repetition were extracted from the data in post-lesson discussions and focus group sessions. All the teachers stated that it was very important for the students to practise the tasks to gain fluency and accuracy (Section 5.2.6). This is partially in line with the literature about the usefulness of task repetition, that is, to improve not only accuracy, fluency but also complexity (Ahmadian & Tavakoli, 2011; Bygate, 1996; Fukuta, 2016; Gass et al., 1999; Sheppard, 2006; van de Guchte et al., 2016). However, the teachers said that they had limited time in class to repeat the tasks to the extent they desired.

6.5.2 Teachers' practices

It was observed that the teachers did not ask the students to repeat a task in a lesson a second time after their performance, but instead asked pair after pair of

other students to repeat a similar task publicly (Section 5.2.1). This means that the students did not have an opportunity to repeat the task after receiving feedback; instead, they experienced vicarious learning through watching other classmates making performances. According to Mayes et al. (2002), learning is assumed to take place when students observe other people perform a task and actively want to carry it out. This probably means that in the present study, the students might have improved their learning through observation and felt motivated to carry out the task for a second time, but had no opportunity to do so. Possibly, to compensate for this flaw, it was observed that two out of six teachers asked their students to further practise the tasks at home. However, the outcome seemed to be limited as they stopped doing it either for a lack of time, tight schedules, or lack of motivation (Section 5.2.6).

Repeating a similar task plays a crucial role in maintaining its effects on subsequent interaction (Sheppard, 2006; van de Guchte et al., 2016). However, the effects are only transferred to the same task, not a different task of the same type (Ellis, 2003). This means that if the students did not repeat a task and instead just experienced vicarious learning, the interactional benefits from their prior task practice would not have transferred to other tasks. It might be inferred that little learning actually took place during the present study, as the students performed three tasks on average (four tasks per lesson, but task 1 was for revision purposes) but did not repeat those tasks after being given feedback (if any). Moreover, given that the majority of the tasks in F2F materials oriented toward meaning (Section 4.2) and a strong focus on forms in the post-task stages, the development of the implicit/procedural knowledge and/or improved fluency was still far from being achieved. The next section will discuss the linguistic targets that the teachers focused on and their corresponding OCF strategies in different stages of a task.

6.6 Linguistic target of OCF

6.6.1 Teachers' beliefs

Data from the interview, focus group discussion and narrative frames show that teachers believed that it was very important to correct students' pronunciation. This concurs with the findings of two survey studies (Breitkreutz, Derwing, &

Rossiter, 2001; Foote, Holtby, & Derwing, 2011) in which most of the Canadian instructors reported that they incorporated pronunciation instruction (including correcting pronunciation errors) in their teaching. In the present study, the treatment of pronunciation errors was considered as the core of the teaching practice in this BL environment, as stated by Teacher 4 (Section 5.1.3.2). This finding is also in line with that of Junqueira and Kim (2013), in which one of the two ESL teachers in the USA context believed that pronunciation should be the focus of corrective feedback. She said that it is important to have correction of pronunciation errors, for example, saying the words with the right stress, and/or a vowel sound clear enough to understand.

Three lecturers (Lecturers 1, 2 and 3) attached the importance of suprasegmentals in attaining intelligibility in oral communication (Section 5.3.1.3). These beliefs coincided with the view held by teachers in ESL programmes in Canadian settings (Breitkreutz et al., 2001; Burgess & Spencer, 2000; Foote et al., 2011).

6.6.2 Teachers' practices

Observation data revealed that pronunciation errors were corrected more than grammatical and lexical errors, indicating congruence between their beliefs and practices. This finding was in line with Junqueira and Kim (2013) and Nguyen (2013), in which the teachers in both USA and Vietnam context mostly provided error correction on pronunciation errors. Thus even in the different learning environments of TBLT and BL, Vietnamese teachers attended most to pronunciation errors, which contrasts with the much lower finding of 10% reported by Foote et al. (2016). A possible reason for this difference is that the present participants prioritized pronunciation in this type of learning environment because they knew the students had received little pronunciation correction in their high school education and had no opportunity to develop oral skills in the online component of BL (see Sections 5.1.3.2 and 5.4.2.4).

However, despite the three teachers' stated beliefs about the role of suprasegmentals, they failed to enact their beliefs in their practice (Section 5.3.2.3). Such practice is partially comparable to that in Foote et al. (2016), in which no single episode was related to suprasegmentals. The elementary-school

instructors in this 2016 study lacked knowledge or confidence about suprasegmentals (Section 2.3.3) as did three of the participating teachers in the present study (Section 5.2.2). Thus, the students in the present study were unlikely to receive the gains in intelligibility attributed to a focus on suprasegmentals (Gilakjani, 2017; Mora & Levkina, 2017; Munro, Derwing, & Thomson, 2015).

Despite a strong match between their beliefs and practices, for several reasons, their practices were not useful for either students' pronunciation improvement or their communicative competence. Firstly, it would have been beneficial for errors including pronunciation errors to be corrected immediately (Lee & Lyster, 2016; Saito & Lyster, 2012a, 2012b) as students could have had opportunities to hear the positive input and practise it spontaneously. However, observed data showed that the majority of pronunciation errors were corrected after the students finished their performance and in the whole-class setting. This might imply that the students benefited from this OCF practice to only a very limited extent.

Secondly, while a proactive rather than a reactive approach should be implemented to address challenging pronunciation errors (Foote et.al, 2016), it was observed that the teachers in the study merely followed a reactive approach, correcting any errors committed, including those they themselves claimed to be fossilised or ingrained. Furthermore, the teachers reported that the students' pronunciation errors were mainly caused by their L1 influence (Section 5.3.1.3). Overcoming the impact of L1 on pronunciation requires extensive exposure to L2 input (Flege, Frieda, Walley, & Randazza, 1998) and/or intensive phonetic training (Iverson, Pinet, & Evans, 2012; Thomson, 2012, 2016). By contrast, it was uncertain whether the students had sufficient exposure to online language input, not to mention extensive input (Section 5.4.3.1). Additionally, there was no formal pronunciation instruction as the students had to learn it on their own from completing the online tasks.

Thirdly, corrective feedback on pronunciation errors is advantageous only when students have certain amount of phonetic knowledge (Gooch et al., 2016) whereas in the present study, this type of knowledge was not explicitly taught to the students. This means that it might be hard for the students to understand the

teachers' correction, especially if they explained the rule in L2, which possibly limited the efficacy of the error treatment.

To summarise, in terms of the types of errors to correct, there was a convergence between the teachers' beliefs and practices. The teachers believed in the important role of pronunciation and mainly provided error correction on this type of error in their practice. Most of the pronunciation errors were corrected in delayed sequences and in the whole-class setting where the teachers focused on segmentals rather than suprasegmentals. Such practice seemed to have limited value in assisting the students to improve their pronunciation, intelligibility and eventually oral competence. The following section will show a divergence between the teachers' beliefs and practices regarding who corrected the error.

6.7 Who corrected the errors

6.7.1 Teachers' beliefs

As mentioned previously in section 5.1.3.4, all the teachers expressed the same preferred sequence of corrective steps, in which they first allowed for student self-correction, and if necessary then opened it up for peer correction, and finally, if still required, this was followed by teacher correction. This teacher preference for self-correction aligns generally with the findings of Agudo (2014), and Ahmadi and Shafiee (2015). However, there are some differences in the reasoning that teachers appealed to. For example, in Agudo's (2014) study, the majority of the Spanish pre-service teachers preferred self-correction most because it helped to make the students less stressed and anxious. However, the finding of the present study was not in line with that of Méndez and Cruz (2012), in which the Mexican teachers did not favour peer correction as they thought that peer correction might ruin the relationships among the students.

6.7.2 Teachers' practices

Observation data revealed that the teachers provided the correction most of the time, revealing a major mismatch between their beliefs and practices. The incongruence between the teachers' beliefs and their practices also occurred in

delayed correction. The number of those episodes in which students self-corrected was extremely limited (only two episodes see Extract #16 & #17). This finding contrasts with Rolin-Ianziti (2010), in which the ratio between teacher-initiated/completed correction and teacher-initiated student-correction was not much different (98 vs. 82). The differences between the two studies may be that the teachers in Rolin-Ianziti's (2010) study corrected the errors in the group setting where they initiated the episodes and created the opportunity for the students who committed the error to correct it by themselves. By contrast, in the present study, the teachers carried out whole-class, teacher-led error correction with an aim to elicit peer correction. However, it was observed that not many students did peer correct, presumably because of their inability to recognise the errors or because of their shyness (Section 5.4.2). This reveals a typical characteristic of Vietnamese classrooms with the dominant lecture-based practice, through which the central power of teachers is reinforced in almost every classroom (Nghĩ, 2010; Nguyen, 2011). In the present study, the classroom discourse in delayed correction sequences is oriented to form-and-accuracy (Seedhouse, 2004), where teacher-correction is expected and the lesson focuses on formal correctness.

As shown in Section 2.3.5, teacher correction might make the students unable to understand the feedback (Gass, 2015; Lyster, 2015). Consequently, it might limit the students' learning. Also as pointed out in the literature, self-correction is beneficial for the students' interlanguage development (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis, 2007; Lyster, 2004; Yang & Lyster, 2010) and learner autonomy (Yuan & Lee, 2014), while peer correction is advantageous for L2 learning (Fujii et al., 2016; Sato, 2017; Sato & Ballinger, 2012).

Several factors may explain the dominance of teacher-only or teacher-the-whole-class discourse and lack of self-correction. One possible reason is the teachers' lack of knowledge about relevant types of OCF strategies and techniques to move out of IRF exchanges, which can otherwise be highly constraining (Waring, 2011). The lack of students' participation in delayed correction might be due to insufficient wait-time. As found in most extracts in delayed correction, teachers waited less than two seconds for the response from students (see Extract #13, turn 3; or Extract #16, turn 3). This finding is in accord with those obtained by, for

example, Maroni (2011) and Hosoda and Aline (2013) who found that the teachers waited less than a second for a student to respond.

Another explanation is that the teachers had explicitly provided the correction, instead of prompting students to identify and point it out. It is obvious that, as pointed out in the literature review, teacher correction simply does not guarantee deep understanding of the feedback (Gass, 2015; Lyster, 2015). Furthermore, time constraints and students' limited proficiency can be other crucial factors impeding the teachers from realising the beliefs into practices.

To summarise, teacher correction was commonly found in the observation data, showing that their stated preference for student-correction was not put into practice. As a result, the students might have been deprived of opportunities to develop their interlanguage, participate in classroom talk, and enhance their autonomy. The follow section will further discuss the language that the teachers used in their treatment of errors.

6.8 The use of L1

6.8.1 Teachers' beliefs

Data from the post lesson discussions revealed that all the teachers believed that L1 use was necessary when correcting students' errors. There appears to be little if any previous work exploring teacher beliefs in this area, although studies by Karagianni (2016) and Rolin-Ianziti (2010) attest to its practice. Also relevant are empirical studies in Vietnamese contexts, with some evidence of teachers reporting their beliefs that L1 is useful for explaining grammar (Canh, 2014; Kieu, 2010).

6.8.2 Teachers' practices

Observation data showed the high frequency of the use of L1 in the teachers' provision of OCF. There were many similarities in the use of L1 by the teachers of this study and those in the Australian setting in Rolin-Ianziti (2010). For instance, in many extracts, the teachers used the students' first language simply to introduce a sequence of error correction with listing phrases: *the first word* or *the*

second word, followed by the correction or quotation of the error (see 2.3.7). The teachers in both studies used L1 to invite the student who committed the error to correct it (see Extract #16, turn 1). My study further reveals that in delayed correction, the teachers used L1 to elicit peer correction (see Extract #13) or encourage the whole class to quote another error (see Extract #20, turn 3).

While the use of L1 is sometimes necessary to clarify meaning, it could be reduced so that the students have more opportunities to be exposed to L2 input. For instance, the lengthy sequence of English-Vietnamese switching by Teacher 3 in Extract # 11 (see 4.2.5 or 4.2.3.1) to explain the present simple and present continuous could be seen as wasted classroom time which may confuse students (Thompson & Harrison, 2014; Wilkerson, 2008). Another example where reduction is warranted is in listing phrases or eliciting correction of another error ("*Is there anything else?*" in Extract #20, turn 3), which could be readily expressed in L2 and well-understood by the students. This is because it is necessary for teachers to maximise L2 use in the EFL settings (Littlewood & Yu, 2011) by starting with tasks requiring simple and easy English (Mitchell, 1988). Listing the errors or asking common questions like those presented above could be a good start for the teachers to use L2 instead of L1.

The findings of the classroom observation data also reveal consistencies in the use of L1 by the lecturers in the present study and the instructor in Canh's (2014) study. That is to say, L1 was used for pedagogical purposes, to make sure the students understood the feedback, and to explain new words and grammatical rules.

In short, there was little improvement in the students' L1 knowledge and communicative skills because of the inappropriate provision of OCF regarding the timing, setting, strategies, opportunities for uptake, and lack of effective task repetitions (if any). There are several reasons for this outcome. The most influential factor was, firstly, the teachers' lack of basic conceptual knowledge (PCK) of OCF strategies, and task repetition. The second is they corrected the errors entirely routinely on the ground of their relational emotional knowledge after interacting with the similar students over the years (Zembylas, 2007). This knowledge might have triggered the teachers' emotions: concerns for student

demotivation if receiving immediate correction. The third reason is their desires to improve the students' fluency and confidence. The fourth factor was their beliefs about vicarious learning: students may avoid making similar mistakes through hearing teacher-fronted OCF. The final factor was the teachers' assumptions of the student personality, language proficiency, and motivation. In the following sections, the explanations for the failure in improving students' learning outcome will be further elaborated by viewing the matter through the lens of Sociocultural Theory.

6.9 Explanation for the limited learning outcome in the light of Sociocultural Theory

According to Vygotsky (1978), learning is a mutually engaged activity created by the participants (the teachers and the students) in a structured dialogue in which the teachers, as a more capable partner, promote the learning of the students, the less able. To do this, the teachers need to scaffold the students from their current ability to move to the next level. The ultimate aim is self-regulation where the learners can carry out the task independently. In this section, I will explain the teachers' failure to scaffold the students to autonomously self correct their errors and increase their understanding. I do so in relation to the lack of adherence to the six principles of successful scaffolding (van Lier, 1996).

Vygotsky (1978) also pointed out that any activity (the activity of error correction in this case) is determined by not only an individual's motivation, but also influenced by the sociocultural context. The use of the Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) framework will shed light on the root causes of the teachers' unsuccessful scaffolding by analysing the contradictions occurring within the elements of the error correction activity system and between that activity and others.

6.9.1 Scaffolding

In my study, the act of providing OCF may be seen as a way to regulate and scaffold the students' learning. The study demonstrated that the students did not experience much improvement in either accuracy or fluency, and were not able to

self correct the errors. I suggest that they would have been more likely to have done so if the teachers had applied van Lier's (1996) six principles of successful scaffolding (see 2.4.1).

First is the principle of contextual support, whereby the students in an activity feel challenged in the learning process, yet also feel supported. There was observational evidence to suggest that the lecturers may not have provided the right amount of contextual support. For instance, in immediate feedback, they were found to provide too much support by providing the corrected versions, for instance, via recasts or explicit correction, rather than encouraging students to self-correct. In delayed correction, their intention to motivate students to correct the errors seemed to be not realised as the teachers were the main person to initiate, provide the correction, and end the sequences, leaving little space for the students' participation. In this way, the learners were supported but not challenged.

Second, the principle of continuity during the scaffolding process requires the expert to balance the routine and variation based on their on-going assessments of the learners' development. However, in the present study, there was a strong tendency for the teachers to use reformulations in immediate correction and follow a teacher-correction approach in delayed correction, revealing the predictable routine in their error treatment and little variety in their formats of error correction.

Third is the principle of intersubjectivity, whereby both teachers and students mutually engage in achieving and refining the objectives of the activity. The data indicated that the teachers' OCF decision making was entirely based on assumptions about the students, with little reference to the students' opinions about how to achieve the set goals and how to treat errors in the students' preferred ways. If the teachers had asked the students how, when, and where they would have liked their errors to be corrected, their practice could have matched with students' expectations, and as a result, their feedback would have been more useful to develop student learning.

Fourth, in the classes observed, the principle of contingent assistance was put into practice to only a limited extent. It is necessary for teachers to change their OCF

techniques when the learner's reformulations are still in need of repair, but in this study most of the teachers were observed to have changed their error correction techniques mainly to provide explicit correction, not prompts. Doing this would take the students away from opportunities to understand the feedback and to self-correct. In addition, although they reported that the students kept repeating the errors, observation data revealed that the teachers did not take any actions to change their error treatment practice, despite expressing their frustration during focus group discussion.

Fifth, the principle of flow holds that the communication between teachers and students should flow in an easy, cooperative, and natural way. However, in my study, the teachers initiated, controlled the turn-taking and ended the dialogue while the students passively responded to the teachers' initiation and elicitation. However, taking into consideration the overall teaching objective of promoting communicative competence, it seems fair to say that they should have developed a more natural interactive classroom discourse.

Finally, the principle of handover holds that when the teachers are sure that students have increased their confidence in performing the tasks, and no further assistance is needed, they would hand over the task to the students. However, in this study, there were few episodes where student correction was observed. The reason was the teachers did not create the opportunity for the handover to take place.

To conclude, due to a lack of scaffolding, the moment-by-moment interaction between the students and the teachers, particularly in the provision of OCF, was of limited success in assisting the students to develop their accuracy, not to mention fluency. The following section will further discuss the causes of such limited success in scaffolding, by looking at error correction as an activity system which encompasses the internal and external tensions within and between its different elements.

6.9.2 Cultural Historical Activity Theory

The purpose of a CHAT analysis is to illustrate how the various components of the system do or do not cohere effectively. Where they do not, the disconnects

will lead to contradictions and thus ineffectiveness. In the study, the use of CHAT as an analytical tool enables an investigation of the contradictions within and between the components of the error correction activity, and tensions between activity systems from which the root causes of the limited intended outcome are illuminated.

Level 1 contradictions

Although there are different elements in one activity, for the purpose of the study, only contradictions in the subjects (mainly the teachers) are to be discussed because the focus of the study is on teacher cognition and practice. Based on CHAT, it was found that there were inner contradictions in the teachers' cognition and practices in the activity of error correction.

While convergences between teachers' beliefs and practices often lead to less teaching tension and possibly an improvement in student learning outcome (Vartuli, 2005), this seems not to be the case in the present study. As pointed out in Sections 6.3, 6.4, 6.6, and 6.8, although the teachers' beliefs about the timing, linguistic targets and the use of L1 corresponded with their practices, these convergences were observed as not being effective in terms of achieving the general objectives, that is, improvement in student fluency. A possible reason is, in light of CHAT, the activity of error correction was not carried out systematically, especially at the level of operations.

To ensure a successful outcome, it is essential for the teachers to carry out the activity in a systematic way. However, in the study, with the intention of improving student fluency, the teacher carried out routinised operations. That is to say, they delayed their correction, focused on segmentals, used reformulations, and allowed little to no opportunity for repeating a task. These operations were conducted intuitively on the grounds of the teachers' relational emotional knowledge, beliefs, assumptions, and emotions, rather than the expert knowledge of OCF. This possibly led to a little improvement in accuracy, meaning that the activity of error correction failed to achieve its object.

Level 2 contradictions

To explain the tensions between the various components, the complex diagram of CHAT will be broken into highlighted triangles for easier discussion.

First, the tension took place between the object, the instruments and the community, as illustrated in Figure 6.1.

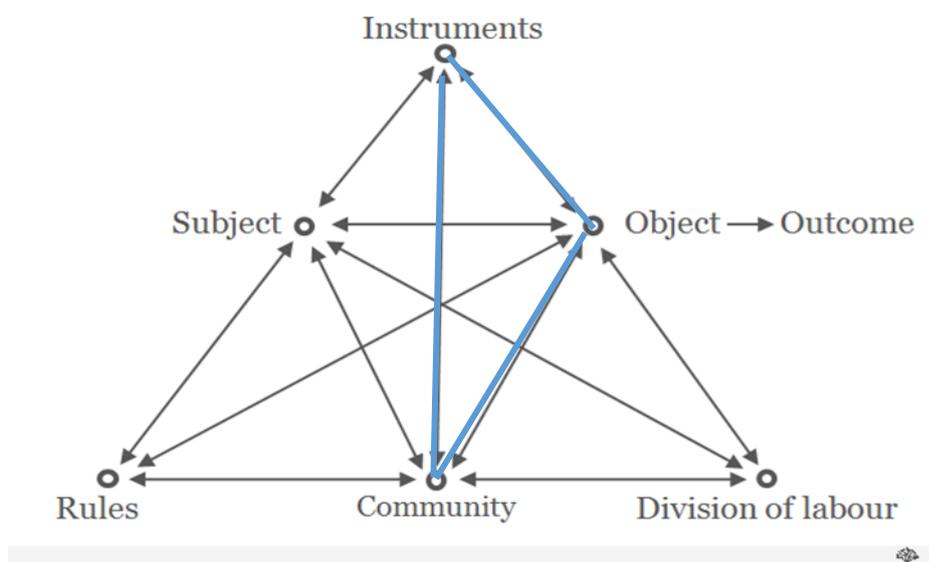


Figure 6. 1: Contradictions between Instruments-Community-Object

To achieve the object, an individual needs to use the appropriate instruments, which themselves mediate the knowledge and skills of other people in a particular community. In the present study, to treat the errors effectively, it was necessary for the community to have relevant OCF-related knowledge. For example, the community should know a variety of OCF techniques to use if they have to correct immediately or know when to give delayed feedback and how to make use of it. However, the guideline (Section 4.4) provided to the teachers did not acknowledge the relevant literature (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster et al., 2013). Furthermore, as shown in Section 5.4.3, some of the suggestions, which might have been useful in practice, such as to specify the speaking assessment criteria for each task, were not followed by the teachers. Other suggestions; for example, requiring teachers and peers to give comments after public performances, were not conducive to the effective practice of OCF in large classes, such as those in the present study.

The following will move on to discuss the tension between the subject, object and the community, as shown in Figure 6.10.

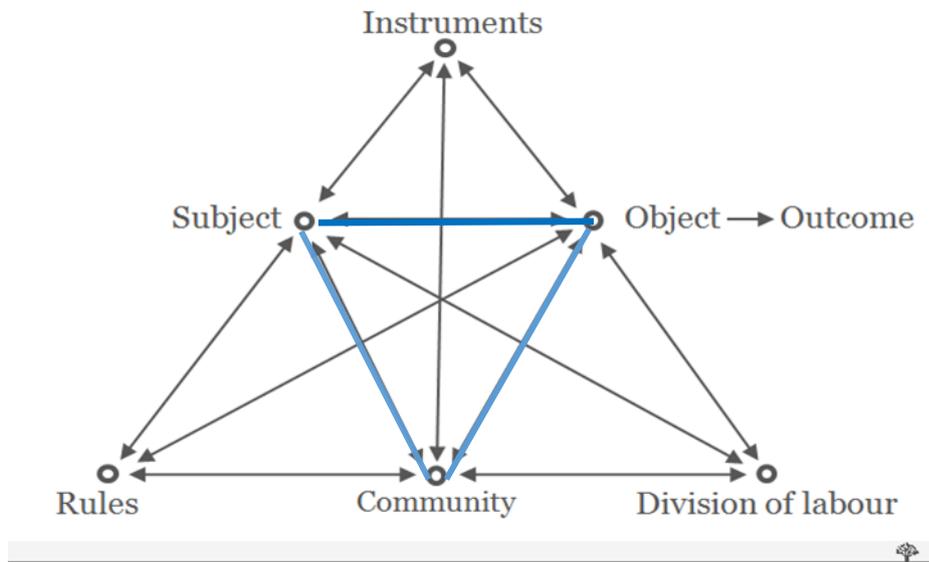


Figure 6. 2: Contradictions between Subject-Community-Object

Unless individual cognition is distributed among the community (Cole & Engeström, 1993; Pea, 1993), the activity is unlikely to achieve the object. In the present study, the error correction activity would have been more effectively carried out if there had been a more direct contribution by the community including other teachers, group leaders, or even the Dean, taking into account the expert knowledge of the external academic community. However, within the error correction activity, the role of community was minimal. Despite the regular professional development meetings, or even in focus group discussions where the individual teachers' problems of OCF were brought out (Section 5.2.3.1), the teachers, including the group leader, failed to provide feasible solutions to the practice of OCF (Section 5.3.3.2). Apart from Teacher 1, the other participants failed to recognise the strengths of the criteria-referenced approach suggested in the guideline (Section 5.3.3.2). Moreover, as noted above, their teaching practices were not congruent with the relevant OCF knowledge suggested by theorists or researchers. This inevitably led to the fact that the teaching practices of the teachers were entirely the products of their own assumptions and emotions.

Thirdly, a contradiction was observed to have arisen between the subject, object and division of labour, as illustrated in Figure 6.3.

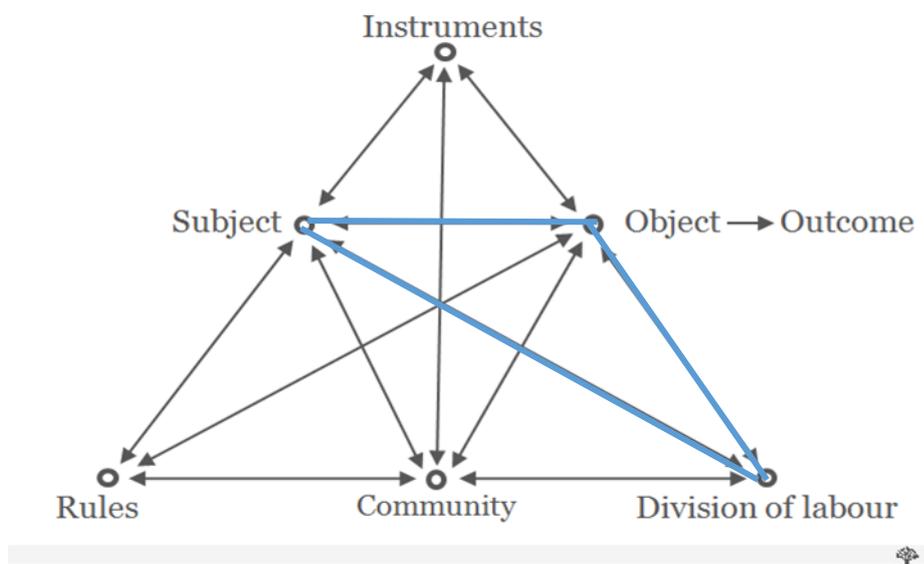


Figure 6. 3: Tension between Subject-Division of Labour-Object

To achieve the object, ideally, the teachers and the students need to interact with each other to take agreed actions by both sides, and such a dialogue should be interactive where both parties contribute their ideas and opinions. However, it was observed that the activity was almost entirely carried out by the teachers, with little student participation. Although the teachers were sometimes observed to prompt the students to take the responsibility of self-correction, few students could do it.

Even when the interaction took place, the dialogue between the teachers and the students were strongly influenced by the imbalanced power relationship: the teachers controlled the conversation (Section 5.2.3.2). This imbalance of power might be rooted in the influence of the typically strong hierarchical relationship in the cultural context of Vietnam where teachers are considered the source of knowledge, and should be followed and obeyed by their students (Canh, 2011; Nguyen, 2015, 2017; Nguyen, 2013). Such a lack of collaboration between the teachers and the students and the imbalance in power status, led to little co-construction of knowledge between the subjects.

Fourthly, there were tensions between the subjects, object and the rules, as demonstrated in Figure 6.4.

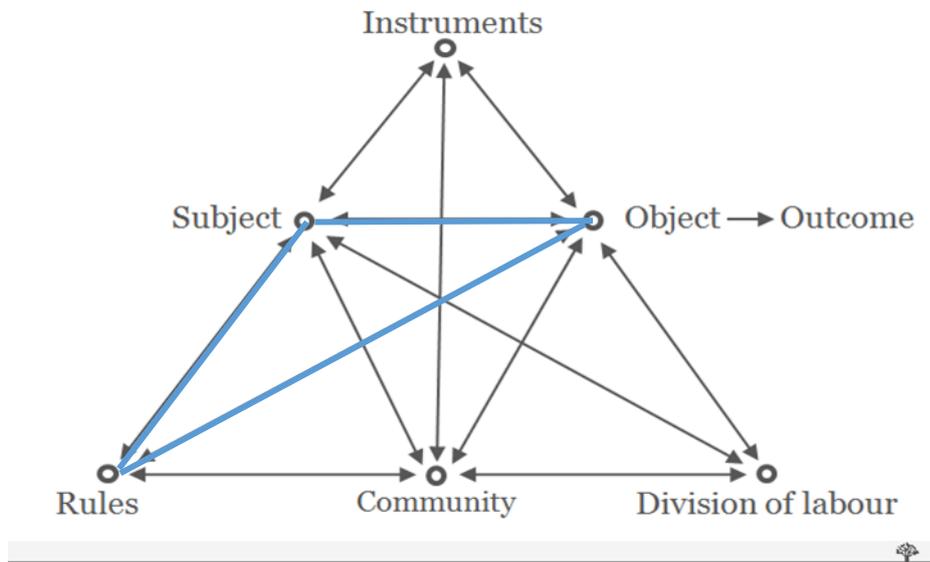


Figure 6. 4: Contradictions between Subject-Rule-Object

The institution's explicit rules and regulations, such as in those stated in the guideline relating to tool use, should enable the subjects to achieve the object of the activity, that is, effective OCF. However, there were no explicit rules regulating the activity in relation to about how, where, when, what to correct, and who corrects the errors. Instead, the action of error correction was conducted habitually and routinely by the teachers. In addition, the activity appeared to be governed by implicit conventions of a teacher-led approach, as mentioned in other empirical studies in the wider Vietnamese community (Canh, 2011; Hoang & Filipi, 2019; Nghi, 2010).

Level 4 contradictions

The elements of one activity can never be separated from other activities because they interact with and are affected by neighbouring activities within the system. In the present study, tensions might have taken place between the central activity (error correction) and some concurrent activities, such as professional development or task designing or online learning activity while all these activities

were conducted under a broader activity, blended learning. However, in the present study, the most crucial tensions were those which emerged in the relationship between the central activity and online learning:

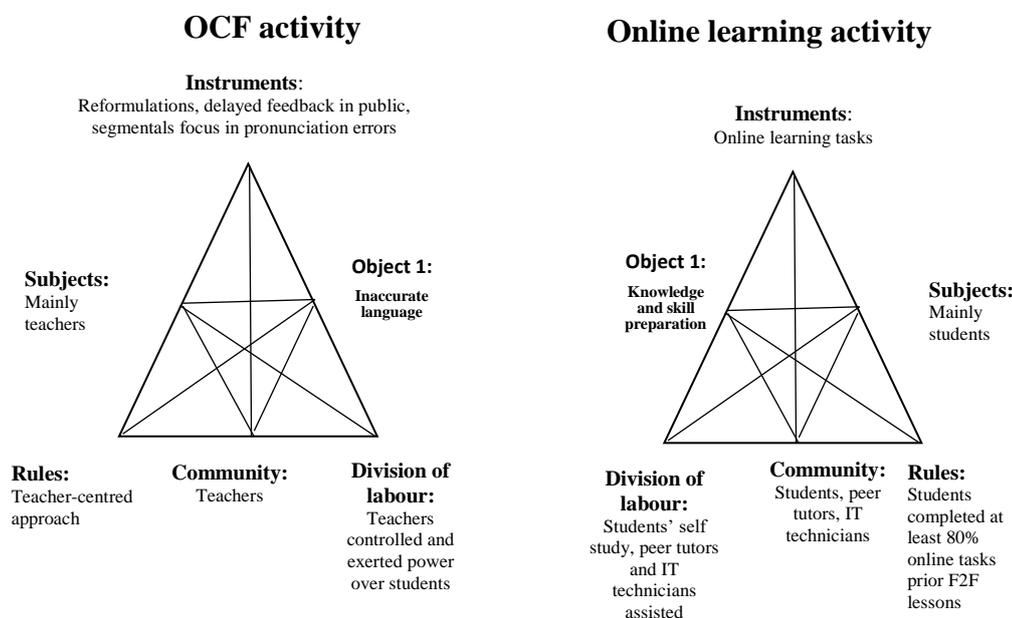


Figure 6. 5: The relationship between the central activity and online learning activity

The error correction activity and online learning activity were related because of the mutual object of the two activities: to improve student knowledge. There is strong agreement in the literature on blended learning (Chen Hsieh et al., 2017; Herreid & Schiller, 2013; Hockly & Dudeney, 2018; Mok, 2014; Ozdamli & Asiksoy, 2016) that prior knowledge is essential if F2F activities are to be effective. However, in the present study, the central activity (OCF) was impaired because the concurrent activity (online learning) was not adequately conducted. This is because it was found that little or no support from the teachers was given to the students in the online learning process (Section 4.1), although such assistance would have been necessary. Consequently, the teachers reported (Section 5.4.3.1) that not all the students carried out the online tasks well enough in preparation for the F2F classes. The possible reason for this was the students were not ready to take almost the entire responsibility for their online learning as they had long been used to a teacher-centred approach (Hoang & Filipi, 2019; Nghi, 2010; Nguyen, 2011). As a result, this insufficient knowledge led to the

continuing problems: students kept repeating the same errors (Section 5.3.1.3). These were the triggers for the teachers' frustration by the end of the term (Section 5.3.1.3). Although they suggested tentative solutions to this problem, they failed to minimise this unexpected outcome because of the lack of expert knowledge of OCF (FG1 & 2 and section 5.4.1.2) as well as their lack of awareness of the tensions between these two activity systems. In short, the tension in the interaction between error correction activity and online learning activity inhibited the central activity from achieving its intended outcome.

To conclude, in the present study, three levels of contradictions (levels 1, 2 and 4) have been identified in the activity of error correction. At the first level, the tensions arose between what the teachers believed and what they did due to an absence of appropriate tools. At the secondary level, the contradictions emerged because of a lack of distributed cognition, hierarchical power in the relationship between the teachers and students, and a teacher-led convention. At the fourth level, the contradiction occurred between the central activity (OCF) and the concurrent activity (online learning). The close analysis of these three levels of contradictions in the present study serve as the impetus for the subsequent strategic actions in the cycle of expansive learning (Engeström, 2001). Such relationship can be illustrated in the following figure.

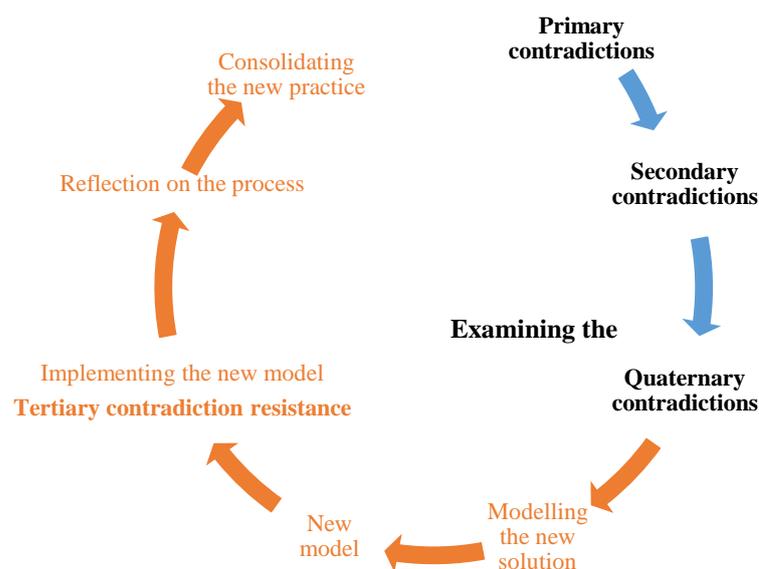


Figure 6. 6: The cycle of expansive learning in OCF in the present study

The cycle above shows that in the present study, the order of the analysis of contradictions was altered: the cycle began with level 1, 2 and 4. For the subsequent actions, such as modelling or examining the new model to take place, it is crucial to resolve the identified contradictions, particularly, the quaternary contradictions that emerged between the activity of OCF and online learning. To do so, the subjects in these activities need to cross the boundary between them. Such processes will be further discussed in Section 7.3.2.

6.10 Summary

To summarise, the error correction activity of the present study promoted students' knowledge and skills only to a very limited extent. This is because the teachers did not apply the principles of scaffolding (van Lier, 1996) in their error treatment. In addition, ineffective practice took place because there were contradictions emerging in the activity of correcting errors, as revealed by the application of CHAT. Firstly, tension arose as the error correction treatment was not carried out systematically in light of the academic expert knowledge of OCF. Instead, it was influenced by the teachers' cognitive and emotional interaction: their beliefs about vicarious learning, their assumptions of student personality, characteristic, and motivation, and their relational emotional knowledge of student emotions. In addition, the contradiction arose between various elements of the error correction activity system. In particular, it was not socially co-constructed as the teachers carried it out almost entirely on their own with minimal student participation and little involvement of the wider community (the other teachers, the supervisors, the theorists, and the researchers). The teachers had more rights as well as more responsibilities than students did in the activity, which reflected also the implicit conventions of the sociocultural Vietnamese context, a traditional teacher-centred approach. Tensions also occurred between the error correction activity system and other neighbouring activity systems, especially the online component of the blended learning programme. Particularly, to achieve a common goal, improving knowledge and skills, the subjects of both online learning activity and F2F error correction activity should actively collaborate to achieve positive outcomes to achieve positive outcomes for their students. However, the students carried out the online activity by themselves with little or no assistance from the

teachers while the teachers corrected the errors almost on their own, providing little opportunity for contribution by the students. Such clarifications of the contradictions may illuminate the root causes of the ineffective practice as well as serve as the impetus for expansive learning, which will further elaborated in the next chapter.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION

The focus of this study has been on a group of teachers' cognition and practices regarding oral corrective feedback in a blended learning (BL) programme in a Vietnamese university (HaBu). It needs to be understood that the data collected about the participants took place after the programme had been launched a year previously. Innovation or change is a slow and complex process. Such a short span of time for a curricular innovation might result in limited success, especially in the context of a poor and outdated higher education system, such as in Vietnam, where most of the staff lack strong foundational academic, information technology, and English language competencies (Phuong & Chai, 2018; Tran & Marginson, 2014). Because BL, with its aim to develop learners' communicative competence, meets with the government's objective of teaching English in Vietnam, it is worthwhile to explore some of the implications of the innovation process so that lessons could be drawn. This study has attempted to understand the contradictions faced by the teachers in the process of implementing blended learning. It has articulated and raised for discussion many root causes of those tensions, which provided the impetus for expansive learning.

This chapter first summarises the findings of the study and then acknowledges its limitations. On the basis of these findings, several recommendations are then made regarding future planning and actions for many stakeholders, such as teachers, programme designers, and policy makers. The chapter concludes with suggestions for future research.

7.1 Brief summary of the key findings

The study has shown that while the teachers believed in the importance of grammatical accuracy and of OCF, they were concerned about students' negative reaction when receiving corrective feedback. On top of that, they desired to improve student fluency and confidence, assuming the students were shy and had low-proficiency and motivation, with little experience in learning how to communicate. The teachers also believed in vicarious learning: hearing teachers and peers correct the error would prevent other students from making the same mistake. Under the influence of these beliefs and concerns as well as that of

practical constraints, such as class time limitations and large class sizes, the teachers were observed to delay their correction until the students finished their performances and provided error correction in the public setting.

Despite more convergences than divergences found between the teachers' beliefs and practices about OCF, the aim of improving students' knowledge and oral skills was achieved to only a very limited extent. The application of the principles of scaffolding and CHAT framework helped to account for such a limited learning outcome. To begin with, the teachers failed to apply six principles of successful scaffolding (van Lier, 1996) when they corrected the errors. In addition, in light of CHAT, contradictions emerged within and between elements in their error correction activity as well as between the activity of error correction as well as other concurrent activities especially that of online learning.

7.2 Limitations of the study

Although the study has provided a thick description of the teachers' cognition and practices with regard to OCF, it has several limitations.

Firstly, this present project is a case study, with data collected from a micro setting, that is, a small group of teachers teaching in a BL programme. Therefore, it is particularly contextually bound and the findings of this research are not generalisable to other contexts. However, some transferability to similar teaching contexts in Vietnam, and perhaps other Asian settings, could be made to a certain extent.

Further limitation was observed with respect to the use of audio recordings as data. As has been reported in Section 3.4.1, due to the background noise and the middle-classroom position of the recording, I was not able to capture what the students said or what teachers said to every student while the students were rehearsing the conversation with each other. Therefore, I might have missed some episodes where the teachers corrected errors. Nevertheless, this limitation has been addressed by my repeated transcriptions of both video and audio-recorded lessons together with the use of classroom notes. Moreover, all the interviews, stimulated recall interviews, focus group discussions, and narrative frames were conducted in Vietnamese, I transcribed and then translated the data on my own.

Despite all my attempts to be as faithful to the teachers' original words as possible, inconsistencies in my translation inevitably occurred. Nevertheless, in-depth data was collected as the participants could express their minds freely in their mother tongue, and I myself could prompt and probe their ideas to gain more insightful data.

Another limitation was that the findings of the study were selected and interpreted based on my views and I am a novice researcher. However, all the data were systematically triangulated with the employment of various research methods and all the summaries of the interviews, and stimulated recall sessions were validated from the individual teachers. The overview of the BL programme was also sent back to the faculty for validation. In addition, I am aware of the possibility of bias in my research because of my dual roles as a researcher and a teacher. Nevertheless, I believe that my acknowledgement and openness about this can facilitate mitigation of its impacts.

However, despite the limitations, a number of implications can be drawn and these are discussed in the following section.

7.3 Implications

This study suggests four significant implications to the academic understandings of the relationship between teacher cognition, their practices, and the student learning outcome contextually, practically, methodologically and theoretically.

7.3.1 Contextual implications

Corrective feedback is a well-researched topic in language teaching. However, because of the growth of the Internet and the on-going development of blended learning, practices of providing OCF in this emerging teaching environment still need to be examined, particularly in Asian contexts where the role of the teachers is expected to shift from teachers' transmitting knowledge to co-constructing it with the learners (Hoang, 2015; Wang, 2016). While there have been a number of studies on blended learning focusing on the effectiveness of the programme or students' factors (Chen Hsieh et al., 2017; Hung, 2015; Lee et al., 2017), further investigation should be carried out into teachers' factors. Only one study, Hoang

(2015), appears to have been conducted into university teachers' perceptions and experiences in blended learning in a Vietnamese setting, and no previous study has explored teacher cognition and practices about giving OCF in a blended learning environment, like HaBu. The present study occupies this important gap.

7.3.2 Practical implications

As previously mentioned in Chapter 6, the findings of this study suggests a process of expansive learning (Engeström, 2001) in order to achieve the goal of improving students' fluency and accuracy. For this process to succeed, it is crucial to address the systemic contradictions by transformative changes in all the elements of the existing error correction activity system. For this to happen, there is also a need to create a boundary zone, refine boundary objects, and facilitate boundary crossing by the subjects in both the central activity (OCF) and the concurrent activity (online learning) and to enable them to provide effective feedback. These points are discussed below.

7.3.2.1 *Reforms within the elements of OCF activity*

To resolve the inner contradictions, the following elements, such as subjects, tools, community, division of labour, and rules (conventions) should be changed, as discussed below.

Subject

Firstly, teachers should be resilient in using their knowledge of OCF practices, given the complexity involved in giving feedback. Resilience is defined as “the capacity to maintain equilibrium ... in the everyday worlds in which teachers work” (Gu & Day, 2013, p. 26). In the present study, to help students improve both fluency and accuracy, the teachers should find a balance between the following: immediate and delayed feedback; prompts and reformulations; segmentals and suprasegmentals in correcting pronunciation errors; individual and public correction; and teacher correction and student correction. Such practice should be carried out based on the students' cognitive factors (e.g., level of proficiency and working memory), age, emotional well-beings, and sociocultural contexts with an aim to improve student learning outcome. Moreover, to ensure

effective practice, teachers ought to apply the principles of successful scaffolding (van Lier, 1996).

Tools

As pointed out in the theoretical background of OCF in Chapter 2, corrective feedback is one of the most contentious and complex issues in language teaching, involving a careful consideration of all the associated matters, such as timing, setting, types of errors, type of OCF, and who best corrects the errors. Given all this complexity in giving feedback, the study suggests that to achieve an effective OCF practice, teachers need a systematic understanding and practice of OCF, as illustrated in the following table:

Table 7. 1: Systematic knowledge of OCF

Themes	Recommendations
<i>OCF types</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Use reformulations: not to interrupt the students - Use prompts: to encourage student correction
<i>Types of errors</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Grammar and pronunciation errors: recasts with explicit information - Vocabulary errors: elicitation strategies as the best options - Pronunciation errors: focus on suprasegmentals: to improve intelligibility
<i>Immediate feedback</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Better use prompts - Be provided during the pair/group work - Improve both accuracy and fluency/explicit and implicit knowledge
<i>Delayed feedback</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Improve accuracy/explicit knowledge - Reduce anxiety - Ask the students to repeat the task for them to apply the received feedback - Move out of IRF exchange in delayed sequences
<i>Who corrects the errors</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Student correction is the most beneficial - Use sufficient wait time, prompts, or referential/category questions to promote student correction
<i>Setting</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Better to be given in pair or group or individual setting
<i>L1</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Use L1 systematically and judiciously

To tackle the issues of large class sizes and time limits, some teachers may resort to delayed feedback after student public performances and public correction. Little

attention has been paid to these two issues, namely the timing and setting of oral corrective feedback in the current literature. To deal with the contradictions that arise, it is suggested that there are several steps that can be taken to optimise student learning. In terms of public performances, the teachers should provide the correction whenever necessary in the rehearsal and ask the students to repeat the task to apply the delayed feedback just provided. This is illustrated in the following diagram:

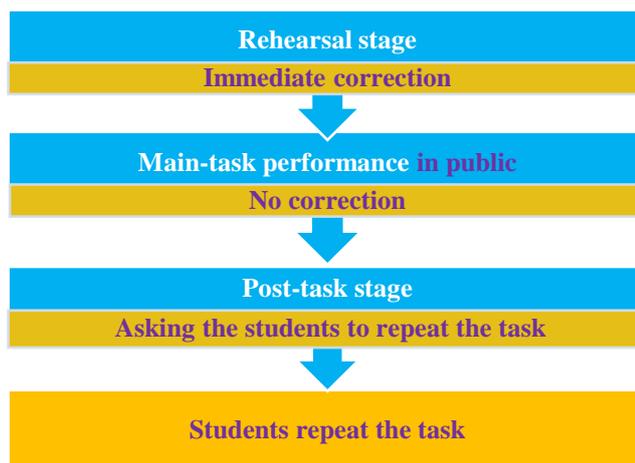


Figure 7. 1: Suggested timing of OCF in different stages

Furthermore, in the case of public correction, it is necessary for teachers to give opportunity for the students who committed the error to show uptake. The recommended steps can be seen in the following figure:

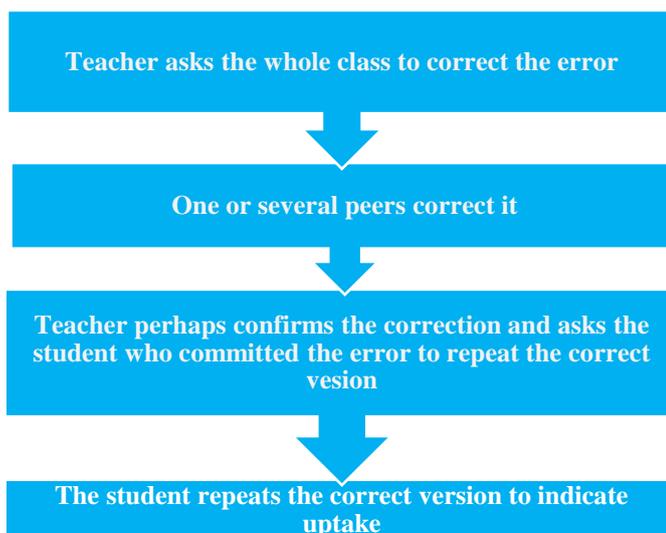


Figure 7. 2: Recommended steps in public correction

Community

The activity of error correction was carried out mainly by the teachers. Therefore, to improve this practice, there should be involvement from first the students, then the wider community, such as other teaching fellows, leaders, experts, or theorists.

Division of labour

To begin with, there should more open communication made between the students and the teachers regarding the type, timing, setting of corrective feedback, and who corrects the correction. Such open dialogues would help the teachers to have deeper understanding of the students' preferences, which, in turn, enables them to correct the errors in accordance with the students' expectations.

Next, the difficulties of providing effective OCF could be discussed in the occasional professional development meetings so that the problems teachers encountered in their OCF practices and proposed solutions to them could be shared.

Furthermore, the hierarchical level of communication between the institutional leaders and the teachers should be mitigated to develop mutual understanding in the development of the teaching guidelines, from which the institution could build a more satisfying tool for the teachers.

Fourthly, the new model of OCF should, directly or indirectly (e.g., through relevant texts), involve experts in education who could provide useful guidelines on pedagogy and applied linguistics, including corrective feedback.

Conventions

As indicated in section 6.9.2, in the absence of the advice on OCF in the community's guidelines, the teachers resorted to their conventional practice of the teacher providing the correction while students merely listened and repeated. This proved to be ineffective. This warrants consideration of a transformative change in both teachers and students' deeply-rooted views towards their roles about teaching and learning. Rather than being the transmitters of knowledge, teachers ought to regard themselves as the catalysts of learning (Anderson, 2015).

According to this view, the more they involve learners in a dialogic process of feedback and correction, the more successful the lesson would be. If students are encouraged to perceive and act upon such learning opportunities, this could promote the development of a sense of agency and actions towards achieving the outcomes they desire.

To summarise, to reform the error correction activity revealed in the present study, there are grounds for promoting transformative changes within and between its elements, particularly a collaboration not only between teachers, students and staff but also among wider academic community members. The outcome of such changes can be the emergence of object 2, as illustrated in the following figure:

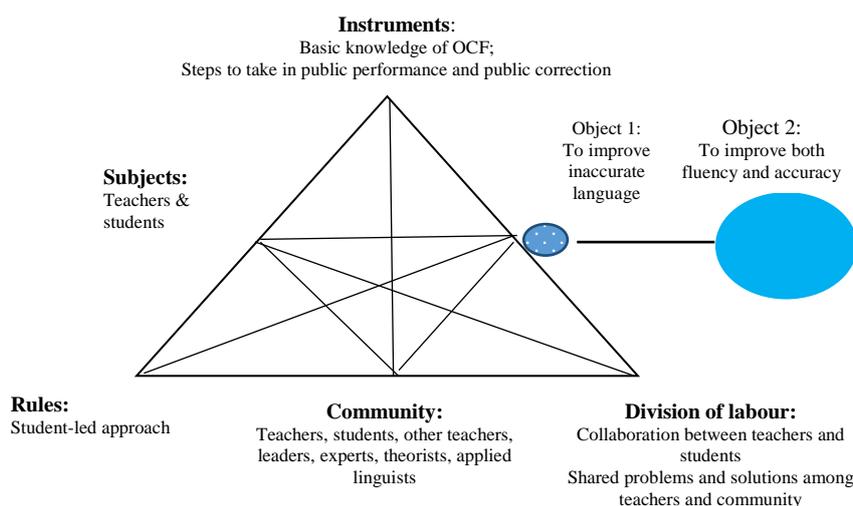


Figure 7. 3: Summaries of the changes in elements within the error correction activity

It is necessary for various constituents of the error correction activity to change to solve its inner contradictions. However, in the present study, this activity can only fully achieve its goals when contradictions between it as the central activity and the concurrent activity of online learning are resolved. The following section will suggest possible strategic actions to relieve such tensions.

7.3.2.2 *Creating a boundary zone, a boundary object and boundary tools*

In the present study, the specific object of online learning was the acquisition of linguistic knowledge and skills to facilitate their activation in the F2F sessions.

However, such object was not achieved, leading to the limited outcome of the central activity. Such failure occurred because of three possible reasons: (1) no effective correlation between online and F2F tasks, (2) no or little teacher and peer tutor support for student online learning, and (3) students' low-proficiency and limited autonomy. While the first and second reasons are closely related to the design activity, the third reason concerns the loose entry requirements for students enrolling in this BL programme. These factors highlight the need to involve many other stakeholders, such as programme designers, or IT technicians, experts in technology in instructional design or policy makers in the process of resolving this level of contradictions. The present study suggests creating a boundary zone for these potential participants to interact and negotiate to form a new object (2). Such collaboration also allows the emergence of a shared object (3) when two activities (error correction and online learning) intersect (Bloomfield & Nguyen, 2015). This can be seen in the following figure, where new elements are indicated in italics:

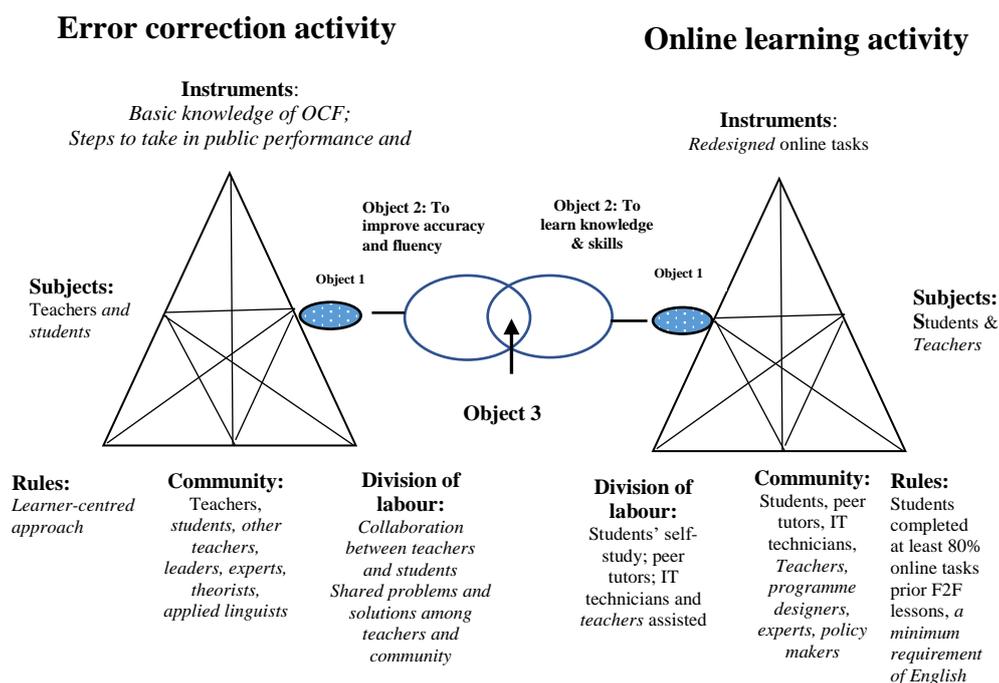


Figure 7. 4: Boundary object between the OCF activity and online learning activity

For interaction between teachers and the other stakeholders to take place, the study suggests a design programme for them to co-construct the appropriate designs and contents for both online and F2F tasks. The themes for the programme discussion can be how the existing tasks (online and F2F) do not

complement each other or potential tools which teachers or peer tutors can use to assist students' online learning. However, in order to ensure relevant contributions in the process of co-construction among the participants, the study suggests that they all need to be well-equipped with technological knowledge and knowledge of instructional design in workshops, referred as "*Boundary Crossing Laboratories*" (Engeström, 2001, pp. 965-966). In such workshops, the experts in technology and instructional design would distribute relevant knowledge to the participants and they should be preferably held prior to the reform of the blended learning design programme. In that case, the outcomes of these workshops, such as professional documentation of knowledge and skills necessary for using technology in blended learning can act as boundary tools for the tentative programme.

In addition, for the interaction between teachers and students to occur, there should be a boundary zone, such as a forum where both teachers and students can freely reflect on their own problems arising within their distinct areas: correcting errors and carrying out online tasks. In this forum, for instance, the teachers could express their concerns about students' negative affective emotions when receiving OCF and the students could raise their voices about their preferences of the provision of OCF. Additionally, in this space, students should share their difficulties encountered in online learning activity.

Nevertheless, to enable a dialogic space between teachers and students, some boundary crossing tools are needed. For instance, a handout of a set of OCF techniques, and techniques to move out of IRF exchanges should be created so that the students can exchange their preferences of OCF in the interaction with the teachers as well as apply them in expansive learning. Furthermore, a training course of technological knowledge could be given to teachers so that they are competent enough to deal with obstacles students may encounter in their online learning and bring out in the boundary zone. Thirdly, there might be a psychological tool, that is, a shared convention, so that the teachers and students could contribute their ideas, knowledge and beliefs as well as emotions in the boundary zone.

However, some of the students may feel hesitant in interacting with teachers in the boundary zone because of a long-lasting hierarchical power imbalance in student-teacher relationship (Canh, 2011; Nguyen, 2015, 2017b; Nguyen, 2013).

Additionally, teachers may feel pressured as this might create additional workload. When these emotions emerge, they may influence the quality of the interaction. In the present study, it was also found that teachers' concerns for students' emotions when receiving feedback were found to lead to their ineffective practice. This necessitates a need for a seminar where experts in psychology could share strategies for teachers and students to articulate, reflect and manage emotions. Such facilitation would be useful to assist further collaborative interaction between teachers and students.

Moreover, it is challenging to create boundary crossing tools, such as a set of OCF techniques, because the teachers lacked of expert knowledge of OCF. Thus, the study suggests professional development workshops as boundary crossing zones for experts in education to provide useful guidelines on corrective feedback. Nevertheless, for such workshops to be successful, ideally teachers' current knowledge and beliefs should be elicited first so as to gain an understanding of the teachers' existing cognition about providing OCF (Nation & Macalister, 2010; Sarfraz, 2019).

“Teachers can draw on the ideas and experiences of others but cannot simply adopt them as ready-made recipes” (Littlewood, 2007, p. 248). Instead, in a shift from professional development (regulated by others) to professional learning (self-regulated), they should carry out their own holistic reflective practice, which encompasses five stages of reflection: philosophy, principles, theory, practice and beyond practice (Farrell, 2017). Alternatively, as pointed out by Barnard and Ryan (2017), they could select from a wide variety of approaches to reflective practices which “best suit their purposes in the opportunities and constraints of their specific context” (p. 6). Such reflective practice would enable the teachers to consciously and critically challenge their cognition, emotions, and then make necessary amendments to their own praxis.

In short, in terms of expansive learning, for the error correction activity in the present study to reconceptualise a new object (3), a collaboration from various

participants with different expertise is needed. In the suggested boundary zones, boundary crossers, such as teachers, programme designers, policy makers or students are facilitated by the help of experts in education, technology and instructional design, and psychology, confirming the crucial role of distributed cognition in an activity system.

7.3.3 Methodological implications

The present study has contributed to research methodology in investigating teacher cognition and practices about providing OCF in two aspects: the multi-method approach and grounded theory analysis.

Firstly, the majority of the empirical studies reviewed in the areas of oral corrective feedback in teacher cognition employed data collection methods which were based on self-report studies, such as surveys and interviews. No single study was identified that used a combination of instruments, such as the present investigation, which comprised interviews, classroom observations, stimulated recalls, narrative frames and focus group discussions. This combination allowed both a thick description of the context and a rich interpretation of the teachers' cognition and practices from different angles. Therefore, further research into such issues as teacher cognition and practices should use a judicious combination of data collection methods.

Moreover, all data were subjected to a process of grounded analysis, leading to the discovery of emerging under-researched themes in the area of corrective feedback, namely delayed correction as well as public correction. The study suggests the following steps which were applied in the present study: (1) analyse the data and identify the patterns, or themes, (2) label the themes if possible, (3) if attempts to label the themes fail as they do not match with the researcher's existing understanding, update the literature, (4) read the literature carefully to identify the gaps: what has not been done or what has been done little, and (5) reanalyse the data to confirm the emerged themes and label them with certainty.

The above process can lead to a grounded theory (Corbin & Strauss, 2015; Strauss & Corbin, 1990), to provide a situated explanation of the ineffectiveness of OCF in the present context, HaBu. This explanation was facilitated by applying the

CHAT framework to illustrate the various levels of contradictions which emerged through a close examination of the data. In this study, it is important to note that the CHAT framework was not used as a predefined framework as used in some studies (e.g., Lazarou, 2011; Lockley, 2016; Westberry, 2009). Instead, this framework was eventually employed as it embraces the key contextual factors and presents a logical explanation between them. Therefore, it seems that that a grounded theory is better than using a pre-determined conceptual framework because it starts with the data which are then analysed and interpreted to enable the theory to be generated from them. In this study, this inductive approach led to an adaptation and refinement of Cultural Historical Activity Theory.

7.3.4 Theoretical implications

The study has several theoretical implications to language teacher cognition research, OCF and Activity Theory. Firstly, the most significant implication of the study is that it revealed the complexity of language teachers' inner lives in the context of a specific activity, error correction. It has been proposed that language teacher cognition research be expanded and viewed through the lens of ecologies of teachers' inner lives: what they do, why they do it, and how this may impact how their students learn (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). The present study adds empirical support for such expansion.

Secondly, the present study contributes to OCF research. To begin with, much research (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997, Lyster et al., 2013) in OCF tends to be experimental, focusing on cognitive aspects and discounting affective factors and practical constraints that arise in normal classrooms. While such studies contribute to academic understanding, they need to be complimented by naturalistic studies, such as the present one that seek to explore and explain the reality and complexity of OCF.

More specifically, little was previously known about the complexity of delayed oral feedback, outside of a few key studies (e.g., Li, 2018; Quin, 2014; Rolin-Ianziti, 2010). To build on the description of two approaches in delayed correction sequences, namely teacher-initiated/completed correction, and teacher-initiated student-correction in Rolin-Ianziti (2010), the present study revealed two other

approaches: (a) teacher-initiated, whole class and (b) teacher-initiated, peer repair. These discoveries expand the current understanding of delayed correction techniques.

Finally, the findings of this study contribute to a greater academic understanding of CHAT in a number of ways. This study was the first to view the phenomenon of oral corrective feedback through applying this framework, thereby adding empirical evidence of its strength.

Most specifically, with regard to error correction, the study suggests a refined cycle of expansive learning: levels of contradictions need repositioning as primary, secondary followed then by quaternary. The present study indicated that tertiary contradictions emerge only when a new refined activity system is introduced to repair the original model, and at what point boundary crossing is needed. It is not clear whether such repositioning is applicable in other contexts.

7.3.5 Suggestions for further research

First, most of the studies about OCF are experimental, not taking into account the practical constraints on teacher practices, such as time limits, and large class sizes as well as how teachers respond to such constraints. Further research about OCF needs to be done in natural environments.

In addition, further case study research can be done in comparable settings to examine teachers' practices when a contextually refined model of OCF suggested in the study is applied.

Moreover, further research is needed to explore the extent to which the application of van Lier's (1996) six principles of scaffolding in giving OCF leads to an improvement in student learning.

Last but not least, many of the activity theory studies reviewed by Karanasios et al. (2017) have identified the contradictions, but failed to suggest the possible solutions, largely due to the nature of their self-report data. Therefore, further activity theory research can use a multi-method approach as was the case in the present study to provide a more thorough illumination of activity systems.

7.4 Personal conclusion

Conducting this research has been one of the most enlightening endeavours I have embarked upon. I have learned about myself as a person, a teacher and a researcher.

Subjecting data to grounded analysis, especially listening carefully to and transcribing fine-grained details of the student-teacher interaction in 14 classroom observations without finding anything significant for the first two times felt like I was looking for a needle in a haystack. There were so many times that I wanted to give up, unable to find a really significant connection between all the data. However, I realised that persistence and thoroughness will be rewarded in qualitative research.

I have gained a great deal of knowledge related to teacher cognition and practices. Also, I realise that the dominant influence of one belief over another belief in the system strongly affects the accompanying actions, resulting in different outcomes. I am able to provide some answers to my own previous concerns related to the normative pedagogical practices in my faculty as well as in Vietnam, student public performances and public correction. I have learnt that such practice, although conducted individually, shapes and is shaped by other broader contextual factors, such as practical constraints or sociocultural contexts.

I have also widened my knowledge of error correction and realised how complex and challenging it is at the level of practice. Given the complexity of the topic, I will take into account to seek the best way to share my understanding of this contentious but important area in language teaching to my colleagues as my thanks to their huge support for my research.

REFERENCES

- Aamaas, Å., Duesund, K., & Lauritzen, S. M. (2017). Placements abroad and scaffolding structures. *Studies in Higher Education, 44*(3), 539-553.
- Agudo, J. d. D. M. (2014). Beliefs in learning to teach: EFL student teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback. *Utrecht Studies in Language and Communication, 362*(27), 209-230.
- Agudo, J. d. D. M. (2018). *Emotions in second language teaching: Theory, research and teacher education*. Cham, Switzerland: Springer.
- Agudo, J. d. D. M., & Azzaro, G. (2018). Emotions in learning to teach EFL in the practicum setting: Facing the emotional dilemmas and challenges associated with professional practice. In J. d. D. M. Agudo (Ed.), *Emotions in second language teaching: Theory, research and teacher education* (pp. 365-384). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.
- Ahangari, S., & Amirzadeh, S. (2011). Exploring the teachers' use of spoken corrective feedback in teaching Iranian EFL learners at different levels of proficiency. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 29*, 1859-1868.
- Ahmadian, M. J., & Tavakoli, M. (2011). The effects of simultaneous use of careful online planning and task repetition on accuracy, complexity, and fluency in EFL learners' oral production. *Language Teaching Research, 15*(1), 35-59.
- Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: The case of students of Japanese. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*(2), 155-168.
- Akiyama, Y. (2014). Using Skype to focus on form in Japanese telecollaboration: Lexical categories as a new task variable. In M. Khosrow-Pour, S. Clarke, M. E. Jennex, A. Becker & A.-V. Anttiroiko (Eds.), *Computer-assisted language learning: Concepts, methodologies, tools, and applications* (pp. 617-647). Hershey, PA: Information Science Reference.
- Akkerman, S. F., & Bakker, A. (2011). Boundary crossing and boundary objects. *Review of Educational Research, 81*(2), 132-169.
- Alaidarous, K., & Madini, A. A. (2016). Exploring EFL students' perception in blended learning environment in Saudi Technical Education context. *International Journal of Educational Investigations, 3*(6), 69-81.
- Aljaafreh, A., & Lantolf, J. P. (1994). Negative feedback as regulation and second language learning in the zone of proximal development. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*(4), 465-483.

- Ammar, A., & Spada, N. (2006). One size fits all?: Recasts, prompts, and L2 learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(4), 543-574.
- Anderson, J. (2015). Affordance, learning opportunities, and the lesson plan pro forma. *ELT Journal*, 69(3), 228-238.
- Babbie, E. R. (2007). *The practice of social research* (11th ed.). Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Baleghizadeh, S., & Shahri, M. N. N. (2017). The effect of online planning, strategic planning and rehearsal across two proficiency levels. *The Language Learning Journal*, 45(2), 171-184.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2013.808258>
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84(2), 191-215.
- Barab, S. A., Barnett, M., Yamagata-Lynch, L., Squire, K., & Keating, T. (2002). Using activity theory to understand the systemic tensions characterizing a technology-rich introductory astronomy course. *Mind, Culture, and Activity*, 9(2), 76-107.
- Barcelos, A. M. F. (2015). Unveiling the relationship between language learning beliefs, emotions, and identities. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 5(2), 301-325.
- Barcelos, A. M. F., & Ruohotie-Lyhty, M. (2018). Teachers' emotions and beliefs in second language teaching: Implications for teacher education. In J. d. D. M. Agudo (Ed.), *Emotions in second language teaching: Theory, research and teacher education* (pp. 109-124). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.
- Barkhuizen, G., Benson, P., & Chik, A. (2014). *Narrative inquiry in language teaching and learning research*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Barkhuizen, G., & Wette, R. (2008). Narrative frames for investigating the experiences of language teachers. *System*, 36(3), 372-387.
<https://doi.org/doi.10.1016/j.system.2008.02.002>
- Barnard, R. (2010). Activity theory: A framework for analysing intercultural academic activity. *An International Journal of Human Activity Theory*, 3, 1-13.
- Barnard, R., & Burns, A. (2012). *Researching language teacher cognition and practice: International case studies*. Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.

- Barnard, R., & Campbell, L. (2005). Sociocultural theory and the teaching of process writing: The scaffolding of learning in a university context. *The TESOLANZ Journal*, 13, 76-88.
- Barnard, R., & Nguyen, G. (2010). Task-based language teaching (TBLT): A Vietnamese case study using narrative frames to elicit teacher's beliefs. *Language Education in Asia*, 1(1), 77-86.
- Barnard, R., & Ryan, J. (2017). *Reflective practice: Voices from the field*. London, England: Routledge.
- Basturkmen, H. (2012). Review of research into the correspondence between language teachers' stated beliefs and practices. *System*, 40(2), 282-295.
- Basturkmen, H., Loewen, S., & Ellis, R. (2004). Teachers' stated beliefs about incidental focus on form and their classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics*, 25(2), 243-272. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/25.2.243>
- Benesch, S. (2016). Critical approaches to the study of emotions in English language teaching and learning. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics* (pp. 1-6). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Berg, B. L., & Lune, H. (2012). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences* (8th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.
- Bergmann, J., & Sams, A. (2012). *Flip your classroom: Reach every student in every class every day*. Washington, DC: International Society for Technology in Education.
- Blin, F., & Munro, M. (2008). Why hasn't technology disrupted academics' teaching practices? Understanding resistance to change through the lens of activity theory. *Computers & Education*, 50(2), 475-490. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2007.09.017>
- Bloomfield, D., & Nguyen, H. T. M. (2015). Creating and sustaining professional learning partnerships: Activity theory as an analytic tool. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 40(11), 23-44.
- Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of what language teachers think, know, believe and do. *Language Teaching*, 36(2), 81-109.
- Borg, S. (2006). *Teacher Cognition and Language Education: Research and Practice*. London, England: Continuum.
- Borg, S. (2011). The impact of in-service teacher education on language teachers' beliefs. *System*, 39(3), 370-380.

- Borg, S. (2012). Current approaches to language teacher cognition research: A methodological analysis. In R. Barnard & A. Burns (Eds.), *Researching language teacher cognition and practice: International case studies*. Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Borg, S. (2015). Researching Teachers' Beliefs. In B. Paltridge & A. Phakiti (Eds.), *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics* (pp. 487-504). New Delhi, India: Bloomsbury.
- Bowden, C., & Galindo-Gonzalez, S. (2015). Interviewing when you're not face-to-face: The use of email interviews in a phenomenological study. *International Journal of Doctoral Studies*, 10(12), 79-92.
- Breitkreutz, J., Derwing, T. M., & Rossiter, M. J. (2001). Pronunciation teaching practices in Canada. *TESL Canada Journal*, 19(1), 51-61.
- Brown, D. (2016). The type and linguistic foci of oral corrective feedback in the L2 classroom: A meta-analysis. *Language Teaching Research*, 20(4), 436-458.
- Brumfit, C. (1984). *Communicative methodology in language teaching: The roles of fluency and accuracy*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press
- Bruner, J. S. (1983). *In search of mind: Essays in autobiography*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Bryman, A. (2016). *Social research methods* (5th ed.). Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Bui, T. T. N., & Nguyen, H. T. M. (2016). Standardizing English for educational and socio-economic betterment - A critical analysis of English language policy reforms in Vietnam. In R. Kirkpatrick (Ed.), *English language education policy in Asia* (pp. 363-388). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.
- Burgess, J., & Spencer, S. (2000). Phonology and pronunciation in integrated language teaching and teacher education. *System*, 28(2), 191-215.
- Bygate, M. (1996). Effects of task repetition: Appraising the developing language of learners. In J. Willis & D. Willis (Eds.), *Challenge and change in language teaching* (pp. 136-146). Oxford, England: Heinemann.
- Bygate, M. (2001). Effects of task repetition on the structure and control of language. In M. Bygate, P. Skehan & M. Swain (Eds.), *Researching pedagogic tasks: Second language learning, teaching and testing* (pp. 33-58). New York, NY: Longman.

- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), 1-47.
- Canh, L. V. (2011). *Form-focused instruction: A case study of Vietnamese teachers' beliefs and practices* (Doctoral Thesis, the University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand). Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/10289/5253>
- Canh, L. V. (2012). A theory-practice divide: EFL teachers' and students' beliefs about grammar instruction. *English Australia Journal*, 27(2), 34-49.
- Canh, L. V. (2014). Codeswitching in a Vietnamese university. In R. Barnard & J. McLellan (Eds.), *Codeswitching in university English-medium class: Asian perspectives* (pp. 118-143). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Canh, L. V. (2015). English language education innovation for the Vietnamese secondary school: The Project 2020. In B. Spolsky & K. Sung (Eds.), *Secondary school English education in Asia*. London, England: Routledge.
- Canh, L. V., & Barnard, R. (2009). Teaching grammar: A survey of teachers' attitudes in Vietnam. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 6(3), 245-273.
- Canh, L. V., & Renandya, W. A. (2017). Teachers' English proficiency and classroom language use: A conversation analysis study. *RELC Journal*, 48(1), 67-81. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688217690935>
- Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Charmaz, K. (2014). *Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Chen Hsieh, J. S., Wu, W.-C. V., & Marek, M. W. (2017). Using the flipped classroom to enhance EFL learning. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 30(1-2), 1-21.
- Chunhong, Z., & Griffiths, C. (2012). Quantitative and qualitative perspectives on individual differences in error correction preferences. In M. Pawlak (Ed.), *New perspectives on individual differences in language learning and teaching* (pp. 305-317). Berlin, Germany: Springer.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (6th ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Cole, M., & Engeström, Y. (1993). A cultural-historical approach to distributed cognition. In G. Salomon (Ed.), *Distributed cognitions: Psychological and*

educational considerations (pp. 1-46). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

- Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2015). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Cross, R. (2010). Language teaching as sociocultural activity: Rethinking language teacher practice. *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(3), 434-452.
- Daniels, H. (2008). *Vygotsky and research*. London, England: Routledge.
- Davies, R. S., Dean, D. L., & Ball, N. (2013). Flipping the classroom and instructional technology integration in a college-level information systems spreadsheet course. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 61(4), 563-580.
- Davis, K. A. (1992). Validity and reliability in qualitative research on second language acquisition and teaching. Another researcher comments. *TESOL Quarterly*, 26(3), 605-608. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587190>
- Deakin, H., & Wakefield, K. (2014). Skype interviewing: Reflections of two PhD researchers. *Qualitative Research*, 14(5), 603-616. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1468794113488126>
- DeKeyser, R. (2007). *Practice in a second language: Perspectives from applied linguistics and cognitive psychology*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- DeKeyser, R. (2015). Skill acquisition theory. In V. B & W. J (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition* (pp. 92–112). New York, NY: Routledge.
- DeKeyser, R. (2017). Knowledge and skill in ISLA. In S. Loewen & M. Sato (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of instructed second language acquisition* (pp. 15-32). New York, NY: Routledge
- DeKeyser, R. M. (1993). The effect of error correction on L2 grammar knowledge and oral proficiency. *The Modern Language Journal*, 77(4), 501-514.
- Derwing, T. M., & Munro, M. J. (2005). Second language accent and pronunciation teaching: A research-based approach. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39(3), 379-397.
- Doff, A. (1988). *Teach English trainer's handbook: A training course for teachers*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Doyle, T. (2008). *Helping students learn in a learner-centered environment: A guide to facilitating learning in higher education*. Sterling, VA: Stylus.

- Duff, P. A. (2014). Case study research on language learning and use. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 34, 233-255.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000051>
- Duggleby, W. (2005). What about focus group interaction data? *Qualitative Health Research*, 15(6), 832-840.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732304273916>
- Dunne, C. (2011). The place of the literature review in grounded theory research. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 14(2), 111-124.
- Ekundayo, S., Wang, W. Y. C., & Díaz-Andrade, A. (2012). The use of activity theory and its principle of contradictions to identify and analyse systemic tensions: The case of a Virtual University and its partners. *CONF-IRM 2012 Proceedings*. 33. <http://aisel.aisnet.org/confirm2012/33>
- Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2005). *Planning and task performance in a second language*. Amsterdam, the Netherlands: John Benjamins
- Ellis, R. (2006). Researching the effects of form-focussed instruction on L2 acquisition. *AILA Review*, 19(1), 18-41.
- Ellis, R. (2007). The differential effects of corrective feedback on two grammatical structures. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studies* (pp. 339-360). Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2009a). Corrective feedback and teacher development. *L2 Journal*, 1(1), 3-18.
- Ellis, R. (2009b). The differential effects of three types of task planning on the fluency, complexity, and accuracy in L2 oral production. *Applied Linguistics*, 30(4), 474-509.
- Ellis, R. (2016). Focus on form: A critical review. *Language Teaching Research*, 20(3), 405-428.
- Ellis, R. (2017). Position paper: Moving task-based language teaching forward. *Language Teaching*, 50(4), 507-526.
- Ellis, R., Basturkmen, H., & Loewen, S. (2001). Learner uptake in communicative ESL lessons. *Language Learning*, 51(2), 281-318.

- Engeström, Y. (1987). *Learning by expanding: An activity-theoretical approach to developing research*. Helsinki, Finland: Orienta-Konsultit.
- Engeström, Y. (1999). Innovative learning in work teams: Analyzing cycles of knowledge creation in practice. In Y. Engeström, R. Miettinen & R.-L. Punamäki (Eds.), *Perspectives on activity theory* (pp. 377-404). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Engeström, Y. (2001). Expansive learning at work: Toward an activity theoretical reconceptualization. *Journal of Education and Work*, 14(1), 133-156.
- Engeström, Y. (2016). Foreword, making use of activity theory in educational research. In D. S. Gedera & P. J. Williams (Eds.), *Activity theory in education: Research and practice* (pp. vii-ix). Rotterdam, the Netherlands: Sense.
- Engeström, Y. (1999). Innovative learning in work teams: Analysing cycles of knowledge creation in practice. In Y. Engeström, R. Miettinen & R.-L. Punamäki-Gitai (Eds.), *Perspectives on activity theory* (pp. 377-404). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Erkmen, B. (2014). Novice EFL teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning, and their classroom practices. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*, 29(29-1), 99-113.
- Ertmer, P. A., & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, A. T. (2010). Teacher technology change: How knowledge, confidence, beliefs, and culture intersect. *Journal of Research on Technology in Education*, 42(3), 255-284.
- Ertmer, P. A., Ottenbreit-Leftwich, A. T., & Tondeur, J. (2014). Teachers' beliefs and uses of technology to support 21st-century teaching and learning. In H. Fives & M. G. Gill (Eds.), *International handbook of research on teacher beliefs* (pp. 403-419). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Fajriah, Y. N. (2018). Corrective feedback as perceived by an EFL teacher and students in speaking classroom. *EEAL Journal*, 1(1), 1-9.
- Farahani, A. A., & Salajegheh, S. (2015). Iranian EFL teachers' and learners' perspectives of oral error correction: Does timeline of correction matter? *Latin American Journal of Content & Language Integrated Learning*, 8(2), 184-211.
- Ferris, D. R. (2014). Responding to student writing: Teachers' philosophies and practices. *Assessing Writing*, 19, 6-23.
- Field, J. (2005). Intelligibility and the listener: The role of lexical stress. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39(3), 399-423.

- Firwana, S. S. (2011). A comparison between Palestinian EFL teachers' and students' attitudes toward oral error and their correction. *The Journal of the Islamic University of Gaza*, 19(2), 1527-1558.
- Flege, J. E., Frieda, E. M., Walley, A. C., & Randazza, L. A. (1998). Lexical factors and segmental accuracy in second language speech production. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 20(2), 155-187.
- Foote, J., A, Holtby, A., K, & Derwing, T., M. (2011). Survey of the teaching of pronunciation in adult ESL programs in Canada, 2010. *TESL Canada Journal*, 29(1), 1-22.
- Foote, J., A, Trofimovich, P., Collins, T., & Urzúa, F., S. (2016). Pronunciation teaching practices in communicative second language classes. *The Language Learning Journal*, 44(2), 181-196.
- Foster, P., & Skehan, P. (1996). The influence of planning and task type on second language performance. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18(3), 299-323.
- Freeman, D. (1993). Renaming experience/reconstructing practice: Developing new understanding of teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 9(5-6), 485-497.
- Fujii, A., Ziegler, N., & Mackey, A. (2016). Peer interaction and metacognitive instruction in the EFL classroom. In M. Sato & S. Ballinger (Eds.), *Peer interaction and second language learning: Pedagogical potential and research agenda* (pp. 63-89). Amsterdam, the Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- Fukuta, J. (2016). Effects of task repetition on learners' attention orientation in L2 oral production. *Language Teaching Research*, 20(3), 321-340.
- Garcia-Ponce, E. E., Mora-Pablo, I., Crawford Lewis, T., & Lengeling, M. M. (2017). Effects of teachers' and learners' beliefs on negotiation for meaning and negative feedback during interactions in EFL classrooms. *International Journal of Modern Language Teaching and Learning*, 2(2), 54-66.
- Gass, S., Mackey, A., Alvarez-Torres, M. J., & Fernández-García, M. (1999). The effects of task repetition on linguistic output. *Language Learning*, 49(4), 549-581.
- Gass, S. M. (2003). Input and interaction. In C. J. Doughty & M. H. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 224-256). Malden, MA: Blackwell.

- Gass, S. M. (2015). Comprehensible input and output in classroom interaction. In N. Markee (Ed.), *The handbook of classroom discourse and interaction* (pp. 182-197). Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Gass, S. M., & Mackey, A. (2000). *Stimulated recall methodology in second language research*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Gatbonton, E. (2000). Investigating experienced ESL teachers' pedagogical knowledge. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 56(4), 585-616.
- Gedera, D. S. (2016). The application of activity theory in identifying contradictions in a university blended learning course. In D. S. Gedera & P. J. Williams (Eds.), *Activity theory in education: Research and practice* (pp. 53-69). Rotterdam, the Netherlands: Sense.
- Gedera, D. S., & Williams, P. J. (2016). *Activity theory in education: Research and practice*. Rotterdam, the Netherlands: Sense.
- Gilakjani, A. P. (2017). English pronunciation instruction: Views and recommendations. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 8(6), 1249-1255.
- Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory; strategies for qualitative research*. Chicago, IL: Aldine.
- Golombek, P., & Doran, M. (2014). Unifying cognition, emotion, and activity in language teacher professional development. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 39, 102-111.
- Golombek, P. R., & Johnson, K. E. (2004). Narrative inquiry as a mediational space: Examining emotional and cognitive dissonance in second-language teachers' development. *Teachers and Teaching*, 10(3), 307-327.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/1354060042000204388>
- Gómez Argüelles, L., Hernández Méndez, E., & Perales Escudero, M. D. (2019). EFL teachers' attitudes towards oral corrective feedback: A case study. *Profile Issues in Teachers Professional Development*, 21(1), 107-120.
- Gooch, R., Saito, K., & Lyster, R. (2016). Effects of recasts and prompts on L2 pronunciation development: Teaching English/1/to Korean adult EFL learners. *System*, 60, 117-127.
- Graham, C. R. (2006). Blended learning systems: Definition, current trends, and future directions. In C. J. Bonk & C. R. Graham (Eds.), *Handbook of blended learning: Global perspectives, local designs*. (pp. 3-21). San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer.

- Graham, C. R. (2012). Blended learning systems: Definition, current trends and future directions. In C. J. Bonk & C. R. Graham (Eds.), *The handbook of blended learning: Global perspectives, local designs* (pp. 63-95). Hoboken, NJ: Pfeiffer.
- Gu, Q., & Day, C. (2013). Challenges to teacher resilience: Conditions count. *British Educational Research Journal*, 39(1), 22-44.
- Gu, Q., & Day, C. (2014). *Resilient teachers, resilient schools: Building and sustaining quality in testing times*. London, England: Routledge.
- Gynther, K. (2016). Design framework for an adaptive MOOC enhanced by blended learning: Supplementary training and personalized learning for teacher professional development. *Electronic Journal of e-Learning*, 14(1), 15-30.
- Hagenauer, G., Hascher, T., & Volet, S. E. (2015). Teacher emotions in the classroom: Associations with students' engagement, classroom discipline and the interpersonal teacher-student relationship. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 30(4), 385-403.
- Hahn, L. D. (2004). Primary stress and intelligibility: Research to motivate the teaching of suprasegmentals. *TESOL Quarterly*, 38(2), 201-223.
- Hai, V., & Thu, H. (2016). *Bộ trưởng Giáo dục: Đề án ngoại ngữ hơn 9.000 tỷ không đạt mục tiêu*. Retrieved from <https://vnexpress.net/giao-duc/bo-truong-giao-duc-de-an-ngoai-ngu-hon-9-000-ty-khong-dat-muc-tieu-3499623.html>
- Han, Z. (2002). A study of the impact of recasts on tense consistency in L2 output. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36(4), 543-572.
- Hargreaves, A. (1998). The emotional practice of teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 14, 835-854.
- Hargreaves, A. (2000). Mixed emotions: Teachers' perceptions of their interactions with students. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 16(8), 811-826. [https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-051X\(00\)00028-7](https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-051X(00)00028-7)
- Harmer, J. (2001). *The practice of English language teaching*. London, England: Pearson Education.
- Harmer, J. (2007). *The practice of English language teaching*. Harlow, England: Pearson Longman.
- Hendrickson, J. M. (1978). Error correction in foreign language teaching: Recent theory, research, and practice. *Modern Language Journal*, 62(8), 387-398.

- Hennink, M. M., Hutter, I., & Bailey, A. (2011). *Qualitative research methods*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Herreid, C., & Schiller, N. (2013). Case studies and the flipped classroom. *Journal of College Science Teaching*, 42(5), 62-66.
- Hilliard, A. T. (2015). Global blended learning practices for teaching and learning, leadership and professional development. *Journal of International Education Research*, 11(3), 179-188.
- Hinkelman, D. (2018). *Blending Technologies in Second Language Classrooms* (2nd ed.). London, England: Palgrave Macmillan
- Hoang, N. T. (2015). *EFL teachers' perceptions and experiences of blended learning in a Vietnamese university* (Doctoral Thesis, Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane, Australia). Retrieved from https://eprints.qut.edu.au/83945/1/Ngoc%20Tue_Hoang_Thesis.pdf
- Hoang, T. G. L., & Filipi, A. (2019). In pursuit of understanding and response: A micro-analysis of language alternation practices in an EFL university context in Vietnam. *The Language Learning Journal*, 47(1), 116-129. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2016.1221439>
- Hockly, N. (2018). Blended Learning. *ELT Journal*, 72(1), 97-101. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccx058>
- Hockly, N., & Dudeney, G. (2018). Current and future digital trends in ELT. *RELC Journal*, 49(2), 164-178.
- Hollander, J. A. (2004). The social contexts of focus groups. *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography*, 33(5), 602-637. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0891241604266988>
- Horwitz, E. K. (1995). Student affective reactions and the teaching and learning of foreign languages. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 23(7), 573-579.
- Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70(2), 125-132.
- Hosoda, Y., & Aline, D. (2013). Two preferences in question–answer sequences in language classroom context. *Classroom Discourse*, 4(1), 63-88.
- Houghton, C., Casey, D., Shaw, D., & Murphy, K. (2013). Rigour in qualitative case-study research. *Nurse Researcher*, 20(4), 12-17.

- Hung, H.-T. (2015). Flipping the classroom for English language learners to foster active learning. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 28(1), 81-96.
- Imai, Y. (2010). Emotions in SLA: New insights from collaborative learning for an EFL classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(2), 278-292.
- Iverson, P., Pinet, M., & Evans, B. G. (2012). Auditory training for experienced and inexperienced second-language learners: Native French speakers learning English vowels. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 33(1), 145-160.
- James, C. (1998). *Errors in language learning and use: Exploring error analysis*. Harlow, Essex: Addison-Wesley Longman.
- James, N., & Busher, H. (2009). *Online interviewing*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Jang, E. E., Wagner, M., & Park, G. (2014). Mixed methods research in language testing and assessment. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 34, 123-153. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000063>
- Janghorban, R., Roudsari, R. L., & Taghipour, A. (2014). Skype interviewing: The new generation of online synchronous interview in qualitative research. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-being*, 9(1), 24152. <https://doi.org/10.3402/qhw.v9.24152>
- Johnson, C., & Marsh, D. (2016). The flipped classroom. In M. McCarthy (Ed.), *The Cambridge guide to blended learning for language teaching* (pp. 55–67). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Johnson, D. M. (1992). *Approaches to research in second language learning*. New York, NY: Longman.
- Johnson, K., E., & Worden, D. (2014). Cognitive/emotional dissonance as growth points in learning to teach. *Language and Sociocultural Theory*, 2(1), 125-150.
- Johnson, K. E. (2018). Studying language teacher cognition: Understanding and enacting theoretically consistent instructional practices. *Language Teaching Research*, 22(3), 259–263.
- Jowett, A., Peel, E., & Shaw, R. (2011). Online interviewing in psychology: Reflections on the process. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 8(4), 354-369. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14780887.2010.500352>
- Junqueira, L., & Kim, Y. (2013). Exploring the relationship between training, beliefs, and teachers' corrective feedback practices: A case study of a novice and an experienced ESL teacher. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 69(2), 181-206.

- Kaivanpanah, S., Alavi, S. M., & Sepehrinia, S. (2015). Preferences for interactional feedback: Differences between learners and teachers. *The Language Learning Journal*, 43(1), 74-93.
- Kamiya, N. (2016). The relationship between stated beliefs and classroom practices of oral corrective feedback. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 10(3), 206-219.
- Karagianni, I. (2016). *The use of learners' L1 in teacher oral corrective feedback: Its effect on L2 development* (Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Greece). Retrieved from <https://ikee.lib.auth.gr/record/283982/files/GRI-2016-17040.pdf>
- Karanasios, S., Riisla, K., & Simeonova, B. (2017). *Exploring the use of contradictions in activity theory studies: An interdisciplinary review*. Retrieved from <https://dspace.lboro.ac.uk/dspace-jspui/bitstream/2134/26026/1/PDF.pdf>
- Kartchava, E., & Ammar, A. (2014). The noticeability and effectiveness of corrective feedback in relation to target type. *Language Teaching Research*, 18(4), 428-452.
- Kartchava, E., Gatbonton, E., Ammar, A., & Trofimovich, P. (2018). Oral corrective feedback: Pre-service English as a second language teachers' beliefs and practices. *Language Teaching Research*, 1-30.
- Kawauchi, C. (2005). The effects of strategic planning on the oral narratives of learners with low and high intermediate L2 proficiency. In R. Ellis (Ed.), *Planning and task performance in a second language* (pp. 143-164). Amsterdam, the Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- Kieu, H. K. A. (2010). Use of Vietnamese in English language teaching in Vietnam: Attitudes of Vietnamese university teachers. *English Language Teaching*, 3(2), 119-128.
- Kim, M. K., Kim, S. M., Khera, O., & Getman, J. (2014). The experience of three flipped classrooms in an urban university: An exploration of design principles. *The Internet and Higher Education*, 22, 37-50.
- Kim, Y. (2013). Promoting attention to form through task repetition in a Korean EFL context. In K. McDonough & A. Mackey (Eds.), *Second language interaction in diverse educational contexts* (pp. 3-24). Amsterdam, the Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- Kim, Y., & Tracy-Ventura, N. (2013). The role of task repetition in L2 performance development: What needs to be repeated during task-based interaction? *System*, 41(3), 829-840.

- Kitzinger, J. (1995). Qualitative research-introducing focus groups. *British Medical Journal*, 311(7000), 299-302.
<https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.311.7000.299>
- Koehler, M., & Mishra, P. (2009). What is technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK)? *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education*, 9(1), 60-70.
- Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford, England: Pergamon Press.
- Kubanyiova, M., & Feryok, A. (2015). Language teacher cognition in applied linguistics research: Revisiting the territory, redrawing the boundaries, reclaiming the relevance. *The Modern Language Journal*, 99(3), 435-449.
- Lamie, J. M. (2004). Presenting a model of change. *Language Teaching Research*, 8(2), 115-142.
- Lantolf, J. P., & Appel, G. (1994). Theoretical framework: An introduction to Vygotskian approaches to second language research. In J. P. Lantolf & G. Appel (Eds.), *Vygotskian approaches to second language research* (pp. 1-32). New Jersey, NJ: Ablex.
- Lazarou, D. (2011). Using Cultural-Historical Activity Theory to design and evaluate an educational game in science education. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 27(5), 424-439.
- Lee, A. H., & Lyster, R. (2016). The effects of corrective feedback on instructed L2 speech perception. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 38(1), 35-64.
- Lee, E. J. E. (2013). Corrective feedback preferences and learner repair among advanced ESL students. *System*, 41(2), 217-230.
- Lee, I. (2014). Revisiting teacher feedback in EFL writing from sociocultural perspectives. *TESOL Quarterly*, 48(1), 201-213.
- Lee, J., Lim, C., & Kim, H. (2017). Development of an instructional design model for flipped learning in higher education. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 65(2), 427-453.
- Lemke, J. L. (2008). Identity, development and desire: Critical questions. In C. R. Caldas-Coulthard & R. Ledema (Eds.), *Identity trouble* (pp. 17-42). London, England: Palgrave.

- Leont'ev, A. N. (1981). The problem of activity in psychology. In J. V. Wertsch (Ed.), *The concept of activity in Soviet psychology* (pp. 37-71). Armonk, NY: M.E. Sharpe.
- Levelt, W. J. M. (1989). *Speaking: From intention to articulation*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Li, J. (2012). *University tutors' beliefs about and practices in assessing undergraduates' writing a New Zealand case study* (Doctoral Thesis, The University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand). Retrieved from <https://hdl.handle.net/10289/6590>
- Li, J. (2016). The interactions between emotion, cognition, and action in the activity of assessing undergraduates' written work. In D. S. Gedera & P. J. Williams (Eds.), *Activity theory in education: Research and practice* (pp. 105-119). Rotterdam, the Netherlands: Sense.
- Li, S. (2010). The effectiveness of corrective feedback in SLA: A meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, 60(2), 309-365.
- Li, S. (2018). What is the ideal time to provide corrective feedback? Replication of Li, Zhu & Ellis (2016) and Arroyo & Yilmaz (2018). *Language Teaching*, 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S026144481800040X>
- Li, S., & Fu, M. (2016). Strategic and unpressured within-task planning and their associations with working memory. *Language Teaching Research*, 22(2), 230-253. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168816684367>
- Li, S., Zhu, Y., & Ellis, R. (2016). The effects of the timing of corrective feedback on the acquisition of a new linguistic structure. *The Modern Language Journal*, 100(1), 276-295.
- Lichtman, M. (2010). *Qualitative research in education: A user's guide* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Littlewood, W. (2007). Communicative and task-based language teaching in East Asian classrooms. *Language Teaching*, 40(3), 243-249.
- Littlewood, W. (2014). Communication-oriented language teaching: Where are we now? Where do we go from here? *Language Teaching*, 47(3), 349-362. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444812000134>
- Littlewood, W., & Yu, B. (2011). First language and target language in the foreign language classroom. *Language Teaching*, 44(1), 64-77.

- Liu, Q., & Chao, C.-C. (2018). CALL from an ecological perspective: How a teacher perceives affordance and fosters learner agency in a technology-mediated language classroom. *ReCALL*, 30(1), 68-87.
- Liu, S. (2015). Reflections on communicative language teaching and its application in China. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(5), 1047-1052.
- Lockley, J. (2016). Teachers designing classroom curriculum through the lens of Cultural-Historical Activity Theory. In D. S. Gedera & P. J. Williams (Eds.), *Activity theory in education: Research and practice* (pp. 183-198). Rotterdam, the Netherlands: Sense.
- Loewen, S., & Philp, J. (2006). Recasts in the adult English L2 classroom: Characteristics, explicitness, and effectiveness. *The Modern Language Journal*, 90(4), 536-556.
- Loewen, S., & Sato, M. (2018). Interaction and instructed second language acquisition. *Language Teaching*, 51(3), 285-329.
- Long, M. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. Ritchie & T. J. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition*. Orlando, FL: Academic Press.
- Long, M. H. (2007). *Problems in SLA*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Lyle, J. (2003). Stimulated recall: A report on its use in naturalistic research. *British Educational Research Journal*, 29(6), 861-878.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/0141192032000137349>
- Lyster, R. (1998a). The ambiguity of recasts and repetition in L2 classroom discourse. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 20(1), 51-81.
- Lyster, R. (1998b). Negotiation of form, recasts, and explicit correction in relation to error types and learner repair in immersion classrooms. *Language Learning*, 48(2), 183-218. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9922.00039>
- Lyster, R. (2004). Differential effects of prompts and recasts in form-focused instruction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 26(3), 399-432.
- Lyster, R. (2015). The relative effectiveness of corrective feedback in classroom interaction. In N. Markee (Ed.), *The handbook of classroom discourse and interaction* (pp. 213-228). Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19(1), 37-66.

- Lyster, R., & Saito, K. (2010a). Interactional feedback as instructional input: A synthesis of classroom SLA research. *Language, Interaction and Acquisition, 1*(2), 276-297.
- Lyster, R., & Saito, K. (2010b). Oral feedback in classroom SLA: A meta-analysis. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 32*(2), 265-302.
- Lyster, R., Saito, K., & Sato, M. (2013). Oral corrective feedback in second language classrooms. *Language Teaching, 46*(1), 1-40.
- Mackey, A., Gass, S., & McDonough, K. (2000). How do learners perceive interactional feedback? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 22*(4), 471-497.
- Mackey, A., & Goo, J. (2007). Interaction research in SLA: A meta-analysis and research synthesis. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studies* (pp. 407–452). Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Mackey, A., Oliver, R., & Leeman, J. (2003). Interactional input and the incorporation of feedback: An exploration of NS–NNS and NNS–NNS adult and child dyads. *Language Learning, 53*(1), 35-66.
- Mak, B. (2011). An exploration of speaking-in-class anxiety with Chinese ESL learners. *System, 39*(2), 202-214.
- Mann, C., & Stewart, F. (2000). *Internet communication and qualitative research: A handbook for researching online*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Marcum, T. M., & Perry, S. J. (2015). Flips and flops: A new approach to a traditional law course. *Journal of Legal Studies Education, 32*(2), 255-286.
- Maroni, B. (2011). Pauses, gaps and wait time in classroom interaction in primary schools. *Journal of Pragmatics, 43*(7), 2081-2093.
- Mayes, T., Dineen, F., McKendree, J., & Lee, J. (2002). Learning from watching others learn. In C. Steeples & C. Jones (Eds.), *Networked learning: Perspectives and issues* (pp. 213-227). London, England: Springer.
- Méndez, H. E., & Cruz, R. R. M. (2012). Teachers' perceptions about oral corrective feedback and their practice in EFL classrooms. *Profile Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 14*(2), 63-75.
- Mertler, C. A. (2016). *Introduction to educational research*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

- Mishra, P., & Koehler, M. J. (2006). Technological pedagogical content knowledge: A framework for teacher knowledge. *Teachers College Record, 108*(6), 1017-1054.
- Mitchell, R. (1988). *Communicative Language Teaching in Practice*. London, England: Centre for Information on Language Teaching.
- Mochizuki, N., & Ortega, L. (2008). Balancing communication and grammar in beginning-level foreign language classrooms: A study of guided planning and relativization. *Language Teaching Research, 12*(1), 11-37.
- MoET. (2008). *Quyết định về việc phê duyệt đề án "Dạy và học ngoại ngữ trong hệ thống giáo dục quốc dân giai đoạn 2008-2020. N0 1400/QĐ-TTg. [Decision N0 1400/QĐ-TTg on the approval of the project "Teaching and learning foreign languages in the national education system in the period 2008-2020]. Hanoi, Vietnam: Vietnam National Politic.*
- MoET. (2014). *Circular No. 23/2014/TT-BGDĐT on "Regulations on high-quality programs in universities. Hanoi, Vietnam: Ministry of Education and Training.*
- Mok, H. N. (2014). Teaching tip: The flipped classroom. *Journal of Information Systems Education, 25*(1), 7-11.
- Mora, J. C., & Levkina, M. (2017). Task-based pronunciation teaching and research: Key issues and future directions. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 39*(2), 381-399.
- Moranski, K., & Kim, F. (2016). 'Flipping' lessons in a multi-section spanish course: Implications for assigning explicit grammar instruction outside of the classroom. *The Modern Language Journal, 100*(4), 830-852.
- Mori, R. (2011). Teacher cognition in corrective feedback in Japan. *System, 39*(4), 451-467.
- Motlagh, L. N. (2015). Iranian EFL teachers' preferences for corrective feedback types, implicit vs explicit. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 192*, 364-370.
- Munro, M. J., Derwing, T. M., & Thomson, R. I. (2015). Setting segmental priorities for English learners: Evidence from a longitudinal study. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 53*(1), 39-60.
- Murrell, P. C., & Foster, M. (2003). Teacher beliefs, performance and proficiency in diversity-oriented teacher preparation. In A. Jaths & A. C. McAninch

(Eds.), *Teacher beliefs and classroom performance: The impact of teacher education* (pp. 43-64). Greenwich, CN: Information Age.

- Nagamine, T. (2018). L2 teachers' professional burnout and emotional stress: Facing frustration and demotivation toward one's profession in a Japanese EFL context. In J. d. D. M. Agudo (Ed.), *Emotions in second language teaching: Theory, research and teacher education* (pp. 259-275). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.
- Nagamine, T., Fujieda, Y., & Iida, A. (2018). The role of emotions in reflective teaching in second language classrooms: Felt sense, emotionality, and practical knowledge acquisition. In J. D. M. Agudo (Ed.), *Emotions in second language teaching: Theory, research and teacher education* (pp. 145-163). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.
- Nakata, T. (2015). Effects of feedback timing on second language vocabulary learning: Does delaying feedback increase learning? *Language Teaching Research*, 19(4), 416-434.
- Nassaji, H. (2013). Participation structure and incidental focus on form in adult ESL classrooms. *Language Learning*, 63(4), 835-869.
- Nassaji, H., & Swain, M. (2000). A Vygotskian perspective on corrective feedback in L2: The effect of random versus negotiated help on the learning of English articles. *Language Awareness*, 9(1), 34-51.
- Nation, I. S., & Macalister, J. (2010). *Language curriculum design*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Neuman, W. L. (2011). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (7th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Ng, J. K. M. (2015). *Bridging the mismatches between the lecturers' and students' beliefs about the value of written feedback on their assignments: A Private Malaysian University Case Study* (Doctoral Thesis, the University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand). Retrieved from <https://hdl.handle.net/10289/9426>
- Nghi, P. T. (2010). The higher education reform agenda: A vision for 2020. In G. Harman, M. Hayden & T. L. Lam (Eds.), *Reforming higher education in Vietnam* (pp. 51-64). Dordrecht, the Netherlands: Springer.
- Ngo, H., Spooner-Lane, R., & Mergler, A. (2017). A comparison of motivation to learn English between English major and non-English major students in a Vietnamese university. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 11(2), 188-202.

- Nguyen, H. T., Fehring, H., & Warren, W. (2015). EFL teaching and learning at a Vietnamese university: What do teachers say? *English Language Teaching*, 8(1), 31-43.
- Nguyen, H. T. M. (2011a). Primary English language education policy in Vietnam: Insights from implementation. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 12(2), 225-249. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2011.597048>
- Nguyen, H. T. M. (2017a). The EFL context in Vietnam and East Asia. In H. T. M. Nguyen (Ed.), *Models of mentoring in language teacher education* (pp. 1-27). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.
- Nguyen, T. Q. T. (2015). The influence of traditional beliefs on Vietnamese college lecturers' perceptions of face. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 41(2), 203-214.
- Nguyen, T. Q. T. (2017b). Maintaining teachers' face in the context of change: Results from a study of Vietnamese college lecturers' perceptions of face. *Teachers and Teaching*, 23(1), 78-90.
- Nguyen, V. G. (2013). *Orienting to pedagogical innovation: A case study of Vietnamese teachers' beliefs and practices regarding task-based language teaching* (Doctoral Thesis, the University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand). Retrieved from <https://hdl.handle.net/10289/7433>
- Nguyen, V. L. (2011b). *Dynamic conceptions of input, output and interaction: Vietnamese EFL lecturers learning second language acquisition theory* (Doctoral Thesis, the University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand). Retrieved from <https://hdl.handle.net/10289/5167>
- Nguyen, X. N. C. M., & Walkinshaw, I. (2018). Autonomy in teaching practice: Insights from Vietnamese English language teachers trained in Inner-Circle countries. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 69, 21-32. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2017.08.015>
- Nhu, P. T. T., Keong, T. C., & Wah, L. K. (2018). Exploring teaching English using ICT in Vietnam: The lens of Activity Theory. *International Journal*, 1(3), 15-29.
- Nicholas, H., Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2001). Recasts as feedback to language learners. *Language Learning*, 51(4), 719-758.
- Numrich, C. (1996). On becoming a language teacher: Insights from diary studies. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(1), 131-153.
- Nunan, D. (1999). *Second Language Teaching & Learning*. Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle.

- O'Connor, H., & Madge, C. (2017). Online interviewing. In N. Fielding, R. Lee & G. Blank (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of online research methods* (2nd ed., pp. 416-434). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Ocak, M. A. (2011). Why are faculty members not teaching blended courses? Insights from faculty members. *Computers & Education, 56*(3), 689-699.
- Oliver, R. (2000). Age differences in negotiation and feedback in classroom and pairwork. *Language Learning, 50*(1), 119-151.
- Ölmezer-Öztürk, E. (2016). Beliefs and practices of Turkish EFL teachers regarding oral corrective feedback: A small-scale classroom research study. *The Language Learning Journal, 47*(2), 219-228.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Dickinson, W. B., Leech, N. L., & Zoran, A. G. (2009). A qualitative framework for collecting and analysing data in focus group research. *The International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 8*(3), 1-21.
- Ortega, L. (1999). Planning and focus on form in L2 oral performance. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 21*(1), 109-148.
- Owston, R., York, D., & Murtha, S. (2013). Student perceptions and achievement in a university blended learning strategic initiative. *The Internet and Higher Education, 18*, 38-46.
- Oxford, R. L. (1999). Anxiety and the language learner: New insights. In J. Arnold (Ed.), *Affect in language learning* (pp. 58-67). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Ozdamli, F., & Asiksoy, G. (2016). Flipped Classroom Approach. *World Journal on Educational Technology: Current Issues, 8*(2), 98-105.
- Ozmen, K. S., & Aydın, H. Ü. (2015). Examining student teachers' beliefs about oral corrective feedback: Insights from a teacher education program in Turkey. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 40*(12), 141-164.
- Öztürk, G. (2016). An investigation on the use of oral corrective feedback in Turkish EFL classrooms. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, 12*(2), 22-37.
- Öztürk, G., & Gürbüz, N. (2017). Re-defining language teacher cognition through a data-driven model: The case of three EFL teachers. *Cogent Education, 4*(1), 1-20.
- Park, S. (2010). The influence of pretask instructions and pretask planning on focus on form during Korean EFL task-based interaction. *Language Teaching Research, 14*(1), 9-26.

- Paskins, Z., McHugh, G., & Hassell, A. B. (2014). Getting under the skin of the primary care consultation using video stimulated recall: A systematic review. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*, 14(1), 101-119. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2288-14-101>
- Pawlak, M. (2014). *Error correction in the foreign language classroom: Reconsidering the issues*. Berlin, Germany: Springer.
- Pea, R. D. (1993). Practices of distributed intelligence and designs for education. In G. Salomon (Ed.), *Distributed cognitions: Psychological and educational considerations* (pp. 47-87). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Peek, L., & Fothergill, A. (2009). Using focus groups: Lessons from studying daycare centers, 9/11, and Hurricane Katrina. *Qualitative Research*, 9(1), 31-59.
- Pham, H. H. (2004). *Trained in the West, teaching in the East: Vietnamese teachers returning from TESOL courses abroad* (Doctoral Thesis, the University of Melbourne, Australia). Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/11343/39930>
- Pham, T. N. A. (2017). *Emotion in English as an additional language oral communication: Vietnamese English language teachers and students* (Doctoral Thesis, the University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand). Retrieved from <https://hdl.handle.net/10289/11440>
- Philipsen, B., Tondeur, J., Pareja Roblin, N., Vanslambrouck, S., & Zhu, C. (2019). Improving teacher professional development for online and blended learning: A systematic meta-aggregative review. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 1-30. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11423-019-09645-8>
- Phipps, S., & Borg, S. (2009). Exploring tensions between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices. *System*, 37(3), 380-390.
- Phuong, T. T., & Chai, D. S. (2018). Talent development for faculty: The case of Vietnam. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 20(4), 428-443. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422318803086>
- Picciano, A. G., Dziuban, C. D., & Graham, C. R. (2013). *Blended learning: Research perspectives*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Pouriran, Y., & Mukundan, J. (2012). A comparison between experienced and novice teachers in using incidental focus on form techniques in EFL classrooms. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 1(6), 288-296.

- Prefume, Y. E. (2015). *Exploring a flipped classroom approach in a Japanese language classroom: A mixed methods study* (Doctoral Dissertation, Baylor University). Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/2104/9569>
- Price, L., Kirkwood, A., & Richardson, J. T. (2016). Mind the gap: The chasm between research and practice in teaching and learning with technology. In J. Case & J. Huisman (Eds.), *Researching higher education: International perspectives on theory, policy and practice* (pp. 227–245). London, England: Routledge.
- Quin, P. (2014). *Delayed versus immediate corrective feedback on orally produced passive errors in English* (Doctoral Thesis, University of Toronto, Ontario, Canada). Retrieved from <https://tspace.library.utoronto.ca/handle/1807/65728>
- Rahimi, A., & Dastjerdi, H. V. (2012). Impact of immediate and delayed error correction on EFL learners' oral production: CAF. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(1), 45-54.
- Rahimi, M., & Zhang, L. J. (2015). Exploring non-native English-speaking teachers' cognitions about corrective feedback in teaching English oral communication. *System*, 55, 111-122.
- Ramanair, J. (2016). Turning challenges into opportunities: Investigating technology integration in tertiary level english language programmes through the lens of activity theory. In D. S. Gedera & P. J. Williams (Eds.), *Activity theory in education: Research and practice* (pp. 121-138). Rotterdam, the Netherlands: Sense.
- Ranta, L., & Lyster, R. (2007). A cognitive approach to improving immersion students' oral language abilities: The awareness-practice-feedback sequence. In R. DeKeyser (Ed.), *Practice in a second language: Perspectives from applied linguistics and cognitive psychology* (pp. 141-160). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Rapley, T. (2007). *Doing conversation, discourse and document analysis*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Rassaei, E. (2014). Scaffolded feedback, recasts, and L2 development: A sociocultural perspective. *The Modern Language Journal*, 98(1), 417-431.
- Rassaei, E. (2015). The effects of foreign language anxiety on EFL learners' perceptions of oral corrective feedback. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 9(2), 87-101.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2013.837912>

- Reis, D. S. (2015). Making sense of emotions in NNESTs' professional identities and agency. In Y. L. Cheung, S. B. Said & K. Park (Eds.), *Advances and current trends in language teacher identity research* (pp. 31-43). London, England: Routledge.
- Rolin-Ianziti, J. (2010). The organization of delayed second language correction. *Language Teaching Research*, 14(2), 183-206.
- Roothoof, H. (2014). The relationship between adult EFL teachers' oral feedback practices and their beliefs. *System*, 46(1), 65-79.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2014.07.012>
- Roothoof, H., & Breeze, R. (2016). A comparison of EFL teachers' and students' attitudes to oral corrective feedback. *Language Awareness*, 25(4), 318-335.
- Rowe, M. B. (1974). Pausing phenomena: Influence on the quality of instruction. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*, 3(3), 203-224.
- Russell, J., & Spada, N. (2006). The effectiveness of corrective feedback for the acquisition of L2 grammar. In J. Norris & L. Ortega (Eds.), *Synthesizing research on language learning and teaching* (pp. 133-164). Amsterdam, the Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- Ryan, J., & Gass, S. (2012). Stimulated recall. In R. Barnard & A. Burns (Eds.), *Researching language teacher cognition and practice: International case studies* (pp. 144-161). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Saito, K., & Lyster, R. (2012a). Effects of form-focused instruction and corrective feedback on L2 pronunciation development of /r/ by Japanese learners of English. *Language Learning*, 62(2), 595-633.
- Saito, K., & Lyster, R. (2012b). Investigating the pedagogical potential of recasts for L2 vowel acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly*, 46(2), 387-398.
- Saito, K., & Wu, X. (2014). Communicative focus on form and second language suprasegmental learning: Teaching Cantonese learners to perceive Mandarin tones. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 36(4), 647-680.
- Sangarun, J. (2005). The effects of focusing on meaning and form in strategic planning. In R. Ellis (Ed.), *Planning and task performance in a second language* (pp. 111-141). Amsterdam, the Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- Sannino, A., & Engeström, Y. (2018). Cultural-historical activity theory. *Cultural-Historical Psychology*, 14(3), 43-56.

- Sarfraz, S. (2019). *Rethinking formative assessment through peer observation and reflection: A case study of Pakistani ESL lecturers' cognition and practices* (Doctoral Thesis, the University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand). Retrieved from <https://hdl.handle.net/10289/12364>
- Saric, M. (2015). Teachers' emotions: Research review from a psychological perspective. *Journal Of Contemporary Educational Studies*, 66(4), 10-25.
- Sato, M. (2017). Oral peer corrective feedback: Multiple theoretical perspectives. In H. Nassaji & E. Kartchava (Eds.), *Corrective feedback in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 35-50). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Sato, M., & Ballinger, S. (2012). Raising language awareness in peer interaction: A cross-context, cross-methodology examination. *Language Awareness*, 21(1-2), 157-179.
- Schmidt, R. W. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11(2), 129-158.
- Schutz, P. A., & Zembylas, M. (2009). Introduction to advances in teacher emotion research: The impact on teachers' lives. In P. A. Schutz & M. Zembylas (Eds.), *Advances in teacher emotion research* (pp. 3-11). New York, NY: Springer.
- Scott, R., & Rodgers, B. (1995). Changing teachers' conceptions of teaching writing: A collaborative study. *Foreign Language Annals*, 28(2), 234-246.
- Seedhouse, P. (2004). *The interactional architecture of the language classroom: A conversation analysis perspective*. Oxford, England: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Senior, R. M. (2006). *The experience of language teaching*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Sepehrinia, S., & Mehdizadeh, M. (2018). Oral corrective feedback: Teachers' concerns and researchers' orientation. *The Language Learning Journal*, 46(4), 483-500.
- Shabani, K., & Safari, F. (2016). Immediate vs delayed correction feedback (CF) and accuracy of oral production: The role of anxiety. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 6(11), 2222-2230.
- Sheen, Y. (2008). Recasts, language anxiety, modified output, and L2 learning. *Language Learning*, 58(4), 835-874.
- Sheen, Y. (2010). Introduction: The role of oral and written corrective feedback in SLA. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32(2), 169-179. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990489>

- Sheen, Y., & Ellis, R. (2011). Corrective feedback in language teaching. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 593-610). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Sheppard, C. (2006). *The effects of instruction directed at the gaps second language learners noticed in their oral production* (Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, University of Auckland, New Zealand). Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/2292/17583>
- Sherwani, S. H. T., & Kilic, M. (2017). Teachers' perspectives of the use of CLT in ELT classrooms: A case of Soran District of Northern Iraq. *Arab World English Journal*, 8(3), 191-206. <https://doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol8no3.13>
- Sinclair, J. M., & Coulthard, M. (1975). *Towards an analysis of discourse: The English used by teachers and pupils*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Siyari, M. (2005). *A comparative study of the effect of implicit and delayed, explicit focus on form on Iranian EFL learners' accuracy of oral production* (Master's thesis, Iran University of Science and Technology, Tehran, Iran). Retrieved from https://www.asian-efl-journal.com/Thesis_Masood_Siyari.pdf
- Skehan, P., & Foster, P. (1997). Task type and task processing conditions as influences on foreign language performance. *Language Teaching Research*, 1(3), 185-211.
- Skehan, P., & Foster, P. (2012). Complexity, accuracy, fluency and lexis in task-based performance: A synthesis of the Ealing research. In A. Housen, F. Kuiken & I. Vedder (Eds.), *Dimensions of L2 performance and proficiency: Complexity, accuracy and fluency in SLA* (pp. 199-220). Amsterdam, the Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- Smith, K., & Hill, J. (2019). Defining the nature of blended learning through its depiction in current research. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 38(2), 383-397. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2018.1517732>
- Smith, N. V. (2013). Face-to-face vs. blended learning: Effects on secondary students' perceptions and performance. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 89, 79-83.
- Song, J. (2016). Emotions and language teacher identity: Conflicts, vulnerability, and transformation. *TESOL Quarterly*, 50(3), 631-654.
- Spada, N., Jessop, L., Tomita, Y., Suzuki, W., & Valeo, A. (2014). Isolated and integrated form-focused instruction: Effects on different types of L2 knowledge. *Language Teaching Research*, 18(4), 453-473.

- Spada, N., & Lightbown, P. M. (2008). Form-focused instruction: Isolated or integrated? *TESOL Quarterly*, 42(2), 181-207.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage
- Suzuki, Y., & DeKeyser, R. (2017). The interface of explicit and implicit knowledge in a second language: Insights from individual differences in cognitive aptitudes. *Language Learning*, 67(4), 747-790.
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 235–252). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Swain, M. (2013). The inseparability of cognition and emotion in second language learning. *Language Teaching*, 46(2), 195-207.
- Thanh, N. C., & Thanh, T. T. L. (2015). The interconnection between interpretivist paradigm and qualitative methods in education. *American Journal of Educational Science*, 1(2), 24-27.
- Thompson, G. L., & Harrison, K. (2014). Language use in the foreign language classroom. *Foreign Language Annals*, 47(2), 321-337.
- Thomson, R. I. (2012). Improving L2 listeners' perception of English vowels: A computer-mediated approach. *Language Learning*, 62(4), 1231-1258.
- Thomson, R. I. (2016). Does training to perceive L2 English vowels in one phonetic context transfer to other phonetic contexts? *Canadian Acoustics*, 44(3), 198–199.
- Thornberg, R. (2012). Informed grounded theory. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 56(3), 243-259.
- Tomczyk, E. (2013). Perceptions of oral errors and their corrective feedback: Teachers vs. students. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 4(5), 924-932.
- Tran, L. T., & Marginson, S. (2014). Education for flexible, practical and mobility. In e. a. Tran L. (Ed.), *Higher education in Vietnam: Flexibility, mobility and practicality in the global knowledge economy* (pp. 3-28). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Tran, T. B. P., & Nguyen, B. H. (2018). Teacher corrective feedback on students' speaking performance and their uptake in EFL classes. *European Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 3(3), 110-131.

- Tran, T. D. (2015). *An exploratory study of the current assessment practices for improving the learning of English as a foreign language (EFL) in two Vietnamese universities* (Doctoral Thesis, Queensland University of Technology, Australia). Retrieved from <https://eprints.qut.edu.au/84622/>
- Tran, T. M., & Stoilescu, D. (2016). An analysis of the content, policies and assessment of ICT curricula in the final years of secondary schooling in Australia and Vietnam: A comparative educational study. *Journal of Information Technology Education: Research*, 15, 49-73.
- Truscott, J. (1996). The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes. *Language Learning*, 46(2), 327-369.
- Truscott, J. (1999). What's wrong with oral grammar correction. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 55(4), 437-456.
- Tuomi-Grohn, T., & Engestrom, Y. (2003). *Between school and work: New perspectives on transfer and boundary crossing*. Boston, MA: Pergamon.
- Ülgü, E., Sari, I., & Griffiths, C. (2013). Error correction in language teaching: The teachers' perspective. *International Journal of Arts & Sciences*, 6(3), 229-241.
- Ur, P. (1996). *A course in language teaching: Practice and theory*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Uysal, N. D., & Aydin, S. (2017). Foreign language teachers' perceptions of error correction in speaking classes: A qualitative study. *The Qualitative Report*, 22(1), 123-135.
- van de Guchte, M., Braaksma, M., Rijlaarsdam, G., & Bimmel, P. (2016). Focus on form through task repetition in TBLT. *Language Teaching Research*, 20(3), 300-320. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168815609616>
- van Lier, L. (1996). *Interaction in the curriculum: Awareness, autonomy & authenticity*. London, England: Addison Wesley Longman.
- van Lier, L. (2014). *Interaction in the language curriculum: Awareness, autonomy and authenticity*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Van Sickle, J. R. (2016). Discrepancies between student perception and achievement of learning outcomes in a flipped classroom. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 16(2), 29-38.
- VanPatten, B., & Benati, A. G. (2010). *Key terms in second language acquisition*. London, England: Continuum.

- Vanslambrouck, S., Zhu, C., Lombaerts, K., Philipsen, B., & Tondeur, J. (2018). Students' motivation and subjective task value of participating in online and blended learning environments. *The Internet and Higher Education*, 36, 33-40.
- Varnosfadrani. (2006). *A comparison of the effects of implicit/explicit and immediate/delayed corrective feedback on learners' performance in tailor-made tests* (Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, University of Auckland, New Zealand). Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/2292/55>
- Vu, H. N. (2014). *Students' expectations and experiences of blended learning: A case study at Hanoi Open University, Vietnam* (Master's Thesis, RMIT University, Melbourne, Australia). Retrieved from <https://researchbank.rmit.edu.au/eserv/rmit:161151/Vu.pdf>
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1962). *Thought and language*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1986). *Thought and language* (A. Kozulin, Trans). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Walqui, A. (2006). Scaffolding instruction for English language learners: A conceptual framework. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 9(2), 159-180.
- Walsh, S., & Li, L. (2013). Conversations as space for learning. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 23(2), 247-266.
- Wang, Y. H. (2016). Could a mobile-assisted learning system support flipped classrooms for classical Chinese learning? *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 32(5), 391-415.
- Waring, H. Z. (2011). Learner initiatives and learning opportunities in the language classroom. *Classroom Discourse*, 2(2), 201-218.
- Westberry, N. C. (2009). *An activity theory analysis of social epistemologies within tertiary-level eLearning environments* (Doctoral Thesis, the University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand). Retrieved from <https://researchcommons.waikato.ac.nz/handle/10289/4184>
- White, J., & Lightbrown, P. M. (1984). Asking and answering in ESL classes. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 40(2), 228-243.
- Wilkerson, C. (2008). Instructors' use of English in the modern language classroom. *Foreign Language Annals*, 41(2), 310-320.

- Willis, J. (1996). *A framework for task-based learning*. London, England: Longman.
- Willis, J. (2007). *Foundations of qualitative research: Interpretive and critical approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Woods, D. (1996). *Teacher cognition in language teaching: Beliefs, decision-making and classroom practice*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Wu, J.-H., Tennyson, R. D., & Hsia, T.-L. (2010). A study of student satisfaction in a blended e-learning system environment. *Computers & Education*, 55(1), 155-164.
- Yang, Y., & Lyster, R. (2010). Effects of form-focused practice and feedback on Chinese EFL learners' acquisition of regular and irregular past tense forms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32(2), 235-263.
- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods* (4th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case study research: Design and methods* (5th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Yoshida, R. (2010). How do teachers and learners perceive corrective feedback in the Japanese language classroom? *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(2), 293-314.
- Young, D. J. (1999). *Affect in foreign language and second language learning: A practical guide to creating a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere*. Boston, MA: McGraw Hill.
- Yuan, F., & Ellis, R. (2003). The effects of pre-task planning and on-line planning on fluency, complexity and accuracy in L2 monologic oral production. *Applied Linguistics*, 24(1), 1-27.
- Yuan, R., & Lee, I. (2014). Pre-service teachers' changing beliefs in the teaching practicum: Three cases in an EFL context. *System*, 44, 1-12.
- Zainuddin, Z., & Attaran, M. (2016). Malaysian students' perceptions of flipped classroom: A case study. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 53(6), 660-670.
- Zembylas, M. (2007). Emotional ecology: The intersection of emotional knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge in teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23(4), 355-367.

Zhang, W., & Zhu, C. (2017). Review on blended learning: Identifying the key themes and categories. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology*, 7(9), 673-678.

Zheng, H. (2013). The dynamic interactive relationship between Chinese secondary school EFL teachers' beliefs and practice. *The Language Learning Journal*, 41(2), 192-204.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: LETTER OF INFORMATION TO TEACHING PARTICIPANTS

(Participants)

Dear _____,

I would like to thank you for your interest in participating in my PhD research. In this project, I intend to explore your beliefs about, and practices of, lecturer-student interaction in a BL environment. I strongly believe your cooperation and contribution will be of great use for my research.

I would highly appreciate if you could agree to become my participant and support me in the process of data collection in the following ways:

During initial semi-structured interviews: you will be asked open-ended questions about your understandings, beliefs and opinions of lecturer-student interaction in a BL environment.

In a dry-run videotaping and a mock post-lesson discussion: your actual teaching in the class will be observed (video and audio-recorded) so that you can be familiar with the presence of myself as a non-participating researcher as well as the camera and digital audio recorder. The mock post-lesson discussion where you will recall your thoughts while you view your teaching will familiarise you with seeing your image and voice in the video clips. Data gained from these activities will be excluded from subsequent analysis.

In observation: You will be observed and recorded by a video camera and a digital audio recorder up to three times at your convenience. I will sit wherever you suggest and take a few notes as a non-participant in your lesson. Your usual teaching practices are highly recommended.

In stimulated recalls: Within one day after each lesson observation, you will be invited to watch/listen to the lesson with me and recall any thoughts about your behaviours and actions in the class. The aim of this activity is to enable me to obtain your beliefs enacted in your actual practices. It is **not** carried out for any

assessments and evaluation of your teaching. The conversation will last up to one hour and will be audio-recorded. A summary of the conversation content will be sent to you for checking accuracy and adding any further details you may wish to make.

Focus group discussion: Once the final stimulated recall has been carried out, you will be invited to participate in an audio-recorded meeting with two other lecturers for an hour. Before the interview commences, you will be provided with a list of topics for discussion. Your enthusiasm to talk and share your ideas with other participants on problems in giving oral corrective feedback on students' group work and suggested solutions as much as you can during the interview will be highly appreciated. Afterwards, the content of the discussion will be summarized and delivered to you in order that you can check its accuracy and add any other details.

Narrative Essay: After the focus group discussion, you will be asked to complete a narrative for up to 20 minutes in which you can recount your subsequent experiences of and reflections about your classroom interaction. Prior to the completion of the narrative, you will be given instructions for this task.

I should like to assure you that your rights to privacy and confidentiality will be entirely respected during and after the research process. The confidentiality of your identity and that of the university will be safeguarded. Although it is possible that your identities may be disclosed because of my ongoing association with our university, I should like to assure you that I will make every effort to safeguard your identity and the identity of our university. Pseudonyms will be used in my PhD thesis, any resulting publications and conference presentations. All the data obtained will be kept strictly secure and will be accessed only by me or my supervisors for academic purposes only. All the raw data will be kept in safe storage for a minimum of 5 years.

I should also like to assure you that the risks of influencing your regular teaching practices will be minimised. Should any concerns/questions emerge during the process of data collection, you are welcome to discuss these with me at any time.

I should also like to assure you that your participation in the course of data collection is entirely voluntary and you have the right to withdraw at any time for any or no reason. You also have the right to refuse to answer any particular question, and may withdraw any information you have provided two weeks within two weeks after you have handed me the narrative frame.

I should like to assure you that the study will strictly adhere to the University of Waikato's Ethical Conduct in Human Research and Related Activities Regulations, 2008. This project has been approved by the Human Ethics Research Committee, Faculty of Arts and Social Science, University of Waikato, and any questions regarding the ethical conduct of this project may be addressed to the Secretary of the Committee, email fass-ethics@waikato.ac.nz. Or if you have any questions, please feel free to meet me in person, by phone 0989 203 798 (mobile number in Vietnam) or 022 650 2625 (mobile number in New Zealand), or email thn2@students.waikato.ac.nz. You can also contact my supervisors by email: Dr Roger Barnard rbarnard@waikato.ac.nz or Dr Rosemary Deluca deluca@waikato.ac.nz or Dr Jonathon Ryan Ronathon.Ryan@wintec.ac.nz.

Your participation will be highly appreciated. If you are willing to take part in this study, please read and sign the informed consent form below. For your personal records, it will be useful to keep the second copy of this information letter and completed consent form.

Yours sincerely,

Nguyen Thi Huong

APPENDIX 2: CONSENT FORMS

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Please complete the following checklist. Tick [√] the appropriate box for each point.

Statements	YES	NO
I understand that I do not have to take part in this study.		
I understand that I am entitled to withdraw myself, or any information attained from me, at any time up to two weeks after you have handed me the narrative essay		
I agree to let Huong interview me		
I agree that this interview can be audio-recorded		
I am willing to allow Huong to observe a trial videotaping and three lessons taught by me to my usual classes		
I agree that these lessons can be audio-recorded		
I agree that these lessons can be video-recorded		
I am willing to participate in a stimulated recall session with Huong after each observation		
I agree that these discussions will be audio-recorded		
I agree to take part in a group discussion with other participating lecturers		
I agree that this meeting can be audio-recorded		
I understand that the data obtained for this project will only be accessed by Huong and her academic supervisors		
I understand that my rights to privacy and confidentiality will be respected		
I understand that my returning this completed form and returning this to Huong means my agreement to participate in the research		
I would like to receive a report of the findings resulting from this study		

Participant: _____ Researcher: _____

Signature: _____ Signature: _____

Date: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX 3: LETTER OF ETHICS APPROVAL

Linguistics Programme

School of Arts Phone +64 7 838 4466 ext
Faculty of Arts and Social 8144
Sciences E-mail
Te Kura Kete Aronui jbarbour@waikato.ac.nz
The University of Waikato www.waikato.ac.nz
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton 3240
New Zealand



Nguyen Thi Huong

Roger Barnard

Rosemary De Luca

Jonathon Ryan

Applied Linguistics

14 March 2016

Dear Huong,

Re: **FS2016-05 Oral corrective feedback in a blended learning environment: A case study of lecturer's cognition and their practices in a Vietnamese university**

Thank you for submitting an application to the FASS Human Research Ethics Committee. The Committee has reviewed your application and has identified a very small number of amendments that you may consider to strengthen your project. We are happy for your supervision team to oversee any final changes you make, and therefore offer formal approval for your research activities, including the following:

1. Semi-structured interviews (audio recorded)
2. Class room observations (audio-video recorded, but reported only in text form)
3. SR interviews (audio recorded)
4. Focus group discussions (audio recorded)
5. Narrative frame exercise (written)

We are not sure if “confidentiality” and “anonymity” are different words in Vietnamese. If possible, it would be best to alter the wording in the information sheet to signal that you will protect your participants’ rights to “privacy and confidentiality” (rather than anonymity). Please also acknowledge “the possibility that participant identities may be disclosed because of the researcher’s ongoing association with the host institution”, but reassure participants that you will make every effort “safeguard their identity and the identity of the host institution”.

The committee was troubled by the lack of student consent. We accept that there are cultural/legal differences around consent in Vietnam, and yet we felt that it was important to reconcile our two systems. Therefore, we urge you to explain your project to each student cohort, and to ensure that students understand that their language production will be fully ‘anonymised’ in the reporting of the project. If appropriate, you might prepare a brief information sheet for your students. Please discuss this thoroughly with your supervisors.

Regarding data storage, we view 5 years as a minimum period for data storage, rather than being the point at which research data should be destroyed. We recommend allowing for the possibility that you may wish to keep your research data longer.

Please send fass-ethics@waikato.ac.nz a copy of your amended application for our records.

We wish you all the best with your research.

Regards,



Julie Barbour, Chair

Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences Human Research Ethics Committee.

APPENDIX 4: EMPIRICAL STUDIES ON IMMEDIATE AND DELAYED FEEDBACK

General research foci	Source	Research foci	Participants and Context	Methods
Immediate feedback only	For meta-analyses of the empirical studies on immediate feedback, see Brown (2016); Li (2010); Lyster & Saito (2010b); Lyster, Saito, & Sato (2013); Mackey & Goo (2007); and Russell & Spada (2006)	e.g Corrective feedback types, preferences of teachers and learners toward CF types,	Various countries, both in laboratory and classroom settings	e.g., Experimental, Quasi-experimental, Case study; Classroom observation;
Delayed feedback only	Rolin- Ianziti (2010)	Description of teachers' delayed correction approaches	Four teachers; French introductory course, tertiary institution, Australia	Conversation analysis
Immediate & delayed feedback	Siyyari (2005)	The effect of implicit and delayed, explicit focus on form	60 homogeneous Iranian learners	Experimental study
	Varnosfadrani (2006)	The effect of implicit/explicit and immediate/delayed CF	56 immediate level EFL students in Iranian university and private school setting	Interviews, Individualised tests
	Quin (2014)	Timing of feedback	90 ESL learners in three private schools, Canada	Laboratory-based experimental study
	Li et all (2016)	Timing of feedback	120 EFL learners at a Chinese school	Experimental study
	Rahimi & Dasjerdi (2012)	Learners' level of anxiety, Immediate and delayed feedback, complexity, fluency and accuracy	20 students from one English language institute in Isfahan, Irean	Questionnaire, Experimental
	Shabani & Safari (2016)	Anxiety role, immediate vs delayed correction feedback	100 Iranian EFL learners in an English language institute, Iran	Questionnaire
	Nakata (2014)	identify the optimal feedback timing for L2 vocabulary learning	98 Japanese college students	Experimental

APPENDIX 5: RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDIES OF TEACHER COGNITION AND PRACTICES IN RELATION TO OCF

Source	Interviews	Questionnaire	Observation	Journals	Stimulated recall	Documents	Narrative	Focus group	Field notes
Agudo (2014)		√							
Ahangari & Amirzadeh (2011)						Classroom recording, a TOEFL Proficiency test			
Fajriah (2018)	√	√							
Farahani and Salajegheh (2015)		√							
Firwana (2011)	√	√						√	
Garcia-Ponce and Mora-Pablo (2017)	√					Recorded classroom interactions		√	
Gómez Argüelles, Hernández Méndez, and Perales Escudero (2019)	√								
Junqueira & Kim (2013)	√		√		√				
Kaivanpanah, Alavi and Sepehrinia (2015)	√	√							
Kamiya (2016)	√		√						
Kartchava, Gatbonton, Ammar, and Trofimovich (2018)		√	√						
Lee (2013)	√	√	√						
Méndez and Cruz (2012)	√	√							
Mori (2011)	√		√			Documents			
Motlagh (2015)		√							
Ölmez-Öztürk (2016)	√	√	√						
Ozmen & Aydin (2015)		√				Situations for error correction			
Öztürk (2016)			√		√				
Pouriran and Mukundan (2012)						Audio/video-recorded lessons			
Rahimi and Zhang (2015)	√	√							
Roothoof and Breeze (2016)		√							
Roothoof (2014)		√	√						
Sepehrinia and Mehdizadeh (2018)	√		√						
Tomezyk (2013)		√							
Ülgü, Sari and Griffiths (2013)	√	√							
Uysal and Aydin (2017)	√	√				Reflections, essay papers			
	15	17	10	0	2		0	2	0

APPENDIX 6: GUIDELINES FOR INITIAL SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS

Guidelines for Initial Semi-structured Interviews

Background information

1. What is your highest qualification?
2. How long have you been teaching English at this university?
3. Have you been undertaking any other tasks apart from teaching?

Lecturers' beliefs

4. What do you think about the importance of grammatical accuracy?
5. What do you think about communicative language teaching in BL environment?
6. In your point of view, how should grammatical errors be corrected?
7. In your opinion, should grammatical errors in communicative group work be corrected? Why or why not?
8. When do you think grammatical errors during communicative group work should be corrected?
9. Which types of grammatical errors in group work do you think should be corrected?
10. How does students' language proficiency affect your ways in giving corrective feedback?
11. How do students' levels of motivation influence your decision when giving corrective feedback?

(Adapted from Hendrickson, 1978)

APPENDIX 7: OBSERVATION SHEET

Observation sheet

Lecturer:Class:..... No of students:

Date:Time: Lesson:

Skill/Language Focus:Room No:

General description of classroom facilities:

.....

.....

.....

Abbreviations for types of CF:

Explicit correction	Recast	Clarification request	Metalinguistic feedback	Elicitation	Repetition
Ex	Re	Cl	Me	El	Re

Positive attitude: +

Negative attitude: -

Body language: Y and N (No)

	Time	Types of CF	Lecturer	Students	Notes
Key episode 1					
Key episode 2					
Key episode 3					
Key episode 4					
Key episode 5					
Key episode 6					
Key episode 7					
Key episode 8					
Key episode 9					
Key episode 10					

APPENDIX 8: A SAMPLE OF OBSERVATION NOTES

 INDUSTRIAL UNIVERSITY OF HOCHIMINH CITY

Mo Tu We Th Fr Sa Su DATE: PAGE:

10:15 sv đờ sai từ advertise.

- làm theo nhóm (giao g của cô)
- sv 1 bàn đờ 1 bàn trả lời
- one-to-one interaction.
- sv đờ 1 từ -

→ em muốn thay đổi gì ở hoạt động này?
(các tiếng sai có s' vật chết).

- chỉ có 1 số sv ở bàn đờ hoặc tác với các bàn ở phía trên.

⇒ các em ở dưới chưa

⇒ Activity 6:

- làm theo cặp,
- đưa instruction = TV, sv hiểu.
- sv nói bằng TV ít, chủ yếu nói = T. Anh
- rất tập trung vào bài học theo ngữ cảnh ghi đi sv tự tích cực với nhau ⇒ Vì sao

17:45. deliver delivery → tại sao?

APPENDIX 9: GUIDELINE FOR STIMULATED RECALLS

Stimulated Recall Instructions:

What we're going to do now is watch the extracts from the video recording of your lesson. We are interested in what you were thinking at the time. We can see what you were doing, but we don't know why you were doing it then. So what I'd like you to do is tell me what was in your mind, not what you think about it now

Some of the questions may be:

Here/at this point/right then, what were you thinking?

At that point, can you tell me what you were thinking?

I see you're laughing/looking confused/saying something there, what were you thinking?

(Adapted from Gass & Mackey, 2000, p. 154; Ryan & Gass, 2012)

APPENDIX 10: THE SCHEDULES FOR ACTUAL INTERVIEWS, CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS

CO: Classroom observation

PLD: Stimulated recall

Teacher 1	14/9/2016 F2F interview (56')	10/10/2016 CO1: 2h10-3h50 PLD1: 1h30-1h50 (22m')	11/10/2016 CO2: 2h10-3h50 PLD2: 12/10/2016 9h30-10h08 Lesson transcripts (38m') via Facebook messenger	17/10/2016 CO3: 2h10-3h50 PLD2: 18/10/2016 9h30-10h17 (47')	18/10/2016 CO4: 2h10-3h50 PLD4:19/10/2018 9h20-9h45 (25'39)
Teacher 2	28/9/2016 F2F interview (1h11'6)	1/10/2016 CO1: 8h45-10h20 PLD1: 11h15-12h05 (48'34)			
Teacher 3	F2F interview 12/9/2016	04/10/2016 CO1: 8h45-10h20 PLD1: 11h-11h30 (28')	10/10/2016 CO2: 8h45-10h20 PLD2: 11h-12h04 (1h04)		
Teacher 4	E-Interviewing	13/9/2016 CO1: 7h50-9h30 PLD1:13/9/2016 (10:30- 11h15'56) (45'56)	20/9/2016 CO2: 7h50-9h30 PLD2: 20/9/2016 (10:40-11h18) (38'18)	27/9/2016 CO3: 7h50-9h30 PLD3: 4/10/2016 (10h30-11h03) (33'29) Lesson transcripts	
Teacher 5	Instant messaging (15/9/2016) (2h54'-3h58')	16/9/2016 CO1: 9h30-10h20 PLD1: 17/9/2016 (11h45-12h18) (33')	17/9/2016 CO2: 9h30-10h20 PLD2: 11h15-11h45 (30')	29/10/2016 CO3: 9h30-10h20 PLD3:11h15-11h48 (33')	
Teacher 6	F2F interview (16/9/2016)	CO2: 28/10/2016 (8h45-10h20) PLD1: 1h30-2h30 (53'59)			

APPENDIX 11: LESSON TRANSCRIPTS

Lesson transcripts:

Episode 1:

Listen to Hoa talking about her problems at university. So now, answer my question. What problems does she have? What problems does she have? Nguyen you haven't listened to her, all right? You haven't listened to her. Is it right? So the first thing, the first thing is one of the subjects, one of the subjects is difficult for her not with me. Difficult for me hoặc it is difficult for me not with me. Ok?
Tại sao chị lại quyết định sửa lỗi này?

Episode 2:

Goods morning là không có, không có s. Good morning. Nhắc lại Good morning.
*Sinh viên thường mắc lỗi không có ending sound và em tin là chị sửa rất nhiều.
Theo chị, tại sao sinh viên vẫn mắc lỗi này ạ?*

Episode 3:

Spend time các em muốn dành thời gian làm gì, spend time V-ing chứ không phải to-verb được. Ví dụ như là she said that I spend more time to learn. Cái môn khó thế thì làm sao ạ, bạn ấy dành nhiều thời gian học môn đó. Thay vì đó mình nói tôi dành thời gian để học môn đó I spend more time learning that subject, learning spend time cộng với V-ing. Có nhiều vấn đề thiếu tiền thì phải đi làm thêm đúng không, khó thì phải học nhiều hơn, đó là cách giải quyết. Tuy nhiên nó chưa được rõ ràng. Các bạn có làm nhưng cô thực sự chưa hài lòng
Chị mong sinh viên đạt mục tiêu gì khi làm hoạt động này

Episode 4:

Thank you. Vừa rồi Ninh có nhớ Ninh đọc từ thảo luận là gì không Ninh nhỉ?
(0.1) Ninh do you remember how you read the word 'thảo luận'?
À /dɪ'skɔs/ vậy từ /dɪ'skɔs/ bạn đọc như vậy đúng không cả lớp? Ah /dɪ'skɔs/ so the word /dɪ'skɔs/ did your friend read the word correctly the whole class?
Chị nghĩ gì khi yêu cầu sinh viên tự nhận ra lỗi và yêu cầu cả lớp nhận xét

Episode 5:

Student: I'm afraid I can't manage (SV đọc sai từ này) on Tuesday.

You: manage, manage

Student: manage

Student: Could we arrange another time?

(SV phát âm sai từ arrange)

Teacher: Yes, sit down, please.

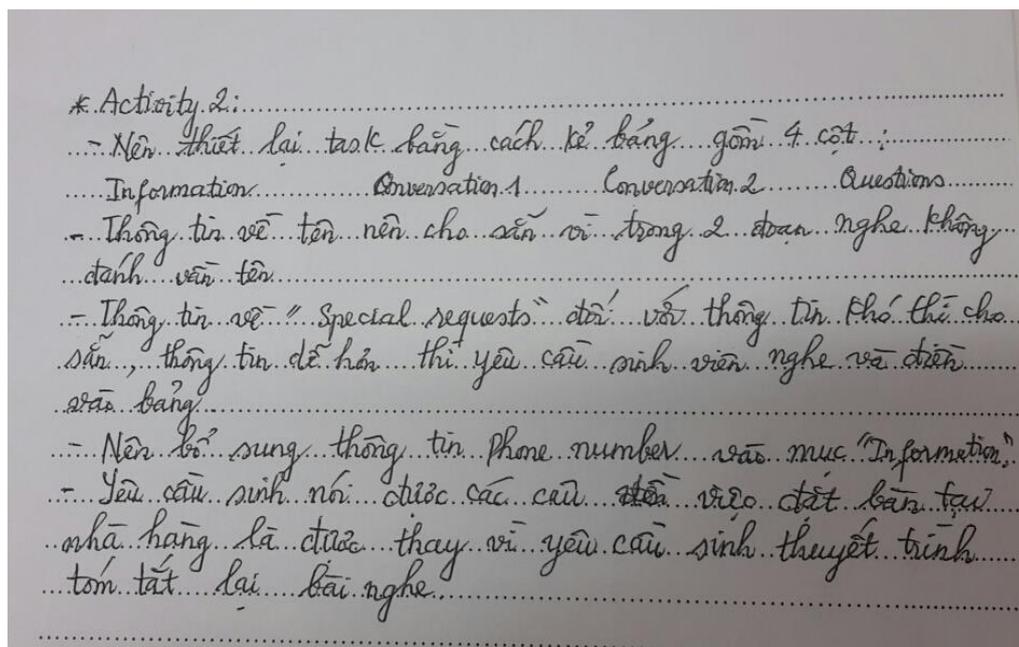
Tại sao chị không sửa khi sinh viên phát âm sai từ arrange

APPENDIX 12: GUIDELINES FOR FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

Interview themes

1. How to help students improve their grammar in the F2F environment
2. When to give OCF
3. Factors affect lecturers' decisions to correct students' errors
4. Problems encountered when giving OCF
5. Suggestions to solve the problems

APPENDIX 13: A SAMPLE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT DATA



(Translation)

Activity 2:

- Should be redesigned by inserting a 4-column table
Information Question 1 Question 2 Question
- Information about names should be given as names are not spelled in the listening recording
- Challenging items in "Special requests" should be provided, to less challenging ones, ask students to listen and fill in the table
- More information is needed to phone number in "information number" Section
- It is enough to require students to be able to order a table at a restaurant; instead of asking them to make a presentation about the summary of the listening

APPENDIX 14: NARRATIVE FRAMES IN ENGLISH

The other day I corrected my students' errors in a.....lesson.

I found that

.....

I was able to

.....

When I corrected my students' errors, I.....

.....

I notice that.....

.....

However, some students.....

.....

Maybe.....

.....

The most unforgettable episode was

.....

This is because

.....

.....

.....

(Adapted from Barkhuizen & Wette, 2008; Nguyen, 2013)

Vietnamese translation of the narratives frames sent to the participants

Câu chuyện về sửa lỗi

Vào một ngày, tôi đã sửa lỗi cho sinh viên trong bài dạy về

.....
.....

Tôi nhận ra

.....
.....

Tôi đã có thể.....

.....
.....

Khi tôi sửa lỗi, tôi.....

.....
.....

Tôi nhận ra rằng

.....
.....

Tuy nhiên, một số sinh viên

.....
.....

Có lẽ

.....
.....

Lần sửa lỗi đáng nhớ nhất đối với tôi là.....

.....
.....

Điều này bởi vì.....

.....
.....

.....
.....

.....
.....

APPENDIX 15: A SAMPLE DATA OF NARRATIVE FRAMES

Lecturer 4:

Sent on 15/12/2017

Câu chuyện về sửa lỗi

Vào một ngày, tôi đã sửa lỗi cho sinh viên trong bài dạy về các hoạt động hàng ngày. Tôi nhận ra chủ đề bài học khá quen thuộc và hầu hết sinh viên sau khi học xong bài học đã có thể nói được về một ngày điển hình của mình. Tuy nhiên có 1 cụm từ tôi dạy buổi hôm đó làm tôi nhớ mãi. Đó là cụm từ “catch a bus”. Tôi cho sinh viên đọc các cụm từ trước khi thực hiện các hoạt động nói về những công việc hàng ngày bằng Tiếng Anh. Sau khi cả lớp đọc đồng thanh, tôi đã gọi 1 số sv sinh viên đọc lại các cụm từ. Có 1 sinh viên đã không thể phát âm được cụm từ “catch a bus” và mắc lỗi phát âm cụm từ này. Tôi đã tập trung sửa lỗi cho sv này.

Khi tôi sửa lỗi, tôi nhận ra rằng sv này không thể phát âm được cụm từ “catch a bus” vì em ấy đọc thành âm của từ “cut a bird”. Tôi đã cố gắng sửa rất nhiều cho sv này. Lúc đầu viết phiên âm của từ “catch” và sau đó viết phiên âm từ “bus”. Yêu cầu sv đọc từng từ riêng lẻ, sau đó cả cụm từ. Sau khi cho thực hành phát âm rất nhiều, sv cũng đã có tiến bộ hơn, nhưng vẫn chưa hoàn toàn chính xác. Tôi nhận ra rằng em sv này cũng có 1 chút vấn đề về cảm âm kém vì em không thể bắt chước được âm của cụm từ này. Tuy nhiên, một số sinh viên khác vẫn phát âm chính xác cụm từ này, cho dù các em đó chưa hiểu thực sự về hệ thống phiên âm.

Đây là lần sửa lỗi đáng nhớ nhất đối với tôi là vì khi tôi đang cố gắng sửa cho sinh viên đọc sai cụm từ “catch a bus” thì tôi nghe thấy 1 sinh viên bên cạnh nói “Trời ơi ngu quá, sao cứ đọc thành cắt chim thế hả?”. Điều này bởi vì đây là 1 cụm từ khá dễ, chỉ cần bắt chước là đọc được, giống ta bắt chước nhại lời 1 bài hát tiếng Việt. Tình huống này cũng khá buồn cười vì sv đọc thành “cut a bird” với 1 nghĩa hoàn toàn khác và hài hước trong tiếng Việt. Sau cùng tôi đã yêu cầu sv mắc lỗi về thực hành cụm từ ở nhà và yêu cầu sv bên cạnh giúp bạn thực hành phát âm cụm từ đó. Buổi học tiếp sau, tôi có kiểm tra và thấy sv đã có cải thiện đáng kể.

(English translation)

Narrative about error correction

One day, I corrected the students in the lesson about daily activities. I realized the topic of the lesson was quite familiar, and most of the students were able to talk about their typical days by the end of the lesson. However, there was one phrase that I always remember: "catch a bus". I asked students read this phrase before carrying out daily speaking tasks in English. After the class had read it in chorus, I called some students to read it again. There was one student who could not pronounce it correctly. I focused on correcting this student's pronunciation.

When I fixed the error, I realized that the student couldn't pronounce the phrase correctly because his pronunciation sounded like "cut a bird". I tried to correct this student many times. At first I wrote the phonetic transcription of the word "catch" and then of the word "bus". I asked him to read each word individually, then the whole phrase. After a lot of practice, he made some improvement, but his pronunciation was not completely accurate yet. I realized that this student had a problem with comprehending the sound because he could not repeat this phrase accurately. However, some other students still pronounced this phrase correctly, even though they had not really understood the phonetic system.

This is the most memorable episode for me because when I was trying to fix the student's error in pronouncing the phrase "catch a bus", I heard a student close to me saying, "Oh god, how come you just read 'cut the bird' like that? This is a phrase, the pronunciation of which is as easy as singing after a Vietnamese song. This situation is quite funny because the phrase means completely different in Vietnamese if a student reads "cut a bird". Finally, I asked the students who made the mistake to practise the phrase further at home and ask his partners to help him. The next lesson, I checked and found that the students had improved significantly.

APPENDIX 16: ANALYSIS OF ONE UNIT IN F2F MATERIALS

The programme for Faculty B aims to improve the students' communicative skills and knowledge with reference to business themes, such as office supplies, office machinery, and types of departments, company background, workplace problems, arrangements, business plans, and company benefits. Specifically, the students would learn how to describe an ideal workplace, give direction in a company, talk about background of a company, workplace problems, future business plans or company benefits, or arrange or change an appointment. A sample of one unit in this programme can be presented as follows. However, it is noteworthy that the format is very similar to that of the book for Faculty A.

Sample of one unit in F2F materials for Faculty B

The objective of this unit is that the students will be able to talk about general information of a company. To achieve this objective, online tasks provide them with necessary language input about company description and improve their skills in reading, listening, and writing. The eight F2F tasks were to enable students to talk about a company generally. The content of the unit was retyped as exactly as the original version, which was in English.

LESSON 1

Task 1: Warm-up: Down the earth

In this task, students will come up to the front, stand in two lines, listen to the teacher say a word in Vietnamese then say it in English. The quicker student with the correct answer will come back to the seat. The other will go down the line

Task 2: What do the company do?

The students will look at the logos and say the name of all the company. They will discuss in pairs about what the companies do, where they are founded and what they produce. The students are expected to make full sentences when describing the companies. (logos are provided)

Task 3: Ask and answer questions about the company

Students will work in pairs, read the information about two companies, then ask and answer about them. Student A asks student B about Unilever while student B asks student A about Renault.

Company name	Unilever
Established in	1930
Specialised in	Food, Home, Personal Care
Head offices	Rotterdam and London

Number of subsidiaries	In 150 countries with 15 million customers
Number of employees	247,000 people in 57 countries
Annual sales	\$48,760 million

Company name	Renault
Established in	1898
Specialised in	Automobile
Head office	Paris
Number of subsidiaries	158 subsidiaries worldwide
Number of employees	132,351 people in 36 countries
Annual sales	\$ 36,336 million

Task 4:

Students will present the information about the companies in task 2 in front of the class.

LESSON 2

Task 5: Which company to buy

Students will work in groups of three with the handout given by the teacher. Student A reads the information of the company in card A. Student B reads the information of the company in card B. Student C asks the questions to find the information of the two companies, takes notes the information in his/her card. At the same time student A and B takes notes the information of the one another's company. They read the information about companies in groups, take turns to ask questions and take note while listening and reporting to the class.

Card A	
Company name	WBH Electronics
Type of company	Manufacturing
Produces	Digital radios
Based in	Binh Duong
Employees	200
Student B's company	
Company name	
Type of company	
Produces	
Based in	
Employees	

Card B	
Company name	Fast and Fresh
Type of company	Retail
Produces	Sandwiches to office workers
Based in	HCM City
Employees	45
Student A's company	
Company name	
Type of company	
Produces	
Based in	
Employees	

Card C		
Questions	Student A's company	Student B's company
1. What is the company called?		
2. What is the type of the company		
3. What does it produce?		
4. Where is the head office?		

5. How many employees does the company have ?

Task 6: Which company to buy (continued)

The FPT Group has manufacturing, retail and service businesses. Mr Truong Gia Binh, the CEO, wants to buy another business for the group. He is interested in the two companies from Task 5. He wants the students to work together to decide which company to buy

Read the information about FPT Group

Example of companies owned by FPT Group

Service companies
 Dean Research-market research company (Hanoi)
 Quick Cafe'-hamburgers and sandwiches to office workers (HCM city)

Retail companies
 Esmev Fashions- clothes retailer (Da Nang)
 Mordon Organics-chain of food shops (Hanoi)
 Electronics companies
 Victor Electronics-produces computer (Hanoi)
 Enko Trading- makes parts for digital radios (Binh Duong)

- Student C decide which company to buy and tell the class; use the suggestions to help you
- Read the advice of an expert. Does he have the same decision as you

Suggestions:

- FPT has a/doesn't have a..
- I prefer...because....
- I think it's a good idea for FPT to buy....because ...

Task 7: Compare two companies

Student A reads the information of Coca Cola. Student B reads the information of Pepsi Cola. Compare two companies with the given information. Look at the table and compare Coca Cola and Pepsi (Figures of 2012).

Company	Coca Cola	Pepsi
Founded	1886	1965
Market	Worldwide	Worldwide
Headquarters	Atlanta, Georgia, U.S	Purchase, New York, U.S
Revenue	\$48.01 billion	\$66 billion
Employees	150,900	278,000

Task 8: Talk about your future company

Imagine that after leaving school you and your friends will open a company. Discuss about the company you are going to open: What will the name of the company be?

- Where will it be located?
- What product/service will it offer?
- How many employees will you hire?
- Why will you open this company?

Present to the class

Useful structures:

- Firstly, secondly, next, finally, etc.
- Moreover, in addition, besides
- We are going to offer/specialised in...

- We are going to hire..

The descriptions of tasks 1-8 can be summarized in the following table.

	Lesson 1				Lesson 2			
Description	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5	Task 6	Task 7	Task 8
Focus	F	F	F	M	M	M	M	M
Focus on form	E	E	I	I	I	I	I	I
Language predictability	P	P	P	S	P	S	S	S
Solution	Closed	Open	Open	Open	Open	Open	Open	Open

- Form=F, Meaning=F, Predetermined=P, Spontaneous=S, Explicit=E, Implicit=I

APPENDIX 17: CRITERIA FOR GIVING FEEDBACK

Assessing criteria	Rating scale									
(1) Message content	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Addressing the test questions										
Richness of ideas										
(2) Vocabulary and grammar range	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Use of appropriate words and phrases to make meaning clear										
Control of basic grammar (tenses, subject-verb agreement) and use of sentence patterns (simple and complex) to make meaning clear										
(3) Fluency and coherence	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Frequency of pauses, short and long delays										
Use of discourse organizing words, connectors (and, but, first, next, because...)										
(4) Attitude and comprehensibility	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Confidence, willingness to communicate										
Volume, Pronunciation, word stress, speech rhythm										

APPENDIX 18: EXTRACTS #2, #3, #7, & #8

Extract #2

- T5 đừng có đọc là ten million to twelve million **Việt Nam đồng** nhé, biết chưa? Cô nghe nhiều bạn đọc như thế đấy. VND, VND or you can say dollar, one thousand dollar.

Extract #3

- 01 T Hello, hello, students, students, now hello, hello. Cô cần chú ý em một chút này. Khi chúng ta nói chúng ta làm việc vào ca nào đó, chúng ta sẽ không nói là I *work dayshift*, mà nói là I work in dayshift.
- 02 Ss I work in dayshift.
- 03 T Ok. That's good. Do vậy chúng ta lưu ý cho cô. Không nói là I **work dayshift** mà nói là I work in dayshift. I work in dayshift not I **work dayshift**, right. Remember that when I go around the class I see that a lot of people, a lot of students make such mistake. Try to remember I work in dayshift. Now continue.

Extract #7

- 01 T À mà đang hỏi về đồng nghiệp của bạn thế nào. Vậy theo em với gợi ý, what và like các em sẽ hoàn thành câu hỏi như thế nào?
- 02 Ss What **is** your colleagues like?
- 03 T No, no, colleagues [...] colleagues số nhiều thì làm sao mà “is” được.
- 04 Ss xxx
- 05 T Yeah. Nếu mà chủ ngữ của chúng ta là là colleagues thì what **is**, is it ok?
- 06 Ss xxx
- 07 T Ok, what are your colleagues like? What are your colleagues like? Đồng nghiệp của bạn thế nào? Câu trả lời của các em chúng ta chuẩn bị tắt thôi. What are your colleagues like? Your answer should be short.

Extract #8

- 01 Hoa the /'twɛlti/, /'twɛlti/ (T wrote the word “twenty” on the board)
- 02 T /'twɛlti/? again, again, /'twɛlti/?
- 03 Hoa /'twenti/, /'twɛlti/
- 04 T tháng 9, tháng 9... in English
- 05 Hoa September
- 06 T (T wrote this word on the board) Do you have another way to say it? Do you have another way to say it? The...the...
- 07 Hoa /'twentiəθ/
- 08 T the /'twɛn-ti-əθ/ of...of...September (T wrote the whole phrase on the board). That's good.

Extract #10

- T Ok. Well done. Ở chỗ này /rɪ'spɒnsəbl/ not /res/. Yeah, /rɪ'spɒnsəbl/, /rɪ'spɒnsəbl/. Ok. Now move to activity 8.

APPENDIX 19: EXTRACT #11

Extract #11

T3: Thank you very much (0.2) đôi này có vẻ làm tốt hơn làm tốt hơn. Tuy nhiên có một câu mà cô thực sự chưa satisfied hài lòng với câu mà mình hỏi What are you doing now? Cái câu **what are you doing now** không phải là câu hỏi về nghề, đang hỏi về present activities. Ok. Nên mình đang muốn hỏi hiện tại đang làm gì để mình đi vào một cách tự nhiên như câu hỏi của mình ý thì mình không nên hỏi what are you doing now. Nếu hai bạn đang ngồi đây và hỏi bạn đang làm gì thế? Và mình hỏi **what are you doing now** I am reading a book I am reading in English. Nếu hỏi về nghề thì hỏi what do you do now? Vì ngay câu mở đầu của em là hello long time no see. How are you? Vì long time no see mà nên có thể mình chưa biết bạn đang làm gì và nên chẳng mình hỏi là what do you do now, not **what are you doing now**. Ok? Đoạn sau rất tốt, mỗi đoạn đầu ý của em là thế này nhưng có thể em nhầm câu hỏi, nhầm thì một chút mình nhầm thì hiện tại tiếp diễn. Dù có chữ now nhưng mình vẫn hỏi là what do you do now và bạn có thể trả lời là I am a waiter at a restaurant. Ban Nga làm rất tròn vai và cô cũng rất thích bạn Thủy ở chỗ bạn Thủy add thêm một số thông tin ở đằng sau. Ví dụ bạn Nga trả lời là dayshifts và nightshifts. Bạn nói là it's so late sau đó là số lượng hours và bạn nói là that's more than me. That's good. Chúng ta có thể add more ideas or further information after your friend says something. That is better and more interesting. Nhìn chung, in general, it's good. In general, it's good. I would like more eye contact. Now, let's move to activity 6.

APPENDIX 20: EXTRACTS #12 & #13

Extract #12

Right. Thank you. So group one choose A. Trong bài Dung cần chú ý cấu trúc cho cô **prefer than**. Người ta không dùng như vậy mà người ta dùng prefer something to something. For example, I prefer to buy company A to company B not **than** understand? Cả lớp nhớ chưa nhi? Thứ hai một số từ đọc là service /'sɜ:vɪs/ chứ không phải /'sɜ:vəɪs/. Và /'sænwɪtʃɪz/ bạn đọc không có âm đuôi các bạn nói chậm thôi. Không cần phải nói nhanh. Nhớ sửa cho cô chỗ đó. Nhớ là service /'sɜ:vɪs/ chứ không phải /'sɜ:vəɪs/. Được rồi. Nào group 1 choose company A. Now 2 (group 2)

Extract #13:

T3: Ok. Thank you. Rồi. Hai bạn có make conversation better than the first one hay không ạ? Ok. Thank you.

S1: Có

T3: Đôi này giao tiếp tốt hơn. Nhìn ít hơn. Vì ngôn ngữ bài hôm nay hơi khó tuy nhiên cô muốn các em nhớ một số câu nói của manager một số câu nói của staff. Không nhất thiết phải nhớ every word nhưng chúng ta phải nhớ key words. Trong bài vừa rồi có ai nhớ lỗi sai về phát âm của các bạn không? (0.2) Về meaning content thì ok rồi vì các em làm theo mẫu sample. Nhi có lỗi sai về they và their (0.2). Bạn Trang cần chú ý hai từ mà cô muốn remind lớp. Từ đầu tiên (She pointed at the board) chúng ta đọc không phải là /'smóthli/ đâu ạ /'smu:ðli/.

T3: yeah, /'smu:ðli/ not /'smóthli/ ok /smu:ð/. Từ thứ hai chúng ta không đọc là /'sʌpə(r)/ bữa khuya đâu. Các em có thể nhầm từ bữa khuya /'sʌpə(r)/. Từ này (She pointed at the board), chúng ta đọc là /su:'pɜ:b/.

Ss: /su:'pɜ:b/

T3: yeah /su:'pɜ:b/ not /'sʌpə(r)/. Right. Chú ý.

APPENDIX 21: EXTRACT #15

Extract #15

- 01 T Yes, yes, very good. Excellent
- 02 S1 (clap their hands)
- 03 T Duc and (0.3) Nga, right? Yes, Nga. Right. Yes. Good. Yes. Ok. Yeah. I am quite happy with, yes, your conversation and now, look at this (she pointed at the sentences on board, underlining the word 'have'). Now, Nga, do you /hævə/(She pointed at the sentence and read slowly.) She said you /hævə/. You say is that right?
- 04 S2 No
- 05 T Do you /hæv/ air conditioning? Do you /hæv/ a restaurant? Nag, is that ok? Now, say it again. Do you /hæv/. Do you /hæv/ a restaurant? (She pointed at the sentence on the board.)
- 06 Nga Do you /hæv/ a restaurant?
- 07 T Yeah. Do you /hæv/air conditioning? (She pointed at the sentence on the board.)
- 08 Nga Do you /hæv/air conditioning?
- 09 T Louder, louder. Do you /hæv/ a restaurant?
- 10 Nga Do you /hæv/a restaurant?
- 11 T Again (T pointed at the first sentence).
- 12 Nga Do you /hæv/a restaurant?
- 13 T Do you /hæv/air conditioning?
- 14 Nga Do you /hæv/air conditioning?
- 15 T Do you /hæv/, do you /hæv/, again do you /hæv/,
- 16 Nga Do you /hæv/
- 17 T Yeah, do you /hæv/ (She pointed at the board) /hæv/. *If you say /eve/, there is not /ə/ please.* Do you /hæv/ a restaurant? Do you /hæv/a restaurant? Do you /hæv/air conditioning? Ok. Now the whole class read after me do you /hæv/ a restaurant? (T pointed at the board)
- 18 Ss Do you /hæv/ a restaurant?
- 19 T Do you /hæv/ a private car park?

- 20 Ss Do you / hæv / a private car park?
- 21 T Yeah, do you / hæv / a car park?
- 22 Ss Do you / hæv / a car park?
- 23 T Do you / hæv / a restaurant?
- 24 Ss Do you / hæv / a restaurant?
- 25 T Do you / hæv / air conditioning?
- 26 Ss Do you / hæv / air conditioning?
- 27 T Right. / hæv // hæv / Practise more with your mouth at home? / hæv // hæv // hæv / I / hæv / a car, I /hæv/a doll, I /hæv/a car park right that's ok that's good (0.2) So now you understand how to make a reservation?... Practise more with your mouth at home. Now you understand how to make a reservation. After you make a telephone conversation, what do you do next?...

Extract #15 (verbatim)

- 1 T Yes, yes, very good. Excellent
- 2 S1 (clap their hands)
- 3 T Đức and (0.3) Nga, right? Yes, Nga. Right. Yes. Good. Yes. Ok. Yeah. I am quite happy with, yes, your conversation and now, look at this (she pointed at the sentences on board, underlining the word 'have'). Now, Nga, do you /hævə/ (She pointed at the sentence and read slowly) Bạn hay nói là you /hævə/. You say is that right?
- 4 S2 No
- 5 T Do you /hæv/ air conditioning? Do you /hæv/ a restaurant? Nga, is that ok? Now, say it again. Do you /hæv/. Do you /hæv/ a restaurant? (She pointed at the sentence on the board)
- 6 Nga Do you /hæv/ a restaurant?
- 7 T Yeah. Do you /hæv/air conditioning? (She pointed at the sentence on the board)
- 8 Nga Do you /hæv/air conditioning?
- 9 T Louder, louder. Bạn nói to hơn nào. Do you /hæv/a restaurant?

- 10 Nga Do you /hæv/ a restaurant?
- 11 T Again (T pointed at the first sentence).
- 12 Nga Do you /hæv/ a restaurant?
- 13 T Do you /hæv/ air conditioning?
- 14 Nga Do you /hæv/ air conditioning?
- 15 T Do you /hæv/, do you /hæv/, again do you /hæv/,
- 16 Nga Do you /hæv/
- 17 T Yeah, do you /hæv/ (She pointed at the board) /hæv/. Nếu mà đã nói /və/ thì không /ə/ nữa các bạn nhé. Do you /hæv/ a restaurant? Do you /hæv/ a restaurant? Do you /hæv/ air conditioning? Ok. Now the whole class read after me do you /hæv/ a restaurant? (T pointed at the board)
- 18 Ss Do you /hæv/ a restaurant?
- 19 T Do you /hæv/ a private car park?
- 20 Ss Do you /hæv/ a private car park?
- 21 T Yeah, do you /hæv/ a car park?
- 22 Ss Do you /hæv/ a car park?
- 23 T Do you /hæv/ a restaurant?
- 24 Ss Do you /hæv/ a restaurant?
- 25 T Do you /hæv/ air conditioning?
- 26 Ss Do you /hæv/ air conditioning?
- 27 T Right. /hæv/ /hæv/về nhà luyện miệng Practise more with your mouth at home? /hæv/ /hæv/ /hæv/ I /hæv/ a car, I /hæv/ a doll, I /hæv/ a car park right that's ok that's good (0.2) So now you understand how to make a reservation?... Practise more with your mouth at home. Now you understand how to make a reservation. After you make a telephone conversation, what do you do next?...

APPENDIX 22: EXTRACTS #17, #18, & #19

Extract #17

- 1 T Thank you. Vừa rồi Ninh có nhớ Ninh đọc từ thảo luận là gì không Ninh nhi? (0.1)
- 2 S1 /dɪ'skɔs/
- 3 T À /dɪ'skɔs/ vậy từ /dɪ'skɔs/ bạn đọc như vậy đúng không cả lớp?
- 4 S1 /dɪ'skʌs/
- 5 T Như vậy là sai đúng không ạ? Chúng ta cần đọc là /dɪ'skʌs/. Đúng không ạ? Trong câu nào trong câu gì đây ạ? Hello, Fiona, how can I meet you next week to discuss our ideas for the new software application. Ok? Ninh nhớ chưa? Ninh đọc lại cả câu xem nào? Now read the sentence again (0.4)
- 6 Ninh Hello, Fiona, how can I meet you next week to discuss our ideas for the new software application.
- 7 T Ok remember that. Ok, that's good. Thank you...

Extract #18

- 1 T Do you have any comments on her performance? S1 please (0.16) her company's name is Fast and Fresh, Fast and Fresh.
- 2 S1 Thưa cô it specialises in nhưng bạn ấy nói **it is specialise** in.
- 3 T Đúng rồi. It specialises in không có is đúng không it specialises in? It provides, offers or produces, all right? Nghĩa là động từ specialise rồi chúng ta không thêm to be vào nữa. Cả lớp rõ chưa nhi? Không thể nói **it is specialises** in được mà phải nói it specialises in hoặc it makes offers or provides. Cả lớp rõ chưa nhi? Thank you back to your seat

Extract #19

- 1 T Thank you. Các bạn có nhận ra bạn Liên mắc lỗi gì không? Yes,

- good. You please
- 2 S1 **I am too busy to answer your call.**
- 3 T Very good. **I am too busy to answer your call.** Chúng ta đang nói thì quá khứ. Vậy bạn sửa thế nào?
- 4 Lien [I was too busy to
- 5 T I was too busy to answer (0.2) your call]. Nhắc lại cho cô cả câu (turned to Lien)
- 6 Lien I was too busy to answer your call.
- 7 T Thank you thank you. Back to your seat.

APPENDIX 23: EXTRACT #20

Extract #20 (verbatim)

- 1 T Thank you. Hai bạn làm chưa được. Bạn Dũng vừa rồi rất là tốt trong việc nhận ra lỗi của bạn mình. Nhưng bạn Dũng... (0.2).
Các bạn có nhận ra lỗi của bạn Dũng không nhỉ? (0.1)
- 2 S1 my /'bɜ:tdeɪ/
- 3 T My birthday /'bɜ:θdeɪ/. Còn gì nữa không nhỉ? Chắc chắn là còn gì đó đúng không?
- 4 S1 **What's**
- 5 T Hà?
- 6 S1 [What's
- 7 T What's] what's the problem? Có dùng hiện tại không cả lớp?
What gì? (0.1)
- 8 S1 [What was the problem?
- 9 T What was the problem] Bạn Tú thì sao ạ? Bạn ấy nói được chưa?
- 10 S1 **is**
- 11 T À **is** broken. Ok. Là dùng hiện tại. Các em nhớ dùng quá khứ cho last birthday or last week. Nào hai bạn làm lại cho cô nào.
À **is** broken. Ok.

APPENDIX 24: EXTRACT #21

Extract #21:

- 01 T Thanks. *Do you have any comments on Anh's performance? Anh talked about her problems last week. Does anyone have any comments? Good, very good. Phuong, please*
- 02 Phuong *She did not put the verb in the correct tense.*
- 03 T [She] did not put the verb in the correct tense. What's particular verb, please?
- 04 S1 /i:t/
- 05 T /i:t/. That's right /eit/. *She did not put the verb in the past anything else? /i:t/.*
- 06 S1 **give** him
- 07 T *Uh give him how did she read (it) what did she say she still put the verb in the past tense, but she read it like /gä/ him, how should it be read?*
- 08 S1 /geiv/
- 09 T /geiv/. *Yes, very good, come on.*
- 10 S2 **make**
- 11 T *Uh **Make**, she did not put the verb make in the correct form. As it is in the past, how do you put it in the correct form, Anh?*
- 12 Anh made
- 13 T Made, is that right? I made my boss angry. Understand? Make not **make** very good. Anything else the, whole class. Anything else? Thank you. Good.
- 14 S3 The word /ə'la:m/clock, she read it as /ä'la:m/ clock.
- 15 T /ə'la:m/ clock, *do not read /ä'la:m/, is that right? Very good, continue. Anything else?*
- 16 S4 *I see that if she said last week so for the other days she should not say **last** Monday, **last** Tuesday*
- 17 T *Yes. If it is last week, there is no need to say last Monday it should be on Monday, is that right? On Tuesday on Saturday, are you clear, the whole class? Anh had another*

problem, it is last Wednesday. She did not mention the first part, that is problem but she talked about its cause already that is I missed a meeting. But she did not mention it; Instead, she immediately said I was sick and I had to stay at home. Did the whole class hear that? I heard it very clearly.

- 18 S5 **Forget**
- 19 T She forgot. *That's right, she forgot. Or the last sentence last Saturday I was late she said it I were. It means she misused singular and plural. Is the whole class clear? We remember the error. Anh, do you remember the error to repair at home? At home, self-repair; repeat and self practice.*
- 20 Anh Yes
- 21 T Done. Thank you back to your seat.

Extract #21 (Verbatim)

- 1 T Thanks. Nào, có bạn nào nhận xét về bài của bạn Anh không? Bạn Anh nói về những vấn đề bạn ấy gặp phải tuần trước. Có bạn nào nhận xét. Good very good. Phương nào
- 2 Phuong Bạn không chia động từ.
- 3 T À không chia động từ. Cụ thể động từ nào? [She]did not put the verb in the correct tense. What particular verb, please?
- 4 S1 /i:t/
- 5 T /i:t/. Đúng rồi /et/ bạn không chia động từ ở quá khứ còn gì nữa không em? /i:t/.
- 6 S1 **give** him
- 7 T À **give** him bạn đọc là gì bạn nói là gì bạn vẫn chia ở quá khứ nhưng bạn đọc là /gă/ him. Phải đọc là gì?
- 8 S1 /gerv/
- 9 T /gerv/ rồi tốt rồi tiếp tục đi.
- 10 S2 **make**
- 11 T À **make** bạn ấy không chia động từ make. Bởi vì trong quá khứ phải chia là gì Anh nhỉ?

- 12 Anh made
- 13 T Made đúng không I made my boss angry. Understand? Made not make very good. Anything else, the whole class. Còn gì nữa không nhỉ. Thank you. Good.
- 14 S3 Từ /ə'la:m/clock bạn đọc là /ä'la:m/ clock.
- 15 T /ə'la:m/ clock, không đọc là /ä'la:m/ đúng không ạ? Very good, tiếp tục. Anything else?
- 16 S4 Với lại là em thấy nếu bạn nói là last week rồi thì những ngày còn lại bạn không nên nói là **last** Monday, **last** Tuesday
- 17 T Đúng rồi. Nếu là last week rồi thì không còn last Monday, mà là on Monday đúng không ạ? On Tuesday on Saturday cả lớp nắm được chưa? Bạn Anh còn có một chỗ nữa là last Wednesday. Bạn ấy chưa có vé đầu tiên là problem bạn đã nói nguyên nhân rồi là I missed a meeting. Nhưng bạn ấy chưa nói đến mà nói luôn là I was sick and I had to stay at home. Cả lớp có nghe rõ phần đấy không ạ? Cô nghe rất là rõ
- 18 S5 Quên
- 19 T Bạn ấy quên đúng rồi, bạn ấy quên. Hoặc là câu cuối cùng last Saturday I was late bạn ấy đọc là I **were**. Nghĩa là nhầm ngôi số ít số nhiều. Cả lớp nắm được chưa? Chúng ta chú ý cho cô những lỗi sai. Bạn Anh đã nhớ những lỗi sai để về sửa chưa ạ? Về nhà tự sửa và nói lại tự thực hành nhé. She forgot.
- 20 Anh Vâng ạ
- 21 T Rồi. Thank you back to your seat.

APPENDIX 25: EXTRACT #22

Extract #22

- 01 T Thank you. That's good. Have you got any comments? (0.2)
First, the content of the conversation? Is it enough
information? Is it enough information?
- 02 S1 Yes.
- 03 T How about grammar and vocabulary? About grammar and
vocabulary? (0.2) What tense? What tense does she use? xxx
What tense does she use? What tense?
- 04 S1 Simple
- 05 T Simple? Simple (0.3). For example, what question what
question did she use when she asked about party size? (0.2)
What question? (0.2) What question?
- 06 S1 [How many people would you like the reservation for?
- 07 T How many people would you like the reservation for?] Right.
So what tense here? (0.1) What structure? (0.6). *Which tense or
which structure did she use in that sentence?* How many
people or how many person?
- 08 Ss People
- 09 T People. Right (0.2) *Which structure did she use in the sentence
how many people?*
- 10 Ss Would you like
- 11 T *Is that right? Is that sentence fine? The next question?* The
next question about the person who make the reservation?
- 12 Ss xxx
- 13 T Can you tell me your name? Right. What question for phone
number?
- 14 Ss Could you tell me your phone number please?
- 15 T Could you tell me your ...
- 16 Ss [phone number]
- 17 T [Phone number] please? Right. How about special request?
What question?
- 18 Ss Do you have any other requests?

- 19 T Do you have any other requests? *Therefore, let's find out where the questions she used were from?*
- 20 S1 *In the book*
- 21 T *In the book, (it is) similar to the sample, isn't it? So in terms of grammar, did she use the right tense and structures to ask for information?*
- 22 Ss *Yes*
- 23 T *Are all the vocabulary related to the content of the lesson?*
- 24 Ss *Yes*
- 25 T *Now. Now the third criterion, fluency? Are they confident enough? Are they confident enough?*
- 26 Ss *Yes*
- 27 T *Yes or No?*
- 28 Ss *Yes*
- 29 T *All right. And the last one about pronunciation? Pronunciation. Do you have any words, which have different pronunciation with you? (0.3) The first one. The first word is...*
- 30 Ss */ə'vaɪləbl/*
- 31 T */ə'vaɪləbl/, right. Can you say it again a<vai>lable or ...*
- 32 Ss */ə'veɪləbl/*
- 33 T */ə'veɪləbl/. That's good. What else? What else? Do you find any other words except the word available (0.2)?*
- 34 Ss xxx
- 35 T *That's good. Tell me when you want to say the date and time, for example, September 24th in English, September 24th*
- 36 Ss **the twenty four**
- 37 T *the (0.2)*
- 38 Ss **the twenty four**
- 39 T *the...twenty...*
- 40 Ss **twenty four**
- 41 T *the twenty fourth*
- 42 Ss **twenty four**
- 43 T *How do you read September 24th*

- 44 Ss The twenty [fourth/**four**] of September
- 45 T *How precisely do you read it? Can you say it again?*
- 46 Ss Twenty.
- 47 T *How did you read it a while ago? (She pointed at one student).*
- 48 S1 xxx
- 49 T *A while ago she read (the phrase) September 24th, didn't she? Hong, can you read September 24th again?*
- 50 Hong **the /twelvti / /twelvti /twelvti/** (T listened to Hong and wrote the word “twenty” on the board
- 51 T **/twelvti /** again again /'twenti/
- 52 Ss /'twenti/ /'twenti/
- 53 T *September, September/// in English*
- 54 S2 September
- 55 T Do you have another way to say it? Thank you (to H); do you have another way to say it? The...the...
- 56 S3 **/twentie/**
- 57 T the /'twen-ti-əθ/
- 58 Ss [The twentieth of September]
- 59 T [The twentieth of September] (T wrote the whole phrase on the board). That's good. So which way is correct, the first one or the second one? (T pointed at the board two phrases “the twenty” and “the twentieth of September”)
- 60 Ss the second one
- 61 T How do you pronounce it? (T one hand pointed at the first way)
- 62 Ss the /'twenti/
- 63 T And this one?
- 64 Ss the /'twentiəθ/
- 65 T Read after me, the /'twentiəθ/ (She wrote the transcription of this sound on the board)
- 66 Ss the /'twentiəθ/
- 67 T /'twentiəθ/
- 68 Ss /'twentiəθ/

- 69 T (She pointed at the ending of the word twentieth) *How do you pronounce the ending part of the word?*
- 70 Ss /əθ/
- 71 T /əθ/
- 72 Ss /əθ/
- 73 T The /'twentiəθ/. *Twenty first twenty first, how do we read it?*
- 74 Ss The twenty first
- 75 T The twenty first. Right? /'twentiəθ/ here? /'twentiəθ/ here?
- 76 Ss No
- 77 T No. Thank you. That's good. *You remember the way to read dates for me. So the content of the first role play when Li played as student A is quite good, isn't it? She delivered the right content. She achieved good grammar with right structures in the questions and responses. She was quite confident. She paid attention to her roles and did not refer to the book much. And, finally, the last criterion. Pay attention to some words you commonly make mistakes. Some words like available (0.2)*
- 78 Ss /ə'veɪləbl/
- 79 T *And remember the way to read dates and months. Do we use ordinal or cardinal numbers here?*
- 80 Ss *Ordinal numbers.*
- 81 T *And before ordinal numbers which word do we use?*
- 82 Ss The
- 83 T *After the ordinal number, use... (0.2)*
- 84 Ss Of
- 85 T T: Right. Good. So now...

Extract #22: Verbatim

- 1 T Thank you. That's good. Have you got any comments? (0.2)
First, the content of the conversation? Is it enough information? Is it enough information?

- 2 S1 Yes.
- 3 T How about grammar and vocabulary? About grammar and vocabulary? (0.2) What tense? What tense does she use? xxx
What tense does she use? What tense?
- 4 S1 Simple
- 5 T Simple? Simple (0.3). For example, what question what question did she use when she asked about party size? (0.2)
What question? (0.2) What question?
- 6 S1 [How many people would you like the reservation for?
- 7 T How many people would you like the reservation for?]
Right. So what tense here? (0.1) What structure? (0.6). Bạn sử dụng thì nào hay cấu trúc nào trong câu đó? How many people or how many person?
- 8 Ss People
- 9 T People. Right (0.2) Bạn sử dụng cấu trúc nào trong câu how many people?
- 10 Ss Would you like
- 11 T Được chưa? Câu hỏi đó được chưa? Câu hỏi tiếp theo? The next question about the person who make the reservation?
- 12 Ss xxx
- 13 T Can you tell me your name? Right. What question for phone number?
- 14 Ss Could you tell me your phone number please?
- 15 T Could you tell me your ...
- 16 Ss [phone number]
- 17 T [phone number] please? Right. How about special request? What question?
- 18 Ss Do you have any other requests?
- 19 T Do you have any other requests? Vậy chúng ta nhận xét bạn đang sử dụng tất cả các câu hỏi ở đâu?
- 20 S1 Trong sách
- 21 T Trong sách, tương tự bài mẫu, đúng không? Vậy về ngữ pháp, bạn đã sử dụng đúng thì hay đúng cấu trúc để hỏi thông tin

- chưa ạ?
- 22 Ss Rồi
- 23 T Các từ vựng có hướng đến nội dung của bài không?
- 24 Ss Có
- 25 T Rồi. Bây giờ tiêu chí thứ ba, fluency? Fluency? Are they confident enough? Are they confident enough?
- 26 Ss Yes
- 27 T Yes or No?
- 28 Ss Yes
- 29 T All right. And the last one about pronunciation? Pronunciation. Do you have any words, which have different pronunciation with you? (0.3) The first one. The first word is...
- 30 Ss /ə'vaɪəbl/
- 31 T /ə'vaɪəbl/, right. Can you say it again a<vai>lable or ...
- 32 Ss /ə'veɪəbl/
- 33 T /ə'veɪəbl/. That's good. What else? What else? Em tìm được từ nào khác nữa không ngoại trừ từ available? (0.2)
- 34 Ss xxx
- 35 T That's good. Tell me when you want to say the date and time, for example, 24 tháng 9 in English, 24 tháng 9
- 36 Ss **the twenty four**
- 37 T the (0.2)
- 38 Ss **The twenty four**
- 39 T the..twenty..
- 40 Ss **twenty four**
- 41 T hai mươi tư ạ
- 42 Ss twenty four
- 43 T Hai mươi tư tháng 9 mình sẽ đọc là gì ạ?
- 44 Ss The twenty [fourth/four] of September
- 45 T Chính xác đọc là gì ạ? Can you say it again?
- 46 Ss twenty..
- 47 T Vừa nãy em đọc từ đó là gì? (She pointed at one student).
- 48 S1 xxx

- 49 T Vừa nãy bạn đọc là ngày 20 tháng 9 đúng không ạ? Hồng nào nói lại ngày 20 tháng 9 là gì?
- 50 Hong **the /twelvti / /twelvti/ /twelvti/** (T listened to Hong and wrote the word “twenty” on the board
- 51 T **/twelvti /** again again /'twenti/
- 52 Ss /'twenti/ /'twenti/
- 53 T tháng 9, tháng 9 (0.3) in English
- 54 S2 September
- 55 T Do you have another way to say it? Thank you (to H), do you have another way to say it? The...the...
- 56 S3 **/twentie/**
- 57 T the /'twen-ti-əθ/
- 58 Ss [The twentieth of September]
- 59 T [The twentieth of September] (T wrote the whole phrase on the board). That's good. So which way is correct, the first one or the second one? (T pointed at the board two phrases “the twenty” and “the twentieth of September”)
- 60 Ss the second one
- 61 T How do you pronounce it? (T one hand pointed at the first way)
- 62 Ss the /'twenti/
- 63 T and this one?
- 64 Ss the /'twentiəθ/
- 65 T Read after me, the /'twentiəθ/ (She wrote the transcription of this sound on the board)
- 66 Ss the /'twentiəθ/
- 67 T /'twentiəθ/
- 68 Ss /'twentiəθ/
- 69 T Cái đuôi này chúng ta phát âm là gì (She pointed at the ending of the word twentieth)
- 70 Ss /əθ/
- 71 T /əθ/
- 72 Ss /əθ/

- 73 T The /'twentiəθ/. Hai mốt, hai mốt, chúng ta đọc thế nào?
- 74 Ss The twenty first
- 75 T The twenty first. Right? /'twentiəθ/ here? /'twentiəθ/ here?
- 76 Ss No
- 77 T No. Thank you. That's good. Chúng ta nhớ cách nói ngày tháng cho cô. Vậy nội dung của bài đầu tiên khi Li đóng vai A tương đối ổn đúng không ạ. Bạn đã đảm bảo nội dung của bài. Ngữ pháp bạn đã đạt được rồi dùng đúng mẫu câu hỏi và trả lời. Bạn đã khá là tự tin. Bạn đã chú ý vào bài của mình và không dùng sách nhiều. Và cuối cùng, tiêu chí cuối cùng. Để ý cho cô một số từ mà chúng ta hay mắc lỗi. Những từ như từ sẵn có (0.2)
- 78 Ss /ə'veiləbl/
- 79 T Và nhớ cách đọc ngày tháng. Chúng ta dùng số thứ tự hay số đếm ở đây?
- 80 Ss Số thứ tự ạ.
- 81 T Và nhớ trước số thứ tự dùng gì ạ?
- 82 Ss The
- 83 T Sau số thứ tự dùng... (0.2)
- 84 Ss Of
- 85 T T: Right. Good. So now...

APPENDIX 26: EXTRACT #23

Extract #23

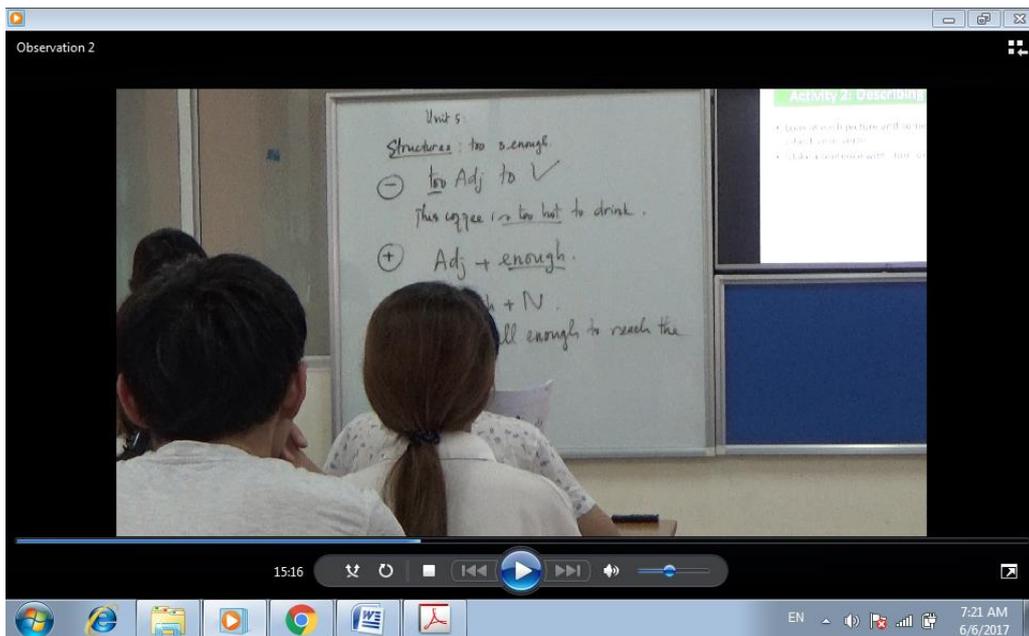
The following episode was an example of pre-emptive focus on grammar before the students worked in groups. In the activity, the students were asked to make a sentence with *too* and *enough* by describing the pictures using come clues given by the lecturer. Before the activity, Teacher 4 said:

1. T: please tell me the use of *too* and *enough*. Một bạn nói cho cô cách dùng của *too* và *enough* *One student tells me the use of too and enough*. Structure-*too-enough*. It is negative, quá không thể. Nhớ nhé rất nhiều người nói cà phê quá nóng để uống. Quá nóng thì làm sao để uống được. Chúng ta rất rõ phần này, với *too* luôn là nghĩa phủ định negative meaning. Nhớ chưa? Ở đây bản thân trong đó có từ *can't*, không thể, người ta không nói rõ nhưng mình phải hiểu đây là nghĩa phủ định. Rõ chưa nào? Rất nhiều bạn nói là cà phê quá nóng để uống, đúng không ạ. Trời quá lạnh để đi bơi, làm sao quá lạnh để đi bơi được. Vậy quá lạnh không thể bơi. Nhớ nhé, quá không thể. Chúng ta nhớ cho cô này quá chầm chầm chầm không thể làm gì, nhớ chưa nào. Đây các bạn nhớ cho cô, for example, the-coffee-is-too-hot-to-drink. Nhưng ngược lại *enough* đủ để làm gì mang tính khẳng định. Nhưng nếu không đủ các bạn dùng gì? *It is negative, too much so it's impossible. Remember that many people say (mean) the coffee is too hot so it can be drunk. If it is too hot, how can it be drunk. We need to be clear about this, too has negative meaning. Remember? Here the sentence itself has the meaning can't, impossible, people do not say it explicitly but we need to understand that it is negative. Be clearer? Many of you say (mean) the coffee is too hot so it can be drunk, don't you? Or it is too cold so they can go swimming, how can you go swimming when it is cold. So it is too cold to swim. Remember, too much, impossible. You all remember for me dot dot dot to do something, remember. So remember for me. The- coffee -is -too -hot- to- drink. On the*

contrary, enough means sufficient to do something it has positive meaning. How do you say when you mean not sufficient?

2. Ss: not enough
3. T: Enough đứng ở đâu nhỉ? *Where is enough?*
4. Ss: Sau tính từ *after adjective*
5. T: Đủ để làm gì mang tính khẳng định. Còn đối với danh từ, enough đứng ở đâu nhỉ *Sufficient to do something, it has positive. In terms of nouns, where is enough?*
6. Ss: Trước danh từ *before nouns*
7. T: enough-noun
8. T: Đúng rồi. Bài này chủ yếu too enough đi với tính từ đủ để làm gì. For example, cô ấy đủ cao để với tới giá sách nói như thế nào? Cô ấy đủ cao that's right. *This lesson is mainly about too and enough followed an adjective to do something. For example, she is tall enough to reach the book shelf, how do you say? She is tall...*
9. Ss: She is tall...
10. T: She is//she is tall enough để với tới to reach the window, understand, reach là với tới, cả lớp rõ chưa nhỉ. Nói lại câu vừa rồi *She is//she is tall enough to reach the window, to reach the window, understand, reach means getting close to something, are you clear the whole class? Say that sentence again*
11. T & SS: She-is-tall-enough-to-reach-the-window, cả lớp nắm được chưa *Are you clear the whole class?*

While pre-empting, the lecture used the whiteboard to demonstrate the structure which was screenshot as below:



APPENDIX 27: ETHIC BOOK CHAPTER

Oral corrective feedback: Ethical issues in researching Vietnamese lecturers' beliefs and practices

HUONG THI NGUYEN

Introduction

The study on which this chapter was based focussed on teachers' beliefs and their practices in giving oral corrective feedback (OCF) in a BL environment in the Vietnamese university where I was, and still am, employed as a lecturer. BL is an innovation recently introduced across the university and has been operationalised as a combination of structured online language learning and face-to-face interaction intended to practise and consolidate the new learning. The lecturers were expected to spend little or no time in class teaching language knowledge and skills and more time improving communicative competence with their students. This was a radical shift of learner and teacher roles, as previously the teachers spent much classroom time explicitly teaching language patterns and developing relevant skills.

This table demonstrates the data collection procedures in which the participants were involved.

Table 4.1 Data collection procedures

Procedures	<i>Each participant</i>
An initial semi-structured interview	answered open-ended questions for about an hour
Three 90-minute classroom observations	was observed (video and audio recorded) while teaching their regular (90-minute) lessons
Three post lesson discussions (PLDs) following each of the observed lessons	recalled their thoughts while viewing their teaching for about an hour
A focus group discussion (at the end of the data collection period)	shared their opinions with other colleagues for about an hour

A narrative frame (at the end of the researcher's fieldwork)	completed a narrative following sentence starter prompts
--	--

In the three sections which follow, I have adapted Farrell's (2015) cycle of reflective practice to form the basis of the research journal I maintained throughout my research project. The first section, Reflection for action, presents and discusses extracts from the journal before I started my fieldwork. The second, Reflection in action, includes narratives of ethical events that I had experienced in the fieldwork. The third, Reflection on action, is composed of my thoughts about the ethics-related experiences after I had collected the data.

Reflection for action

The following reflections were prompted by the requirements of my study university's Human Research Ethics Committee *pro forma*, which I needed to complete for ethical approval of my research project. However, I was aware that the macroethical principles and procedures articulated in the university's regulations would need to be reconsidered in the field to deal with the microethical "every day ethical dilemmas that arise from the specific roles and responsibilities that researchers and research participants adopt in specific research contexts" (De Costa, 2015: 246). Thus, having read the advice given by Rallis and Rossman (2009: 270), I realised that I needed to be "vigilant and thoughtful" regarding ethical issues throughout the entire research cycle.

Gaining access: gate-keepers

"Identifying a gatekeeper at a research site and winning his or her support and trust may take time. You may be required to submit written information about the project in order to proceed" (Creswell, 2005: 209). However, I did not anticipate any problems with doing this as I am in receipt of a scholarship and study leave from the university to conduct my PhD project there. However, I followed Creswell's advice and made the following entry in my journal:

When I return to Vietnam, I will make personal contact with the Dean of the Faculty where my research is to take place. I

will mention the purposes and activities of my study and ask for his permission and support as well as his signature on the information letter. Once the Dean's approval has been gained, I will ask for his signature on the information letter. Finally, I will meet the Rector with the signed letter from the Dean and the Head and ask for his approval and signature in the information letter. (21/12/15)

Recruiting participants and informed consent

According to Cohen et al. (2007), gaining the informed consent of participants is crucial for the ethical conduct of research, and Costa (2015) has pointed out that it is necessary for consent forms to be easy to understand. Thus, I translated an information letter and consent form into Vietnamese because, although the lecturers were all experienced teachers of English, I wanted to make sure they could understand the research purpose and activities thoroughly before they made a decision to join.

This was my plan to gain informed consent from the lecturers after they had received and read the letters and consent forms:

I will meet lecturers in a faculty staff meeting or via personally arranged appointments to talk about my research intent and invite them to participate in the project. Potential lecturer participants will have opportunities to ask any further questions about their involvement in the research. The expected number is six to ten full-time lecturers teaching second-year students. If the number of lecturers is lower than my expectation, I will recruit from two other faculties. (22/01/15)

However, although gaining the consent of students (as well as teachers) was stipulated in the ethical regulations, I knew I did not have to do this for my research:

Each participant will need to inform students about the presence of the researcher in the class; however, it is not necessary to gain their formal consent as, in Vietnam, teachers are traditionally regarded as *in loco parentis*. If students are aware that their teachers have allowed the researcher to become the observer of the class, they will take it for granted. (22/01/15)

My role as insider

Breen (2007) defined insider researchers as those who choose to study a group to which they belong, and this certainly applied to me as an English language lecturer in the faculty. As has been pointed out, being a cultural insider has a number of advantages, such as speaking the same language, and knowing how to best approach people (Bonner & Tolhurst, 2002; Coghlan, 2003; Herrmann, 1989; Tedlock, 2000). Furthermore, being also an institutional insider meant that I was very familiar with the policies, customs and practices of the university setting of my research, as well as my colleagues, some of whom would be research participants.

I intended, like Unluer (2012: 5), to take advantages of these benefits of being an insider researcher “speaking the same insider language, understanding the local values, knowledge and taboos, knowing the formal and informal power structure, and obtaining permission to conduct the research, to interview, and to get access to records, and documents easily” and at that time I did not think that there would be any disadvantages.

Extent of participation

According to Holliday (2015: 56-57) “people will very likely have far more important things to do and think about than taking part in your research project. Involving them in extended procedures for getting permission, collaborating or checking interpretations may in itself be an unfair position”. Therefore, I had to think of the fact that some of my potential participants might be unwilling to take part in my research. I anticipated some of these obstacles:

Some participants will not want to participate because they are overworked. There can be some participants who do not want to join in focus group discussions. I will, however, organise a focus group discussion if there are a minimum of three willing participants. Some participants may forget to return narrative frames. I will courteously remind them before I finish the data collection period. If some participants say that they have to go home earlier than usual when having an interview, I will say to them that it is fine and ask if I can have another meeting with them, or else email any unasked questions to them. (06/01/16)

In addition, Hammersley and Traianou (2012) pointed out that some people may feel obliged to take part in the research simply to please someone in a position of power or resulting from other relationships in the context. I figured out that *“some participants will possibly be reluctant to participate in my research and do so simply because other colleagues are doing so, not because they are really willing* (06/01/16). In a collective culture like the one in my country, people tend to do what people around them are doing so *“I would try to make sure that the participation in my research was entirely voluntary.* (06/01/16)

Participants withdrawing from the project

According to Cohen et al, (2007), it is important for participants to know that they may withdraw from the study at any time. This is what I predicted:

I am concerned about the possibility of participants withdrawing from the research. If they are under time-pressure or have personal reasons, I will tell them that I will wait for them until they are willing to continue. If they are under pressure from extra-curricular activities held by the university, I will ask the Dean for his permission to have the participants released from these duties prior to my data collection period or before the activity occurred. If he does not agree, I will change the data collection schedule to give

the participants time to be willing to be observed or interviewed. (06/01/16)

I kept telling myself that I would be flexible as possible in order to minimise the amount of pressure resulting from participation in my study, and to maximise the level of willingness to participate.

Reciprocity

I know that “researchers need to actively look for ways to “give back” (or reciprocate) to participants in a study because the participants have freely provided their time” (Creswell, 2005: 12). I believe that it is impossible for an ethical researcher to offer money, goods, services or prizes in exchange for data. Since it is a convention in Vietnam for people to give thank-you gifts to those who help them, I made the following entry in my journal:

I would really like to show my deep gratitude for their contribution and devotion in a culturally appropriate manner, but not violating the research ethics guidelines set by the university where I am studying. I think of several ways, like putting thank-you gifts in a box to be chosen by all participants randomly at the end of the data collection period. Or I will send the participants a thank-you letter on university letterhead to support any scholarships they may apply for. (08/01/16)

I hoped that these tactics would strengthen the bond between the participants and me.

Confidentiality

According to Merson et al., (2015: 260) in terms of data sharing in research, one of its key principles is that “the rights and interests of research participants and their community are safeguarded, including...protection from harm, and appropriate sharing of benefits”. As the implementation of the BL programme had received strong financial support from my university, I wrote:

There will be a likelihood that the leaders like the Rector or the Dean of the Faculty may want me to tell them the actual teaching practices through my classroom observation and my evaluation of the participants' teaching performance.

(12/01/16)

I also thought of possible solutions if this matter of data sharing occurred:

If this happens, I will clarify my role as a researcher whose right and responsibility is to protect the participants' identity and related information. (12/01/16)

In addition, I understood that it would take time and effort for any curriculum innovation to demonstrate success; therefore, in the first year of the implementation of the innovatory curriculum, lecturers might experience a number of challenges in their teaching methods. Thus, I expected that:

During the data collection period, I may obtain sensitive and emotional comments on the programme as well as the university, which I will write in my research journal and discuss with my supervisors on how to report in the thesis.

(12/01/16)

Reflection in action

I started collecting data in August 2016 while I was still in New Zealand. This was earlier than I had initially planned because I wanted approval for gaining access and informed consent in advance so that more time for data collection would be available once in Vietnam.

Gaining access

In fact, the way I gained access was different from what I had planned. Instead of making personal contact with the gatekeepers, I just emailed the Rector who I believed to be the most important figure in the university. Then to show respect as well as a way of re-establishing the relationship after a year away, I informed the Dean and the Head of Personnel Department about Rector's

approval and my fieldwork in the university. This is what I wrote in the journal:

After waiting for three days, I got the Rector's email and felt so excited to open it. I was shocked as his reply was so short with a few words in a line "Agree, congratulations, good luck". I was happy but a bit confused about what to do next with that short response. There was no signature as I expected. (01/08/16)

A whole day was spent finding out the full-time lecturers' names, their classes, times of the lessons, and the teaching venues.

Informed consent

Because of the heavy load that my potential participants would undergo, I changed the way I gained informed consent. Instead of inviting them to become my participants face-to-face, I wrote emails to invite them to become my participants, attaching the information letters and consent forms, but did not to inform them about the entire range of planned research activities:

The teachers are experiencing a lot of pressure and may need to know half of my research plan so they can spare time for me. I decide to write in the emails to the participants about things they are going to do: initial interview, video-recorded classroom observation and post-lesson discussion. I decide not to inform them about my intention to carry out at least three classroom observations and three PLDs, as I am afraid that if they knew, they would refuse. I will not mention the narrative frames, and focus group discussions or professional development meetings. (18/08/16)

Five of them responded and agreed to participate in my study. I was very happy with this result. In the first responses, one of the participants revealed her anxiety about me video recording her lesson. Another said that she was eager to become my participant but only in a certain period for personal

reasons. Another wrote to me about her lack of experience in this new teaching environment, especially giving OCF. Most of them were reluctant to be interviewed in the first teaching week as they said they were busy preparing for other tasks. This made me re-think the way I would interview some of the participants:

I sense that there are four enthusiastic participants (who used to be my close colleagues) so I decide to carry out online interviews with them. I will use Facebook Messenger and Skype because I often use them to chat with people. I decide to send these four participants the list of interview questions so that they can prepare in advance. I also mention my desire to carry out online interviews before my return to Vietnam on 6th September. (19/08/16)

Once again, I felt the clear benefit of doing research as an insider when most of the potential participants had been my friends and colleagues for years. Because of this relationship, I could carry out online interviews and save time once I reached the university after a year away in New Zealand.

I actually started my fieldwork on 10 September 2016, and resumed journaling. Immediately after collecting some data, for example, from an interview, I made hand-written field notes at the research site. These notes were later augmented with further reflections, usually later the same day, and reported electronically in my personal research journal in English.

Participation

I found out various reasons for becoming or not becoming my participants in my research. For example:

One lecturer tells me she agrees to become my participant because if she refuses me now, she can face difficulties in recruiting participants for her future research because other staff may know about her refusal. In addition, she says that

she would like to learn from how I collect the data.

(14/09/16)

In this case, I thought at that time that it was fine for her to decide to join my research for the two reasons she gave, and it turned out that she was one of the most enthusiastic participants in my project. Another case concerned two colleagues who showed hesitation when making a decision to join my research when I talked to them face-to-face.

I meet two other lecturers and decide to invite them to join the research. They have not responded to my emails. One does not want me to observe her lessons, saying that interviewing for about an hour is a long time and she does not have the time. The other has another plan for her free time. They tell me to carry out interviews in the future.

However, I really sense their reluctance. I decide to wait and see what will happen next. (19/09/16)

Therefore, sensing their hesitation, I decided not to involve them, even as peripheral participants, because I thought that having only interview data from them would not be sufficient and they might not really be interested to share because they were simply too busy. By that time, too, I had recruited enough participants for my project.

All of the core participants in my research were female, married and had children, which prompted me to care about their personal issues like health or children.

I plan to have a PLD with one lecturer. She tells me she has a serious pain in her back but insists on the PLD. I think that PLDs are important, but do not want to create additional mental pain. Today is long enough with professional development meeting and teaching for her. In addition, I would like to have quality data, which is gained when participants can remember episodes well. Therefore, the PLD is cancelled. (21/09/16)

I meet another lecturer in the Faculty hall and see that she is seriously sick. She tells me that she has to ask other lecturers to cover the lessons for her and her children are now sick too. Another lecturer was extremely tired too as she was experiencing pregnancy while having another small baby to care for. She told me she was not ready for my data collection. I was so anxious my participants might withdraw from my research because of their health. (21/09/16)

All of these matters prevented me from observing their lessons at the time I had scheduled, and so I deferred them until they were physically and mentally ready.

Secondary gatekeepers

Although I had permission from the most senior members of the university, during my data collection, I later encountered others lower in the hierarchy who acted as gatekeepers; for example, the administrator in charge of classroom security. One evening, when I was about to carry out a PLD after normal teaching hours, she approached me and asked what I was doing. I told her that I was going to interview one teacher, and she asked me whether I had approval to do this. Although I told her that the approval was granted to me by the Rector, she did not believe me and phoned the Vice-Dean of my faculty to confirm. Half an hour later, things were resolved and I could carry out my plan.

I feel a bit annoyed by the interruption because both the participant and I had to wait for her before we could do the post-lesson discussion. I wish I had printed out the approval letter of the Rector and shown her. (28/09/16)

Another subordinate gatekeeper was one of the people in the management team advised me that if I had not been an insider, I would not have been entitled to observe the classes in the BL programme.

I have a very good and long interview with her. A lot of things like the obstacles she has to deal with the innovatory programme, the staffs or the training, etc. come into my

head. I am quite shocked to know that I would not be allowed to carry out research if I was not an insider. (03/10/16)

She told me that she had refused many outsiders who asked whether they could join the project and learn from the current teaching approach. She told me that the reasons for her refusal were there were many parts of the blended programme that could not be shared with outsiders. However, she did not mention exactly what they were. Another thing she told me was I needed to seek approval from the Faculty before publishing my research.

I need to send the Faculty my thesis draft before I publish it.

I remember that to reassure her, I told her that there would be no problem doing it all because I told her that my research is just about teachers' beliefs and practices about giving OCF, something quite concrete. (03/10/16)

Confidentiality

My initial concern that people in authority might want me to reveal confidential information turned out to be unfounded. However, one participant wanted me to share the observed lesson data of the other participant when they were both joining the same group.

During the interview today, a participant ask me to see another lecturer's lesson video recording. I tell her that I am not allowed to give it to her. I will do so if she asked permission from the lecturer first. Luckily, she says that she will not want to do it anymore if she has to ask permission. Also in several PLDs and private talks, this lecturer often asks whether I have observed certain lessons and about the teaching. I guess she wants me to give some comments. However, I tell her the schedules are different so I cannot compare. (29/09/16)

I did not want to share that data with her because I thought that if the person who I had observed knew that I shared the data, she would not be happy.

Another - unexpected - issue was associated with copyright material. In an interview with the leader of the BL programme (one of the secondary gatekeepers discussed above), she told me that there were some parts in my thesis, which could not be published because of the copyright of the programme. She said that the Dean was the person who had patented this particular approach to BL.

Wow! The BL was patented. It was good for him (the Dean).

(03/10/16)

I said that there would be no problem with that, which meant that I would send my completed work to the Faculty first before sending it to the printer. However, I had little idea about what to give her for her approval as I just wanted to collect data from her and said yes without thinking carefully.

Reciprocity

I was aware that the participants wanted to gain something from being my participants because they were eager to learn from others. In one case, one teacher wanted me to share with her my knowledge about OCF.

One lecturer asked me whether the ways she gave corrective feedback were appropriate and I refused to judge and just said that I had no right to influence her teaching. She changed her questions and asked me whether she had been making progress in her teaching of the lesson. Even though I was reluctant to provide comments, I just said that it was going very well overall. (05/10/16)

The reason for my refusal to share was I did not want her to change her teaching practice, as I needed her classes to be as natural as possible. Although I kept telling myself not to influence their teaching approach, I actually did it accidentally as follows.

Despite my effort not to judge their lessons, I include some personal ideas during the interviews. For example, when I ask a lecturer: “Do you think using Vietnamese is necessary?” she thinks that using Vietnamese is not good and she says she will try not to use it the following lesson. As observed, she actually does avoid it. (01/10/16)

Another example of reciprocity occurred when I offered to help a participant in the future:

Today I also hold a focus group discussion. One lecturer, whom I have promised to help carry out her research in the future said to other members that I will become their mentor in their future research activity. They all feel very happy and encouraged and say they really need my help. I am not sure whether my promise is one of the reasons for their enthusiasm about my research; however, I sense that it is. (14/11/16)

Insider researcher

Doing research from the inside meant that in several cases I had to play at least three roles: researcher, colleague and friend. As an example of being a friend, I received an unexpected suggestion: “*One of the participants used to be a good friend of mine and asks me what I would like her to say in order to obtain my desired data*” (15/09/16). However, I thanked her and clarified that my research needed to be done impartially. In the following case, I was both a colleague and a researcher:

In a focus group discussion, I witness an intense argument between two participants over some teaching techniques. It is obvious that they are totally off the topics I gave them, but I decide to say nothing. Luckily, they stop as they see they did not have time for further discussion if they kept going like that. Three days later, I get an email from one of them expressing her disappointment with the one she has argued

with and asking me if I have time for further discussion. I have no option but to tell her some of my opinions on the matter, trying to give general comments. Two days later, I meet the participant who also gives some personal comments on the argument and asks me not to include the data related to that part. (13/10/16)

I really thought that both of them were right to a certain extent, but it was hard to tell them “you are right, she is wrong”. Therefore, instead of being a colleague commenting from a teaching point of view, I chose to be a researcher with impartial attitudes. This saved me from getting into further conflicts and perhaps saved them from another argument.

In addition, I was invited to make a public formal sharing of my PhD journey in Faculty’s staff meeting by the Dean. I did not know what role I should play in this event. This what I wrote in the journal:

What will I say in front of so many colleagues about me?
What does he (the Dean) expect me to say? He may think I can motivate his staff to work harder in terms of academic pursuits. Maybe. I will take this advantage to say thank you to all the current participants to show my gratitude to their effort. (21/09/16)

During that speech, I shared my experience of doing research in New Zealand, challenges and support I encountered and I said thank you to all the participants from my heart. In this even, I acted like a colleague to my participants.

On the 22nd November, I returned to New Zealand, having finished collecting data.

Reflection on action

In this section, five ethical issues are considered in some tranquility: informed consent, insider researcher, reciprocity, well-being and protection from harm.

Informed consent

Hammersley and Traianou (2012) also mention the ambiguity of the phrase “fully informed”, meaning whether participants are provided with all of the information or just enough information that is related to their decision-making of participating in the research. Mercer (2007: 11) considers that this ethical dilemma is about “what to tell colleagues both before and after they participate in the research”

When seeking to recruit participants, I avoided mentioning the full range of procedures I wanted them to take part in. My reason was if they knew the entire plan, there would be a likelihood that they might decline to participate. At the time, I was not very confident that this was entirely ethical. However, I still think that I had made a right decision because all the participants, as colleagues and friends were willing to help me to collect as much data as I could. I asked for their permission to observe more lessons when I sensed their enthusiasm: in fact, I observed two participants four times, while those who were busier just two or three times. Two participants knew that I had trouble in arranging the time for focus groups once the the mid-semester term had ended, and they texted with each other to organise the meeting for me. In this case, I agree with Rossman and Rallis (2012: 383) that “outcomes determine the rightness and wrongness of any decision. Any particular decision is intrinsically neither good nor bad; rather, it is good or bad *because of its results in a particular context-its consequences*” (italics in original).

In terms of student consent, in principle, I should have made sure that all the students orally, if not in writing, agreed to let me video the class. In fact, I just asked teachers to inform the whole class about my presence without considering whether the whole class were happy with my videoing. The reason for this is that as an insider I know the conventional expectations of the institution (Brannick & Coghlan, 2007). I have known for years that students always respect teachers in my culture, so it is not necessary for me to seek for their written consent. I also thought that if I had asked for their consent, they would have been puzzled because it is so unusual to do so; they might have thought that in some way I would be undermining the authority of their teacher. If I have an opportunity to do a similar study again, I would think very

carefully about whether or not to seek oral consent from students, as well as the teachers.

It is a matter of whose cultural norms a researcher should adhere to.

Insider researcher

According to Cohen et al. (2007), qualitative research is associated with establishing and sustaining relationships with people. Being of the same culture as the participants enabled me to understand their behavior, their ways of thinking, and to “read non-verbal cues” (Merriam, et al., 2010: 411). On one occasion mentioned above, I decided to wait and see what happened next about two lecturers who seemed reluctant to fully participate. I think I made the right decision not to interview them because if I had insisted, I might have gained some data - but of course, I would not have been able to triangulate what they said with what they actually did in practice.

I found it hard trying to be a cultural stranger in my own institution. The most problematic issue I encountered was the shifting roles between a researcher, a colleague and a friend; in other words “a role duality” (Unluer, 2012: 7). I still remember distinctly how I switched constantly from a friend and a colleague to researcher, as in the case of witnessing an argument between two peripheral participants. It is hard not to jump to conclusions about what should be done and not done in certain cases. For me, it is important for an insider researcher to keep being neutral and friendly to colleagues and it is of great importance to know when to be a researcher and a colleague and a friend. I myself moved “back and forth across different boundaries” (Griffith, 1998: 368), such as when I made a formal speech in front of colleagues, when at other times I would treat them as friends. As Merton (1972: 37) suggests, the concept of insider/outsider is not a dichotomy but a continuum, and the boundaries between the two are “permeable”.

Reciprocity

At various times, my participants needed my help while I needed data from them based on the willingness and well-being. During the data collection

phase, I offered to help my colleagues in various ways, such as by checking their own research proposals, or suggesting how they might carry out their research, or improving their IELTS teaching. However, one of my participants sent me several messages through Facebook Messenger asking for help with her research. As things turned out, I was too busy to look at the topic of her project so I could not give her any useful and detailed advice. I excused myself because of limited time: I could not give them more useful expected assistance when they needed it. I think that if I could reverse the time, I should have promised my colleagues less help. Afterwards, I carried out my intention to do things like sending a thank-you letter to each participant.

Well-being

As an insider, I knew what pressures there were within the organisation (Robson, 2002). During that time, I was fully aware of the fact that apart from teaching students, most of my participants had to engage in many other professional development-related activities like workshops, seminars, IELTS test preparation or even research projects of their own. In addition, their personal life was full of responsibilities: two were pregnant, the rest of them all had small children to look after. I had to change my data collection schedule frequently to meet each participant's schedule and situations. Although in such ways, I hoped that rapport and trust were established, both the participants and I were mentally and physically exhausted: towards the end of the data collection phase, I ended up with being sick for two weeks because of overwork. My time and research focus were also at times compromised by my duty of care to my young son, who had returned to Vietnam with me. However, on the whole, I could collect abundance of in-depth data and the definite reason was my flexibility in changing my schedule to their timetable and my attention to their workload, family matter and health. To me a "potentially quite powerful way to conceptualise the moral and ethical aspects of research is to think about the role of *caring*" (Rossman & Rallis, 2012: 383) (emphasis in original) and "instead of turning to a principle for guidance, a carer returns to the cared-for. What does he or she need? Will filling this need harms others in the network of care?" (Noddings, 1995: 187).

Protection from harm

I am quite certain that I made a right choice to decline the request of one lecturer to share with her some of the data from other participants: while I wished to be helpful to those who assisted me, I am aware that I need to protect the privacy of all involved in my project, and that is why I used pseudonyms in my thesis. However, this is not enough to protect my participants from harm. It became clear in my observations and post-lesson discussions that not all of the lecturers appreciated the innovation of BL, and that a few of them were not following the mandated curriculum. This situation has led to a further dilemma: according to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018: 140), “in reporting and disseminating the research, the researcher needs to consider, even anticipate, who the audience will be and the likely or possible effects on them of the reporting and dissemination”. It is possible that the management leaders of the BL programme will read my thesis; consequently, they would be able to identify several participants whose teaching practices need improving. Although very unlikely, they could sanction the teachers involved, and this could lead to damage to professional reputation. There is a dilemma I still have to resolve before submitting my thesis

I have to bear in mind the potential damage to the reputation not only of the teachers, but that of the institution as well; as Cohen et al. (2018: 141) have pointed out, “[t]he researcher also has responsibilities to the research community, for example, not to jeopardise the reputation of the research communities”. It is the case that some of the research findings are not favourable to the success of the programme, and publication of such matters in my thesis may cause harm to my university. I will attempt my best to report the findings accurately, and particularly phrase the critical issues in a constructive way. Hopefully, those in charge of the BL programme will see these points as the basis for taking the necessary steps to improve it.

With regard to the copyright issue raised by the management team ‘gatekeeper’, I am now aware that “[s]ponsors may wish to restrict, prevent or censor dissemination, or control who sees what, when and in what form, and this might challenge academic freedom and fidelity to the phenomenon being researched”

(Cohen et al, 2018: 141). On reflection, I wish I had asked her what I should do in detail in order for the content of the programme to be allowed to go public. I think that the copyright issue can be resolved by deciding to focus my thesis specifically on oral corrective feedback in the context of a BL environment. Any other writing in the thesis that refers to the content of the programme has to be handled very sensitively. My future action will be to send the draft chapter describing the content and articulation of the BL programme to the Faculty and ask for their permission before I submit my thesis. If this happens, I will consult my supervisors about how I should report that aspect of the thesis. This is because in terms of intellectual property, researchers must also take responsibility to the wider academic community, as pointed out by Hammersley and Traianou (2012: 100): “there is an obligation upon researchers to publish their findings, and increasingly, to make their data publicly available too”.

Conclusion

The whole process of pre-, while- and post-data collection has brought me meaningful ethics-related experiences as a researcher in cross-culture contexts. Unlike Laerke (2008), who still felt angry and sad long after the research, I feel lucky and supported by my participants’ tremendous enthusiasm. It was not difficult for me to change the way in gaining access, recruiting participants, increasingly involving participants in more research activities such as professional development meetings, focus group discussions, and obtaining their permission to observe more lessons. The underlying reasons for this ease are mainly because I am an insider and maintained good rapport with the teachers. Obviously, during the journey, I encountered many ethical dilemmas, which would not have been properly solved without discussion with, and timely advice from, my supervisors; as Unluer (2012: 12) points out, “advisors play a critical role in supporting the researchers while conducting insider research”.

Even now, I am in a new cycle of reflection for one more ethical dilemma related to confidentiality, and I hope and believe that it will be addressed in an appropriate way. I completely agree with Rossman and Rallis (2010: 384) that

“ the better our ethical reasoning, the better our decisions, and, ultimately, the more trustworthy our research”.

References

Brannick, T. and Coghlan, D. (2007) In defense of being “native”: The case for insider academic research. *Organizational Research Methods* 10(1), 59–74.

Breen, L.J. (2007) The researcher ‘in the middle’: Negotiating the insider/outsider dichotomy. *The Australian Community Psychologist* 19 (1), 163-174.

Bonner, A. and Tolhurst, G. (2002) Insider-outsider perspectives of participant observation. *Nurse Researcher* 9 (4), 7-19.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2007) *Research Methods in Education* (6th edn). New York, NY: Routledge.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., and Morrison, K. (2018) *Research Methods in Education* (8th edn). New York, NY: Routledge.

Coghlan, D. (2003) Practitioner research for organizational knowledge: Mechanistic-and-organistic-oriented approaches to insider action research. *Management Learning* 34 (4), 451-463.

Creswell, J. (2005) *Educational Research: Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research* (2nd edn). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill.

De Costa, P. (2015) Ethics and applied linguistic research. In B. Paltridge and A. Phakiti (eds) *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics: A Practical Resource* (pp.245-258). London: Bloomsbury.

Farrell, T. (2013) *Reflective Practice in ESL Teacher Development Groups: From Practices to Principles*. London: Palgrave MacMillan.

Griffith, A.I. (1998) Insider/outsider: Epistemological privilege and mothering work. *Human Studies* 21(4), 361–376.

- Hammersley, M. and Traianou, A. (2012) *Ethics in Qualitative Research: Controversies and Contexts*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hannabus, S. (2000) Being there: Ethnographic research and autobiography. *Library Management* 21 (2), 99–106.
- Herrmann, A.W. (1989) The participant observer as “insider”: Researching your own classroom. Paper presented at Annual Meeting of the Conference on College Composition and Communication, Seattle, WA.
- Hockey, J. (1993) Research methods-researching peers and familiar settings. *Research Papers in Education* 8 (2), 199–225.
- Holliday, A. (2015) Qualitative research analysis. In B. Paltridge and A. Phakiti (eds). *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics* (pp.50- 61). New York, NY: Bloomsbury.
- Mercer, J. (2007) The challenges of insider research in educational institutions: Wielding a double-edged sword and resolving delicate dilemmas. *Oxford Review of Education* 33 (1), 1-17.
- Merson, L., Phong, T., Nhan, L., Dung, N., Ngan, T., Kinh, N., Parker, M. and Bull, S. (2015) Trust, respect, and reciprocity: Informing culturally appropriate data-sharing practice in Vietnam. *Journal of Empirical Research on Human Research Ethics* 10 (3), 251-263.
- Merriam, S., Johnson-Bailey, J., Lee, M., Kee, Y., Ntseane, G. and Muhamad, M. (2001) Power and positionality: Negotiating insider/outsider status within and across cultures. *International Journal of Lifelong Education* 20 (5), 405-416
- Merton, R. (1972) Insiders and outsiders: A chapter in the sociology of knowledge. *American Journal of Sociology* 78 (7), 9-47.
- Noddings, N. (1995) *Philosophy of education*. Boulder, CO: Westview.
- Robson, C. (2002) *Real world research* (2nd edn). Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Rossmann, R.B. and Rallis, S.F. (2009) Ethics and trustworthiness. In J. Heigham and R.A. Croker (eds.), *Qualitative Research in Applied Linguistics: A Practical Introduction* (pp.263-287). London: Palgrave Macmillan .

Rossmann, R.B. and Rallis, S.F. (2010) Everyday ethics: Reflections on practice. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education* 23 (4), 379-391.

Tedlock, B. (2000) Ethnography and ethnographic representation. In N.K. Denzin and Y.S. Lincoln (eds), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (2nd edn) (pp.455-486). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Unluer, S. (2012) Being an insider researcher while conducting case study research. *The Qualitative Report* 17 (29), 1-14.

Teusner, A. (2016) Insider research, validity issues, and the OHS professional: One person's journey. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology* 19 (1), 85-96.