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Bahir Dar University

College of Education

School of Teacher Education

Department of Language Education

Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) Program

**EFL Undergraduate Students' Perceptions and Engagement with the
English Language Teachers' Oral Corrective Feedback in Spoken Classroom**

By

Megbaru Motbaynor

June 2026

Bahir Dar, Ethiopia

Bahir Dar University
College of Education
School of Teacher Education
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**EFL Undergraduate Students' Perceptions and Engagement with the
English Language Teachers' Oral Corrective Feedback in Spoken Classroom**

By

Megbaru Motbaynor

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)

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June 2026

Bahir Dar, Ethiopia

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Declaration

This is to certify that the dissertation entitled “EFL Undergraduate Students’ Perceptions and Engagement with the English Language Teachers’ Oral Corrective Feedback in Spoken Classroom”, submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in the Department of Language Education, Bahir Dar University, is a record of original work carried out by me and has never been submitted to this or any other institution to get any other degree or certificates. The assistance and help I received during the course of this investigation have been duly acknowledged.

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Approval of Dissertation for Defense

I hereby certify that I have supervised, read, and evaluated this dissertation titled “EFL Undergraduate Students’ Perceptions and Engagement with the English Language Teachers’ Oral Corrective Feedback in Spoken Classroom” by **Megbaru Motbaynor** prepared under my guidance. I recommend the dissertation be submitted for oral defense.

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Approval of Dissertation for Defense Result

As members of the board of examiners, we examined this dissertation entitled “EFL Undergraduate Students’ Perceptions and Engagement with the English Language Teachers’ Oral Corrective Feedback in Spoken Classroom” by **Megbaru Motbaynor**. We hereby certify that the dissertation is accepted for fulfilling the requirements for the award of the degree of doctor of philosophy in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL).

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Abstract

This study aimed at exploring undergraduate students' perceptions and engagement with their teacher's oral corrective feedback in an EFL spoken classroom at Bahir Dar University. Guided by a pragmatist view of research, this study employed mixed-methods case study design to collect qualitative and quantitative data from a class of participants (N=11) taking the course "Spoken English I" in their second semester. To this end, audio-recorded classroom observation, close-ended questionnaire, and students' interview were utilized. The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics (questionnaire) and thematic analysis (interview and observation transcripts). The findings demonstrated the teacher's utilization of various OCF types (predominantly recasts) following students' spoken errors in the classroom. Regarding student engagement, the participants not only listened to and processed the feedback but also tried to refine their speech. Emotionally, most of them felt encouraged and please with the OCF they received while some reported experiencing frustration following the feedback. While recasts achieved the highest student repair rate (81.8%), followed by metalinguistic feedback (66.7%), explicit feedback and repetition did not trigger any student repair. As for the errors, the findings revealed that grammar errors had the highest repair rate (90.9%), whereas lexical errors were the least repaired (14.3%). Interestingly, the use of double feedback moves and non-verbal signals were parts of the OCF practice. The participants largely perceived OCF as an essential tool to improve their grammatical accuracy and oral performance during speaking despite some negative affective-filters such as anxiety, which deterred participation in the feedback. Finally, the study outlined practical and pedagogical implications, along with specific recommendations focused on enhancing teachers' classroom practice, refining teacher-training programs, and suggesting avenues for future research.

Keywords: teacher OCF practice, students' engagement, perceptions, repair moves, OCF timing

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Chapter One: Introduction

1.1. Background of the Study

Corrective feedback (CF) is defined in a widely acknowledged seminal work by Lyster and Ranta (1997) that it refers to teachers' reaction to learners' language errors. Similarly, Ellis (2006) defines CF as “responses to learner utterances containing an error” (p. 28). Another researcher (Tesnim, 2019) defines corrective feedback as an indication to students that their use of the target language is faulty. Moreover, CF is about responses or treatments from teachers or other peers to a learner's non target-like second language production (Chen et al., 2016). Thus, it can be understood that corrective feedback is a response to students' ill-formed or deviant second language production. CF can be either written or oral, of which the latter modality is the focus of attention in this particular study, and hereafter, any mention of ‘corrective feedback’ throughout this study refers to oral corrective feedback (OCF).

English, serving as a language of wider communication, plays a paramount role in both academic and non-academic settings in many countries. Likewise, the English language has been used as a medium of instruction across different levels of the educational system, e.g. secondary and higher education institutions (Animaw, 2011) and in governmental and non-governmental organizations in Ethiopia (Dawit, 2014). Dawit (2014) mentioned Commercial Bank of Ethiopia, private real estates, and Ethio-telecom as among organizations using English as a language of communication in their homepages just parallel to Amharic. Therefore, having high proficiency in English could lead to academic success of students who attend secondary and tertiary education and may enable them later to compete for such jobs in the country.

Keeping in mind this contribution of English in multiple contexts, it necessitates finding different ways to design teaching optimally to develop students' oral English skills. In light of this, the application of corrective feedback (CF) is one such instructional technique (Tomita & Spada, 2013) to support the uptake of learners' oral English skills (Ellis, 2009; Ölmezer-Öztürk & Öztürk, 2016). Alkhamash and Gulnaz (2019) argue that oral CF plays an essential role in improving students' noticing, acquisition and retention of language forms. Furthermore, oral CF helps learners prevent certain language forms from becoming fossilized (Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Muslem et al., 2017). In this regard, Amara (2015) claimed that when teachers ignore errors committed by students in using their L2, over time those errors become fossilized. Fossilization is a term used when students repeatedly use faulty language productions and they perceive as if these utterances were correct. In such situations, corrective feedback prevents students' errors from lasting long. Errors are deviations in students' language use arising from lack of knowledge of the correct rules (Corder, 1967).

Corrective feedback is an essential element in successful second language teaching and learning (Sheen, 2011). Lyster et al. (2013, p. 2) conceptualized corrective feedback as “an inherent part of classroom practices in which teachers engage to achieve instructional objectives that include consolidation of students' L2 knowledge.” Using corrective feedback, language teachers turn errors into opportunities for students' target language development. Hartono et al. (2022) view OCF as a hallmark of teaching in foreign language classroom practices. As a commentary information on learners' performance (Su & Tian, 2016), oral corrective feedback can help learners recognize the gap between their interlanguage and the target language. Chen et al. (2016) and Lyster and Saito (2010) argue that corrective feedback is viewed as an essential

catalyst for second language acquisition. This can be done in terms of helping students to notice the gap and then providing opportunities to produce modified output (Mackey et al., 2016) while they are engaging in a contextualized practice. The above-mentioned authors argue that corrective strategies (e.g. prompting) enable students to rephrase their original utterances because of feedback. This, in various ways, is believed to assist second language improvement. This demanding nature of corrective feedback attracted the attention of researchers and theoreticians in the field of second/foreign language acquisition.

However, some language teaching methodologies (for example, Communicative Language Teaching), theorists (e.g. Krashen, 1982, 1983, 1985) and researchers (e.g. Truscott, 1999) have been against error correction as their focus is primarily on meaning with no explicit correction. Classroom variables like negative feedback (i.e., corrective feedback) were de-emphasized. Most notably, Krashen claims that second language acquisition is a subconscious process and comprehensible input is enough for this. His bold argument is that any language knowledge learnt through explicit instruction including negative evidence (corrective feedback) does not have an impact on second language learning (Su-Hie et al., 2011).

Krashen and Terrell's (1983) Natural Approach even views error correction to have a negative effect on students' willingness to communicate. The focus here is on meaning making and mere exposure to language is assumed to lead to successful learning. Surprisingly, these opponents of corrective feedback undermined the necessity of linguistic accuracy, which is the key to language development (Li & Vuono, 2019). In addition, comprehensible input from the teacher only (teacher-dominated instruction) may not suffice; there needs to be room for interaction, which leads to modifications through negotiation of form or meaning (Althobaiti,

2014). Li and Vuono (2019, p. 5) emphasize, “a small dose of form-focused instruction is important”, and they contend that totally ignoring error correction may result in some linguistic forms being fossilized and students acquiring erroneous input.

Later, another pedagogical strategy called ‘focus-on-form’, one category of form-focused instruction, was introduced by Long (1991). Focus-on-form (FonF) gives brief attention to linguistic elements as they arise spontaneously during meaning-focused interaction (Althobaiti, 2014). In focus-on-form instruction, linguistic features are integrated into meaningful activities that require learners to communicate, while drawing their attention incidentally to some linguistic features in the input (Rassaei & Moinszadeh, 2014). While in communicative activities, corrective feedback (as one type of focus on form that assumes noticing and attention to form) is required for effective language learning.

Long (1991, 1996) further explained that corrective feedback not only provides learners with negative evidence but also helps them notice the gap between their non-target like L2 production and the target like form. Furthermore, Ahangari and Amirzadeh (2011) argue that, errors being an indispensable part of language learning process, corrective feedback is an important tool for teachers to prevent their learners' errors from getting fossilized.

Second/foreign language learning takes place through interaction, facilitated by feedback hence leading to production of modified output (Olmezer-Ozturk & Ozturk, 2016). Despite its nature of seemingly simple yet complex classroom phenomenon, the role of corrective feedback in language development has grown (Sabio, 2023).

Historically, OCF research has evolved from regarding student errors as ‘sins’ that should be avoided at all costs to considering them as the most important ‘teachable moments’ in the

classroom. From behaviorist perspective (Skinner, 1957), for example, language learning was viewed as habit formation and errors as sins. To this end, teachers' immediate correction of students' errors was assumed to play a pivotal role to prevent bad habits from becoming permanent and to help accuracy development (Fanselow, 1977; Hendrickson, 1978). There was zero tolerance to student errors. Following the behaviorist's view, there emerged the Natural Era influenced by Chomsky (1959) and Krashen (1982). From this view, language learning arises from internal, mental operation (Chomsky, 1959). Language can be easily acquired independently of external environment i.e., only language input is required (Krashen, 1982), and corrective feedback is deemed to have no role.

Later, the Cognitive-interactionist Era (consisting of Long, 1996; Swain, 1985; Schmidt, 1990, 1994) views corrective feedback as a facilitator of learning by drawing students' attention to their error while they are in communicative activities, showing them the gap between their interlanguage and the target-like forms. Moreover, Socio-cultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978) views corrective feedback as a social, collaborative process whereby the student moves from other regulated to self-regulated. Recent literature and research findings on OCF show a shift from "whether to provide" to "how and when to provide" where considering students' preferences and anxiety level is essential (Ellis, 2017; Kartchava, 2019).

Owing to its potential for enhancing students' language development, corrective feedback has long been an area of concern for second/foreign language researchers and practitioners over the last several decades. Specifically, oral corrective feedback plays a crucial role in facilitating classroom second language acquisition. It is an integral part of second language acquisition (SLA). Following Lyster and Ranta's (1997) seminal study on oral corrective feedback, different

studies were conducted worldwide from different perspectives and in differing contexts. These include effectiveness of different oral CF types (Loewen & Sato, 2018; Lyster et al., 2013; Saswati, 2021), teachers' beliefs and practices (Abiy, 2000; Animaw, 2011; Kamiya, 2014; Roothoof, 2014; Olmezer-Ozturk, 2019; Yuksel et al., 2021) and learner preferences (Bereket, 2021; Eyerusalem, 2021; Lyster et al., 2013; Olmezer-Ozturk & Ozturk, 2016).

A growing body of experimental and descriptive research was conducted in different contexts and it profoundly confirmed the positive role of oral corrective feedback for language learning (e.g., Chen et al., 2016; Loewen & Sato, 2018; Lyster et al., 2013; Ozturk, 2016; Sakiroglu, 2020; Yang, 2016; Yilmaz, 2012; Zhao & Ellis, 2022). Apart from such single studies, meta-analysis studies (Brown, 2016; Li, 2010; Li and Vuono, 2019; Lyster and Saito, 2010; Mackey and Goo, 2007; Russell and Spada, 2006) depicted the effectiveness of oral corrective feedback for L2 learning. Lyster and Saito's (2010) meta-analysis of 15 quasi-experimental studies on oral corrective feedback in classroom settings, for example, revealed the significant effect of corrective feedback on target language development.

From another viewpoint, many researchers such as Abiy (2000), Alkhamash and Gulnaz (2019), Bao (2019), Kamiya (2014), Mendez and Cruz (2012), Olmezer-Ozturk (2019), Roothoof (2014), Yuksel et al. (2021) and others examined the (in) congruence between stated beliefs and the actual classroom practices of English language teachers regarding oral corrective feedback. For most of these studies, if not for all, the findings have unveiled disparity between teachers' expressed beliefs and what they practically did in the classroom. Kamiya (2014), however, claims to have found results showing consistency between teachers' beliefs and practices. Furthermore, learners' preference of corrective feedback (in terms of type and timing)

has also been one focus of research so far (e.g. Bereket, 2021; Eyerusalem, 2021; Sakiroglu, 2020; Yang, 2016; Yoshida, 2008). Sakiroglu's (2020) research, for instance, depicted that the majority of students' choice was delayed and explicit corrective feedback.

In addition to teachers' practices of oral corrective feedback, how students perceive these practices also needs investigation. Perception refers to the way learners think about or understand the role of teacher oral corrective feedback for the teaching and learning of English in a classroom setting. Perception is also defined as how learners view, perceive or regard teacher oral corrective feedback (Syakira & Nur, 2022). If students perceive feedback positively, they use the best of their teacher's oral corrective feedback to modify their faulty utterances.

Rassaei and Moinzadeh (2014) assert that investigating how learners perceive different types of corrective feedback can shed more light on the nature of corrective feedback and how it assists language development. This implies that perception can be defined from two dimensions: whether students notice they are being provided with oral feedback and whether they view oral feedback plays a role for target language learning. Syakira and Nur (2022) further note that learner perception indicates, either negatively or positively, the impact of corrective feedback on the teaching and learning process. Mulyani et al. (2022), therefore, claim that understanding students' perceptions of oral CF can help teachers adapt their instructional practices more effectively.

A considerable number of studies were carried out on students' perceptions of teacher oral feedback (e.g. Azad, 2016; Fathimah, 2020; Muyashoha & Sugianto, 2019; Olmezer-Ozturk & Ozturk, 2016; Rassaei & Moinzadeh, 2014; Sakiroglu, 2020; Syakira & Nur, 2022; Tomczyk, 2013; Yoshida, 2010). The findings of these studies mostly unveiled students' positive

interpretation of teacher's oral corrective feedback as a tool to enhance their learning. For example, some of these studies indicated that error correction was helpful for learning English (Azad, 2016). Oral CF was effective to improve students' speaking abilities (Muyashoha & Sugianto, 2019); students were satisfied with teacher feedback (Sakiroglu, 2020); oral CF was helpful in promoting greater accuracy (Syakira & Nur, 2022); the teacher was supposed to provide corrective feedback when deviant forms occurred (Tomczyk, 2013). Conversely, Olmezer-Ozturk and Ozturk's (2016) findings indicated that students could feel uncomfortable when corrected immediately by the teacher, and they refrained from speaking in the classroom.

In a very recent development, Tay and Lam (2022) also claim that the literature on feedback should be not only on what the teachers do, but also on how learners engage with teacher feedback. Engagement involves not only just a behavioral aspect (e.g., editing or repair), but also cognitive and affective elements that explain the behavior. Therefore, student engagement (referring to how learners respond to the feedback they receive) with corrective feedback is conceptualized by Ellis (2010), with inspiration from Fredricks et al. (2004). This multi-dimensional construct comprises of the following three aspects: cognitive (how students attend to the feedback provided), behavioral (how students uptake and repair their faulty oral productions), and affective (related to students' attitude and emotion) responses to the oral CF.

Another related construct is learner repair, one of the dimensions of engagement (the behavioral aspect). In the context of corrective feedback, repair is technically an element and inclusive of uptake, which is defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997, p. 49) as follows: "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".

Again, Lyster and Mori (2006) point out that uptake provides an effective tool for identifying patterns of teacher-student interaction that include a wide range of learner responses following teacher feedback, thus allowing for an operationalization of pushed output in classroom settings. This implies that uptake denotes students' awareness of their non-target like production. If the students successfully reformulate their error in a single utterance, it is called repair (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lee, 2007, 2013). It is further remarked by Lee (2013) that repair takes place after corrective feedback and when the learner opts to reformulate or fix his or her original erroneous production by incorporating the feedback. Being used as a pedagogical technique (Lee, 2013) by teachers, corrective feedback results in learners' modified outputs (or repairs). Therefore, repair from the teacher feedback perspective can be understood as a teacher-initiated learner correction of an error during interaction in a classroom setting.

As a foundation, students' perception of teacher OCF functions as a driver to utilize it. These inner perceptions directly influence and predict the students' observable engagement, determining how much physical, emotional, or cognitive effort they invest in the feedback process. This engagement then serves as the channel for uptake, which refers to the actual practical application of the corrective information. Of these uptakes, the interactive adjustments, clarifications, corrective actions students use to fix disruptions are repairs, i.e. learning outcome. However, research neglected studying oral corrective feedback in terms of students' 'perceptions and engagement' simultaneously in spoken classes as they determine the learning outcome of OCF, i.e. repair. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine EFL teacher's oral corrective feedback from the perspective of perception, engagement and repair practices of EFL undergraduate students at Bahir Dar University.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Several experimental and observational studies have been undertaken and they highlighted the effectiveness of oral corrective feedback for second language acquisition (Chen et al., 2016; Loewen & Sato, 2018; Lyster et al., 2013; Ozturk, 2016; Sakiroglu, 2020; Saswati, 2021). Most second language acquisition (SLA) studies have shown that consistent use of oral corrective feedback can improve the noticing, acquisition and retention of language forms (Alkhamash & Gulnaz, 2019). Most of these studies investigated differential effects of various feedback types. However, the question “which type of feedback is the most effective?” is far from being conclusive. For instance, a meta-analysis by Mackey and Goo (2007) reported larger effect of recasts than that of prompts; however, Lyster and Saito’s (2010) meta-analysis discloses prompts as more effective than recasts to help second language learning. What can then be concluded is, regardless of the compared effectiveness of one feedback type over the other, that corrective feedback in general is witnessed to aid language learning as applied to teacher-student interaction.

In this regard, Ethiopia may not be an exception. In Ethiopia where English is taught as a foreign language, and where there is no/little exposure to using English outside the classroom and with students possessing probably limited English language proficiency (Animaw, 2011), teachers’ oral corrective feedback plays a decisive role as one technique to facilitate English language learning by indicating errors committed by students. In such EFL contexts where the teacher is assumed the only proficient (relatively) speaker, EFL teachers need to use a variety of strategies to lead students to better understanding - of which oral corrective feedback is one example and crucial. Students can be supported by ways of either input providing or output

pushing (Ellis, 2010) strategies. However, a mere provision of corrective feedback by itself may not automatically guarantee its effectiveness to help language learning. To realize the potential of corrective feedback, it should involve students responding to the given feedback. Kerr (2020) also claims that feedback from a teacher is not the last event: to be effective, it needs to prompt a learner to modify his/her knowledge, language production or learning strategies.

A local study by Eyerusalem (2021) focusing on the teachers' practices and students' preferences of OCF demonstrated teachers' limited utilization and inconclusive practices of feedback. In fact, she questioned the teachers' skill and knowledge of OCF delivery practices, as they were intuitively deploying fragmented and incomprehensive feedback. Moreover, Animaw (2011) explored teachers' beliefs and actual practices of OCF in high school level. The findings reported that teachers had no theoretical basis for their reaction to students' errors. This shows that the teachers did not consciously follow if the students utilized the given corrective feedback as intended, which is crucial for CF effectiveness.

In addition to these studies, my personal teaching experience (as an English language teacher in secondary schools and university) and other teachers' practices (as observed during peer supervision in my teaching career) informed me that teachers provide corrective feedback to students either implicitly or explicitly. They primarily provide corrective feedback to signify students to attend to accuracy of their English language production although the role of CF for fluency development cannot be marginalized. Nevertheless, they rarely make sure how students perceive the corrective nature and the role of oral CF, how they engage with the oral CF, and how they repair their erroneous productions. Although there are different mediating variables influencing the effectiveness of oral CF (e.g., instructional context, feedback type, and teacher

factor), this study focused on learner variables such as engagement, repair moves and perception. Research into these variables simultaneously on oral corrective feedback, especially in Ethiopia, has received scant attention.

Brown (2016) claims that research on such variables affecting feedback effectiveness has not been done sufficiently. In a similar vein, Chen et al. (2016) support the need for undertaking such studies by pointing out those learner variables (such as perception) that mediate the effectiveness of feedback. Pawlak (2014) called for research into learners' awareness of corrective feedback. A point worth noting here is indicated by Rassaei (2015) that students may not perceive some feedback types as corrective information (e.g. recasts). Such conditions may result in corrective feedback remaining useless. Most certainly, students' understanding or view of the role of oral CF in learning second/foreign language is required as it determines their reaction to CF. A study by Chen et al. (2016) showed that learners' positive perception about corrective feedback plays a vital role in EFL learning. Therefore, students' perceptions of feedback are worthy of investigating as the match between teacher's pedagogical intention of providing feedback and students' perceiving and noticing the feedback as corrective information may result in students reacting to oral CF and developing their interlanguage (Fu & Nassaji, 2016); otherwise, students may not benefit from the given feedback.

Positive perception is likely to have contributions to students' engagement with corrective feedback. In line with this, Van der Kleij and Lipnevich (2021) claim that students' perceptions of feedback are a precursor to engagement, which in turn will also help repair their ill-formed utterances. In a study by Saragih et al. (2021), for example, students perceived feedback as something that facilitated language learning, and because of corrective feedback,

they became aware of what to avoid and improve. Therefore, students' perceptions of corrective feedback determine their engagement with the feedback (Van der Kleij & Lipnevich, 2021). The combined effect of these constructs (perception, engagement and repair) may affect CF effectiveness and greatly influence the learning of target language, i.e. English.

Learners' use of English language teachers' feedback leads to improvement (e.g., Hattie et al., 2021; Tay & Lam, 2022) in language learning. Findings of several studies have depicted that increased engagement leads to better learning performance (De Haas et al., 2020). Hence, learners' engagement in the corrective information should be a prerequisite for corrective feedback to positively affect learning (Van der Kleij & Lipnevich, 2021). Although the type of feedback move and the impact of other mediating variables can determine the effect of oral CF, Pawlak (2014) argues that learners' engagement in the 'negative evidence' (what is not possible in a given language) they receive is also a much more impactful element. Pawlak (2014, p. 69) further notes about engagement: "It determines to a large extent whether or not the information contained in the feedback is attended, noticed and processed in the right way".

In support of this is the idea of Jonsson and Panadero (2018) that students' engagement in, and use of, the feedback they receive is a critical element of feedback effectiveness. I contend that oral corrective feedback practices to which learners show relatively high engagement and positive perception should be valued so that language teachers can support learners accordingly. Learner engagement has a crucial impact on learners to notice and use the corrective information and, by far, to enhance their learning of the target-like form of the language. Once students engage in the feedback and notice the difference between their faulty L2 production and the target-like one, they try to repair their errors because of teacher oral feedback. Understanding

how students perceive and engage with oral feedback helps the teacher to deal with their errors appropriately. Animaw (2011) warns that not dealing well with student errors could have a negative effect on students' English language learning. The more positively students' perception is interconnected to engagement with oral CF, the better it leads to repairing their erroneous utterances and facilitates their language learning.

Significant number of studies were conducted on student engagement with written, but not oral, feedback such as Han and Hyland (2015), Tay and Lam (2022), Yu et al. (2019) and Zheng and Yu (2018). For instance, Yu et al. (2019) examined postgraduate level students' engagement with supervisor feedback in thesis writing. In addition, Tay and Lam (2022) carried out an empirical study on students' engagement across different patterns of teacher feedback in their written essays. The findings of these studies indicated that student engagement with feedback could facilitate the development of L2 writing.

Regarding oral CF, Wang et al. (2022) studied student engagement with a teacher's delayed feedback provided on presentations and PowerPoint slides. The result showed students' noticing and understanding of the teacher feedback using cognitive operation, but occasionally ignoring the feedback. Behaviorally, students were found repairing errors or editing their PPT slides. In a similar vein, it also requires looking into the three dimensions of engagement to get a holistic understanding of the construct across oral CF types.

A number of local studies were conducted on different perspectives of oral corrective feedback: teachers' stated beliefs and their actual practices in classroom contexts (Abiy, 2000; Animaw, 2011), teacher's correction and students' reactions to error correction (Meseret, 2009), teachers' practice and students' preferences or choices of corrective feedback type (Bereket,

2021; Eyerusalem, 2021). These studies dealt with oral corrective feedback primarily from teacher perspectives. Few of them have investigated as to how EFL students engage with and perceive teacher OCF in their actual classroom context.

Abiy (2000) and Animaw (2011) researched on the teachers' beliefs and their actual practices of OCF in the classroom. For example, Abiy (2000) investigated if there was congruity between beliefs and actual classroom application of high school English language teachers' (from three schools) towards correcting students' oral errors. To this end, he administered a questionnaire to teachers and videotaped the classroom teaching. In this regard, the findings revealed a discrepancy between what the teachers stated and what they practically did in the classroom. In the same vein, Animaw (2011) conducted a case study exploring the interplay of English teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices regarding oral corrective feedback in public high schools in Addis Ababa. The results indicated that the teachers had no theoretical basis as to why they acted the way they did regarding their reaction to students' errors; they were observed doing so intuitively. At times, they tried to avoid correcting students' errors due to lack of knowledge of the target language. Concerning teachers' belief and practice, the results depicted a mix of both divergence and convergence.

Moreover, Meseret (2009) carried out a descriptive study to scrutinize learner errors mostly dealt with by teachers, oral correction techniques/types most frequently used, timing of correction (immediate or delayed) and students' reactions to oral correction. Generated from classroom observation, questionnaire, and interview, the data revealed different results: teachers were observed mostly using immediate correction over delayed corrective feedback, and explicit correction and recast were used as feedback techniques. It was also indicated that students feel

discouraged if teachers frequently correct their errors. In a recent descriptive study, Eyerusalem (2021) examined English language teachers' OCF practices and students' preferences, and the alignment between the practices and preferences. The findings unveiled a gap between teachers' OCF provision and students' preference: students preferred both implicit and explicit CF types, but teachers did not consider participants' diversified choices. While all the above studies mainly focused on teacher oral feedback delivery, how students subsequently perceive and engage with the feedback is under-examined.

The focus of this study is oral corrective feedback (but not written corrective feedback) because the multi-dimensional construct 'engagement' (cognitive, behavioral and affective) and learners' repair practices can better lend themselves to be immediately understood in face-to-face oral interaction than in writing. Oral feedback is given with the presence of feedback provider (teacher) and can be communicated both verbally and non-verbally in real-time (Wang et al., 2022). In this case, the researcher can observe immediate emotional and behavioral aspects of learners' response to the feedback; however, written feedback may be delayed and addressed to the students being alone, with no chance of confronting with the teacher (feedback provider), where students' instant reactions cannot be observed. Learner engagement, perception and repair moves from the perspective of oral CF are, therefore, worthy of investigation.

To the best of my knowledge, studies investigating learner engagement with, repair moves and perception of oral CF are scant. The literature on learner engagement in OCF lacks empirical evidence (Saeli et al., 2021) in an EFL context. For example, Saeli et al. (2021) reviewed studies exploring the mediating effect of learners' engagement with feedback for pronunciation development on low proficiency level students in the context of the USA, and the

findings revealed that positive engagement with feedback resulted in higher pronunciation accuracy gains. The present study differs from Saeli et al. (2021) in that it does not focus on a specific language skill and single proficiency level students. Moreover, Wang et al. (2022) conducted an observational research on student engagement in delayed teacher oral CF given on in-class oral presentations and PowerPoint slides, yet they took a very small sample size (i.e. only three students). The difference between Wang et al. (2022) and my study is attributed to methodology (sample size and instrument) and focus of OCF timing (Wang et al., 2022 dealt with only delayed CF while this study considered both immediate and delayed oral CF). Moreover, little local research to date has adequately addressed simultaneously learner perception and engagement with oral CF, especially in the context of higher education.

All the above problems triggered me to conduct this study adopting larger sample of participants (as compared to Wang et al., 2022) on how learners perceive OCF and engage across different types of teacher oral corrective feedback, including both immediate and delayed feedback. Therefore, keeping these gaps in mind and taking my personal experience as inspiration, this study was carried out with a view to investigating EFL undergraduate learners' engagement and perceptions of English language teachers' oral corrective feedback.

1.3. Objectives of the Study

1.3.1. General Objective of the Study

The aim of this study is to investigate EFL teachers' oral corrective feedback practices, undergraduate students' perceptions, engagement, and repair moves.

1.3.2. Specific Objectives of the Study

- To investigate the types of oral corrective feedback EFL teachers provide to undergraduate students in the classroom
- To describe how undergraduate students cognitively, behaviorally and affectively engage with oral corrective feedback
- To examine undergraduate students' repair moves as a result of teachers' oral corrective feedback
- To investigate the type of teacher oral corrective feedback that most frequently leads to undergraduate students repair
- To explore undergraduate students' perceptions of teacher oral corrective feedback

1.4. Research Questions

To achieve the above objectives, this study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What types of oral corrective feedback strategies do EFL teachers employ to address undergraduate students' spoken errors in the classroom?
2. How do undergraduate students cognitively, behaviorally, and affectively engage with their English teachers' oral corrective feedback?
3. To what extent do undergraduate students repair their errors following their English teachers' oral corrective feedback?
4. Which type of teacher oral corrective feedback most frequently leads to undergraduate students' repair?
5. What are undergraduate students' perceptions of oral corrective feedback?

1.5. Significance of the Study

The findings of this study greatly contribute to those in the teaching profession and those interested in conducting further research in the area. It will provide teachers with explanatory and contextual insights regarding oral corrective feedback and reactive practices in English classrooms. More specifically, it will enable English language teachers to get a general understanding of how EFL teachers give oral CF in English classrooms, how students respond to different feedback types and fix their erroneous utterances, and their perceptions about the role of oral CF in facilitating second/foreign language learning. English language teachers benefit from this study in terms of shaping their practices of oral feedback provision. Additionally, teacher educators can benefit from the findings about the necessity of including various OCF strategies for teacher training programs.

The findings of this study can also have a paramount importance for language teacher educators to equip their ‘would be’ graduates with the awareness of the role of oral corrective feedback for students’ language learning so that they can use it as an instructional technique in language classrooms. As part of practical contribution, this study informs academic institutions (such as schools, teacher education colleges and universities) that training in corrective feedback and other instructional techniques need to be offered for teachers so that they can fine-tune their preparation and assist their students to enhance their language learning. Theoretically, this study will add some insights to the existing body of knowledge about the role of oral corrective feedback in second/foreign language instruction from the perspectives of cognitive-interactionist and sociocultural theory.

1.6. Scope of the Study

This study tried to get an in-depth and extensive data on the issue under investigation and to uncover the teachers' practice of oral corrective feedback, student engagement, repair moves and the perceptions of EFL students who are taking Spoken English course. Although there exist different modes of corrective feedback (oral and written), this study focuses on oral corrective feedback for several reasons. First, the variables included in this study i.e., engagement and repair are better manifested immediately, in real time (face-to-face) in oral feedback than in the written one. Second, it is useful to investigate one issue in depth for gaining deeper understanding of the subject under study.

Although corrective feedback may be generated from different sources (peer, capable others and teacher), the limited proficiency and exposure to English language outside classroom context makes this study delimited to teacher feedback because although interaction in English classroom takes place among the students themselves, corrective feedback is mainly initiated by English language teachers. It is also delimited to English major students at Bahir Dar University.

1.7. Definitions of Terms

Oral corrective feedback: teachers' oral modifications (such as recast, explicit correction) towards students' error in their oral language production (Tesnim, 2019)

Engagement: students' cognitive, behavioral and affective reactions/responses after teacher oral corrective feedback (Ellis, 2010)

Repair: students' correct reformulation of their own oral errors because of a given oral feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lee, 2007, 2013).

Perception: how students understand, view the role of oral CF in EFL classrooms (Rassaei & Moinzadeh, 2014), and their awareness or noticing of the feedback (Thesaurus dictionary).

Chapter Two: Review of Related Literature

Overview

In this chapter, relevant literature related to this particular study is reviewed. It first describes the nature and type of errors in students' language learning process. The chapter then proceeds to the definition of oral corrective feedback in general and oral CF in particular. It also highlights the different types of oral CF provided in language classrooms, debating issues in OCF, teachers' classroom practices of OCF, the role of oral CF, mediating factors affecting the effectiveness of OCF, and focus on form instruction. In addition, this paper presents a review of studies conducted on engagement in oral CF, repair moves and student' perceptions of oral CF. Last but not least, theories in support of oral CF, and conceptual framework for this study are discussed in detail.

2.1. Language Errors

Having its roots in early pedagogical approaches that prioritized reinforcement and correction in learning processes, the concept of oral corrective feedback has a long and dynamic history. Behaviorist perspective (in the mid-20th century), for example, considered errors as habits to be avoided immediately through corrective feedback to prevent incorrect patterns. However, a dramatic shift in the 1970's and 1980's led to questioning the necessity of error correction, even emphasizing its potential harm. Again in the 1990's, empirical researches witnessed the role of corrective feedback in terms of drawing students attention to gaps in their interlanguage.

In the field of foreign and/or second language teaching and learning, errors are defined by Corder (1967) as deviations in learner's language use resulting from lack of knowledge of the correct rules. Muslem et al. (2017) claim that EFL students making errors while using the target language is common and unavoidable. Moreover, errors are inevitable in students' language learning process, and they are signals that students have developed and assimilated language rules (Tarigan et al., 2023). The distinction between error and mistake should be made clear to set the context. Errors occur due to lack of the target language knowledge, i.e. competence gap while mistakes arise from performance phenomenon such as memory limitations and lack of automaticity (Corder, 1967). The importance of errors in language learning is therefore advocated by Corder (1967) as they indicate what the student's level is.

In foreign language contexts, like Ethiopia, where there is little exposure to English language practices for the community, error correction is the responsibility of English teachers in the classroom (Tarigan et al., 2023). Errors in English speaking might cause problems in a listener's understanding. Errors committed by native speakers are more likely to be immediately corrected by the speakers themselves, as they know the target language structure (Corder, 1967). Foreign language learners, however, may not be able to correct their errors the same way. Such student errors are an indication of lack of the basic proficiency in the language they are learning. Consequently, these student errors, or deviations, are indicators of the students' learning status and the driving force resulting in language teachers providing corrective feedback. While feedback may take different forms depending on various disciplines, the term in the field of language teaching is defined as follow by different scholars.

2.2. Definition of Corrective Feedback

Providing corrective feedback is fundamental to the educational process in general and to teaching and learning language in particular. The term feedback can be either positive or negative (Fathimah, 2020), and negative feedback called corrective feedback is the focus of this study. This negative feedback tells students what is not possible in the use of a target language (Sheen, 2004). In the field of second/foreign language learning, the term corrective feedback has been defined in different ways by different theoreticians and researchers, depending upon their varied lived experience.

Some of the definitions of corrective feedback are the following. Corrective feedback is “a means of offering modified input to students which could consequently lead to modified output by the students” (Calsiyao, 2015, p. 395). It also refers to the responses or treatments from teachers to a learner’s non target-like second language (L2) production (Chen et al., 2016). Moreover, it deals with “responses to learner utterances containing an error” (Ellis, 2006, p. 28); a form-focusing device that, via the provision of negative evidence, informs the learner about the problematic nature of his/her L2 production (Li, 2014); an indication that all or part of language learners’ production is deviant (Sarandi, 2016).

Besides, Nassaji and Kartchava (2021) call it negative evidence defined as information about what is not possible in a given language. What is more, Russell and Spada (2006) defined CF as any feedback from any source provided to a learner’s utterance containing error of language form or sometimes error of pragmatics. However, Suzuki (2004) proposed a more restrictive approach claiming that corrective feedback is a pedagogical technique utilized by

teachers to attract students' attention to erroneous parts of their utterance and to lead to modified output.

Similarly, Lyster et al. (2013) contend that CF is necessarily teacher-directed and functions as a critical scaffolding element for second language growth. For the consumption of this study too, only teacher corrective feedback to students' linguistic errors is considered. Sheen (2011) even assumed a specific definition of corrective feedback in that it is a reactive move made by teachers to invite students to attend to the grammatical accuracy of what they already produced. In support of this definition is Kartchava (2019, p. 10) "... any teachers' reactive move (explicit or implicit), whose aim is not only to warn the learner about the presence of an error, but to also move him/her to attend to the accuracy of their production." Despite the variability in expressions, the commonality of the above definitions is that corrective feedback is all about language teachers' reactions to the learners' erroneous second language production, with an intention to modify their L2 utterances.

Corrective feedback comprises of two modalities: oral and written. Oral corrective feedback, the focus of this study, has been defined by different scholars as follows. For example, Oliver and Adams (2021, p. 188) view OCF as "response provided by teachers or other conversational partners to language learners when their output is erroneous, non-target-like, and/or not appropriate or ambiguous". Again, Mackey (2007, p. 14) describes oral corrective feedback "reactive information that learners receive regarding the linguistic and communicative failure of their utterances". This means oral feedback does not come from scratch, but because of a certain linguistic error by students. It is a reactive event of responding to students' erroneous language production aiming to rectify those errors. The responses may be in the form of (a)

indicating the error committed, (b) providing the correct language form, or (c) giving metalinguistic information on the error, or combination of any (Ellis et al., 2006). In addition, Tesnim (2019) defines oral corrective feedback as the process of giving correction toward student's error in oral production, which can be conveyed by teachers. Oral CF is a teacher commentary on oral presentations (Wang et al, 2016). Moreover, Tomita and Spada (2013) explain the function of oral CF as an instructional strategy of teaching in second language acquisition.

Oral CF does not necessarily mean only verbal aspects, but also includes other accompanying features such as hand movement, facial expressions, pauses etc. that carry significant information (Chen & Nassaji, 2018). Principally, the term oral corrective feedback describes how teachers correct students' spoken faults during language learning activities by responding to them right away. It seeks to find and fix errors so that students can become more proficient in the target language. OCF indicates to students in an oral mode, either implicitly or explicitly, that something is not right with what they have said.

2.3. Effectiveness of Oral Corrective Feedback in English Classes

Oral corrective feedback is one of the pedagogical tools used by English language teachers to address spoken errors of students. Provided by English language teachers, oral corrective feedback boosts students' language development by facilitating error correction and fostering accuracy. Its effectiveness in language learning has been witnessed by various research results (Loewen & Sato, 2018; Lyster et al., 2013; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Ozturk, 2016; Sakiroglu, 2020; Zhao & Ellis, 2022). In descriptive studies, oral corrective feedback

effectiveness is witnessed by students' response i.e., uptake or repair moves (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2021). Students revise their erroneous utterances in response to the given feedback.

Findings of several studies revealed inconsistent results due to differential effects of various types of oral corrective feedback. In an experimental study, Zhao and Ellis (2022) investigated the relative effects of implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the results showed accuracy gains in the form of procedural and declarative knowledge of students in the experimental groups. In addition, different meta-analyses (e.g. Brown, 2016; Ellis et al., 2006; Li and Vuono, 2019; Lyster and Saito, 2010) highlighted the role oral corrective feedback plays in language classroom. For example, a meta-analysis by Ellis et al. (2006) found explicit correction as advantageous over its counterpart implicit correction. Long (1996, 2007) claim recasts as effective due to their nature of implicitness and leading to implicit learning. He is not in favor of either explicit correction or prompts. He explained his concerns regarding prompts that they do not provide students with positive evidence while, for him, recasts can give students both negative and positive evidences. However, Lyster and Saito's (2010) meta-analysis unveiled larger effects of CF for prompts than for recasts.

Recent research tends to emphasize on the importance of student engagement during oral feedback process. The effectiveness of CF significantly relies on how students deal with the given feedback during learning process (Liu & Feng, 2023). Students' increased engagement with the given corrective feedback leads to better learning performance (De Haas et al., 2020). Therefore, learners' engagement with the corrective information should be a prerequisite for corrective feedback to affect learning positively (Van der Kleij & Lipnevich, 2021). In addition to various mediating variables, student engagement in, and use of, oral corrective feedback

greatly influences its effectiveness (Pawlak, 2014; Jonsson and Panadero, 2018). Moreover, the effectiveness of different feedback strategies is contingent to students' ability to notice the feedback and realize its corrective intent (Rahman & Singh, 2020).

2.4. Taxonomy of Oral Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback is divided differently by researchers and theorists. However, Lyster and Ranta (1997), in a seminal work in the field, identified six types of oral corrective feedback in French immersion classrooms. This classification has been widely used as a baseline or a model for many studies in the field since then (e.g., Ammar & Spada, 2006; Animaw, 2011; Erlam, 2006; Lyster, 1998; Olmezer-Ozturk, 2019). The model consists of the following types of oral CF: recast, explicit correction, clarification request, elicitation, repetition, and metalinguistic feedback. The findings of this study (Lyster and Ranta, 1997) uncovered recasts as the most frequently used feedback type by teachers, yet the least effective in terms of eliciting uptake and repair because students failed to realize that they are being corrected. This result was confirmed by Sheen (2004). In addition, recasts may be perceived as a confirmation rather than a correction (Ellis & Sheen).

Lyster and Mori (2006) also grouped the above feedback categories into recasts, explicit corrections and prompts. In 2007, Ranta and Lyster reorganized OCF types into two broad categories: reformulations (recasts and explicit correction) and prompts (repetition, elicitation, clarification request and meta-linguistic cues). Ellis (2009, 2010) used other terminologies for reformulations and prompts: input-providing CF and output-pushing CF, respectively. In the former case (input providing), students are provided with the correct form of their faulty production while in the later one, students are given the opportunity in different ways to self-

correct their errors. Prompts are used with the assumption that simply providing the correction of the error may not be sufficient. Instead, students must be allowed to discover the correct form for themselves (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2021). The benefit of prompts is attributed to the opportunities it creates for students to self-correct their initial erroneous utterances (Lyster & Sato, 2012). Similarly, Afitska (2015) claims students should be made to self-correct.

Other classifications of corrective feedback are also available: immediate and delayed (as in Ellis, 2009) depending upon the time corrective feedback should be given to students. In this regard, Long (1997) argues delayed feedback as more effective because it does not impede the flow of communication. Other scholars (Doughty, 2001; Lee, 2013; Yoshida, 2008), however, are in favor of immediate feedback though no evidence resides as to the one is better than the other. Another perspective to view CF is explicit and implicit (as in Sheen & Ellis, 2011), considering the manner of CF delivery. Implicit oral CF takes place when the teacher requests clarification following students' faulty oral production (Sheen & Ellis, 2011) while explicit correction involves teacher's indication of the errors and provision of the correct forms. Teachers may also utilize recasts, reformulating students' wrong utterances. In a similar fashion to most of recent researches in the field of oral corrective feedback, the taxonomy developed by Lyster and Ranta (1997) holds true for the purpose of this study too.

Explicit correction

As the name shows, the teacher overtly indicates the error and presents the correct language form (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mendez & Cruz, 2012). It is by nature more direct than any other feedback strategy in terms of signaling and rectifying students' errors (Xie & Yeung,

2018). It is a correction strategy when the teacher's tone clearly signposts the student's improper use of the target language and when the right form is supplied by the teacher. Briefly, explicit correction is all about teachers' response to the students' unacceptable utterance and their offering of the right form. Such offering or provision of appropriate form is called explicit corrective feedback (Rochma, 2023).

Student: She have two brothers. (Grammatical error)

Teacher: It is not "have" but "has".

Student: Ok, she has two brothers.

Recasts

This is a strategy where the teacher provides corrective feedback by reformulating the learner's utterance minus error (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), with no explicit indication of the error (Valeo, 2021) and thus an implicit kind of feedback. It involves teacher's paraphrasing of students' erroneous oral production by replacing it with the right version (Maggi & Quishpe, 2017) while maintaining the meaning intended by the student (Oliver & Adams, 2021). Recasts, though, are not usually followed by reaction from students and they inhibit the need to notice the corrective nature (Kartchava, 2019). Hence, they are less likely to trigger students towards incorporation of accurate forms. They are misunderstood as a confirmation of what has been said than error treated (Pawlak, 2014). The pedagogical function of recasts is to allow conversation to go forward without interruption. Recasting can take place in two ways: whole and partial. Whole utterance recast refers to teacher reformulating the student's entire sentence that consists of incorrect form.

E.g. Student: I go to the market yesterday

Teacher: Oh, you *went* to the market yesterday. That is great.

In this dialogue, the student committed grammatical error where he missed indicating past in the verb to show the past action that took place a day ago. In response to this ill-formed part of utterance (*go*) by the student, the teacher reformulated (as *went*) that grammatical mistake but without explicitly showing the error and the correction. In partial recast, however, the teacher reformulates the student's erroneous part of utterance only, not the whole sentence.

E.g. Student: My mother do not like cats.

Teacher: does not like.

Ranta and Lyster (2007) sorted explicit correction and recasts as one category named 'reformulation' where the teacher presents with target-like form of the students' erroneous utterances. The nature of these feedback strategies (explicit correction and recast) in terms of the teacher's provision of correct form makes them fall under Ellis' (2009) taxonomy of feedback as 'input-providing'.

Clarification request

Unlike recasts and explicit correction that provide reformulations for students' non-target-like oral production, clarification request as one of prompting strategies pushes learners to self-correct or reformulate their ill-formed utterances (Oliver & Adams, 2021). It tries to indicate an issue with students' oral production by indirectly suggesting, "the message has been misunderstood by the teacher or that utterance is ill-formed in some way and a repetition or

reformulation is required” (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 47). This feedback strategy refers to problems arising in either comprehensibility or accuracy or both (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Teachers may utilize various ways of clarification request as follow.

Student: The cat **barked**.

Teacher: Sorry, do cats bark? What do you mean?

Student: The cat **meowed**.

The teacher intentionally pretended not to have understood the student’s speech, which prompted the student to look for an alternative way of expressing his ideas. He successfully fixed his vocabulary error.

Metalinguistic feedback

This type of feedback consists of comments, information, and questions following students’ erroneous utterances. These expressions serve to indicate existence of an error somewhere in the student’s oral production and provide grammatical meta-language pertaining to the nature of the error (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). However, the correct answer is not explicitly provided by the teacher.

e.g. Student: He **like** reading fiction in his free time.

Teacher: singular subject takes verb ‘-s’

Student: He **likes** ...

Teacher: That is great.

Elicitation

In this type of feedback, the teacher elicits the right form from the student's error either by asking questions, pausing to help the student finish the teacher's utterance or by asking the student to reformulate the utterance (Sheen, 2004; Rochma, 2023). Nassaji and Kartchava (2021) argue that elicitation does not supply correct language form; instead, it prompts students to correct their original erroneous output. As student-centered techniques, elicitation encourages to analyze their errors and actively participate in the correction process, helping for greater understanding and retention of the correct language. That is it provides them with the opportunity to self-repair own errors. This is the reason Ellis (2009) categorized it under 'output prompting' strategies.

e.g., Student: This tea is very warm.

Teacher: It's very _____?

Student: hot.

Repetition

In this strategy, the wrongly produced language form is repeated either partially or entirely to prompt the correct form (Mendez & Cruz, 2012). While repeating, a change in intonation is required to emphasize the error as in a question form. As a feedback strategy, repetition involves teachers' repeating the student's faulty utterance while adjusting his or her tone to call the student's attention to the error (Rochma, 2023).

E.g. Student: I **eated** breakfast.

Teacher: I **eated** breakfast?

Unlike reformulations i.e., recasts and explicit correction that provide the accurate forms of students' errors, the above-mentioned prompting strategies (clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation and repetition) are used to enquire if students can move towards production stage and self-correction with no explanatory information from the teacher (Sarandi, 2016).

Concisely, each kind of corrective strategy plays a role in rectifying students' errors in an alternative way. Definitions and examples of oral corrective feedback types can be summarized following those used in Ellis (2009), Lee (2013) and Lyster & Ranta (1997) as indicated below.

Summary for typology of oral corrective feedback, with definitions and examples

Types of CF	Definitions	Examples
1. Explicit correction	Indicates an error has been committed, identifies the error, and provides the correction.	S: On May. T: Not on May, in May. We say, "It will start in May."
2. Recast	Reformulates all or part of the incorrect word or phrase, to show the correct form without explicitly identifying the error	S: I have to find the answer on the book. T: In the book
3. Clarification request	Indicates that the student's utterance was not understood and asks that the student reformulate it	S: They are old rooms in the big house and a garden T: Sorry? Can you say it again please! S: There are old rooms in the big house and there is a garden
4. Metalinguistic feedback	Gives technical linguistic information about the error without explicitly providing the correct answer	S: There are influence persons. T: Influence is a noun.
5. Elicitation	Prompts the student to self-correct by pausing so the student can fill in the correct word or phrase	S: This tea is very warm. T: It's very? S: Hot.
6. Repetition	Repeats the student's error while highlighting the error or the mistake by means of emphatic stress	S: I will showed you. T: I will SHOWED you? S: I'll show you.

2.5. Debates on Oral Corrective Feedback in Language Teaching

The issue of corrective feedback in language teaching has long been debated for decades. While most researchers and practitioners acknowledged the role of corrective feedback as a catalyst for linguistic accuracy, some claimed correction harms students' fluency. Now, the conversation has shifted to considering appropriate feedback timing and type, way of delivery, and students' individual differences (Kartchava, 2019).

2.5.1. Arguments for OCF Use

Plenty of justifications supporting the practice of oral correction in language classroom are presented by theoreticians and researchers in the field of language teaching and learning. During the process of learning a target language, it is unavoidable and inevitable that students commit errors (Muslem et al., 2017; Tarigan et al., 2023). Even though Krashen (1982) claims that research findings showed students placed in purely input-focused classes attained advanced in receptive skills (reading and listening) including fluency, Kartchava (2019) argued that students were not successful in attaining accuracy in writing and speaking and the instruction was unidirectional as dominated by the teacher.

Krashen's claim was argued by Maggi and Quishpe (2017) in that exposing students to input alone is not sufficient to help them attain high level of language proficiency. Teacher oral corrective feedback is important for language pedagogy (Ellis, 2017) to help students recognize their linguistic errors and to get rid of them in the learning process. In EFL contexts with little exposure to the target language, error correction is deemed the responsibility of English language

teachers (Tarigan et al., 2023). Different theoretical views lend to support the provision of teacher oral correction claiming that it benefits for students' interlanguage development.

Long (1996), while advocating negotiation of meaning through Interaction hypothesis, highlights the value of modified interaction. This modification or adjustment includes corrective feedback and facilitates language learning. In line with this, Lyster and Mori (2006) claim that teacher-student interaction plays a pedagogical role not only related to meaning but also to formal accuracy. To this end, corrective feedback facilitates language acquisition of students through provision of a targeted output.

Oral corrective feedback helps students to give attention to specific language forms (Schmidt, 2001). Noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990, 2001) emphasizes the need of students' attention to compare between their faulty utterance and the target-like form. For Schmidt, corrective feedback promotes students' metalinguistic awareness when drawing attention to specific language forms. This can make the students recognize their errors, which in turn leads them to self-correction. In the context of this, Kartchava (2019) claims that corrective feedback plays a significant role in both accuracy-focused and fluency-driven types of production by helping students to pay attention to form during meaningful communication and providing them with an opportunity for in-time learning.

Cognitive-interactionists argue for corrective feedback considering its role attributed to a process i.e., negotiation (Nassaji, 2021). This negotiation involves interactional modifications during interaction to repair communication breakdowns. In addition, socio-cultural theory has now been another framework for understanding the role of corrective feedback. Known for this theory, Vygotsky (1978) views learning as a social and collaborative process where the

knowledgeable peer (teacher) guides the novice (student) to achieve what he would not otherwise do. Language development focuses on social dimension of learning. This way, corrective feedback is a dialogic endeavor between the learner and the capable person (Nassaji, 2021). This helps the learner to achieve what she/he would not achieve without assistance.

Moreover, numerous research findings highlighted compelling reasons for using oral corrective feedback in language classroom. Oliver and Adams (2021) argue for the potential benefit of oral correction in language learning regardless of types of corrective feedback and linguistic focus. In an experimental study, Nhac (2021) examined the effects of teacher corrective feedback on students' oral accuracy in English lessons. The findings were promising in that corrective feedback can enhance students' English language competence. Likewise, using a pretest-posttest method, Rohmah and Halim (2023) tested a group of students (27) in English for academic purpose (EAP) class. The results, with an increase from the mean score of the pretest to the posttest, indicated that teacher corrective feedback significantly improves students' English speaking performance. The authors concluded by suggesting the utilization of teacher corrective feedback to help students' improve their learning in English as a foreign language classroom. Lyster et al. (2013) also claim that providing corrective feedback is more beneficial for students than providing no corrective feedback at all as it is viewed as instructional input.

Another argument for the use of oral corrective feedback comes from the stance that errors should be removed early, before becoming bad habits for students. Yuksel et al (2021) considers oral corrective feedback as imperative for language students to improve their understanding, and communicative ability in the language. Muslem et al (2017) and Calsiyao (2015) assert that corrective feedback is instrumental to prevent students' errors from being

fossilized. Li & Vuono (2019) also stresses that total rejection of corrective feedback in EFL classroom results in some linguistic forms being fossilized. This is because students perceive, if errors are not corrected, as if their oral productions were correct.

In a public lecture held in 2018 in Teachers College, Columbia University, Lyster boldly claimed that providing corrective feedback is more effective than not providing feedback, mentioning his experience of classroom-based, empirical research.

2.5.2. Arguments against OCF Use

Although majority of research and practice in English language teaching supports the use of oral corrective feedback (Lyster et al, 2013), prominent authors argued against its practice, suggesting that it is detrimental to language acquisition. Theoretically, the argument for the role of corrective feedback arises from the idea whether or not negative evidence is necessary in language classroom. Principally, it was viewed negatively by some theorists and researchers (e.g. Krashen, 1982; Truscott, 1999, 2007; and somehow Van Patten, 1992). These figures base their argument on the efficacy of error correction, language acquisition theories and negative consequences of corrective feedback.

For example, Krashen (1982), one of the well-known figures in the theory of second language acquisition, called error correction “a serious mistake” that is harmful and puts students in the defensive (p.75). His argument emanates from his hypothesis of ‘acquisition-learning’, and for him, language acquisition occurs through students’ exposure to comprehensible input, not via correction. In his Input Hypothesis, Krashen advocates comprehensible input as the determining factor and sufficient for students to acquire language. In this regard, corrective feedback is assumed to have a minimal role for language development, with language acquisition taking

place primarily through the subconscious processing of comprehensible input rather than conscious learning or negative evidence like explicit error correction.

In addition, Krashen asserts that error correction could affect the flow of communication. He further argues that what students need is rich environment where they practice the target language. That is why he stands against explicit language instruction and suggests the so-called 'The Input Hypothesis'. Similarly, van Patten (1992, p. 24) argues "correcting errors in learner output has a negligible effect on the developing system of most language learners" although, later in 2003, he reflected a different position about CF that it aids acquisition.

Another prominent critic against oral corrective feedback is Truscott (1999) claiming that correction (especially of grammar) does not improve students' ability to speak grammatically correct sentences. He questions the effectiveness of oral correction for language acquisition in this regard, arguing that correction may not lead to long-term improvement in students' accuracy. Truscott (1999) assumes that students can acquire grammatical structures following their own internal syllabus, with language acquisition as a complex and subconscious process that cannot be significantly changed by pointing out to students' errors.

In addition, Truscott's critic is rooted in the possible harmful psychological effects of corrections on students. He further exemplifies the consequences of error correction such as anxiety, reluctance to speak the language, and frustration. His claim is supported by Martinez's (2013) study that was conducted on 208 EFL students in Spain. The study investigated how these secondary school students emotionally respond to teacher oral corrective feedback. The findings showed that some students found oral corrective feedback inhibiting and embarrassing although the higher percentage of the participants responded that they feel satisfied with oral correction by

their teacher. What is more, students feel upset when they do not understand the given corrective feedback. Martinez warned about the potential prevalence of students' affective damage during oral correction process.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), with its emphasis on meaning, was also against explicit correction assuming that students will be able to master the language successfully without any explicit instruction (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2017). As long as the goal is to develop students' communicative competence, language instruction should be exclusively meaning-focused. All the above arguments could be assumed to be based on linguistic (e.g. efficacy of oral correction questioned and even hindering fluency) and psychological (students' emotional damage such as increased anxiety and reduced self-confidence) reasons.

2.5.3. The Balanced Approach

Once the argument *in favor of* oral corrective feedback in language classroom seems to have dominated (highlighting its importance in language learning), the long-running debate has now come to the differential effects of various feedback types. The argument should not be necessarily "to correct or not to correct" students' errors but rather "how" and "when" to provide OCF.

To this end, Kartchava (2019) advises teachers to supply corrective feedback in an atmosphere of support and warm solidarity, if learners are to be made feel that the teacher's motive is honestly to promote and encourage their learning, but not to push them down. Parallel to this, teachers need to consider students' individual differences and tailor the oral feedback to them. Still, Kartchava recommends a combination of verbal feedback with paralinguistic features

to help students notice the feedback with relative ease. In addition, she calls for student training to recognize the function of feedback explicitly.

2.6. Teachers' Oral Corrective Feedback Practices in English Classrooms

In a study examining teacher feedback practices in second-year university level Japanese language course, Yoshida (2008) found that recasts accounted the largest (51%) of all feedback moves used by the teacher. In addition, Ahangari and Amirzadeh (2011) conducted a study in an Iranian EFL context on elementary, intermediate and advanced level students. Surprisingly, they found that recast was the most frequently used type of corrective feedback in all levels, followed by explicit correction (for elementary and intermediate level) and metalinguistic feedback (for advanced level students). Similarly, a study by Fathimah (2020) revealed the teachers' preferred use of recasts that account for 51% of total feedback occurrences, the same as that of Yoshida (2008). Recasts were followed by elicitation 16.7% while clarification request (0.8%) was the least frequently used feedback strategy.

In another study by Roothoof (2014), adult EFL teachers used recasts, explicit correction, and elicitation as feedback strategy frequently while repetition, metalinguistic feedback and clarification request were the least frequently used feedback types. Moreover, the results of studies by Ozturk (2016) and Olmezer-Ozturk (2019) unveiled that recasts and explicit correction respectively were predominantly used by teachers. In addition, in a Chinese as a Second Language classroom (Bao, 2019), the results indicated recasts as the most prevalent corrective feedback type. While examining 20 EFL University teachers' relationship between their beliefs and practices of oral corrective feedback, Yuksel et al (2021) found teachers' dominant practice of recast (61.35%) and elicitation (24.4%) in the classroom. Another study by

Nassaji et al. (2023), conducted for the same purpose, demonstrated teachers' use of 63% recasts from all the feedback moves. A recent study by Zhang et al (2025) too, focusing on Chinese high school teachers' practices in EFL classroom, presented recast as the major corrective strategy (69%) of all feedback types.

However, an observational study by Gitsaki and Althobaiti (2010), on beginner-level and intermediate ESL students, showed teachers' frequent practice of explicit correction over any other feedback types. In the same vein, a qualitative study by Hartono (2018), conducted in an EFL speaking class of 27 students in Malang, Indonesia, demonstrated the teacher's dominant employment of explicit correction (90%). Likewise, a local study by Meseret (2009) depicted teachers' abundant use of explicit correction to fix students' spoken errors. This resembles somehow with the findings of a study by Bereket (2021) where the teachers mostly employed reformulations (recast and explicit correction) instead of prompting students for self and peer correction.

Moreover, Eyerusalem (2021) examined the alignment between teachers' OCF practices and students' preferences, and she reported inconclusive result of independent teacher's OCF practices (though limited). A certain teacher provided clarification request as a feedback strategy while another teacher utilized explicit correction. She questioned the teachers' skill and knowledge about the benefit and the practice of OCF to help students learn by correcting their errors. Her doubt emanates from the nature of the teachers' feedback, as they were fragments and ungrammatical thus incomprehensible. All the above teachers' practices signaled the prevalence of corrective feedback in language classrooms. The question of which type of corrective

feedback takes the domination remains varied as it could be attributed to differing contexts, teachers' individual preferences and their perceived benefit of feedback types.

From another perspective of teachers' OCF practices, the specific linguistic focus targeted for correction is contingent upon the teacher's deliberate choice to emphasize one aspect of error over others. For instance, teachers in the study of Bao (2019) dominantly targeted to address phonological errors. Pronunciation errors received the largest amount (48%) of all corrective feedback in the classroom. In meta-analysis by Brown (2016), the results indicated that the teachers utilized the greatest proportion (43%) of oral corrective feedback to address students' grammar errors. In the same way, while synthesizing studies on oral corrective feedback, Rahman and Singh (2020) reported varied results on the linguistic focus on which teachers prefer to target for correction. However, they claim grammar errors were emphasized by teachers for correction.

Various studies conducted in the context of EFL classrooms displayed differing oral feedback practices in terms of feedback timing. Olmezer-Ozturk (2019), in a study on Turkish EFL teachers' practices and beliefs regarding the timing of feedback, came up with findings unveiling teachers' use of delayed feedback (77.2%) than immediate feedback. However, Yuksel et al (2021) found teachers favorably applying immediate correction (80% of all the time) to treat student errors. In the same vein, a local descriptive study by Meseret (2009) showed teachers' extensive use of immediate oral feedback to fix student errors. Similar to this, Bereket (2021) studied oral corrective feedback practices and students' preferences, and he found teachers' application oral correction as soon as students commit errors. Li et al. (2016) investigated the effects of feedback timing and reported that, although both immediate and delayed feedback

resulted in grammatical gains, immediate corrective feedback showed advantages over delayed feedback.

In a comparative study of experienced and non-experienced teachers' practice of OCF timing, Rahimi and Zhang (2015) presented that experienced teachers provide immediate feedback while the non-experienced ones deliver delayed corrections. Xu and Zeng (2023) made a systematic review on corrective feedback timing taking 20 empirical studies from 2006 to 2021. The review shows that no optimal timing of feedback is suggested. Thus, immediate corrective feedback is more effective or equally effective compared to delayed correction. This could be attributed to communicative modality and degree of feedback explicitness. Despite these arguments, there is widely accepted that immediate oral CF is commonly practiced in L2 learning and teaching (Xu & Zeng, 2023). Immediate feedback is assumed to treat students' errors and reinforce correct behaviors. The use of immediate corrective feedback is supported by theoretical explanations from Skill Acquisition Theory and Socio-cultural Theory.

2.7. Students' Engagement and Oral Corrective Feedback

As oral corrective feedback by nature is participatory feedback (Rochma, 2023), it requires teacher's conversation with his or her students. This part of interaction invites students to react to/engage with teacher feedback following their errors. In the context of language teaching, Ellis (2010, p. 342) defines engagement as "how learners respond to the feedback they receive". With oral corrective feedback as a useful teaching strategy for language teachers, students' engagement too should be regarded. It is claimed by Liu and Feng (2023) that student engagement and learning outcome are linked, where different degrees of engagement foresee different of responses to corrective feedback and different academic outcomes. As mentioned

somewhere in this paper, provision of oral corrective feedback by itself may not suffice for students' language learning to be successful. Students' reaction or their response to the teacher's feedback plays a paramount role for its effectiveness.

Rahmat et al. (2018) discussed two main purposes of oral corrective feedback: giving evidences to the learners about their performance and boosting-up learners' instructional interests, learning preferences and deep-seated motives so that they will demonstrate high engagement in the oral instruction. From the dimension of oral corrective feedback, Ellis (2010) views engagement in terms of how learners feel (affective), understand (cognitive) and how they act (behavioral) on their teachers' oral feedback. The aforementioned tripartite dimensions of student engagement were first identified by Fredricks et al. (2004). These sub-constructs of engagement can be discussed independently as follows.

2.7.1. Cognitive Engagement

Cognitive engagement involves attending to feedback if the CF is to have any effect on learners' developing interlanguage (Schmidt, 1990). This attention involves noticing and noticing-the-gap as well as rehearsal, the process by which material is held and recycled in working memory. Cognitive engagement generally deals with students' cognitive investment in comprehending teacher oral feedback (Wang et al., 2022). Cognitive engagement refers to students' mental effort and activity and complicated learning strategies (Liu & Feng, 2023) used to process and respond to the given feedback.

2.7.2. Behavioral Engagement

Unlike cognitive engagement, behavioral response lends itself easily to inspection since it quite openly manifests itself in what learners do with the CF provided in terms of immediate modifications of their oral output, as visible in their attempts at uptake (an attempt to incorporate correction) and repair i.e., output modification in line with the target language (Pawlak, 2014). Segments or episodes that are interactive in nature are deliberately identified for this purpose. Therefore, cognitive engagement differs from behavioral engagement in that the former is mental action, that is, covert (cognitive operation) and the latter is behavioral action, that is, overt (Wang et al., 2022) and expressed through uptake or repair.

2.7.3. Affective Engagement

This dimension of engagement refers to “students’ internal states and attitudinal responses or affective reactions to the CF” (Liu & Feng, 2023, p. 2). This in turn can affect the students’ language learning experiences. How they emotionally respond to the feedback determines its effectiveness. There are socio-emotional factors that affect students’ engagement with the teacher’s corrective feedback. They include anxiety, confidence, motivation, and embarrassment. Overall, the multidimensional variable engagement plays a great role to students’ learning outcome.

2.8. Studies on Oral Corrective Feedback

It is common knowledge, as the literature tells us, that oral corrective feedback has been studied from various perspectives: provision of CF, effectiveness of CF, teachers’ beliefs vs. practice, learners’ preference, etc. Researches on oral corrective feedback are extended from descriptive ones showing practices and different typologies of CF to experimentations on the

differential effects of various CF strategies. This study, however, focused on constructs like engagement, repair moves and perception of teacher oral CF from student perspective as discussed below in detail.

2.8.1. Studies on Students' Engagement with Oral Corrective Feedback

Cognitive engagement with teacher oral corrective feedback (OCF) is the students' mental processing and the deliberate effort they expend to notice, understand, and act upon corrections during communicative interaction (Wang et al., 2022; Liu & Feng, 2023). Cognitive engagement goes beyond simple "uptake"; it involves the student's activation of self-regulation strategies and the "noticing of gaps" between current interlanguage and the target language provided by the teacher (Fu & Li, 2022).

Regarding behavioral engagement, for example, a study by Sakiroglu (2020) depicted oral corrective feedback resulting in learners' modified output, which may or may not be repair. These practices can be captured through audio- or video-recording samples of naturally occurring classroom discourse.

Research into the affective aspects of engagement displays a mix of results. For example, provision of oral CF, in the context of elementary-level students, causes humiliation and embarrassment in learners (Ölmezer-Öztürk & Öztürk, 2016). Saeli et al. (2021) reported their findings that students' positive affective engagement led to positive behavioral and cognitive engagement. In alignment with this finding, Hartono et al. (2022) revealed that students had almost positive effect of oral feedback despite inducing some psychological problems like low confidence and worry to make mistakes in the classroom. However, Wang et al.'s (2022) case study on undergraduate students revealed two strands of finding. On the one hand, students

displayed positive emotions to oral CF; on the other hand, the result corroborates Ellis's (2009) claim that CF can cause social strain and embarrassment that discourage L2 students. In this case, Kartchava (2019) voices corrective feedback should be supplied in an atmosphere of support to make students feel that the teacher's motive is honestly to promote and encourage their learning, not to push them down.

2.8.2. Studies on Oral Corrective Feedback and Student Repair

Before diving deep into repair, let us look at the term 'uptake', which seems similar to repair. These words are fundamental concepts in the study of oral corrective feedback as pertaining to the work of Lyster and Ranta (1997). Uptake and repair represent two different stages in the process of students' attempt to correct their errors. Uptake refers to all immediate reactions of student's following the teacher's corrective feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Broader in scope, it draws students' attention their initial error, and is a signal of the response move to the correction sequence. Uptake can be either successful or unsuccessful. An uptake is said to be successful when the student corrects the error successfully. Unsuccessful uptake is when the student repeats the previous error, makes another error while correcting the original one, acknowledges 'Yes' 'Oh' 'I see'.

It is now to look at what really is repair. Narrower in scope (as a subset of uptake), repair is the student's utterance with the correct reformulation or modification of the original erroneous language form. It is the student's successful correction of the error. The ultimate goal of corrective feedback is to prompt students to self-repair their errors. Repair refers to adjustments made to former speech to deal with certain troubles (Schegloff et al., 1977). It is used to treat

problems in talk-in-interaction. Mohammed (2022) cited Schegloff et al. (1977) and Schegloff (2000) that repair practices involve four classifications.

The first one is self-initiated self-repair where, in the context of his study, a student makes an error and repairs himself/herself. In the second repair type (self-initiated other-repair), student makes an error and tries somehow to fix the problem but the teacher completes the correction. As a third type, other-initiated self-repair involves the language teacher prompting students and they correct their own errors. The last type of repair is other-initiated other-repair in which the teacher elicits the student, to correct the error but still the student does not address the linguistic problem well. Then, the teacher himself/herself fixes the faulty production. For the purpose of this particular study where a teacher gives oral CF and students are supposed to repair their erroneous utterances, other-initiated self-repair was considered appropriate type of repair.

Research into oral CF mostly considers its outcome in terms of uptake, not repair. The two terms, however, are different and distinguished as follows: Lyster and Ranta (1997, p. 49) defined uptake “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”. Repair, however, refers to only the students’ successful reformulation of their errors (Lee, 2007), teacher-initiated learner-correction of an error during interaction in a classroom setting (Lee, 2013).

All forms of student response after teacher feedback are uptakes, but may not necessarily be repairs. That is why Lee (2013) further remarks that repair takes place after corrective feedback and when the learner opts to reformulate or fix his or her original erroneous production by incorporating the feedback. It can be noted that a certain percentage of student uptake may

result in repair, which is in line with the corrective intent of the feedback. However, uptake also plays a significant role denoting that students are, at least, aware of their non-target like production. Lyster and Mori (2006) come to point out that uptake provides an effective tool for identifying patterns of teacher-student interaction that include a wide range of learner responses following teacher feedback, thus allowing for an operationalization of pushed output in classroom settings.

Studies on oral corrective feedback depicted diverse rate of repair moves, may be, due to different mediating factors such as second/foreign language context (Brown, 2016), learner proficiency (Lipnevich et al., 2016), feedback timing and feedback type (Nassaji, 2021). For instance, in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) descriptive study of French immersion classes, the result revealed very low rate of learner repair (18%) following recast as teacher feedback. A very latest study by Zhang et al. (2025) presented findings that prompting strategies (elicitation and metalinguistic feedback) and explicit correction promote more student repair than recast, which results in very low student repair. Ellis et al (2001) in a study conducted in ESL classroom context, however, found higher rate of repair (76%) following recasts. Furthermore, a study by Lee (2013) showed the dominance of a specific feedback strategy i.e. recasts generating 92% repair following teacher feedback.

With recasts as a commonly used feedback type, these studies unveiled contrastive results of repair rate. While recast in the study of Ellis et al. (2001) and Lee (2013) resulted in high rate of repair, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) and that of Zhang et al. (2025) findings depicted very low rate of recast leading to repair. A relatively recent study by Asari (2017) shown that short and

interrupting recasts were predictors of modified output as they were more likely to help learners to notice the gap between the target form and its interlanguage form.

2.8.3. Studies on Students' Perceptions of OCF

Researches into the perceptions of students towards teacher oral CF were carried out (Baz et al., 2016; Calsiyao, 2015; Fathimah, 2020; Lee, 2013; Van Ha et al., 2021; Muyashoha & Sugianto, 2019; Olmezer-Ozturk & Ozturk, 2016; Rassaei & Moinzadeh, 2014; Syakira & Nur, 2022; Wiboolyasarin et al., 2020; Yoshida, 2010; Zhang & Rahimi, 2014). The researcher, in this particular study, used *perception* in terms of whether students are *aware* or *cognizant* of the corrective nature of the given feedback and how they *view the usefulness* of feedback.

Regarding OCF usefulness, for example, in a case study conducted by Fathimah (2020) in Indonesian EFL classroom, students perceived corrective feedback as helpful for their English language learning. The findings revealed that students showed interest to get their errors corrected by their teachers, preferably through explicit correction. Moreover, a study by Van Ha et al. (2021) focusing on the relationship between 250 students' and 24 teachers' in a Vietnamese EFL context depicted that both parties (students and teachers) highly valued corrective feedback as a pedagogical technique to learn English, especially explicit types of feedback like explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback.

From the perspective of awareness or cognizance, Olmezer-Ozturk and Ozturk (2016) investigated how elementary-level students in Turkey perceive oral corrective feedback in terms of types and timing of feedback. The findings reveal students did not perceive recasts as feedback, but as a simple repetition of utterances, not alerting enough when errors are committed. Therefore, recasts are not found effective feedback strategy although most widely

used type by teachers as indicated in literature. Students, however, view elicitation as an effective oral CF strategy that leads them to uptake and repair. Moreover, students in this study were not comfortable with immediate and consecutive use of teacher oral feedback.

Regarding feedback timing, this study (Olmezer-Ozturk and Ozturk, 2016) shows students' positive perception to delayed feedback over the immediate one because students do not like to be disturbed by the teacher in the middle of their utterance. This result echoes Long's (1996) argument that delayed feedback is effective, as it does not hinder communication. In contrast, the findings in the study of Van Ha et al. (2021) reveals students' preferences to receive immediate feedback although teachers express their concerns about the possibility that students emotional state and their flow of speech could be disrupted due to the immediate feedback they receive. Similarly, Doughty (2001) views immediate feedback as an effective strategy over delayed one.

Moreover, in an EFL context in Indonesia, Muyashoha and Sugianto's (2019) descriptive study revealed that students perceived their teacher oral CF positively and it was assumed to play a role in enhancing students' linguistic accuracy. Another study by Wiboolyasarini et al. (2020) across three countries, namely China, Korea and Japan, regarding perception of undergraduate students indicates oral corrective feedback as an essential aspect of second language acquisition.

2.9. Mediating Factors Affecting Oral CF Effectiveness

While numerous individual research findings and meta-analyses publicized that corrective feedback assists language learning (e.g. Fu & Li, 2020; Li, 2010; Li et al., 2016; Lyster & Saito, 2010), its effectiveness is highly influenced and thus depend on several mediating factors. The following moderating variables are explained by researchers as

determining CF effectiveness: instructional context, student individual differences such as proficiency level (Kartchava, 2019) and student's age, teacher's experience, feedback type (Nassaji, 2021; Brown, 2016; Milla & Garcia Mayo, 2021), feedback timing (Fu & Li, 2020; Li et al., 2016).

2.9.1. Students' Proficiency Level

English language proficiency level of students has something to decide how much they benefit from corrective feedback. For example, Kartchava (2019) states that students' proficiency level affects feedback effectiveness especially when it comes to prompts such as elicitation, clarification request, etc.

2.9.2. Students' Age

In a meta-analysis study, Lyster and Saito (2010) found younger learners benefited more from CF as compared to older ones. Younger students show more sensitivity to corrective feedback than their counterpart older ones do, so the impact of corrective feedback will be greater for younger learners (Fathimah, 2020). Therefore, Lyster and Saito (2010) suggest that teachers should take benefits of this potential to enhance the development of language learners' accuracy.

2.9.3. Teacher Factors (feedback timing, teacher relation with students)

Of teacher factors affecting CF effectiveness is the timing they address students' errors. Various studies were conducted to decide whether immediate or delayed feedback is more effective than the other one. For example, Li et al. (2016) assessed the effects of corrective

feedback timing on Chinese EFL middle school students' English past passive construction. Although learners receiving delayed feedback outperformed the control group, those who received immediate feedback revealed larger size effects than those in the delayed feedback. Moreover, a study by Fu and Li (2020) who conducted an experiment on the differential effects of immediate and delayed feedback on seventh grade learners' acquisition of English past tense demonstrated that immediate feedback is more advantageous than delayed feedback in terms of facilitating language development.

The timing of corrective feedback has also been explained from different theoretical perspectives. Interaction hypothesis by Long claims that corrective feedback needs to be embedded in interaction. Hence, it should be provided immediately after the occurrence of errors, not at the end of the communicative task. In the same vein, Skill Acquisition Theory (DeKeyser, 2015), which calls for prompts as CF to help students proceduralize their declarative knowledge through practice, suggest corrective feedback to be delivered during, not after the communicative task. Furthermore, socio-cultural theory, explaining language learning as mediated by social interactions between learners and capable peers, claims that teacher scaffolding should be during his or her interaction with students. This shows that corrective feedback is better to be given immediately and during the communicative activity (Li, 2018).

Although plenty of research findings found immediate feedback as more advantageous, delayed corrective feedback by itself is much better than not giving feedback as revealed in previously mentioned studies.

2.9.4. Instructional Context (Second and Foreign Language)

Context is a crucial factor to examining corrective feedback and student responses (Milla and Garcia Mayo, 2021). In second language settings, the target language is an official one, and used outside the instructional environment as in French Immersion Classrooms in Canada (Lyster & Mori, 2006). As such, students have exposure to more frequent and more varied type of input and they have the opportunity to use the target language in a natural way outside the classroom (Milla and Garcia Mayo, 2021).

In foreign language settings, however, the target language is not an official language in the country but taught as a school subject, or for academic purpose. Language as a formal system and as a subject is highly focused in such contexts. Students' exposure to the target language, in such circumstances, is very limited, with 2 to 3 hours a week of scheduled lessons and with very few opportunities to use the language outside the class as in Ethiopia. Therefore, differences in access to real input and exposure to the natural interaction may have an impact on pedagogical decisions about how to provide corrective feedback and pedagogical implications for how students react to CF.

Regarding second/foreign language contexts as mediator of CF, meta-analysis by Li (2010) portrayed foreign language contexts with larger effects for CF than second language contexts. In an EFL context, which is devoid of genuinely authentic foreign language communication, teaching and learning English language seems accuracy-driven, hence a grammar-oriented classroom resides (Kartchava, 2019). This is the case in Ethiopia too, where teachers are expected to strive towards helping students produce accurate language forms.

2.9.5. Feedback Types

In addition to the above-mentioned variables, feedback type is another determining factor for CF effectiveness. The first classification lies on the implicit and explicit dimensions. An experimental study by Zhao and Ellis (2022) yielded equal role of implicit and explicit oral correction. Another study by Yu (2022) mentioned explicit feedback is more effective in terms of enhancing students' willingness to communicate, their L2 speaking development, and L2 grammatical awareness. Nonetheless, a systematic review of corrective feedback (Xu and Zeng, 2023) highlighted the effectiveness of timely implicit feedback over its counter-part explicit. Such disparities in research findings indicate that both implicit and explicit feedback have their own contributions to students' language learning. Therefore, it is the teachers' pivotal role to use them in the classroom as necessary.

Oral feedback effectiveness could also be seen from the perspective of typologies developed by Lyster and Ranta (1997). To this end, prompting strategies (metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, elicitation, etc.) were found the most effective ones leading to successful repair (Lyster & Ranta). To the contrary, short and interruptive recasts also lead students to modify their output by identifying the difference between the target and the interlanguage forms (Asari, 2017). Corroborating this finding, Long (2007) identified recasts as a more efficacious feedback strategy relative to prompts, arguing that prompts and explicit correction do not provide both positive and negative evidences but recasts do this. Regardless of which type, oral corrective feedback is required in a way that meets pedagogical necessity and theoretical explanations. It helps to move students from the actual level to the desired level.

2.10. The Role of Teacher Oral Corrective Feedback in Language Learning

Corrective feedback has now been valued by teachers, researchers and theoreticians. A great deal of studies and meta-analyses are in substantial support towards the necessity of corrective feedback in language teaching and learning (Brown, 2016). Ellis et al. (2006), for example, claim the language teacher's oral feedback is an indication that a learner's utterance contains an error. Corrective feedback is a teacher's behavior that may either overtly elicit a response from the student resulting in self-correction or correct the error (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2017). Kartchava (2019) also claims that giving corrective feedback plays magnificent role in students' performance though with differential effects of various feedback types. This will provide students with the opportunity to fix their problematic utterance. Oral corrective feedback allows the students to notice the gap between the language they produce and the target-like form (Muslem et al., 2017).

Making an error is an indispensable part in the process of learning in general, and of learning a foreign and/or second language in particular. Errors may not sometimes be self-corrected. If those errors are not corrected, various aspects of a learner's interlanguage may get fossilized (Calsiyao, 2015; Ellis, 2009). Muslem et al. (2017) added that students accept those errors as the "right utterances to be learnt" (283), if not corrected. To avoid this, Ahangari and Amirzadeh (2011) and Muslem et al. (2017) suggest using corrective feedback is an important way for teachers to prevent their learners' errors from being fossilized. In their pilot study addressing five students' perceptions, Muslem et al. (2017) found that teacher's oral corrective feedback is really helpful and necessary. When providing oral corrective feedback, teachers help

their students to reduce the possibility of committing the same errors in the future (Muslem et al., 2017). By doing so, students are helped to progress along their interlanguage continuum.

Wang and Loewen (2016) also acknowledge that teacher commentary on oral presentations not only provides a tool for consolidating students' linguistic knowledge, but - perhaps more importantly - aids the development of communicative competence and discourse strategies. Because of corrective feedback, learners get opportunities to compare their interlanguage forms and target-like forms, and it promotes language development. Oral CF is mainly employed for increasing the accuracy of learners' utterances. In a similar vein, Alkhamash and Gulnaz (2019) report the findings of second language acquisition studies that consistent use of oral corrective feedback can improve the noticing, acquisition and retention of language forms. Overall, the literature in different studies attests the valuable contribution of teacher corrective feedback for second/foreign language learning.

2.11. Focus on Form Instruction and Corrective Feedback

Instructions in second and foreign language learning are divided by many researchers and pedagogues into two categories: meaning-focused and form-focused instructions (Alkhamash, & Gulnaz, 2019). Lack of sufficiency to ensure accuracy emanating from meaning-focused instruction led to the introduction of focus on form, which is one category of form-focused instruction (Azad, Farrokhi & Zohrabi, 2018). Focus on form involves an occasional shift in attention to linguistic features by the teacher triggered by observed problems with language production. It overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in meaning focused lessons.

Corrective feedback is the main concern of focus on form instruction as it emphasizes accuracy in pronunciation, grammar, tone of voice and other aspects of language learning. However, meaning-focused instruction focuses on vocabulary learning and the communication of meaning, as well as allowing the occurrence of more mistakes without correction. Pawlak (2014, p. 70) argues, “as a crucial technique in form-focused instruction in language classroom, error correction aids the acquisition of linguistic features.”

Long (1991) has labeled two types of form-focused instruction: focus-on-forms (deals with discrete linguistic items) and focus-on-form (attention to form while in communicative activities). Focus-on-form (FonF) suggests students to be encouraged to attend to form during meaningful interaction through corrective feedback. Ellis (2008) considered corrective feedback as one of the methodological macro-options for focus on form. Under the umbrella term ‘focus on form’, noticing and attention are essential elements for effective language learning, with corrective feedback not only providing students with negative evidences but also helping them to notice the gap between their faulty performance and the target like language features. This in turn helps them to strive for a more accurate L2 production. It overtly draws students’ attention to linguistic elements while the overriding focus is on communication (Long, 1991). As a central element in task-based language teaching (Ellis, 2016), focus on form endeavors to take students’ attention to linguistic forms while performing tasks in contrast with structure-based approach (focus on forms) that focuses on teaching specific linguistic forms. In this instruction, linguistic features are integrated into meaningful activities that require learners to communicate while eliciting their attention incidentally to some linguistic features in the input (Rassaei & Moinszadeh, 2014).

2.12. Issues in Corrective Feedback

In the late 1970s, different questions began to arise regarding the provision of corrective feedback in language classrooms. More specifically, Hendrickson (1978), in his seminal article, articulated the following key questions about corrective feedback:

1. Should learner errors be corrected?
2. If so, when should be learner errors corrected?
3. Which learner errors should be corrected?
4. How should learner errors be corrected? and
5. Who should correct learner errors?

Different studies conducted thus far tried to address these fundamental questions. Regarding the first question (corrective feedback efficacy), Hendrickson's (1978) argument has been confirmed in that observational and experimental studies conducted in various contexts have attested that oral corrective feedback contributes a lot to second language acquisition (Amara, 2015; Ellis, 2009; Fu & Li, 2020; Li et al., 2016; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Zhang & Rahimi, 2014; Zhu & Wang, 2019). Furthermore, meta-analyses (such as Li, 2010; Li and Vuono, 2019; Lyster and Saito, 2010) have also witnessed the positive effects of corrective feedback. For instance, Amara (2015) supports his argument with second language acquisition theory that error correction helps students to change their conscious mental representation of a language rule. This is in line with what Hendrickson (1978) concluded that errors should be corrected to make students aware of their mistakes, based on findings from student survey data. In addition, Ellis (2017) reviewed an array of research findings and advices of teachers related to

issues posed by Hendrickson. He then concluded that OCF assists language learning, but with a due attention not to invoke negative affect in students.

Another question of Hendrickson was when to correct student errors (timing of CF). In this regard, he suggested some errors to be tolerated if students are communicating, claiming that correction is more fit during grammar practice. Apart from this, abundant of studies revealed variable results. Most of them appeared in favor of immediate CF (Doughty, 2001; Fu & Li, 2022; Lee, 2013; Sato & Loewen, 2018; Yoshida, 2008; Zadkhast & Farahian, 2017). The result of a study by Fu and Li (2022) demonstrated the facilitative role of immediate corrective feedback suggesting that linguistic errors should be addressed “before they are proceduralized in the interlanguage” (p.1). In addition, in Interaction Hypothesis, Long (2015) contends immediate feedback, warning that delayed feedback remains decontextualized, is more effective.

In an experimental study comparing the effects of immediate and delayed feedback, Li et al. (2016) also reported a marginal advantage of immediate feedback over delayed feedback, especially for grammar aspects of language learning. Moreover, in his review of teachers’ experiences and research findings, Ellis (2017) suggested that immediate feedback is fit for accuracy works, and delayed feedback for fluency works. Even, Xu and Zeng (2023) claim there is lack of theoretical argument or explanation as to how delayed CF could benefit L2 learning. A replication of Li et al., (2016) was conducted by Li et al., (2025) regarding the ideal time to provide corrective feedback and they testified the former study’s result in that immediate feedback is more advantageous over delayed, remarking that the justification could be practice opportunity in immediate feedback.

Contrary to this, there are other scholars viewing delayed CF as effective facilitator of language learning (Long, 1996; Olmezer-Ozturk & Ozturk, 2016). The assumption behind this is that immediate feedback imposes cognitive burden on students and is less motivating as compared to delayed feedback. Results from the study of Olmezer Ozturk and Ozturk (2016) showed teachers' use of immediate correction leads to preventing students from speaking in the classroom. In support of this is a synthesis of OCF literature by Rahman and Singh (2020) claiming that provision of feedback during communicative tasks could negatively affect fluency. Despite the above diverging findings, it could be concluded that oral corrective feedback can assist for students' language development, with the timing depending on factors such as the kind of task/activity students are engaged in, type of error and so on (Nassaji et al., 2023).

The third issue Hendrickson raised is the choice of errors to be corrected. Although errors may be of different category (e.g. phonological, lexical, grammatical, content, etc.), Zhu and Wang (2019) argued that the gravity of errors might inherently be the only line of demarcation for error types to correct. This means errors that impede communication need to be corrected. This argument is likely to have been influenced by Hendrickson that errors that are either interfering with the meaning of a message or highly recurring should receive correction. As rejecting correction results in fossilization i.e., using wrong language forms as if they were correct, teachers should give attention and treat students' errors as required. Corrective feedback is more effective during the practice of grammatical structures (accuracy-based) than during communicative activities (Ellis, 2017), although Kartchava (2017) assumes equal role of corrective feedback for both accuracy-based and fluency-driven productions.

Tremendous body of research has been conducted to examine which type of errors should be corrected, and inconsistent results have been reported. Brown's (2016) meta-analysis results depict teachers' utilization of 43% (the greatest) of oral correction to treat grammatical errors. However, in exploring the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practices, Bao (2019) observed phonological errors receiving the highest amount of CF. Another synthesis of oral corrective feedback literature (Rahman and Singh, 2020) presented findings about studies largely focusing on grammatical aspects despite some studies on oral correction targeting lexical errors (e.g. Lyster, 1998).

Fourthly, Hendrickson (1978) posed a question "How students' errors should be corrected?" Provision of corrective feedback is a complex and dynamic practice that should involve not only pointing out to students' mistakes but also understanding the teaching learning context, students' psychology, and teaching objectives as these are the strategies to rely on. To this end, teachers need to be wise decision makers taking into account the type of error, students' proficiency level, and the possible impact of the feedback on students' motivation and confidence.

Regarding this question, Hendrickson claimed there were no sufficient studies on how to approach while correcting students' errors. Although, he took various considerations like explicit vs. implicit way, systematic, or tailored to the individual student, Hendrickson did not put a clear answer to this question (Ellis, 2017). He finally stressed the usefulness of direct correction such as providing the correct language form to the students. However, Amara (2015) argues that every teacher should consider correcting students' errors without demotivating them. While some

teachers and researchers tend to choose among specific feedback strategies (recast, elicitation, explicit), others opt between input-providing and output-prompting techniques.

Since the effectiveness of different feedback strategies is contingent to students' ability to notice the feedback and realize its corrective intent (Rahman & Singh, 2020), it is every teacher's role to select and apply a variety of corrective feedback strategies to fit their students. Again, Ellis (2017) advocates the use immediate correction for accuracy works and delayed feedback during fluency tasks. Kartchava (2019) further recommended that corrective feedback should be delivered in an atmosphere of support to demonstrate the teacher's honest assistance and to make students feel the teacher is encouraging their language learning, but not embarrassing them.

For example, explicit correction was found to be more important (Ellis et al., 2006; Lee, 2013; Zhang & Rahimi, 2014). Moreover, in studies by Fathimah (2020) and Tomczyk (2013), students prioritized teacher's explicit correction over the other feedback strategies. Other studies, however, were in favor of implicit correction such as recasts (Zhu & Wang, 2019). Another study by Bao (2019) revealed that recasts and explicit correction were dominantly used and prompts were observed less.

The last question is about the corrector (who gives the correction?). Regarding this, several studies like Martinez (2015), Mendez and Cruz (2012), Tomczyk (2013), Zhang and Rahimi (2014) and Zhu and Wang (2019) depicted teacher correction is prioritized over self-correction and peer correction. However, Lyster (2004) argues that students should be encouraged to self-correct their errors. As an alignment to this, Kartchava (2019) suggests an

active endorsement of student involvement in self-correction, with the teacher assisting students to identify their errors and modify them.

For the purpose of this study too, teacher oral corrective feedback is focused as he or she is the one perceived as proficient and input provider in the target language i.e., English, just correcting students' spoken errors in the EFL classroom context. Therefore, teacher initiated corrective feedback moves are considered in this study but those with the error and other students in the classroom can involve in the correction (repair) process.

2.13. Theoretical Perspectives

Corrective feedback can be supported by two broad theoretical lenses: cognitive-interactionist (e.g. Long, 1996; Mackey, 2013; Ranta & Lyster, 2007) and socio-cultural perspectives (Ellis, 2009; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Swain 2010). Both perspectives subscribe to the view that corrective feedback contributes to language development. Corrective feedback is considered a bridge between cognitive-interactionist and sociocultural perspectives (Althobaiti, 2014). Considering multiple perspectives is required to understand the role of corrective feedback in second language acquisition (Althobaiti, 2014) and its potential of optimizing students' language development (Oliver & Adams, 2021).

2.13.1. Cognitive-Interactionist Perspective

The first cognitive approach of language learning is that of Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis. Krashen's 'input only' argument was challenged by those who claim that positive evidence (i.e. input) by itself is insufficient. Kartchava (2019) claims that this argument arose from the fact that several studies, conducted in both natural and classroom contexts,

confirmed that students' grammatical development was insignificant despite abundant exposure to comprehensible input and opportunities to use the target language.

This indicates that, in addition to comprehensible input, there is a necessity of corrective feedback (error correction) in second language acquisition since there are aspects of language that are unlikely to be learnt from the exposure to input alone (Long, 1996; Oliver & Adams, 2021). Therefore, it is fair to argue that positive evidence (comprehensible input) by itself is not adequate to help students learn better.

Cognitive-interactionist perspective views L2 acquisition as an individual mental process of language development in response to an environment used as source of linguistic information (Nassaji, 2021). The ultimate goal of cognitive-interactionist view is to help learners achieve accurate form-meaning mappings (Sato & Ballinger, 2012) by encouraging them to attend to form during meaningful interaction, through corrective feedback. For cognitive-interactionists, “corrective feedback promotes noticing of language forms and also helps learners to test their hypotheses about the language they are learning” (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2021, p. 2). This perspective draws students' attention to form to help them detect differences between their erroneous utterances and the target language forms. It emphasizes the facilitative role of attentional resources (feedback) for learning specific language forms.

Besides, Ellis (2010) notes that cognitive-interactionist theories claim CF assists acquisition by helping learners establish target-like form-meaning mappings while they are engaged in the effort to communicate. This perspective attributes a role not only to positive evidence but also to negative evidence in the form of CF that triggers noticing of non-target output (Long, 1996; Lyster et al., 2013). Cognitive-interactionists explain the provision of

corrective feedback through different hypotheses such as Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1983, 1996), Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985), Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990), Skill Acquisition Theory (DeKeyser, 1998, 2007). All these hypotheses came into existence one after the other.

2.13.1.1. Interaction Hypothesis

Long (1983) used the claims pointed to the Input hypothesis, and he introduced the interaction hypothesis. Even though comprehensible input is essential to learn language, there must also be verbal interactions including modifications through either negotiation of form or negotiation of meaning (Long, 1996). Long's hypothesis stresses the role of negotiation (as a primary tenet of interaction) to facilitate language acquisition. He claims modified interaction (such as linguistic simplification, gestures and contextual clues) can render input more comprehensible. Such modification or adjustment explains corrective feedback in terms of negotiation for meaning i.e. the heart of interaction hypothesis. Corrective feedback in this perspective is considered to play a facilitative role that is attributed to a process called 'negotiation'. "Negotiation refers to various interactional modifications that occur during interaction to repair possible communication breakdowns, such as through repetitions, clarification requests, confirmation checks, and reformulations, which take place in meaning-focused interaction" (Nassaji, 2021, p. 85).

Nassaji (2021) also notes that the negotiation process involves several strategies (i.e., feedback types): making input, highlighting linguistic forms, pushing learners to modify their erroneous output and giving negative feedback. In this regard, oral CF can help learners notice their problematic L2 output during teacher–learner interaction (Long, 1996; Schmidt, 1995).

Long (1996) highly advocated the use of recast and clarification request as appropriate corrective strategies. He claims the implicit and reactive nature of these strategies lend themselves well to communication classrooms.

Su and Tian (2016) assert that CF can offer learners the opportunity to notice the gap between their interlanguage and the target language forms. During negotiation for meaning, negative feedback i.e., corrective feedback may be facilitative of L2 development, at least for vocabulary, morphology, and language-specific syntax or any linguistic target. This L2 development takes place due to negotiation, which in turn comes from interaction. This (interaction hypothesis) was then argued by Swain (1985) claiming that in addition to interaction, there needs to exist output production by learners.

2.13.1.2. Output Hypothesis

This hypothesis by Swain (1985) emerged to take the idea of interaction modification further positing that output is essential for language development process. This hypothesis points out it is not only simply producing language that enhances linguistic abilities of learners, but also being pushed to modify their problematic utterances (cited in Ahangari and Amirzadeh, 2011). It is argued that output may encourage students to move from semantic level processing to the complete grammatical system required for accurate language production. In addition, consistent and successful mapping of grammar to output brings about automatic processing. This means, through continued practice or output production, students promote automaticity i.e., take control of the language (internalize it).

Oliver and Adams (2021) claim when students produce language output during interaction, they get the opportunity to receive corrective feedback about their production.

According to Swain, when learners are provided with oral CF, they are prompted to produce modified L2 output. This modified output is considered as facilitative of language acquisition (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2021). Teacher oral feedback indicates the existence of erroneous forms in the learners' utterance, and helps them try to modify it in a more accurate and comprehensible way. Then, interaction and output hypotheses led to the emergence of 'noticing hypothesis' by Schmidt (1990) arguing that learning process is incomplete unless it includes noticing (Althobaiti, 2014).

2.13.1.3. Noticing Hypothesis

This hypothesis is grounded in the assumption that attention to form is a great importance in learning target language, in this context English (Schmidt, 1990, 1994). This claim underlies the conscious noticing of formal aspects of the language allows students to eventually learn language features. Proponents of Noticing hypothesis (Ellis, 1991; Sato and Lyster, 2012; Schmidt, 1990, 2001) see it as a way to draw learners' attention to form. Hence, corrective feedback is a stimulus for noticing (Azad et al., 2018). In his hypothesis, Schmidt (1990) argues for the role of CF that when receiving CF, learners notice that there is a mismatch between their current state of linguistic knowledge and the target language, and they adjust their interlanguage. Schmidt argues that noticing is requisite for learning, and that learners must consciously pay attention to or notice input in order for L2 learning to proceed.

If corrective feedback is to have an effect on language learning, Schmidt calls for, at least, a need to a minimal noticing of the feedback by students for potential restructuring to take place. Noticing of the gap allows the students to restructure their internal representation of L2 rules, bringing their production closer to the target language. If students notice the correction,

then they repair their erroneous production; this is why corrective feedback is hypothesized to facilitate language acquisition (Sheen & Ellis, 2011). The more students notice, the better they learn.

This hypothesis underlines that awareness of discrepancies between the learners' output and the actual L2 form is necessary for the acquisition of a specific linguistic item. Schmidt (1990) posits that students noticing the disparity between their interlanguage structure and the target like forms, and giving attention to form are necessary for effective L2 learning. In this hypothesis, corrective feedback is assumed to drive learners' attention so that they notice the gap between their interlanguage and the target language form. Noticing hypothesis led to the emergence of researchers investigating students' perceptions of corrective feedback to explore whether they are aware of, and/or perceive, the nature of the corrective information.

By comparing their interlanguage with the target language form, students will be in a position to have a meta-language reflection and then to enhance their learning of the target language form. Chen et al. (2016) further support that once noticing this gap, learners will voluntarily catch up and this internalization process enables CF to be converted into "intake". They add that the amount of attention a learner pays to CF may determine the extent to which it becomes intake. It should, however, be noted that exposure to L2 will not automatically guarantee this kind of awareness (Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011), so corrective feedback must come into play to bring learners to focus on language-specific and individual problems and (indirectly) stimulate them to attempt self-improvement.

2.13.1.4. Skill Acquisition Theory

In another cognitively oriented theoretical explanation for CF efficacy, Skill acquisition theory by DeKeyser (2007) describes how explicit knowledge, through practice, becomes implicit knowledge. When it comes to corrective feedback in language classroom, Skill Acquisition Theory is drawn on prompts that push students to use linguistic items from their previous repertoire (Li, 2018). Based on DeKeyser's argument, Ranta and Lyster (2007) suggested that oral CF, especially in the form of prompts, assists or facilitates proceduralisation of knowledge in communicative practice as prompts (Li, 2018) encourage learners to retrieve a learned grammar rule and reattempt to produce the language more accurately with that rule in mind.

Skill Acquisition Theory (SAT) advocates the utility of timely or immediate corrective feedback to facilitate proceduralisation of linguistic items. Hence, the feedback needs to be delivered during communicative interaction, not after communicative tasks. In this regard, Fu and Li (2020) claim that feedback is more effective before errors are proceduralized during communicative practice. When an error is proceduralized, it is programmed into a system and is available for use as a ready-made linguistic unit.

2.13.2. Sociocultural Perspective

In addition to cognitive-interactionist theory, another theoretical perspective for understanding corrective feedback comes from Vygotsky's (1978) Sociocultural Theory (SCT). This theory is all about that human cognition in general and language in particular is socially mediated. While acknowledging human cognition for higher-order thinking, sociocultural theory stresses learning is more assisted through social and dialogic nature of interaction (Lantolf &

Thorne, 2007). In this vein, this perspective addresses corrective feedback from the assumption that mental activities including language learning are mediated through social interactions between learners and more capable peers (or teachers). As stated in Ellis (2009), language acquisition occurs in dialogic interaction. In this view, language development occurs *in* rather than *as a result of* interaction (Nassaji, 2021).

In addition, language in this perspective not only serves for communication, but also mediates for higher-order thinking and mental functioning (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Again, sociocultural theory focuses on the process *rather than the product* of learning, where process is a dynamic interaction of person-environment. Hence, Nassaji argues corrective feedback is “a process embedded in and affected by the social context of learning” (2021, p.87). The context includes circumstances such as the classroom, the teacher, other students, background, and experiences.

Corrective feedback episodes are considered as the space for studying how interaction mediates learning through the construction of zone of proximal development i.e., ZPD (Ellis, 2009). This dialogic interaction enables an expert (such as a teacher) to create a context in which novices (e.g. students) can participate actively in their own learning and in which the expert can fine-tune the support that the novices are given. Similarly, Nassaji (2021) views corrective feedback as a dialogic endeavor carried out between the learner and a more capable person with the aim of assisting the learner to achieve what he or she is not able to accomplish without assistance.

Ellis (2009) highlighted that corrective feedback in speaking is a form of social mediation to help students in performing language functions that they are unable to perform

individually. In support of this view is the claim of Oliver and Adams (2021) that corrective feedback creates a context for acquisition because through feedback teachers can provide scaffolding to the learners, helping them to produce language that they could not do successfully on their own. CF provides learners with dialogically negotiated assistance as they move from other-regulation towards self-regulation (e.g. Aljaafreh & Lantolf 1994; Nassaji & Swain 2000; Sato & Ballinger 2012). Furthermore, oral feedback provided in the forms of verbal comments and conversational dialogues can serve as a means of oral scaffolding that enables L2 learners to complete new tasks and acquire new learning skills and competence (Donato, 2000; Tsui, 2004).

The sociocultural perspective constitutes some key concepts that are essential to understand how language development is conceptualized (Nassaji, 2021). **Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)** is one of the key constructs that explain corrective feedback in SCT. ZPD denotes the distance between what a learner can achieve independently and what she/he can do with assistance from capable other (e.g. a teacher). Vygotsky (1978) identified three levels of development to understand ZPD. The first level denotes the actual developmental level of the learner i.e. mental function that has been established because of certain already completed developmental cycles. The second is the level of potential development of the learner as evidenced in problem solving undertaken with the assistance of an expert (a teacher). The third one is the level beyond the learner i.e. the learner is unable to perform the task even if assistance is provided.

The function of corrective feedback in ZPD, therefore, lies at the second level. In addition, the aim of corrective feedback from a sociocultural perspective is to assist in the

construction of Zones of Proximal Development; that is, to enable learners to achieve self-regulation by helping them to correct their own errors (Ellis, 2021).

Another construct to understand the role of corrective feedback with sociocultural theory is **mediation**. Lantolf (2000) describes mediation as the process of mediating cognitive activities by participating in social interactions (i.e., conversational interactions). Higher-order mental activities are all socially mediated (Nassaji, 2021) using physical and symbolic artifacts (e.g. language). Lantolf (2000) mentioned three types of mediation in the sociocultural theory: mediation by others, mediation by the self and mediation by artifacts. Corrective feedback is then viewed as one kind of mediation provided by teacher during interaction. This helps to mediate learning and to support learners' internalization of language forms.

Scaffolding, a term originated by Bruner (1986) but earlier used by Vygotsky to refer to assistance given to a novice (a student) by an expert (a teacher), is also another concept in connection to sociocultural theory. Scaffolding is not unidirectional, but a reciprocal process jointly constructed based on the learner's developmental needs and capacity (Nassaji, 2021). Learners are enabled to accomplish tasks that are beyond their current capabilities through scaffolding (Rassaei, 2014), a collaborative process through which a teacher provides support or guidance to assist a learner. Here, the value of feedback lies in the opportunities it provides for scaffolding. Nassaji (2021) further remarks that such collaborative support through feedback enhances the learners' interlanguage growth and ability.

Ellis (2010) points out worth noting claim of sociocultural theory regarding oral CF that there is no 'one-size-fits-all' feedback type:

Sociocultural theory rejects the view there is a single type of CF that is best for learning. Instead, it proposes that learners benefit most when teachers prompt the learner to self-

correct and scaffold his or her attempts by fine-tuning their choice of corrective strategy to the learner's developmental level (p. 336).

In the view of this theory, there is no feedback type that is intrinsically better than any other. Every type of feedback is relevant if they can assist students to move toward self-regulation (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2021).

Additionally, there was a good endeavor by Althobaiti (2014), who called corrective feedback as a bridge between cognitive and sociocultural perspective, to call for a multidimensional perspective by which to view corrective feedback in order to best facilitate its benefits to language learning. He claims CF should be considered through the double lens that results from the marriage of these two perspectives. Erlam, Ellis and Batstone (2013) argue both approaches (cognitive-interactionist and sociocultural) view language learning as an interactionally driven process. It can be induced that there is never a 'one size fits all' solution to CF practices, which echoes the aforementioned argument by Ellis (2010). Ellis added that a full understanding of corrective feedback requires multiple perspectives. Therefore, assuming the utility of CF as an important aspect of teaching/learning process and its role of aiding language learning, this study viewed CF from both cognitive and sociocultural perspective.

2.14. Conceptual Framework

This particular study relied on the following conceptual framework. Initially, as it is a learning environment, students are likely to commit errors in their spoken productions while learning English as a foreign language. Keeping in mind this is a natural phenomenon in language classroom, the EFL teacher provides them with oral corrective feedback to improve

students' spoken performance. The teachers' feedback not only indicates the students' errors but also either prompts them to self-correct or provides them with the correct form.

Students' attempt to rectify their errors can be influenced by how they perceive the given oral feedback. They may perceive the corrective feedback in different ways, either positively or negatively. Such multidimensional perceptions (OCF usefulness, OCF awareness, emotions, OCF timing) of students and other contextual factors have their own influence on how they engage with or act upon the given feedback. This is a bridge between teachers' corrective input and students' output. Students' repair move or feedback outcome is likely determined by the extent to which the aforementioned two constructs i.e. positive perception and engagement take place. Their repair is a move to the target language acquisition, with Ellis (2010) defining acquisition as an increase in the accuracy with which partially acquired features are used.

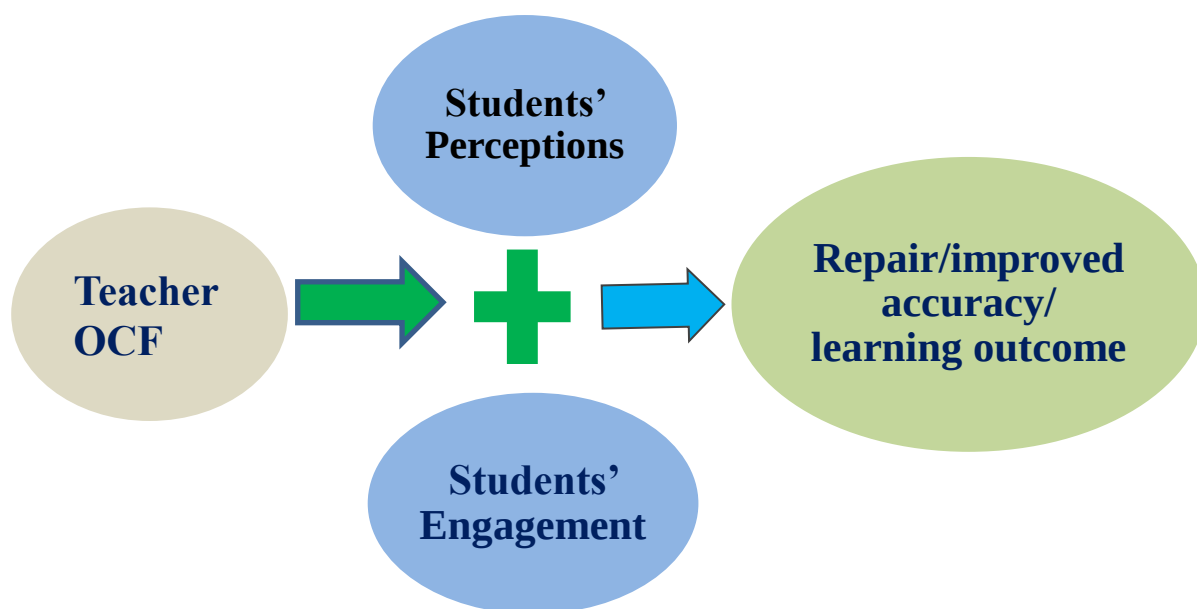


Figure 1: Conceptual framework slightly adapted from Ellis (2010) and Pawlak (2012a)

Chapter Three: Research Methodology

3.1. Research Paradigm

It is a common practice that researchers are guided by research paradigms: post-positivism, constructivism, advocacy/participatory, and pragmatism (Creswell, 2009), and they choose one of the following philosophical worldviews that is congruent with the objective of their study. While post-positivism is a determinist or reductionist paradigm (Creswell, 2009), social constructivism (Mertens, 1998, 2003 calls it Interpretivism) is purely qualitative oriented. The third paradigm, participatory/advocacy, focuses on seeking reform rather than balanced enquiry, while pragmatism allows for both subjective and objective aspects.

To investigate students' engagement with EFL teacher's oral CF, their perceptions and repair moves, this study adopted the pragmatists' view of research. This helped the researcher to gain a comprehensive or holistic understanding of teachers' practice of OCF delivery, students' reaction or response to and perceptions of the feedback. Creswell (2009) states that pragmatism is not committed to any one system of philosophy (mentioned above). Instead, it applies to mixed-methods research in that it allows researchers to emphasize the research problem and use all approaches available to understand the problem. After examining the nature of the research problem, this study adopted a pragmatic stance to address the research problem from multiple worldviews.

The research problem in this study utilized both qualitative (to examine students' engagement and repair moves) and quantitative (for perception) approaches of data collection and analysis. The pragmatic paradigm allows researchers to emphasize the research problem and use all approaches available to understand the problem. One of the leading scholars in

educational research, Creswell (2009), highlights that pragmatism provides researchers with the flexibility to employ many approaches and methods for collecting and analyzing data rather than subscribing to only one approach (e.g., quantitative or qualitative).

3.2. Research Design

The pragmatic paradigm, which values both subjective and objective reality to meet research objectives or questions, is a typical approach to mixed-methods research. Mixed-methods research is characterized by allowing for multiple views, methods, data sources and data analysis techniques to be used in a single study (Dawadi et al., 2021). Mixed-methods research, used to expand and strengthen a study's conclusions, is defined as research in which the researcher collects and analyzes data, integrates findings and draws conclusions using both qualitative and quantitative approaches in a single study (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007).

Mixed-methods research is appropriate when either a quantitative or qualitative approach by itself is not sufficient for best understanding of a research problem or answering research questions (Creswell & Clark, 2018). Similarly, Dawadi et al. (2021) note that using mixed-methods research helps researchers to compensate for the weakness of either method (qualitative or quantitative) and offers better chance of answering research questions. It takes elements from both qualitative and quantitative approaches for the purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration. Mixed-methods research resides somewhere in the middle of quantitative and qualitative research that represent different ends on a continuum (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Therefore, it helps researchers to develop a holistic understanding of the issue under study.

In line with this research approach, the study utilized a case study design to explore an in-depth real time phenomenon within its naturally occurring context. Using case study, Stewart (2014) argues, provides opportunity to apply a multitude of methods (e.g. observations, questionnaire, interviews, etc). More specifically, this study used mixed-methods case study design. The assumption behind this approach is the availability of multiple perspectives that emerge during the research process and help explain the phenomenon (Creswell & Clark, 2018). For Creswell and Clark (2018), mixed-methods case study is intended for an enhanced description and analysis of a case or multiple cases using both quantitative and qualitative data.

Unlike experimental studies that deliberately ignore context by controlling it in a laboratory environment, case study tries to understand situations in their natural context, i.e. the classroom (Yin, 2018). The case for this study is an intact, single undergraduate classroom as it was the only available bound system. Case study is a strategy of inquiry in which the researcher explores in depth a program, activity, process, or one or more individuals (Creswell, 2009). It enables to understand from the spot how an EFL teacher provides OCF, how learners perceive oral CF, how they engage with it and how they repair their erroneous production. Case study in this study is, therefore, an in-depth, detailed examination of OCF provision, learner perceptions about it, student engagement with oral CF and repair moves in the actual English as a foreign language classroom context.

Creswell and Clark (2011) mentioned three designs of mixed-methods research: convergent design, explanatory sequential design and exploratory design. With an intention to conduct this study by beginning from audio-recorded observation and then proceeding to measuring students' perceptions via a quantitative instrument (questionnaire), exploratory

sequential design was utilized. In the exploratory sequential design, qualitative data collection is the first phase with this data used to build or design the quantitative instrument (e.g. questionnaire).

Creswell and Clark (2018) pointed out that applying exploratory sequential design is preferable when the research problem is more qualitatively oriented and therefore it makes sense to start with a more inductive approach. Depending on the objectives, and the plan of this study, exploratory sequential design of mixed-methods research is assumed appropriate to explore the phenomenon from the participants' view, to build the quantitative instrument and to use the quantitative results for triangulation purpose.

3.3. Research Site and Classroom Context

Bahir Dar University, found in Bahir Dar City, Amhara region, is one of the higher education institutions in Ethiopia. This university is engaged in research activities with a goal to become one of the top research universities in Africa by 2030. The university is taken as a research site for this study based on the criterion of convenience, i.e., its accessibility to the researcher.

Students in Ethiopia, especially those attending universities, come from different linguistic backgrounds; thus, a classroom is multi-lingual and of varied proficiency levels in English. English is taught as a subject throughout the country starting from grade one. But, in terms of using English as a medium of instruction in all subjects, there are variations among different regions of the country. Some regions use it starting from grade five onwards (e.g., Gambella region); some regions begin from grade seven (e.g., Amhara region); others from

grade nine (e.g., Oromia region). Whichever path they come through, they learn English as a foreign language in universities.

3.4. Participants of the Study and Sampling Strategy

3.4.1. Participants of the Study

Bahir Dar University was selected as research site for this study based on convenience, and English major students (one section of 11 students) were purposively taken as participants of this study. At the time of data collection, second year English major students in the Department of English Language and Literature were taking first semester English major courses and one of the courses was “Spoken English I”. Spoken English was selected as it gives opportunities for oral interaction among students where teacher oral corrective feedback follows student erroneous productions. All the 11 students in the classroom were males, between 21 and 23 years of age. The course outline for “Spoken English I” stated that its objective is to facilitate the development of students’ oral proficiency in English, more specifically pronunciation and communicative functions in English. To this end, students were required to involve in various speaking tasks independently - either in pair or in groups.

This course was considered appropriate for this study by taking into account student-teacher interaction, where oral corrective feedback was assumed to be available. In this particular classroom, with “Spoken English I” being taught as a course, students were required to make independent speech and conversations either in pairs or in groups. To do this, students themselves were responsible for creating different situations/scenarios for those dialogues such as introducing themselves and others, expressing likes and dislikes, extending invitations, agreeing and disagreeing, asking for and giving directions, and offering help.

3.4.2. Sampling Strategy

The whole class of second year semester I students was observed and audio-recorded from the perspective of oral CF practices. The participants for the interview were selected using purposive sampling, which involved the researcher's intentional selection of information-rich participants who could provide in-depth data to answer research questions or achieve research objectives (Dornyei, 2007). The classroom was a mix of students with diverse levels of speaking proficiency in English as observed during various classroom activities. A couple of students appeared relatively fluent in terms of expressing themselves. Again, there were students who communicated moderately despite various linguistic errors, more of which were grammatical and lexical. At another proficiency level, some students were even running short of expressions when speaking in front of the classroom, struggling to find words and phrases and deliver their ideas. All these students' proficiency levels and their interactional involvement with the teacher in giving and receiving oral corrective feedback were also considered while selecting participants for interview. This purposive sampling helped the researcher to get participants, across proficiency levels, for the qualitative strand of data to learn and understand the central phenomenon (Creswell, 2012), i.e., students' reactions (perceptions and engagement with) to teacher's corrective feedback. It was manageable, however, to administer a questionnaire to all the students ($n = 11$) in the classroom to obtain quantifiable data on students' perceptions of oral corrective feedback.

3.5. Data Collection Instruments

This study employed different instruments, as a mixed-methods case study research should involve an extensive data collection process from multiple sources (Creswell, 2013; Creswell & Clark, 2018). Therefore, to obtain an in-depth and rich data and to get a full picture about the overall teacher OCF provision, students' engagement, their repair moves and perceptions of oral CF, this study employed instruments to collect both qualitative and quantitative strand of data. To this end, audio-recorded classroom observation (with observational field notes), student interviews and a questionnaire in the form of Likert scale were utilized.

The use of various instruments is helpful to enhance the reliability of research findings through triangulation. The purpose of the audio-recorded data from the observed classroom was to help the researcher gain insights into how the pattern of oral CF giving and receiving looked like in the actual classroom, especially teacher's oral CF provisions, students' engagement with it and their repair practices.

3.5.1. Classroom Observation

As part of capturing data on corrective feedback practices during classroom observation, an audio-recording device was used. Therefore, electronic gadgets that were capable of recording quality audio data were first ready to record data for the researcher to be able to transcribe and analyze the data easily later on. The recording devices were ready in the classroom so that audible data from both parties - the teacher and students - is captured for analysis. To this end, the researcher utilized an audio recording gadget - "Sony" together with Tecno Spark 4 mobile

phone for recording oral feedback in the classroom. The audio data was used to demonstrate the real phenomenon in the classroom, i.e., the teacher OCF provision and the students' immediate multifaceted reactions.

While there are different roles of a researcher, the researcher for the purpose of this study sat somewhere in the class, observing the naturally occurring classroom phenomena (teacher-student interaction and oral feedback patterns) and taking observational field notes, with the recording devices adjusted properly. Doing so enabled the researcher to gain relevant data on patterns of oral corrective feedback provision and students' repair practices due to the feedback given. Field notes taken by the researcher supplement the audio data on how students emotionally respond to teacher feedback as manifested through their facial expressions. This classroom observation provided the foundation for the entire study, allowing for the understanding of specific instances of oral corrective feedback, students' repair attempts, reactions (verbal and nonverbal) and the general classroom atmosphere. It also provided the context on which the preparation of interview questions and the questionnaire depended. The classroom observation and audio recording lasted for six sessions of 2 hours each, a total of 12 hours.

3.5.2. Interview

As another source of data, interview was held with some selected students to gain data on how they feel and act when receiving teacher oral corrective feedback in English language lessons. During case study interview protocol, the researcher used six open-ended questions as prompts to remind him of the line of inquiry for the data to be collected (Yin, 2018).

This interview was held with six students from different proficiency levels. The sample size (six students) was determined by data saturation where no new insights began to emerge from responses of the participants. Those interview questions encouraged the respondents to express their experiences and feelings regarding the reception of, and response to teacher oral corrective feedback on their spoken errors in English classroom. The interview was designed to explore how the respondents perceived OCF, as well as how they responded to and felt about different type of OCF.

3.5.3. Questionnaire

Given that this study employed a mixed-methods data collection and analysis, a questionnaire was administered to the participants to obtain the quantitative strand of data. This study utilized the questionnaire (17 close-ended items) to measure the participants' perceptions of teacher's oral corrective feedback. The purpose of the close-ended questions, with five points Likert scale (strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree and strongly agree), was to provide a quantitative data of three themes. These include how students perceived/viewed the role of oral feedback (view about OCF importance), how much they understood the corrective nature of the oral CF (recognizing, understanding), and how they felt (emotional aspects) because of receiving OCF. Again, students' perceived timing of teacher OCF was included.

This questionnaire was built or developed based on data from observation, with a little adaptation from previous related studies (Baz et al., 2016; Calsiyao, 2015; Muyashoha & Sugianto, 2019), and by consulting the existing literature about oral corrective feedback. The questionnaire consisted of 17 questions to gather data for the main study. Of these items, two

questions, which were negatively phrased, were reverse-coded in the SPSS to ensure a high numerical value consistently represents positive perception across all items.

As the classroom consisted of 11 students, all of them participated in filling in the questionnaire to ensure complete representation. The 11 students made up the whole population accessible within the bounded case of this specific classroom, providing the comprehensive profile of the group's perspectives, not a partial subset. As administered to all the participants, the questionnaire's power lied on its function as an element of data triangulation within the case study design, but it did not target to generate standalone statistical generalizations or inferential claims. Using descriptive statistics (such as frequency and mean), the analysis only mapped the participants' opinion about OCF in the specific context. The findings can provide transferrable insights for other researchers in a similar context.

3.6. Validity and Reliability of Instruments

The issue of validity and reliability of research instruments is a worth mentioning concern by researchers. Due to a small number of participants in this case study (N=11) and absence of another group to pilot research instruments (especially, the questionnaire), the issue of validity and reliability was addressed using alternative techniques.

3.6.1. Validity

The validity of the questionnaire items was established by first collecting naturally occurring data through observation (audio-recorded) from real classroom context and using this data to design/develop questionnaire items. This way can ensure content validity of the

questionnaire. In addition, some items were adapted from previous related studies (Baz et al., 2016; Calsiyao, 2015; Muyashoha & Sugianto, 2019) and from the existing literature in the field.

Furthermore, my supervisors for the dissertation and two fellow PhD candidates in the field of TEFL were involved in reviewing the data collection instruments. The questionnaire items were checked. Expert review comments and suggestions from the supervisors and from fellow PhD candidates resulted in modifications of items in the questionnaire. The changes started with excluding ‘native language’ as a question of demographic information of students, after considered irrelevant. Another content item “I encounter difficulty when trying to correct my local errors” was also removed, as it does not refer to teacher giving feedback. On top of that, a single open-ended question at the end of the questionnaire items was excluded because there was an interview session for that purpose.

The same case was found true for the interview too. These modifications led to addition of necessary words and rewording of some terms for clarity. In addition, a question “How do you try to repair or fix your spoken errors by yourself when your teacher provides you corrections?” was removed, as it was considered complex for students and it requires meta-cognitive analysis to explain this. At the same time, another question “What do you understand if your teacher repeats the sentence or part of the sentence you spoke?” was incorporated to understand the participants’ feeling towards teacher’s repetition as a feedback strategy. Therefore, the interview guide questions and questionnaire items were refined to ensure clarity and better understanding.

3.6.2. Reliability

The recording device (Sony audio recorder) was checked during preliminary observations if it was capable of capturing data in an audible manner. This took place before conducting the actual observation/recording. In the first preliminary observation sessions, it was found that the data recorded by Sony was audible enough as no glitches were found on the part of the recording device. On top of that, the preliminary observation sessions helped the researcher to familiarize himself with the students. Once the students were accustomed to the repeated presence of the researcher, their classroom behavior would appear as usual.

Regarding feedback type identification, the two fellow PhD candidates were involved in coding the transcribed data in terms of error type students committed (grammatical, vocabulary, pronunciation, other) and oral feedback type based on the taxonomy of Lyster & Ranta (1997). While feedback type was coded by the two coders the same way, they categorized the error identification only a bit differently. For example, in an excerpt “Both of them are stated to speak” in the context of expressing hesitation, one coder considered it as a grammar error while the other categorized it as lexical error. Such difference was negotiated through discussions in the presence of the researcher. In the above extract, it was then agreed that both grammatical (unnecessary use of ‘are’) and lexical/vocabulary (stated instead of hesitated) errors were observed.

Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS version 20) was utilized to measure the internal consistency of the items in the questionnaire. For this case study research with a small number of participants and with no separate group for piloting the questionnaire, the main

dataset served to compute the Cronbach's alpha value. To this end, the Cronbach's Alpha score was found .827, which is good enough and shows a high correlation between the items.

3.7. Data Collection Procedure

Collecting relevant data for this study followed the procedure outlined below. To preserve the natural sequence of collecting data, the process started with observable behaviors and proceeded to the perceptual or less directly observable aspects. First, classroom observation was conducted by audio-recording oral feedback, while at the same time the researcher took observational field notes to supplement the data and capture how the participants responded to oral feedback during class. The observation had two phases. The first part (preliminary-observation) served as a pilot. It was not included in the analysis of the main study. This phase took place by the first day of observation and had threefold purpose: (a) to help the researcher to get adapted to the classroom environment and build rapport with the participants and with the classroom teacher (Nguyen et al., 2013), (b) to pilot the recording devices and (c) to consider student participants to be invited for interview session. Then, the second phase of the observation was carried out successively and it was used for actual data analysis. Episodes that specifically followed the pattern of student error - teacher feedback - and student response were selected as data for analysis in the study.

Second, questionnaire was administered to gather data on how students perceived oral CF (i.e., its usefulness and their awareness or noticing of the corrective nature of oral feedback) they received in the English classroom. **Finally**, the participants (selected based on their proficiency level, both from high and low level) sat for interview so as to help the researcher probe more into how and what they felt about teacher oral CF in the English classroom. The researcher evaluated

the students' proficiency based on their engagement in classroom activities and command of the English language during the observation period. As their proficiency levels vary, it is likely that the researcher benefited from getting a wide range of perceptual responses regarding OCF. This order of data collection (classroom observation or recording, questionnaire and interview) was deliberately employed in order to gain genuine data by beginning with observable behaviors and probing into less directly observable aspects.

3.8. Data Analysis Techniques

To examine the sequence of teacher's oral CF provision and students' engagement, conversation analysis (CA) was applied by drawing on extracts from interaction in the classroom. Conversation analysis is the detailed microanalysis of talk-in-interaction by conversational participants (White, 2019). It is directed at finding patterns in conversation and understanding the oral feedback phenomenon. More specifically, episodes like student error-teacher feedback-student reaction patterns were the focus of the analysis. It was done with audio recordings of talk and social interaction (Sidnell, 2011). Conversation analysis in this study was used to scrutinize how students understand and respond to teacher's oral CF in English as foreign language classroom setting. Initiated by student error in spoken session, conversation keeps going as followed by teacher oral feedback, which then leads to student response. This provides opportunities to understand interactional practices or dynamics in the context of feedback and repair.

From the recorded data, episodes with student errors, teacher's corrective feedback and students' subsequent reactions were identified first. Although there were too many language use problems in students' oral productions, the errors that were followed by the teacher's feedback

were used for analysis. Then they were transcribed verbatim to get a textual representation of data for analysis, and then recurring patterns were identified, coded and given themes. This data was also used to examine the distribution and frequency of oral correction, and repair moves with respect to different feedback types and then to scrutinize the feedback pattern/sequence and roles of the classroom teacher and the participants in the OCF practice.

The transcribed data was coded by the researcher and the two fellows (PhD candidates) independently and then combined together, with differences in coding negotiated. While coding oral feedback types, this study adopted Lyster and Ranta's (1997) taxonomy of OCF (explicit correction, recast, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, elicitation, and repetition). Moreover, the data were analyzed in terms of how the participants reacted towards or engaged with oral CF and repaired their faulty utterances. The results obtained from the observational field notes (especially non-verbal signals such as head nodding and shaking) were used to substantiate the results from the analysis of the audio-recorded observational data.

To supplement the observation and questionnaire data on students' perception and emotional and cognitive engagement with the feedback given, the data from the interviews were analyzed thematically to explore how the participants understood, behaved and felt when they received oral corrective feedback. The researcher tried to get himself familiarized with the data by repeatedly reading the transcripts prior to the data analysis. From the transcript of classroom data, extracts were taken in terms of student errors-teacher oral corrective feedback-student reactions. Again, interview sessions were also recorded and extracts taken to get data on how students feel during oral feedback recipient.

The data from the questionnaire was exported into SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) for the analysis of descriptive statistics (e.g. frequency, percentage, mean and standard deviation). The questionnaire data were subjected to quantitative analysis with the aim of revealing student perceptions of teacher oral CF. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, there is no fixed cut-off point for determining whether students' perceptions of oral CF, measured using a five-point Likert scale, should be classified as positive or negative. The level of agreement is represented by numbers as follows: strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), neutral (3), agree (4), strongly agree (5). Therefore, considering the five-point Likert scale, he added numbers 1 to 5 and divided the sum (15) by 5 to get the average (3) from the scale points.

Alternatively, by adding the lowest value (1) and the highest value (5) and dividing the sum by 2 gives us 3 as a mid-point or hypothesized mean.

$$\text{Hypothesized mean} = \frac{\text{lowest value} + \text{highest value}}{2} = \frac{1+5}{2} = 3$$

Although Likert items are technically ordinal, treating them as interval data for analytic purposes (e.g. mean) is a common practice in applied linguistics research (Brown, 2011; Dornyei, 2007). The result (=3), while representing a neutral scale point, is assumed as a hypothesized mean. Therefore, a mean score of above 3 displays positive perception while below 3 represents students' negative perception.

After collecting all the data from classroom observation (audio-recordings), observational field notes, interview, and questionnaire, both qualitative and quantitative analyses and descriptions were used. This kind of triangulation, utilization of different instruments, was vital to cross-validate and strengthen the findings of the study and show convergence, adding credibility to the study. As such, results from observation supplemented the questionnaire dataset

to get stable results and data from the questionnaire was helpful to support the interview as well. Integrating two strands of data (qualitative and quantitative) was supposed to provide depth and breadth in terms of answering the research questions. Finally, the interpretations and conclusions were made accordingly.

3.9. Ethical Considerations

As this research is conducted on human participants, the researcher tried to consider general ethical issues (Creswell, 2015; Creswell & Clark, 2018), with the process involving different phases - ranging from data collection to dissemination of research findings. To this end, basic guiding principles were followed during the study.

First, ethical approval letter or permission was received from the institution (particularly, from College of Education at Bahir Dar University). The participants were informed about the purpose of the study before taking part in the research process. In addition, the participants were informed that they could withdraw from the research at any time they wanted.

The participants were also told in advance that the data obtained from them was to be kept confidential (e.g. pseudonyms were used to designate a certain participant as necessary) while reporting research findings. Consent forms were signed by the students in the study classroom. Accordingly, whenever it was necessary to use excerpts from the transcriptions during analysis, either a pseudonym or the term ‘Student or Participant’ was used to represent a participant instead of mentioning their actual names.

Chapter Four: Research Results

This particular study was an endeavor to examine an English teacher's OCF from the view of EFL students' engagement, repair practices and perceptions. Especially, this chapter of the study presents the findings of the data obtained from triple data sources (audio-recorded observation, students' questionnaire and student interview) on teacher's OCF practices, students' engagement with OCF, repair moves, and perceptions of teacher oral corrective feedback in the EFL classroom.

Particularly, this chapter of the study presents a detailed analysis of English language teacher's practices of oral corrective feedback in terms of feedback type and timing, students' multidimensional engagement (cognitive, behavioral and affective) with the feedback, their repair moves and perceptions. The analysis comprised both qualitative (from observations and interviews) data and quantitative (from questionnaire) data. The results are presented in order of research questions/objectives although there are no explicitly stated headings such as Research Question1 and so on.

4.1. Teacher's provision of oral corrective feedback

The types of feedback the classroom teacher who participated in the study provided employed in the classroom, along with the timing of his feedback for various linguistic errors in students' utterances were analysed. In the process, linguistic errors that were followed by teacher oral corrective feedback were identified for the purpose of this study. The English language teacher utilized oral corrective feedback (though limited as compared to the frequency of errors occurred in the classroom) in reaction to spoken errors made by students. A summary of the

types of errors occurring in the classroom, oral feedback types used, and feedback timing is shown below. In excerpts used to illustrate sample exchanges between the classroom teacher and a study participant, which consist of a sequence of student error, teacher OCF, and student response that took place in the classroom, the participant is represented by “S” or a pseudonym and the teacher is denoted by “T” hereafter.

4.1.1. Error types receiving oral feedback

Table 1

Types of Errors Receiving Oral Feedback

Error type	Number	Percentage
1. Grammatical	11	(50%)
2. Lexical	7	(31.8%)
3. Phonological/pronunciation	2	(9.1%)
4. Others (e.g. appropriateness issue such as tone of voice, pragmatic failure)	2	(9.1%)
Total	22	100

As Table 1 shows, the English teacher targeted providing oral corrections predominantly on grammatical errors. Half of all the teacher feedback moves (50%) were given to grammatical errors. Such errors were deviations from the rules that govern the structure of the target language. These grammatical problems included verb related aspects such as mixing auxiliary

verbs and main verbs in a simple statement, subject-verb disagreement; morphology related errors like inappropriately pluralizing number words (as in ‘two hundreds birr’) and so on.

The error type that received the second most feedback (approximately 32%) was lexical error i.e., pertaining to vocabulary related errors. This was an indication that the participants used wrong choice of words in their speech production. Such acts caused semantic errors, i.e. using similar words but inappropriate meaning for the context (e.g., ‘I am **interesting** to introduce....’ to say ‘I am **interested** in ...’).

On the other hand, 9% of all the teacher corrections were directed at the participants’ phonological errors. These were instances of errors in pronunciation in the participants’ spoken productions. This form of error, deviation from the accepted or standard way of producing sounds in the target language, takes place especially by non-native speakers as is true in our EFL contexts. This may occur due to either the speaker’s native language influence (interlingual) or the difficulty from the target language itself (intralingual). The nature of such error ranges from a minor mis-articulation to a significant distortion that hinders even comprehension.

The remaining 9% of the oral correction was directed at errors related to lack of appropriateness or those used in wrong contexts while they were structurally correct. Those kinds of errors were manifested in the use of inappropriate tone of voice (see Extract 12, under 3.1.3) and wrong contexts. For instance, an expression that seems to attack the speaker, rather than the idea, may result in making the speaker defensive. Some participants unintentionally used offensive expressions when arguing against the ideas of their classmates, without being aware of how that might affect their peers. Such use of language would affect communication

and even end up the conversation. Therefore, polite expressions or softened language is essential, even when the conversation involves debate or argument.

4.1.2. Types of oral corrective feedback provided

Table 2

Oral Feedback Types Used in the Classroom

Feedback type	Frequency	Percentage
1. Explicit correction	3	13.6%
2. Recasts	11	50%
3. Clarification request	2	9.1%
4. Metalinguistic feedback	3	13.6%
5. Elicitation	2	9.1%
6. Repetition	1	4.5%
Total	22	100

This study adopted the classification of oral corrective feedback developed by Lyster and Ranta (1997). The findings depicted the teacher's use of all those types of oral corrective feedback although with a largely different degree of occurrences for each type. As shown in Table 2, of all the corrective feedback moves used by the teacher as feedback strategy, recasts constituted 50%, followed by explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback, each accounting for 13.6%. Following these moves, clarification request and elicitation each account for 9.1%. The least frequently used feedback move by the English teacher was repetition, accounting for

4.5% of all oral corrective feedback moves. Presented below are example extracts of the feedback types used by the classroom teacher.

4.1.2.1. Explicit correction

Instances of explicit corrections showed that the teacher not only indicated students' erroneous utterances but also provided them with the right or the possible form of the target language, whereby he showed underlying grammatical rules or vocabulary usage, taking into account the nature of the error. After telling the student that such use of language was not correct, the teacher presented the right grammar or vocabulary model.

Extract 1

Bishaw: Bahir Dar is **very excellent** city.

Teacher: **Very** and **excellent** do not go together. Use either **very good** or only **excellent** itself.

Bishaw: Ok [feedback accepted].

In extract 1, the sentence uttered by the participant is structurally correct. The teacher commented, however, on the student's unnecessary use of 'very' as an intensifier to make the adjective 'excellent' stronger. *Excellent* by itself demonstrates high degree of quality, so *very* may not add any significant strength to *excellent*.

Extract 2

Student: This conservation is different from the previous conservation. (Lexical error)

Teacher: Different from the previous what? (Elicitation, immediate)

Student: Conservation (lexical error repeated)

Teacher: Conservation' is not an appropriate word here. Better to say 'conversation', which means a talk between people. (*Explicit correction, immediate*)

Student: [showed acceptance through gesture, i.e. head nodding]

This was an episode where the teacher utilized two feedback moves. Thus, it can be used for analysis of two feedback types (explicit correction and elicitation). Here, the teacher first identified student's wrong use of the word 'conservation' in an unlikely context, and he elicited the speaker, pretending he did not understand, to fix the error himself. The student, however, did nothing except repeating the previous error. As a last option, the teacher presented the right contextual term 'conversation' as appropriate instead, as the student was talking about a dialogue with a classmate.

4.1.2.2. Recasts

As Table 2 shows, recast as a feedback strategy accounted 50% of the teacher feedback, which is the highest of all OCF moves. The teacher in the classroom was observed predominantly using recasts over any other feedback strategy to help students' English learning. The teacher in the case of recasts as feedback strategy was observed only restating or repeating the students' utterances but with the errors fixed.

Extract 3

Habtu: We are prepared to talk about language functions like showing direction, agreeing and disagreeing, umm **invitation.** /ɪn.vər'teɪ.ʃn/ (wrong pronunciation or phonological error)

Teacher: invitation /ɪn.vɪ'teɪ.ʃn/ (recasting with the right pronunciation)

Habtu: Yes, /ɪn.vɪ'teɪ.ʃn/ [rightly pronounced]

This extract shows the student's error in terms of pronunciation of the word 'invitation'. Then, the teacher reformulated it with the right pronunciation, where the student realized the corrective nature of the feedback and acted accordingly.

Let us see another excerpt for recast as a feedback strategy by the teacher:

Extract 4

Teacher: How far are you satisfied with their role-play?

Eyuel: That much [accompanied by nonverbal sign, denoting he is not satisfied, as found in the researcher's observational field notes] (lexical error)

Teacher: Not that much (recast)

Eyuel: Yes (feedback accepted, with head nodding)

In this situation, the teacher asked the students how much they were satisfied with the previous role-play performers i.e., students. One of them replied, 'that much'. However, his head shaking signaled he was not satisfied. This means that he did not choose the right word to convey the meaning he intended. By understanding his nonverbal expression, the teacher recast the student's wrongly uttered phrase as 'Not that much.'

4.1.2.3. Clarification request

This type of corrective feedback is a strategy teachers use to show that students' utterance was not comprehensible enough. To do this, they mostly use expressions like "Excuse me", "I do

not understand”, “Would you repeat it?” This indicates the need for the students to repeat, or reformulate their speech possibly including the right language use. Therefore, it is a way of prompting students through clarifying or repeating their utterances to realize (be aware of) their errors and correct themselves.

Extract 5

Birara: I like the way they expressed **the part talk**.

Teacher: Say it again.

Birara: the parting talk (slightly improved).

Teacher: [no more initiation]

In this extract, the participant committed this lexical error while he was trying to comment on how the previously involved students said goodbye before the dialogue ended. The teacher requested the student to repeat his utterance, pretending as if he did not understand it. The student, however, made a slight change but the change still lacked accuracy. The teacher did not want to make further corrections.

Extract 6

Teacher: Show me your agreement or disagreement for what I am saying,
‘Teachers should not take attendance in university classes’.

Samy: I do not think so.

Teacher: Say it again. What do you mean by ‘I do not think so’? (Clarification request)

Samy: I could not agree less. (Repaired by another student)

Teacher: Yeah, it means I disagree. ‘I do not think so’ would have been an appropriate response if had been asked to give your opinion.

In the above extract, the student’s response ‘I do not think so’ was grammatically correct. However, the teacher justified that it lacked appropriateness to the question asked. It rather needed an expression showing agreement or disagreement. The teacher further suggested that ‘I do not think so’ would have been more appropriate if the student had been asked to give an opinion. That is why the teacher enquired for clarification of the already uttered statement, asking the speaker what he meant by ‘I do not think so’. Interestingly, another student from the class understood the teacher’s corrective intention and repaired the sentence with the right expression ‘I could not agree less’.

4.1.2.4. Metalinguistic feedback

It is a kind of corrective technique in language teaching, with the teacher providing comments, information (giving grammatical rules), and asking questions following students’ erroneous utterances. These clues indicate the existence of a linguistic error somewhere in the student’s oral production and provide grammatical meta-language pertaining to the nature of the error. This prompts students to reflect on their metalinguistic awareness and helps to self-correct, fostering deeper understanding of the target language. However, the correct answer is not explicitly provided by the teacher. Here are example extracts below:

Extract 7

Kirkos: Many people **does** the exercise for the purpose of building their body.

Teacher: ‘Many people’ takes plural verb.

Kirkos: (No response to the feedback) He did not seem to have understood the feedback.
But the topic continued.

The speaker in this scenario produced a grammatically wrong sentence. As a response to this error, the teacher provided linguistic information to show the sentence uttered lacked accuracy, but without telling the exact answer. The student, however, ignored the feedback and continued to speak. It cannot be concluded whether the reason for ignoring the feedback was inability to understand and process the given feedback or deliberately ignoring it. Let us look another example.

Extract 8

Mengesha: You **looks** like stranger, where are you from? (Grammatical error)

Teacher: Remember, the pronoun ‘you’ is not followed by ‘s’. (Metalinguistic feedback)

Mengesha: You **look**? (Repaired)

Teacher: Of course, that is great!

4.1.2.5. Elicitation

It is a corrective technique in which language teachers prompt their students to self-correct their errors by pausing, asking questions, or encouraging them to reformulate their utterances.

Extract 9

Kirkos: Both of them are stated to speak.

Teacher: Both them eehh?

Kirkos: hesitated to speak.

This was a situation where a student reflected on his friends' speaking performance in front of the class. The student spoke a sentence with two different linguistic errors: lexical ("stated" used to mean "hesitated") and grammatical (unnecessary passive structure). Here, the teacher started by uttering the beginning of the student's production and paused at the erroneous part to prompt the speaker to adjust the remaining utterance. This time, the participant self-corrected the lexical error ("stated" replaced by "hesitated") while the grammatical error (the unnecessarily added word 'are') was intentionally left out.

Extract 10

Habtu: This conservation is different from the previous conservation. (Lexical error)

Teacher: Different from the previous what? (Elicitation, immediate)

Habtu: Conservation (lexical error repeated)

Teacher: Conservation' is not an appropriate word here. Better to say 'conversation', which means a talk between people. (Explicit correction, immediate)

Habtu: [showed acceptance through gesture i.e. head nodding]

The teacher tried to elicit the correct word from the participant himself, but he merely uttered a repetition of the former lexically wrong word. To fix this lexical error, although it may

seem phonological, the teacher explicitly stated that it was not right to use the word that way and he provided the correct word.

4.1.2.6. Repetition

It is a kind of corrective strategy where the teacher repeats students' erroneous utterances via rising intonation or putting emphasis on the part of the utterance that contains the error. This clear indication draws students' attention to their error.

Extract 11

Bishaw: I am **interesting** to introducethe contents....

Teacher: You are **interesting** to introduce.....?

Bishaw: Yes. (Feedback not understood)

Teacher: (no provision of further feedback)

When a participant began explaining what he was going to do, he uttered a sentence having a lexical problem, i.e. *interesting* instead of *interested*. The error was due to the wrong use of the adjective form “-ing” with the word “interest” instead of using “-ed” to describe what the speaker intended to do. The teacher repeated this erroneous utterance by giving emphasis to the error through his tone of voice. This effort, however, did not help the participant to correct his error but it was considered by the participant as if it were correct, resulting from his lack of understanding of the corrective intent of the teacher's feedback. Then, the teacher stopped providing further feedback, so the lesson continued.

To conclude feedback practices in terms of typology, there was an incident where the English teacher made double feedback moves when a single feedback was not sufficient to help a participant modify his error. The participant tried to open the stage with what he was going to do. In this regard, he uttered, “We are going to make conservation now” (lexical error) This time, the teacher elicited the participant to self-correct his error “You are going to make what?”. The student, however, could not fix his error accordingly; he repeated the error. Then the teacher opted to use an alternative feedback type (explicit) as follows:

“‘Conservation’ is not an appropriate word here. Better to say ‘conversation’, which means a talk between people.” At that time, an acknowledgement came from the student in the form of showing acceptance through a gesture, i.e. head nodding.

4.1.3. Oral corrective feedback timing

The following table demonstrates the frequency and percentage of the English teacher’s oral corrective feedback moves in the classroom in terms of timing: immediate and delayed.

Table 3

Oral Feedback Timing

Oral feedback timing	Number	Percentage
Immediate feedback	21	95.5%
Delayed feedback	1	4.5%

As indicated in Table 3, in all feedback instances, but in one, the teacher applied immediate feedback moves. The teacher mostly intervened immediately to either reformulate a participant's utterances by himself or prompt students to self-correct their errors. The only error followed by the classroom teacher's delayed feedback was the following:

Extract 12

Temesgen: No, you are mistaken. (Inappropriate expression or tone)

Teacher: I heard someone saying, 'You are mistaken.' You are mistaken is beyond expressing disagreement; it shows somehow rudeness or offensiveness. Do not you think it is an insult? In fact, it all depends on the intimacy you have. It would be better if you said '**I disagree; No, I couldn't agree; I absolutely disagree.**'

This was an instance where the participants were practicing language functions for expressing agreements and disagreements. One of the participants holding a conversation uttered the above-mentioned expression "No, you are mistaken". The teacher did not interrupt his speech in this case. He forwarded a delayed oral feedback after the participants ended their conversation. He recalled the above-mentioned students' erroneous production and explicitly commented that such language use seemed to be more of offensive. He not only pointed out the error but also provided the participant with what he supposed to be optional responses. The sentence had no error in terms of vocabulary or grammar despite its pragmatic problem that might affect communication.

Overall, the teacher provided the participants with commentaries (both positive and negative) after various conversation sessions. On the one hand, he praised some performances as in “Surafel’s English was wonderful”. On the other hand, he pointed out missing elements as in “All language functions were not addressed well in the dialogue by Abrham and Simachew”. He also commented that some participants were running short of language expressions and he suggested sufficient preparation be needed. The extract below demonstrates the occurrence of such overall commentaries.

Extract 13

Teacher: Ali is fighting to bring, you know, the language expressions to his mouth... It should have been earlier you need to have practice. (Session 3)

Linguistic errors that were only followed by teacher treatment (teacher feedback) were taken for analysis in this study while enormous amount of language use problems were ignored by the teacher, allowing students to carry on their conversations instead. This means that plenty of students’ erroneous productions went uncorrected or untreated, based on the observations conducted for the present study. Of the participants’ errors taking place in the classroom and receiving feedback, grammatical errors (50% of all the time) occurred dominantly (see Table 1). Moreover, this class was characterized by the classroom teacher’s utilization of immediate correction in the vast majority of cases (95.5%) when feedback was provided (see Table 3).

4.2. Students' Engagement with Teacher OCF

In this regard, the students' engagement is examined from three perspectives i.e., cognitive, behavioral and emotional reactions following teacher feedback.

4.2.1. Cognitive engagement

The students' cognitive engagement with the feedback was manifested by their attention, which resulted in listening to the feedback from the classroom teacher, attempting to self-correct and asking for clarification of the feedback. This was well manifested when errors were followed by variety of corrective feedback types (metalinguistic feedback, elicitation and clarification request). Recasts, in contrast, were followed by the participants accepting of the classroom teacher's reformulation, although it remained unclear whether they noticed or recognized the corrective nature of the feedback. Here are example excerpts below.

Extract 14

Mengesha: You **looks** like stranger, where are you from?

Teacher: Remember, the pronoun 'you' is not followed by verb '-s'.

Mengesha: You **look**? (Repaired)

Teacher: Of course, that is great!

Here, the questioning phrase 'You look?' depicts that the participant noticed the feedback and understood where he was supposed to modify. That is why he asked for confirmation, testing a new hypothesis and this indicates the participant's high level of cognitive engagement. This

attempt of the participant got approval from the teacher that he rightly addressed the linguistic problem.

Extract 15

Birara: I like the way they expressed the **part** talk.

Teacher: Say it again.

Birara: the **parting** talk. (Slightly improved)

Teacher: (no more initiation)

The participant in this case at least demonstrated his understanding of the teacher's corrective intent by making slight modification to his erroneous phrase.

In support of the results from the analysis of the verbal exchanges involving feedback provision, the qualitative analysis from the interview data portrayed that participants listened to the feedback provided and tried to correct their errors accordingly. Below is an example of a participant's verbalizations of his cognitive experiences by Interviewee 1 during OCF provision, "First, I have to listen to the corrections and I continue speaking by correcting errors." This reflects the attention the participant paid to the feedback he received. He was not a passive recipient of the feedback, but he was engaged in processing the feedback.

It was indicated, however, that inability to understand the feedback leads to confusion and difficulty to process the given feedback. When a participant receives feedback in the middle of a conversation and fails to comprehend the teacher's feedback, he could quit the dialogue, as is expressed by Interviewee 4 "I stop communication because I will confused what he said.

During presentation when a teacher gives me feedback, I could not understand and so get confused at that time.”

4.2.2. Behavioral engagement

The participants’ behavioral engagement was exemplified by their verbal attempts to act upon the feedback they received from their teacher. In various situations, the participants were involved in trying to modify their faulty language productions immediately after they received feedback from the teacher.

Extract 16

Samy: They have presented it very **good**.

Teacher: ‘Very good’emmm. ‘Good’ is an adjective, but we need an adverb in this case.

Samy: very well (repaired)

Teacher: Wonderful!

Such verbal responses demonstrated the participants’ behavioral attempt to repair their erroneous language output. The grammatical error “very good” as an adverb in this case was followed by the teacher’s metalinguistic explanation and the participant fixed it in line with the teacher’s corrective intent to apply an adverb (very well).

Again, the analysis of the interview data showed self-reported efforts of the participants to correct their errors accordingly and to continue speaking. For example, an interview with

Interviewee 6 revealed what he did after receiving oral feedback from his teacher, “I stop to listen to my teacher’s feedback and I correct my oral errors. I also continue speaking.”

It was also stated that the participants’ action towards teacher feedback depends on the teacher’s way of commenting. In this regard, Interviewee 2 explained that a teacher’s intimidating facial expressions, during feedback provision, could make him feel bashful and prevent him from acting on the comments; positive facial expressions give him the sense of the teacher’s support and encourage him to continue engaging in conversations. Interviewee 2 exactly uttered, “If he tries to make me a shy, I probably stop it. But, understanding from his facial expression, if he is really supporting me, I will try to make the dialogue continue.”

From another dimension, it was evident that there were instances in which the participants did not involve in the correction process as required or as intended by the English language teacher delivering the feedback, as shown in the following extract.

Extract 17

Kirkos: Many people **does** the exercise for the purpose of building their body.

Teacher: ‘Many people’ takes plural verb.

Kirkos: [No response.]

The teacher offered oral feedback via metalinguistic explanation of the grammatical error, but his attempt failed to be fruitful. It is not clear whether the reason for the participant to have skipped this oral feedback was inability to understand the feedback or intentionally rejecting it.

4.2.3. Affective engagement

The participants exhibited both positive and negative emotional responses to teacher oral feedback when delivering speech in front of the class. The positive aspects are explained in terms of students' feeling of motivation and encouragement to learn from the feedback. An excerpt from the audio-recorded data unveiled such feelings.

Extract 18

Habtu: There was a **disconnected** between ideas.

Teacher: There was a **disconnection** between ideas.

Habtu: Yeah, there was a disconnection (correction accepted with smile on his face)

As it is seen in Extract 18, this interaction demonstrated a pattern in which the error made by a participant was followed by teacher feedback that made the participant feel enthusiastic, so he immediately understood the feedback and refined his erroneous utterance. Such classroom behaviors align with the participants' self-reported positive emotional experiences (as obtained from the interviews) when responding to teacher oral feedback. For example, Interviewee 3 expressed his sense of motivation as in "I think when I receive feedback from our teacher, I feel good because I am motivated and I learn from the mistakes and improve oral speaking performance. So I feel motivated." Similarly, Interviewee 2 uttered his feeling of the teacher's feedback as a supportive technique "Because each time a teacher gives me a correction or gives me a feedback, I will speak the language very fluently and I feel he is supporting me yes! So I feel motivated. "

The above two extracts of the same content signal that they consider the feedback as instrumental to their language learning. Thus, they understand the teachers' supportive intent and try to polish their oral production accordingly.

Conversely, some of the participants stated they also experienced negative emotions such as frustration and disruption because of receiving feedback. An example of the participants' feelings was shared by Interviewee 5 as in "I stopping because teacher's feedback disturb my speaking. I already feel emotional and disturbed."

In addition, data from the observational field notes revealed supportive evidence that, after receiving oral feedback on his pronunciation error, a participant facially signaled feelings of regret, possibly for committing the error or for being corrected (see Extract 19).

Extract 19

Habtu: Mr. Temesgen as acts acts as umm the weeter /witə/ of the restaurant.
(Phonological error)

Teacher: waiter /'weɪtər/ (recasting with the right pronunciation, immediate)

Habtu: [feeling of regret or disappointment on his face and the conversation continued]

Such emotional discrepancies in the participants' responses to the classroom teacher's oral feedback are assumed to emanate from the participants' perceptions of the feedback. While the majority of them are optimistic about teacher support in the form of feedback (see the extract from Interviewee 2), others regarded the feedback as judgmental in front of the class and they were embarrassed.

Notably, non-verbal cues accompanied verbal feedback and played a crucial role in helping the participants to rectify their spoken errors. During classroom interaction, a participant's utterance was followed by the teacher moving his head right and left (i.e., shaking). At that time, the participant with the error tried to modify his speech. In addition, the teacher nodding his head was also a confirmation of the participant's rectification of his erroneous production.

After all, behavioral engagement (as observed in what students verbally do) was the most observed one as compared to other dimensions of engagement. In almost all the classroom teacher's feedback moves, the participants reacted to the feedback, although some of the responses were not in line with the teacher's corrective intent. Not every aspect of cognitive and affective reactions, however, might manifest itself, as they are more of mental actions, i.e. covert.

4.3. Students' Repair Moves

This part of the study presents the participants' successful repair moves after the teacher's oral feedback. It involves the participants' correct modification of their erroneous utterances. This part mainly addresses the types of errors followed by successful repair by the participants and types of teacher oral correction that led to repair by the participants. The table below shows errors followed by successful repair. Table 4 shows that the total number of errors on which feedback was given by the English teacher were 22. Of these, 13 feedback moves (59%) resulted in student repair or successfully modified output.

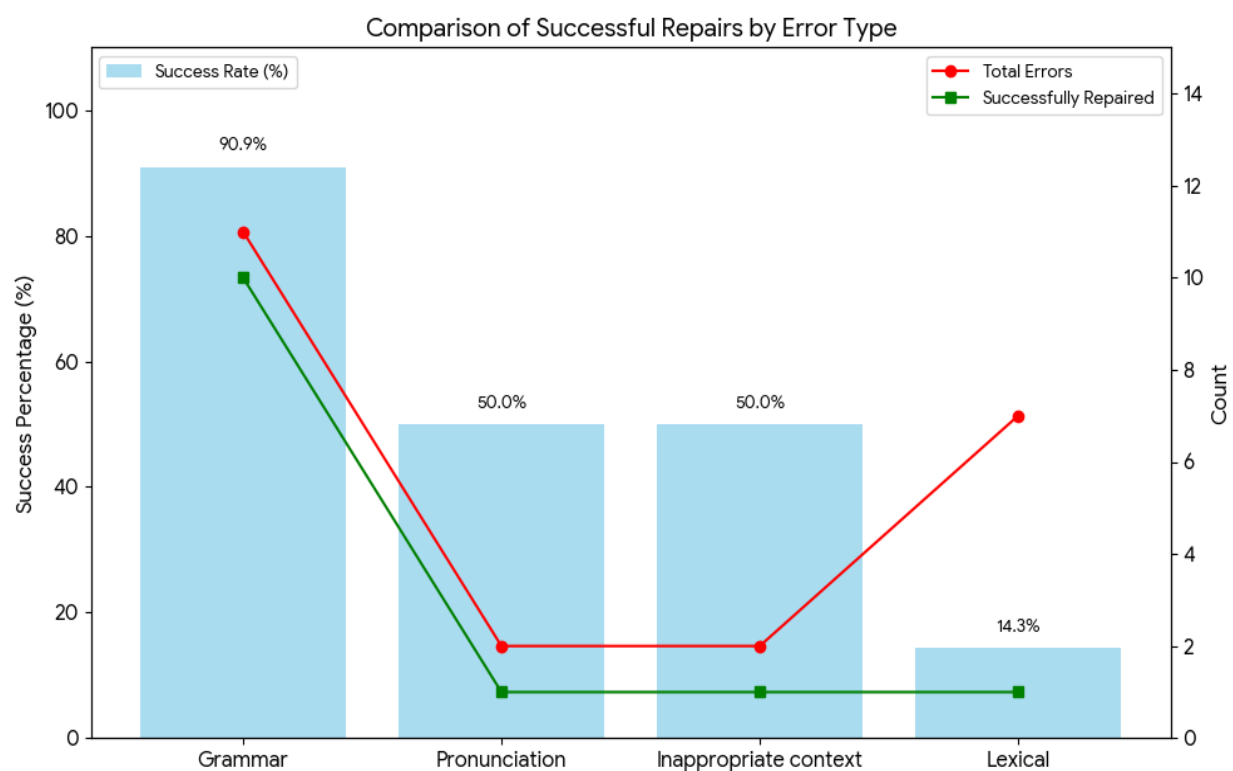
Table 4*Errors Followed by the Participants' Successful Repair*

Types of errors	OCF moves	Successfully repaired	
		Number	Percentage
1. Grammar	11	10	90.9%
2. Lexical	7	1	14.3%
3. Pronunciation	2	1	50%
4. Inappropriate context e.g., pragmatic failure	2	1	50%
Total	22	13	100%

Table 4 illustrates the distribution of the frequency and successful repair rates across different error categories. Grammar errors were the most frequently occurring (N=11), i.e. 50% of all errors and the most successfully repaired, i.e. with 10 instances corrected (90.9%). Of all error types, the lowest repair rate came from lexical errors. Although it was the second most frequent error (N=7), feedback to correct lexical error appeared the least effective, with only 1 (14.3%) successfully repaired. Other error types (pronunciation and context related) were less frequent, each occurring in two instances. Both error types resulted in 50% success rates, each repaired once. The results of the above table also can be demonstrated through bar chart as follows:

Figure 1

Comparison of Successful Repairs by Error Type



Here is an example of how an error is repaired by a participant after metalinguistic feedback:

Extract 20

Mengesha: You **looks** like stranger, where are you from?

Teacher: Remember, the pronoun 'you' is not followed by 's'. (Metalinguistic feedback, immediate)

Mengesha: You **look**? (Repaired)

Teacher: Of course, that is great!

In the above extract, the participant's grammatical error received an immediate metalinguistic feedback from the classroom teacher. The feedback led the participant to successfully repair or modify his error (as in 'You look?').

Table 5

Types of Oral Feedback That Led to Successful Repair

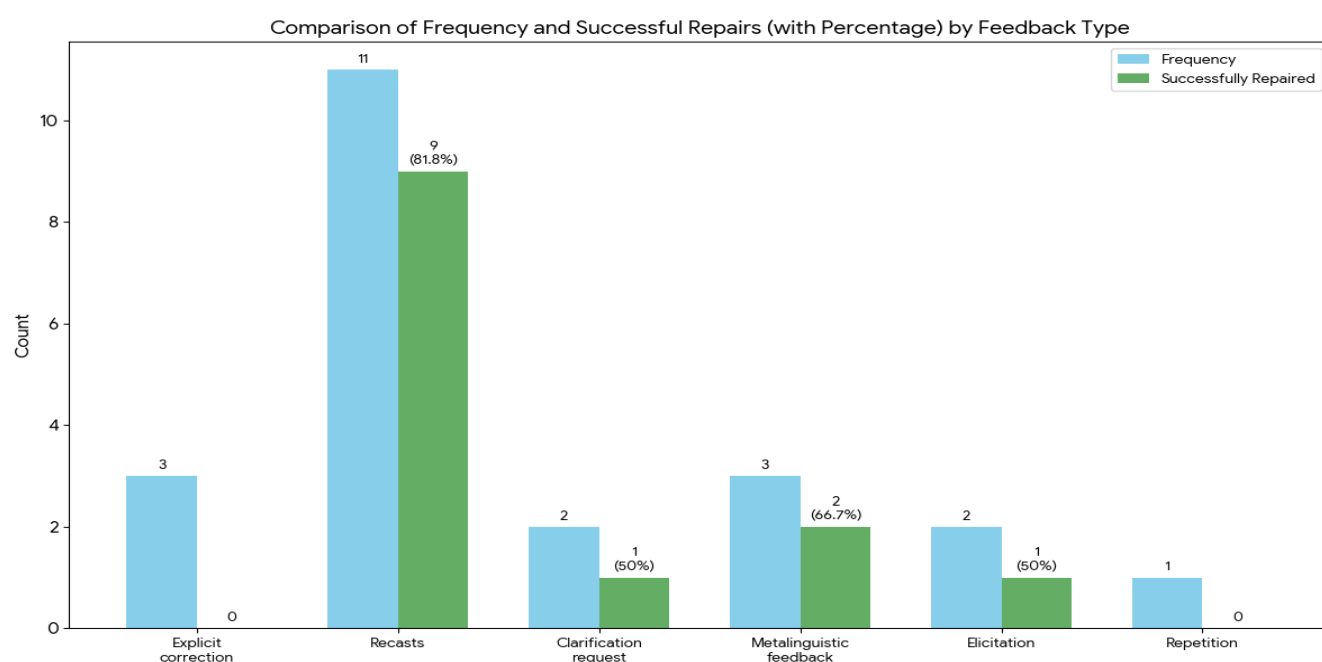
Feedback type (22 moves in total)	Number	Successfully Repaired	
		Frequency	Percentage
1. Explicit correction	3	-	-
2. Recasts	11	9	81.8%
3. Clarification request	2	1	50%
4. Metalinguistic feedback	3	2	66.7%
5. Elicitation	2	1	50%
6. Repetition	1	-	-

Table 5 presents the types of OCF made by the classroom teacher and the success rate for each OCF category. Of all the 22 feedback moves, recast accounted for 11 (50%). Most importantly, it was found that recast was not only the most frequently occurring (11 times) feedback type but also the most effective feedback strategy leading to successful repair (81.8%). Following this, metalinguistic feedback, which involves the provision of information or asks questions about the language used, received the second highest successful repair (66.7%). Other prompting strategies (clarification request and elicitation) occurred infrequently in the classroom,

each taking place twice and leading to repair only once (50%). The rest two feedback types, i.e. clarification request (3 moves) and elicitation (1 move) had minimal impact on students to correct their errors as they were followed by no repair.

Figure 2

Comparison of Frequency and Successful Repairs by Feedback Type



The sky-blue color represents the frequency of feedback types and the green one shows amount of repair for each feedback type. The above datasets can be synthesized in terms of the relationship between the nature of linguistic error and the type of feedback leading to successful repair. The prevalence of grammar errors being the most effectively repaired (90.9%) and recasts serving as the predominant feedback strategy leading to repair (81.8%) clearly implies that

recasts were the principal strategy employed to modify grammar errors successfully. Lexical errors, although the second most frequently occurred (approximately 32%) feedback strategy, appeared to be the least repaired (14.3%) errors.

4.4. Students' Perceptions of OCF

In this part of the paper, an attempt has been done not only to unveil how the participants viewed the role of OCF in learning English language but also to disclose their awareness or understanding of the corrective nature of the given feedback in the classroom. This was intended to investigate if the participants were aware of the intention of the oral feedback provided by their English teacher.

Moreover, the participants' choice of teacher's oral feedback delivery was examined in terms of appropriate timing. In short, the participants' perceptions were studied from the following perspectives: usefulness, awareness or understanding and choice of feedback timing. The overall findings in this regard indicate that almost all the items (except, for example, Item 17) elicited the participants' positive perceptions of teacher OCF. The reason that the mean score of Item 17 falls below the hypothesized mean (3) is that the statement refers to delayed feedback. The result, therefore, shows the participants' preferences of immediate correction over the delayed one.

Table 6*Students' Responses on Usefulness of Teacher Oral Corrective Feedback*

Items	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. Oral corrective feedback given by teacher is good for English language learning.	11	4	5	4.55	.52
2. English language teachers should correct students when they make oral errors in English classes.	11	4	5	4.27	.46
3. Receiving oral corrective feedback on my errors helps me to avoid making them another time.	11	4	5	4.64	.50
4. I learn a lot when my teacher corrects oral errors I make in class.	11	4	5	4.45	.52
5. I learn a lot when my teacher corrects oral errors made by my fellow students in class.	11	2	5	4.18	1.07
6. Oral corrective feedback improves my English speaking skills.	11	3	5	4.09	.70
7. The teachers' oral corrective feedback helps me in identifying and fixing my oral errors.	11	4	5	4.45	.52
Valid N (listwise)	11				

Table 6 shows that the students who participated in this survey held a positive view on the efficacy of teacher oral corrective feedback for their English language learning. The results reveal that there was strong agreement across all the seven statements. As depicted in Table 6,

the mean score for all statements ranges from a minimum of 4.09 to a maximum of 4.64 on a 5-point scale, which is much greater than the previously hypothesized mean score, i.e. 3 and it indicates that the participants perceived their teacher's oral corrective feedback as highly beneficial for English language learning.

As Table 6 demonstrates, for all of the items, except 5 and 6, the participants responded at the levels of "agree" and "strongly agree" represented by 4 and 5, respectively. For example, the item with the highest mean score of 4.64 was "Receiving oral corrective feedback on my errors helps me to avoid making them another time." This indicates that the participants value oral correction as a means of preventing future mistakes in the use of the English language.

As compared to the other items, the lowest mean score (4.09) is for the statement "Oral corrective feedback improves my English speaking skills" (though still much higher than the previously assumed mean score of 3). In this regard, the participants' responses indicated that oral correction from their teacher contributed to the improvements in their English speaking skills.

The data in Table 6 also reveals that students learn a lot from oral corrections given on their own errors (mean score = 4.45; SD = .52) than from corrections provided on fellow students' errors (mean score = 4.18; SD = 1.07). This result shows that oral corrections given by the teacher to individual students themselves is much more beneficial to acquire language. Additionally, the participants' responses (mean score = 4.45) to Item 7 show that the teacher's oral corrective feedback helped them in identifying and fixing their oral errors in the course of speaking English in the classroom. Overall, Table 6 shows the participants' overwhelming

agreement regarding the usefulness or efficiency of teacher oral correction in their English language classroom.

Table 7

Students' Awareness or Understanding of the Teacher Oral Corrective Feedback

Items	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
8. I understand when my teacher gives oral corrective feedback to my oral errors.	11	3	5	4.27	.78
9. It is easy for me to understand what the teacher intends to correct when giving me oral feedback.	11	2	5	4.00	1.00
10. I ignore my teacher's oral corrections when I do not understand them.	11	1	5	3.18	1.60
11. I ask the teacher for clarification when I do not understand the corrective feedback given by him/her.	11	1	5	4.27	1.34
12. My teacher gives me oral corrective feedback that is clear and easy to understand.	11	4	5	4.36	.50
13. After receiving oral feedback from my teacher, I self-correct my oral errors.	11	3	5	4.27	.78
Valid N (listwise)	11				

The descriptive statistics presented in Table 7 show that the analysis of the participants' noticing and comprehension of teacher oral corrective feedback reveals several key insights. The

mean score for each statement ranges from a low of 2.82 to a high of 4.36, on a 5-point scale, indicating a general positive perception and understanding among the 11 surveyed students.

Of all the items regarding the participants' noticing and understanding the corrective nature of teacher oral feedback, the statement "My teacher gives me oral corrective feedback that is clear and easy to understand" has received the highest mean score (4.36). This demonstrates how much the participants found their teacher's oral feedback clear and comprehensible. Almost all items received a mean score of 4.00 and above on a 5-point scale, which shows that the participants held strongly positive perceptions regarding their awareness/noticing of teacher feedback provision.

For example, the mean score of the item "I understand when my teacher gives oral corrective feedback to my oral errors" is 4.27, which indicates that the participants were able to comprehend the oral correction they received from their English teacher. In addition, the statement "After receiving oral feedback from my teacher, I self-correct my oral errors" received a similar mean score (4.27) showing that the participants not only received and understood teacher oral feedback but also attempted to act on it by correcting their errors.

Only one statement "I ignore my teacher's oral corrections when I do not understand them" has the lowest mean score (3.18) on the same 5-point scale. The implication, however, remains positive, i.e. the participants did not ignore unclear teacher corrections, but they tried to understand the feedback by asking their teacher (Item 11). If the participants did not understand teacher oral correction, they sought clarification (mean score = 4.27) from their teacher on the corrections.

Table 8*Students' Responses about Their Emotions towards Oral Corrective Feedback*

Items	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
14. I feel comfortable when my English teacher points out my oral errors.	11	2	5	3.82	.98
15. I feel bad or angry when my teacher corrects my errors in front of my class.	11	1	5	4.00	1.61
Valid N (listwise)	11				

Regarding the participants' emotions towards oral feedback, as indicated in Table 8, the first item with a mean score of 3.82 demonstrates that the participants generally felt comfortable when their English teacher pointed out oral errors. In the second item, a mean score of 4.00 shows that the participants did not feel discouraged when corrected in front of the class. However, the higher standard deviation (1.61) for the item "I feel bad or angry when my teacher corrects my errors in front of my class" indicates greater variability among the responses of the participants, suggesting that some of the participants might have felt negatively about public corrections.

Generally, the data in Table 8 shows that the participants generally appreciated oral corrective feedback from their English language teacher. However, the existence of some individual differences such as experiencing discomfort when corrected publicly was part of the findings.

In this regard, the interview questions also revealed that some interviewees (e.g. Interviewee 4) felt nervous and discouraged when receiving oral feedback from their teacher. They considered it a disturbance rather than a support. When asked individually how they responded and reacted to the teacher's oral corrections on their spoken errors, interviewee 4 reflected his emotional experience as follows: "I stop communication because I will confused what he said. During presentation when a teacher gives me feedback, I could not understand and so get confused at that time."

Table 9

Students' Responses on the Timing of Teacher Oral Corrective Feedback

Items	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
16. I find it helpful when my teacher gives oral correction immediately after I make mistake.	11	2	5	4.18	.98
17. I am happy if my teacher gives me time to finish my speaking before he provides me oral corrective feedback to my errors.	11	1	4	2.36	.92
Valid N (listwise)	11				

Table 9 shows a clear preference by the participants to receive oral feedback immediately after they made mistakes. For instance, the first statement, with a high mean score of 4.18, reveals the participants' strong positive attitude towards receiving immediate oral corrective feedback. With a mean score of 2.36, the second statement signifies a lower average result (as compared to the presupposed mean) and the participants' less favorable view of delayed feedback in the EFL classroom.

Regarding the timing of teacher feedback, the data in Table 9 divulge that the 11 participants surveyed in this specific classroom context dominantly preferred to receive immediate oral feedback for their errors in the English classroom. This suggests that in the EFL spoken classroom, students favor timely interventions from their teachers to help fix their errors.

4.1. Overall Perceptions of Teacher OCF Based on Different Themes

This section presents the participants' perceptions based on different themes of oral corrective feedback in the EFL classroom. The themes include usefulness of OCF, participants' awareness of the corrective intent of feedback, the participants' emotional reactions, and the participants' timing preference of oral feedback.

Table 10*Students' Overall Perceptions of Teacher OCF*

Theme	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Usefulness	11	4.00	5.00	4.37	.29
Awareness	11	2.29	5.00	4.09	.82
Emotion	11	1.50	5.00	3.90	1.26
Timing of OCF	11	3.00	4.00	3.27	.34
Total		2.80	4.63	3.91	.54

Table 10 presents the total mean scores of the participants' perceptions in terms of each theme (usefulness of OCF, students' awareness of teacher OCF, their emotional reactions, and the timing of OCF). The mean score of 4.37 for the theme 'usefulness of OCF' indicates high degree of consensus that almost everyone considered feedback as instrumental to language learning. It depicts the participants' strong agreement on the benefits of teacher oral correction.

In addition to the questionnaire items, the participants' interview responses further highlighted the role of teacher oral feedback to learn English. They stressed its value for improving their oral spoken performance in terms of accuracy and fluency. With this regard, Interviewee 6 stated the following: "It is important. After that [the correction], I correct it [the

error], very fluently speak and very correctly speak. Feedback from our teacher make us learned something to improve our oral spoken performance.”

Regarding the participants’ awareness of teacher OCF, the mean score (4.09) was high. However, the variability with scores ranging from a minimum of 2.29 and a maximum of 5.00 indicated that the participants understood and interpreted feedback differently. This variability was also evident in the data from participants’ interview: while most of the participants understood the teachers’ corrective intent (of feedback) and attempted to rectify their errors accordingly, others see the feedback as confirmation that they had performed well in the language. Interviewee 2 articulated, “If he [the teacher] repeats what I have said, I feel as if I made a mistake. And I will try to resolve it.” He acknowledged that he had wrong oral production in the English language. On the contrary, Interviewee 5 perceived the teacher’s feedback (e.g., repetition) as praise to his performance in the language, “When the teacher repeats my sentence, I understand that I am right in that sentence.”

Table 10 further indicates that the mean score of 3.91 shows that the participants had positive emotional responses. However, the high standard deviation (1.26) displays high range of the participants’ emotional reactions. In the interview too, the students were asked to reflect on how they emotionally felt when receiving teacher feedback. Their verbal responses showed mixed results. While most of them felt happy and motivated to learn from their mistakes, others occasionally considered teacher feedback as detrimental that disturbs communication.

To this end, a response by Interviewee 2 “Because each time a teacher gives me a correction or gives me a feedback, um I will speak the language very fluently and I feel um he is supporting me yes! So I feel motivated” shows optimism about OCF. However, the expression by Interviewee 5 displays negatively felt experiences, “I stopping [communication] because teacher’s feedback disturb my speaking. I already feel emotional and disturbed.”

The last theme pertaining to the participants’ perceptions is ‘what is the ideal time to receive oral feedback from the teacher’. The timing theme of perception registered the lowest mean score (3.27) of all other themes, but close to the neutral (3) range on the 5point Likert scale. However, this score is still positive. This demonstrates the participants’ moderate level of receptivity towards real time intervention or immediate correction. This result aligned with the teacher’s classroom practices where he applied almost all, except in one instance, immediate oral corrective feedback strategies.

The Findings chapter has presented a detailed analysis of data to answer the research questions in terms of teacher feedback provision, students’ engagement with the feedback, their perceptions, and repair moves following teacher feedback. For better understanding of the findings, especially to see their convergence with and divergence from the literature, discussion of the results is required. To this end, the next chapter will go for the synthesis.

Chapter Five: Discussion and Implications

This chapter is organized into two subsections. Primarily, it discusses the meaning of the results obtained and examines how these results diverge from or converge with previous research in the field of oral corrective feedback. Discussion of the results is presented in order of the research objectives/questions set in chapter one. Secondly, based on the findings, the theoretical and practical contributions of the research to the field are outlined.

5.1. Discussion of the Results

The intent of this study was to examine students' engagement and perceptions of teacher oral corrective feedback in an English classroom. Particularly, the study tried to address teacher's oral feedback provision, how students engaged with teacher feedback, and examined students' repair moves, and their perceptions of the feedback.

The results revealed that the classroom teacher used oral correction as a pedagogical intervention when students committed linguistic errors of various kinds. Even though there were plenty of student errors in the spoken classroom, limited amount of them were treated by the teacher. While all feedback types were available as used in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) taxonomy, recast occurred dominantly (accounting for 50% of all feedback moves), and repetition was the least used feedback strategy. This result aligns with a multitude of previous research findings (Bao, 2019; Fathimah, 2020; Lee, 2013; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Olmezer-Ozturk, 2019; Ozturk, 2016; Roothoof, 2014; Yuksel et al., 2021; Zhang et al, 2025) in terms of teachers' utilization of recasts as a major feedback strategy. The results in this study, however, diverge from previous

research findings (Gitsaki & Althobaiti, 2010; Hartono, 2018; Meseret, 2009) where frequent practice of explicit correction over any other feedback strategy was observed.

The choice of recast by the teacher participating in the present study as the dominant corrective strategy seems to depend on the nature of the course (Spoken English) being delivered in that particular classroom and with an intention not to interrupt communication flow. This practice, in one way or another, seemingly corroborates and considers the claim by several researchers (Krashen, 1982; Truscott, 1999; Agudo, 2012) that explicit correction impedes conversation. With recast as a main corrective strate utilized in the classroom, the findings of the current study confirm that recast was not only the most frequently used feedback type but also the most effective strategy that facilitated learning and scaffolded students to produce language on their own, even without disrupting the flow of communication (Zhang et al., 2025).

The findings of this study appeared to be in alignment with a meta-analysis by Brown (2016) in that the greatest proportion of the correction addressed students' grammatical errors. It has also been promoted by Ellis (2017), while reviewing research findings, that correction is more effective for practising grammatical structures. This, however, diverges from the results of Bao (2019) where the largest amount of teacher corrective feedback targeted to fix phonological errors. These discrepancies of linguistic target could be attributed to the English language teachers' decision to prioritize a certain linguistic element over others for treatment, with the reasons pertaining to their teaching experience, nature of the daily tasks (accuracy vs. fluency focused), and students' proficiency levels.

Viewing oral feedback from another vantage point, i.e. feedback timing, the findings in this study align with the findings in Meseret's (2009) study, where more immediate feedback

moves were practiced by the teacher over delayed ones. Another local study (Bereket, 2021) reported teachers' frequent application of immediate oral corrective feedback in the given EFL classroom. When comparing this result with the findings from studies conducted abroad, Yuksel et al. (2021) similarly noted that teachers favorably utilized immediate correction (80% of all the time) to treat students' errors. However, the findings in my study demonstrated a remarkable contrast to that of Olmezer-Ozturk (2019). In my study, all feedback moves, except one, were immediate whereas the majority of teacher feedback moves in Olmezer-Ozturk's study were delayed. This teacher's immediate feedback practice is found consistent with students' perceived preferences, as obtained through questionnaire.

Another interesting finding in this study is that the teacher employed double feedback move. When one feedback fails to help the participants modify their erroneous utterance, additional feedback strategies were employed to help participants understand and modify their errors. This practice is found in support of socio-cultural theory claiming "there is no single type of CF that is best for learning" cited in Ellis (2010, p.336). It is rather suggested that teachers can fine-tune their choice of corrective strategy to students' developmental levels, switching among a variety of feedback types to boost students' leaning of the target language. Despite such efforts, the teacher, in some instances, failed to initiate further feedback moves when participants' reaction was not in line with his corrective intent. He might have done it not to interrupt communication flow through frequent interventions.

Regarding student engagement with oral corrective feedback, inconclusive evidence is reported. Similar to the findings of Wang et al. (2022), the participants' cognitive engagement with the teacher's feedback in this study was observed through their attention, understanding and

processing of the given feedback. Such noticing and understanding are precursors for behavioral engagement to take place. Regarding behavioral engagement, most of the teacher's feedback moves were followed by student uptakes despite uncertainty whether they were all consciously noticed and understood. Here, the participants suggested that teachers give oral feedback in a positive and encouraging manner, as negative feedback could inhibit their participation in the feedback process.

Affectively, the participants displayed mixed emotional responses. Most of the participants reported they felt motivated and encouraged, like the findings in Saeli et al. (2021) and Wang et al. (2022), when receiving oral feedback from their teacher with expectation to learn from their errors and the feedback. In contrast to this, some of the participants explained that oral corrective feedback might induce, especially if not understood, negative feelings that affect their language learning was similarly found by Ellis (2009), Hartono et al. (2022) and Martinez (2013) where learners' emotional responses to teachers' oral feedback were investigated.

A point worth mentioning regarding findings of this study is that non-verbal cues and/or facial expressions accompanied the teacher's verbal reactions. They were instrumental in enhancing the understanding of teacher feedback. The nodding and shaking of his head, together with his spoken words, helped the participants refine their utterances. These findings seem to support the claim by Kartchava (2019), and Wang and Loewen (2016), who posited that non-verbal behavior and speech co-exist to help speakers deliver their thoughts.

Another dimension of OCF in this study was students' repair practices following teacher feedback. Overwhelmingly, grammar errors received the highest (roughly 91%) repair rate. 10

out of 11 feedback moves targeted to grammar errors were successfully repaired, unlike lexical errors (the least repaired ones). While grammar errors were most frequent and most successfully refined, lexical errors (as the second most occurring) were the least corrected type of errors. This means that lexical errors, attributed to the participants' lack of vocabulary knowledge, were hard for the participants to fix successfully. Regarding feedback type, the vast majority of successful repairs (roughly 82%) followed recast, followed by metalinguistic feedback leading to substantial effect of repair rate (66.7%). Recasts provide an implicit form of correction, whereas metalinguistic feedback is more explicit. This suggests that implicit corrections, such as recasts, were used more often and were more effective than other feedback strategies in achieving successful repairs. Some OCF types like repetition did not result in repair, with reasons attributed to students considering the feedback as a confirmation to their oral performance.

This result aligns with the findings by Lee (2013) where recast as a feedback strategy generated 92% repair. However, the results in this study are in sharp contrast to other previous findings reporting very low rate of repair for recast (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Zhang et al., 2025), with prompting strategies (metalinguistic feedback and elicitation) and explicit correction leading to better repair rate instead. Unlike Roothoof (2014), where metalinguistic feedback was the least used strategy, this study found metalinguistic feedback to be the second frequently used and the second most effective feedback type (following recast), leading to repair in 66.7% of all feedback moves.

The result in this particular study challenges claims and previous research findings that recasts are not perceived by students as correction strategies, so they may remain ineffective (Ellis & Sheen, 2011; Rassaei, 2015; Zhang et al., 2025). The findings of this case study confirm

that the significance of recasts relies not only on maintaining the flow of communication but also on helping students to rectify their erroneous oral productions. Scholars claim that there is an association between error types and feedback strategies for effective correction of those errors (Zhang et al, 2025), exemplifying that lexical and grammar errors are better treated using prompts while recasts are used to rectify phonological errors. This was not, however, the case in this study where the vast majority of the grammatical errors that occurred in the classroom were successfully repaired through recasts.

Another variable examined in this study was students' perception of teacher oral correction. It was found out that the participants under investigation were overwhelmingly positive about the overall relevance of oral feedback in their classroom. Some of them explained, however, that feelings of frustration, confusion (due to lack of understanding the feedback), and considering feedback as a disruption prevented them from acting upon the feedback they received.

Generally, this small-scale study examined students' positive perceptions about their teachers' utilization of OCF in the classroom, valuing its potential benefit for learning the English language (Azad, 2016; Fathimah, 2020; Muyashoha & Sugianto, 2019; Syakira & Nur, 2022). The participants' understanding of the corrective intent of the teacher's feedback was triangulated through qualitative (student interview) and quantitative (student questionnaire) data, demonstrating methodological rigor. Such methodological triangulation confirmed that most of the participants held positive perceptions about teacher OCF. This is found congruent with Wang et al.'s (2022) findings where participants viewed teacher feedback positively, even appreciating public oral feedback. However, a few participants were skeptical perceiving feedback as a

disturbance, which is synonymized with Ellis (2009) reporting oral feedback could cause embarrassment that discourages participants. Similarly, the findings in my study support the claim by Martinez (2013) that corrective feedback can bring about affective damage on participants.

The findings of this study extend our knowledge about oral corrective feedback and students' engagement with it by offering a context-rich analysis of real-time interactions in spoken classrooms. While confirming that recasts remain the dominant feedback strategy (50%), the findings challenge the notion that they are ineffective. Instead, the study demonstrates that recasts can maintain communicative flow and yield the highest repair rate, offering significant counter-evidence to the perceived superiority of explicit prompting. It further enriches the literature by linking feedback effectiveness to error type: grammatical errors (the most frequent) showed an exceptionally high repair rate (91%), whereas lexical errors resulted in far less repair moves, highlighting that implicit feedback works especially well for grammatical errors but may need complementary for lexical errors. Finally, the study underscores the role of pedagogical context (fluency-oriented Spoken English) and teacher intentionality in strategy choice.

Conducted in a specific context of a single classroom and due to the nature of case study research and small sample size of this study, the findings may not be generalizable to a wider population of students, or diversified classrooms. The nature of the spoken course (fluency oriented over accuracy) and the teachers' style and preference could also affect generalizability. Nonetheless, the findings in this particular study offer valuable and in-depth insights into the OCF phenomenon, and inform feedback practices, student perceptions and repairs moves in other comparable situations.

5.2. Implications of the Results

The findings in this study confirm the role that teacher OCF plays in fostering students' English language learning by correcting their errors. These findings imply that OCF can pedagogically contribute to the field of SLA especially in that recasts (occurring dominantly) lead to successful repair. Once the participants in this study recognized the potential value of OCF in the English classroom, they underscored its necessity for fostering learning. To maintain the flow of conversation and to scaffold students to repair, teachers in fluency-oriented EFL classrooms can utilize recasts as a primary OCF tool. The teacher, however, would better switch among different feedback strategies to fit student individual preferences. This helps teachers to utilize a repertoire of feedback strategies, both implicit and explicit types depending on students' individual needs.

The results suggest the theoretical contributions of OCF to English language learning. Specifically, the findings indicate that OCF facilitates noticing the gap between students' interlanguage and the target form (Cognitive-interactionist). Moreover, OCF can be used to build a collaborative or supportive environment, where students can perform better via scaffolding from their peers, i.e., teachers in this case (Sociocultural theory). The findings also imply the prevalence of diverse array of students' emotional reactions when their errors are addressed, ranging from feeling of encouragement and being supported to getting anxious.

Chapter Six: Conclusions and Recommendations

In this chapter of the dissertation, two subheadings are outlined. The first subheading presents conclusion based on the major findings in this particular study. The second part displays recommendations made for English language teachers, teacher educators/trainers, and future researchers in the area.

6.1. Conclusions

This study was an endeavor to examine students' multi-dimensional engagement, perceptions and their repair moves following teacher OCF. The findings yield the English teacher's use of OCF strategies in the classroom, recasts taking the lead. Students' agency and participation in the feedback process was encouraging that resulted in repairing, mostly through recast, their erroneous productions. It was also found that participants held positive perceptions about the teacher's use of OCF in their classroom despite some negative feelings. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that the classroom teacher utilized OCF as a pedagogical strategy to boost students' English learning. While the teacher used various types of OCF in the spoken classroom, recasts were predominantly used as an OCF strategy, whereas repetition was the least utilized type. Despite the complex and dynamic nature of teacher feedback as it interacts with various factors, the findings of this study can provide valuable insights into the diversity of feedback practices and the corresponding student responses.

The findings underscore the importance of a teacher's utilization of oral corrective feedback to improve students' English language learning. In addition, students' engagement with teacher feedback can be illustrated not only through reception and noticing of corrections

(cognitive engagement) but also through their active agency in applying the corrections to bridge the gap between their current level and the target level. It was noted that students were acting (behavioral engagement) to refine their errors as per their teacher's oral feedback. Although most students felt motivated (affective engagement) to learn from their mistakes through feedback, the results demonstrated some students' experience of negative feelings such as anxiety and confusion in some situations.

Of the errors committed, grammar errors were the most frequently corrected type of error, but lexical errors were found to be the most difficult for students to correct. Students struggle with using teacher oral feedback to correct vocabulary related errors. It can also be deduced from the results that implicit feedback especially recast, unlike the claims in the literature, is the most successful feedback type leading to repair. Recast is followed by metalinguistic feedback, as one of the most frequently used OCF strategy leading to repair, where students fix their errors after receiving teacher OCF. Surprisingly, explicit feedback and repetition do not seem to result in any repair move.

Lastly, the findings suggest that university students generally perceive well the necessity and usefulness of OCF in English classes, allowing them to rectify their spoken errors. Most students can benefit from oral correction while some others might view it a distraction instead. It is also understood that double-feedback moves and non-verbal signals could be instrumental and integral element during the provision of oral feedback.

The findings of this study can be an indication that recasts are highly effective strategies for students to notice the gap in their knowledge of the target language and repair their faulty utterances. The study also contributes to the literature by highlighting that corrective feedback is

multimodal in nature, i.e. non-verbal cues accompany verbal feedback, hence facilitating feedback understanding. Moreover, the findings support the existing theories: cognitive-interactionism viewing CF as a facilitator of noticing and sociocultural theory considering teachers' CF as a scaffold within learners' Zone of Proximal Development.

The study also contributes to classroom practice that fluency-oriented classrooms best benefit from recasts as correction, without disrupting the flow of communication. Teachers are encouraged to utilize a range of oral feedback strategies switching as necessary. However, there should be awareness of the emotional impact of feedback on students' motivation, thereby ensuring positive delivery of feedback and maintaining students' confidence.

6.2. Recommendations

This specific section presents important suggestions recommended for practice, training, policy-making and future research in the area. This requires the involvement of teachers, teacher educators, and researchers.

While OCF can be highly valued by students, teachers are recommended to apply OCF as a pedagogical tool in English classes, refining their oral feedback delivery in terms of switching among feedback types, opting for appropriate time and taking into account students' emotions. They need to consider the diverse range of students' emotional reactions not to make them feel embarrassed. Some students (anxious) may benefit from implicit and private kind of feedback while others (resilient) prefer explicit, prompting and public feedback. It is, therefore, teachers' responsibility to treat such behaviors accordingly, ensuring students' active engagement in the feedback process.

Teacher educators should train prospective teachers by advocating the inclusion of OCF while teaching English. Teachers need to be properly equipped, before leaving the training institutions, with the skills to address students' errors in English classrooms. With recast as the most prominent type of OCF strategy in this study, teachers should be trained the taxonomy of OCF to use them as necessary. In this regard, policy makers are encouraged to incorporate oral corrective feedback and acknowledge its role in language teaching classrooms.

Future research is recommended to use stimulated recall or retrospective techniques as a source of data to prompt students to reflect verbally on how they feel during the corrective feedback process. Presenting students a video of what they do and asking them to explain why they do so would elicit the real connection between their behavior and cognition. Moreover, it is suggested that further study be carried out in college or secondary school EFL contexts and with larger population of students for generalizability. Alternatively, a study on accuracy oriented grammar course could be recommended to see if the findings differ or align.

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Appendix A: Transcript of Audio-recorded Data

This is the transcript of the audio-recorded data collected from classroom interactions. The students' were involved in several scenarios and classroom activities (individual, pair or group tasks) such as introducing oneself and introducing others, expressing likes and dislikes, invitation, agreeing and disagreeing, asking for and telling direction, offering helps, etc. For the purpose of transcription, participants were designated using pseudonyms.

Session 1 - 1-2406240710

Teacher: What communicative functions did we talk about last time? Ahh..... Introducing one another and introducing one to others, formally and informally, yeah? And then how to express our likes and dislikes, yeah? What else? Ah. How should we greet, how do we make greetings, yeah? Again, how to... how to... how to...?

Samy: Invitation.

Teacher: Invitation is the last one, the last part. You know, invitation is about today's presentation. And, then how to close conversation, how to open conversation, yeah? These are what we discussed, and today's will be on... How to... Today's presentation, how to make invitations. In fact, greeting is also there, yeah? Yeah, and then... What else?

Eyuel: Greeting.

Teacher: Oh, yeah. Greeting is also there, yeah? And then what are the functions? And then how to ask for direction, and how to tell directions. Today we are going to see different level of expressions in your presentations, yeah? One, the other one. Invitation is also today. How to invite people, how to accept invitation, how to decline invitation. These are also included in the invitation, right? What else? How to make an offer, yeah? How to accept an offer. Again, how to give suggestions, how to give advice, yeah? What else? What else? So these are the points. I will just try to see them.

Teacher: Do you have the course outline today?

Birara: Yes. [trying to deliver the course outline]

Teacher: Wonderful! [The teacher received the course outline]. The course outline is our main reference. So we need to see... So... What we are going to do is... We shall make the [inaudible] out of 20, shall we? Out of 20? We shall make it out of 20, so that we'll have as many presentations as possible. Because... So you need to prepare yourself for the presentations. Minimum 5 presentations we shall make. The best 3 will be considered. So that we will have good marks for the final, yeah? Therefore, we shall make [inaudible speech]. And, then the best 3 will be considered for your marks. Yeah?

Sts: [Students were talking and the one trying to come in late]

Teacher: Come on you. What is the time? Do you have a watch?

Abera: Of course I do.

Teacher: Kaleb, why didn't you come and see your mark? Why didn't you come so far? You don't want to? Huh?

Kaleb: [whispered inaudibly but the teacher heard him as he was close]

Teacher: Sure. So, we shall go through that. So, you will see now.

Kaleb: No problem. Sorry. [checking his mark]

Teacher: So, I think Birara is going to be the first presenter. Others, you need to see the way they present. And so we shall begin to give a comment, such as 'This is a wonderful presentation because they did this, this, this. It's also a problem because they did this, this, this.' Okay? So a classroom presentation will be taken into account.

Teacher: So... Birara, do you want to be the first? Yeah? Let's go. Be the first.

Birara: It is a bit late time. [with an intention to give the chance for others]

Teacher: Mustofa, can you make it? You don't want to be the first? Come on. If you are the first today, then next period, others will be the first. So, I think Birara was the first last time, yeah? So, Mustofa, come on.

Mustofa: Hello, how is life treating you?

Kirkos: It is all right except some institutions.

Mustofa: Oh, Kirkos what are those situations?

Kirkos: [inaudible 0:10 seconds] So, what should I do?

Mustofa: Oh, Kirkos. I advise you... Why should you [inaudible 0:08 seconds]?

Kirkos: I don't... I don't agree with your idea. Because... The... The illness is intolerable. And then... Because of the symptoms... You know... You know...

Mustofa: Oh, it's okay. It's okay. Take care of it.

Kirkos: Thank you. Why don't we go somewhere?

Mustofa: Oh, that's a great idea. Where shall we go?

Kirkos: Okay. My partner is over there. He is my friend. I would like to... I would like to introduce him to you.

Mustofa: Okay. It's good. How are you?

Mengesha: I am good, and you?

Mustofa: fine. Have a seat please.

Mengesha: Okay, thank you.

Mustofa: What do you really do? [inaudible speech went on]

Teacher: Speak louder.

Mustofa: That is something that you... What do I really do? What do you do? What do I do? Do you want something to eat?

Kirkos: Oh, I'm sorry, it's enough to drink juice.

Mengesha: Is there anything that I can help you with?

Kirkos: Yes, of course Mengesha. Could you tell us the nearest bus station?

Mengesha: Of course, it's not far. Please go straight along the road and turn to the left. You can go to the bus station.

Kirkos: Okay, thank you for giving me direction. We are going somewhere to visit. And thank you for the conversation. Thank you very much. [Conversation ended]

Teacher: So, I want others to give comments. I want you to say something on their presentation. What is it? Say some more comments. What are the functions they try to role-play? Eyuel? What are the functions? What is it that you saw from their presentation? What kinds of good functions did they try to role-play?

Eyuel: Asking directions.

Teacher: One is asking directions. Are you satisfied with that one? With asking directions. It means they role-play about asking directions. But how far are you satisfied with their role-play?

Eyuel: That much.

Teacher: Not that much.

Eyuel: Yes.

Teacher: Okay, what is the other one? The other function? What is that function?

Student: Introduction to one another.

Teacher: Yeah, they tried to introduce to one another. Okay. How satisfied are you with the introduction?

Student: Yeah, that is good.

Teacher: Great. Okay, what other function? Offering. There is also offering, yeah? There is also offering. They try to say something about how to offer things, right? Would you like to have tea? Something like that. I'm not sure if they are okay about the language. But what can you say about the language they use for offering? Is it okay? Can you pick up one or two of the languages they use? Great. Habtu! What can you say about their...their presentations?

Habtu: [inaudible speech uttered].

Teacher: Why not? It is a must. Temesgen? Please say something about their presentations. No? Um, you know, I can't imagine how fluent their English is. I like their English very much. It's wonderful. Yeah? But I have to give some comments on the introduction. It means who should use and who should not use. I would like if all of you, one, two, three of you, practice this language. The first is introduction. Try to introduce the two people, yeah. Why only you practice the introduction? Why not Mengesha also uses the same thing in the introduction? Again., the language we use to the introduction is not as many, as many different types. It's only, I have only one. Yeah? It would have been great if you used, you know, two, three, four different types.

Sts: [the door knocked and a late comer entered the class].

Teacher: Samy, very unusual to see you coming late. You must have [inaudible utterance]. Okay? So. I think I've heard this before. Kirkos! You are also, who is the other one? Offering, you know, you can make different types of offering. I like that offering is there. Let's see if three of you, or at least two of you use different types of language. It would have been great. But it is only one. What about....., it's wonderful, right, to use

different language expressions. I can imagine, yeah. Your English is wonderful, so you can make it wonderful with electrical language. But these are the ones that I use more often. I enjoy it. I like it. You know, you are confident. You know? So, Kirkos. You become wonderful. I like it. So, it means you try to include, you know, as many, you know, as many language expressions as possible. Yeah? But next period, put emphasis on the functions. If it is introduction, finish introduction first. So that you try to involve 1, 2, 3. Three of them involved. Again, invitation. Try to involve three. Three different language expressions. Two involved. Three different language expressions. Representing. Three different language expressions. Three can. So that you will be more obvious and will be perfect. Yeah? Next time. Bishaw, Listen to me. And then, that's all I say. Others, be ready to comment. Is there, do you have any other comment? You say, you say you are not satisfied with the introduction. Right? So, let's go to the next. Habtu, are you ready?

Habtu: Yes.

Teacher: Come on. So, this one is Samy. Take notes on the function. And you will reflect, okay? This is a must. [noise and 15 seconds pause until conversation began].

Habtu: Good morning, everyone. I'm going to make a dialogue. The title is how to study in a university. In this dialogue, there are many informations which is expressed. How to give advice..., giving advice. Disagreement and agreement. And like and dislike. And invitation. /m.vai'tei.jn/ [phonological error]

Teacher: invitation /m.vi'tei.jn/ [recast]

Habtu: Yes. /m.vi'tei.jn/ [rightly pronounced]. And showing direction. Samy and me act as university student. And Almaz act as the weeter /witə/ of the restaurant. (phonological error)

Teacher: waiter /'weɪtər/ [recast]

Habtu: [after feeling of discomfort or disappointment, the conversation went on]. And then Almaz.....[inaudible speech]

Teacher: You see, what is the difference between this presentation and the previous presenter? Here, they make introduction, yeah! So, always introducing what you are going to do has

got a huge impact, particularly it makes easier for your presentations. So, he told us the functions to be involved, yeah!

Samy: Excuse me for interrupting.

Teacher: No problem.

Samy: In our previous presentation, where I was introducing three of us to the others of the class, we spoke in, we [inaudible speech for 15 seconds] use three of them for the class. That is why we spoke to them.

Teacher: So, this is my mistake?

Samy: Yes. That's why, because now I always want to introduce 3 of us for the audience. But I didn't [unheard voice], I stopped it. That's why, because you stopped me.

Teacher: You are saying, you mistreated me.

Samy: Yes.

Teacher: Really wonderful. Wonderful courage. Others can follow Let's go, okay?

Habtu: Now we are going to make our dialogue. How are you Samy?

Samy: Hey, hey.

Habtu: I'm fine. How was the exam?

Samy: It was, it was not good. What should I do to get good results?

Habtu: Oh, Samy. You should study in a schedule. If you listen me, I would like to advise... ahh... one additional advice. Which is, during the examinations, you must chew chat.

Samy: What?

Habtu: During the examinations, you must chew chat.

Samy: I disagree, I hate chewing chat. Samy, this is not about like or dislike. The purpose is to get good grades. Trust me and do it.

Samy: Sorry. I will never do it. I'm sorry. I disagree.

Habtu: Anyways, study hard. [Inaudible sentence uttered]. Oh! Samy, we have been talking for a long time. We have to take something.

Samy: Okay, let's go. [a short pause until the speakers took a seat].

Habtu: Good morning, Almaz.

Almaz: Good morning.

Habtu: I'd like to introduce you to my friend, Samy. Samy, this is Almaz. She works in this restaurant.

Samy: Hi, Almaz. How are you?

Almaz: I'm fine, and you.

Samy: Nice to meet you.

Habtu: Samy, would you like soft drink?

Samy: No, no. I would like some tea.

Habtu: Almaz.

Almaz: Yes.

Habtu: Bring bear and one cup of tea, please.

Almaz: Here it is.

Habtu: Okay. Almas, take the price, please.

Almaz: ahhh... [አንድ ሺህ ሁለት መቶ].

Teacher: 1,200 (One thousand two hundred).

Almaz: One thousand two **hundreds** (grammatical errors)

Teacher: One thousand two hundred (recast)

Almaz: two **hundred** (repaired). Okay, thank you.

Habtu: Samy, it is half past nine o'clock. I must go [inaudible speech]. I must buy a shirt. So, could you tell me the way of the nearest shop?

Samy: Sure. You go straight on and turn your legs on the first turn. Then you will find the front of the [unidentified name of place mentioned].

Habtu: thank you, Samy. [Shaking their hands]

Samy: See you.

Habtu: See you too. [Participants left the stage while chairs creating disturbance]

Teacher: So... So... give a comment. Mengesha, Birara. Come on. Say something. What is it that you like and what is it that you don't like? Must be both. Kirkos. Come on.

Birara: Okay, I like the way they expressed the introduction part.

Teacher: Ok, wonderful.

Birara: Plus to that, I like the way they expressed the **part talk** of

Teacher: Say it again.

Birara: the **parting talk**.

Teacher: parting. Yeah. That is good. They used different languages like bye bye... Yeah. Okay, great. Birara!

Birara: Doctor, the most wonderful one was their wonderful introduction. I like it very much. It's good, and it must be strengthened.

Teacher: It must be strengthened. [The teacher gave emphasis]. Thank you for...

Birara: And the other thing, which they slightly did, they go to the straight matter. As soon as they shake their hand, they immediately enter the straight matter.

Teacher: Yeah, that is a very good point.

Birara: And the other one is, which I like also, they need to focus. And they present the artistically, dramatically.....

Teacher: They dramatize it.

Birara: Yeah, they dramatically present it. And the other comment that should be mentioned here is, Temesgen. He shifted from the [inaudible utterance] when he told the course.

Teacher: Thank you very much, Birara. So Birara, you know, [inaudible speech for 10 seconds], you know, he talks everyone. I like his comments. Wonderful. So, you know, following each presentation has got [.....]. Thank you very much. Wonderful. What else? Bishaw! Come on, Bishaw.

Bishaw: Ahhh....., I like the.....[inaudible speech] to describe the characters of the conversation. And, I like the invitation.

Teacher: Great. So what do you like? What would you like?

Bishaw: It is great one. I have no... I do not know what to call it.

Teacher: Mengesha, what would you comment?

Mengesha: I like the first part, the introduction. How they talk about the conversation. In the second part of the course, you make a decision. Yeah? It's possible. In the second part, he gives advice. He says, you know, how to learn about the course. How much is the price? He says, things are nice. The speech is nice.

Teacher: Yeah. Abera, come on.

Abera: I have no comment.

Teacher: Oh, you have no comment. It does not mean it is good or bad. Anyways, you know, I am very much, you know, selective. For me, Habtu dominates the presentations. So for me, the highest score goes to this gentleman. The one who speaks a lot is rewarded a lot. The one who speaks little, gets little. So today, the dominance goes to Habtu. His English is wonderful. I like the confidence he has. He tries to lead all the group, so he has to get a lot. Temesgen, do you think he is part of the group? What is his role? His role is almost nothing. So how am I going to give him a mark? No, I'm not going to give him a mark. If I give him, it's going to be little. Why do you think he makes his role very little? Why? You know, everyone deserves what he speaks. The course is spoken, yeah!. The one who speaks a lot, gets a lot. The one who speaks little, gets little. That's the whole idea. Ummmm, but you know, again, I'm very much impressed on the first one because Habtu told me that you are prepared on this one, to show you agreement, disagreement, to show you invitations, to show your showing directions. You told us that one, so it is easy for everyone to get involved, and it is also easy for me to give marks. So, Habtu, different! Birara, it's wonderful. Temesgen, you take no part in the presentations. So I expect you to get involved much in the spoken class than this one. You speak very little and you get low mark. I am not sure what is going to happen. Do you speak any other English? Nothing? So, this means Habtu and Birara are responding so sidelining. [ገጽ ፩ ለገለጽሁት?] Is it because he says no when you are practicing with the other group? I can imagine. He always comes to the class very late. So you could do the same, you know, the time for the time when you are practicing. So Temesgen, it means this has to be improved for the next presentation. You need to get involved everywhere. Why did you allow this gentle man to dominate you? He speaks a lot. He makes the introduction. He makes all the introductions. He makes, again, all the presentations. Why? So you need to share. If Habtu makes the introduction as a whole, then Birara has to make the introduction of the first. Temesgen has to make the introduction of the second. Everyone should equally apportion, you know, your things. That's why. Yeah? So, no one should dominate no one. Everyone has to practice just now. Otherwise, Birara, I like your English, but then you are a little bit dominated by [inaudible]. Yeah? So thank you very

much. Anyway, this gentleman, thank you very much, Habtu. Wonderful English and wonderful preparation. Wonderful presentation. Samy, do you feel afraid? No. That means it was the last seminar. But today, you took little parts. No parts. As much as it's normal. Anyways, that must be improved.

In the next presentation, make sure that you all have equal chance to speak English after the class. So, again, thank you very much for taking the time. That is Birara Yeah? Habtu and Temesgen. Next, Eyuel. This is your turn. Come on.

Eyuel: We are not ready.

Teacher: Huh?

Eyuel: Give another day to improve.

Teacher: Okay, Bishaw.

Eyuel: We are not prepared.

Teacher: Yeah, it is possible not to present [አለማቅረብ ይቻላል]. Eyuel, I'm going to give you zero. Yeah? Yeah. I do not know. Why are you saying like that? Huh? [Then another pair started conversation]. Let us listen to them.

Student 1: Okay, we are prepared a lot on different language functions: agreeing and disagreeing, invitation [/m.vai'tei.jn/] (wrong pronunciation)

Teacher: [/m.vi'tei.jn/] (recast)

Student 1: [/m.vi'tei.jn/] (repaired).

Teacher: Okay, wonderful introduction again.

Student 1: Hey, how are you?

Student 2: How are you?

Student 1: Where have you been?

Student 2: I was in the cinema.

Student 1: Oh, that is good. How do you watch the movie Harry Potter?

Student 2: Yeah, Harry Potter is the best movie I have seen.

Student 1: Really! I really disagree. It was bad. The movie set was bad. And I think that actors' performance wasn't good.

Student 2: Oh, I do not accept your idea because the characters and the story is special. And that was very good. I don't know why you disagree.

Student 1: Yeah, there is a reasons that I do not like the movie but I am not professional and I don't have the ability to criticize the movie but I decided that the movie wasn't that good.

Student 2: Yeah, I agree with you but I invite you to see the movie. ok. And I also invite you to see Game of Thrones. I saw it and it was very interesting serious movie. I hope you like it.

Student 1: Ok, I would love that. I will see it sometimes.

Student 2: So, what is your plan this week?

Student 1: Ahhh....., I don't know. But I...I don't think I have the chance to plan it this week.

Student 2: So, we can see Game of Thrones in the coming Saturday.

Student 1: Ok, see you.

Student 2: See you Saturday.

Student 1: Okay. Thank you.

Student 2: Thank you.

Teacher: Thank you. You told us.... Many... How many functions you told us?

Student: Agreeing, Disagreeing, Introduction, Invitation

Teacher: When did you invite? For a movie?

Student: Yeah.

Teacher: [inaudible speech for around 10 seconds] Because you take your little time for preparation. So, the way you said, I invite you. Anyway. Yeah. Really good experience. Let's move on. So, Kaleb, Eyuel and Abera! Is there anything I am going to assign you for the group? If you assign anything. Let's try to see.

Kaleb: Today I introduce.....[unheard speech] Imagine. Something imagine. That's me. Someone imagined. And I introduce my conversation. Someone is the seller. Someone is buyer. You are imagining. It's the seller and buyer.

Teacher: [Unsatisfied with the group performance] So, is it because they said we are grouped ourselves? It means they said we are already grouped, Samy? So why didn't you work with others?

Samy: I told them to do together. [ከእኔ ጋር አገረው እንዲሰሩ ነግሬያቸዋለሁ::]

Teacher: Did they refuse? [እምቢ አሉ?]

Samy: Yes. [whisper among group members on the situation]

Teacher: Thank you very much. Now, I'm going to assign you with other group. I am not going to give him score. I give zero for three of you. Second presentation, you are given zero. [inaudible speech]. So try to take the responsibility to group yourself. I need the script, and I need the presentation. Parallel, write the script first, and make the presentation. It's not just orally, like Bishaw and Eyuel. I want you to write the script first, and perform the presentation. So prepare a dialogue script, okay? Are you following me?

Sts: Yes.

Teacher: Write the script. You can begin from the first one. The first one is introduction, and then greeting, and then what? And then expressing likes and dislikes. Make sure that all these three are safe, using the different languages. Okay? And so this is like we said, we just try to have 2 or 3 presentations, rather than 1 presentation. So first, our presentation, with the emphasis on introduction, greeting, and closing and opening the conversation. Only these three. And then the first one, greeting dialogue. I'm finished. And then, our second presentation focuses on this one and this one. Actually, it doesn't matter if you try to elongate it. It doesn't matter. Then second presentation on the third function. This one and this one. So third presentations, putting emphasis on these two presentations. And finish. And that will be the fourth one, okay? Next period [ማለት ነው::]. When is our next period?

Sts: Thursday 1 and 2. [ሐሙስ 1 እና 2]

Teacher: [ሐሙስ 1 እና 2? Okay, ሐሙስ 1 እና 2 እዚህ እንገናኝ::]

Sts: [እሺ]

Teacher: Ummm.... I don't want you to come up with reasons, okay Temesgen?

Temesgen: Okay.

Teacher: Eyuel, Abera and Kaleb. You did a big thing. You did something wrong. Therefore, try to correct next period. You will be the first to present, okay? Eyuel, who are you going to present with next time?

Eyuel: Abera.....

Teacher: Shall I assign you? Ah! Shall I make it? If it is me, Habtu with Kaleb. Eyuel ummmm with Temesgen. Ah! Abera with Bishaw.

Eyuel: I was talking to work with Birara.

Teacher: Okay. Eyuel, Birara and Temesgen. Um... is there anyone who has not been assigned? Okay, Mengesha with Samy. Do you know what need? It is not only the role-play. What I need is every one of you get involved in that use of the language. Is it invitation? If it is invitation, why only Eyuel uses the language and Temesgen becomes passive? I am not going to evaluate the group. I am evaluating each....each individual's performance. So if Kirkos is with Eyuel and Temesgen, then Kirkos has to play his role on using this language. It's only because Kirkos, you know, tried to rely on Eyuel's performance, that doesn't work. Today, I am very much enjoying also this gentleman. [አያቸሁ እንዴት dominate እንደሚረዳ?] He dominates everything. So I like that one. So I give him the highest mark. I do not know why Samy takes little role. Samy is also expected to work the same using the language. He has to practice. I can imagine that Samy will try to use much language except Temesgen. Temesgen, he relies on Habtu and Samy. I have evaluated the individual. So make sure that you all are involved in using these languages. Okay? So, [ሐሙስ ዕለት] The first presenter is Eyuel. The second presenter is Bishaw. The third presenter is Habtu. The fourth is Samy. And the fifth is Birara. Yeah? So you need to make yourself ready. Do not come up with reasons. Reasons [ምንም አያደርግላቸዎትም]. Just come and then present what is expected of you. So I'll see you on hands with this functions, including the preliminary work. So you tell me at the introduction. The first order of our group will be focused on this function and this function. So play the first The second introduction makes this one and this one. The third....., so that I see the number of language expressions you use to express yourself. Yeah? I can imagine your English is wonderful. But you need to also do this a lot. Yeah? Thank you very much. And the door is open. [The class ended].

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Another session

Session 2 -2- 2406270706

Teacher: Today, you are going to make two or three different types of ahhh.....presentations, yeah? So, for each one, I've got about two or three different marks for each. Yeah, I want you to tell me 'first we are going to do this one, and after we finish that one, now we are going to do this one', yeah? Do you understand what I mean? So that I can separately evaluate you. So, shall we wait for them or? [*Some students were late*]. Late comers, you see, normally it says 9 past, it's not 10 past. Shall we start or shall we wait for them?

Birara: We shall wait for them. [*He called one of his classmates*].

Teacher: Let us see if... What did he say?

Birara: "I'm coming", he said.

Teacher: What does it mean?

Birara: He said he is coming.

Teacher: Yeah, does it mean that he is around here?

Birara: I think.

Teacher: Or, does it mean that he began just to wake up from his sleep in the dorm?

Birara: I think he is around here.

Teacher: Okay, he is coming. So, who wants to be the first then? Shall we make the late comers the first or shall we make the late comers the last? The last, yeah? So that...[*the teacher and the students laughed at the same time*] So that they will have some time, I mean you know, to compose themselves. So, Bishaw and Eyuel... Last week you got zero, yeah? Yeah. Yeah. [*Too much noise coming in from outside*]. So, now close the door. So, today's presentation as I said earlier, I want to introduce what you are going to do. So, I expect two, three kinds of presentations for different functions, right! So, you should tell me, 'now we are going to do this one'. Do that one, finished. And, now we

are going to put emphasis on this, this, this. You can do that one. So that I have different directions. Let us go! So, who wants to be the first? Ummm.....last time it was, it was, I think... ummm When I, when I asked Bishaw to be the first, Bishaw came up with some reasons. Bishaw, are you able to be the first today?

Bishaw: We are, we are the second.

Teacher: Sorry?

Bishaw: Last time, you said we are the second.

Teacher: Are you assigned the second?

Bishaw: Yes.

Teacher: Who is the first, then? Thank you for answering. *[A group came to the stage to present]* Wonderful, Eyuel. Tell me the function you are going to make, and then proceed.

Birara: Hello, audience. Welcome, we are going to present about a freshman student and a senior student. You see? I am represented by a senior student.

Eyuel: And I am represented by a freshman student.

Birara: And he has just arrived from rural area. But I would like to point you out, we have known each other before we are here, and we have learned at the same high school.

Teacher: Great!

Birara: So, yeah, in our presentation, as usual, liking, disliking, introduction, farewell, closing, and some very important points have also been included in our presentation. You will see. I hope you will like it. Let us get started. Hi, Eyuel.

Eyuel: Hi, Birara.

Birara: Are you good?

Eyuel: I am fine. And you?

Birara: I am fine. When did you come?

Eyuel: I came last week.

Birara: Oh. I am delighted to see you.

Eyuel: I am glad to see you, too.

Birara: How is everything there?

Eyuel: It is all right.

Birara: It is all right?

Eyuel: Yeah.

Birara: How are your families?

Eyuel: My families are okay.

Birara: It is good. I would like you to buy something at Friends lounge.

Eyuel: Oh, that is a good idea.

Birara: Oh, so let us go.

Eyuel: Okay, let us go.

Birara: Eyuel, what would you like to have to drink?

Eyuel: I would like to drink coffee.

Birara: What about Sprite?

Eyuel: Oh, thank you. But, I dislike to have a soft drink.

Birara: Oh, it is okay. We will have a good coffee. By the way, what do you think about the current political situation in our country Ethiopia, Eyuel?

Eyuel: In my opinion, I think the war is intensified. Peoples are losing their lives, and houses and infrastructures are demolished, so such a party is needed to mediate and bring peace.

Birara: Who, you said well, I completely agree with you. You see, it is exactly what I was thinking. As you expressed our country, Ethiopia, needs peace and stability.

Eyuel: Oh, Birara, the time is running. I have to go. By the way, could you tell me the way to the digital library?

Birara: Yes, I can. Go straight, and just take your left turning point. It is not far, you do not miss it.

Eyuel: Oh, thank you. See you, again.

Birara: It is okay.

Teacher: Birara and Eyuel, that was wonderful. Is that all? Do you have some extra? Yeah. I mean, the whole functions are presented now?

Birara: Yes, in our understanding. [*with smile*].

Teacher: Yeah, it is okay. They tried to see the kind of language, for example, when they try to open the conversations, when they try to close conversation, when they try to use language expression that could be used for, you know, for agreeing, disagreeing, yeah? Again, they have also used language to ask and tell for directions, yeah? Yeah. You know, it should not be just one-time. If you ask for direction, then that should go reversed. When the one asks, then the other one replies. It would have been great if you do it that way, but I enjoyed your English. Wonderful! Yeah! Eyuel, last time I gave you zero. I do not know why. What did you tell me? You said whatever, I gave it Kaleb, Eyuel, and Abera, you did not present. I gave you zero, zero, zero. And so today, Eyuel, I enjoyed your presentation. It was wonderful. Second one? Okay. [Another group came to the stage]. Others listen to the kind of language they use. Functions. look at them. Listen to them, and then if there is, you know, if there is, if there needs to be, let's try to give them comments, okay? So jot down some of the language expressions. Come on! Let us go.

Abera: So we are going to present the two peoples for the first time, and we put four functions for it in the conversation.

Teacher: Four functions?

Abera: Yeah. The introduction, the presentation, the likings, and closings.

Teacher: Okay. Let us go.

Abera: Hi, I am Abera. Nice to meet you.

Bishaw: Hi, I am Bishaw. Nice to meet you, too.

Abera: Okay. Thank you, Bishaw. How, what do you enjoy in your free time?

Bishaw: Well, I like reading and hiking. How about you?

Abera: I enjoy playing guitar and sometimes hiking, too.

Bishaw: Oh, that sounds good. We have something in common.

Abera: Would you like to go hiking with me sometimes?

Bishaw: I would love that. Maybe we can exchange books and some [inaudible speech], too.

Abera: Oh, that is good, that is good. So let us set a date for our hiking.

Bishaw: That's great. How about next Saturday?

Abera: Yeah, perfect. And I will mark it on my calendar, and I will bring my favorite books as well to exchange.

Bishaw: That is great. I will do the same. And I will ummm.... let you know on Saturday.

Abera: Okay. Thank you. It was really nice meeting you.

Bishaw: Likewise. Thank you.

Abera: See you Saturday.

Bishaw: See you Saturday.

Teacher: Finish?

Bishaw: Yeah.

Teacher: Where is agreeing or disagreeing? What about agreeing or disagreeing? Ummmm, asking for directions, inviting?

Bishaw: Yeah. Yeah, we make introduction, invitation.

Teacher: I did not listen invitations.

Bishaw: Invitation, when you invite me to go hiking.

Teacher: Is that inviting?

Bishaw: Yeah.

Teacher: Yeah, I thought this is expressing likes and dislikes.

Abera: No, it is inviting.

Teacher: Anyways, so now I want you to use agreeing, disagreeing, inviting people, making an offer. You need to say this one. Anyways, that is Bishaw and Abera? You ready? Yeah? Yeah. You know, cut short. Come on.

Student: Agree-disagree, showing direction, advice, like-dislike, invitation...

Teacher: Say it again.

Student: Showing direction.

Teacher: Showing direction, absent.

Student: Advice.

Teacher: Advice, absent.

Student: Invitation.

Teacher: Invitation, absent.

Student: Like-dislike.

Teacher: Like-dislike. It is the only thing you use. Okay, let us go. It is possible if you, you know, if you cut some, then present, and one present, and one present, and then take a breath, and then, you know, second and so forth. It should not be just in one direction only. Let us go, Habtu.

Habtu: Good morning, everyone. Now we are going to make a dialogue, that is, things in between friends. In this dialogue, the points expressing, agreeing, disagreeing, showing direction, advice, invitation, like and dislike, are respectively involved, and the next introduction will be explained by Abera.

Abera: In this dialogue, I and Habtu act as a friend borrowing materials, and Kaleb as acts...acts as a weeter in restaurant. Now, the dialogue is started.

Habtu: Hi, Abera. How are you?

Abera: I am fine.

Habtu: Have you done the assignment?

Abera: No, I have not done the assignment.

Habtu: Why?

Abera: It need, it needs, it needs, it needs ummm... Google. But you take...took my phone yesterday.

Habtu: Oh, I am sorry, Abera. I am really sorry. I broke your phone yesterday.

Abera: What? I don't believe!

Habtu: How much did you buy, did you buy the price?

Abera: I bought 10,000 birr, 10,000 birr five years ago. Can you pay me 20,000 birr?

Habtu: Oh, sorry. I absolutely disagree. It is old-fashioned.

Abera: It is a bad idea.

Habtu: It is not a bad idea. You bought this phone, 10,000 birr, but now asked me 20,000 birr. This is not fair. I do not agree.

Kaleb: Oh, Habtu. How are you?

Habtu: How are you?

Kaleb: What is the problem?

Habtu: The problem was, he, the previous night, I borrowed his phone. Accidentally, the phone was broken. So, he bought that phone, 10,000 birr. But now he asked me 20,000 birr. It is not fair. This is the problem.

Kaleb: Oh, sorry. [Inaudible speech went on].

Abera: As as a friend....as a friend pay me 15,000 birr.

Habtu: Okay, I will pay you. Wait here, let me bring some money from the bank.

Abera: Okay.

Habtu: Kaleb, can you tell me the nearest way to the bank?

Kaleb: Yes. Go straight and then turn left. When you turn left, it is near to the barber.

Habtu: Okay, thank you.

[After a moment,]

Habtu: I can't find the bank. Abera, do you know the bank where is?

Abera: Look at the street. That is the bank.

Habtu: Okay, thank you.

[A moment later again,]

Habtu: Abera, I feel sorry. I have not break your phone yesterday. I need your apologize.

Abera: Okay

Habtu: Please Abera, I am here to [unidentified speech].

Abera: Let us go.

Habtu: Good morning, everyone.

Kaleb: Good morning, Habtu.

Habtu: Let me introduce our [inaudible utterance]. When you came here before, there was a disagreement between him and me. But that disagreement can be solved. Let me introduce him to you.

Kaleb: Okay, I am okay. Ok, sit down.

Habtu: What would you like to have, Abera?

Abera: Okay. Bring me coffee, please.

Kaleb: Okay.

[They sat for coffee]:

Teacher: Serve them! [Told Kaleb]

Abera: By the way, I must buy a phone. What type of phone would you advise to me?

Habtu: Okay, I advise you to buy a Samsung phone.

Abera: Is it good in connection?

Habtu: That is preferable than other phones. I advise you to buy this phone.

Kaleb: Habtu, it is the [inaudible speech] football.

Habtu: Oh, I dislike watching football.

Abera: What about your family?

Habtu: They hate it. We both dislike watching football.

Abera: What do you like?

Habtu: I like swimming.

Abera: Oh, I like[.].

Habtu: Kaleb, can you take the price, please?

Kaleb: Okay. [receiving the price of hot drinks]

Habtu: Abera, now I have an appointment with my friend.....

Abera: Okay, see you later.

Habtu: See you. [The conversation ended abruptly].

Teacher: What is your comment? What do you think? Yeah? What is your comment? What is good and what is not good? **Samy**, comment.

Samy: They may talk about the broken phone. Abera did not use intonation, just to express his angry.

Teacher: It doesn't seem to be genuine, yeah? They just make his face angry, but it doesn't show that he gets angry, yeah?

Samy: Yeah.

Teacher: So he did not use the level of intonation that he is supposed. Okay?

Samy: The rest was good.

Teacher: Okay, Birara. Yeah.

Birara: No comment, I have seen. Of course, they tried to address all of the points, but all of them used broken English. And it was difficult to understand, especially Abera and Kaleb. **Teacher:** Yeah.

Birara: And they protracted, yeah?

Teacher: They elongated it, yeah. Okay, Eyuel?

Eyuel: They presented dramatically.

Teacher: They dramatize it, you like it. Okay.

Eyuel: But when Habtu told the phone was broken, Abera was not show angry. I like they tried to address all expressions this time dislike and like, agreement and disagreement but their English was broken.

Teacher: Yeah, it was broken particularly Abera's and Kaleb's. Okay, Bishaw.

Bishaw: It was good. But the conversation was too long in the same time.

Teacher: I like it, by the way, because if it is long, it means it gives them some time for them to practice the language. So being long is, I think, an advantage for them to speak.

Bishaw: Yeah, that is something.

Teacher: Yeah. Is there anything more to say? Yeah. You know, Abera and Kaleb. I do not know why this Habtu is dominating them. There is still dominance, yeah? Much of the language in the conversation is said by... said by Habtu. So I give Habtu is the highest mark. And Kaleb's role in the role-play is minimal answering a few languages. Yeah. Why is that? You need to take equal share. Again, Abera's language as I said, it was not you know, it doesn't have flow, so it was very difficult for me also to understand. Again, you are also dominated by still Habtu. Because Habtu speaks a lot, he gets a lot. Yeah? So whenever you have something, you know, to be presented in a group, you need to have equal share so that you have equal marks, yeah? So, now you can come out, Kirkos. *[Allowing for the next conversation]*.

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Next session

Session 3 -2- 240627 0730

Kirkos: Hello guys, we have a conversation between I and Temesgen. The thing is that in the cloth house [.....], like you can see, [.....] and in a position where to include the things that are mentioned in the course outline like dislike and like, [.....], give advice, asking ways and giving an offer. This is the, this is the topic. How are you?

Temesgen: How are you?

Kirkos: Can I get a shirt?

Temesgen: Yeah?

Kirkos: Okay, I want to see it.

Temesgen: Okay, what kind of color do you want?

Kirkos: Okay, I like a shirt with color red, yellow and black.

Temesgen: What do you think about the brown one?

Kirkos: Oh, I do not like that. I do not like anything that makes me [...]. Okay, I think this one nice.

Temesgen: Okay.

Kirkos: Do you mind if I try it?

Temesgen: No. You can try it.

Kirkos: Okay. I think it is difficult to find a shirt that are size two, because of my obesity. And I don't know what I am doing to reduce my obesity. What would you suggest me, Temesgen?

Temesgen: I would suggest you to do some exercise. That will reduce your obesity.

Kirkos: No, I am afraid. I am not agree with your idea.

Teacher: Do not agree

Kirkos: I do not agree. Because many people does the exercise for the purpose of building their body.

Teacher: “Many people” takes plural verb.

Kirkos: [No reaction]

Temesgen: This is not what I mean. I said some exercise make you some shape. But not all

Kirkos: Oh. That is true. I accept your idea. Anyways, how much is this shirt?

Temesgen: 1,200 ETB.

Kirkos: Oh, that is much expensive. It's not fair price.

Temesgen: Okay, I will give you 1,000 ETB. If you agree with this price, you take the shirt.

Kirkos: Okay.

Temesgen: You will take the shirt.

Kirkos: I will take it.

Temesgen: Take a seat. I would like you to drink something.

Kirkos: Okay.

Temesgen: Would you have a tea or coffee?

Kirkos: Coffee, please.

Temesgen: Wait a minute. [The coffee brought to the customer].

Kirkos: I like this coffee. It is amazing. Can you tell me how can I find a taxi taking home?

Temesgen: Yes, of course. You go straight on the road. And you go right and then left. You will get to the next fermata.

Kirkos: I think the rain is coming. Thank you for everything. Goodbye.

Temesgen: Thank you. Goodbye. [They left the stage].

Teacher: What would you give them out of 10 and explain why? Or just overall comments.

Temesgen: You know, he is fighting to bring, you know, the language expressions to his mouth. It should have been earlier you need to have practice. And bring all those language expressions used to express your liking, disliking, how to tell directions, how to make an offer. So that, you know, he must be able to command those language expressions. But as I say, you are running short of, you know, these language expressions. I feel that way. What do you think? Yeah? Birara, where are you?

Birara: Ummm....it was wonderful, actually. A similar problem has been seen on Temesgen.

Teacher: Yeah.

Birara: He used wrongly, he used wrongly organized words to express his liking. As you expressed, I think he is in short of good preparation.

Teacher: Yeah. Wonderful. Kaleb?

Kaleb: Yes.

Teacher: Comment.

Kaleb: That is good, wonderful.

Teacher: What do you mean by wonderful? Why do you say wonderful? Come on. Explain. It is not a matter of saying wonderful and bad. But, it must be accompanied by some reasons. Eyuel, what do you think?

Eyuel: I think it was good. But Kaleb's language was wrong.

Teacher: Yeah. Short of training, short of practice. Mengesha, where are you?

Mengesha: I think the communication is good. Because they improve from the previous to now.

Teacher: Yeah. Samy!

Samy: Yes.

Teacher: Say something.

Samy: It was [.....]

Teacher: Yeah. The same problem that others say about Temesgen. So the next presentation will be together with the script. All must have the script, the spoken script, together with your presentation. Let us go. What is that? Wonderful.

Mengesha: We are going to make a conversation.

Teacher: Listen! [pointing to the audience].

Mengesha: We put emphasis on this conversation. Ummm.....invitation. Only invitation. And we will continue the others.

Teacher: Now is invitation, yeah?

Mengesha: Yes.

Teacher: Let us listen. [አንተ አዳጋጋለህ!] Look at the language expression they use. Comment [ስጥ ትገለጻለህ], you say wonderful. Let us go.

Mengesha: Hey. How are you, Samy?

Samy: Hey, Mengesha. I was just looking for you.

Mengesha: Me? Me? Why?

Samy: You know, I am going to celebrate my birthday tonight. And I wonder if you come.....If you come to my party.

Mengesha: Okay. It is good. Why not? It is good. [Conversation disrupted for almost 2 minutes as they struggled to go on. After whisper among themselves, they decided to restart the dialogue].

Samy: I am going to celebrate my birthday tonight, I wonder if you want to come to my party?

Mengesha: Not really, what? [After a pause and struggle] It sounds good. Where is it?

Samy: It is in my house.

Mengesha: Oh, I will be here, I will be there.

Samy: Okay. Mengesha, I have an appointment now. I have to go. See you in the night.

Mengesha: Okay, see you in night time.

Samy: And this one is the invitation. He agrees, “I will be there.” He accepts. And if he rejects, it will be like this.

Teacher: Let us see.

Mengesha: Hey, Samy. How are you?

Samy: How are you? I was just looking for you.

Mengesha: I am afraid, I cannot. I am busy now. I have [.....]. [It did not go as they planned. Therefore, they restarted it]. Samy, how are you?

Samy: How are you? I was just looking for you.

Mengesha: For what?

Samy: Is it okay if you come to my birthday tonight?

Mengesha: I am afraid. I cannot. I am busy now. I have an engagement.

Samy: Okay, it is okay.

Mengesha: I am sorry, Samy. But... for the next.

Samy: See you.

Mengesha: See you too. [Mengesha got ready to start the next part of their presentation].

Mengesha: And the next, the next, the next will be... Showing... giving direction. And I will... asks Samy the direction. And that guy says ‘I don't know, I'm stranger’. And he will ask another one. Samy, how are you?

Mengesha: Hey, sir. Do you know where the bus station is?

Samy: I am sorry. I am a stranger here. Ask someone else.

Mengesha: Okay, thank you. [He headed to another person to ask for direction].

Samy: Hey, sir, could you tell me the way to the bus station, please?

Mengesha: Of course, the bus station is close to road, along the road. And you have a school, you get school. And the bus station is in front of the school.

Samy: Okay, thank you. By the way, I am Samy.

Mengesha: I am Mengesha. I think you are a stranger. Where are you from?

Samy: Yes, I am from Kobo.

Mengesha: Kobo?

Samy: Yes.

Mengesha: Oh, Kobo. I have many... I have many relatives and siblings in Kobo. Nice to meet you.

Samy: Nice to meet you, too.

Mengesha: Bye.

Samy: Bye.

[They whispered to assign different roles for another scenario].

Mengesha: When two friends... This part, when two friends... have not seen for two consecutive days. I will call my friends. Hello, Samy.

Samy: Hello, Mengesha.

Mengesha: Ahh, how are you?

Samy: How are you?

Mengesha: I am fine. I am fine. I have not seen for the...for two days consecutively. Is a problem?

Teacher: Is there any problem?

Mengesha: Ok, is there a problem?

Samy: Yes, I have a headache. Shall I go to traditional medicine?

Mengesha: No, no. You had better go to modern medicine rather than traditional medicine.

Samy: Shall IShall I go to hospital?

Mengesha: Surely. The doctors treat you better.

Samy: Okay, I will try.

Mengesha: Do not delay. Immediately you go when you feel bad.

Samy: Okay, thanks.

Mengesha: It is okay. God bless you, Samy.

Samy: Thank you. Bye.

Mengesha: Bye. See you later. [The dialogue ended and the participants took their seat].

Teacher: Kirkos, what is your comment here?

Kirkos: It's good. But they make mistake.

Teacher: What?

Kirkos: Both of them are stated to speak.

Teacher: Both of them eehh?

Kirkos: Hesitated to speak.

Teacher: Like what?

Kirkos: I think they are not prepared enough.

Teacher: Yeah, that is why they said very little. I know. I know. What else, Habtu?

Habtu: Especially at the beginning of the dialogue, there was a disconnected between ideas.

Teacher: There was a disconnection...

Habtu: Yeah. There was a disconnection. That shows lack of preparation.

Teacher: Great.

Habtu: They will start partially.

Teacher: Eyuel, come on.

Eyuel: They had a good idea but they did not express it. I think they were afraid. I do not know.

But, they had a good idea. I like it

Teacher: You appreciate. Yeah. Good. And Bishaw, where are you?

Bishaw: Ummm...they try to include all the functions. That is good. But I [inaudible speech].

Teacher: Yeah, this is common comment. Yeah. I wonder what was your first. I wonder if you are able to come to my party.

Samy: Yes.

Teacher: Yeah. I wonder. I like it. The first, the way he invites. So I expect you, yeah, to use different language. Then I expect to get also to invite, you know, to invite..... Thursday is my birthday party. Samy, can you come? Different language expressions, yeah? Those language expressions, it would have been, you know, if they are involved, it would have been great. Since you are saying how are you, how are you, how are you, whenever you meet, you say how are you Samy? How are you.....? Why? Is it only how are you that you know for greeting? You need to use different language expressions to use for greeting. Yeah? Again, the problem for the first one, I do not know why. It means Samy or Mengesha [.....] to accept his invitation. So, yeah, I would love to, you know, where is it? What is the time? And then you can accept or, you know, the invitation. And then when you reject, what is it that you should say? So, you need to say that way. [Phone ringing again and again]. Yeah, what else? Yeah. So, I'm, you know, I'm, today I'm very

much satisfied with Eyuel's and Samy's presentations. They are at the top. Habtu, you are always at the top because you are always dominating the group, I do not know why. Others also, you know, give you that class. Samy first tried to introduce, yeah, the functions and then Mengesha also comes up, you know, to make the presentation, to introduce the presentations. They try to balance it. I like that one. Yeah? So, that's all. All in all, the presentations are very good. But we shall still have one more presentation. Show me the script. I want you to prepare like this. And then I will take this one and mark it for the next presentation. So, everyone, every one of you must have a script. [Smiling with happiness] Yeah, I like, I like the, you know, the way it is prepared, even though it is a little bit, you know. So, when you come, for example, to Kirkos and Temesgen, do you know why Temesgen lost all the language expressions? Because he was not involved in writing the script.

[Presenters tried to show their script].

Teacher: Does he have the script? Show me then. [እያለህ ነው ታዲያ!]

Kirkos: I sent him the script.

Teacher: [ለምን ትልክለታለህ?] Why doesn't he himself write? Why don't you sit together and then write? If you were sitting together to write that one, then he will not have lost all the language expressions. You try to memorize them, but because Kirkos, you take the responsibility, then he lost everything. So, next time, sit together, come up with the scripts, practice them, and then, yeah, things will be improved. So, one more presentation for the last time. And then that day, I will tell you about my test. Is there anyone with the course outline? They are about, you know, introduction, greetings, closing, opening, likes and dislikes. These all will appear in your test. All. What is it? Is it offering? Is it a... So, I'll try to prepare that. I will tell you anyways next period. So, that's it. Shall we make it on Monday?

Birara: Depending on students.....

Teacher: What do you mean? This is a must. Whether they agree or disagree.

Birara: The day, I am saying the day.

Teacher: The day is on Monday. Yeah? Yeah.

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Next session

Teacher: Probably, you can reduce. Yeah. So it has to invest a lot of time, in fact, more than you do. For example, Birara is wonderful in English. So when Birara you know, practice, he needs little. He does not want more. But Temesgen needs more. So facilitate. Sometimes, in your absence also he has to practice. Give him the kind of expressions. So I will mark both the written one and the spoken one. [ሁለቱንም ትሰጡኝላችሁ::] Then I will mark both. Okay, so make sure that you come with two. One, oral preparation and two, written preparation. It must be in a well written so that I can read and understand what I mean. So, Habtu with whom?

Habtu: Eyuel.

Teacher: Eyuel. Birara?

Birara: Abera and Temesgen.

Teacher: Abera and Temesgen. Okay, manage it. Yeah. Bishaw?

Bishaw: Mengesha.

Teacher: Bishaw and Mengesha. And then Kirkos.

Kirkos: I am not assigned.

Teacher: Ahhh! How? Is there anyone not assigned? Kaleb is not assigned, yeah. [*With an intention to assign them together*] So far, Abera, I saw during the first time you were wonderful. But now when there is a presentation, do you afraid? Do you feel nervous when you come on the stage? Your languages are so fragmented that it is very difficult to [...] ideas. So. Do you know Birara?

Abera: Yes.

Teacher: Which one is it?

Abera: [*Pointed to Birara*].

Teacher: So you need to work intimately. Yeah. Birara, please try to understand this..... It is very difficult to assess his position. So, you need to work together. So, Kaleb!

Kaleb: Yes.

Teacher: Where is Kirkos? Kirkos, you know, he is, you know, a recent arrival, but he is very disciplined. Now, once I know him, I found him disciplined. Yeah. So try to work with Kaleb. Kaleb, I found it very difficult to know your English. My evaluation is not good. When you work here, you are so passive. [የአንተ ፍንጽ ነፍስ::] You are not involved. So, Kirkos, try to work and discuss and try to give him much time. I like your English. It is wonderful. I like Kirkos' English, you know. He has invested in his time. So he is wonderful in [.....] to Kaleb, capitalize on Kirkos' English so that you will have time to improve your English, okay. Yeah. We will meet on Monday. So both written and spoken will be evaluated. Any comments? Do you have anything? On Monday, I will tell you about [መቼ ነው] class end?

Birara: On the 28th.

Teacher: So, do everything and get ready. I will finish the class in two day. Yeah. So, soon after the class, I will talk to the department and then try to administer our final tests as early as possible. Yeah. So prepare for, for, for the role-play. Prepare for the exam. That is all. Thank you very much. The door is wide open now. *[Students left the class]*.

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Another session

Session 5 -3- 240701 0754

Teacher: Others will present, and the spectators should give their comments. Yeah! So, let's go. Who is going to be the first? Again, out of 10. I can imagine everyone is ready. Yeah, Bishaw is going to be the first. Great!

Bishaw: Hello, everyone. So, today's topic is, of course, around the five or six functions: introduction, ...ehh asking advice, invitation, parting and also closing. So, let's start. Hey, Mengesha. Nice to meet you.

Mengesha: Hey, I am Mengesha. Nice to meet you too. You looks like a stranger. Where are you from?

Teacher: Remember, the pronoun 'you' is not followed by 's'.

Mengesha: You **look?** (Repaired)

Teacher: Of course, that is great!

Bishaw: Yeah, I am from another town.

Mengesha: How do you see Bahir Dar?

Bishaw: Bahir Dar is very excellent city.

Teacher: Very and excellent do not go together. Use either very good or only excellent itself.

Bishaw: Ok.

Mengesha: Is there anything, which I help you?

Bishaw: Yeah, I have some bad headache. Do you have any advice to me?

Mengesha: Oh, I think you should go to hospital.

Bishaw: Yeah, you are right. Could you tell me the way to the nearest hospital?

Mengesha: Yes, of course. It is not far. Go straight along the road and turn to the left. You will get to the stadium. The hospital is next to the stadium.

Bishaw: Oh, thank you, Mengesha. By the way,ehhh do you have any plan tomorrow morning?

Mengesha: Not really. Why?

Bishaw: Because I am going to celebrate my birthday tomorrow. And I wonder if you come toehhh join us.

Mengesha: It sounds great. I would love it. Thank you very much.

Bishaw: Yeah, I think it starts raining. So, we should probably go. I think I will see you in the party.

Mengesha: Okay, see you.

Bishaw: Okay, see you there.

Teacher: Wonderful. I like it. But it is here. What do you mean by invitation? Asking for invitation? Inviting someone? And you invite someone. And the other one either accepts or rejects. It is not just an invitation. Asking, inviting, and refusing, and accepting. Asking advice? Yeah, that's it. I like that one. I like it. It is here. So, this is Mengesha. Mengesha, you see? Last time you were damn quiet. But today, it is English you speak, yeah? So, I like today. I can tell you that. Kirkos, what is your comment here?

Kirkos: I have no comment. It is wonderful, yeah.

Teacher: Great. And Samy?

Samy: the same.

Teacher: Is there anyone? Okay. I like this one. Where is Bishaw? Come on. Let's go. [Noise in the classroom until conversants take the stage].

Bishaw: Hello, everyone. How are you? I am fine. Today, I am interesting to introduce the introduction.

Teacher: You are **interesting** to introduce?

Bishaw: Yes. And I want to introduce myself and you. And the titles of the dialogue, the educational curriculums of Ethiopia.

Teacher: The title of the dialogue.

Bishaw: Ok, the title. And the contents of the dialogue, like and dislike, agreement, disagreement, and direction, invitation, and also, I think I will close it. Samy....ehh, I and Samy, like as, a brother. Samy and Temesgen act as a friend.

Teacher: as friends.

Bishaw: Yes, as friends. And I and Temesgen not know each other.

Teacher: Do not know each other. [recast]

Bishaw: Do not know each other. So, the dialogue started firstly..... ehhe by Temesgen, then Samy.

Temesgen: Hello. How are you?

Samy: I am fine, and pretty good. How are you?

Temesgen: I am fine.

Samy: Is everything okay?

Temesgen: Yeah.

Samy: Long time no see. Where have you been, Temesgen?

Temesgen: I am tied up with some sport activity.

Samy: Oh, really? Do you like sport?

Temesgen: Yes, I like. I die for sport.

Samy: Oh, it's wonderful.

Temesgen: This is my brother, Abera.

Samy: How are you, brother?

Abera: I am fine. And you?

Samy: I am all right. I am glad to meet you.

Abera: Me too. [*A lot of noise from the classroom*].

Temesgen: What do you think about the educational curriculum of Ethiopia?

Samy: Oh, Temesgen. I think Ethiopian educational planning is deceptive. Ahhhh.....the education planning has been designed..... you see in international language. If it is given by local language, I would like it.

Temesgen: No, you are mistaken. The need for teaching foreign languaging is to help students improve international language side by side.

[huge gap in conversation with everyone in the classroom uttering by their own]

Samy: I am addicted with smoking. What should I do, Temesgen?

Temesgen: Oh, you are must be kidding.

Teacher: You must be kidding.

Temesgen: Yes, you must be kidding. It is very bad habit. You should try to substitute another good hobbies.

Samy: Thank you for your advice, Temesgen. Okay, the time is running. We have an appointment with Abera somewhere. Could you tell us where the post office is, Temesgen?

Temesgen: Oh, yes, I can. Keep your ehhe....right hand side in front of the bus station.

Samy: Thank you.

Temesgen: Thank you. Okay.

Teacher: Okay,I am not anyway..... Oh, come on. Come on. [Another group taking the turn to talk on the stage]

Habtu: Good afternoon. Our conservation is about department selection in this dialogue. Both Amanuel and I act as freshman university student. We included different expressions in this conservation, just like agreement and disagreement and others. This conservation is different from the previous conservation that we have presented.

Teacher: Different from the previous what?

Habtu: Conservation.

Teacher: Conservation' is not an appropriate word here. Better to say 'conversation', which means a talk between people.

Habtu: [Showed acceptance via head nodding] We tried to....ahhh involved different common expressions. So, let us start. How are you, Amanuel?

Amanuel: How are you, Habtu? How is everything?

Habtu: Oh, everything is all right. Ahhhh, I am hungry. How about having dinner with me?

Amanuel: That is what I was thinking. Let us go.

Habtu: What would you like to eat?

Amanuel: I like Enjera.

Habtu: What about Spaghetti?

Amanuel: Thank you, but I do not like Spaghetti. By the way, have you heard the date of the department selection?

Habtu: Yes, it is [not audible enough].

Amanuel: What department do you want to join? I wanna join...I wanna join philosophy, because as my friends told me, it is the best department.

Habtu: I couldn't agree less, because in Ethiopia, there is not a great opportunity of employment after graduation in this department. What about you?

Amanuel: I would like to join journalism and communication.

Habtu: Oh, I couldn't agree more. That is very hard. What would you advise me to do?

Amanuel: I advise you to join journalism and communication like me. Because if you don't get a job of employment opportunity, you can create your own job on it.

Habtu: Oh, I have to go. It is getting dark. By the way, could you tell me the way to [not audible]?

Amanuel: Yes, go straight until you get the lounge. Then, you can find it.

Habtu: Thank you. See you next time.

Amanuel: See you. Thank you. [Conversation ended and pairs left the stage].

Teacher: Okay, next. [much noise heard until another pair came to the stage].

Eyuel: Our situation is ↓ when one...when one person.....

Teacher: Louder

Eyuel: When one person sits in the cafe and he sees his friend passing through, and he invites him to sit here.

Teacher: Wonderful! Wonderful situation.

Sewnet: We put on the functions, closing ...I mean greeting, giving and asking direction, invitation, opening and, eh hh opening conversation and closing conversation, and at the last, parting.

Sewnet: Hey, Eyuel. what's up?

Eyuel: What's up, Sewnet? How are you doing?

Sewnet: Everything is good?

Eyuel: I am good. What about you?

Sewnet: I am fine. Have a seat.

Eyuel: Okay. Thank you.

Sewnet: What would you like to drink?

Eyuel: No, please. I am full.

Sewnet: Where were you going?

Eyuel: I was just going to buy a good [inaudible speech]. Do you know where the nearest [inaudible sound] is?

Sewnet: Yes, sure. Do you know Abebe restaurant?

Eyuel: Yeah, I know it. It's on the opposite.

Sewnet: Is it on the opposite?

Eyuel: Yes.

Sewnet: Okay, thanks. Let me go before it gets cold.

Eyuel: It is okay. Keep in touch.

Sewnet: Okay, I will call you.

Eyuel: See you.

Sewnet: See you too. [The speakers went to their seat].

Teacher: I like it, but ummm, I found it a little bit catchy. [ትንሽ ረዘም ብትል], but I am very much satisfied. I like it, the flow, the functions. The functions are one or two? Otherwise, it is wonderful. I like the flow.

Appendix B: Students' Questionnaire

Dear Students,

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect research data on students' perceptions of their teacher oral corrective feedback in English classes. The data obtained from you will only serve for research purpose. You are not supposed to write your name, and this ensures that the data you give is kept confidential or secret. Your honest responses are valuable insights and play crucial role for this study, so please give your answers as per what you feel is true for you.

Thank you in advance for participating!

Part 1: Demographic information of participants

Gender: M _____ F _____ Please put a tick mark (✓) where appropriate.

Age: _____

Part 2: Students' perceptions of teacher oral corrective feedback

Please carefully read the following items below and put a tick mark (✓) against each statement that best reflects your thoughts and experiences. The scale is represented as follows.

Strongly disagree =1 disagree =2 cannot decide =3 agree =4 strongly agree =5

No.	Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	Oral corrective feedback given by teacher is good for English language learning.					
2	English language teachers should correct students when they make oral errors in English classes.					
3	Receiving oral corrective feedback on my errors helps me to avoid making them another time.					
4	I learn a lot when my teacher corrects oral errors I make in class.					
5	I learn a lot when my teacher corrects oral errors made by my fellow students in class.					
6	Oral corrective feedback improves my English speaking skills.					
7	The teachers' oral corrective feedback helps me in identifying and fixing my oral errors.					
8	I understand when my teacher gives oral corrective feedback to my oral errors.					
9	It is easy for me to understand what the teacher intends to correct when giving me oral feedback.					
10	I ignore my teacher's oral corrections when I do not understand them.					
11	I ask the teacher for clarification when I do not understand the corrective feedback given by him/her.					

12	My teacher gives me oral corrective feedback that is clear and easy to understand.					
13	After receiving oral feedback from my teacher, I self-correct my oral errors.					
14	I feel comfortable when my English teacher points out my oral errors.					
15	I feel bad or angry when my teacher corrects my errors in front of my class.					
16	I find it helpful when my teacher gives oral correction immediately after I make mistake.					
17	I am happy if my teacher gives me time to finish my speaking before he provides me oral corrective feedback to my errors.					

Appendix C: Students' Interview Questions

Bahir Dar University

College of Education

Department of Language Education

1. What do you feel when you receive oral corrections from your teacher? (E.g., do you feel motivated/encouraged or embarrassed/ashamed/discouraged?)
2. How do you describe your reaction/response when your teacher gives you oral corrections to your spoken errors? Do you continue speaking, or stop communication?
3. How do you see the importance of your teacher's oral corrections provided in response to your spoken errors?
4. Please describe difficulties you face while trying to correct your errors after teacher's corrections? Explain it more with example(s).
5. What types of teacher feedback do you think helps you feel more comfortable to self-correct your spoken errors (explicit or implicit)?
6. What do you understand if your teacher repeats the sentence or part of the sentence you spoke?