

**TEACHER COGNITION OF CORRECTIVE
FEEDBACK IN THE EFL SPEAKING
CLASSROOM: A CASE STUDY OF THAI
UNIVERSITY TEACHERS**

Satima Rotjanawongchai

Doctor of Philosophy

University of York

Education

April 2019

Abstract

This study investigated teacher cognition in relation to corrective feedback (oral responses to errors in students' spoken language). Teacher cognition in teaching speaking, especially in corrective feedback, is scant even though speaking is a vital language skill and corrective feedback is considered beneficial for second language learning.

This study fills existing gaps in the research by examining 11 Thai EFL teachers' cognitions through 77 interviews and 33 lesson observations in three stages of teaching: before, during, and after, to capture as full a picture as possible of the teachers' decision-making processes from pre-teaching cognition through interactive cognition to post-action cognition.

The findings suggest that prior language learning experience and teaching experience were the primary sources of cognition. The most powerful factors affecting their cognitions were student motivation and student confidence.

A tension between conforming to curriculum goals which was dominated by paper-based exams and the demands of real-world communication focusing on communicative performance was reported by some teachers. This finding, suggesting a lack of alignment between the curriculum and the assessment, highlights a need for more attention to the assessment of speaking courses. The finding of insignificant effects of professional coursework raises concerns concerning the knowledge of corrective feedback and motivational strategies provided in teacher education and training. Filling this gap may promote more informed decision-making in the speaking classroom on behalf of teachers.

Table of Contents

Abstract.....	2
Table of Contents.....	3
Lists of Figures.....	8
Lists of Tables.....	9
Acknowledgements.....	10
Author’s Declaration.....	11
Chapter 1 Introduction	12
1.1. The rationale of the study	12
1.2 Aims and research questions.....	15
1.3 Approach.....	15
1.4 Structure of the thesis.....	16
Chapter 2 Literature Review.....	18
2.1 Overview.....	18
2.2 Teacher cognition.....	18
2.3 Teacher knowledge	20
2.4 Teacher beliefs.....	23
2.5 Models of teacher cognition	27
<i>2.5.1 Shavelson and Stern’s model of teachers’ judgements and pedagogical decisions.....</i>	28
<i>2.5.2 Clark and Peterson’s model of teacher thought and action</i>	29
<i>2.5.3 Borg’s language teacher cognition model.....</i>	33
<i>2.5.4 Insights from the three models</i>	34
2.6 Factors affecting teacher cognition	36
<i>2.6.1 Professional coursework.....</i>	36
<i>2.6.2 Learning experiences.....</i>	37
<i>2.6.3 Teaching experiences.....</i>	39
2.6.4 Context in ELT	41
<i>2.6.5 Contextual factors and teacher cognition.....</i>	46
2.7 Errors in spoken language	60
<i>2.7.1 Defining errors.....</i>	60

2.7.2 Error types	63
2.7.3 Errors to correct	68
2.7.4 Teacher cognition on error types.....	70
2.8 Corrective feedback (CF)	73
2.8.1 Defining corrective feedback.....	73
2.8.2 Types of corrective feedback	75
2.8.3 Rationale for providing corrective feedback.....	78
2.8.4 Effectiveness of different types of corrective feedback.....	80
2.8.5 Teacher cognition on corrective feedback types.....	83
2.9 Teaching speaking in the World Englishes paradigm	85
2.10 Key debates in teaching speaking	87
2.10.1 Nativelikeness and intelligibility	87
2.10.2 Segmental vs. Suprasegmental features.....	91
2.10.3 Lingua Franca Core (LFC).....	93
2.10.4 Recommendations of teaching speaking in the World Englishes paradigm	96
2.11 Context of the study	103
2.11.1 ELT in Thailand.....	103
2.11.2 Problems associated with teaching speaking in Thailand.....	105
2.11.3 Teacher education in Thailand.....	107
2.12 Summary	110
Chapter 3 Research Methodology	113
3.1 Overview.....	113
3.2 Research paradigm.....	113
3.3 Research strategy and design	115
3.3.1 Qualitative case studies.....	115
3.3.2 Research setting.....	116
3.3.3 Sampling strategy.....	116
3.3.4 Participants.....	118
3.3.5 The researcher's role toward the participants	122
3.4 Data collection	123
3.4.1 Pilot study	126
3.4.2 Background interviews	128
3.4.3 Lesson observations.....	129
3.4.4 Stimulated-recall interviews	130

3.4.5 <i>Post-observation interviews</i>	132
3.5 Procedures	133
3.6 Data analysis.....	135
3.6.1 <i>Transcription</i>	136
3.6.2 <i>Data coding</i>	137
3.6.3 <i>Interpretation</i>	141
3.6.4 <i>Overarching themes across cases</i>	145
3.7 Trustworthiness.....	153
3.7.1 <i>Credibility</i>	153
3.7.2 <i>Transferability</i>	155
3.7.3 <i>Dependability</i>	155
3.7.4 <i>Confirmability</i>	156
3.8 Ethical considerations	158
3.8.1 <i>Informed consent</i>	158
3.8.2 <i>Obtrusiveness</i>	159
3.8.3 <i>Privacy and confidentiality</i>	159
3.9 Summary	159
Chapter 4 Cross-case Analysis and Discussion	161
4.1 Overview.....	161
4.2 Summaries of individual cases	161
4.3 Thai university teachers' cognition about oral corrective feedback 169	
4.3.1 <i>Overview of factors affecting teacher cognition</i>	170
4.3.2 <i>Mismatches between beliefs and practices</i>	171
4.3.3 <i>The significant influence of student factors</i>	174
4.4 Sources of teacher cognition	176
4.4.1 <i>Prior language learning experiences</i>	177
4.4.2 <i>Teaching experiences</i>	182
4.4.3 <i>Professional coursework</i>	187
4.5 Contextual factors affecting teacher cognition.....	190
4.5.1 <i>Enhancing motivation and confidence</i>	191
4.5.2 <i>Preferring elicitation for motivation, recasts for confidence</i> ...	197
4.5.3 <i>Being more selective with lower proficiency students</i>	204
4.5.4 <i>The powerful influences of student factors</i>	207
4.5.5 <i>Correcting curriculum-focused errors</i>	212

4.5.6 <i>Using elicitation with curriculum-relevant errors</i>	218
4.5.7 <i>Correcting errors relating to real-world communication</i>	221
4.5.8 <i>Tensions between curriculum goals and real-world communication</i>	228
4.5.9 <i>Issues of intelligibility and nativelike English</i>	235
4.5.10 <i>Summary of Section 4.4 and Section 4.5</i>	238
4.6 Summary	240
Chapter 5 Conclusion	243
5.1 Overview.....	243
5.2 Main research findings.....	244
5.3 Theoretical contributions.....	249
5.3.1 <i>A figure of factors affecting teacher cognition</i>	249
5.3.2 <i>Teachers' interactive thoughts</i>	249
5.3.3 <i>Teachers' theories and beliefs</i>	250
5.4 Limitations of the study and future research	250
5.5 Implications.....	252
5.5.1 <i>Pedagogical implications</i>	252
5.5.2 <i>Implications for professional development courses</i>	254
5.5.3 <i>Methodological implications</i>	257
5.6 Final remarks	262
Appendix A: Glossary of abbreviations and acronyms.....	263
Appendix B: Corrective feedback types (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).....	264
Appendix C: Course syllabus of the observed courses	265
Appendix D: Detailed procedures of data collection	270
Appendix E: Research information sheet and consent form	273
Appendix F: Teacher consent form.....	276
Appendix G: Head teacher consent form.....	277
Appendix H: Background interview schedules	278
Appendix I: Stimulated-recall interview instructions.....	283
Appendix J: Sample interview transcripts and translation	284
Appendix K: Sample Nvivo coding.....	293
Appendix L: Evidence of cross-case analysis.....	294
Appendix M: Diann's case study report.....	332
Appendix N: James' case study report.....	340
Appendix O: Jane's case study report.....	347

Appendix P: Eve’s case study report.....	357
Appendix Q: Thomas’ case study report	365
Appendix R: Karen’s case study report.....	375
Appendix S: Julie’s case study report	383
Appendix T: Denise’s case study report.....	393
Appendix U: Natalie’s case study report	401
Appendix V: Stefani’s case study report	407
Appendix W: Emma’s case study report.....	415
References.....	423

List of Figures

Figure 1 Factors contributing to teachers' pedagogical judgment and decisions (Shavelson & Stern, 1981).....	28
Figure 2 Model of teacher thought and action (Clark & Peterson,1986).....	30
Figure 3 Elements and processes in language teacher cognition..... (Borg, 2006)	33
Figure 4 Triangulation of data sources.....	124
Figure 5 Process of data collection.....	134
Figure 6 Process of individual case analysis.....	136
Figure 7 Process of investigating overarching themes.....	146
Figure 8 Factors affecting teacher cognition about corrective feedback.....	170

List of Tables

Table 1	Summary of the participants' background information.....	118
Table 2	Purposes of each data collection stage.....	132
Table 3	Themes of individual cases.....	144
Table 4	Overarching themes across cases.....	150
Table 5	Relationships between the overarching themes.....	152
Table 6	Effects of prior learning experiences on the teachers' cognition.....	178
Table 7	Effects of teaching experience.....	183
Table 8	Effects of professional coursework on cognition..... about error correction	187
Table 9	Samples of data triangulation.....	259

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my gratitude to all the participants who dedicated their time to be part of this study. Without their full cooperation, the study would not have been completed. I would also like to offer my sincere gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. Zoe Handley, who always gave me constructive feedback and empowered me to improve my research skills. Her clear and detailed guidance made my PhD journey more pleasant. I wholeheartedly felt grateful for the supports and encouragement she gave me throughout the study. I would like to extend my gratitude to Dr. Bill Soden, who agreed to supervise me during Dr. Handley's maternity leave, and David who helped with proofreading.

I would also like to thank my friends, Pla and P' Som for their unwavering supports for every aspect of my life, especially when I needed them the most. In addition, I appreciate considerable encouragement from my mum and my sisters who are always by my side through thick and thin. This includes my UK friends: P'Sama, Jihah, Fairus, and Sue who brightened my gloomy days during the journey. I would not have been able to get through all the obstacles without these people.

Lastly, I would like to thank Yorkshire for its stunning mountain scenery which greatly eased my stress every time I looked at it and made me love living in York even more.

Author's Declarations

I declare that this thesis is a presentation of original work and I am the sole author. This work has not previously been presented for an award at this, or any other, University. All sources are acknowledged as References. The work in this thesis has not previously been published nor presented with the exception of the followings:

Rotjanawongchai, S., & Handley, Z. (2018, March). *Error Correction in the Speaking Classroom: Teacher Cognition in the Thai Context*. Poster session presented at the American Association for Applied Linguistics, Chicago, IL.

Rotjanawongchai, S., & Handley, Z. (2018). Capturing Teacher Cognition through the Triangulation of Interviews, Observations and Stimulated Recall Data. In M. Simons & T.F.H. Smits (Eds.), *Language Education and Emotions PROCEEDINGS* (pp. 126-135). Retrieved from [https://www.uantwerpen.be/images/uantwerpen/container50017/files/PROCEEDINGS_def_def_def\(1\).pdf](https://www.uantwerpen.be/images/uantwerpen/container50017/files/PROCEEDINGS_def_def_def(1).pdf)

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 The rationale of the study

In the mid-1970s, as opposed to being 'passive implementers', teachers were considered decision-makers who go through individual psychological processes to make sense of their work (Borg, 2006). As teachers' key roles in classrooms began to be recognised, research in teacher cognition started to be highlighted. In the field of teacher education, the shift was in alignment with awareness about the practicality of effective teaching – not every teacher would behave in the way they are trained because they have their own ways of teaching which might not agree with the existing theories of effective teaching. For this reason, exploring how teachers make sense of teaching can enhance individual teachers' awareness of their theories and practices (Freeman, 2002), which can lead to improvements in teacher training (Borg, 2011). Understanding teacher cognition –what teachers know and believe (Kagan, 1990), therefore, has been believed essential for advancement in pedagogy and teacher education.

Although research has investigated teachers' cognition in areas such as teaching reading (e.g. Farrell & Ives, 2014; Irvine-Niakaris & Kiely, 2015; Kuzborska, 2011), writing (e.g. Gaitas & Alves Martins, 2014; Watson, 2013), and grammar (e.g. Graus & Coppen, 2016; Phipps & Borg, 2009), studies on teacher cognition in relation to teaching speaking and corrective feedback (CF) are scant, with only a small number of recent studies of Alavi and Sepehrinia (2015), Debreli and Onuk (2016), Gandeel (2016), Park (2010), Roothoof and Breeze (2016) and Tleuov (2016). Given the fact that speaking is a vital language skill and corrective feedback is considered beneficial for second

language learning (Li, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007), this gap in research on teacher cognition is worth exploring and attempting to remedy. Although there has been growing interest in research on relationships between error correction and language acquisition in recent years (e.g. Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Li, 2010; Loewen & Nabei, 2007; Lyster & Ranta 1997; Sheen, 2004), most of these studies focus on teaching writing in which accuracy is commonly regarded as more important than in teaching other language skills such as speaking.

The paucity of studies on error correction in the speaking classroom might be due to the complexity of spoken error correction as correctness can be differently perceived by the individual (Hughes, 2011). Due to the contrast between error correction (form-focused), and teaching speaking (which is likely to focus more on meaning than on form), the implication of corrective feedback in the speaking classroom is potentially a controversial issue. For these reasons, investigating teacher cognition in relation to error correction in the speaking classroom can fill existing gaps in the literature and contribute to the field of language learning and teaching, as well as to teacher education more widely. Although research in teachers' beliefs cannot generate direct implementation, evidence-based findings suggest possibilities for policy makers to make informed decisions (Burkhardt & Schoenfeld, 2003).

My interest in exploring teacher cognition in spoken error correction in the Thai context was triggered by my own teaching experience in the context. As in other Asian EFL countries such as South Korea, Taiwan, Japan, China, there has been a transition from an emphasis on teaching grammar and spelling (form) to a form of teaching communicative competence (meanings) (Bruner,

Sinwongsuwan, & Shimray, 2014; Feng, 2015; Gil, 2016; Mun, 2013). However, Thai learners still encounter many difficulties when it comes to developing their speaking skills (Jindathai, 2015; Khamprated, 2012; Wanthanasut, 2008). This state of affairs has ramifications for Thai students' futures because it could result in a failure to meet the language skill requirements demanded by modern employers (Wiriyachitra, 2002). Moreover, despite the existence of an educational policy aiming at enhancing communicative competence and wide recognition that this is a desirable move, studies have shown that Thai EFL teachers still tend to focus on grammar rather than listening and speaking skills (Punthumasen, 2007). This finding also chimes with my own teaching experience and observations of teacher colleagues. Therefore, I determined that it would be both interesting and fruitful to investigate what other Thai teachers believe about error correction in the speaking classroom, and what they do in such situations in the classroom. Uncovering how teachers think, beliefs, and make decisions regarding the use of corrective feedback in speaking classrooms under a problematic context might contribute to the advancement of knowledge in the field of teacher cognition.

The tensions between the aims of educational policy and existing practice, along with existing research gaps hint at the possibility that there might be a number of as yet undetermined factors shaping teacher cognition relating to corrective feedback. Thus, examining this issue may allow us to explore unanswered questions regarding teachers' knowledge and beliefs about teaching speaking and corrective feedback. Answering these questions may shed light on pedagogical practices in teaching speaking, and moreover, since teachers' beliefs appear to be considered in their contexts regarding specific

classrooms, students, and institutions (Leinhardt, 1990), a case study in Thailand may allow a more comprehensive picture of teacher cognition to be built.

1.2 Aims and research questions

This study aims to explore teacher cognition concerning corrective feedback on spoken language through an investigation of Thai university EFL teachers' cognition of what to correct and how to correct. More specifically, the study explores the answers to the following research questions:

RQ1: What factors influence university level Thai EFL teachers' cognition about oral corrective feedback?

RQ2: What is these teachers' cognition about types of errors?

RQ3: What is these teachers' cognition about types of corrective feedback?

1.3 Approach

The research questions were answered through a qualitative case study. Eleven teachers between the ages of 25 and 48 with between one and 23 years of EFL teaching experience participated in this study. Four sources of data were triangulated from each teacher. Designed to provide as full a picture as possible of teachers' decision-making processes from pre-teaching cognition through interactive cognition to post-action cognition (Clark & Peterson, 1986), the data sources are: 1) a background interview, 2) three lesson observations, 3) three

stimulated recall interviews, and 4) three post-observation interviews. The background interviews followed the insights from the three models of Borg's (2006) model of language teacher cognition, Clark and Peterson's (1986) model of teacher thought and action, and Shavelson and Stern's (1981) model of teachers' judgements and pedagogical decisions, the stimulated recalls by the Shavelson and Stern's (1981) model, and the post-observation interviews by the themes emerging from the data.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

This thesis is organised into five chapters. Chapter 1 presents the rationale of the study, as well as the aims and research questions and the research approach. The rest of the thesis is arranged as follows.

Chapter 2 presents an overview of teacher cognition in terms of teacher knowledge and beliefs. It also discusses existing previous models of teacher cognition and how the study adopted these models. The chapter then reviews the major factors affecting teacher cognition according to previous studies, namely teacher education, learning experiences, teaching experiences, and contextual factors. Next, the concepts of errors in spoken language and corrective feedback are introduced. Along with a discussion of error correction and types of corrective feedback, the findings of previous research on teacher cognition relating to error types and feedback types are reviewed. Following this, general concepts about teaching speaking which are referenced in the discussion of teacher cognition are introduced. This includes English teaching in the World Englishes paradigm, key debates in teaching speaking, and the

context of the study involving teaching speaking and teacher education in Thailand.

Chapter 3 begins by presenting and considering the methodological orientation and research strategy employed in this study. This is followed by a description of the participants and the sampling strategy deployed. This chapter also presents the approach to data collection, the research instruments and the approach to data analysis. The analysis involves thematic analysis through transcription, data coding, and interpretation. How themes of individual cases were explored is also explained, as well as how the overarching themes and relationships among them were found. Finally, an outline of the research's validity and ethical considerations are demonstrated.

Chapter 4 demonstrates how the overarching themes found in this study fill existing gaps in the field of teacher cognition. As a result of the analysis, a model of teacher cognition is introduced and explored, in relation to existing models. Finally, the themes and the relationships among them are thoroughly discussed.

Chapter 5 draws out a conclusion to the thesis. It summarises the significance of the study and highlights the main findings. The limitations of the study are also outlined, before the thesis closes by considering a number of implications of the study.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Overview

This chapter begins by setting out the major focus of this study—teacher cognition which involves teacher knowledge and beliefs. The next two sections thus discuss knowledge and beliefs. Since teacher cognition is influenced by various factors, existing models of teacher cognition exploring those factors are also discussed. This is followed by insights from the existing models. The models presented here serve as a methodological framework for this study. To provide empirical evidence regarding the major factors presented in the models, the next section discusses those factors in more detail.

Since this study focuses on teacher cognition regarding corrective feedback, relevant notions of corrective feedback are also introduced. These include the definitions and types of errors and corrective feedback, and research findings relating to teacher cognition about error types and corrective feedback types, as well as the rationale for providing corrective feedback. This is followed by debates in teaching speaking involved in the World Englishes paradigm in order to provide general ideas relating to the discussion in Chapter 5. The chapter ends by outlining the context of the study, providing information about English language teaching and teacher education in Thailand.

2.2 Teacher cognition

It could be argued that the term ‘teacher cognition’ is subjective. A reason for this might be the ambiguity of the term itself. It could refer to “pre- or in-service

teachers' self-reflection; beliefs and knowledge about teaching, students, and content; and awareness of problem-solving strategies endemic to classroom teaching" (Kagan, 1990, p. 419) and can involve different notions such as

teachers' interactive thoughts during instruction; thoughts during lesson planning; implicit beliefs about students, classrooms, and learning; reflections about their own teaching performance; automatized routines and activities that form their instructional repertoire; and self-awareness of procedures they use to solve classroom problems. (Kagan, 1990, p. 420)

Subsequently, Borg (2006) defined the term with specific reference to language teacher cognition as "an inclusive term referring to the complex, practically-oriented, personalised, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts and beliefs that language teachers draw on in their work" (p.272). According to his model of elements in language teacher cognition, the term might be seen as incorporating beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes, assumptions, conceptions, principles, thinking, and decision making.

It might then be concluded from the proposed definitions and concepts that scholars share the idea that thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs are integral aspect of teacher cognition. The one proposed by Kagan (1990), however, differs slightly from that of Borg in terms of its added detail regarding teacher's thoughts which can be classified into three stages: before, during, and after instruction. This conceptualisation accords with earlier notions about three significant components of teachers' thought processes -- teacher planning, teachers' interactive thoughts and decisions, and teachers' theories and beliefs

(Clark & Peterson, 1986). Since this study aims to offer a comprehensive understanding of teacher cognition through the teaching process, the term 'teacher cognition' is used here to refer to thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs teachers hold before, during, and after their practices. While the conceptualisation of thoughts seems clear, the terms 'knowledge' and 'beliefs' necessitate careful consideration before being adopted in the study. Consequently, both terms are introduced before setting out how they are deployed in the study.

2.3 Teacher knowledge

The term 'teacher knowledge', like 'teacher cognition', has been used differently from various perspectives. In a case study of a high school English teacher, Elbaz (1981) proposes that teacher knowledge can be divided into five categories from a practical angle as she claims that teachers mostly use their knowledge to deal with practical issues as they are faced with them. Those categories are knowledge of subject matter, knowledge of curriculum, practical knowledge (knowledge informed by practice, instructional routines, classroom management, student needs, and the like), personal knowledge (self-knowledge and personally meaningful goals in their teaching), and interaction knowledge (knowledge shaped by interactions with others in their environment such as other teachers, students, administrators, and the prevailing social ethos). It seems that a teacher's personal knowledge from Elbaz's point of view relates only to their teaching. This might be the reason that Connelly and Clandinin (1985) expanded Elbaz's framework by suggesting a construct of personal practical knowledge from individual life perspectives. They defined the term as "knowledge which is experiential, embodied, and reconstructed out of the

narratives of a teacher's life" (p. 183) and a "moral, affective, and aesthetic way of knowing life's educational situations" (Clandinin & Connelly, 1987, p. 59). These definitions draw attention to the holistic manner of teacher knowledge as something which derives from both their personal and professional lives.

From the teacher education perspective, Shulman (1987) posits that seven headings fall under teacher knowledge: content knowledge; general pedagogical knowledge; curriculum knowledge; pedagogical content knowledge; knowledge of learners and their characteristics; knowledge of educational contexts; and knowledge of educational ends, purposes, values, and their philosophical and historical grounds. Among these categories, pedagogical content knowledge is referred to as "a teacher's personal understanding of what it means to teach and to learn particular academic content" (Kagan, 1990, p. 438). It is a bridge between content and pedagogy, which extends to professional understanding. This category of knowledge is different from general pedagogical knowledge in that it is pedagogical knowledge in the practical and personal sense; while the general category focuses on theoretical knowledge of pedagogy, with reference to classroom principles and strategies. Shulman (1987) identified general pedagogical knowledge with reference to "those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that appear to transcend subject matter" (p. 8) and describes pedagogical content knowledge as "special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding" (p. 8). This notion of pedagogical content knowledge is based on the idea that content and pedagogy should not be separated entirely because they are part of understanding one discipline;

therefore, teacher knowledge should include not only practical aspects but also theoretical aspects (Shulman, 1986; Wilson, Shulman & Richert, 1987). This might be the reason why pedagogical content knowledge was found to be closely related to actual classroom behaviour (Kagan, 1990). The differences between general pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge can also be considered from an epistemological perspective which refers to the former as 'formal knowledge' (knowledge obtained from studies) and the latter as 'practical knowledge' (knowledge derived from individuals' experience) (Fenstermacher, 1994).

It can be seen from these concepts of teacher knowledge that the term in practical perspective proposed by Elbaz (1981) and in teacher education points of view suggested by Shulman (1987) and Kagan (1990) are somewhat similar in terms of the use of knowledge in real classroom, but unsurprisingly, from an educational perspective learners and educational contexts are more highlighted.

In this present study, the concepts of knowledge from both educational and practical perspectives are adopted. From the educational perspective, the main focus is on pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) because this type of knowledge seems to be most suitable for an in-depth investigation into how teachers transfer their content knowledge into their practices and on 'real phenomena' occurring in the classroom. It covers both theoretical and practical knowledge while still making room for any emerging patterns from classroom observations. From the practical perspective, personal practical knowledge derived from individual life experience as suggest by Connelly and Clandinin (1985) and Clandinin and Connelly (1987) is highlighted to holistically uncover

teacher knowledge. Also, the knowledge from the epistemological perspective is considered to shed a degree of light on sources of teachers' knowledge. The next section discusses another important aspect of teacher cognition—teacher beliefs.

2.4 Teacher beliefs

Teacher beliefs are referred to as pedagogical beliefs reflected from teachers' experience (Borg, 2001; Clark & Peterson, 1986). More specifically, Pajares (1992) indicates four aspects of teachers' beliefs: "their work, their students, their subject matter, and their role and responsibilities" (p.314).

Teacher beliefs become instrumental in teacher education due to the assumption that studies in teachers' beliefs yield a better understanding of teachers' decision-making, and this could benefit teachers or teacher education (Pajares, 1992). It has been commonly accepted that there is a significant relationship between teachers' beliefs and language teaching. Phipps and Borg (2009) explored ample research on teachers' beliefs and offered a number of insights into teachers' beliefs on teaching and learning in terms of their impacts and factors. They argue that teachers' beliefs influence the way teachers interpret new information and experience, can affect their instructional practices in the long term but may not always account for their practices in the classroom, have bi-directional interaction with experience, and may be positively or negatively affected by their experiences as learners. Focusing specifically on language teachers, Phipps and Borg (2009) agreed with previous studies that language teachers' beliefs powerfully influence their pedagogical decisions,

emphatically impact the way they learn during language teacher education, and can be profoundly attached and difficult to change.

It is essential for researchers to have a clear concept of beliefs. For Pajares (1992), researchers should have clear conceptualisations, be careful about key assumptions, have a clear and precise understanding of definitions, and pay attention to belief construct and assessment. Yet despite agreement on the *benefits* of research into teachers' beliefs, as with teacher knowledge, there are different frameworks for and conceptions of the term, an ambiguity summed up succinctly by Eisenhart et al. (1988, p. 52) in their review of research in the field: "no single definition of belief is widely accepted in the educational research community." In educational psychology, the meaning of 'beliefs' can overlap with "attitudes, values, judgments, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertoires of understanding, and social strategy" (Pajares, 1992, p. 309).

In the field of language learning, researchers also hold different conceptualisations of beliefs. In various studies, it has been used interchangeably with the term opinions, assumptions, knowledge, or cognition. For example, in Busch (2010) beliefs are used to refer to "any views held by the participants about the nature of second language learning and teaching" (p. 320), in Kalaja and Barcelos (2003) as "opinions and ideas that learners (and teachers) have about the task of learning a second/foreign language" (p. 1), and in Kagan (1990) the word is used interchangeably with 'knowledge' as part of

teacher cognition. Although a number of academics do not offer a clear distinction between beliefs and other terms in cognition regarding language teaching and learning, others point out that the validity and sources of the term mean there are crucial differences between belief and knowledge. For instance, Borg (2011) argued that knowledge is different from belief in that “knowledge must actually be true in some external sense” while belief can only be true to its holder (p.186). Similarly, Richardson (1996) defined ‘beliefs’ as “a proposition that is accepted as true by the individual holding the belief” (p.104); while for Pajares (1992) “belief is based on evaluation and judgment; knowledge is based on objective fact” (p. 313).

Despite the complexities associate with defining and conceptualising the term, Borg (2011) posited four common features which remain acceptable among scholars in the field so far (e.g. Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Nguyen, 2014)

1. *The truth element.* Regarding research in the philosophy of knowledge, a belief means a mental state that is accepted as true by its holder even though the holder may realise that there are possibilities of alternative beliefs by others.
2. *The relationship between beliefs and behaviour.* It is mostly agreed that beliefs dispose or guide the way people think and act.
3. *Conscious versus unconscious beliefs.* There is a disagreement on whether consciousness is an essential feature of beliefs.

4. *Beliefs as value commitments.* The concept of beliefs is commonly referred to as the judgment of the value of a thing.

To sum up, belief relates to an individual's proposition generally regarding evaluation which might be consciously or unconsciously accepted as true only for the holder. Moreover, it influences what the holder does.

Although the differences set out above between beliefs and knowledge are acknowledged, this research treats the terms belief and knowledge as a single conception. It does so for four reasons.

First, the purpose of the study is to investigate teachers' mental lives in an integrated way, not to differentiate between what teachers know and what teachers believe. Second, what they know or believe can overlap and probably neither teachers nor observations can indicate that a proposition is what they know or what they believe because beliefs and knowledge are inextricably intertwined. As Barcelos and Kalaja (2011) point out, "Teachers understand knowledge through the interpretation of their own experiences and through reflection on those experiences" (p.286). Third, as Borg (2011) claims that knowledge must be true in 'some external sense', it might be the case that teacher knowledge is not acceptable for others in the other sense. In those cases, it seems difficult to differentiate beliefs and knowledge from the truth element. Moreover, Alexander, Schallert, and Hare (1991) note that knowledge is "all that a person knows or believes to be true, whether or not it is verified as true in some sort of objective or external way" (p. 317). Finally, there is a trend not to treat these terms independently (Zheng, 2009). Therefore, instead of

focusing on the definition of knowledge and beliefs, this present study adopts the integrated concepts of these two ideas to achieve the purpose of this study – to reveal comprehensive cognition behind teachers' classroom practices.

According to the detailed overview of teacher cognition in terms of knowledge and beliefs, 'teacher cognition' in this research includes teachers' thinking processes (before, during, and after instruction); knowledge for teaching derived from both personal experiences and education, including educational context knowledge and knowledge of learners without any focus on content knowledge; and beliefs in terms of pedagogical evaluation. Apart from the notion of teacher cognition itself, other contextual factors which might influence teacher cognition are also important for consideration. Therefore, the next section presents factors that might possibly affect teacher cognition by introducing existing models of teacher cognition.

2.5 Models of teacher cognition

This section illustrates the three previous models of teacher cognition: Shavelson and Stern's (1981), Clark and Peterson's (1986), and Borg's (2006). As the three models highlight different aspects of research on teacher cognition and various factors affecting teachers' beliefs and practices, this present study drew insights from these models to provide a framework for creating research instruments. Each model is presented chronologically, finishing with insights from the three models.

2.5.1 Shavelson and Stern's model of teachers' judgements and pedagogical decisions

Shavelson and Stern (1981) reviewed research on teacher thinking from 1976 to 1981. The reviewed studies involved teachers at elementary, primary, and high school levels. Based on the review, they proposed a model of teachers' pedagogical thoughts, judgements, and decisions. Their model highlights a link between teachers' decision making and their behaviours. They pointed out that teachers' decisions may inform their behaviours and vice versa. The model assumes that teachers are active decision makers who integrate information from different sources to accomplish the goal of promoting students' learning. The factors that can affect teachers' decisions are illustrated in Figure 1.

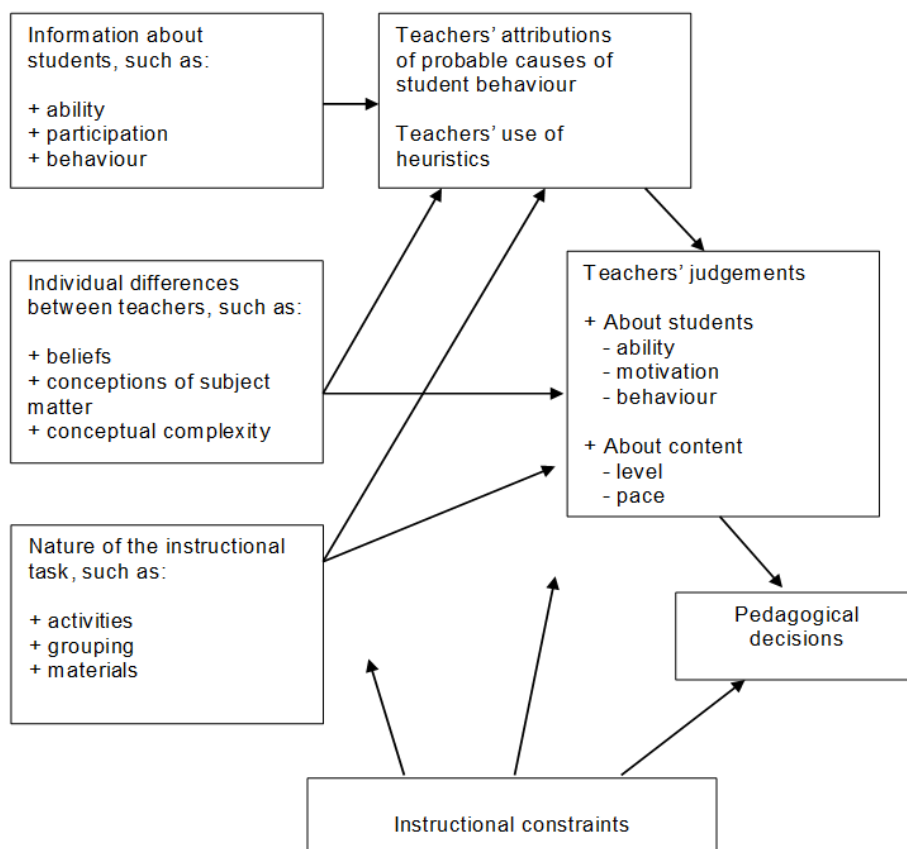


Figure 1: Factors contributing to teachers' pedagogical judgments and decisions (Shavelson & Stern, 1981, p.472)

As Figure 1 shows, teachers' pedagogical decisions involve many inter-related factors. Teachers' decision making is mainly influenced by teachers' judgements on students and content, and institutional constraints. Those judgements are informed by knowledge about learners, individual differences between teachers, the nature of the instructional tasks; and heuristics for the causes of events. According to the model, students play an important role in teachers' decision making. As can be noticed, information about students from both the psychological and behavioural aspects impacts on teachers' decisions regarding learning outcomes. Emphasising the influence of learners has been subjected to criticisms as doing so could lead to incomplete processes in teachers' decision making. In addition, the over-highlighting factors from learners may confuse later studies and lead them in an unsuitable direction. (Clark & Peterson, 1986).

2.5.2 Clark and Peterson's model of teacher thought and action

Clark and Peterson (1986) reviewed the literature on teachers' thought processes. The studies they reviewed investigated the thoughts of kindergarten, primary, elementary, and high school teachers of various subjects including Mathematics, Sciences, and Languages. They argued that previous research on teachers' thinking did not give a full understanding of the teaching process because it did not sufficiently consider factors found in real classroom settings. They stressed the importance of the *context* in which teaching occurs, especially the socio-psychological context.

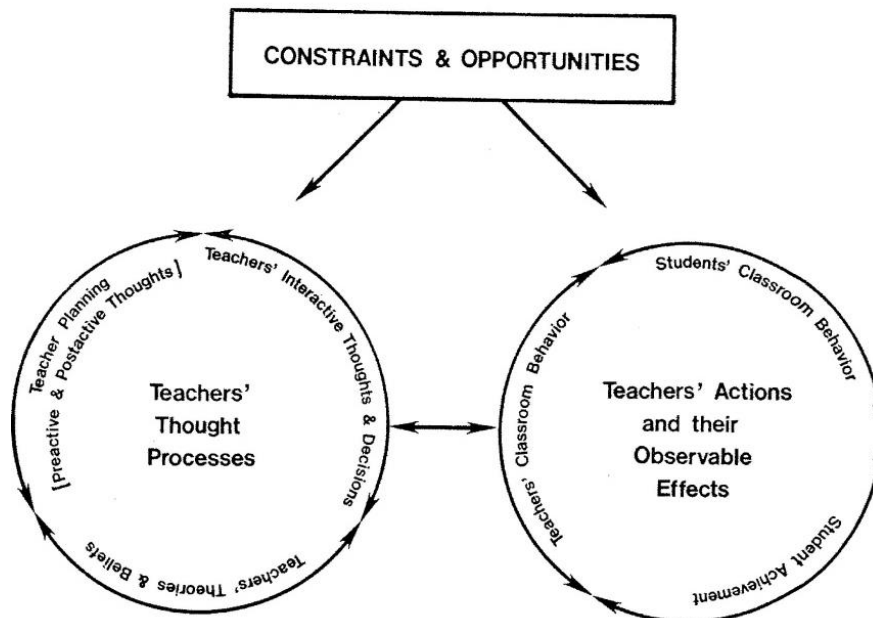


Figure 2: Model of teacher thought and action (Clark & Peterson, 1986, p. 257)

As Figure 2 shows, their model presents two domains deemed important for teaching processes—how teachers think, and how they act and the effects of these actions. The major distinction between the two domains is whether their components are observable. Teachers' thought processes comprise thoughts that occur before, during, and after practices, as well as teachers' theories and beliefs. All the components relating to teachers' thought processes cannot be observed. In contrast, teachers' and students' behaviour as well as student achievements, which are elements of teachers' actions, are observable. Unlike the other models, Clark and Peterson (1986) assumed that there are reciprocal relationships among teachers' behaviour, students' behaviour, and student achievements; that is to say, these three components affect one another. This, they noted, was the reason they chose to represent these relationships in a circular fashion. It is noticeable that this model goes beyond teachers' behaviour

by highlighting its effects on students' behaviour and achievements, which in turn could feedback as an influence on teachers' behaviour.

In the domain of teachers' thought processes, there are three main elements: teachers' planning, teachers' interactive thoughts and decisions, and teachers' theories and beliefs. Clark and Peterson (1986) argue that pre-thoughts and post-thoughts are in the same category of teachers' planning due to their effects on guiding teachers in classroom interaction. While thoughts before instruction serve for in-process classes, classroom reflections could help to plan for future classes. Both kinds of thoughts differ from interactive thoughts in that they are not influenced by in-process classroom interaction. This is claimed to be the causes of the distinction between the way teachers think during instruction and their planning. According to the model, teachers' planning and teachers' interactive thoughts and decisions may affect their theories and beliefs, and vice versa. In contrast to Shavelson and Stern's model, this model does not categorise teachers' judgments as separate components because the proposers claim that it could be inferred from the process of planning and decision-making.

This framework also includes constraints of physical setting and contextual factors such as the school, the principal, the community, and the curriculum. In addition, teachers may behave or think in a certain way due to a lack of opportunity to act as planned or intended. Clark and Peterson (1986) argue that constraints and opportunities are major variables of teachers' thoughts and actions and could be included in any models of the process of teaching.

Despite its detailed framework of teachers' thought processes, there are a number of limitations and certain reliability issues regarding Clark and Peterson's (1986) model. First, students' achievement in teachers' action processes are said to be observable. Although it might be possible that teachers could observe students' classroom performance, 'achievement' could be deemed close to evaluation, which generally involves an unobservable element, namely- beliefs. As Borg (2003) notes, teacher cognition is an 'unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe, and think' (p. 81). For this reason, the description of students' achievements should have been provided.

Moreover, in the domain of teachers' thought processes, only three main components (teachers' planning, teachers' interactive thoughts and decisions, and teachers' theories and beliefs) are presented. Other studies have shown that other factors could influence teachers' thinking processes such as teacher education which is generally reported as a source of teachers' thoughts and beliefs (Borg, 2011; Pettit, 2011; Fleming, Bangou, & Fellus, 2011). The limitation might be attributable to the fact that the model does not highlight the sources of information teachers used for their classroom decision making or to the fact that the model is not empirically-based. As Clark and Peterson (1986) noted, "These categories reflect the researchers' conceptualisation of the domain of teachers' thought processes more than an empirically derived categorisation of the domain" (p.10). This gap is filled by Borg's model (2006).

2.5.3 Borg's language teacher cognition model

Responding to a lack of a wide-ranging conceptual and theoretical paradigm in language teacher cognition, Borg (2006) proposed a framework presenting the complex system of language teacher cognition. Based on evidence of research relating to teacher cognition on grammar teaching in various institutional contexts (primary school, secondary school, and university), Borg shows the major causes and effects of language teacher cognition.

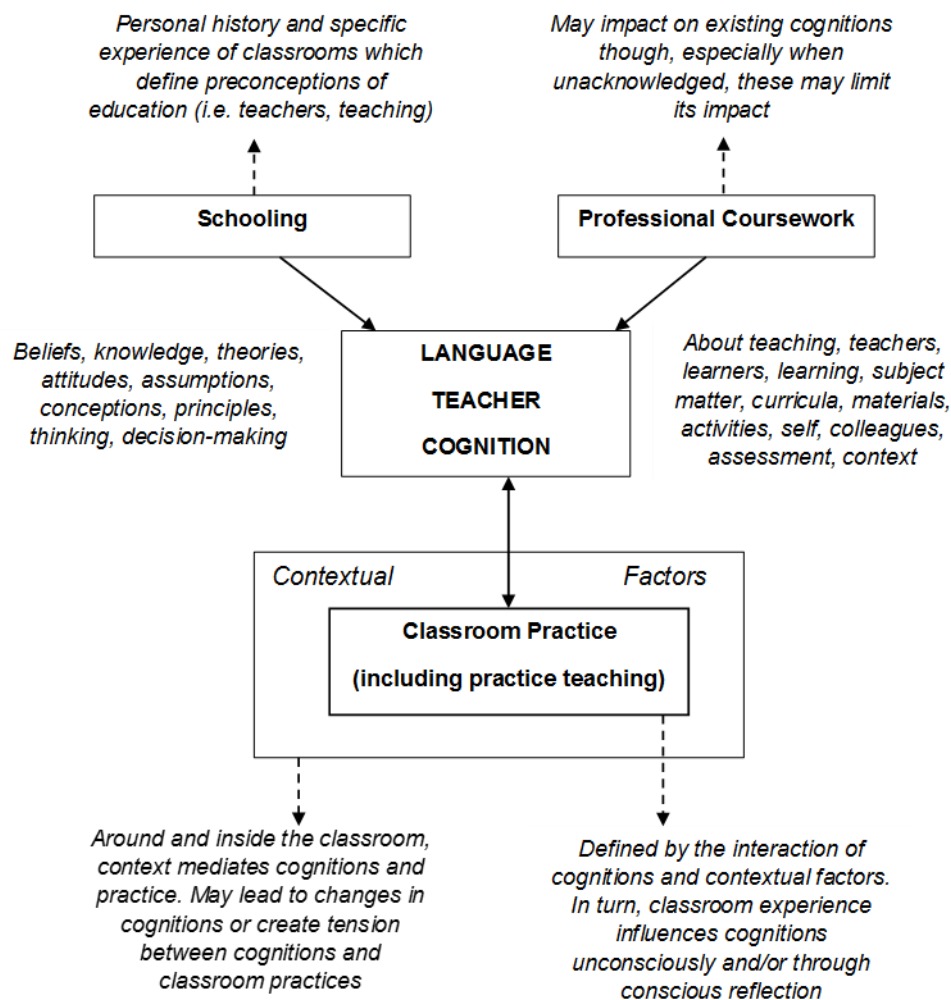


Figure 3: Elements and processes in language teacher cognition

(Borg, 2006, p. 333)

According to his model, teachers develop cognition through their own educational experiences and may be influenced by teacher education or training. It should be noted here that he used the term 'professional coursework' as an inclusive term for initial teacher education, training, and professional development courses. As for teachers' classroom practices, his model demonstrates reciprocal influences of the practices and teacher cognition. In addition, it can be noticed that classroom practices constitute the contextual factors which inform language teacher cognition. In the middle of the diagram, related areas of studies in language teacher cognition are demonstrated.

Borg's model is widely referred to in research on language teacher cognition. However, all three models reviewed have valid insights which can be integrated to build a fuller framework of teacher cognition.

2.5.4 Insights from the three models

Although no single model is fully appropriate for explaining teacher cognition, each offers useful insights into the field. Borg's (2006) model provides insights into teacher cognition and classroom practices but does not offer detail of teachers' thought processes; while Clark and Peterson's (1986) model does. On the other hand, Clark and Peterson's model fails to address other aspects such as the professional coursework (teacher education, training, and professional development courses) which appears in Borg's model, and knowledge about learners as well as nature of instructional tasks in Shavelson and Stern's (1981) model. Although Shavelson and Stern elaborated on factors appertaining to students, it should be noted that their model lacks consideration of teachers'

past experiences as learners. After considering the merits and the drawbacks of these models, Borg's model was chosen as a basis of the conceptual framework for this study as a result of the fact that it offers the most inclusive variables affecting teacher cognition and practices. In addition, Borg based his model on an extensive review of the literature in language education from recent decades (Borg, 2006). A further feature of Borg's model which made it suitable for this research, is that it is an area-specific framework which is so far the most suitable for research on language teaching and learning. Although Borg's framework is heavily utilised in this present study, the process of teachers' thinking in Clark and Peterson and also insights into learners in Shavelson and Stern are drawn on in the study's research methodology.

These three models were informed by the reviews of research in the kindergarten, elementary, primary, and high school context in subjects as varied as Mathematics, Sciences, and Languages. Although Borg's (2006) model is based on a review of studies regarding language teaching, it specifically focuses on the teaching of grammar. That the models were based on research conducted in schools and in various areas of teaching except the teaching of speaking is testament to the lack of teacher cognition model developed in the university context, particularly related to the teaching of speaking.

According to the three models, the major factors affecting teacher cognition are professional coursework (teacher education and training), learning experience, classroom practice (teaching experience), and contextual factors. Since one of the research questions is to investigate factors influencing teacher cognition, the next section discusses these factors in more detail.

2.6 Factors affecting teacher cognition

2.6.1 Professional coursework¹

A number of studies have investigated the influences of both pre-service and in-service teacher education or training on the beliefs of teachers. Those studies have yielded mixed results. Some have found that teacher education programmes could impact what teachers believe and how their beliefs change over time (Busch, 2010; Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Johnston, 1992; Ross & Smith, 1992; MacDonald, Badger, & White, 2001; Özmen, 2012). The reasons behind changes in teachers' beliefs are various. Teachers may change their beliefs when exposed to teacher education because of theoretical sessions, peer interaction, and teaching practicum (Özmen, 2012), teaching materials and content, experience with ESL students, and class discussions (Busch, 2010). Several other studies have revealed no significant changes after teacher education programmes (Capan, 2014; Horwitz, 1985; Kern, 1995; Peacock, 2001; Phipps, 2007).

The reason for these conflicting findings might be the complex relationship between teacher education and teachers' beliefs. As Richardson (1996) pointed out, "Some programs effect change and others do not; some programs affect certain types of students and not others" (as cited in Borg, 2006, p.35). Another possible cause of different findings may be that the character of the programmes was not taken into account by researchers when analysing the data (Mattheoudakis, 2007). Borg (2011) also suggested a likely cause for the

¹ 'professional coursework' in this thesis is used according to Borg's (2006) model as an inclusive term to refer to teacher education, teacher training, and professional development courses.

discrepancy in his findings on the impact of teacher education. Elaborating on his research findings, he claimed that if the impact of programmes needs to refer to a dramatic alteration in beliefs, then it might be implied from the findings that teacher education does not have significant impact on teachers' beliefs. However, if the impact can signify developmental processes in beliefs then the findings could demonstrate that teacher education programmes have a considerable impact on teachers' beliefs.

It could be inferred from the above studies that teacher education can affect teachers' beliefs to some extent although its power to '*change*' their beliefs is arguable. However, as the aim of this study is not to explore the processes underpinning if/how beliefs change, teacher education is included as one of the factors that might influence teacher cognition and practice.

In contrast to the controversial results regarding the influences of teacher education, to the present time, no question has been raised about the impact of prior learning and teaching experiences. These factors are considered below.

2.6.2 Learning experiences

In addition to teacher education, one of the key factors found to have an influence on teachers' thoughts is their prior learning experience (Fleming, Bangou, & Fellus, 2012; Golombek, 1998; Numrich, 1996, Peacock, 2001). The importance of teachers' prior learning experiences (i.e. as students) was first recognised by Lortie (1975) who developed the notion of 'apprenticeship of

observation' to explore how teachers spend thousands of hours as students before their teacher training experiences. During this period, they observe and evaluate teaching. These experiences form their beliefs and perceptions *before* they engage in specific teacher training programmes and can prevent cognitive changes during subsequent teacher education programmes. Later, this idea was investigated and confirmed by a number of researchers (Baleghizadeh & Nasrollahi Shahri, 2012; Horwitz, 1985; John, 1996; Kern, 1995; Roberts, 1992; Richards, 1998; Tillema, 1994). This experiential knowledge could derive from various forms of language learning (formal, informal) at different stages (childhood, adult) in various occasions (elective, circumstantial bilingualism) (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006) and could affect teachers in two ways: by providing a positive or negative role model; and leading to an adaptation of approaches and styles of teaching (John, 1996). Evidence from the most prominent studies is given below.

John (1996) investigated the in-depth life histories of 42 student teachers in the UK in a series of interviews during the initial weeks of their course and found that the student teachers' experiences of teaching and learning were hugely influential for their conceptions of teaching. The students perceived 'good teachers' from personal characteristics such as enthusiasm, likeability, and good subject knowledge. These perceptions were found to derive from the characteristics of the teachers they liked and considered 'good teachers' when they were pupils. In addition to their past teachers' characteristics, positive or negative experiences of teaching strategies were also reported to have an effect on teachers' beliefs. For example, Golombek (1998) investigated two novice ESL teachers' personal practical knowledge in the United States through

interviews and observations. One of the teachers was reported to avoid overcorrection due to her negative experiences of being corrected by her teacher as a child. In Numrich (1996), the diaries of 26 ESL teachers in the United States who had fewer than six-month' teaching experience was analysed. It was reported that the students mostly adopted the teaching techniques their own teachers had used because they thought those techniques had been useful for them as learners. One student wrote that she wanted to use the integration of culture into her ESL classroom because her Spanish language teacher used it and she thought it was a factor that helped her to learn Spanish.

According to these studies, prior learning experiences play an important role in shaping teachers' cognition, grounding certain beliefs teachers adhere to throughout their teaching careers. Another aspect of experience that shapes teachers' cognition is what is learned as *a teacher*. This is discussed in the next section.

2.6.3 Teaching experiences

Research evidence suggests that teachers' experience of what works best in their classrooms is a primary source of teachers' beliefs (Crookes & Arakaki, 1999; Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Kindsvatter et al., 1988 cited in Richards & Lockhart 1994; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999). Crookes and Arakaki (1999) interviewed 19 ESL teachers in an intensive English programme in the western United States about the sources of their teaching ideas. The study reported that the most cited source from the six most frequently cited sources was their accumulated teaching experience. Pre-service training and in-house workshop were ranked the least cited sources. Similarly, in a study by Sato and

Kleinsasser (1999) on the beliefs and practices of Japanese second language in-service teachers about communicative language teaching (CLT) by using interviews, observations, and surveys, it was found that the teachers' teaching experiences exerted a significant effect on their beliefs and practices even though they claimed that they had gained knowledge about CLT from teacher development programmes. The researchers reported that it was because personal language learning and teaching experiences "filter through as the primary variables that nurtured their beliefs, knowledge, and practices" (p. 551).

Research on cognition of more and less experienced language teachers reported that teachers with fewer teaching experiences tend to engage more in classroom management (Johnson,1992; Numrich, 1996) and in the stage of teaching where their theories and hypothesis are tested (Numrich, 1996; Tsui, 2003). Numrich (1996) conducted diary studies of novice ESL teachers with less than 6-month teaching experience in the United States and found that the teachers reported unexpected discoveries about error correction during speaking tasks toward the end of their first teaching experience. From their teaching experience, they discovered that the students wanted corrective feedback more than they had previously thought. Prior to this experience, the teachers had withheld corrective feedback and were hesitant about correcting students' spoken errors due to the possibility that it would have an adverse effect on their affective states. This feeling of being unsure about what to do in the classroom was referred to by Floden and Clark (1988) as one of the 'uncertainties in teaching' (p.2). They argue that it is common among teachers to face uncertainties of what content to cover and what to do in the classroom; however, less experienced teachers might struggle more to overcome these

challenges because more experienced teachers tend to have routines or 'habitualized patterns of thought and action' (p.12) which they can draw on in order to reduce uncertainties. In line with this, Ismail (2017) investigated newly qualified ESL Malaysian teachers' cognition using Skype interviews, classroom observations, stimulated recall interviews and journal entries, and reported that of the three main elements of their belief construction, namely prior language learning experience, prior training experience, and teaching experience, teaching experience was the major element and determined the effects of the other two factors.

This section has demonstrated the possible influences of teaching experiences on teacher cognition. However, as teaching occurs in a particular context, contextual factors have also found to be influential for teacher cognition. The next two sections will discuss contextual factors, starting with background knowledge about context in ELT.

2.6.4 Context in ELT

2.6.4.1 What is context?

The context of language learning can be regarded in relation to where the learning happens, how it happens, and why it happens (Spiro, 2013, p. 44). Regarding to where learning happens, Collentine and Freed (2004) suggested that the contexts of learning available for college students are formal language classrooms, immersion classrooms, and study abroad programmes. They also argue that the majority of previous research on language learning has been conducted in these three settings. A classroom location according to this

concept is not only related to a physical location, but also the surrounding culture. This concept accords with Spiro (2013)'s argument that a classroom context includes political, geographical, economic, cultural, and social perspectives that surround it.

With regards to how learning happens, Holliday (1994) suggested two educational domains based on the culture of learning—private ELT sectors from Britain, Australasia and North American (BANA) and the tertiary, secondary, primary education (TESEP). He observed that language classes are typically delivered by native speaker teachers in BANA, which is similar to the Kachru's Inner Circle; and by non-native speakers in TESEP outside Kachru's Inner Circle. However, he later argued that his own notions about BANA and TESEP are problematic because they do not represent a holistic picture of learning context and that BANA, which seems to be the Western power representative, can be perceived as superior to TESEP. He emphasised his argument, saying “there needs to be a more cosmopolitan model in which learning and teaching methodology is appropriate to the lived experience of all language learners and teachers regardless of whether they come from so-called BANA or TESEP backgrounds” (Holliday, 2016, p. 265). According to this, he proposed that contextual factors are not simply national cultures and values, they include factors of institutions, teachers, and students. This idea resonates with the third aspect of learning context—why learning happens.

As previously discussed, learning takes place in different educational settings and is delivered by different types of teachers. Similar to the variety of settings and teachers, different types of learners need to be considered as a

response to the reason for learning—to serve learners' needs. Spiro (2013) referred to Hutchinson and Waters (1987)'s three categories of learner needs: necessities, lacks, and wants. It was noted that learners' wants can be different from their necessities and lacks. For example, in Deterding's (2011) overview of the implementation of LFC proposals in China, it is suggested that although the absence of final /z/ such as in 'was' and 'because' commonly found in the spoken language of Chinese speakers of English can affect the intelligibility, learners might oppose to the idea of LFC due to an entrenched belief in native-speaker norms in China. This argument is in accordance with the research findings of native English-flavoured position in other contexts such as Japan (McKenzie,2008), Poland (Scheuer, 2008), and Thailand (Saengboon, 2015).

As previously discussed, the context of language learning concerns not only classroom environments e.g. teachers, students, classroom locations, but also what happens outside the classroom, which includes cultural and social contexts. It is recognised that these contexts are important for decisions on teaching methodology. The importance of contexts and a shift into a context-based pedagogy will be discussed in the following sections.

2.6.4.2 Contexts and language pedagogy

To determine teaching methodology, it is necessary to take learning and teaching contexts into account. Especially when implementing a methodology, the contexts play a crucial role in its effectiveness. The context as a key factor in making decisions on what and how to teach is highlighted in Kumaravadivelu (2001)'s postmethod pedagogy and Bax's (2003) Context Approach. Referring

to a number of previous studies such as the studies of Shamim (1996) in the Pakistani context and of Tickoo (1996) in the Indian context, which reported that failures of introducing CLT into the classroom were caused by a lack of careful consideration of the context in which the instruction occurred, Kumaravadivelu (2001) argues that there is no absolute good methodology because it needs to be adjustable according to the context. Therefore, a popular CLT approach inherited from the West can be effective in a context, but not always in another context.

In agreement with Kumaravadivelu (2001), Bax (2003) argues, based on his observations of teachers' perceptions about CLT in Taiwan, Czech Republic, and the Netherlands, that the dominant of CLT should be reconsidered because it assumes that CLT is appropriate for every context and neglects the contextual variables which are the key to successful language learning. In accordance with Holliday's (2016) concept of contextual factors, which is discussed above, Bax stresses that contexts include factors of the particular students in the particular classroom (p. 284). For this reason, he argues that a context-sensitive methodology should replace any methodology that ignores the holistic picture of the context.

Further to this, previous studies point out that obstacles of practicing CLT in the classroom are related to various contextual factors such as teachers (Manzano, 2015; Shenita, 2018; Vongxay, 2013; Walia, 2012), large class size (Mason & Payant, 2019), and students (Nam, 2005; Shenita, 2018) in the context of the Philippines (Manzano, 2015), Thailand (Shenita, 2018), Laos

(Vongxay, 2013), Korea (Nam, 2005), India (Walia, 2012), and Ukraine (Mason & Payant, 2019). For example, in Thailand, Shenita (2018) investigated 166 Thai EFL preservice university teachers' beliefs relating to CLT using questionnaires as well as the practice of three teachers through classroom observations in three practicum schools. She reported that the teachers' practices did not gear towards CLT because they held a deep-rooted belief in a traditional approach focusing on accuracy. Also, they believed that the traditional approach was more beneficial for students' motivation. The importance of considering a particular context is highlighted in a study by Mason and Payant (2019). The study was conducted with three in-service EFL teachers in rural Ukraine where, as reported by the teachers, there were problems with large class size, compared to institutions in central Ukraine. They claimed that this problem hindered them in their attempts to fully adopt CLT in their classroom.

In line with the theorists, the fact that most of the studies on the implementation of CLT including the above studies suggest the localisation of the ELT reform to increase a tendency of successful adoption of educational policies highlight the importance of taking contextual factors into account when making decisions on language pedagogy. The importance of contexts is also highlighted in previous empirical studies on effectiveness of corrective feedback, which will be discussed in Section 2.8.4.

As can be seen, teachers are one of the key contextual factors of successful language learning. It is also essential that teachers are aware of contextual factors they tend to face when making pedagogical decisions. As Bax (2003) says about how teacher education can support teachers according to a

Context Approach: “Any training course should therefore make it a priority to teach not only methodology but also a heightened awareness of contextual factors, and an ability to deal with them” (p. 283). The next section, then, will discuss the influences of contextual factors on teacher cognition, particularly the four contextual factors which might be differently referred to by researchers. The aim is to identify the concepts regarding these factors as used in this study.

2.6.5 Contextual factors and teacher cognition

Since the dynamics of teaching arise from an interaction between participants and in a broader context in which instruction occurs (Tudor, 2003), investigating teachers’ cognition based on their practices generally differs from when merely *inferring* from stated cognition (Feryok, 2010). Context, which is described as “The social, institutional, instructional and physical setting in which teachers work have a major impact on their cognitions and practices” (Borg, 2006, p. 324), then, is seen as a significant influence of teacher cognition.

The evidence from studies and reviews shows that contextual factors restrict the effects of teachers’ beliefs on their practices. Teachers’ beliefs sometimes fail to be transferred into their practices due to factors such as students’ confidence levels and the flow of the lesson (Farrell & Kun, 2008), students’ inability to fulfil planned activities, student misbehaviour, student non-comprehension, parents, principals’ requirements, curriculum mandates, classroom and school layout, school policies, school staff, the availability of resources, and the wider society (Borg 2003; 2006), students’ expectations and time constraints (Phipps & Borg, 2009), a lack of resources (Kissau, Algozzine,

& Yon, 2013; Maikland, 2001), large class sizes and a lack of student motivation (Kim, 2014; Nishino, 2012), coverage of the prescribed curriculum and ability to maintain classroom order (Sinprajakpol, 2004), the role of exams (Maikland, 2001), and students' English proficiency (Nishino, 2012). For example, in Farrell and Kun's (2008) study (referred to above), all the teachers in the study believed that the teacher should correct errors; however, in practice they rarely corrected students' errors in the classroom. The study reported that time constraints, learners' expectations, and the school's curriculum obstructed teachers from teaching in a way that they believed consistent with 'good teaching'. Similarly, Phipps and Borg (2009) examined the beliefs about grammar teaching held by three in-service teachers of English and found that the teachers opted for explicit grammar teaching because they believed learners expected grammar to be taught in such a manner. Moreover, time constraints and curriculum requirements forced them to adopt traditional grammar teaching instead of using more interactive methods.

In some Asian countries, shared teaching cultures are prevalent such as teacher-centred teaching and examination-oriented methods which could influence instructional decisions. In Hong Kong and Thailand, where the teacher-centred approach is deeply rooted, teachers tend to believe in teacher-fronted teaching (Mak, 2011) and teachers' strong control of the learning process (Dueraman, 2013; Pennington & Urstmon, 1998). Examination systems also play a pivotal role in teachers' beliefs and practices in Japan, where Nishino found that lessons geared to university entrance examinations were uppermost in teachers' goals (Nishino, 2012). Also, in Thailand, this determination to secure pass grades for important entrance examinations had a significant

impact on teachers' teaching styles (Wiriyachitra, 2002). In the Asia-Pacific region, curricula and examination systems were reported to be a key obstacle to successful and wholesale implementation of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and task-based language teaching (TBLT), which are widely believed to enhance learners' communicative competence (Butler, 2011). This phenomenon has been referred to as 'washback'—the effect of tests on teaching and learning (Green, 2007; Wall, 2012).

Although these contextual factors have been noted as important influencing factors on teachers' beliefs and cited as causes of discrepancies between beliefs and practices, the research methodology can contribute to consistency or inconsistency between beliefs and practices. In a study by Sahin, Bullock, and Stables (2002) investigating the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practices through interviews and observations at four schools in the West of England, they claimed that the consistency between teachers' beliefs and practices found in their study was a result of the methodology used in the study. Unlike other studies, the authors of this study claimed that the participants' beliefs could be more explicitly revealed because they analysed the data according to the grounded theory which aims to build rather than test theory. As a result of the grounded theory, the authors claimed that significant factors that influenced the participants' questioning were more explicitly revealed although the participants were unaware of them. Therefore, no discrepancy between beliefs and practices was reported.

Overall, teachers' cognition and practices seem to be affected by various contextual factors relating to the students (such as motivation and proficiency), schools, curriculum, parents, exams and their influences ('washback'), and cultures. However, these contextual factors might lead to either consistency or inconsistency depending on the research methodology.

Among the contextual factors, it is pertinent to note the terms 'curriculum', 'student motivation', and 'student proficiency' because they may be interpreted differently according to the field. 'Washback', widely referred to in language assessment, can be understood in a similar way. As this term is related to the curriculum (being part of the curriculum design process), it is covered directly after the following discussion of curriculum.

2.6.5.1 Curriculum

In a broad sense, term curriculum encompasses objectives or goals, teaching content, teaching methods, and evaluation (Tyler, 1950; White, 1988; Nation & Macalister, 2010). However, in the British educational context, teaching content may be referred to as a 'syllabus', which is used interchangeably with 'curriculum' in US educational circles (White, 1988; Stern, 1983). It can be noticed that in both the broad and narrow senses, the meaning of the term curriculum generally involves the content. However, it has also been used to refer to various types of content depending on the context (Taylor & Richards, 1985). For example, a nursery school might not offer certain clearly defined subjects, so instead the students receive educational experiences through activities such as drawing. The various meanings of content might include

content of education, a course of study, educational experiences, subjects to be studied, subject matters, and educational activities (Taylor & Richards, 1985).

In brief, the broad definition of curriculum refers to the overall design of courses, including not only content but also planning, methodology, and evaluation. Among these components, the term evaluation needs a little more discussion given the fact that it is occasionally confused with assessment. Evaluation is generally understood to mean appraisal of both student performance and curriculum effectiveness. However, it is sometimes restricted to appraisal concerning curriculum effectiveness and aspects relating to student performance come under 'assessment', such as in the work of Skilbeck (1984) and Nation and Macalister (2010).

In the Thai educational context, the term curriculum is used in a broad sense to refer to the holistic design of the education system which includes the planning, methodology, teaching content, and evaluation of different core subjects (Ministry of Education, 2008). More narrowly, curriculum is used to refer to the design of a particular course or subject, as in the studies of Chandavimol (1987) and Art-in (2014). This present study uses the term in the broad sense which includes the meaning of syllabus as part of curriculum. As for the terms 'evaluation' and 'assessment', the latter term is used when referring to judgements about student performance to clearly differentiate between appraisal of student performance and curriculum effectiveness.

As noted, washback has been found to be an influence on teachers' beliefs and practices and this term is explored in the next section.

2.6.5.2 Washback

Generally, washback (also known as 'backwash') refers to how tests may impact teaching and learning (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Hughes, 1989; Green, 2013). Numerous studies have found that teachers adapt their teaching methods and content according to a test that their students are going to take at some point in the future (Cheng, 1997; Erfani, 2012; Kilickaya, 2016). The primary reason for washback is that satisfactory test results are used to assess teachers' 'success' in teaching (Buck, 1988). Related to that is the fact that low scores may engender feelings of shame, guilt, and embarrassment on behalf of teachers (Smith, 1991). Studies have also reported washback's effects on learners, such as their learning anxiety (Watanabe, 2001; Chu, 2009), motivation (Pan, 2014), and performance (Virikiru, 2011). It can thus be concluded that washback affects not only teachers but also learners, thereby having a dual impact on learning. As Alderson and Wall (1993) noted regarding the Washback Hypothesis, "Teachers and learners do things they would not necessarily otherwise do because of the test" (p.117).

Washback can have both positive and negative impacts. If the test yields beneficial effects on students' learning, washback is deemed to be positive. For instance, Muñoz and Álvarez (2010) reported the results of their study on the washback effect of an oral assessment system on EFL teaching and learning, noting that the teachers perceived the assessment system to be helping to improve students' oral production and lesson planning. However, it is noteworthy that the positive feedback found in this study was conditional upon the teachers having a clear understanding of the assessment and regularly transferring this understanding to the students throughout the course. Moreover, they argued

that the assessment employed by the experimental group was more systematic than the one used by the control group, demonstrating how testing may or may not positively affect teaching and learning according to the specific test features and how the test is implemented.

When referring specifically to the adverse effect of testing on student learning, the term 'negative washback' is used (Bailey, 1996; Green, 2007). Features of negative washback include "teaching to the test", a "narrowing of the curriculum" as time limits put teachers under pressure to 'cram' for upcoming tests (Smith, 1991, p.9-10; Cunningham & Sanzo, 2002; Cheng, 1997), teacher-centred instructional approaches which neglect the development of students' English communicative skills (Sevimli, 2007 as cited in Hatipoglu, 2016) and productive skills (Watson Todd, 2008; see also Au, 2008).

Regarding a focus on achieving high exam scores to the detriment of other skills, Choi's (2008) study of the impact of EFL testing in Korea is worth noting. According to her study, testing has a negative impact on English language teaching in Korea from elementary education through secondary education to higher education. EFL teachers in Korea primarily aim to prepare their students for EFL exams structured around multiple-choice questions. As a result of the exam format, the teachers overly focus on receptive language skills and fail to help the students develop their productive language skills. Similarly, Cheng (1997) discovered that Hong Kong secondary school teachers of English adopted a 'cramming' teaching style in order to avoid the shame and sense of failure if they feel they did not prepare students well enough for the exam. It is

thus quite clear that testing can influence teachers' decision-making in the classroom in terms of teaching methods and content, and that a cause of these effects is related to teachers' beliefs, feelings, and attitudes as shaped by examinations (e.g. Burrows, 2004; Birjandi & Shirkhani, 2012).

In the Thai context, a small number of studies have investigated the effects of testing. Among those few studies, however, both negative and positive washback has been reported. Prapphal (2008) presented an overview of language testing in Thailand and reported that the multiple-choice format of a university entrance exam had contributed to the content of teaching being geared towards multi-choice questions during the last semester in the upper secondary level. She added that the entrance exam also influences Thai learners to do extracurricular learning in 'cram schools' which coach children specifically for certain exams. According to Prapphal, (2008), washback has a negative influence on teaching and learning. In contrast, a study by Sundrarajun and Kiely (2010) revealed that a speaking assessment used in a Business English programme at one Thai university fostered the development of the students' speaking skills.

It seems evident that testing influences teachers' beliefs and practices as well as students' learning. However, the effects of washback might be considered positive or negative depending on the test itself, the context, the teachers, and the learners. Another contextual factor found to have a significant relationship with teacher cognition is student motivation.

2.6.5.3 Student motivation

Motivation can be broadly defined as “a psychological construct that refers to the desire and incentive that an individual has to engage in a specific activity” (Loewen & Reinders, 2011, p.119). Defined more specifically in the field of language learning, motivation involves three factors: the decision to do something, the duration of continuing it, and the effort to do it (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). A motivated learner shows behaviours, feelings, or beliefs that demonstrate effort, persistence, and attention to the activity (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003).

As Dörnyei (2003) points out, there is a wide consensus from previous studies such as MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, and Donovan (2002), Spratt, Humphreys, and Chan (2002), Ushioda (2001), and Williams, Burden, and Al-Baharna (2001) that students’ motivation plays a key role in their language learning. This consensus is supported by a large body of research on factors affecting student motivation such as teachers’ behaviour (Astuti, 2016; Rahimi & Karkami, 2015), teachers’ motivational strategies (Maeng & Lee, 2015; Moskovsky et. al., 2013), the social requirements of learning a language (Prasangani, 2015), students’ attitudes to the language (Papi, 2010), students’ cultural backgrounds (Matsumoto, 2012), and the institute’s curriculum (Aydin, 2012). Among those factors, those relating to teachers were found to be more significant (e.g. Akay, 2017; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012; Tran & Baldauf, 2007; Vefali, 2015).

As with washback (see above), teachers' influences on student motivation can be both positive and negative. When teachers have a detrimental effect on student motivation, the related term 'demotivation'-loss of interest or commitment due to external factors (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) - is typically referred to in the research. Demotivation is 'a common phenomenon' in foreign language classrooms whereby learners tend not to value foreign language learning (Ellis, 2009). Teachers' teaching methods and their motivational strategies have been reported as having a significant impact on student demotivation (Akay, 2017; Kikuchi & Sakai, 2009; Tsang, 2012; Vefali, 2015). Kikuchi and Sakai (2009) conducted a survey study on students' demotivation to study English with 112 Japanese high school students and found teachers' teaching styles to be one of five important external forces that reduced the motivation of Japanese university students. More specifically, in a multiple qualitative case study through semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, and stimulated recalls by Astuti (2016) examining how four teachers in an Indonesian high school context implemented motivational teaching strategies, it was reported that the teachers' feedback strategies were a main strategy for teachers motivating students. As Dörnyei (2001) stated, teachers can use their feedback to encourage learners to positively evaluate learning, which in turn motivates them to learn.

According to these studies and others, it can be concluded that the teacher is a key influencer on student motivation in language learning. Given that teachers play a key role in motivating students, it would be unsurprising that student motivation is not only the result of teachers' classroom practices, but also the influence of their teaching behaviour.

Teachers have personal beliefs about student motivation and which strategies can be adopted to motivate students (Hornstra et al., 2015). Research evidence suggests that teachers' beliefs about student motivation can lead to the aim of maintaining or raising student motivation, and this has a great impact on teachers' practices. For example, Rabbidge and Chappell (2014) studied the implementation of the Korean government's educational policy on using English in the elementary English classroom through a series of observations and interviews. They found that the teachers' beliefs about the importance of student motivation were the major cause of not following the policy. The teachers revealed that they could not refrain from speaking Korean in the classroom because they wanted to maintain student motivation. According to a study of Hornstra et al. (2015) exploring the relationships of six primary school teachers' beliefs and their motivational strategies across the Netherlands through interviews and questionnaires, the teachers tend to customise motivational strategies according to their beliefs or perceptions about student motivation and ability. In addition, one study showed that teachers across different contexts (the UK, the USA, and Russia) held common the belief that teachers' encouragement is important for student motivation (Hufton, Elliott, & Illushin, 2003).

Overall, the research demonstrates a reciprocal relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices and student motivation. In other words, teacher cognition exerts a powerful effect on student motivation and vice versa. As noted, student motivation is strongly linked to student ability; it has been claimed that students with low levels of proficiency are less motivated than students of high proficiency (Falout, Elwood, & Hood, 2009). In addition, student proficiency is one of the factors which in turn influence teachers' practices (Nishino, 2012).

Having clarified what is meant by 'curriculum', 'washback', and 'student motivation', the discussion now turns to student proficiency.

2.6.5.4 Student proficiency

It is necessary here to clarify what is meant by 'proficiency'. Language proficiency can broadly be defined as "the learner's overall knowledge of the target language" (Carrasquillo, 1994, p. 65). The concept of language proficiency was expanded to communicative competence as a result of Hyme's (1971) studies in sociolinguistics (Bachman & Clark, 1987).

Proponents of Hyme's ideas have proposed similar definitions, broadening the concept of proficiency and communicative competence to ability and skills. For example, Omaggio (1986) defined oral proficiency as the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in various contexts. In a more systematic definition, Canale and Swain (1980) linked communicative competence with the knowledge and abilities needed for communication. In their model of communicative competence, those knowledge and skills consist of grammatical, sociolinguistic and strategic competence. Canale (1983) subsequently elaborated on the model to include an additional component—discourse competence. Grammatical competence is referred to as the knowledge of language (such as grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation). Sociolinguistic competence concerns the mastery of using language appropriately such as by considering politeness and register. Strategic competence is knowledge of communication strategies to achieve successful

communication. Discourse competence involves the ability to combine form and the meaning to make cohesive texts.

Influenced by Canale and Swain's (1980) work, Bachman's (1990) model for communicative language ability consists of three components: language competence, strategic competence, and the psychophysiological skills needed for language use. Bachman's model shares most of the components proposed by Canale and Swain, but, as noted, his model takes into account psychophysiological mechanisms. Even though Bachman's model considers language competence, it presents language competence as composing of grammatical competence and textual competence, which can be comparable to discourse competence in Canale's (1983) model. Strategic competence in this model highlights the ability to interpret the information in the discourse. As for psychophysiological skills, they are the mastery of selecting appropriate skills for a particular mode of communication such as adopting articulatory skills in the productive mode (i.e. speaking and writing).

According to these definitions, the term proficiency can be at the same level of competence or more akin to an umbrella term of competence. In both cases, language proficiency and competence share the same sense of the knowledge, ability, or skills necessary for effective communication, which includes the consideration of the discourse and the context. The core components of competence involve linguistic features, discourse, and communication strategies. It could be said that proficient language learners are those who use the language to communicate accurately, appropriately, and

strategically. For these reasons, in this study student proficiency is used as a broad term to refer to students' knowledge, ability and skills for effective communication.

In language teaching, studies have demonstrated that student proficiency informs teachers' decision-making in the classroom (Naruemon, 2013; Nishino, 2012; Richards & Pennington, 1998). Nishino (2012) explored the relationship between Japanese high school teachers' beliefs, their practices, and socioeducational factors regarding communicative language teaching (CLT). The study revealed that student proficiency influenced the teachers' use of communicative activities in that they adopted less difficult activities with the students of a lower proficiency. Similarly, in the Thai secondary school context, Naruemon (2013) found that Thai pre-service teachers refrained from using group work and activities due to what they perceived as a low level of students' proficiency.

Section 2.6 has demonstrated the factors found to affect teacher cognition. It also discussed the major terms in relation to those factors and noted that they are referred to in different ways by different researchers and according to different fields of study, before identifying the concepts of the related terms relating to the contextual factors as they are used in this study. In order to provide some background about error correction and corrective feedback, which are also central concerns of this research, the next section will discuss these issues in detail. It begins by looking at the definitions and classifications of errors and the research results on teacher cognition about error types.

2.7 Errors in spoken language

This section explores the identification and definitions of errors and the closely related term 'mistakes'. This is followed by a categorisation of errors from the aspect of their effects on communication, their sources, and associated linguistic components. Then a discussion of what types of errors to correct and teacher cognition on this issue as it has been explored in previous studies is followed.

2.7.1 Defining errors

Since error correction by teachers is central to this study, it is crucial to examine what an error is. Complicated and inconclusive, the term error has been defined purposively for different uses (Nassaji, 2015). It has been referred to as a deviant form from different perspectives such as native speakers' perspective and learners' perspective. However, some aspects of the proposed definitions could pose a problem in real classroom scenarios. In this section, the advantages and drawbacks of each definition will be discussed before the definition adopted for this present study is presented.

The term 'error' is generally defined in comparison with 'mistake'. For example, Corder (1967) differentiated between errors and mistakes and pointed out that the former results from a lack of language knowledge (errors of 'competence'); while the latter is caused by slips of the tongue, tiredness, or other external conditions (errors of 'performance'). The notions of competence and performance were based on Chomsky's (1965) concept of linguistic competence and performance. According to Chomsky, competence is knowledge of language and performance is the use of that language in concrete

situations. Similar to Chomsky (1965) and Corder (1967), Norrish (1983) differentiated errors from mistakes along the lines of competence and performance. However, he also highlighted the consistency of errors, arguing that an error is “a systematic deviation that happens when a learner has not learnt something and consistently ‘get(s) it wrong’” (p.7). In contrast, a mistake is an inconsistent deviation that a learner sometimes makes although the learner knows what is right (Norrish, 1983).

Although the notion of determining what constitutes an error according to its consistency can be useful and practical, the definitions discussed above seem ambiguous as they do not provide a clear concept of ‘deviation’. Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) viewed deviation as integral to defining errors in the sense that deviation is “the flawed side of learner speech or writing that deviates from some selected norm of mature language performance” (p. 139). Here, it can be assumed that deviation is based on some norm. Naturally, this raises the question of ‘which norm?’ Subsequently, clear-cut answers on this question were given in the work of Brown (1994) and Richards and Schmidt (2010). Both pointed out that deviation is something which is considered from native norms. According to Brown (1994), an error as “a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflects the competence of the learner” (p. 126).

Similarly, Richards and Schmidt (2010) defined an error as “the use of a linguistic item (e.g. a word, a grammatical item, a speech act, etc.) in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning” (p. 201-202). Despite these unambiguous definitions, identifying an error according to the language used by a native speaker is

problematic because it negates the varieties and diversity of natively spoken languages (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). Given that there are different varieties of a language such as British English and American English and also a diverse array of dialects within those broad varieties, an error in one context may not be considered erroneous in another context. Moreover, Edge (cited in Harmer, 2007) pointed out that a teacher should not consider native speakers of English as ideal examples of English language users since English is an international language which users acquire as a skill for international communication, something which English native speakers may in fact lack.

Possibly to deal with the shortcomings of identifying errors as deviations from the native speaker norm, Edge (1989) used the term 'mistakes' to cover all linguistic deviations. Instead of distinguishing errors from mistakes, he claims there are three broad categories of mistakes. They are slips (mistakes that learners can correct themselves when they are pointed out); errors (mistakes that learners cannot self-correct even if they are pointed out and the form they wanted to produce is recognised); and attempts (mistakes which show that learners are completely unaware of how to convey the message but at least attempt to communicate). From this, it can be seen that Edge uses a learner's ability to correct her mistakes to classify different types of mistakes, not whether they are deviant from a norm. Nonetheless, since in the actual classroom context the teacher is the most common source of feedback (Park, 2010), it would be more practical to take the teacher's judgement into account when identifying a learner's error.

To reflect classroom reality, Chaudron (1986) added a criterion based on the teacher's point of view. Apart from distinguishing errors according to native speakers' norms, he claimed that an error is "any additional linguistic or other behaviour that the teachers reacted to negatively or with an indication that improvement of the response was expected" (p. 67). This definition offers a broad meaning which does not limit errors to be judged according to native speakers' language nor exclude meaning-focused errors such as the use of an utterance in an inappropriate context.

It seems that errors are defined according to their cause, the native speaker's norm, and the learners' ability to correct it. In the present study, errors are identified following Chaudron (1986) because the focus of the research is to investigate errors from the teachers' point of view. However, other aspects of error identification are mentioned when they emerged from the data.

To answer the question as to what types of errors the teachers believe should be correct and what they correct in the classroom, one more relevant notion that should be investigated relates to error types. The next section will consider different classifications of error type in the literature.

2.7.2 Error types

Similar to the concept of errors, error type is also a complex issue. Different types of errors are referred to in the studies on what errors should be corrected in the language classroom. Researchers in applied linguistics categorise errors

according to effects of errors on communication, sources of errors, and linguistic components.

2.7.2.1 Effects on communication

One of the most widely referred to classifications of errors is based on how errors affect comprehensibility. From this perspective, errors are classified as 'local' and 'global'.

Burt and Kiparsky (1974) defined global errors as “those that violate rules involving the overall construct of a sentence” which tends to significantly hinder communication because they are not comprehensible; while local errors are those that “cause trouble in a particular constituent”, not the comprehensibility of the whole message (p. 73). They further claimed that global errors significantly hinder communication, but local errors do not. An example of local errors would be, “If I heard from him I will let you know” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 247). As can be seen, this sentence is not grammatically correct but it *is* comprehensible. Although the distinction between global and local errors is widely referred to in the literature, the definitions using linguistic criteria to determine the degree of communication interference is less accepted. According to the definitions, it can be assumed that errors such as lexical errors and pronunciation errors do not seriously impede communication despite those errors potentially having a significant impact on communication (Morrissey, cited in Richards, 1980). Moreover, the degree of error seriousness can be determined not only by comprehensibility, but also by their generality and frequency. As Johansson (1978) notes, irritation caused by errors may cause problems in communication as well.

In sum, local and global errors mainly involve comprehensibility judged by the listener. When adopting the concepts of local and global errors for decisions on corrective feedback in the classroom, however, a possible problem might be the lack of a clear-cut evaluation of errors since comprehensibility is subjective. Possibly due to this reason, the classification of errors according to communicative effects is not often mentioned in the findings of studies on the analysis of learner errors. Apart from this classification, there are other options to determine types of error.

2.7.2.2 Error sources

Another dimension connected to the process of language learning in the SLA literature concerns two major causes of errors: interlingual and intralingual. According to Richards (1971), interlingual errors derive from native language L1 interference. Intralingual errors are attributed to failures stemming from learning the target language's rules and are likely to be common among learners of different language background. Intralingual errors can also be considered developmental errors since they demonstrate the language learning process (Corder, 1975). Richards (1971) categorised intralingual errors into four types: over-generalisation (the use of the same rule with the different structures to which the rule cannot be applied), ignorance of rule restrictions (the application of rules to inappropriate contexts), incomplete application of rules (the failure to achieve the correct use of structure), and false concepts hypothesised (the failure to fully comprehend a distinction in the target language).

Although this taxonomy of errors seems to be well established in the field of applied linguistics, it has been questioned on grounds of practicality. In language teaching, identifying whether an error is caused by L1 interference or the process of target language learning can be difficult to determine because certain errors cannot be precisely identified as either interlingual or intralingual (Corder, 1975; Dulay & Burt, 1974).

Despite these problems of application, the broad concept of interlingual and intralingual errors has been used to refer to the *sources* of errors in some studies, especially those focusing on written language (e.g. Falhasiri, Tavakoli, Hasiri, & Mohammadzadeh, 2011; Phuket & Othman, 2015; Tizazu, 2014). The reason for the scant use of the interlingual and intralingual distinction in studies on spoken language might be attributable to the causes of spoken errors, such as slips of the tongue and tiredness, as pointed out by Corder (1974). The nature of errors in spoken language might impede efforts to investigate their cause. Therefore, it seems sensible that the bulk of studies exploring oral errors employ the classification of errors according to linguistic features.

2.7.2.3 Linguistic components

Errors in language learning are also classified according to linguistic category. The common categories are phonological, lexical, and grammatical errors. Some taxonomies include morphological errors (i.e. wrong use of word form, e.g. *butters*) and syntactic errors (mistakes in the arrangement of words and phrases, e.g. word order, subject-verb agreement (Touchie, 1986). If more than one type of error is made in a speaking turn, it is regarded as “multiple errors”

(Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Here, only the three main types of errors—phonological, lexical, and grammatical errors—are discussed in detail.

Phonological errors can be subcategorised into components of pronunciation. The general subcategories are errors related to vowels and consonants, stress and intonation, and linking and pausing. Lexical errors are the faulty use of a lexical item resulting from a misunderstanding about the use of two words. The typology of lexical errors is normally traced back to the source of errors—whether it relates to the L1 interference or the target language (Agustin Llach, 2005). James (1998) classified lexical errors into two main groups: formal errors and semantic errors. Formal errors concern mis-selection (e.g. a wrong word choice, e.g. of prefix or suffix), mis-formation (wrong use of a word form as a result of the learner's L1), and distortions (wrong use of a word form without a transfer from the learner's first language). Semantic errors relate to a wrong word choice to convey the intended meaning, such as the wrong use of collocation and the use of a synonym inappropriate to the context. It can be seen that this classification includes errors in the written language such as misspelled words; however, it has been applied in error analysis of a learner's spoken language since as yet there appears to be no established taxonomy of lexical errors in speech. Concerning grammatical errors, they can be divided into morphology errors (e.g. incorrect conjugation of the verb form) and syntax errors (e.g. incorrect use of cohesive devices) (James, 1998). According to these two types, they might be subclassified into smaller components such as misuse of tenses, verb forms, and articles.

This typology of errors according to linguistic components is commonly referred to in the literature, as in the work of Ababneh (2018), Agustin Llach (2005), and Batu et al. (2016). This could be due to the linguistic, rule-based and more straightforward criteria for differentiating each type of error compared to other systems of classification. For this reason, errors from the observational data in this study were classified according to the linguistic components. However, it is noteworthy that suggestions for language teachers regarding which errors to correct are not based on linguistic features. Instead, it is recommended that teachers consider an error according to its effects on communication. Similar to the problem of error classification, unsurprisingly it is arguable that the recommendations are not practical. This issue is addressed in the next section.

2.7.3 Errors to correct

This section discusses the literature in relation to which errors to correct in the speaking classroom. There are various stances on from what aspect teachers should consider when deciding on what errors to correct and this issue is still a debate.

Although there are theories against error correction in language learning, such as the Natural Approach (which posits that error correction tends to negatively affect students' communication – see Nassaji & Kartchava, 2017), there is increasing support for the use of oral corrective feedback in language classrooms because it is said to promote students' learning by helping them notice the difference between the native language and the target language (Sheen, 2011). However, it is also recommended that teachers should be careful

about *overcorrection* as it can confuse learners about 'the value of learning' (Ur, 1996, p. 255); too much feedback obstructs learners' responsiveness to learning (Ellis, 2013). Moreover, Ur (1996) pointed out that the most important reason for teaching speaking is to develop oral fluency, which consists of the ability to express oneself intelligibly, reasonably, and *without undue hesitation* as well as accurately. Therefore, it is suggested that teachers should use 'focused corrective feedback' (Sheen, 2011, p. 8) limited to selected linguistic features. There are various positions on the errors that teachers should pay attention to.

Drawing on Corder's (1967) distinction between errors of competence (errors caused by a lack of knowledge) and errors of performance (errors caused by temporary circumstances such as memory lapse and tiredness), it is recommended that error correction is more appropriate for the former (Brinton, 2014; Ellis, 2013). Another suggestion is that teachers correct only global errors because they affect communication (Burt, 1975; Hendrickson, 1980). This, however, is not accepted by some SLA experts. For example, Nassaji and Kartchava (2017) argue that a false assumption is made as to global and local errors because local errors can also cause communication problems. According to these recommendations, errors that should be corrected are regarded in terms of their communicative effects. Apart from these positions, advice is given according to the impact of correction on learners. Folse (2006) encouraged teachers to correct errors that make learners feel they are being seen as 'uneducated' when they make them.

One criticism of these suggestions is that they are difficult for teachers to put into practice (Sheen, 2011) since certain error types can overlap. Moreover, there are no sound criteria for assessing which errors students feel make them feel 'uneducated' when they make them. Again, this often falls to individual perception. Possibly, this is one of the reasons for the discrepancy between the experts' recommendations and teachers' beliefs and practices as to what errors to correct. Among these controversial recommendations, increasing interest has been paid to the investigation of what teachers believe and do regarding what to correct.

2.7.4 Teacher cognition on error types

This section reviews studies on what teachers believe about error correction and what they actually do correct in the classroom.

Most studies have found that teachers have a broadly positive attitude to corrective feedback (Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Méndez & Cruz, 2012; Jodaie, Farrokhi, & Zoghi, 2011) although the *degree* of positive feelings about this varies as a result of teachers' beliefs about language teaching and learning. Méndez and Cruz (2012) used a semi-structured interview and a questionnaire to investigate the perceptions of EFL teachers at a Mexican university about corrective feedback and its actual practice in their classrooms. They found that the teachers in their study were not overly fond of corrective feedback because they perceived corrective techniques to be a form of focus-on-form instruction, which they were not convinced was an appropriate approach to teaching language. This perception was attributable to their own teaching experience, prior knowledge and education. In contrast, when it came to error correction in

writing tasks, corrective feedback was more highly valued because the teachers believed that it was beneficial for improvement of students' writing (Al shahrani & Storch, 2014; Jodaie et al., 2011). In his study exploring beliefs of teachers at University of Arizona regarding the benefit of a focus on form in language learning, Schulz (2001) reported that in different tasks teachers had different views on whether errors should be corrected. When verbal skills are focused on instead of writing skills, there is less agreement on using corrective feedback.

Despite these mixed attitudes to corrective feedback, studies suggest that teachers in practice tend to engage quite often in corrective feedback (Chaudron, 1988; Lochman, 2002). Regarding errors that should be corrected, most studies have found that teachers believe error correction is unimportant in all cases and should be adopted only for errors that could cause communication breakdown (Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Schulz, 1996) or impede intelligibility (Demir & Özmen, 2017). In accordance with teachers' beliefs, numerous studies have concluded that practices appear to focus on errors that affect the meaning, mainly pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary (Demir & Özmen, 2017; Uysal & Aydin, 2017) and morphosyntactic and high-frequency errors (Kubota, 1991).

Although this small number of studies related to teachers' beliefs and practices in terms of which errors to correct in the speaking classroom has revealed interesting aspects of teacher cognition on error correction, their focus is limited to grammatical errors (the study of Schulz, 1996), interview data (the studies of Méndez & Cruz, 2012 and Uysal & Aydin, 2017), or the non-English language classroom (the studies of Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Lyster, 2004). Only

studies by Basturkmen, Loewen, and Ellis (2004) and Demir and Özman (2017) have explored teachers' beliefs and practices on oral error correction by integrating observational data. More importantly, these two studies reported findings based on pre-determined types of errors which are mostly categorized by their linguistic components.

Nassaji and Kartchava (2017) argue that most of the research findings relating to errors corrected by teachers do not match with the recommendations for language teachers to correct errors according to their effect on communication because those studies appear to focus on a specific linguistic component, such as that by Lyster (2004) investigating correction on the use of articles. For this reason, those studies' findings were limited to a specific and narrow aspect of language and did not extend to other classifications of errors such as errors that hinder communication. As a result, it is possible to conclude that the ambiguous and contrasting findings in relation to corrected errors can result from the specific research focus of those studies.

According to existing research on what spoken errors teachers believe should be corrected and what they actually correct in the classroom, gaps in the research in this area can be understood in terms of the research focus and methodology. It is expected that this study's triangulation of interview and observational data, as well as the inductive investigation into teachers' beliefs on error types, will yield a more complete understanding of this issue from teachers' perspectives.

Having discussed the literature on which errors to correct, the next section looks at the literature on corrective feedback types.

2.8 Corrective feedback (CF)

Turning firstly to corrective feedback, a subject closely related to error correction, this section presents the various approaches to corrective feedback and addresses the question of which types of corrective feedback are recommended and used by language teachers. Before discussing these issues, it is firstly necessary to explore what 'corrective feedback' actually means and how it is used in the literature.

2.8.1 Defining corrective feedback

It is necessary to clarify exactly what is meant by corrective feedback as it is central to this study. Firstly, the terms 'feedback' and 'correction' are discussed below. Then the distinction between 'error treatment' and 'corrective feedback' is highlighted since both terms are closely aligned in the literature. Finally, the definition of corrective feedback is explored and the definition used in this study is given.

In the process of teaching, teachers' comments about the performance of their students' performance are generally referred to as feedback. As Ur (1996) explained, feedback is "information that is given to the learner about his or her performance of a learning task, usually with the objective of improving this performance" (p. 242). This definition is close to that of Richards and Schmidt (2010), who added that feedback may derive from people other than the teacher. Chaudron (1986) pointed out that the meaning of feedback is broader than the

notion of correction because feedback can cover any classroom interaction, even a teacher's *non*-reaction; while correction refers to their responses to the learner's utterance. In addition, feedback might not lead to correction (Long, 1977).

The term corrective feedback is generally used interchangeably with error treatment. Both terms refer typically to responses that make the error maker aware of the error. Ellis (1996) defined error treatment as "the way in which teachers (and other learners) respond to learners' errors" (p. 701). Similarly, Lightbown and Spada (2006) used the term corrective feedback to refer to "any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect" (p. 171). From a more conversational perspective, Lyster and Ranta (1997) used the term corrective feedback to refer to "how competent speakers react to language errors" (p.38).

Given that the present study aims to specifically answer questions about error correction of spoken language, the term corrective feedback proposed by Lyster and Ranta (1997) is deemed appropriate for this study when referring to teachers' oral feedback on erroneous utterances.

It should be noted here that corrective feedback is used in this study instead of 'negative evidence' in language acquisition and 'negative feedback' in psychology because these two terms highlight feedback on grammatical errors. As Marcus (1993) points out, negative evidence is "information about which strings of words are not grammatical sentences" (p. 53). Similarly, Long (1996) explains negative feedback as "implicit correction immediately following

an ungrammatical learner utterance” (p. 429). Negative feedback is categorised in opposition to ‘positive feedback’, which is used to refer to an indication that affirms the correctness of learners’ output (Ellis, 2009).

Since the purpose of the present study is to investigate types of errors that are corrected by teachers, adopting the term negative feedback or negative evidence does not serve the aim of the study due to this narrowing to only linguistic errors. However, the term ‘positive feedback’ is referred to in this study when the teachers affirm the correctness of students’ utterances.

To answer the research question about feedback types, the next section discusses types of corrective feedback and the related studies.

2.8.2 Types of corrective feedback

In their study of corrective feedback and learner uptake in four immersion classrooms, Lyster and Ranta (1997) categorised feedback into six types as follows:

1. *Explicit correction* refers to the explicit provision of the correct form and a clear indication of the incorrect form.
2. *Recasts* involve repetition of the error in a corrected form or translations in response to a student’s use of the L1.
3. *Clarification requests* refer to phrases indicating that the students’ utterance has not been clear or that it contains an error (or numerous errors) and that a repetition or a reformulation is required.

4. *Metalinguistic feedback* occurs when the teacher provides comments, questions, or information related to the students' utterance, without providing the correct form.

5. *Elicitation* is when teachers directly elicit the correct form from the student by pausing to allow students to complete the teachers' utterance, using questions (e.g. "How do we say X in French?"), or by asking students to reformulate the utterance (e.g. "Say that again.").

6. *Repetition* refers to when the teacher repeats the students' errors, generally with adjusted intonation to highlight the error.

This framework is commonly referred to in coding CF types in observational reports (Brown, 2016). Lyster (2004) subsequently divided corrective feedback into two broad categories - recasts and prompts - in order to distinguish between meaning-focused negotiation and form-focused negotiation. A recast is a correct reformulation of a learners' erroneous utterance leaving the original meaning intact. In the recast, there is no obvious sign indicating the error. Recasts, then, are meaning-focused negotiation. In contrast, prompts include four types of teacher response: clarification requests, repetitions, metalinguistic clues, and elicitation. They are referred to as form-focused negotiation in which the correct form is withheld and an opportunity for students' self-repair and noticeable clues to errors in the utterance are provided.

In addition to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) and Lyster's (2004) framework, corrective feedback is also distinguished by a division into implicit or explicit. Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006) note that implicit feedback occurs when an error is indicated *covertly* while explicit feedback *overtly* points out an error. Implicit

feedback usually takes the form of a recast - a reformulation of all or part of a learners' utterance. However, a recast can be more explicit when co-occurring with other strategies such as repetition and prosodic emphasis (i.e. the use of rising intonation to confirm information, and falling intonation to identify a statement) (Ellis, 2009).

To sum up, corrective feedback types can be broadly categorised as implicit and explicit according to how clearly the error is pointed out, or as recasts and prompts depending on whether the correct form is provided by the corrector. These two classifications can be subcategorised into more specific types, as in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) classification. In the present study, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) classification (see Appendix B for more detail) is used as a basis to categorise teachers' feedback because it offers the clearest categorisation. Although the classification of explicit and implicit feedback is not focused on (due to the overlapping categories), it will nevertheless be referred to when it emerges from the data.

This section has outlined the different classifications of corrective feedback and identified how corrective feedback as used by the teachers in this study is categorised. To clarify the reason why corrective feedback is considered beneficial for language learning, the next section will present theoretical and empirical rationale for providing corrective feedback.

2.8.3 Rationale for providing corrective feedback

Although error correction in meaning-focused teaching could be considered unnecessary because learners do not need error correction if they are in communicative-based instruction where language use for communication is encouraged (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2017), the need for corrective feedback in the language classroom has been supported both theoretically and empirically. Error correction is considered useful for language learning based on the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990), the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996), and the Output Hypothesis (Swain, 2005).

a. Noticing Hypothesis

In the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990; 2001), language input needs to be noticed by learners. If it is not, according to Schmidt (1990), language input is not processed into learning. Noticing the gaps between input and output enables students to make a mental note, leading in turn to acquisition. Corrective feedback is a strategy which can raise learners' awareness of the mismatches between their L2 input and output. This stance has been supported by research examining the noticeability of corrective feedback (e.g. Carroll & Swain, 1993; Lyster, 1998; Sheen, 2006; McDonough & Mackey, 2006; Nassaji, 2009). Generally, these studies reported that explicit feedback tends to be better noticed by learners than implicit feedback.

b. Interaction Hypothesis

Both types of feedback are acknowledged in Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis. Interaction Hypothesis claims that learners normally receive a linguistic input during interaction with native speakers or more competent interlocutors because interactional adjustment "connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways" (Long, 1996, pp. 451-452). This negative feedback is implicitly provided during the interaction. Based on this hypothesis, modified input through interaction was reported to be beneficial for language acquisition in related studies such as Gass and Varonis (1994), Ellis, Tanaka, and Yamazaki (1994), and Loschky (1994). For instance, Loschky (1994) conducted an experiment with learners of Japanese in three experimental groups: a group of unmodified input with no interaction, one of premodified input with no interaction, and one of unmodified input with the chance for interaction. The results showed that the group with interaction yielded the highest degree of comprehension of input. Although a large body of research supports the Interaction Hypothesis, it has been questioned. For example, Swain (1985) has argued that comprehensible input is not sufficient for second language acquisition because learners require opportunities to produce comprehensible output.

c. Output Hypothesis

In Swain's (1985) Output Hypothesis, apart from noticing differences between input and output and receiving interactionally modified input, learners need to produce output through metalinguistic feedback. In doing so, learners will have opportunities to discuss language forms during communicative language use

and thereby eventually improve their language accuracy. Swain and Lapkin (1995, pp. 372-373) subsequently explained the relationships between the noticing stage, interactions, and modified output:

In producing the L2, a learner will on occasion become aware of (i.e. notice) a linguistic problem (brought to his/her attention either by external feedback (e.g., clarification requests) or internal feedback). Noticing a problem 'pushes' the learner to modify his/her output. In doing so, the learner may sometimes be forced into a more syntactic processing mode than might occur in comprehension. Thus, output may set 'noticing' in train, triggering mental processes that lead to modified output.

Confirming this hypothesis, empirical and experimental research has highlighted the importance of L2 learners' output in language learning (e.g. Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Tarone & Liu, 1995, Van den Branden, 1997). According to the hypothesis, output-provoking types of feedback such as clarification requests and metalinguistic feedback are encouraged.

In sum, corrective feedback has been supported both by theories of second language acquisition and research evidence. Further discussion of empirical evidence follows.

2.8.4 Effectiveness of different types of corrective feedback

Studies have shown that teachers' corrective feedback is inconsistent and unsystematic (Sheen, 2011). For this reason, a body of research has investigated the effectiveness of corrective feedback—more specifically, which type of corrective feedback most benefits students' learning. However, the results have delivered mixed results.

The findings of most studies investigating the effectiveness of different types of oral corrective feedback claim evidence in the rate of learners' uptake and repair following corrective feedback moves (e.g. Choi & Li, 2012; Lyster, 1998; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004). Uptake is a learner's immediate response after the teacher's feedback, which includes both the learner's utterance and reaction; while repair is "the correct reformulation of an error as uttered in a single student turn and not to the sequence of turns resulting in the correct reformulation; nor does it refer to self-initiated repair" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 49). According to these descriptive and empirical studies, it has been claimed that recasts effectively enhance language learning (e.g. Han, 2002; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Nassaji, 2017). For example, Han (2002) found that recast was a successful tool for improving the tense consistency of adult learners. However, comparisons between recasts and prompts or explicit corrective feedback reveal inconsistent results. Comparing recasts with prompts, some studies have found that the latter to be a more effective error treatment (e.g. Guchte et al, 2015; Jafarigohar & Gharbavi, 2014; Rahimi & Zhang, 2013). Similarly, in a study by Lyster and Ranta (1997) investigating types of corrective feedback in a French immersion classroom, recasts led to the least amount of uptake and repair; while elicitation was the most successful technique for eliciting students' uptake. In contrast, Karimi and Esfandiari (2016) reported that the effect of recasts on Iranian EFL learners' stress patterns was stronger than that of explicit corrective feedback.

The possible explanation for the conflicting findings concerns factors such as instructional context, learners' levels of proficiency, and the degree of implicitness of recast. For instance, Sheen (2011) pointed out that the learners

in some studies might be more focused on form in their communication-based lessons because form-focused grammar was highlighted prior to the lesson. She added that learners of higher proficiency levels tend to better respond to recasts. In addition, a study by Loewen and Philp (2006) reported that the effectiveness of recasts can be reduced when it is provided vaguely, which makes it more implicit and more difficult for learners to notice.

There are also studies comparing recasts to specific explicit feedback. Li (2014) and Rezaei and Derakhshan (2011) investigated the effect of recasts and metalinguistic feedback and found that the latter had a greater impact than recasts. Interestingly, Li found that metalinguistic correction was more effective for low-level learners but equally effective for advanced learners. This concurs with the argument made by Ammar and Spada (2006) and Sheen (2011) that student proficiency affects the effectiveness of recasts.

According to these studies, it can be noticed that explicit correction tends to be more effective than implicit correction. Nevertheless, it should be noted that factors such as student proficiency level and instructional context can vary the results of studies. Similar to the findings on effectiveness of types of corrective feedback, research on teachers' beliefs and practices about corrective feedback types reveal that different factors can generate different findings.

2.8.5 Teacher cognition on corrective feedback types

Studies relating to teachers' beliefs and actual practices indicate that teachers' beliefs and their use of corrective feedback are shaped by several factors. These factors are intertwined with tensions between teachers' feedback preferences and how they are implemented.

When teachers correct errors, numerous studies have shown that the most common type of feedback was recasts (Lee, 2013; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Roothoof, 2014; Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen, 2001; Gurzynski–Weiss & Révész, 2012; Havranek, 2002; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004). Considering implicit and explicit feedback, many studies have noted that implicit feedback was more common (Gurzynski-Weiss & Révész, 2012; Yoshida, 2010). In contrast, Kubota (1991) investigated oral corrective feedback of seven Japanese EFL teachers with more than ten years of teaching at senior high school in Japan and reported that the teachers used more explicit than implicit feedback. Kubota proposed that a possible explanation for this discrepancy might be that form-focused instruction in EFL classrooms like the observed classroom in her study, tend to involve explicit feedback to clearly point out the error. It might be assumed that in a more meaning-focused classroom, implicit correction tends to be used more frequently. According to this assumption, the instructional context is likely to influence the types of corrective feedback that teachers use.

Regarding recasts and prompts, it has been found that teachers see prompts as more effective than recasts because they tend to lead to students' self-correction (Debreli & Onuk, 2016; Diab, 2007). In contrast, recasts are

preferable in practice (Demir & Özmen, 2017; Kennedy, 2010). One study showed that teachers' preferences for recasts over prompts were attributable to time constraints (Yoshida, 2008). Nevertheless, in a study by Ahangari and Amirzadeh (2011) exploring teachers' oral corrective feedback in teaching Iranian EFL learners at different levels of proficiency, it was reported that when learners become more proficient, teachers increasingly use prompts. In line with this, other studies have shown that learner proficiency affects the corrective feedback choice. For example, elicitation is considered suitable for advanced learners because of the potential for self-correction; while recast and metalinguistic feedback are better options for low-proficiency learners (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Kaivanpanah, Alavi, & Sepehrinia, 2015; Sheen, 2004; Yoshida, 2008). However, one possible problem is that sometimes teachers overestimate their students' ability because their true ability might be negatively affected by anxiety and classroom pressure (Yoshida, 2008).

Apart from time constraints and learner proficiency, teachers' beliefs and practices regarding corrective feedback also depend on institutional contexts (Kaivanpanah et al, 2015), cultural factors (Schulz, 2001), teacher education (Jafarigohar & Kheiri, 2015), teaching experience (Demir & Özmen, 2017), learning experiences (Agudo, 2014), error types (Gurzynski–Weiss, 2016), task types (Özmen & Aydin, 2015), student personality (Mori, 2011), students' preferences (Jodaie et al, 2011), and attitudes towards exams (Lee, 2008).

Overall, the findings from studies concerning teachers' choices of corrective feedback suggest that it varies as a result of the dynamic contexts of instruction. Mismatches between beliefs and practices can derive from

instructional contexts, factors relating to learners, and teachers' beliefs. Other than these internal and external factors, incongruences between teachers' beliefs and practices may result from issues of research methodology such as interpretations drawn from limited data sources and teachers' unclear perceptions about corrective feedback (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2017).

Section 2.6-2.8 has discussed the key concepts employed in this study and identified gaps in the research on teacher cognition and oral corrective feedback. To provide some background information which will later be referred to in the discussion chapter, Section 2.9 looks at the broader focus of this study—the concept of teaching speaking in the World Englishes paradigm.

2.9 Teaching speaking in the World Englishes paradigm

This section presents an overview of World Englishes, which relates to varieties of English.

The spread of English has resulted in three categorisations of English in a global context: English as a native language (ENL), English as a second language (ESL), and English as a foreign language (EFL). Countries using English as a native language, such as the UK, the USA, Australia, and New Zealand, are referred to as ENL countries. Countries where English is used for internal purposes (e.g. education, administration) and external purposes (e.g. trade, contact with other countries) are referred to as ESL and EFL countries respectively (Quirk, 1985). This categorisation can be viewed in parallel with the three concentric circles of world Englishes proposed by Kachru (1985). The three concentric circles representing the spread of English worldwide are the

inner circle, the outer circle (or extended circle), and the expanding circle. The inner circle involves the regions where English is used as a primary language (ENL). The outer circle (or extended circle) refers to non-native regions where English is institutionalised due to linguistic, political, or sociological explanations (ESL) and which were colonised by the countries of the inner circles. The expanding circle encompasses countries where English is not a native language but does not necessarily involve the users of the inner circle. The users in this circle mainly use English to communicate with the international community (e.g. for business). However, the status of EFL and ESL can be dynamic since an ESL country might become an EFL country or vice versa due to changes in language policies (Kachru, 1985).

Although the terms ESL and EFL have been widely referred to in English language teaching, Smith (1976) argues that English should not be considered a foreign language or a second language of any country because it is a language of the world. In Smith's point of view, English serves as a global language, so conceptualising the usage of English should not involve restricting it to any 'circles'. Unsurprisingly, the use of English in and among the three circles is traditionally referred to as English as an international language (EIL) or World Englishes (WE). Nevertheless, the term English as a lingua franca (ELF) is preferred when referring to communication between speakers from varying linguacultural backgrounds (Jenkins, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2005).

Due to the increasing realisation of the existence of varieties of English, the discussion of English teaching has moved in this direction. EFL countries such as Japan are changing their conceptualisation of English towards EIL

rather than EFL (Suzuki, 2011). This conceptual shift, unsurprisingly, moves English language teaching towards the idea of introducing varieties of English to learners and accepting that the standard of English is not necessary based on native English (Galloway & Rose, 2014; Kumaravadivelu, 2012; Nelson, 2011). This subject, a key debate in teaching speaking, is discussed in the next section.

2.10 Key debates in teaching speaking

Traditionally, the goal of ELT was steered towards conforming to the English used by native speakers. Although the vast majority of the users of English nowadays are non-native speakers (Seidlhofer, 2005), native speakers are still considered by many non-native regions as the primary source of standard English (Friedrich, 2002; Matsuda, 2002; Suzuki, 2011). The view of British or American English speakers having an authoritative hold on English use also dominates in Asian countries such as Thailand, Korea, and China (Foley, 2007). Although beliefs about nativelikeness still influence ELT in many countries, the spread of English and the increasing recognition of English varieties challenges the traditional goal of ELT. From the WE paradigm, a large body of research has raised debate about nativelikeness and intelligibility and accepted standards of English.

2.10.1 Nativelikeness and intelligibility

In ELT, standard English is usually referred to as the 'correct' form of English as used by speakers in the Inner Circle, namely native speakers of English. It is defined as an educated English which is generally taught to non-native speakers

(Trudgill, 1983). However, this position is not without problems, especially regarding the pedagogical implications. First, standard English is not the 'whole' of English. It includes only grammar and vocabulary, but not pronunciation (Strevens, 1985; Crystal, 1999; Milroy & Milroy, 1991). As Quirk (1985) points out, it is not plausible to categorise pronunciation as standard or non-standard. Secondly, standard English is not only one variety of English (Trudgill, 1999). It can vary according to location, such as standard British English and standard American English and even within those two broad groups. For these reasons, when it comes to classroom implications, there are debates over *which* standard should be followed. The question of which criteria should be used to identify correct or proper pronunciation is particularly contentious in the speaking classroom, which normally involve the teaching of pronunciation.

There are both proponents and opponents of teaching to a particular standard. Opponents argue that there is no absolute standard and emphasising one can have an adverse impact on learners' identity (Quirk, 1985). Moreover, in the global context, the matter of *intelligibility* has taken over from that of the standard English (Kennedy, 1985). With widespread recognition of WE, mutual intelligibility and comprehensibility are increasingly considered the goal of language teaching (Baker, 2011).

For this reason, there is no definite criterion to assess intelligibility. This could be the reason why Crystal (1999) insists that it is necessary to teach standard English (by which he does not mean *native* English). He added that the need to teach to a standard could be down to specific reasons, such as the need to pass an exam or get a job. He believes that, although keeping the

identity of local English is also important, international intelligibility requires a standard variety of English: “The need to maintain international intelligibility demands the recognition of a standard variety of English, at the same time as the need to maintain local identity demands the recognition of local varieties of English” (p. 15). It can be seen here that the two-opposing stances each highlight the importance of intelligibility although the proponents of a standard English call for a standard which can both ensure intelligibility and at the same time maintain the speaker’s identity. However, to set standards of intelligibility is not straightforward because there are multiple definitions of intelligibility.

2.9.1.1 The complex construct of intelligibility

In general, the term intelligibility is defined in relation to the listener; to what extent the listener recognises words or utterances (Smith & Nelson, 1985; Zielinski, 2008). Subsequently, Smith (1992) and Nelson (2011) point out that there are three levels of understanding: intelligibility, comprehensibility, and (the top level) interpretability, or the recognition of the intent or purpose of words and utterances. Nelson stresses that language teaching should aim at all three aspects - intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability - because they serve the primary goal of any language, namely to transmit information and attitudes. Moreover, he also argues that the three terms relate to different levels of language teaching. With intelligibility, the teachers are frequently dealing with the students’ mispronunciation of words because they cannot recognise which word their students are saying. With comprehensibility, teachers always involve teaching vocabulary and correcting word choice. For example, students might be confused by the use of synonyms in different situations. When it comes to a particular situation, the same word might not mean the same thing, and this is

precisely when interpretability plays an important role in communication because the listeners need to interpret the purposes of utterances according to the context, such as cultural knowledge, individual knowledge, and paralinguistic features (e.g. gestures and eye contact). This relates to a broader sense of understanding to incorporate such factors as (im)politeness and (in)formality.

Smith's (1992) and Nelson's (2011) definition of intelligibility helps us to make a distinction between the recognition of a word from the understanding of the message. In addition, it aligns with the findings of research into factors of successful communication. It has been shown that a deficit of one component does not necessarily lead to communication failures; sometimes, the listener does not recognise every word nor fully understand the utterance, but this does not interfere with successful communication as how the interaction proceeds might clarify the message (Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Firth, 1996). Moreover, the conception of the three levels of understanding has been widely adopted in numerous studies relating to speaking intelligibility (e.g. Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Matsuura, Chiba, & Fujieda, 1999; Sewell, 2015; Van der Walt, 2000). To allow an in-depth investigation of which level of understanding influences teachers' decision making about error correction in the present study, the term intelligibility is used according to the three levels of understanding. In other words, it is used to refer only to the recognition of words or utterances; while comprehensibility and interpretability are used to refer to understanding of words or utterances and to understanding the purpose delivered by those utterances, respectively.

Although Nelson (2011) gave a guideline of how to judge the intelligibility of a speech by pointing out that the speech needs to be 'clear enough' (p.25), this guideline is too general to be of practical use to language teaching. As Rajagopalan (2011) notes, "No matter how one tries to define intelligibility from a neutral standpoint, the question that cries out for an answer is 'intelligible for who?'" (p. 467). Possibly for this reason, there have been attempts to identify the features of speech that could help achieve the goal of intelligibility. In studies of errors affecting the intelligibility of speech, segmental and suprasegmental features are two main areas of pronunciation that have been explored in relation to this issue.

2.10.2 Segmental vs. Suprasegmental features

In order to improve foreign language pedagogy, the question as to which learner errors tend to cause communication breakdown has been investigated (Rifkin & Roberts, 1995). Studies often consider the seriousness of particular errors, what is known as 'error gravity' (Eisenstein, 1983). Some studies have investigated native reactions to non-native speakers (e.g. Hahn, 2004; Munro & Derwing, 1999), and others have focused on communication problems between non-native speakers (e.g. Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Jenkins, 2000; Jung, 2010). These studies generally show that the trend in research focus has shifted significantly from native listeners to non-native listeners since interest in WE (Kachru, 1985; 1986) and English as a lingua franca (Jenkins, 2000) has intensified. Considering intelligibility as an essential concept in teaching speaking, a wide number of studies have looked at which elements of spoken language are most relevant to intelligibility. Categorised according to broad linguistic features, studies have been made of comparisons between the effects

of grammatical, lexical and phonological features. A number of these studies have shown that phonological factors tend to have a significant impact on intelligibility (e.g. Bian, 2013; Gooskens, 2007; Munro, Derwing, & Morton, 2006).

With regard to pronunciation, various features of speech have been shown to affect intelligibility, such as the low-quality of monophthongs (Jin & Liu, 2014), vowel substitutions (Hahn & Watts, 2011), misplaced prominence (Hahn, 2004), speech rate (Griffiths, 1990; Rader, 1991; Zhao, 1997; Kang, 2010; Munro & Derwing, 1998, 2001), incorrect word stress (Field, 2005), the number and patterns of strong and weak syllables (Zielinski, 2008), and unnatural speech rhythms (Setter, 2006). According to these studies, both segmental features (consonant and vowel sounds) and suprasegmental features (more global features such as stress, rhythm, and intonation) have been found to affect the degree of intelligibility. However, studies comparing segmental with suprasegmental effects reveal contrasting findings. Numerous studies have shown that suprasegmental features are more relevant to intelligibility and/or comprehensibility than segmental features (e.g. Ulbrich, 2013; Anderson-Hsieh et al., 1992; Magen, 1998; Field, 2005). Baker (2011) claimed that since the 1980s there has been a shift in second language instruction from teaching segmental features of pronunciation towards teaching suprasegmental features because ample research has been done to demonstrate that prosody is a major factor of speech intelligibility. In contrast, Bansal's (1969) study of the intelligibility of Indian English and Sereno, Lammers, and Jongman's (2016) account of Korean-accented English both highlighted the importance of

segmental features of pronunciation and pointed out that to achieve intelligibility clear pronunciation of consonants and vowels is required.

The impact of pronunciation seems to be unquestionable although there is no consensus as to whether segmental or suprasegmental features are more important for intelligibility. A possible reason for this incongruence might be differences in the context of the studies looking at the subject. As noted, the definition of intelligibility is usually accompanied by the issue of the listener's interpretation. However, there have been attempts to identify segmental features essential for speech intelligibility no matter what the mother-tongue of the speaker is. A commonly cited work is the study by Jenkins (2000) on the Lingua Franca Core (LFC) that is claimed to guarantee mutual intelligibility.

2.10.3 Lingua Franca Core (LFC)

Due to the WE and EIL movements, Jenkins (2000) proposed an alternative pronunciation model which emphasises the purpose of communication achievement among speakers from various linguistic backgrounds, not just between native and non-native speakers. The LFC presents English phonological features which should be focused on across the varieties of English and the deviant features that could be acceptable because they are intelligible in EIL.

The LFC features are categorised into the requirements of consonant sounds, vowel sounds, and nuclear stress. The consonant sound requirements are made up of rhotic 'r', /t/ between vowels such as 'latter', no overlapping sound onto another phoneme such as /v/ and /b/, aspiration at the beginning of

a word with /p/, /t/ and /k/, the sound of consonant clusters at the beginning of a word such as string, and /nt/ between vowels such as winter. The vowel sound requirements comprise short vowel sounds before voiceless consonants and long vowel sounds before voiced consonants, contrasting vowel sounds of words like 'live' and 'leave', and no substitution for the sound /ɜ:/, as in 'nurse'. The final component of the core is the appropriate use of nuclear stress to emphasise the meaning in the utterances. The acceptable deviant features are some substitutions of /θ/ and /ð/ and addition of consonant clusters such as when 'product' is pronounced as /pəɾɒdʌktɔ/.

Most of these features are associated largely with segmental units, excepting nuclear stress. Jenkins (2000) argued that research findings on the importance of suprasegmental features over segmental features are based only on native speakers' judgements; while the data from her study on interactions between non-native speakers show that most communication breakdowns are caused by segmental deviance and nuclear stress errors. She also added that suprasegmental features such as word stress, reductions and assimilations are unlikely to be learned despite teachers' efforts to model them. However, this claim can be questioned.

Although there are studies that support the effectiveness of LFC, such as those by Rahimi and Ruzrokh (2016) and Seidlhofer (2004), it can be problematic for teaching. Zoghbor (2010) investigated the effectiveness of teaching LFC on the intelligibility and comprehensibility of utterances made by Arab learners of English. In the study, the learners' speech was judged whether it was intelligible or comprehensible by the listeners from all three of Kachru's

circles. It was found that teaching LFC does not make speech significantly more intelligible and comprehensible because the degree of intelligibility and comprehensibility varies according to the listener's familiarity with the phonology of Arabic and exposure to English varieties. In addition, LFC may not fulfil teachers and students' needs because teachers tend to question the evaluation of speech without referring to a norm and students are likely to have different needs in language learning (Dauer, 2005; Deterding, 2011). Studies have shown that, in teaching, teachers strongly adhere to the use of native norms (Jenkins, 2005; Sifakis & Sougari, 2005; Suzuki, 2011; Dewey, 2012). This could also be attributable to their limited knowledge of varieties of English (Young & Walsh, 2010), learning experiences and teacher education (Choi & Jeon, 2016), and sociological factors such as career opportunities (Park, 2011). Regarding students' needs, research has found that in various contexts, such as Japan (McKenzie, 2008), Poland (Scheuer, 2008), China (He & Miller, 2011), and Thailand (Saengboon, 2015), students prefer to be exposed to standard English, of which British English or American English are overwhelmingly favoured. The debate over LFC might be the reason behind why native norms in language teaching are still favoured and prevalent.

According to the above discussion, there appears to be a consensus that there is no universal standard of English and the language should be taught according to the specific context. When shifting the focus to intelligibility, it seems unavoidable that intelligibility can be differently perceived and interpreted. Despite the attempt to set up LFC as a set of phonological requirements for mutual intelligibility, there is disagreement over this due to the problematic issue of segmental and suprasegmental features and due to doubts

about the extent to which it is teachable and learnable and its appropriateness for various teaching and learning contexts. For these reasons, it is worth considering how teachers can adopt the WE or EIL paradigm in their classroom to help students prepare for communication in the global context.

2.10.4 Recommendations of teaching speaking in the World Englishes paradigm

From the perspective of WE, a large body of research has investigated the nature of EIL and ELF communication in relation to the implications of ELT. The recommendations resulting from those studies can be concluded as follows.

a. Raising awareness of English varieties

The use of English should be viewed from a relativist standpoint which accepts the existence of language varieties instead of adhering to the notion that a native-like 'proper' English or correct English prevails (Crystal, 1999; Jenkins, 2012; Kachru, 1988; Low, 2015). As Kachru (1988) says, "the English language now belongs to all those who use it" (p. 1). Also, it is recommended that teachers realise language diversity as well as local identity and pass on this idea to their students. Exposing students to the diversity of English can equip them with abilities to achieve mutual intelligibility and understanding in global contexts of communication and to opt for different varieties of spoken language if they want to (Galloway & Rose, 2015; Jenkins, 2012). Matsuda (2002) underscores this idea by suggesting that raising awareness of varieties of English should be one a goal of English teachers everywhere because it can enhance international understanding in the sense of preparing students for Englishes which deviate

from Inner Circle English and prevent disrespectful attitudes towards users. In addition, ELT policy-makers should put diversity in the English language central to their policies (Crystal, 1999). However, the concept of English varieties should be carefully adopted. Take the example of pronunciation instruction. Nelson (2011) argues that although research has shown that identifying segmental pronunciation is not necessary to make speech intelligible because each speaker tends not to pronounce the same word in the same way, the contrast in the sound system must be taught to students so that they are able to recognise different words.

b. Introducing communicative strategies into the classroom

A language is not only about vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation; communicative skills also play an essential role in successful communication. It has been found that when communicating in the global context ELF speakers generally adopt various strategies to facilitate communication with interlocutors from a different linguacultural background. They prioritise communicative capabilities over forms and correctness (Jenkins 2012; Suzuki, 2011). In effective lingua franca communication, if the speaker makes an error, the interlocutor might ignore it instead of correcting it or reformulating it, in contrast to teachers normally do in the classroom (Jenkins, 2012).

Regarding the strategies used in ELF communication, Cogo's (2012) investigation into communicative strategies used by ELF speakers found that they used collaborative strategies such as utterance completions to accomplish communication. In addition, Jenkins (2012) pointed out that ELF speakers

usually use code-switching to specify an addressee, introducing another idea, signal culture and plurilingual identity, and appeal for assistance. Therefore, code-switching and the use of the first language are recommended in the EIL paradigm (Widdowson, 1998). Apart from code-switching, it has been found that ELF speakers used accommodation strategies to adjust their speech to make it intelligible or to signal solidarity (Cogo, 2012; Jenkins, 2012). Communication strategies such as adjusting pronunciation patterns with listeners from diverse language backgrounds should be learned not only by non-native speakers but also by native speakers of English (Low, 2015).

Consequently, it is necessary for EIL teachers to promote students' communicative skills for the purpose of appropriate language use in different contexts of communication.

c. Being sensitive to student contexts and needs

Teachers should orient English teaching to students' current or their potential contexts of English use (Jenkins, 2012). Kormos, Kindler, and Csizér (2011) found that 'the most important learning goal of the surveyed students was related to the status of English as a lingua franca' (p. 513). One of the suggestions regarding the context of English use is that teachers should include local culture in the classroom because English teaching from the view of Western culture may clash with local cultures or values and might lead to breakdowns in mutual understanding (Canagarajah, 1999; Baumgardner, 2006). Supporting this idea, McKay (2002) called for a focus on cross-cultural pragmatic competence, which is said to enable learners to share their own

culture and learn about others. This is important because EIL is commonly used in cross-cultural contexts. According to McKay's (2002) model of target culture materials, source culture can be provided by students and teachers; while target culture can be introduced by teachers and textbooks. Therefore, the teacher is a vital classroom agent for both local and international target culture.

It has also been suggested that student needs should be taken into account. In a specific context, English is used for a purpose and learners might have different purposes for learning it. Some learners have had an educational policy imposed on them; while others might be aiming to enhance their ability to communicate with speakers from various linguacultural backgrounds (Nelson, 2011; Galloway & Rose, 2014). As Kachru (1988) emphasised, one of the aspects of World Englishes results from pragmatic bases. Therefore, teachers are encouraged to consider different students' contexts and needs and adapt their teaching to their students' requirements (Seidlhofer, 2004).

d. Error correction should depend on the context

Before the constructs of WE, EIL, and ELF had been fully developed, the question of what errors should be corrected was also raised among researchers. Although Burt and Kiparsky (1974) made a distinction between global and local errors in terms of their effects on communication in the sense that it is more likely for global errors to cause miscommunication, the issue of what errors should be corrected is still an empirical question. Therefore, it has been suggested that global errors should be of primary consideration when it comes to correction in the classroom (Burt, 1975; Ellis, 1990). However, Kubota (1991)

argued that global and local errors should be treated equally because both are important for intelligibility.

Another point that should be taken into consideration is that intelligibility and comprehension are greatly influenced by the interlocutor's linguistic tolerance, but they also vary individually and contextually (Chastain, 1980). For these reasons, it makes sense to return to the concept of EIL to explore intelligibility from the EIL, WE, and ELF paradigms. Adopting the EIL perspectives, researchers have focused more on non-native speakers' judgements of speech intelligibility and comprehension.

As previously discussed, standard English in terms of its global use does not adhere to a single norm. However, as Jenkins notes, forms deviant from native-like ones are still considered by ELT literatures as errors (Jenkins, 2012). Numerous researchers have discussed this issue and most of them have arrived at a similar conclusion—teachers should not have negative attitudes towards errors but should instead set the goal of achieving intelligibility or mutual understanding among speakers from multilingual backgrounds. From the perspective of EIL and ELF, in fact, deviant features of language can be considered innovations instead of errors (Bambose, 1998; Jenkins, 2012). Jenkins expresses a positive view on errors that do not impede mutual understanding when she terms them “NNES-led innovations”. Those innovations include a mixed use of uncountable and countable nouns, no marking of the third person present singular, and the replacement of /θ/ and /ð/ with either [s] and [z] or [t] and [d]. Similarly, Walker (2010) agrees with the concept of the LFC and of identifying errors by speech intelligibility. He stresses

that if there is variation among speakers' pronunciation of non-core features of ELF (/θ/, /ð/, and dark /l/, exact vowel quality, pitch movement, word stress, stress-timing, vowel reduction, schwa and weak forms, linking, assimilation, coalescence), it should be considered L2 regional variation and *not* an error because they have no impact on ELF intelligibility. In addition, it is rare for EFL speakers to pronounce exactly the same as native speakers. Therefore, attempts to train EFL learners to pronounce like native-speakers should be avoided. Although Walker (2010) does not explicitly point out whether errors considered acceptable in ELF could be neglected, it might at least be assumed that he believes it is unnecessary for both teachers and learners to set the goal of native-like pronunciation.

However, not all deviant forms are innovations. Bambose (1998) points out that innovations are acceptable variants; while errors result from an uneducated use of language. He proposes five factors to indicate the status of innovations: demographic, geographic, authoritative, codification, and acceptability. The demographic factor involves the number of users in a societal group; a large number of users can often lead to a higher possibility of acceptability of innovation. The geographic factor concerns whether an innovation is widely used. The more widespread it is, the higher the chances there are that it will be accepted as an innovation. The authoritative factor relates to the actual use of an innovation by knowledgeable people such as teachers, writers, and the media. The larger the number of people using an innovation, the less likely it will be considered as an error. The last two factors are codification and acceptance, which Bambose claims are the most important factors. Codification concerns written records of innovation in references such as

dictionaries and course books. This factor is crucial because it can assure the status of innovations as acceptable usage. This directly leads to acceptability. Once an innovation gets acceptance, its existence could be prolonged. He adds that the current situation is that non-native norms are recognised but not fully accepted, especially morphological, syntactic, and phonological innovations because people still seek to emulate native norms. Bambose points out that teaching English varieties can become impractical if teachers and learners still hold to the attitude that non-native innovations are given a lower status. Moreover, the fact that syllabuses and examination requirements insist on native norms in many countries is a significant obstacle to implementing the idea of non-native innovations in those countries. In this case, it might be assumed that even if teachers know what to correct - what is acceptable across the five factors - there might be the slight possibility that non-native norms are practically introduced in the classroom.

According to the literature, it would seem that within the concept of WE there is no definite standpoint on what errors are deemed in need of correction in the classroom since it depends on the context, which includes such factors as the learners, the teachers' decision-making, and the syllabus. However, it could be concluded that intelligibility and comprehensibility should be the core of language learning and teaching and they can be enhanced by raising the awareness of teachers and students about varieties of English, focusing more on teaching communicative strategies, and paying attention to students' contexts and needs.

Section 2.10 has discussed the key debates in teaching speaking with relate to nativelikeness and intelligibility, segmental and supramental features, the Lingua Franca Core (LFC), and some recommendations of teaching speaking according to the WE, EIL, LFC perspectives, to provide some information that will be referred to in the discussion chapter. Before moving to the methodology chapter, this literature review chapter will end with background information about the Thai context involving English language teaching, teaching speaking, and teacher education.

2.11 Context of the study

This section provides background information on English language teaching in Thailand, before narrowing the discussion down to look at the teaching of speaking. Following this, the teaching contexts of the participants is sketched.

2.11.1 *ELT in Thailand*

English is increasingly used as a medium of communication with the global context, especially for economic purposes (Hayes, 2016). Consequently, English is a significant foreign language in Thailand and a compulsory subject for all students from Grade 1 to Grade 12 as well as in tertiary education (Lemjinda, 2003; Wongsothorn et al., 1996).

ELT in Thailand has traditionally been dominated by the grammar-translation method, in which learners are expected to be proficient in the elements of a language (phonology, grammar, vocabulary) and where rote learning plays an important role (Darasawang, Reinders, & Waters, 2015). In

addition, the teacher is considered an expert who is responsible for 'passing knowledge' to learners (Watson Todd, 2005). There has been an attempt to transform ELT in Thailand to a more learner-centred pedagogy since the National Education Act (NEA) was introduced in 1999 (Darasawang, 2007). According to the NEA, learning should be related to real life, individual student differences should be considered (Lemjinda, 2003), and learners are required to be able to communicate effectively in real-life situations. Learners' capacity to communicate is also one seen as one of the four competencies and one of the four goals in foreign language learning as mandated by the country's 2008 Basic Education Core Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2008).

Despite this attempt at a pedagogical shift and the increasing use of English in Thailand, Thais' English proficiency is still generally low. According to the 2016 Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), Thailand ranked 32nd out of 36 Asian countries, with an average score of 78 out of 120. On the report, the skills in which Thais were least proficient were speaking and reading (Test and Score Data Summary for TOEFL iBT tests, 2016). Moreover, Thailand was labelled 'low proficiency' in English in a recent report by the Education First English Proficiency Index (EF EPI, 2017). A possible explanation of this situation is that the policy reforms were not actually implemented by teachers on the ground. For Baker (2008, p. 137), the reasons behind this are:

an overabundance of curriculum content; students inadequately prepared for the level at which they studied; teachers inadequately prepared and an overload of responsibilities; inadequate materials and equipment; insufficient budgets; large class sizes; [and] inadequate assessment.

Assessment is highlighted as a cause of low proficiency in the productive skills of speaking and writing since the national university entrance exams only assess reading skills and knowledge of grammar (Wongsothorn et al., 2003). In addition to these factors, the learners' lack of motivation to learn English is the major obstacle to a learner-centred approach being successfully implemented in Thailand (Prapaisit de Segovia & Hardison, 2009).

Studies have found that problems of teaching speaking in Thailand result from similar factors to those found to be problematic in teaching English in general.

2.11.2 Problems associated with teaching speaking in Thailand

As noted, one cause of the problems of English teaching in Thailand is educational management (such as a lack of resources, large class sizes, and inappropriate assessment), and student factors (such as a lack of motivation). More specifically in relation to teaching speaking, it has been reported that from the students' perspectives, a lack of confidence, low levels of motivation and limited exposure to English (Jindathai, 2015), fear of being mocked when making mistakes (Khamprated, 2012), and their limited grammar and vocabulary skills (Wanthanasut, 2008) are contributory factors to learning problems. Considering large class sizes, which can affect students' opportunities for speaking practice, as well as limited opportunities to practice speaking outside the classroom, Thai students tend to start their university courses with low levels of speaking proficiency, something which hinders their progress throughout their degree courses (Ngowananchai, 2013).

In addition to instructional constraints and student factors, factors involving teacher cognition can also be an issue. It has been reported that teachers' beliefs play an important role in the lack of communicative tasks and the limited language practice in Thai English language classrooms. For example, Klanrit and Sroinam (2012) studied the anxiety levels of 673 Thai EFL teachers. They reported that the teachers were anxious about using English as a medium in the English classroom because of a belief about their students' low levels of proficiency and motivation, students' attitudes to learning English, their own language proficiency, and teaching and learning management. They found that the teachers believed that using Thai was more effective because their students tended not to understand the lessons if they used English. This finding concurs with Vacharaskunee's (2000) study of Thai teachers' beliefs about target language avoidance. Her study, which interviewed 20 EFL secondary school teachers, found that their beliefs about students' low-levels proficiency contributed to their avoidance of using English in the classroom. The teachers believed that low proficiency students had difficulties understanding the lessons not only when English was used but even when Thai was. Her study also found that teachers' beliefs about low levels of student motivation to learn English was also a factor. Due to teachers' beliefs regarding student proficiency and motivation, she pointed out that a "vicious circle" (p.148) was created whereby teachers do not use English in the classroom, which in turn means there are limited opportunities for students to practice speaking English, which then results in low levels of proficiency.

As discussed, the studies of Klanrit and Sroinam (2012) and Vacharaskunee (2000) demonstrate that teachers' beliefs about students have a powerful influence on creating an English environment in the classroom and on encouraging students to improve their speaking skills.

Another factor regarded as a major cause of the comparative failure of English teaching in Thailand is the format of speaking tests. Speaking tests in Thailand have been criticised for not assessing learner's speaking abilities in an authentic communicative context. This seems to be because even at university level, paper-based multiple-choice tests and scripted role-play are still commonly used as a form of assessment in the speaking classroom (Sinwongsuwat, 2012). Since the learners are allowed to prepare conversation scripts and tend to recite the dialogue from the script, scripted role-play is problematic because the learners do not focus on the ongoing conversation, the result being that spontaneous communication is not generated (Khamkhien, 2010). We thus see a glaring discrepancy between the aims of the national English curriculum and the test structures that are designed by Thai institutions.

In addition to student factors, teacher factors, and instructional factors, teacher education has also been found to contribute to problems of teaching speaking in Thailand. A discussion of this issue and some background information to teacher education will be presented in the next section.

2.11.3 Teacher education in Thailand

This section provides general information about teacher education in Thailand and the relevant literature.

To teach in a primary school or a high school in Thailand, teachers need to complete a five-year teacher training programme provided by either teacher training colleges called 'Rajabhat Universities' or faculties of education at other universities where the Teacher Councils of Thailand have approved their teacher education programmes. The programme includes one-year teaching practicum in a school. These two settings are of the three settings where teaching practicum occurs. The third setting is in a TESOL short certificate programme for non-Thais (Phairee et al., 2008). The first two training programmes offered for Thais are required to provide prospective teachers with knowledge and teaching skills in the field they have chosen to major in, such as Thai, English, Music, Chemistry, Physics, among others. After the completion of the programme, the students are automatically qualified for the Teacher Certificate. Nowadays, graduates in any other area of study can acquire a teacher license by completing a one-year diploma in teacher training (Shenita, 2018).

To become a teacher at a university, however, there is no requirement to obtain the Teacher Certificate and neither is there a teacher license for graduates who want to enter the profession. Therefore, it is highly possible that university teachers have limited knowledge of pedagogy and teaching theories. As the 1999 National Education Act promotes all teachers at every level to adopt learner-centred approaches, university teachers may not effectively cope with the change in English teaching policies if they do not receive adequate professional development training and active support from the government (Wichadee, 2012).

Although there is governmental control of teacher quality at the primary and secondary level, research evidence has indicated that there are problems with teacher education programmes in Thailand. Focusing on how they understood CLT, Naruemon (2013) investigated the beliefs and practices of six Thai pre-service English teachers who had been trained to be teachers according to the governmental control. Her study found that the teachers had a superficial understanding of the learner-centred approach and had problems putting it into practice as a result of a number of contextual constraints.

Concerning the discussion in section 2.11.2, Thai teachers are aware of the problems related to English assessment. From the teachers' perspectives, it has been found that although teacher education introduced them to the communicative approach, the extent to which they actually put it into practice is limited. In Vacharakunee's (2000) exploration of in-service EFL teachers' beliefs, the teachers admitted that in the classroom they focused on grammar although they had been trained to teach the communicative approach. They put this down to the fact that future examinations were grammar-focused. This finding concurs with that of Noom-ura (2013), whose questionnaire-based study investigated 34 secondary EFL teachers' perspectives on problems in English teaching in Thailand and what they saw as a need for more professional development. The study found that among the five problem areas (teachers, students, curricula and textbooks, assessment, and miscellaneous factors), assessment was considered a major factor contributing to English teaching problems (ranked the second most important factor) and assessment of listening-speaking skills was also ranked highly. This study also reported that

the teachers needed professional development as linked with teaching speaking and listening the most.

This sub-section has mentioned a lack of accredited initial training for teachers at the tertiary level. It also discussed research findings which show a lack of alignment between teacher education programmes and English assessment in Thailand. Although there has been a state-led attempt to make English teaching adopt a more communicative approach, problems associated with ineffective content in the programmes and tensions between theory and practice were noted.

According to the literature, problems in English language teaching in Thailand, particularly teaching speaking and listening, are recorded by both students and teachers. Factors seen as contributing to the issues are instructional constraints, educational policies, student factors, assessment, and teacher education programmes.

2.12 Summary

This chapter has presented an overview of teacher cognition, including the concepts of knowledge and beliefs. This study has adopted the term 'cognition' to cover both knowledge and beliefs, which are used interchangeably. The two terms are used to refer to what teachers know and believe irrespective of whether it is acceptable for others or verified as true. Regarding the term 'errors', it is generally used to mean a linguistic deviation showing incomplete learning; while 'mistakes' is used to refer to inconsistent deviation caused by external

conditions such as tiredness. When teachers treat an error or mistake, 'corrective feedback' refers to their oral responses to students' errors or mistakes. Types of corrective feedback are identified in this study according to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) categorisation.

Research on teacher cognition about what to correct has reported that findings differ according to the research focus (such as the use of articles). This can restrict research findings narrowly to focus on a specific type of errors and thus yield an incomplete picture of teacher cognition. With regard to research into types of oral corrective feedback, the findings from many studies suggest that teacher cognition related to this issue is influenced by several factors, including instructional contexts, learners, and teachers themselves. Incongruences in the findings of research into teacher cognition on corrective feedback types suggests that the research methodology guiding the interpretation of data from different sources has an impact. The review of these relevant studies has meant at this study uses data triangulation (see Chapter 3).

Apart from the methodological gap, this chapter has also discussed a gap in studies of teacher cognition. It pointed out that studies on teaching speaking in the university context are limited. The paucity of such studies suggests that this study may reveal contextual factors that have not been highlighted in previous studies. To fill these gaps, the following research questions were proposed:

RQ1: What factors influence university level Thai EFL teachers' cognition of oral corrective feedback?

RQ2: What is the teachers' cognition of types of errors?

RQ3: What is the teachers' cognition of types of corrective feedback?

As for the relevant concepts of teaching speaking, this chapter has also discussed teaching English in the WE paradigm, which is controversial both in terms of pedagogical practicality and conforming to native norms. This highlights the importance of understanding what teachers, as important agents in education, think about this issue. To provide some useful information for data interpretation related to this issue, this chapter pointed out the main questions of English teaching and teacher education in Thailand, noting that they were mostly related to teachers, students, and instructional constraints.

Having discussed the relevant literature and the context of the study, the next chapter addresses the research design adopted to answer the research questions.

Chapter 3 Research Methodology

3.1 Overview

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the design of this study and the rationale behind the use of the research instruments. The interpretive paradigm was adopted as it emphasises our understanding of what the subject is thinking in a particular context (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), which could provide rich insights into the viewpoints of the participants in this study. The study opted for a qualitative case study as it offers an opportunity to explore the holistic cognition in each participant's case. The data was triangulated through semi-structured interviews and observations across three stages of teaching. The interview schedules were informed by the previous literature. The participants, sampling strategy, and the researcher roles are presented in Section 3.3. This is followed by the data collection involving a pilot study and four sources of data. Finally, the study's validity and ethical considerations are sketched.

3.2 Research paradigm

We have different perspectives of how we see the social world just like we are looking through a different lens. A research paradigm is a way we view the world which guides us to a set of beliefs and perspectives on it (Guba, 1990; Patton, 1990). The researcher's positioning on the research paradigm is important for guiding their assumptions about knowledge, how knowledge can be acquired, and methodology they adopt (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). Each paradigm occupies three kinds of assumptions that create our whole set of beliefs: ontological, epistemological, methodological (Guba, 1990).

Ontological assumptions are concerned with the question of whether there exists a reality external to and independent of human minds or whether reality is actually internal to humans and nothing more than our individual perceptions of it (Guba & Lincoln, 1989, p.83). A realist ontology is a view that there is a reality which exists independently of our mind and assumptions; while a constructivist (relativist) ontology refers to the idea that there are multiple versions of realities constructed by individuals' interpretations of a phenomenon (Crotty, 1998; Pring, 2004). Epistemological issues are closely related to ontological matters (*is there a social reality independent of the human mind*) but address how we come to understand the world (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). A positivist epistemology asserts that we can use the scientific method to verify a reality (Swain, 2016); in contrast, interpretivists view the world through their interpretation which is socially constructed (Given, 2008).

Unlike previous research adopting an input-output approach to discover best practice in teaching, this study acknowledges the agency of the teachers in constructing their own realities relating to teaching. Therefore, a constructivist approach is more appropriate than a realist approach. Closely related to this stance, this study is grounded in the interpretivist views because realities perceived by the teachers were reported through my interpretation as a researcher. In sum, this study adopted a constructivist, interpretivist stance as philosophical positions. Following these ontological and epistemological perspectives adopted, the methods were carefully selected to enable me to investigate the teachers' cognition within the context and to enhance the trustworthiness and credibility of the study.

3.3 Research strategy and design

To outline the overall concept underpinning the study, an appropriate methodological strategy should be selected based on the research questions. Since the study focuses on 'what the teachers believe in' and 'why they think or act so', a holistic investigation into the general nature of the phenomenon of teaching was required. In addition, the main goal of the study was not to generalise data, but to produce a thick description of a particular case in a context. Therefore, the study opted for a qualitative case study approach so as to obtain rich in-depth data.

3.3.1 Qualitative case studies

To examine teacher cognition on corrective feedback in Thailand, the setting needs to be given considerable attention. A case study is a contemporary unit of human activity embedded in the real world which can only be understood in its context (Gillham, 2000). Practically, a case study can be defined as a research method that allows investigators to focus on a particular case and at the same time retains a holistic perspective of the real world (Yin, 2014). In a case study, the context is regarded as a powerful source of both causes and effects where dynamic interactions of events in a particular stance are reported (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). The aim of case studies is to obtain a rich description of participants' experiences, thoughts and feelings about a situation (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995; Yin, 2014). As such, the use of multiple sources of evidence is encouraged in case study research (Gillham, 2000; Yin, 2014). These tenets of case studies (contemporary aspect, multiple sources of evidence, and interpretation within the context) match the purpose of this study, namely, to provide an in-depth explanation of the multifaceted complexities of

teacher cognition on corrective feedback in the Thai context. The adoption of the case study framework is further discussed in section 3.4.

To sum up, this study used qualitative case studies as a methodological approach given its ability to allow researchers to highlight and explore the importance of context and generate an array of rich data for analysis.

3.3.2 Research setting

The study was conducted at three universities in Thailand. The sites were chosen due to their location, which made it more feasible for data collection visits. In addition, as cooperation is vital for successful research (especially for research extending for a long period - Cohen et al., 2007), the potential participants in the institutions showed a keen willingness to take part in the study for the intended data collection period of at least one month. The teachers were observed on courses according to their preferences and teaching assignments. A lesson of the observed courses lasted between one and two hours.

3.3.3 Sampling strategy

Essentially, in qualitative sampling the participants are the representatives that will provide an optimum understanding of the phenomenon in question. However, since this research investigates the in-depth cognition of individual teachers, which might intrude on their privacy and their time, volunteer sampling was used because securing the participants' permission to observe their classes is important both in terms of professional courtesy and in order to minimise any

potential impact of the observation on lesson planning and implementation (Mackey & Gass, 2005). As Cohen, Manion, & Morrison (2007) suggested, this technique is particularly recommended in cases where access is difficult.

For the pilot study, I gained the verbal permission of the Head of the Department to access the institution and approach six potential participants. After meeting all six in person, two of them declined to join the study, making four teachers who were willing to participate. Regarding recruitment for the main study, I emailed 11 potential participants recommended by a member of the Language Department of each institution to provide them with brief information about the study together with the consent form and to request permission for a 15 minute in-person meeting. Two weeks later, I had received responses from nine of the 11: eight offered to attend the meeting while one rejected to participate for personal reasons. After meeting the eight potential participants, one decided not to participate in the study due to her workload. This left seven teachers who voluntarily joined the study. This means that, taking the pilot and the main study together, a total of 11 teachers willingly participated in the study. According to Teddlie and Tashakkori's (2009) guideline to sample size in a qualitative inquiry, the number of participants in a case study of individuals often ranges from six to 24, depending on factors such as research funds and the researcher's time constraints. Given financial and time constraints, the number of 11 participants was deemed appropriate for this study.

3.3.4 Participants

The study was conducted with eleven Thai English lecturers at three universities in Thailand. Nine were female and two were male. All eleven were teaching EFL. Diann, James, Jane, and Eve were from University A; Thomas, Karen, and Julie were from University B; Denise, Natalie, Stefani, and Emma were from University C.

Table 1: Summary of the participants' background

Case	Teaching experiences (years)	Professional coursework	Initial teacher training	Experiences in teaching speaking	Observed course
Diann*	23	Yes	No	Yes	Fundamental English
James	2	Yes	No	Yes	Fundamental English
Jane	5	Yes	No	Yes	Fundamental English
Eve	5	Yes	Yes	Yes	Fundamental English
Thomas	2	Yes	No	No	Fundamental Listening and Speaking
Karen	15	Yes	No	Yes	Intermediate Listening and Speaking
Julie	16	Yes	Yes	Yes	Fundamental Listening and Speaking
Denise	7	Yes	Yes	Yes	Fundamental Listening and Speaking
Natalie	2	Yes	Yes	Yes	Business English
Stefani	4	No	No	Yes	Fundamental Listening and Speaking
Emma	12	Yes	No	Yes	Fundamental Listening and Speaking

*All the participants' names in this thesis are pseudonyms.

The participants' background information in Table 1 shows that their English teaching experience varied from two to 23 years. Of the 11 teachers, three (James, Thomas, and Natalie) were new to teaching, having each two years' experience. Two (Jane and Stefani) had enjoyed other careers before entering the teaching profession. Four (Karen, Julie, Stefani, and Emma) had lived in an English-speaking country for two to five years for educational purposes. Regarding their educational background, most of them had received professional training through their master's degree in Teaching English or Applied Linguistics but had no initial teacher qualification since they did not have a bachelor's degree in Education. Only five of them (Eve, Julie, Natalie, Denise, Diann) had a bachelor's degree in education, meaning they were accredited by the Teaching License and had been through teaching practicum.

Almost all of them had taught a course relating to speaking skills before participating in the study. Thomas was the only teacher who was teaching speaking for the first time at the time of the data collection. The courses observed in almost every case were fundamental English courses, except in the cases of Natalie, whose observed course was in business English, and Karen, who was teaching on an intermediate listening and speaking course. Every course was taught on two days per week for either one or two hours per day. The objective of the fundamental courses was to improve students' listening and speaking skills in everyday situations. Regarding the business English course, the objective was to develop students' English skills for the business world. The intermediate course was aimed at developing of communicative skills in different daily-life situations.

The participants' teaching context

The participants work at three public universities in Thailand. Although the universities designed the curriculum themselves, approval from the Office of the Higher Education Commission was needed before implementation. Following approval, the universities designed their own exams for each course. In all three universities, the exams were set by an exam board comprising the selected lecturers in the department. Regarding teaching methods, the teachers are given a free hand. However, the teaching content and the selection of coursebooks are agreed by the lecturers who are teaching on the same course. There is no requirement for teachers to use English as a medium in the class. Therefore, most of the teachers in this study spoke Thai during the observed lessons. The students' ages range from 17 to 22 and class sizes from 20 to 50 students. Although each institution has English-major students, there were no English major students in any of the observed lessons.

University A: Background information

There are approximately 9,000 students at University A. The class sizes range from 40 to 50 students. The university provides various degrees, from high vocational certificates and bachelor's degrees to master's degrees. For a bachelor's degree, students apply to the programmes with their high vocational certificates or high school certificates, together with the scores of the national entrance exam organised by the Thai University Central Admission System. However, it is possible for students not to present the scores from a written exam if they apply through a quota method in which students' portfolios are considered. There are no specific requirements regarding the English proficiency level as measured in exam scores. However, students applying for

the English major need a minimum score of 200 in TOEIC². The observed course at University A was the fundamental English course which is compulsory for all first-year students. It focuses on four integrated skills—speaking, listening, reading, and writing. The exam is designed by the exam committee, whose members are from the lecturers in the Department of Foreign Languages.

University B: Background information

There are approximately 4,000 students at University B. Class sizes range from 20 to 30 students. The university provides bachelor's, master's and doctoral degrees. Bachelor's degree students need to have graduated from a high school or a high vocational school. However, students with high vocational school certificates can only apply for certain areas of study. There is a requirement for minimum national entrance exam scores (in percentages) in the English language for some departments. The minimum percentage ranges from 20 to 30, except for students applying at the English Department, who need at least 35 per cent in their English scores. Two courses were observed at this university: a fundamental English course which is compulsory for all first-year students and the other is an elective course for students in the second, third, and fourth years of study. The fundamental course focuses on basic speaking and listening skills, while the elective course aims at teaching conversational skills. The exam for the compulsory course was designed by the exam committee, whose members are lecturers in the Department of Foreign Languages, while the elective course exam is designed by the instructor who is assigned to teach the course.

² The Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) is claimed by the test designers to be a test "to assess English-language proficiency across all four language skills needed to succeed in the global workplace" (www.ets.org).

University C: Background information

There are approximately 3,500 students at University C. Class sizes range from 25 to 50 students. The university offers bachelor's and master's degrees. Bachelor's degree students are required to have graduated from a high school or a high vocational school. However, students with high vocational school certificates can only apply for certain areas of study. There is no requirement for minimum exam scores in the English language for every programme of study. Two courses were observed at this university: a fundamental English course compulsory for all first-year students and an elective course for students in the second, third, and fourth years of study. The fundamental course focuses on basic speaking and listening skills, while the elective course aims at developing the communicative skills needed in the workplace. The exam for the compulsory course was designed by the exam committee, whose members are lecturers in the Department of Foreign Languages, while that for the elective course is designed by the instructor assigned to teach the course.

3.3.5 The researcher's role toward the participants

Carefully managing the role of a qualitative researcher at research sites with the participants of research is essential since research is always intrusive and disruptive (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). This intrusiveness and disruption could easily distort the research data and research results. Hence the goal of the researcher's positioning is to reduce intrusiveness as much as possible, so I determined to be 'a professional stranger' (Flick, 1998, p.60) who is accepted, becomes familiar and yet remains 'distant' from the participants. Although I was acquainted with some participants, I did not conduct the study from an insider's

perspective. This stance allowed me to secure cooperation, retain neutrality, and obtain in-depth information from the participants. Regarding the researcher's role in the observation, in order to capture the real nature of classroom phenomena, I did not participate in any classroom activities. These non-participant observations (Dörnyei, 2007) resolve the problems of participants' distrustful reactions to interviews and questionnaires (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

3.4 Data collection

To fully answer the research questions, the data were collected from four sources: background interview, lesson observations, stimulated recall, and post-observation interview.

For an in-depth investigation, multimethods (multiple forms of data collection) of data collection are recommended (Yin, 2014). More specifically, in the field of teacher cognition, Kagan (1990) recommends multimethods of data collection because they help to capture "the complex, multifaceted aspects of teaching and learning" (p.459). He set out five approaches to evaluate teachers' beliefs: (a) direct and noninferential ways of assessing teacher belief, (b) methods that rely on contextual analyses of teachers' descriptive language, (c) taxonomies for assessing self-reflection and metacognition, (d) multimethod evaluations of pedagogical content knowledge and beliefs, and (e) concept mapping. The present study used multimethods given their appropriateness for the set research questions and the purpose to develop a comprehensive picture of teacher cognition. In the social sciences, triangulation of two or more methods

of data collection could help to explain complex aspects of human behaviour because the researcher is able to investigate them from different standpoints (Cohen et al., 2007), particularly when a case study is involved (Adelman, Kemmis, & Jenkins, 1980). In addition, triangulation can also enhance the trustworthiness of a study (Lincoln & Guba as cited in Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). For these reasons, multimethods were applied in this study. Each method of data collection is explained chronologically in the process of the data collection (see Figure 4).

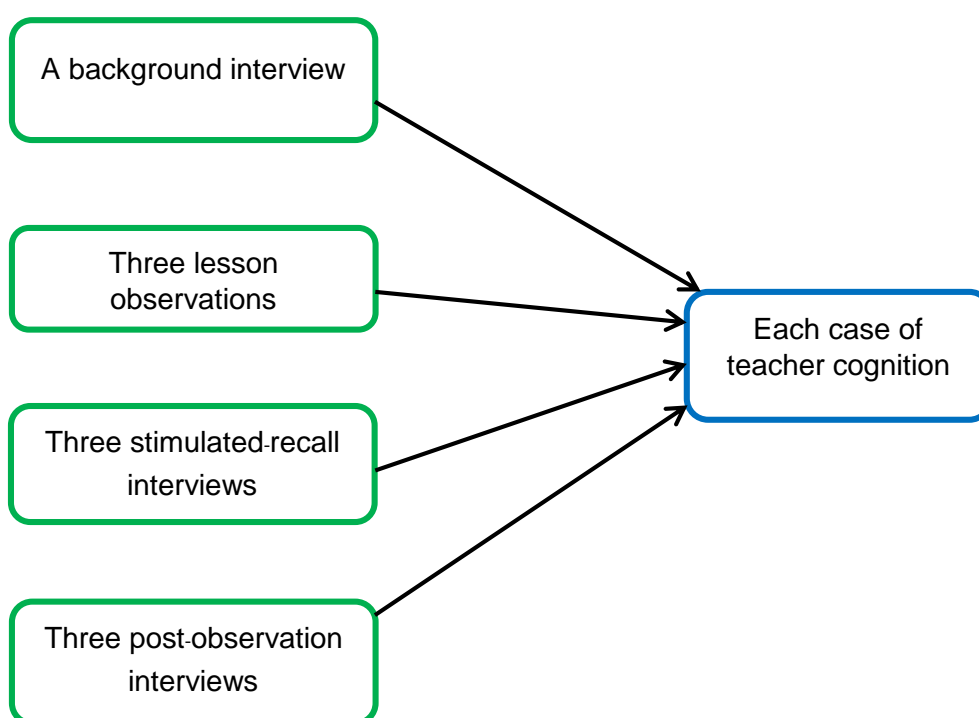


Figure 4: Triangulation of data sources

As can be seen in Figure 4 this study investigates teacher cognition using background interviews, lessons observations, stimulated-recall interviews, and post-observation interviews. Different types of interview were used instead of questionnaires because interviews tend to allow the researcher to penetrate

deeper into the reasons that the participants do what they do or think what they think, which is the overarching purpose of the study. As Cohen, Manion, & Morrison (2007) claim, an interview can be used to avoid misunderstandings about questions, clarify answers, and elicit complex issues by letting the interviewees express and expand on their points of view. In addition, interviews are suitable for phenomena that cannot be observed directly (Mackey & Gass, 2005), which is an inherent characteristic of cognition.

All the interviews were semi-structured. In this type of interview, the interviewer provides an outline for the direction of the interview by asking 'guiding' questions designed to allow the interviewees to elaborate on the issues at hand (Bryman, 2008; Dörnyei, 2007). As Kvale (1996) writes, qualitative research interviews should not be too tightly structured so as to highlight the emerging theme; however, there still needs to be a certain amount of 'direction' to guide the conversation and make it relevant to the subject under investigation. This study hence acknowledged the advantages of semi-structured interviews to maximise the possibility of obtaining a rich set of data from the teachers, while not neglecting to organise the interviews so as to ensure that the interview data explored the research goals and questions. The interview questions were mostly open-ended because open-ended questions provide an opportunity for the researcher to probe deeper into the respondent's knowledge and beliefs, while at the same time teasing out any new ideas or hypotheses (Cohen et al., 2007). For example, the question 'What do you think about errors in the speaking classroom?' was used instead of 'Do you think errors need to be corrected?' as the latter to some degree predetermines the answer. Interesting issues and themes emerging from the previous interviews were taken into account when

setting the questions of subsequent interviews. After an interview with each teacher, when certain assumptions could be made from the data, interview questions designed to test the assumptions were added in the interview schedule because seeking a rival explanation could help to strengthen the findings (Yin, 2014).

Although it can be intimidating for interviewees, the interviews were audio-recorded to catch all the details of the responses. However, all the participants were informed about the recording before the interview. The interview was carried out in the Thai language in order to minimise anxiety and stress on behalf of the interviewees. Since the data collection was modified as a result of the pilot study, the pilot study is explained in detail below.

3.4.1 Pilot study

The purposes of the pilot study were to allow me to refine data collection plans and to develop the research instruments. Moreover, it was an opportunity for me to develop my interview and observation skills and allow me to identify some of the potential problems and pitfalls of the process and also contemplate ways of resolving and/or avoiding them. Another aim of the pilot study was to develop an understanding of the educational theories and methods held by the participants so that I could develop a clearer framework for the study (Maxwell, 2013). Actual amendments resulting from the pilot study involved how to manage the stimulated-recall interviews and how to deal with the lesson observations.

The pilot study led me to conclude that a stimulated recall should be conducted at the earliest possible opportunity after the observations because it was evident that a number of teachers had difficulty recalling their interactive cognition in the delayed interviews. In contrast, when an interview was conducted one day after the observation, the teachers were able to answer questions immediately and with more clarity and focus. It was found that when the participants were not available within two days after an observation due to a tight schedule, providing them with some contextual background to the lesson and an explanation of the interview questions facilitated their recall memory.

The pilot study also resulted in me discarding the observation schedule because, firstly, it was found that it did not help to uncover emerging types of errors and feedback and factors affecting the teachers' decision-making. Trying to put data into the pre-set categories seemed to be obstructing the identification of emerging themes. Therefore, the planned observation schedule was not used in the main study. As for how to conduct the observations, it became clear that the presence of the observer during the observations affected the teachers' and students' behaviour. For this reason, non-participant observations were used in the main study. The pilot study was also useful for the management of voice recording. During the first observation, a video camera only was used to record both voice and moving images in the lesson. However, the voices turned out to be poor quality. Consequently, in the main study, the teachers were asked to clip an MP3 recorder on their collars during the observations in order to enhance the quality of the voice recordings.

The contributions of the pilot study can be summarised as follows:

- Develop the quality of video recordings and observation voice-recordings;
- Allow the researcher to evaluate the usefulness of the research instruments;
- Affirm the methodology applied in the main study.

The next section explains each stage of data collection: background interviews, lesson observations, stimulated-recall interviews, and post-observation interviews.

3.4.2 Background interviews

The background interview aimed at investigating the teachers' background information about their teaching and learning experiences, as well as factors that might affect their beliefs about error correction (see Section 2.5.4). The questions were informed by the insights from the three models. Therefore, the interview schedule (see Appendix H) was organised in sections according to the possible factors informed by the models and the related literature (see Section 2.6). The main sections were education (prior learning experiences), training, nature of tasks and content, students, contextual factors (class sizes, exams, university policy, and cultural factors). However, issues in other topics were also addressed as a result of the flow of the conversations and the emerging themes.

3.4.3 Lesson observations

The lesson observations were used to investigate the teachers' classroom practices and to explore possible emerging themes for the next stages of the data collection – the stimulated-recall interview and the post-observation interview.

The reasons for selecting the observations were twofold: the advantages they offer for obtaining direct information; and because they are firsthand accounts rather than self-reported accounts (Dörnyei, 2007; Merriam, 2001). Moreover, since there was a possibility that the teachers might report only the information they think the interviewer is seeking (Patton, 2002), observations can be used to test the participants' responses in the subsequent interviews. Additionally, observations are recommended for exploring teacher cognition because it is a phenomenon which is more comprehensively and deeply understood when both what teachers think and what they do are considered holistically (Borg, 2003).

In this study, three observations were carried out with each participant. Borg (2006) suggests that in a study of language teacher cognition, there is no hard and fast rule as to the number of observations although the more observations are conducted, the more claims about the teacher can be made. He added that the decision as to the number of observations should be based on time constraints and the availability of teachers. Shih (2013) studied the appropriate number of classroom observations by providing empirical evidence from multiple ratings of mathematics classrooms from 69 middle school teachers and found that three observations were valid to capture habitual classroom

environments. The purpose of her study was to provide empirical evidence to address these concerns using a particular middle school mathematics classroom observation tool. Data included multiple ratings of mathematics classrooms from 69 middle school teachers within 11 districts that were analysed using generalisability theory. The findings suggested that raters trained to use this particular measure required three observations to capture habitual classroom environments. Considering the timescale of this study, three observations were conducted per participant because this number ensured the reliability of the study while allowing me to stay within the given time constraints.

To maximise the completeness of the analysis, the observations were audio-visual recorded. Although videotaping may be intrusive, its undeniable advantages in revealing the real nature of classroom activity mean its advantages outweigh its drawbacks (Dörnyei, 2007).

3.4.4 Stimulated-recall interviews

When the data from the background interview and the lesson observation had been analysed, the stimulated-recall interview was used to investigate the interactive cognition of the teachers. It was an introspection procedure in which participants were prompted to recall their interactive thoughts in an activity (Gass & Mackey, 2000). Stimulated recalls have been used extensively in research on language teaching, especially in cognitively oriented research (e.g. Evans, 2009; Gass & Mackey, 2000; Gass, 2001) because it is believed that this method is able to enhance access to vivid and accurate memory of a situation (Bloom, 1954). Stimulated recalls are useful for three reasons: 1) they help

isolate an event from the stream of consciousness; 2) they help to determine the organisation of the knowledge used in solving communication problems; and 3) they help to specify when a cognitive process such as decision-making is used (Gass & Mackey, 2000). Consequently, stimulated recalls were used in this study in three broad ways: to ascertain the teachers' thinking processes related to decision-making in the classroom; to help the teachers self-reflect on their own practices, which may not have been in line with their stated cognition; to contribute to revealing factors relating to their decision making, which resulted in a fuller picture of their cognition.

The questions for stimulated-recall interviews were partly informed by Shavelson and Stern's (1981) model of teachers' judgments and pedagogical decisions regarding possible factors that might influence teachers' decision-making. The factors highlighted by the model are ability, motivation, and behaviour. However, most of the questions were posed as a response to the emerging themes from the observations. The questions focused on the teachers' interactive thoughts; therefore, words such as 'ในขณะนั้น' ('at that moment' in Thai) and 'กำลัง' (a word indicating an ongoing event) were added to the questions to remind the teachers that they were being asked about their thoughts at a particular moment in an ongoing event.

The stimulated-recall interviews were conducted in the Thai language to facilitate the participants to express more fully their cognition and decision-making. All the stimulated-recall interviews were audio-recorded to ensure the precise transcription of the data.

3.4.5 Post-observation interviews

The purpose of the post-observation interviews was to examine the teachers' cognition after their practices, especially aspects related to any information gaps which were noted in the previous interviews. The results of this interview could strengthen or contradict their cognition as it was inferred from the two previous stages (background interview and stimulated recall). As Kerlinger (1970) suggests, post-observation interviews may be used to garner deep explanations of the motives behind actions and to validate other methods. The data from the two previous sources were then used in the discussion of the post-observation interview. Therefore, the interview questions were based on the emerging themes in the background interview and stimulated-recall interview. The purposes of each data collection stage are summarised in Table 2.

Table 2: Purposes of each data collection stage

Stage	Purpose
1. Background interview	Explore initial cognition about teaching speaking and corrective feedback, the sources of their cognition, and possible factors affecting their cognition
2. Classroom observation	Explore links with stated cognition from background interviews (in the case of the first observation) and from the previous observations (in the case of other observations)
3. Stimulated-recall interview	Examine interactive cognition, affirm pre-thought processes, the rationale for pedagogical decisions and the influence of contextual factors
4. Post-observation interview	Explore the cognition about teaching speaking and corrective feedback after classroom practices, test assumptions and clarify themes and issues raised from the previous interviews

3.5 Procedures

The data collection process was cyclical, with three phases for each cycle. Each phase was composed of a lesson observation, followed by a stimulated-recall interview and a post-observation interview. However, before the first phase, a background interview was administered with each teacher at the beginning of the observed course to assess their pre-practice cognition about corrective feedback focusing on their overall cognition about error correction, types of errors that they believed should be corrected, how they thought errors should be corrected, and their personal experiences relating to learning and teaching English. Then, the interview data was analysed to find interesting aspects that should be further investigated in the lesson observations. After the video-recorded lesson, crucial incidents that seemed to confirm or contradict what the teacher said in the background interview were noted and explored in the later interview. Similarly, other classroom incidents relating to error correction were used as probes in the stimulated-recall interview in order to elicit emerging themes from the teacher. The video clip containing the critical incidents and interesting themes found in the observations was created and used as a stimulus in the stimulated-recall interview.

Most of the stimulated recall interviews were conducted within 48 hours of the observation to fulfil the criterion of reliability (Henderson & Tallman, 2006), except in certain cases where the participant was unavailable within that period. In the stimulated-recall interviews, the teachers were told to pause the clip or replay part of it at any point of the interview should they so wish. Also, they could raise any other points they would like to even if they were not directly relevant to the interview question. Most of the time, I paused the clip myself after

the focused event was played. The interview questions which had emerged from the background interview and the analysis of the previous stage of data collection were asked.

After the stimulated-recall interview, the post-observation interview was carried out. The time lapse between the stimulated-recall interview and the post-observation interview depended on the availability of the participants. When finishing the post-observation interview, the participants were asked for the next lesson observation. The decision of which lesson would be observed was made by the participants in order not to intrude their teaching management. Then the second and third phase of data collection started with the next lesson observations.

All in all, each teacher participated in 7 interviews and 3 observations, making 77 interviews and 33 observations for all teachers. The process of data collection is summarised in Figure 5.

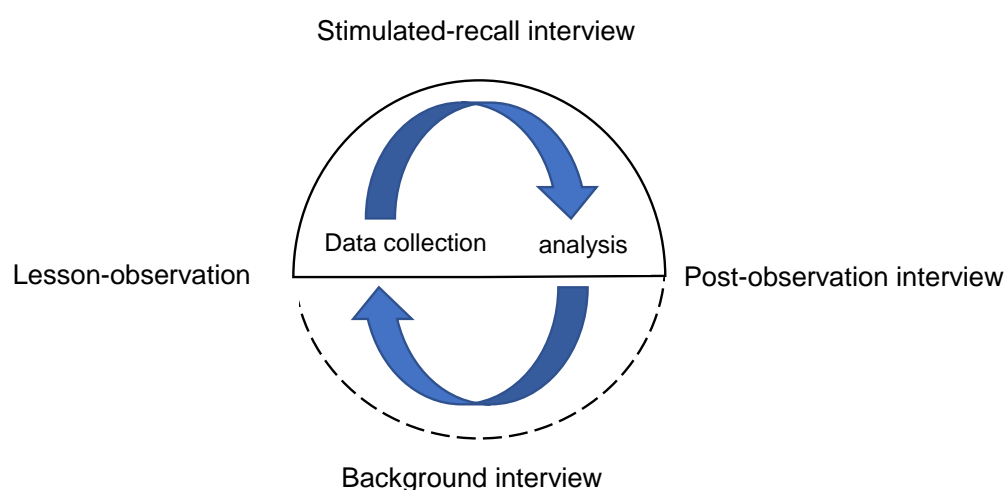


Figure 5: Process of data collection

3.6 Data analysis

Thematic analysis was adopted as an approach to analysing the data of this present study. It involves identifying themes, searching for commonalities and relationships, which are useful for reducing data while preserving the context (Mills, Durepos, & Wiebe, 2010). The analysis was related to both deductive and inductive approach. In other words, the research questions and related theories were used in the preliminary analysis to guide the tentative themes which should be examined in the later stages while salient themes and categories inducting from the research data were explored in the follow-up analysis. The two approaches were used throughout the analysis. As Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) suggest, making a clear dividing point between the deductive and inductive approach would be an oversimplification.

Data analysis was carried out through three main stages: transcription of the interviews and lesson observations, coding of the interview and observational data, and data interpretation. Initially, the process was cyclical, beginning from transcription to interpretation. However, the analysis was developing through an iterative process where each stage of analysis was revisited throughout the process. Figure 6 illustrates the analysis process.

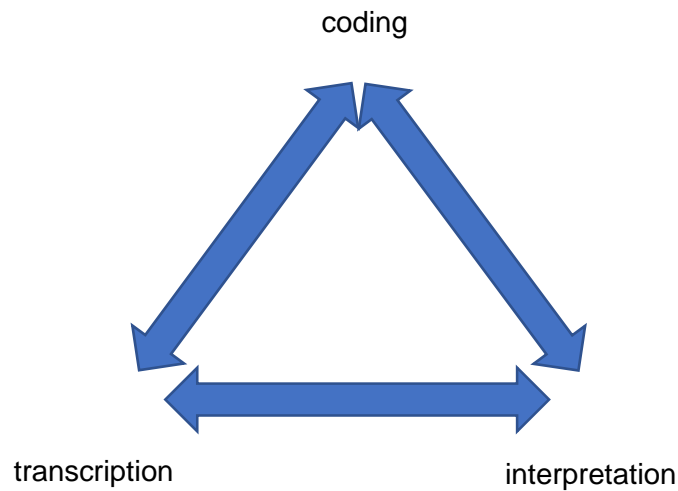


Figure 6: Process of individual case analysis

3.6.1 Transcription

Every interview was transcribed through a non-verbatim approach (pauses and non-verbal utterances such as ‘ummm’, throat clearing, laughter, and silences were not included) since the verbatim would not add anything to the answers to the research questions. Moreover, as it is a time-consuming process, verbatim transcription can reduce the researcher’s engagement in the fieldwork, which might result in decontextualised data (Loubere, 2017). The interviews were transcribed within 48 hours after they were held so that the intended meanings of the speech would be more easily recalled. This was also useful for coding in the next stage.

To minimise any potential confusion from information overload caused by doing a concurrent analysis of two or three teachers and interviewing them on the same day, a data management strategy was adopted whereby the key

information from each interview was highlighted and kept in separate notes in order for it to be recalled in the next interview.

Regarding the lesson videos, the fragments were selected based on the research questions. However, to investigate how the teachers decided which error to select for correction, both treated and untreated errors were raised in the interviews. The video segments selected to be part of the recording which was to be used as stimuli in the stimulated-recall interview had to meet at least one of the following criteria. First, it showed students' spoken errors. Second, it contained the teacher's correction of students' errors. Third, it was likely to relate to assumptions emerging from the previous data as evidence to confirm or refute them. Lastly, it triggered interesting questions or themes that suggested further investigation. In this way, the data could be investigated extensively and be cross-checked to enhance its credibility. Then, the conversations between the teachers and students were transcribed in the same way as the interview transcripts. Physical interactions, gestures, and facial expressions were not transcribed because the camera could not capture all of them (and anyway they were not the focus of the study). However, they were useful for allowing the teachers to recognise the reasons behind their feedback when being questioned in the stimulated-recall interviews.

3.6.2 Data coding

After the transcription stage, the interview transcripts were read a number of times. Important words or phrases were highlighted to capture the preliminary assumptions from the transcripts. Then, analytic thoughts arising from the

readings were recorded. When the first reading stage was completed, the coding stage began. Coding is a process of creating a category to capture a conceptual feature of data (Gibson & Brown, 2009). Every interview was coded in two main stages: preliminary coding and in-depth coding. However, this was an iterative process throughout the analysis in order to reflect on the emergent codes or themes.

The coding was mainly carried out using NVivo10 software³, especially during the cross-case analysis. However, a pen-and-paper approach - highlighting and making notes - was used initially to explore the cognition of individual cases.

3.6.2.1 Preliminary coding

Although the three models of teacher cognition (see Section 2.5) were used as a framework to set the interview questions, the preliminary coding was mainly inductive – ideas and assumptions were primarily drawn from the data in order not to limit possible concepts initiated by the research participants. As Harding (2013) recommends, premature coding based on the literature might prevent the researcher from catching the valuable information from the sources. The purpose of this stage was to get familiar with the data and capture the main ideas of the transcripts. It served to provide summaries of the transcripts, an initial step to further analysis (Harding, 2013). It also allowed me to identify gaps

³ NVivo is a Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis software which is designed to facilitate the organisation and analysis of qualitative data (<http://www.qsrinternational.com>).

in the information, which prompted me to elicit more from the participants at the next stage of data collection.

During the data collection and analysis, the question "Do any data contradict this assumption?" arose. When the assumption was challenged, the data verification was conducted in the next interview. For example, in the stimulated-recall interview the teacher explained her feedback style as, "I wanted them not to be serious about making mistakes. I didn't want them to feel guilty." This chunk of text was labelled as 'making mistakes is common'. Then, comments on this concept were added in the margin of the transcript, "Does this concept apply to every type of error?" and "Why did she think making mistakes is commonplace?" to probe for more information in the post-observation interview. Another example of preliminary coding in relation to a corrected error is when the teacher justified her correction by saying, "They always made this mistake". This was coded as "correcting common errors". This code was considered as a hint of possible patterns in this particular teacher case and was explored further in the later stage of data collection.

3.6.2.2 In-depth coding

In the primary coding, the relevant literature and theories were highlighted as a guide to tentative themes and categories. However, in the in-depth coding, when the data could not fit into the preexisting codes, new codes were created to allow any emerging themes. After the data collection, the data of individual cases from all sources were analysed and interpreted, and then triangulation was adopted to amalgamate key issues emerging across the individuals (Cohen et al., 2007).

After that, the data from all cases were triangulated to infer the teachers' cognition about corrective feedback to answer the research questions.

This stage of coding aimed at revising the codes in the preliminary stage and grouping them into categories in order to search for patterns or themes of each case. The coding measures recommended by Harding (2013) were applied because they facilitated the analysis of a large data set from 77 interviews and 33 lesson observations. The process occurred in three steps: putting codes into categories, revising the codes in the categories, and identifying codes that should be discarded and new codes that should be added. These steps, like the preliminary coding, were processed iteratively.

The preliminary codes were re-investigated along with the contexts before being grouped into categories. The categories were initially driven by the three models of teacher cognition, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) typology of corrective feedback, and types of error categorised by language components: phonological, lexical, and grammatical errors. For instance, when the preliminary codes "making mistakes is common" was explored in its context, it appeared that the teacher used this concept as a justification for giving explicit correction. Therefore, this code was put into the category of 'explicit correction'. However, some preliminary codes could not fit into the categories gleaned from the literature review. This was managed through the revision stage. Take the code 'correcting common errors' as an example. When considering the context, the teacher said further in the stimulated recall interview that "They (common errors) were mostly about mispronunciation, but sometimes about grammar".

This showed that common errors in her sense were not specific to a linguistic component. For this reason, the code could not be categorised into priori types. Therefore, when this theme later re-emerged from the data, it was added to the new category. It should be noted here that the coding of error types and corrective feedback types according to the previous literature was an attempt to investigate whether the teachers' cognition was in alignment with the literature or not, as restricting the scope of categories might lead to a false interpretation of data.

Although the codes at this step were preliminarily determined by the literature in order to meet the research objectives, other ideas of the transcripts were also coded to ensure that none were neglected. However, some ideas were indirectly relevant to the research objectives, such as additional information added by the participants. These ideas were all firstly coded as 'miscellaneous'. By doing so, the coding could be revised when those extra codes also emerged from other transcripts or seemed to have connections with the codes developed from the literature. In addition, revising the codes was useful for discovering connections among them and for creating subcategories. For example, under the category of 'elicitation', 'elicitation from the class' and 'elicitation from the speaker' were subcategorised. Developing subcategories facilitated the links to other codes in a more in-depth way and led to a coding system, which was helpful for subsequent analysis and interpretation.

3.6.3 Interpretation

Although interpretation is normally engaged in qualitative analysis throughout the entire data collection process (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005), comparisons and

relationships among the codes and categories were examined at this stage. The investigation of relationships between codes is significant for developing themes emerging from the data (Gibson & Brown, 2009).

In the analysis of this present study, when the themes emerging from the interview data contrasted with evidence from the lesson observation, the reasons behind the incongruence were investigated. In addition, how a code or a category related to one another was explored. For instance, after exploring the code of 'recast' and of 'mispronunciation' in one of the cases, it appeared that these two codes often concurred. In the next stage of data collection, this relationship was probed for more in-depth cognition. In this way, the factors underlying the teachers' practices were revealed and their cognition was more clearly and holistically apparent.

Along the interpretation process, the codes and categories were explored to find the key themes in each case. The themes were the results of "coding, categorisation, and analytic reflection" (Saldaña, 2009, p.13). Themes in the present study were the concepts that underlay the teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to error correction. These conceptual themes were drawn from different transcripts of various stages of data collection. For example, when the teacher explained the way she gave corrective feedback by referring to her concern about the students' confidence and brought this concept up again in the stimulated-recall interview to explain why she gave the correction herself and did not elicit it from the student, the emerging theme could be 'student confidence'. This tentative theme was more apparent when she used the same concept to justify why she avoided overcorrection. Considering other sections of

all transcripts and observations, there was no contradiction in this assumption. Although in some transcripts this theme might not be directly referred to, such as when the teacher said, "I was afraid they didn't dare to speak", it could be assumed that the theme of this case was student confidence. In sum, the concepts that could explain patterns found in the data were identified by considering whether they could explain relationships between different parts of the data (Harding, 2013).

Throughout the process of coding, decisions in relation to coding and interpretation, such as the concepts of codes, how they could relate to other codes or categories, questions arising while coding, the impression about the data, and ideas drawing from the interpretation, were all recorded as a memo. The memo was explored along with the interpretation. Below is part of the memo which was used to develop a theme.

Coding and interpretation memo – errors corrected by the teachers

Across all cases, one reason why the errors types revealed from the observations were not varied might be the task focus. When the focus was on phrasal verbs, the students rarely made grammatical mistakes. Therefore, the teachers' correction of grammatical errors was rare.

These ideas were noted after the revision of the codes emerging from the transcripts of some teachers. At that stage, the task focus was one of the tentative themes, so the teachers were asked for their opinions on this point. Most of them agreed with the idea and referred to the task focus as part of the lesson focus and the course objectives. However, it was later found that some of the teachers were not overly influenced by the lesson objectives when it came

to task assignment. According to their practices, they assigned the students to practice speaking the structure and/or content that was not in the task focus. This contrasted with the tentative theme of 'task focus' noted in the memo. Therefore, this contradiction was investigated subsequently in the interview. It was found that they focused more on how the students could apply what they learned in the classroom to real-world communication. For this reason, it appeared that the task focus could not cover the explanation of selective correction. As Harding (2013) suggests, conceptual themes tend to be hidden causes of a number of issues. Therefore, the codes 'task focus' and 'lesson objectives' were broadened to 'curriculum goals', and a new code of 'real-world communication' was created. The summary of major themes emerging from each case is illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3: Themes of individual cases

Themes of individual cases	Case
Curriculum goals	Eve, Thomas, Karen, Denise, Julie
Student motivation	Emma, Julie
Real-world communication	Diann, Stefani, Karen, Julie
Student confidence	James, Jane, Denise, Natalie, Stefani, Emma, Julie
Time constraints	Thomas, Natalie
Student proficiency	Karen, Natalie
Washback	James, Jane
Source of errors	Diann
Student behaviours	Eve
Student ability to self-correct	Eve

When the conceptual themes of each case were discovered, cross-analysis among the data from all participants and data sources was carried out

to identify shared and controversial themes. Finally, the data was interpreted and linked to the previous studies, theories and frameworks to ensure theoretical coherence and explain the phenomena. The main findings were drawn up at this stage.

3.6.4 Overarching themes across cases

As can be seen in the individual case analyses, similarities and differences and relationships were identified to discover the themes of each individual case. Similarly, searching for commonalities, differences, and relationships across a data set are the process of thematic analysis, which leads to “aggregated themes within data” (Gibson & Brown, 2009, p.127). After the themes that cut across cases were identified, all the cases were grouped according to those themes. This section illustrates how the overarching themes were devised. The dominant themes of individual cases drawn from the individual case analyses were used as a starting point to identify shared themes across cases. The overarching themes were explored by examining commonalities and differences. The process of exploring overarching themes is illustrated in Figure 7.

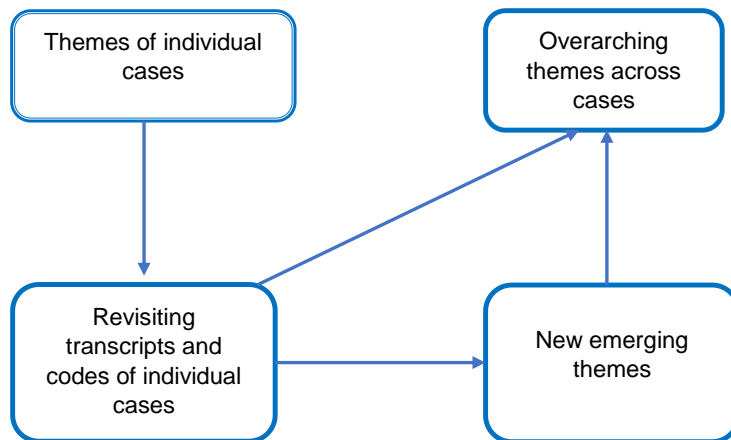


Figure 7: Process of investigating overarching themes

3.6.4.1 Examining commonality and differences

Similarities persisting across all the cases were identified. The case summaries were revisited to reflect on tentative commonalities because knowledge about individual cases could help develop cross-case analysis (Bazeley, 2013). Codes which brought about those themes were also reinvestigated to find any unanimous agreement about a common theme (Harding, 2013).

As can be seen in Table 3, the most common themes among the cases are curriculum goals and student confidence. It was likely that these two themes aggregated the cases in the dataset. As Miles, Huberman, & Saldana (2014) note, finding patterns using thematic analysis relates to counting because a pattern must occur more than once. To find out whether the two themes cut across other cases, the transcripts of each case and the codes at these two themes were reexamined. It was found that washback, which was the main theme of James' and Jane's cognition, was related to the concept of complying

to curriculum goals, which was the main theme of Denise, Natalie, Stefani, Emma, and Julie. It was found that James' and Jane's comments relating to washback associated with curriculum goals. James commented in the background interview on the effects of the exam on his teaching.

Extract 1: James' comments on the exam effects (BG)

Satima: What do you think about the course book?

James: It's suitable for the students' proficiency level. Its content is not too easy nor too difficult. But the units are too many. I wish the content was less so that I could assign more speaking practices to the students.

Satima: It seems that the course material really affects your teaching and that it sets the boundary of content you teach in the course.

James: Absolutely. The midterm exam is coming.

Satima: Do you mean the exam affects your teaching?

James: Definitely. It definitely has effects on my teaching because if the students couldn't do well in the exam, I'd reconsider my teaching.

It can be noticed from the extract that James mentioned the exam himself when answering the question about the course material. He related his teaching to the course objectives, which were, for him, determined by the course book. The course objectives then influenced his teaching because he wanted the students to do well in the exam. It could be assumed that the students' performance in the exam was the major factor considered in his teaching practice. Considering this assumption together with his case summary, it is likely that the course objectives were related to his dominant theme of washback.

Similarly, Jane made links between the course objectives and the exam when she was asked in the background interview about her teaching of different speaking courses.

Extract 2: Jane's comments on the exam effects (BG)

Satima: How do you teach other speaking courses?

Jane: I teach other courses a bit differently especially if they focus only on speaking skills. This course (I am teaching) doesn't. I'll focus less on grammar in those courses.

Satima: Do you mean you focus more on grammar in this current course?

Jane: Yes, because it's an important part of the exam.

Satima: Does it mean the exam affect your teaching?

Jane: Exactly. I'll see what's the exam about and make sure my teaching matches with the exam content.

According to Extract 2, Jane related the objectives of the observed course to the exam. She revealed that the exam directed the content she was teaching on the course, a clear example of washback. Again, when her case summary was investigated, it became clearer that washback could be categorised in the theme of curriculum goals.

After the transcripts were more thoroughly investigated, the concept of curriculum goals was broadened and this theme was associated with two more cases – James and Jane. To examine whether it was also the case with the other teachers, I referred back to the NVivo coding relating to the course objectives by using the query functions. It was found that curriculum goals

played a role in all the cases but differed somewhat on a case-by-case basis. In a similar way, the theme of student confidence was reinvestigated to ascertain whether it was common across cases. Based on all sources of data, student confidence influenced all the cases to some extent.

Similar to the theme of washback, students' ability to self-correct, which was the main theme of Eve, was integrated into the theme of student proficiency because after revisiting all participants' data it was found that most of the teachers linked students' ability to self-correct with student proficiency and/or curriculum goals. Some of them believed that lower proficiency students exhibited a lower tendency to self-correct, while others believed that students' ability to self-correct depended on whether the error was relevant to the taught lessons. For these reasons, the theme students' ability to self-correct was included under the theme of student proficiency and curriculum goals when the overarching themes were drawn.

At this stage, it was noted that curriculum goals and student confidence were the first two overarching themes. Then, all the other individual themes – real-world communication, student motivation, time constraints, student proficiency, the source of errors, and students' behaviours – were re-examined in order to determine which themes were shared across the cases. During the transcript revisit, some themes were discarded and some common themes across cases emerged. The themes that were reemoved because they were not common concepts (shared by fewer than five teachers) were time constraints, the sources of errors, and students' behaviours. During the reanalysis, two new

themes emerged: learning experiences and teaching experiences. Table 4 illustrates the process of finding overarching themes.

Table 4: Overarching themes across cases

Themes	Curriculum goals	Real-world communication	Student confidence	Student motivation	Student proficiency	Teaching experience	Learning experiences	Time constraints	Source of errors	Student behaviour
Teacher										
Diann	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓
James	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
Jane	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓
Eve	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
Thomas	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
Karen	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			
Julie	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			
Denise	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	
Natalie	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
Stefani	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
Emma	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			

As noted, to identify a theme or pattern it is necessary to make judgements regarding which quality is more significant than others. One of the strategies to achieve this is to count how many times a particular theme re-occurs (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014). In this study, any themes influencing at least five cases were considered overarching themes. After the process, seven overarching themes were discovered: curriculum goals, real-world communication, student confidence, student motivation, student proficiency, learning experiences, and teaching experiences. However, it transpired that the relationship between the teachers' learning and teaching

experiences and their cognition was different from the relationship between the other five factors and their cognition. According to the data, it was found that the effect of learning and teaching experiences seemed to filter through the five factors as the teachers referred to these experiences as the sources of their beliefs about the other five factors. In other words, beliefs derived from their learning and teaching experiences seemed to be reconstructed with the five factors before any effects on their cognition could be observed. Therefore, these two factors were not included in the analysis of relationships among the overarching factors. The next section will demonstrate how the relationships between the five factors were identified.

3.6.4.2 Examining relationships

When the overarching themes were found, relationships among them were explored through the analysis in the Nvivo programme. The connections between codes and categories, antecedents and consequences, as well as how a case relates to general themes were investigated to establish relationship patterns (Gibson and Brown, 2009). To analyse the relationships among the themes, NVivo software was used as a tool for locating relevant data and for coding tentative relationships. First, the data coded at those themes were re-examined to determine associations with other themes. Then, categories of relationships were created. After coding the relevant data to the relationship categories, Table 5 was developed to show the number of cases in which each relationship exists.

Table 5: Relationships between the overarching themes

Themes	Student proficiency	Student confidence	Curriculum goals	Real-world communication	Student motivation
Student proficiency					
Student confidence	✓ (9/11)				
Curriculum goals	✓ (9/11)	✓ (6/11)			
Real-world communication	(1/11)	✓ (6/11)	✓ (9/11)		
Student motivation	✓ (7/11)	✓ (6/11)	(2/11)	(4/11)	

Table 5 shows the relationship pairs emerging from the five overarching themes. The number in the parenthesis illustrates the number of cases out of a total of 11 in which a relationship was found. It can be seen that every pair was taken into account. However, as Harding (2013) suggests, the decision on the frequency of a pattern that should be presented for an explanation of relationships is necessarily subjective. Therefore, only relationships found in at least five cases were identified as common relationships in this study. According to this criterion, the common relationships were student proficiency and student confidence, student proficiency and curriculum goals, student proficiency and student motivation, student confidence and curriculum goals, student confidence and student motivation, student confidence and real-world communication, and curriculum goals and real-world communication.

3.7 Trustworthiness

Validity and reliability are generally referred to as measurements of the quality of a research programme in the positivist paradigm (associated with a scientific methodology as the optimum means of understanding social phenomena). However, many researchers in naturalistic inquiries focusing on how people behave when absorbed in genuine life experiences in natural settings (Frey, Botan, & Krep, 1999) choose to distance themselves from a positivist framework and instead adopt different terms to refer to the quality of naturalistic research (Shenton, 2004). Lincoln and Guba (1985) are among those researchers. They propose four criteria of trustworthiness in qualitative research, each corresponding to criteria as set in a positivist research programme. They are:

- 1) credibility (internal validity);
- 2) transferability (external validity/generalisability);
- 3) dependability (reliability);
- 4) confirmability (objectivity).

3.7.1 Credibility

Credibility seeks to ensure the truthfulness of the research results and that the results demonstrate what is actually intended. This study used triangulation, negative case analysis, and member-checking to enhance the credibility of the research.

3.7.1.1 Triangulation

Triangulation is one of the most important techniques to ensure the quality of data and inferences (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The findings of a case study tend to be more convincing, accurate, and more in-depth when the information is collected from multiple sources for the purpose of the same findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Yin, 2014). In this study, data triangulation (triangulation from different data sources) was deployed to obtain insights into teacher cognition from different perspectives. Triangulation was also applied in the data analysis stage where the findings were supported by more than one source of evidence.

3.7.1.2 Negative case analysis

Negative case analysis involves purposively seeking elements or spontaneously appearing elements of the data that differ from expectations, assumptions or working theories (Given, 2008). This technique is also referred to as 'rival explanations' (Yin, 2014), which relates to the hypothesis that observed outcomes in fact result from other intervention besides the planned intervention. In this present study, evidence of possible influences and the sources of incongruence between the data gained from each stage of collection were investigated.

3.7.1.3 Member checking

Also known as 'participant verification' (Rager, 2005) and 'draft review' by the participants (Yin, 2014), member checking is used to test data, analytic categories, interpretations, and conclusions with members of groups in which

the data was originally obtained. Member checking may occur during data collection or analysis (Harper & Cole, 2012). In this study, all interview transcripts were verified by the participants. In addition, during the data collection process, the participants were asked to verify the interpretation of the previous interviews.

3.7.2 Transferability

Transferability involves showing that the research results can be generalised beyond a specific receiving context (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009; Yin, 2014). The technique to enhance transferability is 'thick description', described by Lincoln & Guba (1985) as "a sufficient base to permit a person contemplating application in another receiving setting to make the needed comparisons of similarity" (p. 360). For case studies, Yin (2014) suggests that regardless of which basis the generalisation uses, case study research should aim for the generalisation at a conceptual level higher than the specific case rather than embody a statistic generalisation referring to the sample. In this study, thick descriptions of each case were generated through data triangulation. Obtaining in-depth information from seven interviews and three observations generated rich data involving different aspects of the teachers' cognition.

3.7.3 Dependability

The dependability criterion stipulates that the results should consistently support the findings, interpretations and conclusions of the study such that later studies would yield the same findings if the same procedures were followed. However, in case studies the purpose is not to replicate the results of one case study, but

rather to minimise errors and bias in a study (Yin, 2014). This present study fulfilled dependability by providing a detailed description of data collection procedures and methods of analysis.

3.7.4 Confirmability

Confirmability means that the findings of a study are derived from the activities of the participants rather than the being shaped by the observer/researcher, and includes the extent to which results are grounded in data and whether inferences are logical. Two techniques to increase confirmability are a confirmability audit and a reflexive journal (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). A confirmability audit ensures that the findings, interpretations, and conclusions are supported by the data. Evidence of confirmability can be provided by the transparency of the researcher's role.

This study has outlined the researcher's standpoint to demonstrate that the findings represent the participants' perspectives, not (only) the researcher's report (Riazi, 2016). Transparency was also enhanced by keeping a reflexive journal of methodological decisions and avoiding leading questions during the interviews. There was also an attempt to reduce bias by not judging anything if no evidence was provided by the participants. For example, it might be assumed from my personal teaching experience that Thai teachers tend to correct grammatical errors because the exam is grammar focused; however, this assumption was not accepted because it did not emerge from the data itself.

Since all the interviews were conducted in Thai, the interview transcripts were translated by me. To enhance the trustworthiness of the study, the translated transcripts were examined by two professional full-time Thai-English translators who have master's degrees in Translation Studies. All the transcripts were coded numerically and 15 of them were randomised by using the website <https://www.randomizer.org/>. The 15 random translated transcripts were then cross-checked by the two translators.

Inter-rater reliability was not adopted in this study because, as previously discussed in Section 3.2, the study takes a relativist ontological stance which considers multiple versions of realities interpreted by individuals. As Armstrong, Gosling, Weinman, and Marteau (1997) say, the debate on whether to use inter-rater reliability in a qualitative study should take ontological positions researchers adopt into account. For those who take a relativist position, the level agreement among researchers are not important as "all accounts have some 'validity' whatever their claims" (p.2). In addition, they point out that there is no absolute answer to the debate if the core ontological assumptions are different. Moreover, although having another researcher analyse qualitative data and assessing the level of agreement may enhance trustworthiness of a study, the researcher's analysis does not relate to other possible versions of reality constructed by other researchers (Vidich & Lyman, 1994). As Morse (1994) argues, the use of other raters or coders for consistency of judgement is not sensible because "No-one takes a second reader to the library to check that indeed he or she is interpreting the original sources correctly, so why does anyone need a reliability checker for his or her data?" (as cited in Armstrong et al., 1997, p. 2).

However, this study provides the transparency of the analysis method by describing in detail the methodological steps so that other researchers can check or challenge the data interpretation.

3.8 Ethical considerations

Two distinctive features of qualitative research are intimacy (between researchers and participants) and open-endedness (a research direction has to unfold during the course of the investigation - Howe & Dougherty, 1993). Similarly, as this study involves collecting data from teachers (a process which could potentially intrude into their personal views and aspects of their private lives), ethical issues were taken seriously by following the steps below.

3.8.1 Informed consent

The participants had the right to withdraw their participation at any time during the entirety of the study period. Diener and Crandall (1978) defined informed consent as “the procedures in which individuals choose whether to participate in an investigation after being informed of facts that would be likely to influence their decisions” (p.57). The participants were informed about the aims of the study and how the data would be used, the tasks the participants would be expected to perform, the potential consequences of participating in the research, the extent to which answers would be confidential, their right to withdraw from the study at any point, and their right to have any questions about the procedures answered (Cohen et al., 2000; Dörnyei, 2007). Informed consent entailed securing permission from the teachers and institutions before data collection began.

3.8.2 Obtrusiveness

This study required intensive involvement from the teachers, something which could potentially put them under a certain amount of pressure. Therefore, the interviews and observations were scheduled at their convenience in order to minimise any possible stress. In addition, the camera used for the observations was placed in a spot determined by the teachers.

3.8.3 Privacy and confidentiality

Privacy entails the sensitivity of the information being provided, the setting being observed, and the dissemination of information (Diener & Crandall, 1978). To protect the participants' privacy, issues such as professional ethics and academic intelligence were avoided. In addition, the interviews were held at a place determined by the participants. With regard to the interviews, the participants' true identities were concealed, and non-traceability was applied to ensure that an individual's response is unknowable (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). All the data was kept confidential and not shared with anyone, including the other participants.

3.9 Summary

This chapter has presented the research methodology, including the reasons behind the methodological decisions. This qualitative case study adopts the interpretative tradition and a qualitative methodology. The data was collected through triangulation in a cyclical process, involving ongoing analysis throughout the process. The chapter has also presented the method of analysis for both

individual cases and cross cases, involving details of transcription, coding, and interpretation. Various strategies were applied to ensure the criteria of trustworthiness and research integrity were enhanced. The following chapter reports the cross-case analysis and discussion.

Chapter 4 Cross-case Analysis and Discussion

4.1 Overview

This chapter presents the findings from the cross-case analyses of the eleven teachers and a discussion of the study's key findings. Summaries of the eleven case studies are first presented in order to provide some background general information on the individual cases which will be frequently referred to this chapter. Then, the key themes from the cross-case analyses are presented. Relationships between the themes are illustrated in Figure 8, along with descriptions of the figure. Among the overarching factors, the sources of the teachers' cognition (prior learning experiences and teaching experiences) are discussed first. This is followed by the factors that were filtered through these experiences, which were the five main factors found to affect the teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to corrective feedback. In this section, the relationships between these main factors are also explained. The key findings are presented and discussed in the light of the factors influencing teacher cognition (RQ1), as these factors underline the teachers' cognition about which errors to correct (RQ 2) and how they should be corrected (RQ3). However, to explicitly answer RQ2 and RQ3, the summaries of the answers to these two research questions are provided at the end of the chapter.

4.2 Summaries of individual cases

Diann: Real-world communication and the source of errors

With 23 years' experience of teaching English, it was evident that Diann's teaching experience significantly affected her cognition. Although there was evidence indicating that her learning experience had influenced her belief that

errors should be corrected no matter what linguistic area they occur in, the impact of this belief only emerged once in the background interview when she was directed by an interview question. The analysis of her case suggests that teaching experience helped her integrate real-world communication into curriculum goals with little effort compared to less experienced participants. She believed that the educational goals of learning a language should be related to real-life practicality. Therefore, she did not correct only errors relevant to the lesson focus, but also those affecting real-life communication such as incomplete answers and impoliteness. Practicality in her point of view also extended to individual students' needs. The lesson observations showed that she considered the causes of her students' errors when deciding how to correct them.

James: Washback and student confidence

James was one of the three novice teachers in this study (based on years of teaching). Unsurprisingly, he resorted to his learning experience and professional training when deciding on corrective feedback. He was in the stage of 'trying out' different teaching methods to find the most effective way of helping students get the best exam scores. In accordance with this, it was observed that he frequently corrected errors relevant to the lesson focus, which tended to be in areas to be tested in the exam. Although the feedback type he mostly used was explicit correction, which could negatively affect students' feelings, he claimed that his feedback did not have such an effect as he always tried not to harm student confidence. He could not give a reason when asked why he opted for explicit correction while aiming to enhance student confidence. However, he

claimed that he was sensitive about the words and the tone he used when giving corrective feedback, and the observation data supported his claim.

Jane: Washback, real-world communication, student confidence, student motivation

Jane used to work for a hotel before she became a teacher. For this reason, her experience of using English in an authentic context was frequently referred to as a source of her beliefs. Unlike most of the participants, she obviously disagreed with the assessment of English-speaking courses in her institution. However, she stated that she needed to focus on the content relating to the exam because she was worried about students' exam performance. This implies that she was aware of the mismatch between beliefs and practices in terms of what and how to correct.

She believed in not highlighting grammatical errors in the speaking classroom if they do not affect the meaning; while in her classroom she corrected those errors even if it did not affect comprehensibility because they were relevant to the lesson or task objectives. Like James, it was observed that she was sensitive about how to correct an error as she believed it might undermine students' confidence. However, she tended to put pressure on students if they did not show any effort in achieving the task. She claimed that it was because she wanted to motivate low proficiency students who lacked motivation.

Eve: Curriculum goals, students' behaviour, and students' ability to self-correct

Eve had initial teacher training on her BA Education course, but she did not mention it as a primary source of her beliefs about error correction. Instead, she referred to her experience as a student when discussing the belief of correcting every type of error because she thought correcting students' errors was the responsibility of teachers. Her beliefs on how to correct errors were framed by how she saw herself in the classroom. According to the observations and the interviews, she gave a recast when students showed signs of being unable to self-correct or when they made phonological errors which she believed they could not self-correct. Unlike other teachers who used recasts out of a concern over students' confidence, she seemed to use recasts as a form of 'help'. Another point revealed from the case of Eve was the significant influence of students' behaviour. Although she believed she was not affected by them, the observation data suggests that she was irritated by students' misbehaviour and decided not to treat errors she normally did.

Thomas: Time constraints, curriculum goals, student proficiency

Like James, Thomas was a novice teacher with two years' experience of teaching. In addition, he revealed that the observed course was the first speaking course he had taught. His limited teaching experience might be one of the reasons that he rarely mentioned experience when asked about the source of his beliefs. Instead, he extensively used his *learning* experience and some knowledge from professional courses he had done as guidelines of his classroom decisions. The lack of classroom experience seemed to impact his classroom management, especially with time constraints. It was observed that

he could not deal with this constraint in the first observation, which occurred at the beginning period of the course. He admitted that he was struggling to find his own teaching methods in the speaking classroom and was hoping it would improve when he had accrued more experience. As a result of this constraint, his error correction was rather limited to errors relevant to curriculum goals. Similarly, he mostly used a recast to save time although he acknowledged that elicitation would be more useful for students' learning. In addition, he was more selective of errors to correct in the case of low proficiency students because he believed that those students had a limited ability to acquire knowledge.

Karen: Curriculum goals, real-world communication, and student proficiency

Although she had been teaching English for 15 years, her positive experiences as a *learner* contributed significantly more to her beliefs about error correction. When it came to error correction, she believed in correcting errors according to the course objectives and the students' levels of proficiency. Although she held that communicative achievement in speaking should take precedence over accuracy, she said she would highlight accuracy in her correction if the course focused on it. She tended to correct less with students of low proficiency as she believed they had less ability to learn. She frequently opted for recasts, although her reason for doing so was slightly different from the other teachers. Apart from retaining student confidence, she believed that recasts helped learners to practice identifying their errors by comparing the teacher's correct form and their erroneous form. This was also driven by her belief about real-world communication, where they would not have teachers to point out their errors for them.

Denise: Curriculum goals, student confidence, student motivation

Denise was one of the four teachers who had initial training as part of a bachelor's degree. However, she did not refer to this as an influence on her teaching. Instead, she mentioned her MA in English Language Teaching as a source of her knowledge about immediate and delayed feedback. She was greatly influenced by her teaching experience both in terms of what and how to correct. She frequently corrected errors commonly made by students and used her classroom experience to determine how to correct errors. Nevertheless, she focused on errors relevant to curriculum goals because of time management, and she attempted to avoid overcorrection. Learning experience was also an influential source of her beliefs. She referred to the fact that she used to be praised by foreigners even though she made mistakes in her spoken language. For this reason, she was one of the teachers who often praised students about their speaking even if she did not think it was impressive. The main reason for this was her aim to enhance student confidence and motivation to speak, which she believed was the first step to improving speaking skills. In line with this belief, she normally opted for recasts in order to make students feel comfortable with correction, and only used elicitation when she was certain that they could self-correct.

Natalie: Time constraints, student proficiency, student confidence

Among the three novice teachers, Natalie was the only one who had had a teaching practicum during her study because her degree was in Education, while James and Thomas, like most of the teachers, received professional training as part of an MA in English Language Teaching, which did not include a teaching practicum. Although she had had some teaching experience before embarking

on her teaching career and had now accrued two years' teaching experience, as with Thomas she struggled with time management issues. However, she claimed that this problem partly resulted from the large class size of 40-50 students. This caused mismatches between her beliefs and practices. She believed every error should be corrected and still held this belief in practice, but she admitted that she could not adhere to this belief given time constraints. In contrast with errors she corrected, it was observed that her feedback style was congruent with her beliefs. She constantly used recasts because she believed that students in the observed course were of low proficiency and were thus unable to self-correct.

Stefani: Real-world communication, student confidence, student motivation

Unlike other teachers, Stefani's bachelor's and master's degrees were related to business, not the teaching of English. She had lived in many foreign countries for a total of nearly five years. This might be the reason why her experience of using English in real-world communication had a considerable influence on her beliefs. She paid a large amount of attention to correct pronunciation because she had herself experienced language barriers caused by her mispronunciation. Consequently, most of her observed corrections were related to pronunciation. Although she agreed with the importance of correct grammar because she believed it would make the speaker sound well educated, what she focused more on in her correction was its usefulness for real-world communication. She was aware of the possible negative effects of corrective feedback on confidence and motivation due to her experience of being a student, and therefore she demonstrated frequent use of encouraging words as part of her feedback. She

also carefully observed students' reactions to her feedback in order to decide on how to treat an error without undermining their confidence.

Emma: Student motivation, student confidence, and real-world communication

With her 12 years' teaching experience, Emma exhibited a degree of ease and confidence dealing with diverse students. It was not surprising that her teaching experience significantly informed her classroom decision-making. However, she revealed that her beliefs about accuracy had changed from standard English-based accuracy to accuracy based on English varieties because she had done her own research on spoken English. This experience steered her to focus on student confidence and motivation rather than accuracy, a decision which resulted in her corrections showing that she considerably focused on students' characters, proficiency, and needs in order to give them some personal attention and raise their confidence, which she believed may further motivate them to learn English. These beliefs also informed her correction of common errors and errors student should be made aware of, which could be useful for their real-world communication.

Julie: Real-world communication, curriculum goals, student confidence

Julie had initial teacher training during her bachelor's degree. However, she reported that teacher education did not affect her teaching of speaking skills because the programme content did not cover methodologies of teaching speaking. Her 16 years of teaching experience was well integrated with her learning experience, especially learning from English use real-life contexts. Similar to Emma, she admitted that she had garnered a clearer idea of what she

should correct in the speaking classroom when she had been exposed to an English-speaking environment while studying abroad. Like Stefani, it was observed that apart from curriculum-focused errors, Julie often corrected mispronunciation as she was herself used to being corrected by foreigners and then realised it was important for communication. Her aims of teaching speaking were to help students achieve curriculum goals and also be able to adapt classroom knowledge to their real-life communication. However, when it came to how she corrected an error, student confidence played an important role. She believed that students needed to be confident enough to speak because it was the first step to improving their speaking skills and an impetus to self-learning outside of the classroom.

4.3 Thai university teachers' cognition about oral corrective feedback

According to the method of analysis described in Chapter 3, cross-case analysis of all the eleven cases generated five overarching themes and two major sources of beliefs across the cases. The five themes were the themes of conforming to the curriculum goals (course design, content, planning, methodology, and assessment), considering the demands of real-world communication (language use in context), enhancing student confidence, generating and maintaining student motivation (effort, persistence, and attention to the activity), and adapting to student proficiency (knowledge, ability, or skill necessary for effective communication). The two main sources of beliefs were learning experiences and teaching experiences. These five themes significantly informed all the cases in terms of what teachers corrected and how they

corrected. The relationships between the themes, which were found through the analysis in the Nvivo programme, are shown in Figure 8.

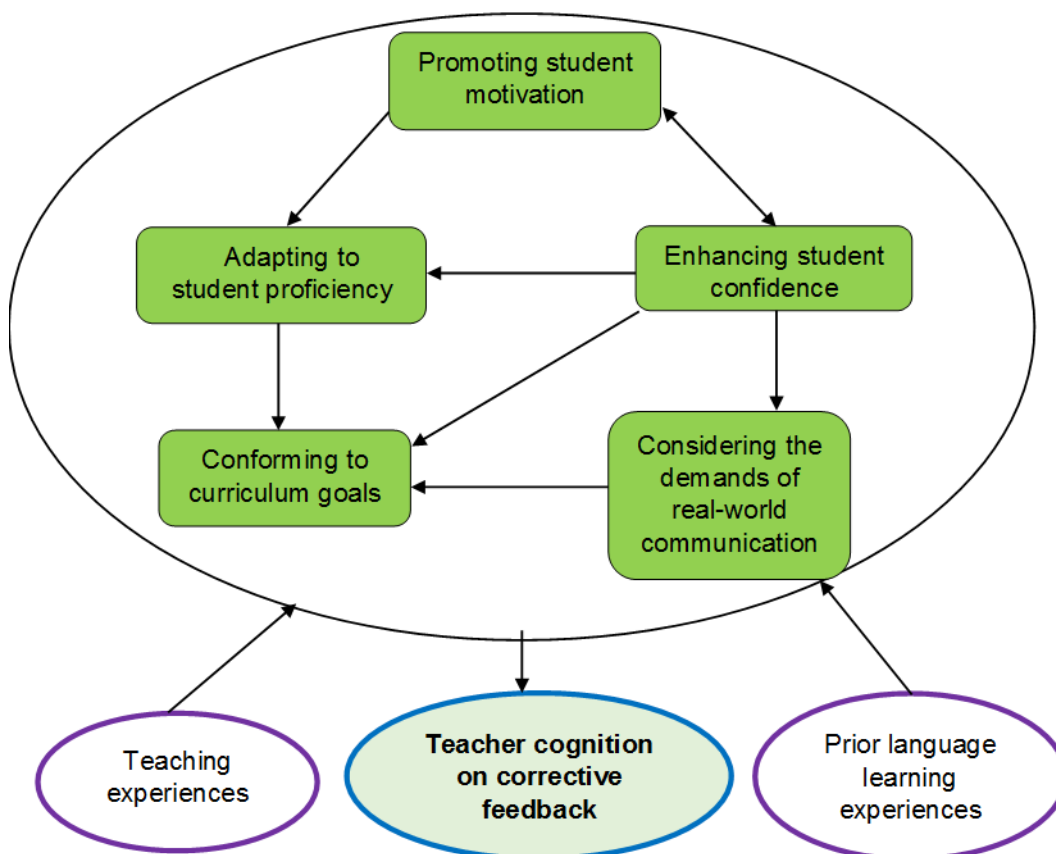


Figure 8: Factors affecting teacher cognition in relation to corrective feedback and their relationships

4.3.1 Overview of factors affecting teacher cognition

Figure 8 illustrates how the teachers think about what to correct and how to correct students' spoken errors. It presents factors affecting their beliefs, which include the sources of beliefs embedded in teaching and learning experiences. They drew on these experiences when formulating beliefs affected by five contextual factors: student motivation, student confidence, student proficiency, curriculum goals, and real-world communication. These factors interact with one

another. The relationships are represented by the arrows. The directions of the arrowheads indicate the factors which are affected by the themes at the arrow bases. For example, enhancing student confidence is influenced by promoting student motivation. It should be noted here that the relationships between the themes presented in this study are the results of the analysis in the Nvivo programme.

According to the analysis in the Nvivo programme, the aims of promoting student motivation and confidence were the most powerful factors because they had a significant influence on the other three factors. The teachers were selective about errors to correct mainly because they wanted to retain and enhance student confidence and motivation. Therefore, their beliefs about errors to correct involved errors relevant to the lesson focus, errors that could affect communication, and common errors. Similarly, for the purpose of maintaining and enhancing student motivation and confidence, they tended to use recasts with errors irrelevant to the lessons, while using elicitation with those relevant to the lessons because they believed students tended to be able to self-correct this type of errors.

4.3.2 Mismatches between beliefs and practices

In accordance with many studies (e.g. Farrell & Kun, 2008; Kim, 2014; Phipps & Borg, 2009) which have reported that the transfer from beliefs to practices is constrained by contextual factors, this study found that mismatches between the teachers' stated beliefs and their actual classroom practices primarily derive from contextual factors, especially student factors. For example, Thomas stated

in the background interview prior to the observations that he would correct errors causing communication breakdown. However, it was observed that in Lesson Observation 2 he did not treat an error that might affect communication. He pointed out that he did not correct that error because the student who made the error was of low proficiency and he wanted to secure the student's confidence. Further example of mismatches between beliefs and practices can be seen in Table I, Appendix L.

As noted in Section 2.6.5, research evidence demonstrates that incongruences between beliefs and practices are not unexpected since teaching dynamics are informed by instructional contexts (Tudor, 2003). In this present research, the teachers' responses to mismatches between their beliefs and practices were perceived by the teachers as tensions caused by contextual factors rather than actual inconsistencies. A possible reason for this is that their contextualised responses understandably prompted them to articulate reasons for those mismatches.

The teachers' ability to articulate reasons for the mismatches may be attributable to methodological reasons. The data of this study was collected through a cyclical process in which the assumptions from each stage of collection were tested in subsequent stages. For this reason, the teachers had an opportunity to explain their decision-making process in the stimulated-recall interviews and to clarify their beliefs in the post-observation interviews. This assumption of methodological attribution was also reported in previous studies such as Johnson (1992b) and Sahin, Bullock, and Stables (2002). The different methodologies of those studies have been seen as a possible cause of

discrepancies in the findings on relationships between teachers' beliefs and practices.

For instance, Johnson (1992b) examined 30 ESL secondary teachers' beliefs and practices on literacy instruction using questionnaires, document analysis, and lesson observations. She reported a consistency between the teachers' theoretical beliefs and their actual instruction and speculated that this consistency may have resulted from the multidimensional nature of the items in the questionnaires. She also pointed out that inconsistencies found in other studies may have been due to ineffective measures used to elicit teachers' beliefs. Similarly, Sahin, Bullock, and Stables (2002) investigating the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practices through interviews and observations at four schools in the West of England, argued, in contrast to other previous studies indicating discrepancies between beliefs and practices, that the congruence found in their study could be explained by the methodology employed by the study. They claimed that the participants' beliefs could be more explicitly revealed because they analysed the data according to the grounded theory which aims to build rather than test theory. They added that, as a result of using the grounded theory, significant factors that influenced the participants' questioning were more explicitly revealed although the participants were unaware of them. Therefore, no discrepancy between beliefs and practices was reported.

In accordance with the arguments of Johnson (1992b) and Sahin, Bullock, and Stables (2002), the methodology adopted in this present study may lead to the findings of tensions between particular beliefs triggered by contextual

factors. The participants were possibly unaware of the contextual factors that might influence their beliefs when firstly articulated them in the background interviews, but they were aware of those factors in the later stages of data collection. This finding also reflects the argument of Borg (2006), namely that contextual factors may cause teachers to behave differently from their stated beliefs without actually *changing* those underlying beliefs.

For these reasons, the findings of this study suggest that classroom practices helped to uncover in-depth cognition of teachers that they might be unaware of.

4.3.3 The significant influence of student factors

Comparing Figure 8 with the model devised by Shavelson and Stern (1981), which was criticised for overly highlighting student factors (Clark & Peterson, 1986), the present study is congruent with Shavelson and Stern's model. In accordance with teachers' judgements about students in their model, this study supports the finding that students have a significant influence on teachers' beliefs and practices. As can be seen from Figure 8 emerging from the findings of this study, three out of five key factors are related to students, namely student proficiency, student confidence, and student motivation. However, the relationships between the factors of students and other contextual factors (illustrated in Figure 8) differ from the relationships presented in Shavelson and Stern (1981). According to Shavelson and Stern, student factors are dominated by instructional constraints. In contrast, the data of this present study shows that factors relating to students, i.e. student motivation, student proficiency and

student confidence, tend to dominate the instructional factors of curriculum goals.

Another difference from previous models is the significant effects of student confidence. Compared to the models devised by Clark and Peterson (1986), Shavelson and Stern (1981), and Borg (2006), the present study specifically highlights the influence of student confidence on teacher cognition. In those earlier models, student factors are broadly sketched and lack a specific focus on student confidence. In Borg's (2006) model, learner factors are suggested in order to describe what teacher cognition can be relevant to, and not specifically identified as factors affecting teacher cognition, unlike schooling, professional coursework, contextual factors, and classroom practices. This may be partly explained by the fact that the first two models are based on the literature in general education, and Borg's (2006) model is located in the studies on language teachers' cognition on grammar instruction; whereas the present study explores the influential elements in language teacher cognition, particularly in relation to teaching speaking, specifically corrective feedback. Unsurprisingly, the domain-specific aspect of this study on teacher cognition on corrective feedback in teaching speaking demonstrates more specific factors of teacher cognition compared to other studies on generic areas of teacher cognition. Moreover, the different research focus might be responsible for the emergence of the factor of real-world communication, an aspect which was absent from previous models. Notably, the findings here also show that the teachers perceive real-world communication as a separate notion from curriculum goals although most of them (7/11) integrated real-life usage of

language into the curriculum goals. For this reason, this study illustrates these two factors in Figure 8 separately.

Section 4.3 has presented a figure to frame Thai university teachers' cognition resulting from the data of the study, illustrating the study's similarities and differences from the previous literature. The next section (Section 4.4) will discuss the factors that constituted the sources of their cognition—teaching and learning experiences. Then Section 4.5 will explore the factors affecting cognition that were filtered through these experiences. Section 4.5, which answers RQ1, will also present findings pertinent to RQ2 and RQ3 because of the overlap between these three RQs.

4.4 Sources of teacher cognition

The teachers tended to draw on their teaching and language learning experiences rather than on professional education. The data from the teachers' commentaries on all three stages of cognition (preactive, interactive, and post active) suggest that teaching and learning experiences were constantly referred to when they were asked about what underpinned their beliefs and practices (see Table II and III, Appendix L). Generally, teacher education was not mentioned except for a few times by four participants (this is further discussed in Sub-section 4.4.3).

The finding that the teachers grounded their beliefs in their learning and teaching experiences rather than in professional coursework may be attributable to the fact that most of them did not engage in initial teacher education since

there is no requirement for the Teacher Certificate or a teacher license for graduates who want to become a teacher at a university in Thailand. Only five participants (Julie, Natalie, Denise, Eve, Diann) had initial teacher education since they had completed a BA in Education. Possibly for this reason, professional education was not a significant source of their cognition, compared to prior learning and teaching experiences. Another explanation may stem from the interpretation of 'impact'. It is important to note that 'impact' in this study was interpreted in comparison to all factors emerging from the data of this study. Here, the impact of professional education was not as significant as learning and teaching experiences. As Borg (2011) argues, discrepancies about the impact of teacher education in previous studies might be due to the subjective interpretation of the term 'impact' among researchers.

The primary source of teacher cognition in this study which will be discussed first is prior language learning experiences.

4.4.1 Prior language learning experiences

The data analysis indicated that the importance of learning experiences for teachers' cognition in relation to error correction emerged in every case except one – that of Diann. Most teachers constantly used their language learning experiences, both in and out of the classroom, to explain the reasons for their beliefs and practices across the three stages of teaching, including when they were *not directly asked* about their learning experiences. Experiences accrued as a language learner informed their attitudes to error correction, their selection of errors to correct, their beliefs about elicitation (in the case of James and

Emma), and the careful consideration of word use for correcting students' errors (in the case of Natalie). The effects of prior language learning experiences are summarised in Table 6 (more detailed evidence can be found in Table II, Appendix L).

Table 6: Effects of prior learning experiences on the teachers' cognition

Case	Effects of language learning experiences
Thomas	Believing error correction could improve students' language skills, using delayed feedback, correcting errors that were corrected by his teachers
Karen	Avoiding overcorrection, using delayed feedback, implicitly correcting student errors
Denise	Avoiding overcorrection, aiming at building student confidence
Julie	Making educated decisions as to what to correct in terms of curriculum goals and real-world communication
Stefani	Correcting errors that she used to make (especially mispronunciation), preferring explicit correction, being sensitive to possible negative effects of corrective feedback on students' feelings
James	Eliciting the correct form from students with errors relevant to the taught lessons
Eve	Correcting every type of error
Jane	Focusing on errors affecting communication, not correcting students' accent
Emma	Preferring to have students to self-correct
Natalie	Being sensitive to the words used to convey corrective feedback

In contrast to all the other teachers, there was no evidence indicating that Diann drew on her learning experiences. When directly asked in the background interview whether this had influenced her beliefs or practices, she replied, "No. What I use is the knowledge I got from my master's...I learned about the

methodology of teaching speaking and listening” (BG). Given that her master’s was in Teaching English as an International Language, which could be considered professional education, it appeared that the professional development course did influence Diann’s cognition more than her language learning experiences did. Unlike other participants, in other interviews she also did not refer to learning experiences.

Considering the forms of language learning pointed out by Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006) (previously discussed in Section 2.6.2), learning experiences that the teachers mentioned involved both formal learning and informal learning, which are discussed next.

4.4.1.1 Formal learning

In accordance with the notion of ‘apprenticeship of observation’ proposed by Lortie (1975) and elaborated on in subsequent studies (e.g. Golombek, 1998; Numrich, 1996, Peacock, 2001), the experience of being a student who once observed one’s teachers contributed to the formation of the beliefs of the teachers in this study. Both positive and negative classroom learning experiences impacted their feedback style. For example, Karen and Thomas preferred giving delayed feedback because they were satisfied when their teachers gave corrective feedback without interrupting their speaking when they made mistakes. As a result, Karen was not scared of making mistakes and wanted her students to feel the same. Her observed practice also constantly reflected this belief. Similarly, Thomas stated that his teacher did not interrupt him while speaking to correct his errors, which made him “feel good” (BG). In

line with his stated belief, it was observed that he always gave delayed feedback.

Take Extract 3 as an example.

Extract 3: An activity aiming at giving and asking for suggestions (OB3)

ST1: What do you want to do this weekend?

ST2: I don't have plan. Any suggestion?

ST1: *Why we don't go* the MK restaurant. >>>grammatical error

ST2: Let's go. Do you want to go see the movie after that?

ST1: Sorry, I don't have money.

(The conversation ended.)

TC: Why what? >>>elicitation

ST1: *Why we don't go*

TC: Why don't we (stressing on the word 'don't') >>>recast

ST1+ST2: Aha

As can be seen from Extract 3, Thomas waited until the students had finished the conversation before giving them elicitation and a recast on Student 1's grammatical error.

Experience of being corrected also caused a gentle correction in the case of Natalie. In her case, it was a negative experience that lies behind her own use of gentle words to convey corrective feedback. When it was observed that she usually used soft words and tones to correct students, she said in the stimulated-recall interview about corrective feedback, "I know it'd make them feel bad...like I felt when I was a student" (SM2).

4.4.1.2 Informal learning

Prior learning experiences emerging from the data included self-learning in real-life communication, which played an important role in decisions regarding errors they believed should be corrected. Three of the teachers (Julie, Jane, Stefani) revealed that their beliefs about correcting errors that affected communication came from their learning experiences of using English in real situations. Julie said that apart from errors relevant to curriculum goals, she knew what to correct because she “had enough exposure to real usage of English” (BG). For Jane, she believed accents should not be corrected because she used to work with people speaking in various accents, so for her, “It’d be fine as long as we could communicate” (BG). In the case of Stefani, she often decided on correcting errors from her own “experience of being corrected” (PO1) in real-world communication. For example, in Lesson Observation 1, she corrected a student who, in a role-play situation, said goodbye to a friend without giving a reason for leaving (see Extract 8). Also, she corrected the mispronunciation of ‘nice’, which both students pronounced as /naɪ/. When asked why she was trying to give reasons for her correction, she said, “I wanted them to know pronouncing words correctly isn’t only for their good image, but it’s all about communication...It’s about conveying the meaning. If they said it wrong, the meaning could change” (SM1). She added in the later stimulated recall, “I used my own experiences to see what errors to correct, mostly on mispronunciation” (SM2).

The effect of the experiences of personal use of English reported by Julie, Jane, and Stefani reflects the argument of Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006), that experiential knowledge could also be moulded by informal learning. It is interesting that, unlike other participants, all three teachers who were affected

by use of the language in real life shared their memories of being exposed to conversations with foreigners. Julie and Stefani graduated from a foreign country; while Jane immersed herself in an English environment because she used to work for a hotel where she needed to interact with foreigners on a daily basis.

Numerous studies have reported that exposure to an English speaking environment is a prominent factor contributing to learners' English language proficiency (e.g. Gradman & Hanania, 1991; Jindathai, 2015). Gradman and Hanania (1991) conducted a study with 101 students from various first language backgrounds, such as Arabic, Japanese, Portuguese and Thai, in individual interviews. They reported that meaningful language use (e.g. extracurricular reading and communication) correlated with their TOEFL scores. Regarding the findings of the present study, it is likely that exposure to real-life use of English in out-of-class learning experiences was essential for broadening teachers' views of teaching.

In line with previous studies (e.g. Crookes & Arakaki, 1999; Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999), another important source of teacher cognition in this study was teaching experience.

4.4.2 Teaching experiences

Teaching experiences influenced the beliefs of the teachers on both what and how to correct. It primarily informed their beliefs on what errors were common among students. Experiences of classroom practice also impacted their beliefs

about using recasts with common errors because they thought students tended not to be able to self-correct errors that they frequently made. The effects of teaching experiences are summarised in Table 7 (the detailed evidence can be found in Table III, Appendix L).

Table 7: Effects of teaching experiences

Case	Effects of teaching experiences
Jane	Correcting common errors (BG)
Julie	Eliciting the correction from students (SM1)
Diann	Making educated decisions on how to correct errors in different situations (PO2)
Emma	Correcting common errors (SM1)
Denise	Using recasts with common errors (SM1)
Eve	Correcting common errors (PO2)
James	Using recasts with common errors (SM1)
Karen	Using recasts with phonological errors (PO1)
Natalie	Mostly using recasts with every error type, being careful with the words used to convey feedback (SM2)
Stefani	Being able to determine whether students made a mistake or an error (SM2)

Teaching experience was referred to as an important source of the teachers' beliefs and practices. Although in one case, Thomas, it did not emerge as a factor due to his limited experience of teaching speaking, in most cases teaching experience was a clear influence on cognition regarding what to correct. Their experience of dealing with students' errors informed their beliefs on what errors should be corrected, especially what errors were commonly made by students. When Emma, Denise, and Stefani were asked in the stimulated-recall interview why they corrected mispronunciation, as observed in their lessons, they said: "It's a common mistake" (SM1, Emma); "It's the error

they frequently made” (SM1, Denise); and, “Lots of students mispronounced it” (SM2, Stefani). The knowledge they gained from their teaching experience in relation to common errors among students can be considered pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), or knowledge derived from individuals’ experiences (Fenstermacher, 1994) and knowledge of students’ misconceptions about what they learn (Gudmundsdottir & Shulman, 1987).

While teaching experience had a similar impact among the teachers on their beliefs about what to correct, there were divergent views on their beliefs about *how* to correct. Julie, for example, mostly opted for elicitation because according to her teaching experience she believed that most students had the *knowledge* to produce speech, but were unable to follow this knowledge up in practice by producing speech. She stated that she tried to elicit the correction from students because she “wanted them to have classroom interaction. At least they had a chance to speak” (SM1). In contrast to Julie, it was observed that Natalie regularly used recasts because she believed that students could not self-correct when they made errors, as can be seen in Extract 4.

Extract 4: The activity aiming at talking about a process of doing something (OB3)

ST1: Hello. Today we are going to present how to /prɪnt/ (plant) a tree.

>>> phonological error

TC: /plænt/ >>>recast

Natalie commented on her feedback in Extract 4 by saying, “I rarely have them self-correct because I usually found they made the same mistakes I had corrected before. So, I don't expect them to correct it” (SM2). According to this

statement, it is likely that her belief in using recasts stemmed from her previous teaching experience.

While teaching experience informed the beliefs of most teachers (see Table 7), there was no evidence to indicate the impact of teaching experience in Thomas' case, and he was aware of his lack of teaching experience. Thomas believed that if he had accrued more teaching experience, he would be able to deal with time constraints better. He said:

I think this problem [time management] could be solved if I had a chance to teach this course again. I'd have more experience and would be able to figure out the solution. I believe I'll better cope with this next time. (PO3)

This statement implies that Thomas was aware of his limited teaching experience and its effect on his decision to use recasts instead of elicitation.

It is interesting that in the case of other novice teachers in this study (James and Natalie), influences of teaching experience *were* found, in contrast to that of Thomas. James and Natalie seemed to be able to exploit the PCK they had received from their limited experience. This is possibly attributable to the fact that James had previously been assigned to teach speaking-related courses and Natalie had some experience of teaching speaking in a high school as part of a teaching practicum during her BA degree, again in contrast to Thomas, who in his background interview revealed that he had never taught a speaking course. For this reason, it is not surprising that he referred to teaching experience neither when asked about his practice relating to corrective feedback, nor when articulating his beliefs.

Unlike the case of Thomas, some teachers, with considerable experience of teaching, revealed that they responded to students' errors intuitively. With 12 years teaching experience, Emma reported that she did not consider errors to correct according to linguistic types of errors because she made the decision based on her experience of when and how to correct. As she said, "It can be any type of errors. Errors I correct often result from my teaching experience...errors students always make" (PO3). Likewise, Diann, who had been teaching for 23 years, referred to how she corrected students' errors almost as a reflex based on her teaching experience. She stated, "I didn't think of the reason why I corrected them this way and not that way because it was automatic. I've been teaching for so long that I realise how I should react [to errors]" (PO2).

It is unsurprising that when comparing novice teachers and more experienced teachers, the former does not draw on teaching experience as much as experienced teachers are likely to do. It was found that experienced teachers engage in various teaching routines which contribute to their habitual and reflexive responses to classroom complexities (Floden & Clark, 1988), and that classroom experience in context is likely to affect the extent to which learning experiences and teacher education influence teacher cognition (Ismail, 2017). In contrast to a number of existing studies which have found a significant impact of teacher education, however, this impact did not emerge to a great extent in this study. Possible explanations for this are provided in the next section.

4.4.3 Professional coursework

Unlike previous studies of teacher cognition (e.g. Busch, 2010; Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Johnston, 1992; Ross & Smith, 1992; MacDonald, Badger, & White, 2001; Özmen, 2012), professional development courses were not highlighted by most participants in this study. Although most participants did state in the background interview that they adopted certain theories of teaching speaking from professional courses they had taken, only four teachers mentioned this factor as a source of their beliefs regarding error correction and corrective feedback. The effects of professional courses are summarised in Table 8 (the detailed evidence can be found in Table IV, in Appendix L).

Table 8: Effects of professional coursework on cognition about error correction

Case	Effects of professional coursework
Thomas	Correcting mispronunciation, avoiding overcorrection
James	Correcting accents and tones, believing in teaching language use in a context
Diann	Correcting errors causing communication breakdown
Denise	Giving delayed feedback instead of immediate feedback

As can be seen in Table 8, professional courses appeared to impact only four teachers and its impact was mostly about *what* to correct. This suggests that, unlike their language learning and teaching experiences (see Tables 6 and 7), most of the teachers did not rely on knowledge they had gained from professional courses when it came to oral corrective feedback, especially regarding types of corrective feedback. A possible explanation for this may related to the professional courses themselves.

It might be possible that the teacher education programmes they had been on did not provide extensive knowledge relating to teaching speaking,

specifically to corrective feedback types. For Julie, there was no influence of teacher education on her teaching because she only learned “about the broad theories like grammar-translation and the audio-lingual method, but there was nothing about the concept of how to teach speaking skills” (BG). Naturally, data from only one participant cannot be used to assume that all teacher education programmes in Thailand do not cover oral corrective feedback types. However, Julie’s claim demonstrates that this area of education was absent from at least *her* teacher education programme.

In the cases of other participants, they did not explicitly refer to problems with the content of teacher education programmes. However, none of them seemed to be aware of *how* to correct errors according to types of corrective feedback. When they were asked what they did when students made an error, their answers fell into one of four categories. Four of the teachers explained their feedback style in terms of the way they conveyed it, especially giving students encouragement (James, Jane, Natalie, Stefani). Three considered their feedback according to who provided the correct form (Diann, Eve, Karen). A further three considered it according to the timing of feedback, either immediate or delayed feedback (Denise, Julie, Thomas). The last group considered feedback from the perspective of whether it was directed at the entire class or at the error maker (Emma) (for more detail, see Table V, Appendix L).

The teachers’ lack of awareness about corrective feedback types could be due to their initial teacher education programmes and/or professional development courses. Taking the case of Julie into consideration, she claimed not to have covered the teaching of speaking on her initial teacher education

although her programme was accredited by the Thai government since her degree was BA in Education. This omission in teachers' knowledge of teaching speaking is also highlighted in the study of Noom-ura (2013), which used questionnaires to explore 34 secondary EFL teachers' perspectives of English-teaching problems in Thailand and their needs for professional development. It was found that the teachers rated the needs for content related to teaching speaking and listening highly. In a similar study, where the participants had little teacher education and a gap in the content provided in teacher education programmes was reported, Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) investigated the beliefs and practices of Japanese second language in-service teachers regarding communicative language teaching (CLT), reporting that the influences of personal language learning and teaching experiences were greater than that of teacher education programmes. Although they reported this finding from their interpretation of the data from the participants' references to experiential knowledge and beliefs, the authors indicated that half of their participants had little to no teacher education and in-service training did not provide a thorough knowledge of CLT.

The issue of knowledge of oral corrective feedback types in teacher education programmes and professional development courses available in Thailand has not been investigated so far. Given that oral corrective feedback is an effective strategy to enhance learners' second language knowledge and skills by identifying a gap between error and target form (Lyster et al., 2013; Schmidt, 2001), knowledge of corrective feedback warrants more attention in teacher training programmes, both in terms of theoretical knowledge as well as implications for the classroom.

Section 4.4 has discussed the impact of prior learning experiences and teaching experiences on the teachers' cognition, as well as the (insignificant) effect of professional coursework. Since the teachers integrated their experiences of teaching and learning into contextual factors, which highlights the complex nature of teacher cognition (Borg, 2006), contextual factors affecting cognition are presented in the next section.

4.5 Contextual factors affecting teacher cognition

This section explores the leading factors found to have an influence on the participant teachers' cognition (see the themes in the larger circle in Figure 8). All the themes are related to contextual factors. Although enhancing student confidence was the most prominent theme, driving more than half of the participants (James, Jane, Denise, Natalie, Stefani, Emma, Julie), the most powerful theme was that of promoting student motivation, as it drove the emergence of and/or changes in the other four themes, namely enhancing student confidence, adapting to student proficiency, conforming to curriculum goals, and considering the demands of real-world communication.

The data suggests that the teachers perceived the curriculum as not reflecting real-life communicative situations. Consequently, not only errors relevant to the lesson focus, but also those that could affect communication were corrected by the teachers. They were selective about which errors to correct because they wanted to retain and enhance student confidence and motivation. These two factors also affected how the teachers treated errors. They tended to

be sensitive with the words they used in their feedback in order not to undermine their students' confidence, which might result in student demotivation.

This consideration was taken more seriously with students of low proficiency because the teachers perceived these students to be lacking in confidence. For this reason, they shifted the task objectives according to student proficiency. The relationships among all the five themes are illustrated in Figure 8. The findings related to the five key themes are reported below.

4.5.1 Enhancing motivation and confidence

The data from six out of a total of 11 cases indicated that the teachers' beliefs about promoting student motivation and student confidence were intertwined (see Table VI, Appendix L). Some of the teachers believed that enhancing student motivation could lead to more confidence to speak; while others believed this causal directionality should be reversed. The first group of teachers was Emma, Natalie, Diann, and Jane. For example, in Post-observation Interview 3, when Emma was asked why she mostly elicited the correction from students rather than providing it herself, she replied: "When they made the error, their confidence was shaken, I had to give them a second chance to make them realise they can do it" (PO3). This implies that she used elicitation to motivate students to speak and at the same time to regain their confidence.

Similarly, Natalie and Jane believed that motivating students to speak could ease the problem of students' lacking confidence, and that advising them that making mistakes is acceptable could enhance their motivation. When asked

in Stimulated-recall Interview 2 why she did not correct a grammatical error even though it was relevant to the lesson focus, Natalie said, “I didn’t expect them to speak totally correct...Most students didn’t dare to speak because they were afraid of making mistakes. So, I motivated them to speak by telling them it was alright if it was wrong” (SM2). Diann also shared this habit of creating a motivational atmosphere, saying that she tried to make students “feel like speaking” (BG) because she realised they feared losing face if they made mistakes. Indeed, her observed lessons showed that she often asked students “What should you say?” or “What (word) should you use?” in a cordial and kind tone of voice.

In the case of Jane, it was observed that she tried to explain the different degrees of accuracy in written and spoken language and pointed out to students that they did not need to worry too much about grammar when speaking. Indeed, in the background interview she noted that she tried to make students think “speaking English is fun” (BG). In the second lesson observation, her explanation about differences between grammar in spoken and written language was highlighted, as shown in Extract 5.

Extract 5: An activity aiming at describing the weather (OB2)

ST1: What is your favourite season?

ST2: It’s winter. It’s cool and it *doesn’t* hot at all. >>> grammatical error

ST1: Oh wow!

(The conversation continued until ended.)

TC: If we say 'It doesn't hot' because at that moment we can't remember which verb we should use, just let it be and say it. If it's the spoken language, it's fine. But in the exam, no. You need to know the exam language. So, 'it doesn't hot' should be changed into 'It isn't hot'.

When asked why she talked about spoken and written language as part of her feedback, Jane said, "I was trying to tell them they might use the verb to be and 'do/does' interchangeably in spoken language, but they can't do it in the exam language [written language]" (SM2). She added, "I frequently tell them this because I'm afraid they'd feel too nervous [about making mistakes] that they don't speak" (SM2).

While the data suggested that the first group of teachers believed promoting students' motivation could raise their confidence, the latter group (Julie and Thomas) reversed this logic and held that student motivation could be built on student confidence. Julie highlighted her aim of raising student motivation to learn English by starting from student confidence to speak. She stated, "I want them to have awareness [of the error] and to be confident that they can speak" (BG), adding, "When they know I won't scold them for making an error, they'll be more confident to speak. I don't want them to get nervous every time they have to be in my class" (PO1). Evidently, Julie did not focus only on student confidence but also on their motivation to learn and participate in the classroom. Thomas also pointed this out when he discussed his feedback: "What I should do is to make them feel comfortable to make mistakes and see it as a stepping stone" (BG).

The teachers' cognition about student confidence is in line with research on motivational strategies in the classroom. It has been reported that 'building learners' confidence' is considered by teachers as a crucial motivational strategy (e.g. Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998; Ruesch, Bown, & Dewey, 2012). Furthermore, their cognition with regard to student confidence and motivation agrees with the concept of motivational strategies in the L2 classroom. Dörnyei (2001) claimed that protecting learners' self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence are integral parts of the process-oriented model of motivational teaching practice, which comprises creating the basic motivational conditions, generating initial motivation, maintaining and protecting motivation, and encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation.

According to the observations and the interview answers based on the observed lessons, the teachers in this study tried to encourage students to speak by giving encouraging words as part of their corrective feedback.

Using encouragement as part of the feedback

Most of the teachers (6/11) maintained and/or boosted student confidence and motivation to speak by giving them encouragement (see Table VII, Appendix L). A good example of this is that some of them avoided saying words like 'wrong'. For James and Emma, that word was evidently taboo when they gave corrective feedback because they believed it might discourage students from speaking and/or learning from making mistakes. As James said, "I rarely told them it was wrong because it might discourage them from speaking. I didn't want them to think it was an error. It was just a thing they didn't know" (SM1). Similarly, for

Emma, “It was challenging when they made mistakes. I’d see how to correct it without discouraging them. I’d try to avoid the word ‘wrong’ as it might discourage them from learning from the mistakes” (SM1).

Stefani had a unique way of making students feel encouraged by her corrective feedback. In Lesson Observation 1, after she had corrected a student’s error, she told the students that foreigners always made mistakes when speaking Thai. When asked why she added this information to her feedback, she said she did not want her feedback to be “too extreme” (SM1), so she tried to find a balance between speaking correctly and being confident enough to speak out. This idea was highlighted again when she said, “I wanted them to think that making mistakes in speaking is a normal thing” (PO1). An example of Stefani’s use of encouragement as part of her feedback can be found in the report of her case analysis (see Section 4.3.2). She tried to encourage students by telling them that making mistakes was useful for their classmates and it was normal to make mistakes.

It was observed that another way the teachers used to encourage students was to give positive feedback, such as saying ‘good’, ‘great’, or ‘well done’. The objectives of using this strategy were to encourage the students to speak (as in the cases of Denise and Natalie) and to alleviate the possible negative effects of corrective feedback (as in the cases of Jane and Stefani). Denise praised a student’s speaking, stating that it was ‘good’ although she did not really think it was, as can be seen in Extract 6.

Extract 6: An activity aiming at describing appearance (OB1)

ST1: What does your best friend look like?

ST2: My best friend *are big eye*. How about your best friend? >>> grammatical error

ST1: *My best friend she is* long hair. >>> grammatical error

TC: Good. (To the class) What error did they make? >>> positive feedback and elicitation

A student: has

TC: she has long hair. Ok?

Another one. My best friend she is. If you use my best friend, don't use she is. Choose one. But you need to use a noun, not a pronoun to mention it for the first time.

When asked if she actually thought it was good, Denise stated, "I didn't think it was good, but I just wanted them to participate in the class. I wanted them to speak, so I didn't correct much when they made mistakes" (SM1). This claim could also explain why she did not correct the grammatical error made by Student 2. Apart from encouraging the students, Jane claimed that the effects of explicit feedback on students' feelings could be lessened by giving some compliments to the students. She said, "I wanted the class to learn from his mistakes. But as you might notice, I praised him [privately] before talking about the mistakes" (SM2).

The data showing that the teachers avoided negative words and instead tried to use positive feedback and encouraging words when giving corrective feedback in order to enhance student motivation is in line with a study by Wang, Yu, and Teo (2018) on three teachers' feedback beliefs on oral presentations. They found that praise was believed to be a tool for motivating students as it

could help encourage them to learn and feel a sense of achievement. Evidence from related studies demonstrates that praising students could increase student motivation (Ellis & Shintani, 2013; Grombczewska, 2011). For example, Grombczewska (2011) studied a relationship between a teacher's feedback and student motivation and found that giving positive comments was likely to influence learners' intrinsic motivation to learn a second language. However, research suggests that praise tends to be more effective for students when teachers give positive feedback on specific features of students' performance (Hattie, 2009). Therefore, teachers' feedback can be more useful for students' learning if teachers gave specific praise on students' speaking performance, indicating which area they performed well e.g. 'You pronounced the words clearly' rather than general feedback such as 'good' or 'okay'.

This section has shown that for the purpose of retaining and enhancing student confidence and motivation, encouragement was used as part of the teachers' corrective feedback. The next section will discuss another feedback strategy which is believed to help promote student motivation.

4.5.2 Preferring elicitation for motivation, recasts for confidence

The teachers in this study believed that elicitation could enhance student motivation; while recasts could be used to build and retain student confidence. The observational data indicated that the most common types of feedback used by the teachers were recasts and elicitation (see Table XXI, Appendix L).

4.5.2.1 Using elicitation for student motivation

More than half of the teachers (6/11) related using elicitation to enhancing student motivation when asked about their reasons for adopting this strategy in the observed lessons (see Table VIII, Appendix L). They considered elicitation as a tool for creating a motivational classroom environment in two respects: encouraging the error maker to speak more, and creating collaborative learning. Motivation emerged in the data as not only for error makers, but also the whole class.

Some teachers targeted more on students who had made errors (the cases of Diann, Stefani, and Jane). It was observed that Diann usually gave students a hint when errors were relevant to the taught lesson. She revealed that it was because she believed, “They knew how to say it, but I just had to wait” (SM3). Similarly, Stefani pointed out that she believed, “If the speaker could correct it [without help], he’d be proud of himself” (PO1); while Jane explained that she used elicitation because if she corrected errors herself, “They’d not put the effort into their learning” (SM1).

In the cases of James, Emma, and Julie, however, they focused more on the whole class in the form of collaborative learning. As James stated, “I wanted to ask them first in case someone knew the answer. If a student could answer it, it might help motivate other students to answer” (PO2). Julie was another teacher who focused on collaborative learning through the use of elicitation, as can be seen in Extract 7.

Extract 7: An activity aiming at describing appearance (OB2)

TC: What do you look like?

ST: I am short and *black hair*. >>> grammatical error

TC: I am short and.... >>> elicitation

ST: black hair

TC: You don't say 'I am black hair', but you say 'I have black hair'.

Can you repeat the sentence, please? >>> explicit correction

ST: I am short and...

TC: I am short and have black hair. You also have this (pointing at her eyes). Can you add this to your description, please? I have... >>> elicitation

Class: Glasses.

TC: What colour are they? >>> elicitation

ST: Black

TC: Black. Can you make the complete sentence? I have....

>>> elicitation

ST: I have black glasses.

TC: Very good.

Commenting on Extract 7, Julie said, "When I was saying 'I have...' and the class helped complete it by saying 'glasses', it was like collaborative learning and it helped create motivating classroom environment" (SM2).

Teachers' beliefs about the benefits of elicitation for student motivation were also reported in Debreli and Onuk (2016). In their Cyprus-based study of 17 EFL teacher's preferences of error correction approaches in the speaking skills using semi-structured interviews and classroom observations, it was reported that the majority of the teachers preferred having students self-correct because they believed it would help increase student motivation.

This belief in the effects of teachers' motivational strategies on students has been reinforced by many studies. Research evidence suggests that teachers' motivational behaviours do enhance student motivation (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Moskovsky et al., 2013). However, the previous studies have reported mismatches between teachers' and students' preference about types of corrective feedback (Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010; Kaivanpanah, Alavi & Sepehrinia, 2015; Park, 2010; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016). For example, in the study of Roothoof and Breeze (2016) investigating how teachers preferred to correct spoken errors and how students preferred to be corrected, it was found that the students had a more positive attitude to explicit corrective feedback than the teachers did. Given that discrepancies between teachers' and students' beliefs and preferences could lead to students' lack of motivation for language learning (Kern, 1995), teachers' corrective feedback could be more beneficial if students' preferences were taken into account. Nevertheless, it is still necessary to be cautious about students' choice of preferred approach to feedback even when teachers take students' preferences into account because it does not necessarily mean that a specific approach will lead promote their learning (Mackey, Park, & Tagarelli, 2016).

The findings from this present study also show that the teachers believed that elicitation was more useful for raising student motivation if students tended to be able to self-correct. In contrast, if students seemed unable to self-correct, the teachers were more likely to use input-providing strategies. This finding is in agreement with the recommendation that teachers should opt for a feedback type appropriate to students' cognitive ability since recasts enhance the learning of new forms, while prompts such as elicitation encourage the learning of internalised forms (Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sarandi, 2016). By opting for a

context-suitable feedback type, students may develop their L2 learning from gaining new input and reinforcing learned knowledge. Furthermore, from the perspective of curriculum design, it has been suggested that the teaching method should accord with students' necessities, or else the learning goals might fail (Tyler, 2013).

4.5.2.2 Using recasts for student confidence

While elicitation is believed to enhance student motivation, recasts were believed to promote student confidence. Most of the teachers (6/11) used recasts to boost student confidence (see Table IX, Appendix L). The data implied that they perceived a recast as an implicit correction which could be used to save students' face and avoid putting pressure on them to correct errors. James, Stefani, Karen referred to their practice of using recasts as an attempt to make the error less obvious. When James was asked in Stimulated-recall Interview 1 why he corrected the error himself (recast), he said:

I rarely told them it was wrong because it might affect their confidence to speak. I didn't want them to think it was an error. It was just the thing they didn't know. (SM1)

It was also believed that the implicitness of recasts can save students' face. As Stefani explained the reason for using a recast, "The student seemed to realise her error. Actually, I wanted to ask her to correct it, but her reaction was like 'I was the one who said it.' So, I didn't want to put pressure on her" (SM2). Similarly, Keren, who preferred recasts to elicitation, stated that recasts served her intention to make students' errors less obvious. As she said, "I didn't want to point out their errors. I just wanted them to know the errors were made.

I didn't want to point them out because I didn't want to discourage them from speaking in the next tasks" (PO2).

Another pattern emerging from the data in relation to recasts was that it was believed to be a strategy which helped to avoid putting pressure on students. In the case of Julie, it was observed that she mostly used elicitation, but when she opted for recasts, it was because she "didn't want to put pressure on them" (PO1). The idea of using a recast to lessen the pressure on students was also remarked on by Jane and Denise. It was found that these two teachers used recasts because they did not want to make students feel pressured, especially with students they believed were more sensitive to corrective feedback, such as students who had low proficiency (in the case of Denise) or had pronunciation problems due to dental braces (in the case of Jane). In Stimulated-recall Interview 3, Denise commented on her use of a recast: "I didn't put pressure on him. He was a low proficiency student" (SM3). In the case of Jane, it was observed that she used recasts as regularly as elicitation. However, one of the reasons she gave for using a recast related to students' personal problems, such as when she corrected a student who was wearing braces. Jane commented on this correction, "I didn't want to highlight her mistake because she had braces [on her teeth]. That was why she couldn't say it right" (SM3).

Student confidence was also highlighted in the study of Mori (2011), which investigated Japanese teachers' cognition relating to oral corrective feedback. She found that their decision-making was driven by the aim to boost student confidence, independence, and ability to communicate. Similarly, Yoshida (2008) reported that teachers of the Japanese language in an

Australian university opted for recasts because they believed recasts were not intimidating for students.

Interestingly, while the data in this present study reported that the teachers believed elicitation could enhance student motivation, there was no evidence that they used elicitation to promote student confidence. It seemed that this was because they thought elicitation tended to hurt students' feelings more than recasts did. For five of the teachers, elicitation was held to have a negative impact on students' feelings (see Table X, Appendix L). They referred to this strategy as one that makes students 'feel bad', 'scared', 'feel pressured', and 'lose face'. This is in accordance with what previous studies have argued, namely that recasts are frequently used because they are "less threatening to student confidence" compared to elicitation (Loewen & Philp, 2006, p.551). However, some teachers (Julie and Emma) did not refrain from using elicitation, especially with errors relevant to the subject of the lesson (see Section 4.5.6). The strategy they used to alleviate the possible negative effects of elicitation on student confidence was to elicit the correction from the whole class instead of only the error maker.

Sections 4.5.1 and 4.5.2 have demonstrated how student motivation and confidence affected the participant teachers' cognition on corrective feedback types. As noted, Denise was more sensitive with students of lower proficiency because she believed they tended to be more sensitive to error correction, a perception shared by other teachers. The next section will present the teachers' cognition about student proficiency in relation to which errors to correct.

4.5.3 Being more selective with lower proficiency students

Apart from confidence, most of the teachers (5 out of 11) also related student proficiency with the ability to acquire knowledge (see Table X, Appendix L). For example, Jane said she did not focus much on fluency because she thought “their proficiency hasn’t reached that point. They might speak slowly, but it’s fine if it’s understandable” (PO1); while Emma, when it was observed that she did not correct some errors, stated that she tried not to correct too much with non-English major students “because there are a lot of things to learn even in a word” (SM1).

Driven by the belief that higher proficiency students had more ability to acquire more knowledge, the teachers were more selective about what to correct. With low proficiency students, five of the teachers appeared to be less strict with and more tolerant of spoken errors made by low proficiency students compared to those made by high proficiency students (see Table XI, Appendix L). For example, in practice Emma’s corrective feedback on the omission of final sounds in words was inconsistent. She explained, “I didn’t want to give non-English major students too much knowledge because they might not be able to acquire all of it” (SM1). Similarly, Karen answered why she believed it was better not to overcorrect low proficiency students:

Low proficiency students might want me to correct more. But if I corrected them too much, it might be overwhelming for them. It’d be better to give them a proper amount of knowledge, so they could take time to digest it. Later if they needed more and could take it more, it’d not be too late to give them more. (PO2)

Similarly, Thomas did not correct some errors due to student proficiency, as demonstrated in Extract 8.

Extract 8: The activity aiming at wishing someone well (OB2)

ST1: Hey Chid. How are you?

ST2: Not very well.

ST1: Oh...what happened?

ST2: I have a toothache. I'd like to go to the /*den.tɪd*/(dentist) soon. >>>
phonological error

ST1: That's fine. I hope you feel better.

TC: (said nothing) >>> no corrective feedback

When Thomas was asked why he did not correct the student who said /'den.tɪd/ instead of /'den.tɪst/, he said, "It wasn't a serious error, the meaning didn't change...I'd definitely correct this error if they were...English major students who have better ability to acquire much knowledge of English" (SM2). Steafni held a similar belief, relating student proficiency to the ability to gain knowledge. She explained that she would give more comments to English-major students' errors because of "the basic knowledge they had" (PO2).

It may seem paradoxical that the teachers tended to correct fewer errors made by low proficiency students, the very ones who stood to benefit from correction, rather than those of higher proficiency students, who, naturally, were able to engage more in speaking accurate English. However, studies have shown that higher proficient learners benefit more from oral corrective feedback than do lower proficient learners (De Keyser, 1993; Havranek & Cesnik, 2001; Mackey & Philp, 1998). For example, De Keyser (1993) investigated the effects

of error correction on the French grammar knowledge of high and low proficiency learners (the proficiency was assessed by a pre-test). They compared a class which had received explicit oral correction with one receiving only little correction by using post-test scores. The study found that learners of higher proficiency obtained higher scores on a written grammar test.

Moreover, it is worth noting that the teachers in this present study claimed to have the primary aim of instilling confidence and inspiring motivation with students of low proficiency. For this reason, it could not be assumed that the teachers' feedback was counterproductive for low proficiency students. The aim of creating, retaining, and building motivation to learn a language is in accordance with findings from related studies. There is evidence to indicate that teachers' motivational strategies affect student motivation (as previously discussed in Section 5.4.2.1) and student motivation tends to be closely related to learning achievements (Lasagabaster, 2011; Ushioda, 2010).

Although this present study did not collect data from the students and cannot make any assumption about the students' actual proficiency as well as their preference in relation to corrective feedback, it is worth pointing out here that numerous previous studies have reported mismatches between teachers' and learners' attitudes towards oral corrective feedback (Davis, 2003; Lee, 2004; Musayeva, 1998). In those studies, it has been found that learners want more correction and have a more positive attitude to being corrected than teachers think they do. Furthermore, in contrast to the beliefs of most teachers in the present study, research evidence has revealed that there is no significant difference between high proficiency students' and low proficiency students'

attitudes to corrective feedback (Lee, 2004; Park, 2010). This lacuna observed in the present study offers a potential fruitful avenue for future research.

4.5.4 The powerful influences of student factors

According to the discussion in sections 4.5.1-4.5.3, student factors exerted a powerful influence on teachers' cognition, more significant, in fact, than instructional constraints. This is illustrated in Figure 8, which shows student how factors (student motivation, confidence, proficiency) affected how the teachers conformed to the instructional constraint of curriculum goals.

The data analysis suggests that seven of the teachers adapted the task objectives according to student proficiency. With lower proficiency students, they believed they should set a lower standard of task accomplishment and let them speak from the written script they had prepared before performing the task. This was because they wanted to enhance their motivation and confidence (see Table XII, Appendix L). For example, talking about the task assessment, Diann said, "I want them to be able to speak what I teach them, but the accomplishment could be different for individual students. With low proficiency students, if they could speak out just a bit, I'd say they accomplished the task" (BG). In a similar way, James and Jane did not expect low proficiency students to fulfil the speaking tasks at the same level as high proficiency students. Jane used similar reasoning for not assigning low proficiency students a prompt speaking task, saying, "Their proficiency might not reach the level of doing a prompt speaking task. They were of very low proficiency. I should have given them an easier task" (SM2). James also pointed out, "I didn't expect much from them. I always let

them prepare [the script]. I never had them do the prompt speaking because they are not English major students, their proficiency level is low” (PO3).

Similar findings have been reported in the Japanese context (Nishino, 2012), in the Chinese context (Wang, 2007) and also the Thai context (Naruemon, 2013), whereby the teachers facilitated the tasks due to their students’ low level of proficiency. In the study of Naruemon (2013), investigating six Thai pre-service teachers’ beliefs and practices about the learner-centred approach, it was found that half of six teachers in the study avoided using pair and group work and opted for whole class activities and explained this decision as being determined by a perceived low level of student proficiency. Similarly, Wang (2007) examined the beliefs and practices of Chinese Primary EFL teachers with regard to learner-centredness. She reported that the minimal language proficiency of the students prevented the teachers from assigning more talking time.

Interestingly, the findings of this present study suggest that the relationships between curriculum goals and student proficiency are intertwined with student confidence. This may be because the teachers believed student proficiency is related to student confidence. Seven from the 11 teachers made links between proficiency and confidence in terms of low proficiency students having less confidence (see Table XIII, Appendix L). For instance, Emma stated, “Most students are still not confident to speak. I think it’s because they’re of low proficiency level, so they don’t dare to produce speech” (SM2). Similarly, Natalie believed that low proficient students were not confident to speak due to their limited vocabulary knowledge. She stated, “They aren’t confident, especially at

the beginning of the course. They didn't speak because they didn't have lots of vocab in their vocab bank. When they didn't know the word, they couldn't speak in a sentence and then chose to stay silent" (PO2).

Consequently, it is not unexpected that student confidence was also found to affect how the teachers pursued the curriculum goals, especially when they talked about why they avoided overcorrection. For example, Thomas pointed out, when asked why he highlighted linking sounds with one group of students by correcting them more frequently compared to the other group, "These students...I could focus on that issue (the linking sound), but the other group...I had to put less expectation on them because building up confidence was the priority for them" (PO3). He added, "Those students (the latter group) had lower proficiency" (PO3). This suggests that Thomas focused on correction relating to curriculum goals, but that the degree of emphasis on that topic would differ according to student proficiency.

Possible reasons for the strong influence of student factors

Although student factors have been reported as important for teachers' decision-making in many studies (e.g. Farrell & Kun, 2008; Kim, 2014; Nishino, 2012; Smith, 1992) including in the models of Borg (2006) and Shavelson and Stern (1981), affective factors of students are less frequently highlighted. The more significant the student factors are, especially student confidence and motivation, might be explained by the fact that oral corrective feedback is a student-teacher interaction which is likely to be considered intrusive. As found in many studies (e.g. Musayeva, 1998; Numrich, 1996; Roothoof, 2014), teachers refrained from

correcting students' spoken errors because they were concerned about students' affective responses.

Another possible explanation for the prominence of student factors was that the data which has emerged in the present study was triangulated by different types of methods and by different sources (namely, the three stages of teacher cognition—pre-active, interactive, and post-active cognition). This triangulation reinforced the data by inquiring into the themes which emerged from each stage of data collection, serving in turn to reveal factors that the teachers were not conscious of. For example, in the case of Denise, her interactive cognition played an important role in revealing the factor of student confidence. This supports the evidence from six studies about teachers' interactive thoughts reviewed by Clark and Peterson (1984) suggesting that teachers' interactive thoughts were reported to be primarily concerned with the learner.

It is interesting that student factors that governed the teachers' decision-making in this study were affective factors (confidence and motivation), which, although they were predicted by individual teachers, were not easy to observe. This could be the reason why most of the teachers (7/11) made their predictions based on their students' level of proficiency, which they generally assumed from knowing their area of study (English-major or non-English major). This assumption might not necessarily be correct, as high English proficiency could be seen in non-English major students and language proficiency obviously changes over time (Bardovi-Harlig & Stringer, 2010; Murtagh & van der Slik, 2004). According to the finding that the teachers tended to give less corrective

feedback to students of low proficiency, the misplaced assumption underpinning this decision could have a detrimental effect on students' learning as individual students have different learning styles and needs in relation to error correction.

From all the cases, perceptions of student confidence deriving from teacher-student interaction and students' reactions in the classroom only emerged in the cases of Stefani and Jane. In the case of the former, it was noted in the second observation that she frequently opted for a recast instead of elicitation because she noticed the student's reaction to her own error. As Stefani said, "The student seemed to realise her error. Actually, I wanted to ask her to correct it, but her reaction was like, 'I was the one who said it.' So, I didn't want to put pressure on her" (SM2). This implies that she was aware of the student's loss of confidence and immediately accommodated her feedback according to the student's reaction. In the case of Jane, it was observed that she usually noticed students' reactions in the classroom and acted accordingly. She commented on her use of a recast in the first observation, "That student looked at me signalling whether she had said it correctly. So, I gave a quick correction" (SM1).

The data of how the teachers make assumptions about students' affective factors suggests that it can be more useful for students' learning when teachers adapt corrective feedback according to a specific interaction with each student at a particular time.

As discussed above, the teachers lowered the standards of task accomplishment and assigned easier tasks to low proficiency students to

enhance their motivation and confidence. A strategy they used was using the curriculum goals as a criterion to decide on which errors to correct.

4.5.5 Correcting curriculum-focused errors

As discussed in Section 4.5.3 and 4.5.4, the teachers believed that they should be more selective about which errors to correct when it comes to low proficiency students. One of their selection criteria was whether it was a curriculum-focused error.

Curriculum goals were mentioned by all the teachers, both explicitly and implicitly, in relation to what errors they corrected and how they corrected those errors. The words they mostly used to refer to this concept were ‘course objectives/goals’ and ‘lesson objectives/goals’. To make the concept of ‘errors relevant to the lesson focus’ more explicit, this section will begin by demonstrating how the teachers made links among the objectives of the course, of the lessons, and of the tasks. The connections between these three concepts were evident in the cases of Diann, Stefani, Jane, and Julie.

Diann claimed that the errors she corrected depended on the course objectives, and she might give corrective feedback less frequently on a course with less depth of content. She said that the frequency of her corrective feedback “depends on the course content” (PO2). Similarly, Stefani, Jane, and Julie reported that the course objectives influenced the course content and the task objectives, which finally had an impact on the students’ language. They implied that this was the reason for the limited types of errors they corrected. Stefani said, “I didn’t correct much in other areas (the issue irrelevant to the course

objectives) because the student language didn't show it" (PO3). In the same way, Jane and Julie reported that the areas of error she corrected were determined by the aim(s) of the task. It is possible that in the teachers' views, the course objectives were the basis of the task content and objectives.

It could be assumed that the curriculum goals referred to by the teachers were linked to the course objectives, the lesson objectives, and the task objectives. The course objectives tended to affect the lesson objectives, and the lesson objectives tended to affect the task objectives, which in turn might influence the student language demonstrated in the classroom. Therefore, when the teachers decided to correct an error relevant to the curriculum's goals, it was likely that it was the result of one of these three components. For this reason, this present study uses 'curriculum goals' as an umbrella term for the three concepts.

Curriculum goals clearly affected the teachers' cognition on what to correct. All the participants referred to curriculum goals when asked about the reason for correcting and not correcting (see Table XIII and Table XIV, Appendix L). They seemed to believe in curriculum-related corrections, and it was observed that their practices matched this belief. The teachers gave two main reasons for this belief: checking students' understanding of the lesson, and making sure students were prepared for the exam.

4.5.5.1 To check students' understanding

One of the two main reasons the teachers corrected curriculum-related errors was to check students' understanding of the lessons. For instance, Diann said, "I wanted them to be able to speak what they've learned" (BG) when asked what her aim for teaching the course was, and it constantly appeared in her observed lessons that she corrected errors relevant to the lesson focus. She later said in Post-observation Interview 2 that her correction would be different on a different course because "it's about the course content". Similarly, Karen corrected a student when he did not say an expression which was the task focus, as can be seen in Extract 9.

Extract 9: An activity aiming at listening to a record at the doctor's and saying a sentence to check the understanding using the taught expressions (OB2)

Recording: This is the prescription that may help yourself sorted out.
Take two tablets three times a day before meal.

ST: I should take two tablets three times before meal.

>>> error relevant to the lesson focus

TC: So you mean I should take two tablets three times before meal.

>>> recast

Although the students were able to grasp the main idea of the recordings and gave the correct answer, when asked why she gave a recast by adding 'so you mean' at the beginning of the sentence, Karen said, "It'd be better to use the expression so that the speech sounds smoother and more natural" (SM2). She added, "The students didn't say the expression I gave them. I wanted them to use it because it'd make the sentence sound more natural...and it was the objective of this activity" (SM2).

4.5.5.2 To prepare students for the exam

Although it is unsurprising that the teachers corrected errors according to the lesson or task focus, it is interesting that most of them believed that they needed to do it because of the exam. The influence of the exam on error correction emerged in the cases of Eve, Julie, Denise, Emma, Jane, and James, even though its effect seemed more evident in the cases of Jane and James (see Table XVI, Appendix L). In these two cases, the exam was frequently referred to from the pre-lesson through interactive cognition to post-lesson cognition. Eve and Julie revealed that they needed to follow the course objectives to make sure their students “can do the exam” (BG, Eve; BG, Julie). Although Eve claimed that the exam did not directly affect her error correction, she admitted that it affected the teaching content in general. In the case of Denise, the exam did not influence what to correct, but it did influence *how* she corrected. It seemed that she tended to give quick feedback such as recasts to correct errors irrelevant to the exam content. When asked in the second observed lesson why she gave a recast on a mispronunciation of ‘allowed’, she said “It wasn’t the point in the exam. When I was deciding on whether I should give the explanation, I’d consider the exam” (SM3).

Jane highlighted accuracy according to the exam when she corrected students’ errors. As can be seen in Extract 24 (see Section 5.4.1), she corrected the misuse of ‘does’ in the sentence ‘I doesn’t hot’ by telling the students to be sensitive about the difference between ‘spoken language’ and ‘exam language’. It seemed to show that Jane corrected errors with the exam in mind. Similarly, the significant impact of the exam seemed to be evident in the case of James. He persistently raised the point that he was teaching to the exam during the

background interview even though he was directed by the questions to other topics. For instance, when asked about the influence of institutional policies on his teaching, he said, “It’s the content that informs how I teach them. No one told me how, but the content...I need to cover it all to make students do well in the exam. But the methodology can be flexible” (BG). In addition, his observed lessons showed that he often corrected grammatical errors which were focused on in the lessons *and* tended to be in the exam.

This finding of ‘washback’ in teachers’ beliefs and practices has been reported by previous studies (e.g. Cheng, 1997; Erfani, 2012; Kilickaya, 2016; Muñoz & Álvarez, 2010). More specifically, the data in this study indicated that the teachers here expressed the belief that the exam affected their error correction in terms of correcting errors relevant to the exam focus. This finding appeared both from the interviews and observations as they narrowed their error correction according to what was focused in the exam. According to the syllabus of the courses observed in the study (see Appendix C), the course assessment had more weighting in terms of scores than the paper-based exam. Although in most of the observed courses there was speaking assessment via group role-play tests, the scores from the speaking tests only constituted approximately 10-20%. Given the fact that the course assessment emphasised paper-based tests, it seemed reasonable for the teachers to focus on errors relevant to the exams. This finding was also reported in the study of Choi (2008), who found that EFL teachers in Korea focused on receptive language skills instead of productive skills because they aimed to prepare students for multiple-choice exams.

Why did washback not emerge in the other five cases?

While washback emerged in six cases, as discussed above, there was no evidence indicating washback effects in the other five cases (Karen, Stefani, Diann, Natalie, Thomas). Taking the observational data into account, errors relating to the lesson focus were one type of error they corrected. However, in all the interviews, including the stimulated recalls, these teachers did not refer their correction to the exam content. For this reason, it cannot be assumed that their claim of no washback effects was false. Interestingly, two out of the five cases claimed no exam effects due to the fact that they did not know the exam content. Indeed, when asked about the exam effects on his teaching, Thomas said, “Some teachers teach to the exam, but I don’t know what the exam’s like because I’m not one of the exam makers” (BG).

In the case of Stefani, she stated that the exam did not influence her teaching: “I don’t know anything about the exam” (BG). She added that for the course on which she set the exam herself, the exam did not affect her teaching either because she designed the exam according to what she had taught. This was also found in the cases of Natalie and Karen. Karen said what she taught influenced the exam: “I test them what I teach” (BG). Similarly, Natalie said she “designed the exam after the course ended” (BG).

According to the above discussion, we can conclude that a lack of washback effects could result from the exam management involving only some of the teachers assigned to design the exam and from teachers’ preferences with regard to the timing of designing the exam. As previously mentioned, in the cases of Thomas and Natalie, they did not affected by the exam because they

did not involve with designing the exam and were not informed about the exam content; while in the cases of Natalie and Karen, they designed the exam after the courses ended to better reflect what they had taught in the classroom. Therefore, investigating teachers' beliefs and practices in various courses and at different timing may help strengthen our understanding of the effect of washback. However, this finding demonstrates that it might be difficult to aim for positive washback because teachers may be unaware of the exam content. Therefore, this issue may need to be more highlighted, especially in the Thai context.

Section 4.5.5 has discussed the impact of curriculum goals on the teachers' cognition of what to correct. Curriculum goals also affected their cognition of *how* to correct, which is the subject of the next section.

4.5.6 Using elicitation with curriculum-relevant errors

Most of the teachers (8/11) claimed that their use of elicitation was due to the fact that the errors were related to taught lessons (see Table XVII, Appendix L). Similar to their reasons for correcting errors relevant to the lessons, they stated that they elicited the corrections from the students because they wanted to 'go over' the topic, to have the students 'think about it again', and to 'check their understanding'. As Denise said about her observed lesson, "I wanted to check their understanding, if it was about what had been taught" (SM1). An example of her elicitation is found in Extract 25 in Section 5.4.1. Like Denise, when Natalie was asked why she elicited a correction from a student although she normally used recasts, she said, "I wanted her to think about what she's learned" (PO2).

Similarly, Stefani stated: “I wanted to go over it to see if any student could remember” (SM2).

As discussed in Section 4.5.2.2 (p. 201), the teachers believed that elicitation tended to hurt students’ feelings more than recasts did. In line with this belief, they used elicitation with errors relevant to taught lessons because they thought students were more likely to self-correct in this case. For instance, Denise, who commonly used recasts instead of elicitation because she wanted to promote student confidence, explained why sometimes she elicited the correction from students (as observed in Lesson Observation 1): “I don’t ask them (to correct) if it’s not about what I’ve taught” (PO1). Similarly, when asked why she sometimes used recasts and at other times used elicitation, Natalie said, “It depends on the lesson. If it was about the lesson they’ve just learned, they should be able to know the correct one” (PO2).

Even in the case of Stefani, who preferred to elicit corrections from students, she appeared to be sensitive about students’ ability to self-correct when she considered using elicitation. It was observed that she sometimes used recasts when she thought the error maker was sensitive to correction, such as when a student reacted to her correction as if to say, “I was the one who said it” (SM2). Later, when she elicited a correction from the class in Lesson Observation 3, she said in the Stimulated-Recall interview, “They should be able to correct it as they’ve learned about it” (SM3).

Taking the data gained from the many interviews conducted throughout this study, it seems that the teachers tended to use elicitation with errors related to the lessons because students were more likely to self-correct. They believed that this would be less intrusive than eliciting the correction from them when they were less likely to self-correct because the error was on an aspect of language out of the lesson's focus.

Learners' ability to self-correct has been found in other studies to affect teachers' beliefs about using elicitation. Kaivanpanah, Alavi, and Sepehrinia (2015) studied 25 Iranian EFL teachers' views about oral corrective feedback types in a series of semi-structured interviews. Their study revealed that the teachers believed that elicitation was appropriate for learners who could self-correct, such as advanced learners. Similarly, in the study of Yoshida (2008) exploring teachers' choices of corrective feedback types in Japanese as a foreign language classroom through audio recordings of the classes and a stimulated recall interview, the teachers opted for elicitation when they considered the learners were capable of self-correction. However, none of these studies reported a preference for using elicitation in relation to errors deemed relevant to the topic of the lesson.

Having discussed the impact of curriculum goals on the participant teachers' cognition, the next section will discuss the effects of real-world communication.

4.5.7 Correcting errors relating to real-world communication

Apart from using curriculum goals to decide on what to correct, it was found that the teachers narrowed down the errors they believed should be corrected by considering real-world communication. Two aspects of real-world communication were considered: errors causing communication breakdown and common errors.

4.5.7.1 Correcting errors affecting communication

The data analysis suggests that seven of the teachers corrected errors causing communication breakdowns such as those affecting the meaning of the word or sentence and those affecting comprehensibility in real-life situations (see Table XVIII, Appendix L).

The influence of real-world communication on the correction of errors that could affect the meaning was underlined by Karen, Thomas, Jane, and Stefani. Karen reported that she would correct errors that distorted the intended meaning even though they were irrelevant to the lesson focus, saying “If their words didn’t convey the meaning they wanted, I’d correct them although it wasn’t the lesson objective” (BG). Later in the lesson, it was observed that she did not correct a grammatical error, explaining: “It was still understandable. He said ‘the cartridge run out ink’ without ‘of’, but it was alright. At least he could say what the problem was” (SM2). In a similar way, Thomas chose to correct the mispronunciation of the word ‘then’ although it was not in the vocabulary focus because he wanted the students to be aware of the effect of mispronouncing the /ð/ sound (see Extract 10).

Extract 10: An activity aiming at pronunciation drill

TC: The weather is great.

Class: The /weθər/ (weather) is /gɛɪt/ (great). >>> phonological error

TC: /'weðər/ /'weð.ər/ /'weð.ər/ is /greɪt/. Say Gr....Gr....

'Then' how do you say this word? /ðen/, NOT /ten/. It's like ด เต็ก⁴, but you need to pull you tongue out. NOT /den/. So, pronunciation is important. You need to be concerned about it.

>>> explicit correction

As can be seen, 'then' was not in focus of the conversation, but Thomas corrected the students' mispronunciation of the /ð/ sound in the word 'weather', and then mentioned the pronunciation of 'then' to raise their awareness of correct pronunciation. He commented on his feedback thus: "I wanted them to know [in a similar way] if they said /ten/, it'd become สิบ⁵" (SM1).

Similarly, Jane stated that she generally did not correct intonation errors, but if it caused a change of meaning she would correct it, saying, "I think if they spoke like that in real life, foreigners would be able to understand them. But if it [the intonation error] did [change the meaning], I'd correct it" (PO1). The importance of correct pronunciation was also highlighted by Stefani, who pointed out that correct pronunciation was central to conveying the intended meaning. She explained why she corrected a mispronunciation observed in Lesson Observation 1: "I wanted them to know that pronunciation is important. It's not only about making them look educated; ...it's [also] about communication" (SM1).

⁴ ด เต็ก is a Thai consonant sound which is similar to /d/

⁵ สิบ in Thai means ten

Communication breakdown was also broadened to cover the comprehensibility of speech in terms of whether the listener was able to understand the message in context. This point was demonstrated by some teachers when they corrected errors that did not explicitly change the meaning of the word, but did impede comprehensibility. For example, Diann's correction was extended to the point of whether the conversation made sense, as she explained why she had the student lengthen the conversation to make it more comprehensible; while Emma corrected a linking sound because she wanted the students to be aware that it was important for real-world communication, especially when understanding native speakers' spoken language.

Eve's comment encapsulated this concept when she reported that she would try to correct any error that might obstruct real-life communication, saying, "I think, for some errors, if I let them speak incorrectly, it wouldn't work in real life if they use it in real communication. So, if I can correct it, I will" (PO3). This was evident in her second observation, when she corrected the mispronunciation of 'fry' in 'French fries' numerous times because the student could not say it correctly. However, when another student said /'særəd/ instead of /'sæləd/, she corrected the error only once even though that student could not say it correctly after she had been corrected. Compare Extract 11 with Extract 12, both from Eve's second observation.

Extract 11: The activity aiming at ordering and taking order in a restaurant (OB2)

ST1: Are you ready to order?

ST2: Yes. I think (/θæŋk/) so.

TC: I think (/θɪŋk/) so! >>>recast

ST1: What would you like?

ST2: A steak and French fries (/fræns flɑɪ/) >>>phonological error

TC: French fries! (/ 'frentʃ 'fraɪz/) >>>recast

ST2: French fries (/fræns flɑɪ/) >>>phonological error

TC: French fries! (/ 'frentʃ 'fraɪz/) >>>recast

Extract 12: The activity aiming at ordering and taking order in a restaurant (OB2)

ST1: What would you like?

ST2: I'll have a steak with some rice and a small /'særəd/ please.

>>> phonological error

TC: /'sæləd/. >>>recast

ST2: /'særəd/.

In contrast to Extract 11, Eve corrected the mispronunciation of the word 'salad' in Extract 12 only once. When asked about the reason, she said, "I thought when she mispronounced 'salad', it was still the same word. But 'French fries', it turned into 'flies', which means 'แมลงวัน'⁶. I thought in real-life, /'særəd/ is comprehensible" (SM2). It can be seen that Eve corrected both errors but she emphasised more the error which might lead to a communication breakdown. Thomas gave a similar reason for not correcting a mispronounced word, saying, "The listener could understand this word by the context of the sentence" (SM2). In the same way, Denise said she did not give corrective feedback on intonation in some situations because "it was still comprehensible", adding, "If the intonation changed the meaning of the sentence, such as saying a statement with a rising intonation, I'd correct it" (SM3).

⁶ 'flies' (noun) in English

It is evident that the teachers were likely to correct errors affecting meaning and communication, such as mispronunciation, which might not be the immediate focus of the lesson but did affect intended meaning and comprehensibility. On the other hand, if the error did not alter the meaning of the sentence and the sentence was still comprehensible, they were likely not to correct it. They seemed to link this with classroom time management. Julie said that due to time limitations, she “can’t correct every correct”; while Natalie explained that she did not correct some errors because she was ‘in a rush’ as there were too many students waiting to perform the task. Karen used a metaphor to show how she balanced between the two categories of errors, comparing the goal of the curriculum as a destination to which there are many alleys, some leading directly there and others not. She seemed to agree with correcting an error affecting communication, but it must not diverge too far from the focus of the lesson, leading the class away from the important destination. She said, “It’s like when we stop by every alley, we’ll forget where we are going. If we need to stop by somewhere, it needs to [be somewhere that] lead[s] us to the destination” (PO3).

Another type of error that the teachers referred to as ones they believed should be corrected was those *commonly made by students*.

4.5.7.2 Correcting common errors

Common errors were referred to by the teachers as errors they frequently corrected. The majority of the teachers (7/11) reported that when they viewed the error as common for their class or for Thai students in general, they were

likely to correct it (see Table XIX, Appendix L). A list of common errors corrected by the teachers is below:

<u>Area of errors</u>	<u>Case</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Word stress 	Stefani, Emma
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pronunciation of problematic consonant sounds Such as /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/, /tʃ/, /r/, /z/, /v/ 	Stefani, Eve, Denise, Emma, Natalie
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vowel sounds such as /ɜ:/, /ɔ:/ 	Denise
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Final sounds such as /p/ in 'plump' 	Emma, Denise
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Phrases that are used in the wrong context such as 'I think so' 	Stefani, Julie
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Commonly mispronounced words among students such as 'management' 	Emma

As can be seen from the list, the common errors corrected by the teachers were all phonological in nature. However, there were other types of errors that the teachers considered common among students. For example, the misuse of 'I think so' found in Stefani's second observation and in the case of Julie when a student misused 'You're welcome' to express pleasure when someone arrives, as shown in Extract 13.

Extract 13: The role-play activity 'in a shop'

ST1: *You're welcome. You're welcome.* May I help you, madam?

ST2: Do you sell badminton racket?

(The conversation continued until finished)

TC: At a shop, your customers get in you say 'welcome to the shop', but if they ask for something and they say thank you to you you say 'you're welcome.' But not 'you're welcome' at the beginning.

>>> explicit correction

Julie explained why she corrected the misuse of 'You're welcome' by saying, "It wasn't about what they had learned [in the course], but they were supposed to use it correctly. I corrected it because I thought about when they would use it in real life" (SM3).

It should be noted here that the teachers did not consider common errors according to linguistic areas. However, the finding that phonological errors dominated their correction could be due to the fact that Thai learners tend to have problems with English pronunciation given that the two languages have completely different sound systems (Mano-im, 1999). In accordance with the common pronunciation errors mentioned by the teachers in this present study, Wei and Zhou (2002) investigated pronunciation problems among Thai students and found that the problems were consonant and vowel sounds such as /r/ and /l/, /v/ and /f/, /θ/ and /ð/, and intonation and stress problems.

According to these observations, it is interesting to note that most common errors corrected by the teachers had an effect on meaning. As Julie reported, "Common errors are attached to meaning. Most common errors affect the meaning, such as mispronunciation. So, the two... go along together" (PO3). However, it seems that sometimes an error referred to as a common error had

nothing to do with its effect on meaning. For instance, when the word 'management' was mispronounced as /'mænædʒmənt/, Emma explained her decision to correct thus: "They often mispronounce it...It's often used when they introduce what they are studying" (PO1). It can be assumed that since that group of students was studying at the Faculty of Commerce and Management, Emma corrected the mispronunciation of 'management' because those students were likely to say this word frequently in real life.

It appears that the goal of using language in real life influenced the teachers to raise student awareness of common errors and the effect those errors can have on communication in relation to both comprehensibility and intelligibility.

4.5.8 Tensions between curriculum goals and real-world communication

As mentioned in Section 4.5.5, the teachers tended to focus on correcting errors relevant to the course objectives to avoid overcorrection, which they believed might undermine student's confidence to speak. At the same time, they were also likely to consider the meaning of speech in real communication when they decided on error correction.

Most of the teachers seemed to integrate real-world communication into the curriculum goals in terms of not limiting their correction to errors narrowly confined to course objectives. They corrected errors affecting meaning and communication such as word stress, mispronunciation and grammar points which were not the immediate focus of the lesson but did affect the intended

meaning in a particular context. The reason they gave for this was the practicality of speech in real-life situations. For example, while Diann claimed that she aimed to cover the course content and to help students meet the demands of the exam, she did not seem to feel uncomfortable to adapt the content to real-life situations. As she said when asked about the reason for having the students extend the conversation in a speaking task, “I thought that lesson wasn’t very difficult. I thought I could add more knowledge to them. It was still in the same topic that they were learning, so it’d be fine” (PO2). However, there were tensions in some cases between beliefs and practices when the teachers tried to conform narrowly to curriculum goals while simultaneously considering communication and real-life scenarios.

As discussed in Chapter 4, washback was a dominant theme for James and Jane. They referred to links between the exam and the course goals by revealing that they aimed to help students succeed in the exam, which in their eyes was the primary teaching goal of the course. However, unlike other teachers who were affected by the demands of the exam, these two reported a tension between their sense of being obligated to focus on content that was likely to crop up in the exam, and their personal beliefs about course assessment.

James pointed out that 70% of the course assessment came in the paper-based exam. Since he had previously noted that these criteria were set by the department, when asked about his preferences if he could set them himself, he said, “I’d set 25% for the midterm exam and 25% for the final exam and the rest would be cumulative scores in the classroom [speaking practice]. I used to raise

this at the meeting, but nothing has changed” (BG). In the case of Jane, she expressed a similar opinion about course assessment. She reported in the background interview that the exam influenced her teaching in terms of what to focus in the class. She needed to direct her teaching to the exam content, which mainly focused on grammar, because she was afraid that the students might not be able to perform well in the exam if she did not, although she believed in not highlighting grammatical errors in the speaking classroom since she considered grammatical mistakes did not matter in real-life situations “as long as the communication succeeds” (BG). She opined that overly focusing on accuracy might negatively affect students’ confidence to speak.

It is apparent that James and Jane felt obliged to emphasise exam content in their classes although they disagreed with the metrics of the course assessment and wanted to focus more on speaking practice and communicative goals. It might be for this reason that they were mainly driven by the course objectives and lesson objectives when they corrected an error, as discussed in their case summaries in Chapter 4. The types of errors they corrected were in accordance with the curriculum goals. The tension between curriculum goals and beliefs about the course assessment found in the cases of James and Jane illustrates the possible effects of negative washback.

Previous studies have reported that washback may have negative effects on students’ development of speaking skills (e.g. Rahimi & Nazhand, 2010; Sevimli, 2007, cited in Hatipoglu, 2016). Rahimi and Nazhand (2010) studied IELTS test influence on Iranian learners who attended an e-learning preparation course to prepare for IELTS General Speaking Module. The data was collected

through questionnaires relating to the speaking instruction. The authors reported that the learners focused on learning test-related content rather than on developing their speaking skill for real-life situations. It was concluded that the IELTS exam had a negative washback on the learners because it restricted their attention to the form of the exam.

Despite the previous findings of negative washback, washback in James' point of view seemed to be positive. Although he would prefer the assessment to test more practical speaking skills, he claimed that his focus on the content relevant to the exam was useful for raising student motivation to learn English. As he stated, "When they got good scores, they'd think they could do it [be successful in studying English] and felt encouraged. This would be good for their English learning" (BG). It can be seen that James verified his focus on the exam from his intention to fulfil students' needs to obtain good exam scores and his belief that this sense of accomplishment would enhance their learning. Another reason for his positive attitude to focusing on the exam seems to be his belief that the exam results were in some way a measurement of the quality of his teaching. In accordance with this, Buck (1998) and Smith (1991) pointed out that satisfactory test results and feelings of shame, guilt, and embarrassment on behalf of teachers can be reasons for washback effects on teachers.

Taking James' claim into account, positive washback on student motivation for learning a language might well be feasible, if not necessarily significant. Limited research in this area has found that washback can help develop students' extrinsic motivation for language learning while no clear evidence for the benefit of intrinsic motivation was found in the studies of

Buyukkeles (2016) in the context of Turkey, Lumley and Stoneman (2000) in the context of Hong Kong, and Pan and Newfields (2013) in the context of Taiwan. In addition, only minimal effects were reported in the cases of low proficiency students (Pan, 2014; Pan & Newfields, 2013). Although it has been found that extrinsic motivation might lead to intrinsic motivation, this would likely happen only under certain circumstances (Dörnyei, 1994). For these reasons, it is useful for teachers to be cautious about justifying their practice of focusing on the exam content for the development of student motivation. Moreover, it would be worth keeping in mind the possible negative effects of washback such as the adverse impact on the development of productive language skills (Choi, 2008) and the danger of a 'cramming style' of teaching (Cunningham & Sanzo, 2002; Cheng, 1997).

Incongruence between the exam and the aim of raising students' communicative competence has also been revealed in the Malaysian and Japanese contexts. Fauziah and Nita (2001) found that although the Malaysian national English curriculum aims to develop the four skills of English, the teachers believed that the exam was more heavily concentrated on reading and writing skills rather than listening and speaking. As they were concerned about students' exam scores, they often neglected oral communication practices in their classroom and opted to focus on reading and writing skills. Similarly, Sakui (2004) reported that although the Japanese teachers believed communicative language teaching was important, their implementation of it was constrained by the grammar-based entrance examination.

Why was no tension found in other cases?

It is noteworthy that among the teachers who were affected by washback (Eve, Julie, Denise, Emma, Jane, and James), James and Jane were the only two who expressed disagreement about the paper-based exam, which was focused on grammar. The data analysis suggests that the other four teachers agreed with the grammar-focused exam because they believed in the importance of grammar in spoken language. Denise argued that it was necessary to teach grammar in the speaking classroom because students speak fluently but are not good at grammar “have not fully develop their proficiency yet” (PO3).

Similarly, Julie, Emma, and Eve believed that grammar was important for students in the Thai EFL context. Julie stated that it was possible to focus more on fluency rather than accuracy but only in the context where English was widely used. When asked further about her opinion on ‘grammar for spoken English’, she pointed out that she was not against this idea, but if teachers taught one system of grammar rules in the speaking classroom while teaching another system in the writing classroom, “students will definitely be confused about which one they should use and why they are different” (PO3). She believed that this was because “they have limited experience of using English, so they don’t have enough understanding to judge which one is for each context” (PO3). Similarly, Emma was aware of ‘grammar for spoken English’ because she had conducted research on this topic. As she put it, “Firstly, we need to know what is correct because we’re not native speakers. The mistakes we make are mostly due to our lack of knowledge” (PO3). She pointed out that when students know about accuracy, “it’s their choice to use it or not in their spoken language” (PO3).

The beliefs of Denise and Julie may partly be related to Thai students' English proficiency. As Eve argued, "Students did not have enough grammatical knowledge to speak. If I didn't teach them the structures, they wouldn't have anything to produce their speech" (PO3). Finally, when asked whether it meant that she agreed with teaching grammar in the speaking classroom, she said, "Yes. The problem is about our education system. We learn English for the (paper-based) exam" (PO3). Emma also expressed this belief, saying, "In our society, we use the grade to decide on giving someone an opportunity such as using it as a criterion for getting into the uni" (BG).

Following from the above discussion, it is apparent that four teachers believed in teaching grammar in the speaking classroom as well as in an exam designed accordingly due to the Thai EFL context and students' low level of grammatical knowledge, which could affect the development of their speaking skills. This accords with previous studies which have posited that washback is related to teachers' beliefs about the exam and the goals of language learning (e.g. Anderson, 2004; Birjandi & Shirkhani, 2012; Burrows, 2004).

It is worth pointing out that since the teachers tended to conform to curriculum goals, negative washback on students' learning may be lessened if the speaking assessment tested the related skills important for real-life communication by having students speak, instead of assessing their speaking skills by a paper-based test.

Apart from the tensions between conforming to curriculum goals and considering the demands of real-world communication, another issue that can be drawn from the data is related to intelligibility and nativelike English.

4.5.9 Issues of intelligibility and nativelike English

It can be noticed from the above discussion that the teachers gave corrective feedback on both segmental and suprasegmental features and made connections between these features and intelligibility as well as comprehensibility. These cognitions and practices seem to be in line with evidence from previous studies which has reported that both segmental and suprasegmental features affect degrees of intelligibility (e.g. Field, 2005; Hahn & Watts, 2011; Jin & Liu, 2014).

Intelligibility relates to the degree of the listener recognising words or utterances (Rajagopalan, 2011; Smith & Nelson, 1985; Zielinski, 2008). The teachers in this present study seemed to be aware of this as they frequently mentioned the interlocutor's recognition of the word in connection with their decisions on the correct pronunciation and forms. Nonetheless, they often referred to the interlocutor as a 'foreigner', which appeared to differ in individual teachers' perceptions (refer to Table XX in Appendix L).

Diann, James, Natalie, and Eve seemed to restrict their decisions to correct an error according to native norms. When asked what constitutes 'good English', Diann said, "Nativelike English...like American, British, Australian...not Singaporean or Malaysian...I can't stand them. I feel like they're not English" (BG). Similarly, James expressed a strong belief about nativelike accents when

asked what he would say if his students spoke with a Thai accent, saying, “It’s not okay. I want them to have a native accent” (PO1). When asked further what accent he considered proper, he said: “[Like people from] England, America, Australia, New Zealand” (PO1) because he believed that those accents were more “worldwide” (PO1). Eve also strongly expressed her belief about native English, saying, “I cannot stand improper English such as Tenglish, if it does not do its job – communication. (BG)

In contrast to these four teachers, the other seven were more open-minded about non-native English and more aware of World Englishes although they did correct students’ errors according to native norms. Also, they viewed English differently from the four teachers who made a stark distinction between native-like and non-native English. They believed that students could speak in any accent as long as it did not affect communication. Most of them thought that a different accent did not matter as long as the message came across. Thomas conveyed this idea well: “Students can choose which accent they prefer as long as it doesn’t cause miscommunication. I told them accent doesn’t matter; pronunciation does” (BG). For Karen, “I don’t think of only people from Western countries. I also think of our neighbours like Malaysia. So, I need to tell students that pronunciation can be flexible, so just speak out. As long as it’s comprehensible, it’s fine” (BG). Emma also believed in varieties of English. However, she viewed it from a slightly different angle, believing it was essential to raise students’ awareness of native-like English because “...they need to know they can’t control how other people speak ..., they have to understand [what those people say]. If not, their [students’] utterances are useless” (PO3).

Her statements show that she considered learning native speakers' language important for oral communication, especially for *listening*.

As noted above, although most of the teachers were not opposed to the idea of World Englishes, data from the observations suggests that *all* the teachers corrected errors according to native norms. For Stefani, this was because students might be confused if there were no standards of correctness:

If I let them speak incorrectly, when they found it in the exam they might be confused. And they might wonder why sometimes I corrected it, other times I didn't. So, I think there must be a standard. (PO3)

Similarly, arguing why she needed to correct students' errors according to standard English, Julie said, "For this context [the Thai context], we need to achieve standard English first, then realise variation in grammar. But it needs to come after knowing what standard English is like" (SM2). She later explained how she balanced accuracy and fluency in her teaching: "Under the concept of communication, I expect students to achieve what I have taught. There's a level of English in Higher Education (HE) that students need to achieve. It's communication-based on a standard" (PO3). This sentiment concurs with Crystal's (1999) argument that it is necessary to teach standard English for a future career or an exam, even though he seemed not to consider standard English as native-like English.

The dominance of native-like English also appears in other non-native regions such as Korea and China (Foley, 2007), Brazil and Argentina (Friedrich, 2002), and Japan (Matsuda, 2002; Suzuki, 2011). Similar to the findings of this

PhD research study of the Thai context, it has been found that non-native teachers prefer native-speaker norms over English varieties and adopt native norms as the overarching goal of teaching English (Dewey, 2012; Goh, 2009; Ranta, 2010; Timmis, 2002). The controversy of nativelikeness and intelligibility has been debated in the field of English teaching although the concept of English varieties is widely recognised. As discussed in Chapter 2, the key debate is that intelligibility is a complex construct and there is no absolute criterion to assess it. Consequently, suggestions about English curricula and instructions for international communication were proposed in Section 2.10.4. These suggestions aim to raise teachers' and students' awareness about English varieties, focusing more on teaching communicative strategies and paying attention to students' contexts and needs.

The teachers in this present study seemed to pay attention to the Thai EFL context where learners do not use English in everyday life. Although they corrected students' errors according to native-like English, it is noteworthy that they were nevertheless aware of the concept of varieties of English. Encouragement through teacher education programmes and/or professional training to pass on this awareness to students may facilitate students' adaptation to the use of English as an 'international' language.

4.5.10 Summary of Section 4.4 and Section 4.5

Sections 4.4 and 4.5 have reported and discussed the findings of RQ1: What factors influence university level Thai EFL teachers' cognition about oral corrective feedback? Section 4.4 has focused on the factors that were the

sources of the teachers' cognition; while section 4.5 has addressed the contextual factors affecting their cognition. These factors mainly draw on the teachers' learning and teaching experiences as formulative of their beliefs and practices about oral corrective feedback. These experiences were integrated into the influences of the contextual factors, which had a reciprocal impact on one another. These findings reflect the complex nature of teacher cognition, something which has been stressed in previous studies. As the answers to RQ2 and RQ3 are included in the answers to RQ1 (given their reciprocal and inter-related nature), the answers to RQ2 and RQ3 are summarised below so as to more clearly demonstrate the teachers' beliefs about what and how to correct.

RQ2: What is the teachers' cognition about types of errors?

Answers: Although the teachers sometimes referred to errors they corrected according to linguistic aspects (grammatical, phonological, lexical), more influential sources of cognition about error types was considered according to whether they affected communication, whether they were common errors among students, and whether they were relevant to the curriculum goals.

RQ3: What is the teachers' cognition about types of corrective feedback?

Answers: The teachers did not perceive their corrective feedback types according to the categorisation of Lyster and Ranta (1997). Instead, they considered them according to the way they were conveyed, especially giving students encouragement (James, Jane, Natalie, Stefani), who provided the correct form (Diann, Eve, Karen), the timing of feedback

(either immediate or delayed - Denise, Julie, Thomas), and who the feedback was directed at (Emma). Considering their feedback types according to Lyster and Ranta's (1997), however, they commonly used recasts and elicitation (see Table XXI, Appendix L).

As can be seen, the participant teachers' cognition on what and how to correct was informed by the contextual factors which answered RQ1.

4.6 Summary

This chapter has demonstrated prior language learning experiences and teaching experiences as the two major sources of their cognition as well as the five core concepts of teacher cognition relating to corrective feedback: conforming to curriculum goals, considering the demands of real-world communication, enhancing student confidence, promoting student motivation, and adapting to student proficiency, along with a discussion of the study's main findings. The chapter started by presenting a figure of teacher cognition listing the key themes and their relationships emerging from the cross-case analysis.

In contrast to previous studies on teacher cognition, this present study found that the influence of professional coursework (teacher education and training, and professional development courses) was rather insignificant compared to prior learning experiences and teaching experiences. However, the powerful and multifaceted effects of student motivation, student confidence, and student proficiency found in this study are congruent with the findings in the existing literature. Although these three student factors were also reported in previous studies, the complex constructs and relationships among the factors

have been more comprehensively revealed in the present study. It is interesting that the participant teachers considered curriculum goals separately from real-world communication due to the paper-based format of the speaking test, which was focused on grammatical accuracy. Partly for this reason, the teachers mostly chose to correct errors relevant to the curriculum goals, which itself were conditioned by exam content. Nevertheless, real-world communication was also taken into consideration when they decided on what to correct, and this seemed to cause a tension between conforming to curriculum goals and considering real-world communication in some of the cases.

The teachers tended to be selective in terms of errors to correct by narrowing them to those relevant to lesson focus, common errors, and errors that might affect communication. For students of low proficiency, the teachers were likely to be more selective about their correction because they related student proficiency to student confidence and ability to acquire knowledge. This belief also informed their feedback styles. When it comes to the way they gave corrective feedback, the factors relevant to students were prominent in their decision making. Although the teachers did not refer to the feedback types categorised in the previous literature, their practices showed their frequent use of two types--recasts and elicitation. They tended to use recasts to enhance student confidence as they considered them as less threatening; while they tended to use elicitation to enhance student motivation when they believed students could self-correct. A way to predict students' ability to self-correct was whether the error was relevant to the taught focus. The teachers believed that elicitation was appropriate for errors relevant to what they had taught because it could be a tool to check students' understanding and revise the lessons.

The findings and issues emerging from this study could have implications for pedagogical development, as well as contributions to future research. These will be presented in the next chapter.

Chapter 5 Conclusion

5.1 Overview

This study has explored teacher cognition (teachers' thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs) in relation to corrective feedback on spoken language, especially on error types and corrective feedback types. Given the complex nature of educational contexts, understanding teacher cognition is essential for developing teaching theories (Burkhardt & Schoenfeld, 2003). It has therefore gained increasing attention in language education, with studies investigating teacher cognition in grammar (e.g. Andrew, 2003; Graus & Coppen, 2016), reading (e.g. Farrell & Ives, 2014; Irvine-Niakaris & Kiely, 2015) and writing instruction (e.g. Gaitas & Alves Martins, 2014; Watson, 2013). Nevertheless, teacher cognition on teaching speaking, especially on corrective feedback, is scarce. To fill this gap in the research on teacher cognition, three research questions were proposed:

RQ1: What factors influence teacher cognition about corrective feedback on students' spoken language?

RQ2: What is teacher cognition about types of errors?

RQ3: What is teacher cognition about types of corrective feedback?

Aiming to fill this gap in the existing scholarship on education, this study also set out to provide a fuller picture of teacher cognition by employing data triangulation. The data was collected through 77 interviews and 33 observations conducted with 11 Thai EFL teachers. Four sources of data were triangulated:

1) background interviews, 2) lesson observations, 3) stimulated recalls, and 4) post-lesson interviews. The background interviews were informed by drawing on and fusing Borg's (2006) model of language teacher cognition, Clark and Peterson's (1986) model of teacher thought and action, and Shavelson and Stern's (1981) model of teachers' judgments and pedagogical decisions, the stimulated recalls by Shavelson and Stern's (1981) model, and the post-observation interviews by the themes emerging from the data. To analyse the data, thematic analysis was used. The analysis process involved transcription, coding, and interpretation. The cross-case analysis was carried out through examining commonality, differences, and relationships among the themes.

5.2 Main research findings

Seven major factors affecting the teachers' cognition about corrective feedback on students' spoken language were explored: prior learning experiences, teaching experiences, student motivation, student confidence, student proficiency, real-world communication, and curriculum goals. Prior learning experiences and teaching experiences were found to be the main sources of the participant teachers' cognition, while the other five factors were filtered through these experiences. To illustrate the key findings of the study. It is useful to restate the research questions with answers.

RQ1: What factors influenced the participant teachers' cognition of corrective feedback on students' spoken language?

Answer: The factors were student motivation, student confidence, student proficiency, curriculum goals, and real-world communication.

Beliefs about these factors mainly derived from prior language learning experiences and teaching experiences.

RQ2: What was the participant teachers' cognition of types of errors to correct?

Answer: The teachers believed that errors they should correct were errors affecting communication, errors relevant to the curriculum goals and common errors among students.

RQ3: What was the participant teachers' cognition of types of corrective feedback?

Answer: They did not refer their feedback types according to the literature such as the classification proposed by Lyster and Ranta (1997). They considered the feedback types according to the way they conveyed them, especially giving students encouragement, who provided the correct form, the timing of feedback (immediate or delayed), and who the feedback was directed at. Considering their feedback types according to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) classification, however, they commonly used recasts and elicitation (see Table XXI in Appendix L).

The key findings of the study are:

- The teachers tended to draw on their teaching experiences and learning experiences rather than on professional coursework.
- The teachers generally did not exhibit theoretical knowledge of oral corrective feedback types.
- Student factors were more powerful than instructional constraints.

- The aims of enhancing student motivation and student confidence were intertwined.
- The teachers believed that elicitation could enhance student motivation; while recasts could be used to inspire and retain student confidence.
- The teachers believed that errors relevant to curriculum goals should be corrected, but at the same time those corrections should be adapted to student factors (i.e. confidence, proficiency, and motivation).
- The teachers believed that for the benefit of student confidence and motivation, they should focus more on comprehensibility rather than accuracy in cases where the error was irrelevant to the topic of the lesson.
- The teachers had distinct ideas about conforming to the curriculum goals of speaking-related courses and about considering language as used in real-world communication.
- Tensions between conforming to curriculum goals and considering real-world communication found in some cases demonstrate a need for attention to alignment between the curriculum and assessment.

This research has found that the participant teachers tended to draw on their teaching experiences and learning experiences rather than on professional development courses. This might be attributable to the actual content of teacher education programmes in Thailand, which does not explicitly or extensively focus on types of corrective feedback, although the data suggested that the teachers did receive knowledge about immediate and delayed feedback in their development courses. These two sources of beliefs informed how the teachers interacted with five major themes which together influence their cognition of corrective feedback, namely conforming to curriculum goals, considering the

demands of real-world communication, enhancing student confidence, generating and maintaining student motivation, and adapting to student proficiency.

Although they focused primarily on student confidence and motivation, they also considered curriculum goals while making decisions on corrective feedback. Moreover, they underlined the importance of making their feedback useful for students' real-world communication, and accommodated the feedback to different levels of student proficiency. For students of low proficiency, they were likely to be more careful of their corrections because they related student proficiency to student confidence and ability to acquire knowledge. Driven by these five factors, this research study holds that the teachers' cognition relating to errors that should be corrected stressed errors relevant to the lesson focus, errors that could affect communication, and common errors. Overall, the teachers were selective about errors to correct mainly because they wanted to inspire and retain and enhance student confidence and motivation. Similarly, for the purpose of maintaining and enhancing student motivation and confidence, they tended to use recasts with errors irrelevant to the lesson topic and elicitation with errors relevant to the lesson topic because they believed that students tended, in the latter, to be able to self-correct. In addition, they believed that elicitation could be a strategy to check students' understanding and revise prior lessons.

The finding that three out of the five major themes were related to students strengthens the notion that student factors have a significant influence on teacher cognition. This finding concurs with Shavelson and Stern's (1981)

model, which suggests that student factors play an important role in teachers' pedagogical decisions. One slight difference from their model, however, was that student factors in this study were found to be more powerful than the instructional factor (i.e. curriculum goals). Moreover, compared to the models of Clark and Peterson (1986), Shavelson and Stern (1981) and Borg (2006), this present study specifically highlights the influence of student confidence on teacher cognition.

Another significant finding is that the tension between the curriculum goals and real-world communication suggests the need for some sort of alignment between speaking course assessment and the practical use of knowledge in real-world communication. The study found that the assessment focused on paper-based tests at the expense of speaking tests. It is interesting that most of the teachers who appeared to be affected by 'washback' did not express disagreement about the emphasis of paper-based exams for the speaking courses. Moreover, some of them argued that the exams were appropriate for students in the Thai EFL context, where there are limited opportunities to speak English outside the confines of a particular study environment. They believed that teaching grammar in the speaking classroom was still necessary, given the fact that Thai students did not have enough proficiency and experience of using English to differentiate features of spoken grammar from those of written grammar. In relation to accuracy in spoken language, the data also suggested that most of the teachers were aware of varieties of English even though they corrected students' spoken errors according to native norms.

5.3 Theoretical contributions

5.3.1 A figure of factors affecting teacher cognition

As noted, this PhD research project has posited that student factors were more influential than instructional constraints. This finding does not concur with the model of teacher cognition proposed by Shavelson and Stern (1981), which was derived from research in various disciplines, not specifically language education. This finding adds to our understanding of teacher cognition that it differs according to discipline. Teacher cognition in one specific discipline, even in one specific language teaching area, may differ from that in another area. For this reason, a general model of teacher cognition might not offer valid insights for the same subject area focusing on different skills.

5.3.2 Teachers' interactive thoughts

This study has found that teachers' interactive decision-making could substantially yield more insights into teacher cognition which teachers themselves might be unaware of during the planning stage. This aligns with the concept of teachers' thought processes proposed by Clark and Peterson (1986), who posited that teachers' thinking can be grouped into three stages: planning, interactive thoughts, and theories and beliefs. However, the fact that the substantial influence of student factors revealed in this study was attributable primarily to investigating the teachers' interactive decision-making seems to highlight the power of their interactive thoughts over their planning and theories. Therefore, this study argues that teachers' interactive decisions are important aspects of teacher cognition as they can provide more insights into teacher cognition.

5.3.3 Teachers' theories and beliefs

The finding that the teachers did not consciously realise what type of corrective feedback they were providing contributes to our understanding of their theories regarding corrective feedback. All the teachers did not take the types of corrective feedback into account when teaching. What they paid attention to was how their feedback affected students' learning, both affectively and productively. Although most of them had an academic degree related to language education, they did not seem to know in detail any theories of corrective feedback. In addition, their teaching experiences tended to inform their cognition more significantly than professional development courses did. Moreover, the fact that all the teachers except one (Jane) had not received any training in relation to teaching speaking while being in-service teachers highlights the lack of effective attention to oral error correction in teacher education programmes and an apparent deficiency in in-service professional training in Thailand.

5.4 Limitations of the study and future research

Several limitations of this study should be acknowledged. Firstly, since the study was limited to 11 Thai teachers from three universities in Thailand, it was not possible to generalise the findings to other teachers in the same context or, especially, in different contexts even though it is expected that the in-depth data generated by this study might shed some light on teacher cognition in other EFL contexts. Secondly, some teachers could not give the stimulated-recall interview within 48 hours due to busy schedules. This resulted in problems when they were asked to articulate their interactive cognition and, consequently, data reliability. Thirdly, this study investigated teacher cognition of oral corrective

feedback, a specific area of teaching speaking. Therefore, the findings may not be applicable to other areas of teaching speaking such as general beliefs about teaching methodologies. Fourthly, the participants were not diverse in terms of teaching experience. This was due to the fact that the process of data collection required a certain consideration of time constraints and it was not easy for the prospective participants to agree to join the study. Therefore, the analysis of *novice* teachers was restricted to only three teachers (James, Thomas, Natalie), which made the assumptions regarding teaching experience less reliable than they otherwise might have been.

Fifthly, the data was collected in over a limited time period in relation to the three observed lessons. This might have adversely affected the teachers' cognition as teacher cognition is dynamic – it changes over time. As a result, it is not reasonable to assume that the participants would hold the same beliefs at a later point in their teaching careers, either in the same context or a different one. Sixthly, there was no data on teaching materials such as the coursebook used by the teachers. The lack of data in this area lessened the depth of the data in this study. Finally, since the study was limited to teacher cognition, it did not address whether what the teachers believed and practiced aligned with what their students believed. For example, most teachers were selective about what errors to correct in order to maintain student confidence and motivation to speak, and thus no insights could be gleaned as to whether the students agreed with it or whether it was actually as beneficial for their learning as the teachers expected it to be.

For these reasons, in-depth understandings of teacher cognition could be strengthened if research on teacher cognition was longitudinal and integrated the analysis of teaching materials into the data directly derived from teachers. In addition, further research into student cognition on corrective feedback, particularly on students' perceptions of different feedback strategies, should be encouraged. Regarding the study's limitations in terms of research participants, future research could make a greater contribution to teacher cognition by varying the participants in terms of gender, age, and teaching experience. To provide valuable insights into teacher cognition in relation to other areas of teaching, this study argues that further studies be conducted in other specific areas.

5.5 Implications

5.5.1 Pedagogical implications

This study has proposed that personal beliefs about teaching can be suppressed by beliefs about curriculum goals which are, in this context, generally referred to by the teachers in this study as the end-of-course exam, although it was only stressed in the cases of Jane and James. Taking the beliefs of needing to conform to curriculum goals and negative washback into account, it is important that educationalists and curriculum designers consider setting curriculum goals with a view to appropriate testing of speaking skills, as well as to how to align curriculum goals with assessment. The disagreement over the assessment and curriculum expressed by some teachers in this study highlights the problem of speaking tests in Thailand. The tension between fulfilling curriculum goals and considering the demands of real-world communication might be alleviated by a better-designed curriculum and assessment in which linguistic and communicative competence in authentic contexts are integrated so that

teachers are able to consider academic achievement and communicative achievement as one integrated goal of teaching speaking, including the treatment of students' errors.

The finding about the powerful influence of student affective factors concurs with existing research reporting that problems in teaching and learning speaking skills result from students' lack of confidence (Ratanapinyowong, Poonon, & Honsa, 2007; Wanthanasut, 2008), lack of motivation and lack of exposure to English (Jindathai, 2015), and fear of making mistakes (Khamprated, 2012). However, the research here found that the teachers made judgements on students' affective states according to their predictions. Given that a mismatch between teachers' and students' perceptions could negatively affect students' learning, it might be useful for students if teachers carefully explored their cognition of students and were aware of the possibility that they were making false assumptions about their students.

However, it might be difficult for teachers to identify the *actual* feelings of individual students because teachers need to deal with broader classroom management issues, particularly in large class sizes. According to the findings of this study, some teachers used the strategy of diverting feedback to the entire class instead of to a particular student in order to encourage peer feedback; while other teachers elicited the correct form from the error maker after the peer feedback to enhance the opportunity for self-correction. This reflects the fact that teachers have ideas and beliefs that could be useful for their peers. In this case, other teachers could take these strategies into consideration when giving corrective feedback.

5.5.2 Implications for professional development courses

Although teaching is complex and it is not plausible to hold the same model of teaching or training teachers in every context, it is anticipated that this study does offer some general knowledge for language teacher education.

Firstly, since the finding of this study indicates that the teachers tended to have limited knowledge of theories in relation to oral corrective feedback, it can be useful for teachers and finally for students if in-service teacher education highlights knowledge about oral corrective feedback, especially about corrective feedback types. Moreover, in the Thai university context and other similar contexts where teachers may enter the teaching profession with a bachelor's degree in fields other than education, some teachers tend not to have prior knowledge about teaching theories and only depend on their teaching *experience*. Although this study cannot claim that the teachers lacked knowledge about theories of oral corrective feedback, the finding that most of the teachers in this study used teaching experience as the main resource when making decisions in the classroom raised a potential problem not only regarding pre-service but also in-service teacher education.

For in-service teacher training, area-specific language teacher training such as teaching speaking is necessary for bridging the gaps in their knowledge. Information about the factors found to have a significant effect on the participant teachers' cognition in this study, as well as the relationships between the factors can be used to strengthen teachers' context-embedded knowledge. Teacher educators or curriculum designers in teacher education might take those factors into account when providing information about what constraints teachers are

liable to encounter during their career. This information may be delivered through workshops, or even informal talks with more experienced peers in the same context. Equipped with this knowledge, teachers may consider more carefully their thoughts and actions as well as their impact on students' learning. Also, a training focusing on context-sensitive pedagogic knowledge may enhance teachers' ability to make informed decisions on pedagogy, which can lead to an appropriate teaching methodology for their context.

Secondly, another aspect of teacher knowledge supported by the findings in this study is experiential knowledge gained from informal learning. Although the significant influence of informal learning emerged only in three cases (Julie, Jane, Stefani), the data from these three cases suggest that their beliefs and awareness about real-world communication derived from their self-learning *outside* the classroom and their experience of using the language in authentic situations. Therefore, this study suggests that teacher training could promote teachers' awareness of the use of English in real-world communication by engaging teachers to immerse themselves in an English environment to enhance their meaningful use of English in authentic contexts.

However, since the study found that the teachers were likely to rely on their personal experiences, teachers need to be aware that complete trust in teaching experiences may not guarantee satisfactory outcomes for their students. For example, their use of recasts to avoid student demotivation could be a problem if students do not notice the correction and misunderstand that their spoken language could effectively convey their intended message. An integration of pedagogical theories with practical knowledge might yield

improvements in teacher planning and reduce tensions between aiming to meet curriculum goals and responding to the demands of concrete classroom contexts.

Thirdly, the dominance of native-like English in some teacher cases in this study reflected their limited vision of World Englishes. This might obstruct their development of knowledge and beliefs concerning varieties of English and of the focus on communicative achievement in the global context. Therefore, this study argues that awareness of varieties of English might be highlighted in teacher education programmes, especially in cases where a drive to achieve nativelike English is ingrained in teachers' beliefs. Moreover, since it was found that the teachers commonly corrected phonological errors and that some of them corrected those errors according to native norms, this study argues that emphasising the fact that standard English includes only grammar and vocabulary but not pronunciation (Strevens, 1985; Crystal, 1999; Milroy & Milroy, 1991) is important so that teachers do not make false assumptions about standard English, which might affect how they treat errors in the speaking classroom.

However, the finding indicating that most of the teachers were aware of World Englishes demonstrated that adhering to native norms can result from teachers' beliefs of how to adapt their teaching to students and their context of learning, and not from teachers' lack of knowledge or awareness. In this case, teacher education programmes, particularly in the EFL context, can encourage teachers to transfer their awareness of varieties of English to students in order to better prepare them for communication in the international context.

5.5.3 Methodological implications

Several advantages of collecting data on interactive and post-action cognition as well as data on pre-action cognition have been highlighted in this study, as well as certain challenges involved in collecting data on interactive cognition through stimulated recall interviews. One advantage of triangulating data from the full reflective cycle is that it sheds light on aspects of teachers' thinking that they may be unaware of when asked to reflect on their teaching in the abstract during pre-action interviews. Another advantage is that it uncovers a fuller range of factors that teachers consider during their teaching. One point to note, however, is that it is not always feasible to carry out stimulated recall interviews to explore teachers' interactive cognition within 48 hours after the observed teaching, as is recommended in the methodological literature.

According to the above mentioned point, the findings suggest that: 1) preset questions enhance in-depth investigation of teachers' thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs; 2) triangulating data from various stages of teaching could uncover teachers' lack of awareness of cognition and thus offer a fuller range of factors affecting teacher cognition; and 3) the feasibility of the timing of stimulated-recall interviews could be compromised by providing the participants with some contextual information and more detailed explanations of the interview questions and making obvious any differences between the interview questions in stimulated recalls and the post-lesson interviews.

5.5.3.1 Using pre-set questions to enhance in-depth data

The background interviews were informed by the previous teacher cognition models. The models outlined guidance of possible factors that tend to affect teacher cognition. In this way, the questions in the background interviews were based on existing studies; while those in the stimulated-recall interviews were not only derived from interesting themes emerging from the observed lessons, but also from gaps between the background interviews and the observations. Using the preset questions, therefore, could enhance further in-depth investigation because the factors that might affect the teachers' cognition of which they may be unaware were explored both in the background interviews and stimulated recall interviews.

Although this study encourages the use of preset interview questions, it argues that not using preset categories for error types and feedback types during the data collection would lead to more in-depth data about error types and feedback types. It can be seen that the participant teachers in this study did not consider errors to correct according to linguistic features, which was in contrast to previous studies which reported error types according to linguistic components. This could be due to the fact that this present study refrained from putting the data into any preset categories of error types and feedback types, which might prevent the emergence of interesting themes. Probably for this reason, the study yielded in-depth data about error correction.

5.5.3.2 Triangulating data for validity and a fuller range of factors

Table 9: Samples of data triangulation

Teacher	Sources				interpretation
	Pre-lesson interview	Observation	Stimulated recall	Post-lesson interview	
Diann	"If there's not enough time, I'll give a quick feedback such as telling them the correction."	She gave a recast with a grammatical error; while eliciting the correction from the student with the mispronunciation of 'can't.	"...when she mispronounced it, I realised she didn't see the difference between the pronunciation of 'I can.' and 'I can't.'"	"I didn't realise what type of feedback I was giving. It was automatic reactions from my teaching experiences."	-influence of teaching experiences was confirmed -lack of awareness of the teacher's own theories about types of corrective feedback was revealed

The data from the various sources was mutually reinforcing in how it challenged the themes made at each stage of data collection and revealing some beliefs that the teachers were unaware of. As can be seen in Table 9, it can be assumed from Diann's statement in the background interview that she would correct errors herself if there was a time constraint. However, in her lesson she used elicitation with a phonological error while correcting a grammatical error herself. At this stage, it seemed that not only time constraints, but also linguistic types of errors, affected how she corrected errors. This theme was carried over to the stimulated-recall and post-observation interview. However, the data from the post-observation interview revealed that she was not aware of what types of corrective feedback she had used in her lessons. Instead, she made decisions about that based on her teaching experiences of how to correct students' errors in order to enhance their understanding of the error and the correction, as she did with the mispronunciation of 'can't'. As might be noticed,

examining the full reflective process of teaching uncovered the influence of error types that she had not been aware of. However, this assumption was carried through in the next observations interviews to ensure that it was valid.

According to the example discussed above, exploring teachers' interactive cognition serves as a bridge to their pre-active cognition and classroom practices. If the interactive decision-making had not been investigated, the teachers might not be able to articulate how they reacted to students' errors in their actual classrooms. Furthermore, the data analysis suggests that teachers' pre-active, interactive, and post-active cognition is inextricably intertwined. That is to say, a lack of an investigation into one stage of cognition could make it less likely that a comprehensive picture of teacher cognition will be revealed. In the present study, iterative observations and interviews in each circle of teaching (planning, teaching, interactive decision-making, reflections on teaching) appeared to be of essential benefit to enhancing research validity and trustworthiness, as well as reducing the partiality of the researcher.

This study has argued that an investigation into the full cyclical process of teaching needs to be accomplished by the application of data triangulation, especially stimulated-recall interviews and post-lesson interviews, in order to uncover interactive thinking in any future studies of teacher cognition.

5.5.3.3 Timing of stimulated-recall interviews

Conducting stimulated-recall interviews as soon as possible after a lesson was completed, ideally no later than 48 hours after the observations, is

recommended to increase the possibility of recall accuracy (Bloom, 1953). Delayed recall may lead to plausible explanations depending less on the participants' direct report of experiences and more on reports of a combination of the experience and other related memories (Gass & Mackey, 2000; Ericsson & Simon as cited in Stough, 2001). However, this present study found that it was not viable to conduct the stimulated-recall interviews at the expected time in all cases since the participants might have been on tight schedules and it was important to respect that and to conduct the interviews at their convenience.

In accordance with the 48-hour recommendation for stimulated recalls, the participants in this study seemed to be able to smoothly and accurately recall their thoughts and decisions at the time of teaching. However, when it was necessary to do the stimulated recalls later than two days after the observed lesson, they did indeed suffer problems articulating their interactive thinking. In these cases, it was found that when they were provided with some context background and more detailed explanations of the interview questions, they could better articulate their interactive decision making.

After the teachers viewed the video-recording of their lessons, they were asked to discuss and comment on their decision making during the error correction phases. However, video stimulated recalls can be used to discuss post-lesson thinking by not accessing interactive thinking (Borg, 2012). It is essential to make obvious differences between questions used to tap teachers' interactive thoughts and post-active thoughts to explore a fuller picture of their cognition.

To increase the tendency to reveal the teachers' interactive thinking instead of their lesson reflections, prepared questions, informed by Shavelson and Stern's (1981) model of teachers' judgments and pedagogical decisions, were used to take contextual factors more carefully into consideration while prompting the teachers' interactive cognition. The present study found that using such prepared questions was effective for this purpose, especially when emphasising their ongoing decisions by adding 'at that moment' to the stimulated-recall questions.

5.6 Final remarks

The complex construct of teacher cognition has been widely studied. One of the reasons for this is that teachers are not robots. On the contrary, they have personal beliefs and make spontaneous decisions about what is useful for their students and what teaching methods should be used in the classroom although it is likely that their beliefs are constrained by the complex nature of educational contexts, as found in this study and in previous studies. Since investigating teacher cognition is not simple nor straightforward, researchers should bear in mind that almost every detail of the research methodology can make a difference to the project's findings. However, uncovering teacher cognition is worth the significant effort that necessarily goes into it because it is essential to develop a clear picture of what happens in the classroom and why. Answering these questions could contribute to improvements in teacher education, teaching, and students' learning, given that teachers are still considered key agents in education. As Richards (1994) points out, "There is no such thing as good teaching. There are only good teachers" (p. 12).

Appendix A: Glossary of abbreviations and acronyms

BG	Background interview
CF	Corrective feedback
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EIL	English as an International Language
ELF	English as a Lingua Franca
ENL	English as a Native Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
LFC	Lingua Franca Core
L1	First language
L2	Second language
NNES	Non-native English speakers
OB	Observation
PCK	Pedagogical content knowledge
PO	Post-observation interview
RQ	Research question
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SM	Stimulated-recall interview
ST	Student
TBLT	Task-based Language Teaching
TC	Teacher
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
WE	World Englishes

Appendix B: Corrective feedback types (Lyster & Ranta, 1997)

CF type	Definition	Example
1. Recast	repetition of the error in a corrected form, or translations in response to a student's use of the L1	ST: She have long hair. TC: She has long hair.
2. Repetition	repetition of the error, generally with adjusted intonation to highlight the error.	ST: Tom likes spaghetti. She has it every week. TC: SHE has it every week.
3. Clarification request	phrases indicating that the students' utterance has not been clear or that it contains some kind of errors and that a repetition or a reformulation is required	ST: What will you have picnic this weekend? TC: What do you want to say?
4. Explicit correction	explicit provision of the correct form and clear indication of the incorrect form	ST: The best month to visit Korea is on March. TC: In March, not on March.
5. Elicitation	Direct elicitation of the correct form from the student by pausing to allow students to complete the teachers' utterance, by using questions or by asking students to reformulate the utterance	ST: I don't like History (/ 'hɪs.t ɔ:ri/) TC: How do we pronounce the last word? / Say it again.
6. Metalinguistic feedback	comments, questions, or information related to the students' utterance, without providing the correct form	ST: I go to the beach yesterday. TC: It happened yesterday, so you need to use the past verb.

Appendix C: Course syllabus of the observed courses

University A: a fundamental English course

Course description

English language skills: listening speaking, reading, and writing; functions and parts of speech of words; tense: present, past, and future tense; question making; idioms and phrasal verbs; reading short simple passages

Course objectives

By the end of the course, students should be able to:

1. have more knowledge about vocabulary and structures necessary for everyday communication
2. be able to use the language appropriate to the context
3. be able to adapt the knowledge to learn outside of the classroom

Main material

Richards, J.C., & Bohlke, D. (2011). *Four Corners 2: Student's Book*. Cambridge University Press

Assessment

1. (Paper-based) Midterm Examination	25%
2. (Paper-based) Final Examination	25%
3. (Paper-based) Unit Tests	20%
4. Participation	10%
5. Language Laboratory	10%
6. Assignment	10%
Total	100%

Grading scale

≥ 80	A
≥ 75	B+
≥ 70	B
≥ 65	C+
≥ 60	C
≥ 55	D+
≥ 50	D
< 50	E

University B: a fundamental English listening and speaking course

Course description

Skills in listening and speaking on everyday life topics; listening for the gist and details; grammar and language functions necessary for communicative purposes

Course objectives

By the end of the course, students should be able to:

1. get the gist of the conversation
2. communicate in everyday conversations
3. improve listening and speaking skills for everyday communication

Main material

Richards, J.C., & Bohlke, D. (2011). *Four Corners 2: Student's Book*. Cambridge University Press

Assessment

1. Class attendance	2%
2. Class participation	2%
3. LMS (a self-learning software)	16%
4. Non-scripted role plays	20%
5. (Paper-based) examinations	60%
Total	100%

Grading scale

≥ 80	A
≥ 75	B+
≥ 70	B
≥ 65	C+
≥ 60	C
≥ 55	D+
≥ 50	D
< 50	E

University B: an intermediate listening and speaking course

Course description

Practice in listening and speaking skills with an emphasis on expressions used in daily-life conversations, listening to TV commercials, soundtracks from movies and news reports, as well as expressing opinions.

Course objectives

By the end of the course, students will be able to

1. use spoken English in real-life situations in both social context and academic context;
2. communicate their needs, questions, opinions and feelings in everyday English;
3. use English appropriately to fulfill certain communicative functions necessary for future careers.

Main material

Craven, M. (2008). *Real Listening and Speaking 4*. Cambridge University Press.

Assessment

1. Self-Study	5%
2. (Prepared) Role Plays	20%
3. Assignments	15%
4. Oral presentations	10%
5. (Paper-based) Midterm Examination	25%
6. (Paper-based) Final Examination	25%
Total	100%

Grading scale

100-85>>>A
84-80 >>> B+
79-75 >>> B
74-70 >>> C+
69-65 >>> C
64-60 >>> D+
59-50 >>> D
49-0 >>> E

University C: a fundamental English listening and speaking course

Course description

Practice in listening and speaking skills based on topics used in daily-life communication; listening for main points; basic oral communication in various situational contexts; grammar usage; development of vocabulary and language functions necessary for communication.

Course objectives

By the end of the course, students should be able to:

1. improve their listening comprehension skills in daily-life communication;
2. use English to communicate in everyday situations via speaking and listening;
3. use grammar, vocabulary, and expressions appropriately to fulfill certain communicative functions.

Main material

Richards, J. C., & Bohlke, D. (2012). *Speak Now 2*. Oxford: Oxford University Press

Assessment

1. Class attendance and participation	5%
2. LMS (a self-learning software)	15%
3. Prepared role plays	20%
4. Paper-based examinations	60%
Total	100%

Grading scale

≥ 80	A
≥ 75	B+
≥ 70	B
≥ 65	C+
≥ 60	C
≥ 55	D+
≥ 50	D
< 50	E

University C: a business English course

Course Description

Practice in reading and writing skills; basic reading skills; reading for main ideas and details; developing vocabulary and strategies in increasing vocabulary power; grammar usage; sentence and paragraph writing

Course Objectives

1. To develop students' English skills, specifically for the business world.
2. To help students use English effectively as a communication tool at work, and avoid common mistakes.
3. To expand students' English skills so that they can express their opinion on various business topics with greater confidence.
4. To increase student's knowledge about foreign business culture and practices.

Main material

Vaughan, A. & Zemach, D.E. (2013). *Get Ready for International Business*. Thailand: Macmillan.

Assessment

1. Class attendance and participation	15%
2. Assignments and (paper-based) quizzes	30%
3. Semester projects	15%
4. Midterm examination	20%
5. Final examination	20%
Total	100%

Grading scale

80-100 >>>	A
75-79 >>>	B+
70-74 >>>	B
65-69 >>>	C+
60-64 >>>	C
55-59 >>>	D+
50-54 >>>	D

Appendix D: Detailed procedures of data collection

Participant	Stage of data Collection	Date of data collection	
Diann	background interview	01/09/2016	
	Observation 1	08/09/2016	
	Stimulated recall interview	09/09/2016	
	Post-observation	12/09/2016	
	Observation 2	26/09/2016	
	Stimulated recall interview	27/09/2016	
	Post-observation	28/09/2016	
	Observation 3	01/11/2016	
	Stimulated recall interview	04/11/2016	
	Post-observation	06/11/2016	
	Jane	background interview	01/09/2016
		Observation 1	20/09/2016
Stimulated recall interview		21/09/2016	
Post-observation		24/09/2016	
Observation 2		27/09/2016	
Stimulated recall interview		28/09/2016	
Post-observation		30/09/2016	
Observation 3		01/11/2016	
Stimulated recall interview		04/11/2016	
Post-observation		05/11/2016	
James		background interview	09/09/2016
		Observation 1	22/09/2016
	Stimulated recall interview	23/09/2016	
	Post-observation	27/09/2016	
	Observation 2	29/09/2016	
	Stimulated recall interview	30/09/2016	
	Post-observation	04/10/2016	
	Observation 3	27/10/2016	
	Stimulated recall interview	28/10/2016	
	Post-observation	01/10/2016	
	Eve	background interview	10/09/2016
		Observation 1	04/10/2016
Stimulated recall interview		06/10/2016	
Post-observation		11/10/2016	
Observation 2		27/10/2016	
Stimulated recall interview		28/10/2016	
	Post-observation	03/11/2016	

Participant	Stage of Data Collection	Date of data collection	
Eve	Observation 3	03/11/2016	
	Stimulated recall interview	04/11/2016	
	Post-observation	06/11/2016	
Thomas	background interview	10/01/2017	
	Observation 1	02/02/2017	
	Stimulated recall interview	03/02/2017	
	Post-observation	07/02/2017	
	Observation 2	13/02/2017	
	Stimulated recall interview	15/02/2017	
	Post-observation	17/02/2017	
	Observation 3	23/02/2017	
	Stimulated recall interview	24/02/2017	
	Post-observation	03/03/2017	
	Karen	background interview	31/01/2017
		Observation 1	01/02/2017
Stimulated recall interview		02/02/2017	
Post-observation		06/02/2017	
Observation 2		08/02/2017	
Stimulated recall interview		10/02/2017	
Post-observation		13/02/2017	
Observation 3		14/02/2017	
Stimulated recall interview		15/02/2017	
Post-observation		22/02/2017	
Denise		background interview	14/12/2016
		Observation 1	23/01/2017
	Stimulated recall interview	26/01/2017	
	Post-observation	27/01/2017	
	Observation 2	24/03/2017	
	Stimulated recall interview	27/03/2017	
	Post-observation	30/03/2017	
	Observation 3	07/04/2017	
	Stimulated recall interview	10/04/2017	
	Post-observation	20/04/2017	
	Natalie	background interview	14/02/2017
		Observation 1	23/01/2017
Stimulated recall interview		24/01/2017	
Post-observation		30/01/2017	
Observation 2		28/03/2017	

Participant	Stage of Data Collection	Date of data collection
	Stimulated recall interview	29/03/2017
	Post-observation	30/03/2017
	Observation 3	9/04/2017
	Stimulated recall interview	18/04/2017
	Post-observation	19/04/2017
Stefani	background interview	14/12/2017
	Observation 1	26/01/2017
	Stimulated recall interview	26/01/2017
	Post-observation	28/01/2017
	Observation 2	09/03/2017
	Stimulated recall interview	10/03/2017
	Post-observation	13/03/2017
	Observation 3	27/03/2017
	Stimulated recall interview	29/03/2017
	Post-observation	03/04/2017
Emma	background interview	13/12/2016
	Observation 1	24/01/2017
	Stimulated recall interview	26/01/2017
	Post-observation	27/01/2017
	Observation 2	24/03/2017
	Stimulated recall interview	27/03/2017
	Post-observation	28/03/2017
	Observation 3	20/04/2017
	Stimulated recall interview	23/04/2017
	Post-observation	26/04/2017
Julie	background interview	18/01/2017
	Observation 1	31/01/2017
	Stimulated recall interview	01/02/2017
	Post-observation	02/02/2017
	Observation 2	05/02/2017
	Stimulated recall interview	07/02/2017
	Post-observation	08/02/2017
	Observation 3	02/03/2017
	Stimulated recall interview	03/03/2017
	Post-observation	07/03/2017

Appendix E: Research information sheet and consent form

THE UNIVERSITY *of* York

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Heslington, York, YO10 5DD

Tel: (01904)

323460

Web: <http://www.york.ac.uk/education>

Information Page

**TEACHER COGNITION IN SPEAKING CLASSES: A CASE STUDY IN
THAILAND**

Satima Rotjanawongchai

Principal Researcher

Ph.D. Education Student

sr1228@york.ac.uk

Dr. Zoe Handley

Supervisor

zoe.handley@york.ac.uk

Dear Participant,

My name is Satima Rotjanawongchai. I am a PhD student in the Department of Education, University of York. As part of my doctoral studies, I am conducting a research on teacher cognition in speaking classes. I am writing to ask if you are able to take part in the study.

Purpose

The aim of this research project is to investigate teacher cognition about teaching speaking.

What would this mean for me?

By taking part in this research study, you are consenting to be interviewed about your beliefs and knowledge relating to teaching and learning spoken English. Interviews will be conducted biweekly throughout the semester at a mutually convenient time and place. An interview will last approximately 50-60 minutes and will be audio-recorded. With your consent, three of your classes will be video-recorded. Among all of the interviews, you will be asked to comment on the videos in three interviews.

There is no payment offered for participation in the research. However, involvement in the study might be an opportunity for you to reflect on your teaching experiences through dialogue with the researcher. It is hoped that this will be a useful forum for you to gain a better understanding of your teaching.

Who is being invited to participate?

You are invited to participate in this study because you are currently teaching a course relating to English speaking skills at an institution in Thailand. You are however under no obligation whatsoever to participate in this study.

Participation and Withdrawal

Participation in this research is voluntary; you may decline to participate without any penalty. If you choose to participate, you may withdraw participation at any time up to four weeks after the data is collected. You are entitled to decline to answer any question, without repercussion. You can withdraw any part of the data from the project at any point up until seven days after the final interview by contacting the principal researcher, Satima Rotjanawongchai (details below). If any of your students prefers not to be filmed for classroom observations, they may opt out at any time during the study.

Anonymity

The data that you provide (the interviews with the researcher, and the video and audio recordings) will be stored by code number. Any information that identifies you or your students will be stored separately from the data.

Information about confidentiality

The interview data and the observation data will be reported without any identifying information (i.e. pseudonyms will be used to protect participants' identity). The data will be stored in secure filing cabinets and on a password protected computer. The data

will be kept for seven years after which time they will be destroyed. The data may be used for future analysis (up to 7 years from now) for research purposes, but no individuals or institutions will be identifiable in any way. Only the principal researcher and research supervisors as named above will have access to the data you provide. The videos/images from the observations will be shared only between the researcher and the participants during the stimulated recalls.

As a participant, you will be given the opportunity to comment on a written record of your interview.

How can I find out more about this study?

If you have any questions regarding your rights as a research participant or any questions you would like to ask before giving consent, please do not hesitate to contact either of the following people:

Principal researcher: Satima Rotjanawongchai Email: sr1228@york.ac.uk

Chair of Ethics Committee Email: education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk

This study has been reviewed and received ethics clearance through the Department of Education Ethics Committee at The University of York.

If you are happy for you to participate, please complete the form attached.

Please keep this information sheet for your own records.

Thank you for taking the time to read this information.

Yours sincerely,



Satima Rotjanawongchai

Appendix F: Teacher consent form

**TEACHER COGNITION IN SPEAKING CLASSES: A CASE STUDY IN
THAILAND**

Consent Form

Please initial each box if you are happy to take part in this research.

I confirm that I have read and understood the information given to me about the above named research project and I understand that this will involve me taking part as described above.

I understand that the purpose of the research is to investigate teacher cognition about teaching speaking.

I understand that data will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet or on a password protected computer and only Satima Rotjanawongchai and Dr. Zoe Handley will have access to any identifiable data.

I understand that my identity will be protected by use of a code/pseudonym.

I understand that my data will not be identifiable.

I understand that the videos/images from the observations will be shared only between the researcher and the participants during the stimulated recalls.

I understand that data will be kept for seven years after which it will be destroyed.

I understand that data could be used for future analysis or research purposes, for up to 7 years.

I understand that I can withdraw my participation at any time up to four weeks after the data is collected and my students can choose not to be filmed at any time during the study.

I understand that I can withdraw any part of the data from the project at any point up until seven days after the final interview data has been collected by contacting the principal researcher.

I understand that I will be given the opportunity to comment on a written record of my responses.

Signature _____

Date _____

Appendix G: Head teacher consent form

Informed consent form

Teacher Cognition in Speaking Classes: a case study in Thailand

I understand that my institution is invited to participate in a research study conducted by a PhD student from the Department of Education, University of York.	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that the purpose of this research study is to investigate teacher cognition about teaching speaking.	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that I may withdraw my agreement for my institution to participate up to four weeks after the data is collected .Within that time, I know that I may indicate whether or not the data collected up to that point can be used in the study.	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that I am giving consent with regards to the participation of my teachers and students .I understand that any teacher may withdraw their participation individually at any time up to four weeks after the data is collected and any student may choose not to be filmed at any time during the study .	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that interviews will be audio recorded and the classroom lessons will be video recorded .I understand that the audio recordings may later be transcribed and that the video recordings may later be cut into segments .I understand that these data will be handled and stored in a manner which ensures that only the researcher and the supervisors named above can identify their source .I understand that my teachers are being offered confidentiality in any written report or oral presentation which draws upon data from this research study, and that none of their comments, opinions, or responses will be attributed to them .I understand that my institution will not be identifiable in any written report.	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that the videos/images from the observations will be shared only between the researcher and the participants during the stimulated recalls.	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that data will be kept up to seven years after which they will be destroyed.	<input type="checkbox"/>
I understand that data could be used for future analysis or other purposes up to ten years.	<input type="checkbox"/>
I agree for my institution to take part in the research study as outlined above.	<input type="checkbox"/>

Name of senior management team member: _____ Date: _____

Signature of senior management team member: _____

Appendix H: Background interview schedules

Factor	Questions	prompts	Probing questions
1. Prior learning experience	-Could you please tell me about your learning experience relating to speaking English?	-How was your learning experience in the classrooms?	<p>-How were you taught to speak English? (e.g. Grammar Translation, Direct Method, Audio-Lingual Method, Communicative Approach)</p> <p>-From a student's point of view, what were good practices of teaching speaking?</p> <p>- In your own teaching, what aspects of previous teachers approaches have you followed/ been influenced by?</p> <p>- What aspects of speaking skills did your teachers focus on? (e.g. correctness, fluency, pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, socio-cultural knowledge)</p> <p>-Were you taught about the linguistic features of spoken language (e.g. simplified structure, ellipsis, formulaic expressions, fillers, pauses, hesitations)?</p>
2. Prior teaching experience	-Could you please tell me about your teaching experience with speaking English?	-What courses relating to speaking skills have you taught? (e.g. Daily communication , Fundamental English Speaking)	<p>-How do you teach different kinds of courses?</p> <p>-What are your personal objectives of teaching speaking?</p>

Factor	Questions	prompts	Probing questions
		<p>-What types of errors you most frequently correct when you were teaching?</p>	<p>-What do you consider as 'an error' in spoken English?</p> <p>-What are the differences between oral errors and written errors?</p> <p>-How do you correct students' errors in your speaking classrooms?</p> <p>-What are the objectives of corrective feedback in your previous classes?</p> <p>-What is the most crucial error to be corrected?</p> <p>-How did the correction work or not work?</p> <p>-Has your way of giving feedback changed over the period of time you have been a teacher?</p>
3 Teacher education /training	-Could you please tell me about any education or training relating to teaching speaking?	<p>-Does the education/ training affect how you teach?</p> <p>-What did you learn about teaching speaking during your education/ training?</p>	<p>-How does it affect your teaching?</p> <p>-How does it affect your beliefs about errors and error correction?</p> <p>-Do you think the knowledge and experience gained from education is useful for your speaking classes? If yes, why?</p>
4. nature of the course		-What are the objectives of the course?	<p>-Do you follow the objectives of the course and why?</p> <p>-Do you think your students can achieve the objectives and why?</p>

Factor	Questions	prompts	Probing questions
	<p>Could you please tell me about the course you are teaching?</p>	<p>-How long is the course?</p> <p>-Does the nature of the course affect the way you give corrective feedback?</p> <p>-Are there any other aspects of courses affecting your teaching?</p> <p>-How do you design the tasks?</p>	<p>-Do you think the duration of the course is suitable for teaching speaking?</p> <p>-Could you please give me some examples?</p> <p>-Could you please give me some examples?</p> <p>-Do you design them by yourself?</p> <p>-What factors influence how you design them?</p>
4.1 nature of the tasks	<p>What kind of tasks do you have your students perform?</p>	<p>-How do you evaluate students' task fulfillment?</p> <p>-Are the students assigned to work individually, in pairs, or in groups?</p> <p>-Are there any other aspects of tasks affecting the way you give corrective feedback?</p> <p>-What materials do you use in the classroom and why?</p>	<p>-What aspect of spoken language that you focus on when evaluating students' performance</p> <p>-How many students in a group?</p> <p>-How do you decide on how the students are assigned to work?</p> <p>-Does the way you give corrective feedback change for each type of grouping?</p> <p>-Could you please give me some examples?</p> <p>-Do you think those materials are appropriate for teaching speaking?</p>

Factor	Questions	prompts	Probing questions
4.2 teaching materials	Could you please tell me about the teaching materials?	-What the differences of giving corrective feedback to students of different proficiency levels?	-Is the frequency of feedback different? -Is the type of feedback different? -Do you treat the same error with students of different level similarly or differently
5. student ability	Do you take students' ability into consideration when you teach speaking?	-How do you deal with lack of participation in speaking classes?	-Why do you choose to do so? -From your point of view, why don't some students speak in speaking classes?
6. student participation and behavior	To what extent does student participation affect how you teach or give feedback? -Does students' behavior (good/bad) affect how you teach or give feedback?	-Do students' responses to your feedback affect your beliefs about corrective feedback? -How do you deal with bad behaviors in the classrooms?	-Could you please give me more details? -Do you treat badly-behaved students differently from well-performing students or other averagely-performing students?
7. class size	Does the class size affect how you teach or give feedback?	-Do you treat students' errors differently in small classes and big classes	-How seriously you treat students' errors in small classes and big classes?

Factor	Questions	prompts	Probing questions
		-What is the maximum number of students do you think is suitable for teaching speaking?	-When you teach a big class (in your opinion), how do you deal with giving corrective feedback to them?
8. university policies	What are your university policies about teaching speaking?	-What are the advantages and disadvantages of those policies in your speaking classes?	-Do you think you follow those policies? -Do the university policies affect your teaching, particularly about error correction?
9. role of exams and course evaluation	To what extent does the role of exams affect how you teach?	-What is the nature of the exams and evaluation of the course? -Do the exams affect how you give feedback to your students? -Do the exams affect your beliefs about spoken errors?	-Do you think the course assessment is in accordance with the course objectives? -Could you please give me some examples? -Could you please give me some examples?
10. cultural factors	To what extent does the Thai culture affect how you teach?	-Does Thai culture affect how you give feedback in the classroom? -Does Thai culture affect your beliefs about spoken errors? -Do you think the Thai culture affect students' participation?	-Could you please tell me more about this? -Could you please tell me more about this? -Could you please give me some examples?

Appendix I: Stimulated-recall interview instructions

Instructions (to be read to the participant at the beginning of stimulated-recall interviews)

What we are going to do now is watch the video. We are interested in what you were thinking at the time you were talking with your students. We can hear what you were saying by looking at and listening to the video, but we don't know what you were thinking. What I would like you to do is tell me what you were thinking, what was in your mind at that time while you were talking to your students.

You can pause the video any time that you want. If you want to tell me something about what you were thinking, you can pause the video. If I have a question about what you were thinking, then I will pause the video and ask you to talk about that part of the video.

Appendix J: Sample interview transcripts and translation

PO questions	PO answers (Thai)	PO questions and answers (Translation)
<p>1. อาจารย์เคยบอกว่าจะแก้ทุกอย่างที่ได้กผิด แบบนี้ อาจารย์มีปัญหาเรื่องเวลาหรือเปล่า</p>	<p>มี มันมีผลอยู่แล้ว เพราะต้องพูดเยอะนิดนึง บางครั้งในห้องมีหลายกลุ่ม ไม่ใช่กลุ่มเดียว อาจพูดไม่ลึกมาก แค่นี้ๆ แค่นี้บอกผิดยังไงแก้งง แต่ไม่ได้บอกว่าวิธีแก้ที่ควรใช้จริงๆ คืออะไร</p> <p>(บางคนบอกว่าไม่ต้องอธิบายหรอก เพราะก็สอนมาแล้ว คิดงั้นๆ) ก็มี ส่วนก็อยากทบทวนให้ถ้ามีเวลา ก็จะอธิบายอีก แต่ไม่มีเวลา เพราะหลายกลุ่ม และมีหลายอย่างต้องแก้</p> <p>(บางคนอาจคิดว่า บางอย่างไม่ได้สำคัญ แก่เฉพาะที่สำคัญ ทำไม่ถึงให้ความสำคัญกับทุกสิ่งๆที่ผิด) ไม่อยากปล่อยให้ผิดไปอีกเรื่อยๆ อยากจะให้รู้ว่าผิด แต่ข้อเสียคือเวลา เราเองก็เหนื่อยเด็กก็เหนื่อย เวลาไม่ทัน</p> <p>(ถึงแม้จะไม่ได้เกี่ยวกับบทเรียนหรือตัวคอร์ส อาจารย์ ก็อยากจะแก้ให้ถ้ามีเวลา) ใช่ๆ อยากให้เค้ารู้ว่าผิด</p>	<p>1. (You said you always give feedback on every area. Do you have a problem with time constraints doing this?)</p> <p>Yes. I can't give feedback in detail. I normally tell the correction and the reason why. But I don't have time to explain in detail.</p> <p>(Some teachers might think the explanation is necessary because they had taught about it already.) But I want to review it for them. If there was enough time, I'd give an explanation again; but I didn't have time because there were many groups of students and many errors to correct.</p> <p>(Why do you try to correct every error?) I don't want to let students remember the wrong thing and use it wrong in the future. But the downside is time wasting, and it's tiring for both the students and me.</p> <p>(Although the error wasn't relevant to the lesson or course objective, you'd correct it if there was enough time.) Yes. I want them to know it's incorrect.</p>

PO questions	PO answers (Thai)	PO questions and answers (Translation)
<p>2. อาจารย์บอกว่าเด็กผิดเพราะไม่รู้หรือเพราะตื่นเต้น เลยพลาดไป มีครั้งไหนมั๊ยที่อาจารย์แก้แล้วรู้ว่าเด็กคนนี้ผิดเพราะไม่รู้จริงๆ</p>	<p>มีอยู่แล้ว ผมจำเด็กได้ทุกคน รู้ว่าใครอ่อน ดังนั้นการ perform ก็จะไม่ค่อยดี</p> <p>(วิธีที่จะคอมเมนต์เค้า เหมือนหรือต่างกับเด็กเก่งมั๊ย) ไม่ต่าง ก็ให้โดยภาพรวม ถ้าจะให้ละเอียดต้องหลังจบคลาส ต้องคุยท้ายคาบ เพราะไม่มีเวลา (แต่การบอก การแก้จะเหมือนกัน) เหมือนกัน</p>	<p>2. (You said some students made an error because they lacked the knowledge or it was because they were so excited that they made it. Have you ever felt some students made it due to a lack of knowledge?)</p> <p>Yes, I have. I remember every student. I can tell who has low-proficiency. So, they don't perform well.</p> <p>(Is your way of giving feedback different with different levels of students?) No. I always give feedback to the whole class. I might give it to individual students after class. I can't do it during the class because of time constraints.</p> <p>(But you'll give the same style of feedback?) Yes.</p>
<p>3. อาจารย์เคยบอกว่าบรรยากาศในการเรียนมีผล อย่างเด็กในห้องสนิทกัน ถ้าบรรยากาศดีจะพูดเยอะ บอกเยอะ อย่างลักษณะการบอกจะต่างไปมั๊ย บางคนบอกว่าถ้าเด็กไม่สนิทกันจะไม่กล้าแก้เยอะ มีผลกับอาจารย์ไหม</p>	<p>ส่วนใหญ่จะสนิทกับเด็ก เพราะเราชอบเล่นกับเค้า เรายังไม่ได้กลัวว่าเค้าจะคิดยังไง ให้ภาพรวม เราชะวังอยู่แล้วว่าพูดจี้แล้วเด็กโอเคมั๊ย</p>	<p>3. (Does the class unity affect the way you give feedback?)</p> <p>I'm close to most of them. I think it doesn't affect my feedback because I'm always careful about how I correct them. I usually care about their feelings when I am giving them feedback.</p>

PO questions	PO answers (Thai)	PO answers (Translation)
<p>4. เคยบอกว่าความผิดที่เปลี่ยนความหมายค่อนข้างเป็นความผิดที่ร้ายแรง แต่สังเกตเห็นว่าอาจารย์ค่อนข้างแก้ทุกความผิด แสดงว่าความร้ายแรงของ error ไม่มีผลต่อการให้ฟีดแบ็คไหม</p>	<p>ถ้ามันร้ายแรงจริงๆ คือฟังไม่เข้าใจ ต้องมาดูเองว่ามันคืออะไร หนึ่งคือความหมาย สองโครงสร้างถ้าผิดหนักต้องแก้ แต่ภาพรวม คิดว่าโอเคอยู่ ดังนั้นเราเลยแก้ภาพรวม และแก้จุดเล็กๆ</p> <p>(คือไม่ได้มีผลต่อการแก้หรือไม่แก้ เพราะแก้หมด แต่มีผลต่อความลึกในการแก้) ใช่ครับ</p>	<p>4. (You ever said you consider an error serious if it changes the meaning of a sentence. But I could see you normally give feedback to every area. Could I say that error seriousness does not influence your feedback?)</p> <p>Serious mistakes to me are the ones that make sentences not understandable. Two things I consider—the meaning and the structures. If they make a serious error on the structures. I need to correct it. But I think in general they didn't make serious mistakes. So, I corrected the whole picture of their errors including unserious errors.</p> <p>(Seriousness doesn't affect you whether you give feedback as you always give feedback but the depth of how you correct it would be different because serious errors need more correction and explanation.) Yes.</p>
<p>5. เวลามองเด็กคนหนึ่ง จะมีภาพอะไรผุดมา</p>	<p>ก็มีเช่น คนนี้ไม่ค่อยตอบ คนนี้ชอบมาสาย</p> <p>(บุคลิกนี้จำได้มั๊ย) จำได้ว่าคนไหนพูดมา กล้าแสดงออก</p> <p>(บุคลิกต่าง ให้คอมเมนต์ต่างกันมั๊ย) ไม่ต่างกัน</p> <p>โดยเฉพาะคนกล้าแสดงออกค่อนข้างจะแซว เพราะเค้าทำได้ แต่ก็ไม่ได้ต่างเพราะเราก็ระวังตลอด</p>	<p>5. (What did you think about a student when you gave feedback?)</p> <p>I got a picture such as...this student rarely spoke, that student usually came to class late.</p> <p>(Could you remember their characteristic?) I remembered who was talkative or confident.</p> <p>(Do you give different feedback with students of different characteristics?) No. I might tease confident students because they won't get angry. But generally, I treat everyone the same.</p>

PO questions	PO answers (Thai)	PO questions and answers (Translation)
	<p>(เด็กบางคนมั่นใจมาก แต่ผิดเยอะ จะบอกเค้าต่างกับคนอื่นมั๊ย เพราะอาจารย์บางท่านอาจคิดว่าถ้าเด็กมั่นใจจะแก้แบบนุ่มนวลกว่า) ไม่ไม่เกี่ยว ถึงแม่เค้าพูดเก่ง ก็ต้องบอก มันคือการเตือนเค้า ไม่ใช่ไปขัดแย้งเค้า</p>	<p>(Some teachers might be more careful when correcting confident speakers because they don't want to make them lose confidence.) It doesn't matter to me. They might speak fluently but if they make a mistake I'll correct them. I think my aim of giving feedback is to warn them, not to be against them.</p>
<p>6. ตอนแรกๆ ที่ถามเรื่องวิธีการให้ฟีดแบ็ค อาจารย์เคยบอกว่าบางครั้งก็ให้ไปแบบอัตโนมัติ แต่พอถึงตอนนี้รู้สึก ว่า อาจารย์รู้หรือเปล่าว่ากำลังให้ฟีดแบ็คแบบไหน</p>	<p>มันขึ้นกับว่า task เป็นแบบไหน ถ้าเป็น conversation ยาวๆ เป็น presentation เราต้องรอให้จบก่อนแล้วให้ฟีดแบ็ค แต่ถ้าเป็นการพูดสั้นๆ เรายก้จะแก้ให้ทันที</p> <p>(ถ้าถามอาจารย์คิดว่าตัวเองให้ฟีดแบ็คแบบไหนบ้าง) ถ้าอยากให้อะไรจริงๆ คืออยากให้ทันที เพราะยังสดอยู่ เรายก้ยังไม่ลืม ถ้าเรารอ ลืมจด เรายก้ลืมบอก แต่ขึ้นกับว่าเราให้งานอะไรด้วย ถ้ายาวๆ เราต้องจดไว้</p>	<p>6. (It seemed you didn't realise your feedback types in the first place. How about now? Do you realise the feedback types you gave them?)</p> <p>It depends on what kind of tasks I assign. If it's a long conversation such as in a presentation, I need to wait until they finish it to give them feedback. But if it's a short speaking, I'll correct them immediately.</p> <p>(What types of feedback do you think you give to the students?) I prefer to give immediate feedback because it's still fresh when I give it. I still remember the error. If I need to wait until they finish the conversation, sometimes I forget to feedback them and don't take notes of their mistakes.</p>

PO questions	PO answers (Thai)	PO questions and answers (Translation)
	<p>(สมมติเด็กบอก She have long legs. อาจารย์จะถามว่า ใช้อันนี้ได้มั๊ย แล้วก็แก้ แต่ไม่เคยเห็นแบบที่อาจารย์ แก้ไปเลย เช่น She has long legs. แล้วจบ)</p> <p>ไม่ๆ ไม่ใช่สไตล์ผม คิดว่าแบบ นั้นเด็กไม่ได้เรียนรู้ ไม่ได้คิด ฟัง แล้วผ่านไป อยากให้เด็กคิด ก่อนถึงจะเฉลย เพราะเค้าเรียน มาแล้ว เค้าต้องจำได้</p>	<p>(When a student said ‘She have long legs.’, you asked ‘Is this sentence correct? and then you told them the correct one. I barely saw you suddenly gave the correct one yourself such as ‘She has long legs.’ Why was that?)</p> <p>I don't think it was useful for students. They don't need to use any thinking or knowledge. I prefer them to think.</p>
<p>7. คิดว่าความเชื่อเหล่านี้ มาจากไหน</p>	<p>เอามาจากตัวเอง เพราะตอน เราเรียนเราอยากให้อาจารย์ ถามก่อนจะเฉลย เราจะได้คิด ก่อน ถ้าอาจารย์บอกเลยมันไม่ ทำท่าย คิดว่าน่าจะเรียนรู้ได้ ดีกว่า</p>	<p>7. (What did those beliefs come from?)</p> <p>I was from my learning experience. When I was a student, I wanted my teacher to let me think before correcting because it was more useful for me.</p>
<p>8. สังเกตว่าไม่ค่อยเขียน อธิบายบนกระดาน อาจารย์บางท่านอาจใช้ กระดานในการอธิบายการ ออกเสียง</p>	<p>ไม่ๆ อย่างแก้เรื่องการออกเสียง เราเขียนไปเข้าก็ไม่เข้าใจ เค้า คงไม่เข้าใจ phonetic</p> <p>(ถ้าเค้าออกเสียง r กับ l ไม่ได้) เราแค่บอกวิธีทำ เช่น ม้วนลิ้นเข้าไป ให้เค้าปฏิบัติเลย ดีกว่า เค้าคงอยากทำเลยดีกว่า</p>	<p>8. (I rarely saw you gave feedback on speaking by writing the error on the whiteboard. Do you agree? Why didn't you?)</p> <p>For mispronunciation, I don't write feedback because I don't think it would help students understand the mispronunciation.</p> <p>(What if students couldn't say /l/ and /r/?)</p> <p>I prefer to tell them how to say it right such as how to shape their tongue. I think students prefer me to let them practice.</p>

PO questions	PO answers (Thai)	PO questions and answers (Translation)
	(คาดการณ์ความต้องการเด็ก) ใช่ แล้วก็เราไม่ต้อง switch power point ไปมาให้เสียเวลาด้วย	(You speculated students' needs?) Yes. Another thing is that writing on the whiteboard would take time to switch between projector screen and the whiteboard. It's quite time-wasting.
	(เกี่ยวกับตอนเป็นนักเรียนด้วยมั๊ย ที่เลือกวิธีแก้แบบนี้) ตอนที่เราเรียน pronunciation เราอยากให้ อจ สอนแบบปฏิบัติเลย ไม่ใช่ต้องมาเรียนว่าเสียงออกมาจากไหน ให้ฝึกเลยดีกว่า	(Is it from your learning experience too?) When I studied a pronunciation course, I wanted the teacher to focus more on the practice, not the theories.
9. เคยมั๊ย แก่การออกเสียงให้เด็กเท่าไรหรือเค้าก็พูดไม่ได้ซักที	มีๆ มีอยู่แล้ว เราแค่บอกว่ามันผิดยังไง พยายามแก้ไขเค้า ถ้าครั้งที่สองผิดอีกก็แก้อีก ครั้งที่สามต้องเรียนรู้อะไรแล้ว ถ้าให้แก้ก็คงไม่ทัน เพราะทุกคนมี error หมด	9. (Have you ever corrected a mispronunciation for a student many times but he still couldn't say it right?) Sure. I tried to correct him and told him why his pronunciation was incorrect. When he made the same error, I still corrected it; but for the third time, he had to do some self-learning. I couldn't correct it for the third time because of time constraints. Every student makes errors.
10. วิธีที่อาจารย์ให้ฟีดแบ็คเด็กมีผลต่อการที่อาจารย์จะให้เด็กเป็นคนแก้ไขหรืออาจารย์เป็นคนแก้ไขหรือเปล่า	ส่วนใหญ่จะเป็นคนแก้ไข ถ้าให้เค้าแก้ไข จะถามว่าควรใช้อะไร (ถ้าเด็กตอบไม่ได้) จะแหวะนิดนึง แล้วแก้ไข เช่น เรียนแล้วไม่ใช่หรือ	10. (Does types of feedback affect whether you have students correct errors?) I mostly correct them myself. If I want them to correct it themselves, I'll ask 'what should it be?' (What if they couldn't answer?) If they couldn't, I would blame them a bit like 'You have studied it.'

PO questions	PO answers (Thai)	PO questions and answers (Translation)
<p>11. เคยบอกว่าการใช้ภาษา ควรมีความถูกต้อง อาจมีคนอื่นที่คิดว่านี่คือจุดด้อยของการสอนการพูดของไทยที่ไปเน้นเรื่องความถูกต้องมากไป จนทำให้เด็กไม่กล้าพูด คิดยังไง</p>	<p>เห็นด้วยนะ เคยทำวิจัย เด็กที่เก่งแกรมม่าจะอ่อนพูด คนไม่เก่งแกรมม่าจะกล้าพูดมากกว่า คิดว่าคนเก่งแกรมม่าเค้ามีความคิดซับซ้อนกว่าเลยกลัวผิด เลยไม่กล้าพูด ซึ่งต่างจากเด็กไม่เก่งแกรมม่า แต่กล้าพูด เค้ากล้าพูด แม้จะไม่ถูกร้อยเปอร์เซ็นต์ แต่ดีกว่า</p>	<p>11. (You previously said there should be some accuracy in speech. Some people might think it's a weakness of teaching speaking in Thailand, focusing too much on correctness that students don't dare to speak. What do you think?)</p> <p>I agree. I did research and found that the students with good knowledge of grammar couldn't speak well while those who were not so good at grammar dare to speak more. I think it was because the first group had more complicated thoughts when they were speaking. They were afraid of making mistakes, so they didn't dare to speak. In contrast, the latter group were more confident although their speech wasn't 100 percent correct.</p>
	<p>(ทำไมอาจารย์ถึงเน้นความถูกต้อง เวลาสอน) หนึ่ง เค้าต้องใช้สอบ ถ้าเราไม่เน้นตรงนี้เค้าทำข้อสอบไม่ได้ แต่ถ้าเราสอนดี จะไม่เน้นมากเท่าไร</p> <p>(มองว่ามันถูกต้องกับด้วยตัวคอร์ส ตัวข้อสอบ) ใช่ๆ</p> <p>(เคยสอนคอนเวอร์ซิชั่น) ใช่ ครั้งนี้</p> <p>(ตอนนั้นเคร่งเรื่องความถูกต้องน้อยลงมั้ย) ก็สอนต่างกัน ไม่เน้นว่าแกรมม่าผิดตรงไหน เน้นตรงสำนวน ตรงการใช้มากกว่า</p>	<p>(So, why do you focus on correctness when you teach the students?)</p> <p>First, they need that knowledge in the exam. If I don't focus on it, they won't do well in the exam. But when I am a tutor teaching outside of the uni, I don't focus much on correctness.</p> <p>(You need to focus on it because of the exam and the course?) Yes.</p> <p>(Are you less serious with correctness when you teach a conversation course?)</p> <p>I teach it differently. I don't focus on grammar, but on useful phrases instead. I focus more on communication and application.</p>

PO questions	PO answers (Thai)	PO questions and answers (Translation)
	<p>(บางคนมองว่าถ้าผิด โครงสร้างที่ไม่ได้ทำให้ ความหมายเปลี่ยน เช่น does/ do เค้าน่าจะคิดว่าไม่ต้องแก้หรอก คิดยังไง ควรแก้มั๊ย) คิดว่าควรแก้ เพราะไม่ใหญ่มาก อย่าง do/does ไม่ได้ซับซ้อนมากที่จะแก้ ก็อาจจะถามเค้าว่าแก้ยังไง แต่ถ้าผิดเยอะๆ ต้องบอก ต้องอธิบาย ต้องบอกเค้าเลย จะไม่ถาม</p>	<p>(Some people might think errors that don't cause misunderstanding might not need correction, what would you think?)</p> <p>I think we should correct it if it is not a complex structure and would not take a long time to correct.</p>
	<p>(คิดว่าการแก้ทุกอย่างของเรา มีผลต่อการที่ทำให้เด็กไม่แก้พูดมั๊ย) คิดว่าการแก้ของเราเป็นภาพรวม ไม่น่าจะมีผล เราไม่ได้จี้ กลัวเด็กจะไม่กล้า</p> <p>(บางคนบอกว่าถ้าพูดรวมๆ แล้วคนที่ผิดจะรู้ตัวได้ใจ) ไม่ เราคิดว่า เวลาเราแก้ มันต้องเกิดจากการที่เค้าพูดผิด ยังไง เค้าก็ต้องรู้ว่าเค้าพูดผิด เวลาเราแก้ เราจะมองหน้าแล้วบอกทั้งคลาส จะไม่ให้เค้าแก้คนเดียว</p>	<p>(Do you think your style of correcting every error negatively affect students?)</p> <p>No. I always give feedback to the whole class. I don't force them to answer because I'm afraid it would discourage them to speak.</p> <p>(Some people might think if they don't give direct feedback students might not know we are correcting them)</p> <p>I think they know because I always correct their errors right after they finish speaking and I always glance at the error maker while I'm correcting the error.</p>

PO questions	PO answers (Thai)	PO questions and answers (Translation)
	<p>(คิดว่าเราสามารถไม่เห็น แกรมม่าในการสอนพูด ได้มั้ย) ทำได้ถ้าในไทยมี ต่างชาติเยอะ ถ้าเน้นสื่อสาร ออกจากห้องไปเค้าต้องได้พูด แต่ในไทยพอออกจากห้องไป ไม่มีใครพูดได้ ดังนั้นเราต้อง ช่วยเค้าในการเตรียมประโยค จะใช้ ในไทยเค้าไม่สามารถ ใช้ได้ทุกวัน อย่างน้อยถ้าเรา สอนโครงสร้างเค้า เค้าจะ adapt ได้ ถ้าเค้าไม่สอน โครงสร้างเค้า สุดท้ายเค้าก็ลืม เพราะไม่ได้ใช้นอกห้อง</p>	<p>(Do you think we can improve English teaching by not focusing on grammar?)</p> <p>It is quite hard for Thai students to do so because we don't have an English environment and they have no one to speak English to. If we teach them the structures, at least they can create sentences in real life as they don't have any models out of the class. My students ever gave comments on my teaching that they could use what they learned in real life.</p>

Appendix K: Sample Nvivo coding

The screenshot displays the Nvivo software interface. The top menu bar includes File, Home, Import, Create, Explore, and Share. Below the menu is a toolbar with various icons for clipboard, item, explore, coding, classification, and workspace. The main area is titled 'Nodes' and contains a table with the following columns: Name, Files, References, Created On, Created By, Modified On, and Modified By. The table lists 15 nodes, with 'TASK OBJECTIVES' highlighted in blue. On the left side, there is a 'Quick Access' panel with 'Files', 'Memos', and 'Nodes' options, and a 'Data' panel listing individual files like Denise, Diann, Emma, etc.

Name	Files	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On	Modified By
CURRIRULUM GOALS		45	25/10/2560 15:42	KATIB	26/11/2562 13:46	KATIB
STUDENT CONFIDENCE		30	25/10/2560 15:53	KATIB	15/11/2561 20:40	KATIB
REAL LIFE GOALS		27	25/10/2560 16:04	KATIB	5/11/2560 8:02	KATIB
TC AWARENESS ABOUT THEIR CF		3	25/10/2560 16:22	KATIB	31/10/2560 10:43	KATIB
TC ASSESSMENT OF STUDENT PERFORMANCE		2	25/10/2560 16:32	KATIB	30/10/2560 12:01	KATIB
STANDARD ENGLISH		1	26/10/2560 10:48	KATIB	29/10/2560 17:54	KATIB
ERROR FEATURES		16	29/10/2560 17:28	KATIB	4/11/2560 17:59	KATIB
TC EXPECTATION		3	29/10/2560 17:28	KATIB	3/11/2560 20:41	KATIB
SOURCE OF ERROR		5	29/10/2560 17:44	KATIB	3/11/2560 20:41	KATIB
TASK ACCOMPLISHMENT		2	29/10/2560 17:49	KATIB	3/11/2560 20:41	KATIB
TASK OBJECTIVES		5	29/10/2560 18:19	KATIB	3/11/2560 20:41	KATIB
TC LEARNING EXPERIENCE		17	30/10/2560 12:04	KATIB	26/11/2562 21:50	KATIB
TIME CONSTRAINTS		8	30/10/2560 12:51	KATIB	14/11/2561 13:03	KATIB
STUDENT NEEDS		1	30/10/2560 14:09	KATIB	3/11/2560 20:41	KATIB
ACCURACY IN SPOKEN LANG		23	30/10/2560 15:35	KATIB	15/11/2561 20:50	KATIB

Appendix L: Evidence of cross-case analysis

Table I Summaries of mismatches between beliefs and practices

Teacher	Stated belief	Practice	Teachers' comments
Denise	Using explicit correction with common errors to make the correction clearer for students (SM2)	Used a recast with a common error (OB3)	"This common error...students made different erroneous pronunciation, so I didn't mention the incorrect pronunciation this student made. It wasn't like the one in the previous lesson which they made similar form of mispronunciation" (SM3)
Stefani	Being sensitive to students' feelings when giving corrective feedback (BG)	Said the name of the error maker while giving corrective feedback (OB2)	"It was a test. A student used to ask me why she didn't get a full score. From then on, I think I need to tell individual students what mistakes they make if it's a test." (SM2)
	Correcting mispronunciation frequently made by students (BG)	Untreated a common phonological mistake (OB1)	"I assumed they knew it already because I used to correct it before. I think they knew, but still couldn't pronounce it right." (SM1)
Julie	Avoiding spending too much time on eliciting the correction from a particular student to avoid embarrassing the student	Spent a few minutes eliciting the correction from a student	"It was partly because this student was sitting in the centre of the class. All other students were paying attention to him. I wanted their attention. But when correcting students sitting at other spots, I needed to rush back to the whole class, or else they'd lose attention... His face was smiley. I need to see their facial expression as well. When I asked some students, their face turned into an insecure mode. But this student...he was smiling" (SM2)

Teacher	Stated belief	Practice	Teachers' comments
Julie	Focusing on student confidence to speak (PO1)	Asked students who made the error (OB3)	"I asked who said it not to point out who made the error, but to remind them which part of the conversation the error was." (SM3)
Diann	Correcting students who pronounce the unnecessary 's' sound such as 'goods morning' (BG)	Corrected a student who said 'greats' instead of 'great' (OB1)	"I couldn't hear her clearly. I was a bit confused because she said, 'monkey has greats'. I was paying attention to the meaning of the sentence, so I didn't correct it." (SM1)
James	Normally using recasts because of personal preference (SM1)	Used elicitation when a student made a grammatical error (OB2)	"This point had been taught. I wanted to know if they could remember it. I'd correct the error myself if it was something irrelevant to the taught lessons." (SM2)
Natalie	Correcting errors relevant to the lesson focus (BG)	Untreated an error relevant to the lesson focus (OB2)	"I was focusing on the content. I was seeing if the student said the location (of the copying machine) correctly. I'd see what the aim of the task was." (SM2)
Jane	Focusing on student confidence to speak (BG)	Showed a student's written script to the class while giving corrective feedback (OB2)	"(Before correcting the errors to the class) I previously praised him personally on his confidence in speaking. I told him it was alright making some mistakes like the misuse of 'do' and 'does' (as the auxiliary verbs). I praised him before correcting his errors because I was afraid it'd hurt his feelings." (SM2)

Teacher	Stated belief	Practice	Teachers' comments
Eve	Correcting students who pronounce the unnecessary 's' sound such as 'goods morning' (BG)	Uncorrected a student who said 'greats' instead of 'great' (OB2)	"It wasn't obvious. She said it softly." (SM2)
Emma	Usually eliciting the correction from the class (PO2)	Mostly used a recast in one of the observed lessons (OB3)	"Actually, I'd rather do so (use elicitation), but it needed more time, and less content to cover." (SM3)
Thomas	Correcting errors causing communication breakdown (BG)	Untreated an error that might cause communication breakdown (OB2)	"It wasn't that good...but yeah...I think it was comprehensible. I didn't expect much from them. They were of low proficiency and didn't even dare to say anything. I didn't want to correct them too much." (SM2)
Karen	Not focusing on errors that do not cause communication breakdown (BG)	Corrected students when they did not use a phrase previously taught (OB2)	<p>"It was the objective of this activity. They didn't use it (the phrase) because they didn't understand why they had to use it. But at that moment, I wanted to see if they could use the phrase." (SM2)</p> <p>(In real life, when they do not use this phrase to check understanding of what the interlocutor says, do you think it's alright?)</p> <p>"Yes, it is. But if they want to sound more natural. They need to know the filler like this." (SM2)</p>

Table II Impact of prior language learning experiences

Case	Question	Answer
Thomas	You said your error correction depends on the context. Does it mean you sometimes skipped the correction?	"It's not that I skip it. I'll tell them the correction anyway, or else they'll get wrong knowledge. When I learned Chinese, the teacher didn't interrupt me although I made mistakes. She corrected me after I finished my sentence but didn't say my name. It made me feel good. So, I used this way of correction with my students." (BG)
	You said your assessment of speaking tasks is adapted based on students' performance. What's this belief from?	"It's from the theory...what I learned from my master's. But whether I believe it or not depends on my learning experience. Like...the theory says we should avoid overcorrection." (BG)
	Why did you correct the pronunciation of 'think'? Did you see any student mispronounced it?	"When I was a student, my teacher corrected my 'th' (θ) sound...I usually tell my students about the errors I was corrected by my teacher." (SM1)
Karen	What do you remember when you were a student being corrected by your teacher?	"The teacher didn't correct every of my errors. She let me speak until I finished. Then she corrected the errors by writing the correction on the blackboard...So, I wasn't scared of speaking incorrect grammar. And I want my student to feel the same." (BG)
Denise	You said 'good'. Did you really think their speaking was good?	"I didn't think it was good, but I just wanted them to participate in the class. I wanted them to speak, so I didn't correct much when they made mistakes. I used to be corrected by my teacher when I was in high school. They focused on grammar and not on having students speak. It made me fear of speaking even though it was just a short sentence." (SM1)
Julie	How do you make a decision between focusing on the course objectives and on other issues irrelevant to the course objectives?	"I need to cover the course objectives so that students can do well in the exam, but I also focus on practicality. Now I can judge what issue is important to be highlighted because I had enough exposure to real usage of English. Previously, I only followed the course objectives and not considered real-world communication." (BG)

Case	Question	Answer
Stefani	In the observed lesson, you often gave explanations after correcting students' errors. Why did you do so?	"I like to make jokes about errors. They mostly came from my own learning experience. Adding jokes to the correction makes them remember it better. Like when I corrected the 'th' sound. I told them about my experience of being corrected by a native speaker. I said 'Thor' with the /t/ sound and he didn't know what I said. Then I realised pronouncing the /th/ sound correctly is very important." (PO1)
James	You said you normally elicit the correction from students if the error is related to the taught lesson because they'll have a chance to think. Where does this belief come from?	"It's from myself. When I was a student, I wanted the teacher to ask me (to correct the error myself) before giving me the correction so that I had a chance to think. Giving me the correction wasn't challenging." (PO3)
Eve	Could you tell me how you were taught by your teachers, especially relating to speaking?	"My English teachers focused more on communication. However, when we made mistakes, they always corrected us no matter what kind of mistakes. I think I adopt some part of their teaching styles to my own teaching." (BG)
Jane	You said you didn't focus much on the accent because foreigners don't care about it. How do you know they don't?	"Most of them don't mind about it. It's from my observation. I used to work for a hotel. I met lots of foreigners. Their accents were not like native speakers'. I always tell students not to criticise their accents. In real life, it'd be fine as long as we could communicate...So, I focus more on communication." (BG)
Emma	You said you preferred students to correct themselves because you wanted them to think and believed they'll remember the correction better. It seemed you did so in the observed lessons. Why do you prefer this way of correction?	"I also learned this way." (SM3)
Natalie	It seemed that you corrected almost every error, didn't you?	"Yes. But I didn't bluntly correct them. I didn't want to create a serious atmosphere. I know it'd make them feel bad...like I felt when I was a student." (SM2)

Table III Impact of teaching experiences

Case	Question	Answer
Jane	What do you think is the error in speaking?	"Thai students are often confused about the use of the verb to be and other verbs. They usually say something like 'She is kiss her child', I'll correct it because they always make this kind of mistakes." (BG)
	You said letting students write the conversation script was good for their learning because they would be able to use some useful phrases in their real-life communication. Why do you think so?	"I used to teach Hotel students and I had them to do the roleplays. They told me they could use the phrases they memorised for the roleplays when they worked for a hotel...such as 'Can I have your passport please?'" (PO2)
Thomas	You said in the previous interview that you sometimes skipped the correction due to time constraints. What was the cause of time constraints in your view?	"I think this problem could be solved if I had a chance to teach this course again. I'd have more experience by then and would be able to figure out the solution. I believe I'll better cope with this next time." (PO3)
Julie	Why did you ask them the word 'talkative' is a positive or negative word instead of telling them yourself? What were you thinking?	"From my experience, students have lots of knowledge but can't speak. So, I wanted to lead them from the knowledge they had. I wanted them to have classroom interaction. At least they had a chance to speak." (SM1)
Diann	How do you make a decision about how to correct students' errors?	"From my experience...from students' errors. I know how to deal with errors." (PO2)
Emma	I could see you focus on pronunciation. How did you select the issue to address? Why did you choose to talk about 'th' sound? (Emma gave the students a recast when correcting the 'th' sound in 'thin')	"I wanted to talk about the 'th' sound because it's a common mistake. Whatever I think it's a common problem among Thai learners, I'll raise it up. It's from my teaching experience." (SM1)

Case	Question	Answer
Denise	You were correcting 'my best friend she is...' Why were you giving the correction yourself? What type of error was it (my best friend she is)?	"It's the error they frequently made...They made it because they didn't know it wasn't correct. Most students I used to teach...they often made this error, so I think it's a common error." (SM1)
Eve	You said you knew what errors you should focus on in the classroom. How did you know?	"Probably from my teaching experience. Students in my previous classes often made errors about /r/ and /l/, so I assumed they'd make this kind of errors." (PO2)
James	When you asked them how to pronounce 'history' and they didn't answer, why did you decide to correct it yourself?	"I often found students mispronounced this word, so I was thinking I shouldn't wait for their correction. I thought other students also had no idea what the correct pronunciation was." (SM1)
Karen	In the previous interview, you gave an example of giving a recast to correct the mispronounced 'interesting'. Was it because this mispronunciation affected the meaning that made you use the recast?	"It wasn't only about this word, but it was about mispronunciation. From my teaching experience, most students mispronounced a word without knowing the correct pronunciation even though it was an easy word. The point was that they stressed the word at the wrong syllable, and I wanted them to also realise this kind of problem with other words." (PO1)
Natalie	When she mispronounced 'bald' Why were you telling her the correct pronunciation yourself? Was it relevant to things you had taught?	"I rarely elicited the correction from students because I often found that although I've taught it, they're likely to make the same mistake and not to be able to self-correct" (SM2)
Stefani	Why were you asking her 'What did you say?' (The student stressed the wrong syllable in the word 'interesting')	"I was sure she mispronounced it because lots of students mispronounced it. I asked her to see if she could correct it." (SM2)

Table IV Impact of professional coursework

Case	Question	Answer
Thomas	You said you focus on pronunciation because it's important for communication. Why do you believe so?	"I learned from the MA program that pronunciation is important for communication." (SM1)
	You said you focus on students' development rather than their one-time performance. What does this belief come from?	"Partly from the theories...I learned in my master's that we shouldn't overcorrect them because they need encouragement. I also did research on self-efficacy, so I know if we believe we can do it, we will." (BG)
James	You said you normally correct students' accent because you believe speaking with a good accent makes the speaker sound reliable and educated. Where does this belief come from?	"During the M.A. program, the lecturer told me to adjust my accent to sound more like native speakers." (PO2)
	You previously said what important for speaking are grammar, intonation, pronunciation, and realisation of the context. What does the belief about this come from?	"It's from the teachers who used to teach me...the importance of the context, I got it from my masters' research. I read a lot of theories too. I know it's important." (PO2)
	Do you adopt anything you learned in your master's in your teaching?	"Just part of it. Some methodologies are too hard, not suitable for students here...I learned in my master's that we need to speak with tones appropriate for the context, but students here can't do it because they're not confident enough. When my teacher told me to do it, it was fun. But it didn't work with students here, so I needed to change the method." (BG)
Diann	You said you would see if the error causes communication breakdown when deciding on what errors to correct. Where does this belief come from?	"It's partly from what I learned during my master's. They say it's a serious error if it causes communication breakdown." (PO2)

Case	Question	Answer
Denise	You said you avoid correcting students during speaking. Why's that?	"When I was in a teaching practicum, I used to do so. But when I studied the master's, my teacher said it's not good for students because it might reduce their confidence. So, I've changed the way I correct errors since then." (BG)

Table V Teacher cognition about their feedback types

Case	Questions	Answers
Denise	How do you correct students' errors?	"I used to teach high-school students and interfered their conversations to correct their errors, but during my master's, the teachers said we shouldn't interfere students because it could destroy their confidence." (BG)
Diann	When you made a mistake, how did your teachers correct it?	"They wrote it on the blackboard and correct it after the conversation...I corrected students' mistakes this way too. Sometimes I have them (the class) correct, other times I correct them myself." (BG)
Emma	What do you do when students make mistakes?	"I correct it, but I realise it might make them lose face if I commented on it in front of the classmates. So, I give feedback to the class, not to a particular student." (BG)
Eve	How do you normally correct students' errors?	"When I correct them, I ask them to think about the correction first, but sometimes I need to make the correction myself because students cannot do it." (BG)
James	You said Thai students are afraid of making mistakes. Does it affect the way you correct their spoken errors?	"I tell them not to feel embarrassed (when making mistakes) ...I don't criticise and try to encourage them." (BG)
Jane	How do you correct students' errors?	"I tell them why I correct it, like when they used the wrong tense, I told them it'd be fine if they said adverbs of time such as yesterday, now, last year. If they said those words and couldn't conjugate the verb, it'd be okay." (BG)

Case	Questions	Answers
Julie	Normally, when students make a mistake, what do you do?	“Normally, I wait until they finish the sentence, but if it’s about the taught lessons, I’ll immediately correct it. But if it’s a conversation, I’ll wait until they finish it.” (BG)
Karen	You said you normally implicitly correct students’ errors. Why’s that?	“I tell them implicitly. They’ll be able to correct themselves. Only talking to me is good enough. It takes courage for them to talk. I don’t want to discourage them. I’d say it’s comprehensible, then I’d say the correct form. When I said it, they’d see it was different from what they said.” (BG)
Natalie	How do you treat students’ errors?	“I’m careful of the words I use, especially with low proficiency students. When I was a student, I didn’t like it when the teachers commented on my mistakes harshly...I used to say it directly and saw that they’d avoided speaking since then.” (BG)
Stefani	What do you do when students make mistakes?	“I’d tell them this is learning. The more mistakes, the better. I’d tell them to speak out, we can work it out if there’s a mistake. I want them to know we’re making mistakes for learning, not for feeling embarrassed.” (BG)
Thomas	You said you’d see the context if an error should be corrected. Do you think it might make students confused if you corrected an error but not another?	“I said I’d let it go, but it didn’t mean I wouldn’t correct it. I want them to know what is correct. Like when I learned Chinese, the teacher didn’t interrupt me when I made a mistake, so I felt there was nothing wrong. But then when I finished speaking, she said it should have been said like this like that, she didn’t mention my name. It made me feel good, so I adopt this way (of correction) in my teaching.” (BG)

Table VI Relationship between student motivation and student confidence

Case	Question	Answer
Emma	You said you rarely provide the correction yourself. And from the observed lessons, you normally elicit the correction from students. Why's that?	"When they made the error, their confidence was shaken, I have to give them a second chance to make them realise they can do it" (PO3).
Julie	What's your objective of teaching speaking?	"I want them to have awareness [of the error] and to be confident that they can speak." (BG)
	You said only speaking out is good enough because students are fear of speaking. Where does this belief come from?	"I used to teach lower proficiency students and they tried not to look me in the eyes. They were scared of me calling them to answer, so I want to build their positive attitude first. When they know I won't scold them for making an error, they'll be more confident to speak. I don't want them to get nervous every time they have to be in my class" (PO1).
	You said you don't correct every error. Was it because you don't want to overload them with knowledge?	"Yes. If it was too much, they wouldn't remember it anyway. What I want more is to make them like English. If they like it, they'll be able to learn by themselves. The classroom is just the starting point. I can't give them everything." (PO1)
Thomas	You said interrupting students while they're speaking might affect their confidence. Was it about their fear of speaking?	"Yes. They're afraid of making mistakes. Probably it's because they were looked down on when making them. What I should do is to make them feel comfortable to make mistakes and see it as a stepping stone" (BG).
Diann	What do you think about Thai learners and speaking skills?	"Thai learners, compared to those from other neighbour countries like Singapore or Malaysia, they think English has nothing to do with them...so, I try to make relevance of things around us like English in advertisement to make them realise it's close to them...Thai students are shy and not confident enough to speak." (BG)

Case	Question	Answer
	How do you manage the problem of reticence to speak?	“When they make mistake, I don’t say ‘it’s wrong’. I say ‘Are you sure? There might be a better answer.’ so that they feel like speaking.” (BG)
Jane	What do you think is the cause of speaking problems?	“Confidence. It really matters. Thai learners were taught to obey teachers. When they don’t understand something, they don’t ask. It makes them fear of losing face. I try to make them feel relaxed, make them think speaking English is fun...When students ask me something, I always say ‘excellent’, to reduce the intense atmosphere and to motivate them to ask and participate in class.” (BG)
Natalie	Why didn’t you correct that grammatical error?	“I didn’t expect them to speak totally correct. I wanted them to use the vocab correctly first at this stage. Most students didn’t dare to speak because they were afraid of making mistakes. So, I motivated them to speak by telling them it was alright if it was wrong. I just wanted them to speak out.” (SM2)

Table VII Using encouragement

Case	Question	Answer
Jane	Were you worried about the student's feelings when you took his script to correct it with the class?	"(Before correcting the errors to the class) I previously praised him personally on his confidence in speaking. I told him it was alright making some mistakes like the misuse of 'do' and 'does' (as the auxiliary verbs). I praised him before correcting his errors because I was afraid it'd hurt his feelings." (SM2)
Denise	You said 'good'. Did you really think their speaking was good?	"I didn't think it was good, but I just wanted them to participate in the class. I wanted them to speak, so I didn't correct much when they made mistakes." (SM1)
Stefani	Why did you mention who said the sentence you were correcting?	"There were both good points and errors of some students. When I wanted to praise them, I'd say their names so that they'd feel encouraged when I corrected them" (SM3).
	Why did you add the matter of foreigners speaking Thai to your corrective feedback?	"I pointed it out because I know some students didn't dare to speak when they met foreigners. I didn't want my feedback to be too extreme about accuracy or else they might get too nervous to speak. I wanted them to speak out even if it was wrong." (SM1)
Natalie	Why didn't you correct that grammatical error?	"Most students didn't dare to speak because they were afraid of making mistakes. So, I motivated them to speak by telling them it was alright if it was wrong. I just wanted them to speak out" (SM2).
Emma	You previously said you'd give feedback to the whole class to lesson negative effects of the feedback on the speaker. How would you be certain that the student who made mistakes realise it was him who made it?	"I'd come back to him when I gave feedback to the class. He'd have to correct it after that...It was challenging when they made mistakes. I'd see how to correct it without discouraging them. I'd try to avoid the word 'wrong' as it might discourage them from learning from the mistakes" (SM1).

Case	Question	Answer
Thomas	You said you'd let them see the script. Why's that?	"I used to ask them not to see the script, but it took too much time for them to prepare for the task. So, I thought if I wanted them to interact in the class, I might have to let them see the script". (PO1)
	You said this is the first time you teach speaking and you were finding out the way to give every student a chance to speak. Have you found the solution to the problem?	"I think I'll have them read the script. I might have to stick to my first goal of teaching that I just want them to speak out". (PO1)

Table VIII Using elicitation for student motivation

Case	Question	Answer
Diann	What would you do with students' reticence to speak?	"I'd say something to encourage him. I'd ask 'Are you sure? There's a better answer' I'd say it's kind of the correct answer but there's a better one so that he wanted to speak more." (BG)
	In the previously observed class, you mostly corrected the error for them, but in this lesson, it seemed you tried to have them correct it themselves. Why?	"In that class, it seemed that they didn't know what to say because they had problems with the vocabulary. But in this task, everything was related to what they had learned in this lesson, so I waited for them to correct it. I knew they knew how to say it, but I just had to wait". (SM3)
	You have talked about this many times and this time you talked about it again but the student still couldn't speak in this situation.	"Yes. Actually when I gave that explanation, I wanted to sum up everything. But I thought their performance wasn't impressive enough, so I called on a student to speak with me. And it turned out that she couldn't make a request as she kept silent, so I tried to encourage her to speak by 'what request would you like to make?, turning on the light? Closing the door?' (SM2)

Case	Question	Answer
James	In the recent interview, you said you normally ask students to correct the error themselves if it's about the taught lesson. Why is the reason for that?	"I wanted to ask them first in case someone knew the answer. If a student could answer it, I might help motivate other students to answer" (PO2).
Emma	You said sometimes you waited until the student could self-correct though you had to wait for help for the classmates. Why was that?	"I wanted them to engage in the activity. I believe in the teachers' role to create a motivational environment. It's unnecessary that the teacher is the provider of the corrected form. Collaborative learning creates a good learning environment" (PO3).
Jane	Why were you telling this pair to find the right pronunciation themselves?	"Sometimes I thought I was too nice telling them the correct one. They'd not put the effort on their learning" (SM1).
Julie	Why were you waiting for him to correct the sentence?	"When I was saying 'I have...' and the class helped him complete it by saying 'glasses', it was like collaborative learning and it helped to create motivating classroom environment" (SM2).
Stefani	When you taught English-major students, did you expect them to be able to self-correct?	"I did. But I wasn't sure if they could. Mostly, I asked their classmates to help. If the speaker could correct it (without my help), he'd be proud of himself" (PO1).

Table IX Using recasts for student confidence

Case	Question	Answer
James	Why did you correct the error by telling them the corrected form and not mentioning the incorrect one?	"I rarely told them it was wrong because it might affect their confidence to speak I didn't want them to think it was a mistake. It was just the thing they didn't know" (SM1).
Stefani	Why did you correct the error yourself? You said you normally try to have them correct it themselves?	"The student seemed to realise her error. Actually, I wanted to ask her to correct it, but her reaction was like 'I was the one who said it.' So, I didn't want to put pressure on her". (SM2)
Karen	Why did you correct all the errors yourself when everyone finished the task?	"I didn't want to point out their errors. I just wanted them to know the errors were made. I didn't want to point them out during the task because I didn't want to discourage them from speaking in the next tasks" (PO2).
Julie	Why did you correct this error yourself? It might be possible that the student could correct it because you had taught about that before?	"It'd be good if he could correct it but...personally I think most of them registered this course because they had to. So, I didn't want them to suffer" (PO1).
	You used to say you usually correct the error yourself. Why?	"For some students, speaking English with the teacher is a big issue. They need a lot of courage to do it. When I didn't put pressure on them, I could see they were more encouraged to speak. I don't want them to be scared of the English class". (PO1)
Jane	Why were you correcting the error yourself?	"She had problems with her teeth. She was a good student. I didn't want to push her" (ST3).
Denise	Why were you not asking him to correct himself?	"I wanted to help him. I didn't want to cause him to lose face, so I didn't put pressure on him. He was a low proficiency student" (SM3)

Table X Elicitation and students' affective state

Case	Question	Answer
Julie	In your lesson, you seemed to frequently provide the correct form for the students. Why didn't you ask them to correct themselves?	"I did that sometimes. If the speaker couldn't correct it, I'd ask for the classmates' help. Drawing the attention to the class instead of the speaker would help save his face. Actually, I wanted the speaker to self-correct, but I think while I was asking the class to correct, he'd realise the error and the correction eventually" (PO1).
	Was it about time constraints that you didn't ask the speaker to correct himself?	"It was a bit relevant, but I asked the class mostly to draw the attention back to the class. I didn't want to put the pressure on the speaker. If he couldn't correct it, he'd feel bad" (PO1).
Natalie	In your lesson, you seemed to frequently provide the correct form for the students. Why didn't you ask them to correct themselves?	"I mostly corrected the error myself, especially with low proficiency students. I used to ask them to self-correct, but they couldn't. So, I thought it was better to correct it for them, or else I wouldn't finish the lesson. What's more, when I asked them, they became scared of me" (PO1).
Denise	You said you sometimes asked the speaker to correct himself. What if he couldn't?	"If the student couldn't correct it or it took a long time for him, I'd ask other students instead. I don't want him to feel pressured" (PO2).
Emma	You were saying 'is it the right way to pronounce it?' and not telling her she was pronouncing the /θ/ sound wrongly. Did you think she might not be aware of the error?	"I think telling her it was wrong might embarrass the student. Actually, I wanted to ask them individually, but I feared for making them lose face" (SM1).
Stefani	Why did you correct the error yourself? You said you normally try to have them correct it themselves?	"The student seemed to realise her error. Actually, I wanted to ask her to correct it, but her reaction was like 'I was the one who said it.' So, I didn't want to put pressure on her" (SM2).

Table XI Assumption of lower proficiency students having limited ability to acquire knowledge

Case	Question	Evidence
Julie	What do you think about giving feedback on gestures such as facial expressions?	“If they were of high proficiency, I’d point it out because they already knew how to communicate by words. For example, when a student said ‘I’m going to Korea next month’ and his partner said ‘How wonderful!’ but without any expression of delight, I might say something like ‘Your friend has a very good news but you don’t look glad’”. (PO2)
Karen	You previously said you would correct more with higher proficiency students. Could you tell me why?	“Yes. Low proficiency students might need me to correct more. But if I corrected them too much, it might be overwhelming for them. It’d be better to give them a proper amount of knowledge, so they could take time to digest it. Later if they needed more and could take it more, it’d not be too late to give them more.” (PO2)
Stefani	You said you’d correct more with English-major students?	“(I corrected more with English-major students because) I thought of their ability to acquire the knowledge”. (PO1)
Emma	Why didn’t you correct this final sound while correcting the final sound of the previous word?	“I’d consider what was the interesting issue of a word. I tried not to give a lot of information in one go, or they’d feel that there are a lot of things to learn even in a word. This is the idea for non-English major students”. (SM1)
Thomas	Why didn’t you correct that mispronunciation?	“It wasn’t a serious error, the meaning didn’t change. Also, they weren’t English major students. I’d definitely correct this error if they were because they need a good knowledge of English for their future. They might be English teachers one day. Besides, I think English major students have better ability to acquire much knowledge of English”. (SM2)

Table XII Adapting the task according to student proficiency

Case	Question	Answer
Diann	You said you'd see students' performance to evaluate your teaching, but you said it depends on individual students. Could you clarify this?	"I want them to be able to speak what I teach them, but the accomplishment could be different for individual students. With low proficiency students, if they could speak out just a bit, I'd say they accomplished the task." (BG)
James	What do you expect from students after this course?	"I didn't expect them to speak that well. They were of low proficiency students." (PO1)
	You always let students prepare the speaking script before performing the tasks, but in reality, they can't speak with the script. What do you think about this?	"I didn't expect much from them. I always let them prepare (the script). I never had them do the prompt speaking because they are not English major students, their proficiency level is low. If they were English-major students, they'd be able to speak (without the script)." (PO3)
Jane	They were speaking like reciting the script. What do you think about it?	"Their proficiency might not reach the level of doing a prompt speaking task. They were of very low proficiency. I should have given them an easier task." (SM2)
Denise	It can be seen that you always let the students speak from the written script. Is it always like this?	"Yes...in case that they couldn't speak (without the script). There are two ways they always do—having their speaking partner tell them what to say, and giving me a signal asking for help. In that case, I'll tell them...I told them who wants to see, see. But I expect them not to see (the script). High proficiency students rarely see the script." (PO3)
Emma	You said sometimes you skipped some activities in the coursebook such as a pair work conversation because the students might feel overwhelmed by the taught content. What if they were of higher proficiency?	"I think I'd assign them to do it because they'd be able to complete the task sooner (than lower proficiency students), and they might be able to go beyond the model conversation." (SM2)

Case	Question	Answer
Julie	Do you teach this fundamental speaking course differently from the way you teach other speaking courses?	"I'd see proficiency of students...how much I could give them. If it was a higher-level course but they were of low proficiency, I'd give them the background knowledge first." (BG)
Eve	What do you think about assigning a prompt speaking task to students?	"Mostly, I let them rehearse before performing the task because I know their background knowledge is limited. If they were English-major students, it'd be challenging. I used to have English-major students do a prompt speaking and they wanted to do it. They wanted to speak, they had more confidence, compared to students of other majors." (PO1)

Table XIII Relationships between student proficiency and student confidence

Case	Question	Answer
Denise	You previously said your teaching aim is to build student confidence. How do you think it would help them in their real life?	"Their confidence and their attitude about English...because they are of low proficiency." (PO1)
	You said you would be pleased if students put effort into the task. Does it mean you evaluate student speaking ability by considering their effort to speak and duration of task preparation?	"It's because the students in this class were okay, compared to other non-English major students I used to teach. Those students didn't speak at all. For non-English major students, it's very hard to write a speaking script. When they could do it, it'd be better not to criticise their speaking too much. If there were things to correct, I'd implicitly correct them because they don't have confidence." (PO1)
Julie	You said that for students it takes much courage to speak. Where does this belief come from?	"I used to teach non-English major students. They didn't want to meet my eyes, especially when I told them I'd ask something, they all bent down their heads." (PO1)

Case	Question	Answer
Emma	You said you want students to be able to develop their speaking skills. Have you ever noticed it during the course?	“Most students are still not confident to speak. I think it’s because they’re of low proficiency level, so they don’t dare to produce speech.” (SM2)
Natalie	What do you think is the problem of students in this class?	“They aren’t confident, especially at the beginning of the course. They didn’t speak because they didn’t have lots of vocab in their vocab bank. When they didn’t know the word, they couldn’t speak in a sentence and then chose to stay silent.” (PO2)
	In your lesson, you seemed to frequently provide the correct form for the students. Why didn’t you ask them to correct themselves?	“I mostly corrected the error myself, especially with low proficiency students. I used to ask them to self-correct, but they couldn’t. So, I thought it was better to correct it for them, or else I wouldn’t finish the lesson. What’s more, when I asked them, they became scared of me” (PO1).
Thomas	Is your expectation on students still the same? You said at the beginning that you aimed to build their confidence, but it could be seen from the observation that sometimes you corrected errors irrelevant to the focus.	“These students...I could focus on that issue (the linking sound), but the other group...I had to put less expectation on them because building up confidence was the priority for them” (PO3).
Diann	Some people think correcting grammatical errors in the speaking classroom is not necessary because in real communication people don’t speak grammatically correct. What do you think?	“We can’t control what’s happening in real life, but learning a language in an institution should promote both communication and accuracy. Teachers should give them both. First, their confidence should be enhanced, and accuracy is next. If they were high proficiency students, I think they it’d be possible (to increase the accuracy of their speech). If they were low proficiency students, it might or might not (improve accuracy in their speech). But I’d correct them all anyway.” (PO1)

Case	Question	Answer
Eve	What do you think about assigning a prompt speaking task to students?	“Mostly, I let them rehearse before performing the task because I know their background knowledge is limited. If they were English-major students, it’d be challenging. I used to have English-major students do a prompt speaking and they wanted to do it. They wanted to speak, they had more confidence, compared to students of other majors.” (PO1)

Table XIV Curriculum goals as a reason for correcting an error

Case	Question	Answer
Diann	What is your aim of teaching this course?	“I want them to be able to speak what they’ve learned. To be able to use what they’ve learned in their speech.” (BG)
	Why were you telling her what to say next?	“Her friend said ‘Could you take out the garbage?’ and she said “Sure. I can.” I wanted her to ask her friend (to do something) back, but she didn’t. Actually, there was an example in the coursebook.” (SM3) *The lesson focused on making a request.
	You previously said that you expected English major students to speak more correctly than non-English major students. Does it mean you would give less corrective feedback to non-English students?	“No, I think the content is different. If English-major students learned how to give an opinion, they’d be taught how to give more reasons. But non-English major students might be taught to give only a sentence of reason. It’s about the course content”. (PO2)
Karen	Why were you telling him to add the phrase at the beginning of the sentence?	“It was the objective of this activity. I wanted them to be able to use the expression (of checking the understanding.” (SM2)

Case	Question	Answer
Jane	You said your correction would be different with different courses. Could you clarify?	“If it was the Conversation course, I wouldn’t focus on grammar and would focus more on communication. But in this course, I needed to focus on grammar because if I didn’t, students wouldn’t be able to do the exam.” (BG)
	It seemed you corrected only the mispronunciation in this task. Why was that?	“The task was about practicing pronunciation. They had practiced about the structures and vocabulary in the previous class.” (SM1)
	<p>Why were you telling them the difference between ‘spoken language’ and ‘language in the exam’?</p> <p>*ST: I doesn’t hot. TC: If we said ‘I doesn’t hot’ because we couldn’t differentiate between how to use ‘does’ and ‘is’, it’d be fine. But it wouldn’t in the exam language. So, ‘it doesn’t hot’ needs to be changed to what? (OB2)</p>	“I was trying to tell them the misuse of ‘verb to be’ and ‘verb to do’ might be fine in spoken language, but in written language, it’s not correct.” (SM2)
James	You said you mostly follow the coursebook. It seems the coursebook influences your teaching. What about the exam?	“It definitely has effects on my teaching because if the students couldn’t do well in the exam I’d reconsider my teaching.” (BG)
	When you teach non-English major students, do you received any guideline or policy from the department how to teach them?	“It’s the content that informs how I teach them. No one told me how, but the content...I need to cover it all to make students do well in the exam. But the methodology can be flexible.” (BG)

Case	Question	Answer
	<p>Why were you asking “Can we say ‘she has tall’?”</p> <p>*ST: She has tall. TC: She is tall. Can we say ‘she has tall’? Class: Yes. TC: No. Has means มี⁷. We can’t say ‘เขามีสูง’⁸. We say ‘she is tall’. (OB2)</p>	<p>“I was thinking about grammar in speaking because ‘she has tall’ is grammatically incorrect. I wanted to tell them if they wanted to talk about someone’s height, they should use ‘verb to be’” (SM2)</p> <p>*The lesson focused on describing appearance.</p>
Julie	<p>You said you normally follow the course objectives but you also said you focused on pronunciation and vocabulary. How do you make a decision between these two?</p>	<p>“I need to cover the course objectives so that students can do well in the exam, but I also focus on practicality. Now I can judge what issue is important to be highlighted because I had enough exposure to real usage of English. Previously, I only followed the course objectives and not considered real-world communication.” (BG)</p>
	<p>How did you make decisions about what error to correct?</p>	<p>“I’d see if it was relevant to that topic. Sometimes they did make errors, but I couldn’t correct them all. If it was in the context we were talking about, I may add it up.” (PO1)</p>
Denise	<p>What do you think is the criteria of your decision on correcting an error?</p>	<p>“When I make a decision on what to correct, I’ll think of the exam. If it tends to be in the exam, I’ll definitely correct it.” (PO3)</p>
Natalie	<p>What error you would definitely correct?</p>	<p>“I’d correct pronunciation, some structures affecting the meaning such as the use of the verb to be. But if it was the lesson focus, I’d correct it even if it didn’t affect the meaning.” (PO2)</p>
	<p>Why were you saying “The coffee maker is...”?</p>	<p>“I was correcting the sentence. ‘is’ was needed. I’d told them before that they needed ‘verb to be’ after the subject, but some of them couldn’t remember.” (SM2)</p> <p>*PS. The lesson focus was describing where things were located.</p>

⁷ มี in Thai means ‘has’

⁸ ‘เขามีสูง’ in Thai can be translated as ‘She has tall.’

Case	Question	Answer
Emma	When you were asking the student 'Are you skinny?', what were you thinking?	<p>"I wasn't sure if she knew the meaning of 'skinny'. I'd taught them (the meaning). But when I saw how she used the word, I was thinking she must be misunderstanding. She wasn't skinny. She might not know the meaning." (SM1)</p> <p>*PS. The lesson was describing the appearance and 'skinny' was one of the focused vocabulary.</p>
Stefani	Would you correct the same areas of error in other courses?	"This course has the designed content, but in other courses, I could design the content myself. This course isn't about talking about self, hobbies, or things like that. I didn't correct much in other areas because the student language didn't show it." (PO 3)
	Why were you correcting the misuse of 'is' and 'are'?	"It's the lesson focus although there's nothing about sentence structure in the coursebook. I thought it was basic knowledge they should know. I added it up without thinking about what's in the exam." (SM2)

Table XV Curriculum goals as a reason for not correcting an error

Case	Question	Answers
Thomas	You used to say you pay importance to intonation, but it seemed you didn't correct much on intonation.	"I didn't pay attention to intonation. I'd see what the lesson focus was". (PO3)
Eve	You used to say you pay importance to intonation, but it seemed you didn't correct much on intonation although they spoke with a monotone.	"It was the activity to practice the use of 'was' and 'were'. I wanted to know if they could use them correctly". (PO1)
Denise	What were your criteria for choosing an error to correct?	"I corrected them according to the lesson focus. If it wasn't the focus and it was still understandable, I wouldn't waste the time". (PO3)

Table XVI Teachers' beliefs about the exam

Case	Question	Answer
Karen	When we focus on communication, some teachers might be worried about the exam. Do you think the exam influence what or how you teach?	"Actually, what I teach influences the exam rather than the other way round. I test them what I teach. Like in the fundamental course, their listening skills were tested a lot because they'd practised listening a lot in the classroom. If they were attentive to the course, they'd be able to do the exam." (BG)
	You said earlier that you are not serious with accuracy in speaking as long as communication is achieved. What if you were assigned to teach a speaking course focusing on grammar, would you feel it counter-intuitive?	"No. I'd see what the course or lesson focuses on. If it focused on accuracy, then it should." (PO3)
	Do you think it's okay if a speaking course mainly focuses on grammar?	"Of course. It depends on what level it is. Like the oral presentation course, its level is an academic presentation. So, I think the language (students) used in this course should show a professional side of them. If you ask whether I'd teach them grammar, I'd say no...but I'd highlight grammar points more. Accuracy should be more highlighted in this case. It depends on the level (of the course)." (PO1)
Julie	You said you normally follow the course objectives but you also said you focused on pronunciation and vocabulary. How do you make a decision between these two?	"I need to cover the course objectives so that students can do well in the exam, but I also focus on practicality. Now I can judge what issue is important to be highlighted because I had enough exposure to real usage of English. Previously, I only followed the course objectives and not considered real-world communication." (BG)
	Why are you correcting their use of the phrase 'you're welcome'?	"I corrected this because it sounded weird...This wasn't relevant to what they've learned, but it was what they were supposed to use correctly. But if it wasn't relevant to the taught lesson and too complicated to make them." (SM3)

Case	Question	Answer
Julie	Was it because you thought of its use in their real life?	“Yes. Normally, my teaching aims at practicality. The exam is only a process (of teaching). When I’m teaching, I’d see if the content covers the objectives, but another aim is to raise awareness of their problems. I want them to go further (than in the classroom).” (SM3)
Stefani	Do you think the exam influence your teaching?	“This course...I don’t know anything about the exam, so it doesn’t. Another course...I designed the exam after the course finished. I set the exam according to what I taught.” (BG)
Diann	Do you think the exam influence your teaching?	“I’m not thinking of the exam when teaching. I think what they should get from this course is the integrated skills. I focus on speaking practices even though it’s not in the exam because I think of its usefulness.” (BG)
	In the recent lesson, you asked students to extend the conversations because you said they needed to be able to do this in their real life. What made you think so?	“The content in that lesson wasn’t difficult, most of them could do the task. I thought it’d be useful for them if I added some knowledge for them, and it was still relevant to what they’d learned.” (PO3)
	What do you think about the coursebook’s lack of that content you added?	“It doesn’t make me feel bad about the coursebook because I think it depends on teachers’ discretion. If the teacher thinks it can be added, then just add it...The coursebook’s like the guideline, I’d apply its content as I think appropriate.” (PO3)
	Some teachers might think there’s no need to add it because it isn’t in the exam.	“It’s such a shame. Just telling students a bit more... they’d get more knowledge. It didn’t take much time.” (PO3)
Natalie	Do you think the exam influence your teaching?	“I don’t think so because I designed the exam after the course ended. The content I teach bases on what it’s supposed to focus on.” (BG)

Case	Question	Answer
Eve	What do you think about the criticism that English teaching in Thailand focuses too much on grammar?	"I talked about this with Christopher Wright (a famous native English teacher in Thailand). He said if we didn't put much focus on grammar in our primary schools, we might fix this problem. But the problem is students need to do the exam, so it turned out that we learn English to do the exam." (PO3)
	Do you think we can fix this problem in tertiary education? To teach English for practicality?	"If students lacked the basis and we didn't give any input to them, they wouldn't be able to speak. Although they had some knowledge, we still needed to teach from scratch. It's like if I didn't teach them the structure of request statements, they wouldn't have anything to produce their speech." (PO3)
Eve	Does it mean you agree with teaching grammar in the speaking classroom?	"Yes. The problem is about our education system. We learn English for the exam." (PO3)
Emma	Do you think the exam influence your teaching?	"I can't say it doesn't because, in our society, we use the grade to decide on giving someone an opportunity such as using it as a criterion of getting in the uni. When I teach a speaking course, I follow the coursebook, but I adapt it to my teaching method. I think we need to fulfil both aims. Confidence is very important because their speaking problem is a lack of confidence. When they're confidence, I'll take them to another step." (BG)
	What if students spoke the forms they had learned incorrectly?	"As long as they could communicate, it'd be fine...It depends on how much educated they would present themselves to be. If they spoke correctly, it'd show they were well-educated." (PO1)
Denise	Do you think the exam influence your teaching?	"It's good if they can do the exam. But I don't think it influences my teaching." (BG)
	That student didn't pronounce the word 'allowed' correctly. Why did you correct it yourself?	"I've corrected this word before. Another thing, it's not what the exam focuses on. I also consider the exam content. When I decide on whether I should give more explanation about something, I'll consider the exam." (ST3)

Case	Question	Answer
	You often corrected mispronunciation. Do you think it was because it's easier to correct, compared to other types of error?	"Pronunciation is a small unit. I don't need much time to correct it. When it's easier to correct and can be corrected quickly, I'm likely to correct it." (PO3)
	Does it mean if the error is about grammar, you'll think more about whether to correct it?	"Yes. Back to the same point...if the exam focuses on it." (PO3)
Thomas	Do you think the exam influence your teaching?	"Some teachers teach to the exam, but I don't know what the exam's like because I'm not one of the exam makers." (BG)
James	You said the coursebook affects the content you teach. How about the exam?	"The exam significantly influences my teaching. I need to make sure the students can do the exam. If they cannot or perform badly in the exam, I'll start questioning about my teaching. I weigh the importance of exam performance and speaking skills development as 60-40. I think if they can do the exam, they will feel more motivated to learn English. And, most Thai students think the exam score is so important that if they are assigned to do an unscored activity, they do not want to do it. So, I need to lie that 'this activity has a total score of 10'. In the exam, there is a conversation part, but it is a paper exam. In the class, there are only a few weights in the speaking part. If I could design the exam myself, I'd give only 40 per cent for the exam and add more activities in the classroom." (BG)
Jane	You said like if the course focused on grammar, you'd focus on grammar.	"Because it's important for their exam performance." (BG)
	Does it mean the exam affect your teaching?	"Exactly." (BG)
	You said you teach each speaking course differently. Does it affect the way your correct students' errors too?	"Yes. If it was a conversation course, I wouldn't focus on grammar. I'd focus more on communication. But in this course, I need to because if I didn't, students wouldn't be able to do the exam." (BG)

Case	Question	Answer
	You said you always tell students to forget about grammar when speaking. Why's that?	"I told them to speak out, foreigners wouldn't care about grammar. But if it's written language, grammar is important." (BG)
	What errors you think serious?	"Mispronunciation. It affects meaning. Like the word 'perfume'. If they said 'per-fu-me', I'd definitely correct it. The aim of my correction is to help them use the language to communicate." (BG)

Table XVII Elicitations and taught lessons

Case	Question	Answer
Jane	Why were you saying 'My favourite season is what?'?	"I wanted him to think again what 'Na-ron' (summer) is in English in case it was only a mistake. It was what I'd just taught." (SM2)
James	Why were you asking them to correct themselves instead of providing the answers like you did in the previous lessons?	"I have taught this structure. I wanted to go over it again." (SM3)
	When you were asking them "Can we say 'she has confidence?'" and not corrected it yourself like in the previous lesson?	"I've taught this before. I wanted to know if they could remember it. I wanted to know if they understood what I've taught" (SM2)
Diann	What were you thinking when you were saying 'the table'?	"I wanted her to know she should have used the pronoun 'it' instead of 'them'. I was thinking she might forget about the pronouns I've taught" (SM3).
	Were you expected her to know it because you have taught about it?	"Yes" (SM3).
Thomas	What if students made errors relating to what you have taught?	"I used to ask them the correction...ask them to think about it again as they've learned it before, but sometimes it took so long to elicit the answer from them" (PO1).

Case	Question	Answer
Denise	Why were you giving the student a clue this time?	"Because I've taught it before. I wanted her to correct it herself" (SM3).
	Why were you asking the class what the error was?	"I wanted to check their understanding, if it was about what have been taught" (SM1).
	In the recent lesson, you asked the class to correct the error. When the class can identify the error, do you think they could correct it too?	"Yes, they need to notice the error and correct it too, so I always tell all students to pay attention to what their friend's saying. It's like I indirectly check their understanding, but I don't ask them (to correct) if it's not about what I've taught." (PO1)
Natalie	Why did you say 'is it in front of'?	"I wanted her to think about what she's learned" (PO2).
	You said you'd like students to self-correct, but in your lessons, you often corrected the errors yourself?	"Sometimes I gave the correction, the other times I might ask students. It depends on the lesson. If it was about the lesson they've just learned, they should be able to know the correct one" (PO2).
Julie	Why were you asking her 'tree or three'?	"It was about what we've discussed, so I tried asking them to see if she could remember it" (SM1).
Stefani	When you were asking the class how to pronounce 'thank you' and no one answered, what were you thinking?	"I wanted to go over it to see if any student could remember" (SM2).
	When you were asking 'what'd you say when you wanted to invite your friend to your house?', what were you thinking?	"I wanted the class to help him correct it. They should be able to correct it as they've learned about it" (SM3).

Table XVIII Real-world communication and communication breakdown

Case	Question	Answer
Karen	What do you think about having the lesson objectives as the criteria of choosing an error to correct?	"It'd be alright if they could achieve the objectives with the correct meaning they wanted to say. But if their words didn't convey the meaning they wanted, I'd correct them although it wasn't the lesson objectives." (BG)
	What was he saying? You didn't correct anything because there was no error?	"He was speaking like patching words together, but it was still understandable. He said 'the cartridge run out ink' without 'of', but it was alright. At least he could say what the problem was." (SM2)
Thomas	Why did you correct the pronunciation of 'then'?	"It's not like 'ten'. If they said 'ten', it'd become ๙ ^๙ ". (SM1)
Jane	Why did you say you didn't focus on intonation?	"Sometimes I corrected the intonation of yes-no questions, but other times I didn't correct it because it didn't affect the meaning. I think if they spoke like that in real life, foreigners would be able to understand them. But if it didn't, I'd correct it." (PO1)
Stefani	What were you thinking when you were trying to explain why the error should be corrected?	"I wanted them to know that pronunciation is important. It's not only about making them look educated, but it's about communication. If they mispronounced a word, it could be a different meaning". (SM1)
Emma	Why did you correct their lack of linking sound between 'stuck' and 'in' in the sentence 'I'm stuck in the traffic.'?	"I wanted them to know why sometimes they couldn't understand what foreigners said and the linking sound is one of the causes. It's not in the course book, but they should realise about this." (PO3)
Diann	Why did you tell that student to give the reason why she wanted to visit Phattalung in March?	"It was like they just wanted to finish the task. The conversation wouldn't be completed if they ended it like that. They didn't realise what would happen in a real-life situation. So, I had them extend the conversation". (PO1)

⁹ ๙ in Thai means ten

Case	Question	Answer
Eve	It could be seen that you frequently corrected students' error in a class. Why?	"I think for some errors if I let them speak incorrectly, it didn't work in their real life when they use it in real communication. So, if I can correct it, I will". (PO3)
Julie	You were correcting the intonation although it wasn't a task focus, isn't it?	"Perhaps it was because I'm concerned about this...I didn't want them to sound like native speakers, but it affected the meaning. It was like when we said "กินข้าวกันมัย ¹⁰ " and "กินข้าวกันไหม ¹¹ ". Whatever it makes them sound more natural, I think they should have done it." (SM1)

Table XIX Real-world communication and common errors

Case	Question	Answer
Stefani	What are your criteria of choosing an error to correct?	"It'd be common errors such as pronunciation of consonant sounds and word stress." (PO3)
	Do the lesson focus affect the error you corrected?	"Yes. But sometimes I corrected additional issues such as the phrase 'I think so' which were always misused by the students. I corrected it so that they knew how they used it was wrong." (PO3)
Denise	You used to say you wouldn't correct errors that didn't affect the meaning. How about common errors among Thai students?	"I always correct their pronunciation of English consonants such as 'th' sound. If they made lots of errors in a class, I'd correct one sound a class and talk about the others in other classes." (PO1)

¹⁰ "มัย" is a Thai word added as a particle to a question. It makes the question sound natural and informal.

¹¹ "ไหม" is a Thai word which means the same as "มัย", but it sounds unnatural when used in spoken language because it is commonly used in written language.

Case	Question	Answer
Emma	You said you did not correct every error. How do you select an error to correct?	“Each word has interesting points. For example, the word ‘management’. They often mispronounced it. Moreover, I selected this word because they should have known how to pronounce this word. It is often used when they introduced themselves about what they are studying.” (PO1)
Julie	What were your criteria of choosing an error to correct in this task?	“Mostly I picked up the errors relevant to the focus of the taught lessons. But I also corrected other errors such as the phrasal verbs ‘warm up’ and ‘cool down’ because they were common verbs the students should have known.” (SM3)
	According to the observation, you frequently corrected common errors. Do common errors are normally your priority to select an error to correct?	“Common errors were attached with meaning. Most common errors affected the meaning, such as mispronunciation. So, the two were quite go along together.” (PO3)

Table XX Teacher cognition about World Englishes

Case	Question	Answer
Denise	What do you think about grammar in speaking and writing?	“There are both similarities and differences, but I believe they are the same system.” (PO3)
	(Do you think we should avoid teaching grammar in speaking class?)	“No. I think we need to teach grammar no matter what” (PO3)
	What do you think about accent?	“I don’t mind. They can speak with any accent. It’s World Englishes. It can be any.” (PO3)
Diann	What do you think about nonnative accents like Singlish?	“I can’t stand it...if they are English-major students, but with non-English major students, it’s okay.” (BG)

Case	Question	Answer
	What is a good English in your opinion?	“Nativelike English...like American, British, Australian, and others in the Commonwealth. Not Singaporean or Malaysian...I can't stand them. I feel like it's not English.” (BG)
Jane	You said you didn't focus much on the accent because foreigners don't care about it. How do you know they don't?	“Most of them don't mind about it. It's from my observation. I used to work for a hotel. I met lots of foreigners. Their accents were not like native speakers'. I always tell students not to criticise their accents. In real life, it'd be fine as long as we could communicate...So, I focus more on communication.” (BG)
Emma	You told them to link the two sounds. What if your students made mistakes about linking sounds again?	“I think it's what they need to be aware of in case the listener can't understand what they say. But if they don't do it, it's fine. If they could, it'd make them sound more natural. It's not a mistake, but it makes their language sound like native speakers'. If they want to focus only on communication, it's okay. But they need to know they can't control how other people speak. If other people speak with linking sounds, they have to understand (what those people say). If not, their (students') utterances are useless.” (PO3)
Eve	What do you think about Thai accent?	If my students speak English with Thai accent. I will deduct their scores but not much if I can still understand what they are saying or if the context imply what the message is. I cannot stand improper English such as Tenglish if it does not do its job – communication. (BG)
James	What do you think is an error in spoken language?	“The Thai accent.” (BG)
	What accent do you think is the appropriate one?	“It must sound like native speakers' accents. It might not be 100% the same.” (BG)
	Does it have to be an accent of a country or area?	“England, America, Australia, New Zealand”

Case	Question	Answer
	What if students had Singlish or Thai accent?	"It's not okay. I want them to have a native accent." (PO1)
	Why's that?	"It's good to have their own identity. But I want my students to stick to native accents. I think it's more worldwide." (PO1)
Julie	You said you focus on the practicality of the language. What about the accent?	"Normally, I don't tell them about this explicitly. But if they were happened to hear it in the classroom (from the materials), I'd tell them everyone has their own identity. We don't have to imitate native speakers' accent 100 per cent." (BG)
	Some might think error correction is for accuracy, not communication. What do you think?	"It depends on many factors. Nowadays they're talking about EIL. I don't against that idea. But communication here is attached to students' learning. If it's communication irrelevant to the lessons, I don't expect them to achieve it. But if it is, it's communication that they need to achieve. Under the concept of communication, I expect students to achieve what I have taught. There's a level of English in Higher Education that students need to achieve. It's communication-based on a standard." (PO3).
Karen	So can we say if it's the course objective, you'll correct it? But any error that changes the meaning, you'll correct it too?	"Yes. This course comes with conversational themes. There are language options. The focus is on communication. Actually, I think it is a language in the international context. There's broken English in the coursebook as well. I'll focus on communication first. Then I'll raise their awareness of English varieties." (BG)
	Are you serious with correct pronunciation?	"Not really. Mostly I focus on final sounds because I think they are important for the meaning of words. I don't think of only people from Western countries. I also think of our neighbours like Malaysia. So, I need to tell students that pronunciation can be flexible, so just speak out. As long as it's comprehensible, it's fine." (BG)

Case	Question	Answer
Natalie	What you think about teaching students to have an accent?	"I'll tell students it's good to have a native accent, but it's not necessary." (BG)
	You told the student to do the intonation. Why?	"I thought it sounded unnatural. Having a native accent is not the most important though." (ST1)
	Do you expect students to sound like native speakers?	"Not really. I always tell them accent is not the priority, pronunciation is. But for those who have good accents, I do expect them to improve." (PO1)
Stefani	Do you have any preference of an accent when you teach?	"No. I told them the last time this was British that was American. Anyway, it's their choice to have any accent, but I always tell them to choose only one...to be consistent." (PO3)
		Communication for me is for all English speakers, not only communication with me.
Thomas	What do you think about nonnative accents like Singlish?	"It's World Englishes. I'll tell them not to judge people from their accents. We do have our accent "Tinglish". I want them to know there are varieties of English...The aim of communication is conveying culture. The idea of Inner Circles is obsolete. They need to be aware of other accents. They can speak with any accent as long as the communication is achieved." (BG)

Table XXI Corrective feedback types used by the teachers

Teacher	Diann	James	Jane	Eve	Thomas	Karen	Denise	Natalie	Stefani	Emma	Julie
CF types											
Recast	√		√	√	√	√	√	√		√	√
Repetition	√	√	√								
Clarification request	√	√		√							
Explicit correction	√	√			√		√	√	√		√
Elicitation	√	√	√	√	√	√	√		√	√	√
Metalinguistic feedback	√					√	√				

Appendix M: Diann's case study report

Diann: Real-world communication and the source of errors

Background information

Diann has an MA in Applied Linguistics and a BA in English Education. In her 23 years of teaching English, she had been assigned to teach various speaking courses. There were approximately 40 students in her class, all of whom were first-year non-English major students.

Prior learning experiences

At high school and on the BA programme, Diann mostly learned English speaking skills with native speakers, mainly focusing on pronunciation and speaking practice, and then developed her knowledge of teaching theories and methodologies during her master's degree. Diann described her teachers' teaching style as "emphasising pronunciation and speaking tasks and not focusing on grammar" (BG). When it came to error treatment, she said, "They corrected errors in every [linguistic] area...including grammar, and I had no doubt about that because it was good that they let us know the correct form" (BG). It seemed to imply that she thought there was nothing wrong with correcting grammatical errors in speaking.

Teaching experiences

From her teaching experience, Diann revealed that she evaluated students' achievement in a task according to their proficiency. As she put it, "They have different levels of proficiency, so I assess it based on their proficiency. For low proficiency students, being able to speak at a certain level would be fine" (BG). It seemed student proficiency could affect her decisions regarding correction. However, she claimed that she tended to correct all students equally, although she might spend more time eliciting correction from low proficiency students because "they need more time to think" (BG). Although she preferred to elicit corrections from students, she stated, "I might correct it myself if there isn't enough time, like there were so many students [in the class]" (BG).

Professional coursework

Although she agreed to a certain extent with the teaching styles of her high school teachers, she stated that her teaching style in speaking classes was primarily informed by the knowledge she had learned during her master's programme. She reported, "I adopt the 3Ps - presentation, practice, and production - to my speaking classes. They didn't teach us speaking skills, but they taught us teaching methodology...how to teach speaking" (BG). Diann claimed that this methodology greatly affects the way she teaches speaking because she has noticed that it has a positive effect on her students:

The way I teach speaking hasn't changed since I started my teaching career. I got a Bachelor's degree in Education. During my master's, I learned teaching methodology. [In both periods] I was taught about the 3Ps. I thought [the knowledge I gained from] the master's degree had a huge effect on my teaching. (BG)

Other than the teaching methodology, Diann learned about the gravity of errors in speaking during her master's degree. As she said, "I searched for articles about teaching methodology in the speaking class and discovered that serious errors are those causing communication breakdown" (BG).

Pre-practice cognition

Diann believed that errors in any linguistic areas are important for communication because they may all lead to a communication breakdown. As she stated, "Grammatical errors can cause miscommunication [and] so can phonological errors. I pay attention to every area of errors" (BG). However, she thought English major students should speak more accurately than non-English major students. This belief extended to the issue of accent. She revealed that she did not want her English major students to speak with an 'inappropriate accent'. When asked what accent she thought appropriate, she said, "Nativelike accents, like American, British, Australian, and others of the Commonwealth. For other accents...although it doesn't cause communication breakdown, I can't stand them" (BG).

Asked whether she was concerned about students' feelings when correcting them, she seemed confident that her feedback did not hurt their feelings. She said, "I don't blame them [for making mistakes]. They wouldn't be upset. When I correct them, I say, 'everyone should pay attention to this', so that it won't destroy the confidence of the speaker" (BG).

According to her pre-lesson cognition, Diann seemed to believe in correcting errors that could lead to a communication breakdown no matter what linguistic area they fall in. Regarding her feedback types, she seemed to prefer elicitation, but might occasionally opt for recasts if there are time constraints. In addition, she believed that her corrective feedback would not affect students' affective states because she usually directed it to the whole class instead of the speaker.

Practices and interactive cognition

In congruence with her stated beliefs, Diann gave corrective feedback on errors causing miscommunication, as can be seen in Extract I.

Extract I: A task aiming at asking for and responding to a request (OB2)

ST1: Could you buy me some water, please?

ST2: I'm afraid / *can*. >>> phonological error

TC: Can or Can't. Can't with the /t/ sound. I'm afraid I can't (stressed the /t/ sound).**Followed by the reason.** >>> explicit correction and elicitation

ST2: I...go to...school.

(The conversation ended.)

TC: I'm going to school. You need the present continuous. >>>
recast

Extract I shows Diann's feedback on three issues: the mispronunciation of 'can't', the lack of justification for the rejection, and the incorrect use of tenses. In the case of the mispronunciation, she believed that the student wanted to say 'I'm afraid I can't',

but omitted the final sound *t*. Diann made this assumption because she wrote the model sentence on the whiteboard. She said: "On the whiteboard, she could see the sentence I had written ('I'm sorry. I'm afraid I can't.'). I thought she knew it was supposed to be 'can't', but she didn't pronounce the final sound and it changed the meaning" (SM2). This implies that Diann corrected this error because it caused miscommunication.

As for the lack of justification for the rejection, Diann corrected it even though it was not in the lesson content. When asked why she corrected this error, she said:

I asked her to provide a reason for her rejection of the request. In the course book, there are only model sentences for accepting a request, but I think in real-life situations we can't just say 'yes'. So, I taught them how to say 'no' and to provide a reason for that. I taught them to say 'I'm sorry, I can't. I'm going to...', followed by the reason. ...I wanted them to know a polite rejection should be followed by the reason. (SM2)

According to Diann's statement, it could be assumed that she gave feedback on the issue of politeness although it was not the lesson focus because she also wanted to develop students' sociolinguistic competence, which, according to Canale and Swain (1980), concerns the appropriate use of language in a given context and is part of communicative competence. This could be because Diann was aware of what knowledge and skills are necessary for real-world communication. Similarly, when she commented on correcting the verb form of the present continuous tense, she said, "I've never taught them the structure of the tense, but they needed to use it. And the present continuous tense is a basic knowledge all the undergrads should know" (SM2). It could be assumed that Diann believed that using the form of the present continuous tense correctly was useful because students tend to use the tense in real-life situations.

In sum, her practices and interactive correction in relation to corrected errors are in line with her stated beliefs that she would correct errors that cause a communication breakdown. Another point highlighted at this stage was her focus on sociolinguistic competence, which concerns the appropriateness of language use in real-world communication.

Regarding Diann's cognition about types of feedback, it was observed that she used various types of feedback, namely elicitation, clarification, metalinguistic feedback, repetition, explicit correction and recast. As previously mentioned, she claimed that she preferred to have students self-correct but sometimes gave the correct form due to time constraints. Her practices reflected her claim although sometimes she used a recast due to the students' reaction of not being able to self-correct even when a clue was given. Take Extract II as an example:

Extract II: The activity aiming at the phrasal verbs and pronoun usage

(OB3)

ST: Could you *clean out* the clothes? >>> lexical error

TC: Could you...what? clean out...this is clean out (pointing at the house floor in the picture*) **What would you say to ask someone to kwaen pha**?**

>>> elicitation

ST: (said nothing)

TC: Could you hang up the clothes? >>> recast

ST: Sure. I can hang them up.

*There is an illustration of the phrasal verbs in the course book.

**hang up the clothes in Thai

In Extract II, when the student said, "clean out the clothes", which was inappropriate to the context, Diann firstly tried to elicit the correct phrasal verb from the student, but the student was silent. Then, Diann gave a recast, saying "Could you hang up the clothes?" She explained her use of a recast by saying, "When I asked her and she didn't say anything, I realised she didn't understand the meaning of 'clean out' and didn't know what phrasal verb should be used in that context" (SM3). Her justification seemed convincing because later in the same task she still opted for elicitation and it turned out to be successful when the student could finally correct herself, as can be seen in Extract III.

Extract III: An activity aiming at the phrasal verbs and pronoun usage (OB3)

ST1: Could you wipe off the table?

ST2: Yes. I can wipe *them* off.

TC: How many tables? >>> metalinguistic feedback

ST2: One.

TC: If it is only one table...>>> metalinguistic feedback

ST2: it

TC: Yes. It.

In Extract III, when Student 2 used the wrong preposition, Diann gave the student a clue about the correct use of the pronoun. As can be seen, she tried to guide the student to the correct pronoun by using metalinguistic feedback, saying “I thought she knew ‘it’ should be used, but she might not have thought about the use of the pronoun when she said it. When I asked her ‘how many tables?’, she could suddenly figure it out” (SM3).

It could be inferred that Diann would provide the correct form herself if students seemed not to know the correction. Therefore, another factor affecting her types of feedback was the source of error—whether it was due to students’ lack of understanding or knowledge (errors of competence) or slips of the tongue (errors of performance).

Considering her practices regarding how to correct errors, the source of errors seemed to play a role in her decision about feedback types.

Post-practice cognition

Her post-lesson cognition confirmed her cognition as revealed in the two previous stages. In all the three post-lesson interviews, real-world communication and the source of errors were highlighted. The importance of communication was raised frequently when the questions relating to errors to correct were asked. When asked whether she was serious about accuracy in spoken language, she said, “It depends on what the error

is. Some errors affect communication, others don't. It'd be fine as long as it didn't break down communication" (PO1). Again, she pointed out that any types of error could cause communication breakdown, adding "...like mispronunciation that changes the meaning or structure that doesn't do its job to convey the intended meaning" (PO2).

While real-world communication significantly affected her cognition on what to correct, the source of errors seemed to be more influential with how she treated errors. When asked in which situations she would consider using a recast, she answered in relation to her correction in Extract I:

When the student said 'I go' I thought it was because she didn't know the correct form, so I needed to correct it myself. But in the case that another student said, 'I can', I thought she wanted to say 'I can't' but she didn't pronounce it. (PO2)

The above sentiments imply that she considered the source of errors when deciding between providing the correct form and eliciting it from the students. This concurred with what she had opined in the stimulated-recall interview. Probed for more information about this assumption, she confirmed:

They could make the same error, but with different causes. Some made it because they forgot [how to say it correctly], but others made it because they didn't know what the correct one was. For the first group, giving them a clue could help them self-correct. For the latter, they wouldn't be able to self-correct no matter how many clues were given. (PO3)

It is evident that real-world communication and the source of errors play an important role in Diann's cognition on corrective feedback.

Summary

Overall, Diann's corrected errors and types of feedback were mainly influenced by concerns for real-world communication and the source of errors (whether it was from a lack of knowledge or not). She did not correct only errors relevant to the lesson focus, but also those affecting real-life communication such as incomplete answers and impoliteness. Even though from the background interview it was possible that student proficiency might have influenced her correction, there was no evidence of its influence from the observations, stimulated-recall interviews, and post-observation interviews. On the question that she could have mentioned student proficiency as a factor underpinning her beliefs and/or practices, such as when she was asked why she elicited the correction from students in one situation but not in another, she referred to the source of error without linking it to student proficiency. The data suggested that she considered individuals' causes of making errors when deciding how to correct them. She claimed that if it was a slip of the tongue, she would give the student a chance to correct it. In contrast, if the error resulted from a lack of knowledge, she would correct it herself. For these reasons, it could be said that real-world communication and the source of errors were the main drivers of her cognition.

Appendix N: James' case study report

James: washback and student confidence

Background information

James was a novice teacher with two years of teaching experience. After earning an MA in Teaching English as an International Language, he started a teaching career as an English tutor and later pursued his dream of being a university English lecturer. The observed lessons were part of a Fundamental English course focusing on four integrated skills. Due to his limited teaching experience, he was in the stage of 'trying out' different teaching methods. He was aiming to discover the most effective methods of teaching, which in his mind entailed ways that can help students obtain the best exam scores. When asked about his teaching method, he said, "I change the method every semester. I change it when it doesn't work. I keep trying things out...I realise [whether it worked] from the students' scores" (BG). He affirmed this belief when we were discussing the influence of the exam on his teaching. He said, "It definitely has effects on my teaching because if the students don't do well in the exam, I'll reconsider my teaching" (BG).

Prior learning experiences

James's experience relating to learning speaking skills was dominated by the recitation of grammar rules and memorising vocabulary. He commented on the teaching practice of his teachers: "Most of them had us listen to the recording and repeat after it. Then we went through the meanings [of the sentences]. They didn't tell us how to use the structures and words; just told us to remember them" (BG). James did not question the grammar-translation method used by his teachers. As he said, "I understand why they translated the sentences for us because we had been trained to do it for a long time, but I think they should have taught us more about language in context, such as politeness and the importance of tones in expressing feelings" (BG). His learning experiences seemed to be having a slight impact on his own teaching style. He revealed,

"I adopt translation in my classes but also add the use of words and structures in different contexts such as different language use in formal and informal situations" (BG).

Teaching experiences

His teaching experience seemed to be having a significant impact on how he was teaching speaking. As he noted, "At the beginning of my teaching career, I used the grammar-translation method but it did not work. I could see that my students did not understand the usage of the sentences they had learned. They just remembered everything to get high scores in the exam" (BG). When asked how he planned to teach the observed course, he said, "This semester, I will rearrange the learning steps, beginning from listening, speaking, usage/context, and translation" (BG). He added that he would see from the students' exam scores whether his plan was effective because he believed "the students' scores can tell whether the method is effective or not" (BG).

Professional coursework

Although James learned teaching methodologies on his MA degree, this did not seem to be having a significant impact on his teaching. As he said, "It didn't work for my students. The method was too difficult for them" (BG). He clarified 'too difficult' by referring to an example when he used to have his students speak in appropriate tones to convey meaning, such as a cheerful tone for a piece of good news, but it was not successful because the students were not confident enough to speak. Therefore, he decided to try various ways of teaching to see whether it was effective for his students.

It was thus apparent that he was not significantly affected by teacher education. As for other professional training development, he said that he had never had the opportunity to attend any although he believed it would be useful for him. As he noted, "My teaching experience is not enough for teaching a solely speaking-focused course. I need some training or more self-study" (BG).

Pre-practice cognition

When asked what he thought was an error in his students' language, he replied, "Thai intonation" (BG). Probed for any errors he could think of, he said that they mostly made mistakes in intonation. Directed to questions about errors affecting communication, he said, "It wouldn't be okay if they made too many grammatical errors, even if the message was still comprehensible" (BG). It seemed that he was rather serious about grammatical errors. For this reason, it was not surprising when he said, "I'd correct every error students made" (BG). However, he believed that large class sizes would limit the depth he could go into when giving feedback. Regarding the potential negative effects of his corrective feedback, he claimed that he was sensitive to student confidence, saying, "I don't criticise them. I encourage them [to speak]. I know that if they are told off, they won't be confident enough to speak" (BG).

Practices and interactive cognition

In accordance with his stated beliefs in the background interview, the observations showed that he corrected grammatical and phonological errors, including the students' intonation. However, he rarely talked about language use in context, as he had previously mentioned, because, "The speaking situations in the lessons focus on everyday conversation with friends" (SM1).

Although in the background interview errors relating to intonation seemed to be the main focus of James' correction, it was inconsistent. In the first observation, he corrected the students' flat intonation, which he defined as 'Thai-style intonation' (SM3), by telling them to speak with a rising and falling intonation. Nevertheless, in the later observation he did not correct their intonation even though they still spoke with the same flat intonation. When asked why he was inconsistent in this, he said "I've talked a lot about tones and intonations. In that lesson [the first observation], there was nothing much [to correct], so I added the feedback on intonation to make the lesson more interesting" (SM2). According to this statement, it appeared that he was not serious about 'Thai-style intonation' although he had previously stated that he considered it an error in students' language.

Another issue he corrected was mispronunciation. It was observed that he frequently corrected mispronounced words, but not *all* mispronounced words. This

became apparent in a lesson when he did not correct the mispronunciation of 'bath' when a student said /bɑ:d/ instead of /bɑ:θ/. As he explained, "I thought I could let it go because it was still comprehensible" (SM1). However, this claim about not correcting an error due to comprehensibility appears dubious because later in the same task he corrected the same mispronounced /θ/ in the word 'with' when a student said /wɪd/ instead of /wɪθ/. When asked about this, he said, "The /θ/ sound is problematic among the students" (SM1). Taking this justification into account, it seemed that James corrected the /θ/ sound in this case because he believed it was a common error among students, but it is not convincing as an explanation because he did not correct the same error with the previous student. It might be assumed that he was not fully aware of his own practice; therefore, the articulation of his interactive decisions in different situations was somewhat contradictory.

As can be seen, James corrected intonation and mispronounced words, as he noted in the background interview. It was also seen in Lesson Observation 2 that he corrected grammatical errors, as can be seen in Extract IV.

Extract IV: An activity aiming at describing appearance (OB2)

ST: She *has* confident. >>> grammatical error

TC: She has confident. Is that correct? >>> clarification request

Class: is

TC: Yes. She is confident.

In Extract IV, James corrected the grammatical error in the sentence 'She has confident'. This is not surprising because he had previously claimed in the background interview that he would make corrections in every area of errors, especially grammatical errors, which he considered particularly important. Considering his practices and interactive cognition in relation to the errors he corrected, it is difficult to indicate what area of errors he focused on primarily because he in practice corrected various types of errors. However, his cognition in relation to *types* of corrective feedback was more evident from the observational data.

In the background interview, he described his feedback style as encouraging, as opposed to critical. However, in the lesson observations it was evident that he mostly

opted for explicit correction, which can be considered harmful to students' feelings. In the first observation, the only feedback type he used was explicit correction, as shown in Extract V.

Extract V: An activity aiming at how to give a suggestion by using 'should'
(OB1)

ST: I think the family should visit the Gimyong Market. /ðeər/ (They) can eat and shop there. >>> phonological error

TC: It's /ðeɪ/, not /ðeər/. >>> explicit correction

Extract V is drawn from the first observation. When asked why he corrected the mispronunciation by saying "It's /ðeɪ/, not /ðeər/", he said, "It's my style...I rarely told them it was wrong because it might affect their confidence to speak. I didn't want them to think it was a mistake. It was just the thing they didn't know" (SM1). It seemed that his decision to use an explicit correction resulted from his concerns about undermining student confidence. It is interesting that he believed explicit correction did not have an adverse effect on student confidence, but instead promoting it.

Although his dominant type of corrective feedback in Lesson Observation 1 was explicit correction, in the later observation he also elicited the correction from the students, as shown in Extract VI.

Extract VI: An activity aiming at describing appearance (OB2)

ST: She *has* confident. >>> grammatical error

TC: **She has confident. Is that correct?** >>> repetition and elicitation

Class: is

TC: Yes. She is confident.

He elucidated his use of repetition in Extract VI by saying, "It was about the lesson focus they've learned, and I wanted to review it for them" (SM2). When asked why he sometimes provided the correction and at other times asked students to self-

correct, he said, "In the first observation, the errors were out of the lesson focus and I hadn't taught about them, so I corrected them myself" (SM2). According to his statements, it could be assumed that he tended to provide the correct form for students as he claimed it was his style of feedback, but he would elicit the correction from students if the error was relevant to the taught lessons. The reason behind his use of elicitation was explained more in the post-observation interviews.

Post-practice cognition

In the post-lesson interviews, James' belief about the importance of correcting grammatical errors was highlighted again. He said that speaking correct grammar "makes the speaker look reliable and educated" (PO3). In addition, he explained that he emphasised grammar due to the exam: "They need it [grammar knowledge] to do the exam. If I didn't focus on it, they wouldn't be able to do the exam" (PO3). Speaking of the exam, he admitted that it affected the errors he corrected. As he put it, "I emphasise the vocabulary in the exam...They study many courses. They can't remember it all. I need to help them" (PO1).

It could be assumed that the reason he focused on grammatical errors and certain vocabulary shown in the observations became clearer at this stage when his concern about students' exam scores was highlighted. He revealed that he would change the focus of his correction in a different course, saying, "If I taught a conversation course, I'd be less serious about grammar. I'd focus more on pronunciation and vocabulary" (PO2).

As with his interactive cognition, his post-observation cognition confirmed the influence of the taught lessons on his types of feedback. He revealed that if the error concerned the lesson focus, he would try to elicit corrections from the students in order to review the lesson that had been taught. He stated, "My feedback depends on whether the error relates to what I've taught or not. If I've taught it, I'd ask them first. If not, I'd tell them the correct one" (PO2).

Apart from washback effects on his correction, student confidence was highlighted again when he was asked about his aim of teaching speaking. He said, "I wanted them to have confidence in speaking" (PO1). This agrees with what he said in

the background interview, stimulated-recall interviews, and in his practice. Also, it was observed that he did not criticise students for making errors.

Summary

It is noticeable that the way James justified which errors to correct and the use of specific feedback types was influenced by washback. For this reason, he believed in correcting errors relevant to the lesson focus and the exam, and eliciting corrections from students with these errors. Another aspect of his feedback style was concern about student confidence. He aimed to build student confidence in speaking. Therefore, he was sensitive about not criticising students when they made errors.

Appendix O: Jane's case study report

Jane: Washback, real-world communication, student confidence

Background information

Jane has a bachelor's degree in Business English and a master's degree in Teaching English as an International Language. After completing her bachelor's, she worked in the hotel business for almost ten years before changing her career path to an English language teacher in the university. She had been teaching English for five years in various speaking-focused courses such as English Conversation and English for Hotel Businesses. The observed course was a fundamental English course which focused on the four-integrated skills.

Prior learning experiences

Jane had learned English by herself since she was young. She started practice speaking English when she helped her family deal with foreign customers in a retail business. This was the starting point of her passion toward English language, as she said "I've liked English since I was young. I could speak a little English because I helped my family sell things to foreign customers. It was due to my passion and my courage to speak. This was how it started" (BG).

When Jane was asked to express her opinions towards her learning experience in the classroom, she revealed that she disagreed with her teachers' ways of teaching speaking, saying "They mainly focused on grammar. I didn't like it. I thought it was so boring" (BG). Therefore, when asked about the influence of her classroom learning experience on her own teaching, she confessed that she did not adopt the idea of focusing on grammar, stating:

I disagreed with it (grammar focus in the speaking classroom). I don't start with telling them the grammar rules, but with the conversation containing the tense. Starting the class with grammar is boring. I always tell them to forget about the rules first. (BG)

She emphasised that in her speaking class, she did not expect the students to speak grammatically correct English. Instead, she considered correct pronunciation

important for speaking skills because mispronunciation could change the meaning of the word. She added that the accent did not matter because "Thai students are shy. I told them it isn't necessary to have native-like accents. I want them to build their confidence (to speak) first" (BG).

It could be considered that Jane paid importance to communication more than to grammatical accuracy and accents. She revealed the source of this belief:

I noticed that most foreigners don't care much about grammar. I used to work with foreigners having different accents from Hong Kong to the Middle East countries and they all had their own accents. It doesn't matter as long as the communication succeeds. (BG)

This suggests that her experiences in using English contributed to her ideas of important features of communication, which she seemed to believe was a primary aim of speaking.

Teaching experiences

According to the previous sections, Jane's learning experience seemed to influence her beliefs about speaking skills in general. When asked about the drives of her teaching, teaching experience are were highlighted. She mentioned that her teaching style had changed because of her teaching experience:

I observed the students' reaction and found that when I taught them the structures, they got bored. I used to start the class with giving them related information to produce a sentence or a conversation, but I changed to starting with their production first. I don't want my class to be teacher-centered because they'll get drowsy and it'll seem like I 'm dominating the class.

It is apparent that her learning experiences harmonised with teaching experience. They both led to her belief that grammar in speaking class should be less explicit because it would make students uninterested in the lesson.

Professional coursework

Although Jane had received teacher education during her master's, she did not apply the teaching methodology to her class. Instead, her teaching was mainly adapted from her teaching experience as mentioned above.

She had attended a training about teaching English, but she admitted that she only uses some of the knowledge she got from it because "the students are quite of low proficiency. If they had better basic knowledge of English, I'd probably use the method I learned from the training with them" (BG). She adapted the speaking activities she learned to her classroom to entertain the students; but she raised the problem of time constraints, saying "there was small chances to do some fun speaking activities because I needed to cover the lesson content first. Time constraints were the problem" (BG).

It might be said that teacher education and training did not significantly affect Jane's teaching; instead, her teaching experiences did.

Pre-practice cognition

As previously mentioned, Jane seemed to disagree with grammar focus on the speaking class. However, when asked about what students' errors she normally corrected, she pointed out "It depends on what course it is... for this course (the fundamental English), I have to focus on grammar, or the students can't do the exam. So, I correct much on grammatical errors" (BG). She claimed that she would adjust her correction according to the course objectives. She still affirmed her belief about grammar although she understood the objectives of the fundamental course was to develop the integrated skills, including writing in which grammar is important. She stated "I think the fundamental course doesn't need to focus on grammar. I know it's a basic course, but I don't think we should include grammar to the content and the exam that much" (BG). This implies that Jane personally disagreed with the assessment, but still conformed with it because of her worry towards the students' exam performance. She emphasised this idea by saying "The exam significantly affects my teaching. I'll consider what the exam is about and whether my teaching leads the students to succeed in the exam" (BG).

Apart from errors relevant to the exam, she claimed that the most frequently corrected errors were those affecting the meaning such as the wrong use of pronouns. Another type of errors she said she would correct were common errors among students, even though they might not affect the meaning. She stated "Thai students are often confused about the use of verb to be and other verbs. They usually say something like 'She is kiss her child'. I'll correct it because they always make this kind of mistakes" (BG).

When requested to talk about her feedback style, Jane described "I explain to them why I correct it. And I try not to make them serious about making mistakes. With shy or sensitive students, I'm more careful" (BG). She further said, "I'll make notes of their mistakes and give the feedback after they finished the conversation, or they might feel discouraged to speak" (BG). As can be seen, when putting her feedback types into words, Jane viewed it broadly; not specifically how she gave the correct form. According to her statements, she believed that her feedback was reasonable, and sensitive to students' feelings.

Practices and interactive cognition

In her practices, Jane mostly corrected mispronunciation and grammatical errors. However, when asked about the reason for correcting those errors, she never mentioned them as errors of a linguistic area. Instead, she referred to them as "errors affecting the meaning" (SM1), "errors relating to the lesson focus" (SM1), and "common errors" (SM1). These ideas about errors to correct are in parallel with her stated beliefs in the background interview as previously mentioned. Therefore, it might be said that Jane's feedback practices in relation to errors to correct conform to her stated beliefs.

In relation to her practices of how to correct errors, it was observed that she used recasts, elicitation, repetition, and explicit correction. It was assumed that she would use a recast as 'a quick correction' when students asked her for help during performing the task since she claimed so when asked about her recast in Extract I.

Extract VII: The activity aiming at describing personalities and appearance
(OB1)

ST1: Do you know Kaew?

ST2: Yes, I do. She is *generous* (*/dʒen.ər.əl/*) >>>phonological error

TC: */ˈdʒenərəs/* >>>recast

ST1: What does she look like?

ST2: She is tall.

Asked to comment on her use of a recast in Extract VII, Jane said, “That student looked at me giving a signal of asking whether she said it correctly¹². So, I gave a quick correction” (SM1).

However, later it was observed that she used a recast to correct the mispronounced words as well as the wrong intonation although the speaker did not ask for her help. This can be noticed in Extract VIII.

Extract VIII: The activity aiming at describing personalities and appearance (OB1)

ST1: Do you know Mr. John?

ST2: What does he look like?

ST1: He has tanned-skin.

ST2: I guess so. Is he fat?

ST1: No, he isn't.

ST2: Can you describe his appearance?

ST1: He has a round face, wavy hair, he has blue eyes and sweet smiles.

ST2: Does he wear glasses?

ST1: No, he doesn't.

ST2: He has brown hair, *right?* (with falling intonation) >>>phonological error

ST1: Yes.

¹²In the case of this excerpt from the lesson observation, the student's facial expression could be observed. However, it was not applicable for some other excerpts.

ST2: Oh...I see. Oh...I see. He is my /'ni:bər/ (neighbor) >>>phonological error

(The conversation ended.)

TC: He is my neighbour (/ 'neɪbər/) >>> recast

ST2: (/ 'neɪbər/)

TC: He is brown hair, right? (with rising intonation) >>>recast

ST2: He has brown hair, right? (with rising intonation)

In Extract VIII, Student 2 made two errors: the wrong intonation of the sentence 'He has brown hair, right?' and the mispronunciation of the word 'neighbour'. In these two cases, the student did not ask Jane for any help nor give a signal of asking for a feedback¹³ but she still used recasts with both errors as she did earlier with the student who asked for her help in Extract VII. In other observations, it was found that she also used repetition and elicitation, as shown in Extract IX and Extract X respectively.

Extract IX: The activity aiming at describing the weather (OB2)

ST1: What is your favorite season?

ST2: My favorite season is *sunny*. How about you? >>>lexical error

ST1: I like snow. It snows a lot and *it doesn't hot at all*. >>>grammatical error

TC: (Asking the whole class) My favorite season is sunny. Is it correct? >>> repetition and elicitation

Class: summer

TC: Yes. My favorite season is summer.

It doesn't hot. Is it correct? ...doesn't or isn't? >>>repetition and elicitation

Class: isn't

TC: Yes. It isn't hot at all.

¹³The student's facial expression could be observed in this case.

Extract X: The activity aiming at describing personalities and appearance
(OB1)

ST1: What does he look like?

ST2: *He is curly* and has short black hair. >>>grammatical error

ST1: *Does he have* tall? >>>grammatical error

ST2: No, he *doesn't* >>>grammatical error

ST1: Is he young?

ST2: Yes, he is.

TC: What should 'curly' be followed by? How do you say 'Mee'? What verb should you use? >>> elicitation**

Class: has

TC: He has curly what? >>>elicitation

Class: hair

TC: He has curly hair. Now listen, If you say 'Does he have tall?', is it correct? What verb should be used with the word 'tall'? >>>elicitation

Class: is

TC: Yes. Is he tall?

* 'have' in English

Extract IX and X are the example of Jane using repetition and elicitation with grammatical and lexical errors. She also used other feedback types mentioned above to correct the students' incorrect use of grammar. According to the observations, it was apparent that she did not use a recast with grammatical errors. When asked about the reason for this, she said "I wanted to have them correct it themselves because they had learned about it" (SM1)

Taking her claim into consideration, it is questionable that she would ask students to self-correct when the error was relevant to the taught lesson. The counter-argument could be found in Extract I when she did not use elicitation with the mispronounced words that she had taught. In Extract I, the word she corrected was 'generous' which had been taught and drilled; but she used a recast to correct it instead of an elicitation. For this reason, it is possible that Jane chose to use the feedback types that would encourage the students to self-correct when it came to grammatical errors

because she thought that the grammar structures were the focus of the course and the exam, as she mentioned in the background interview. Therefore, it was highly possible that she tried to review the taught lesson to help the students achieve the exam goals.

Referring to her stated belief that her feedback was responsive to students' characteristics. It was rather clear from her practices that she was careful about her feedback when the error maker tended to be sensitive to the correction. Take Extract XI as an example.

Extract XI: The activity aiming at pronunciation drill (OB3)

ST1: Your new place is nice. How many rooms are there?

ST2: There are four- a bathroom, a bedroom, a living room, and a kitchen.

ST1: I really like your kitchen.

ST2: Thanks. There aren't many cupboards and there's not much space, but that's ok.

ST1: Look at all the windows in your living room.

ST2: Yes. There is a lot of light and also a lot of *noise* (/nɒd/). >>>phonological error

TC: OK... /nɔɪz/ Next pair, please.>>> recast

According to Extract XI, Jane gave a recast to correct the mispronounced 'noise', but this time she gave it more implicitly—she did not see the speaker in the eyes¹⁴ and seemed like trying to make it briefer by immediately calling the next pair of students to perform the task. When questioned about this, Jane accepted "I didn't want to highlight her mistake because she had braces (on her teeth). That was why she couldn't say it right" (SM3).

It could be said that Jane's stated beliefs about how to correct errors are in accordance with her practices. However, her concern over student confidence was balanced with her aim of motivating students to speak. In the previous observation, she corrected a student's spoken error by showing his written script to the class. This could have embarrassed the student. When asked about this, she said:

¹⁴ The teacher's facial expression could be observed in this case.

I used to tell this student that I liked his confidence when speaking. But this time he made serious mistakes because his answer wasn't sensible. So, I wanted the class to learn from his mistakes. But as you might notice, I praised him before talking about the mistakes. (SM2)

Post-practice cognition

Conforming to her pre-practice cognition and interactive cognition, Jane reconfirmed the tension between her beliefs and practices about what errors should be corrected in the post-observation interview. When asked about the reason for correcting errors that did not cause miscommunication, she said:

If that lesson focuses on grammar, I'll correct it because it'll be in the exam or they'll remember it wrongly. But after correcting it, I'll tell them it'll be ok (to make some grammatical mistakes) in real-life situations. (PO1)

This implies that Jane realised that some grammatical errors did not affect communication, but she would correct them if they were relevant to the lesson focus. Taking her statements from the previous interviews into account, it was likely that a cause of correcting errors that were not focused in the lesson was the exam. Apart from the exam, her attention to student motivation emerged again when she emphasised telling students it was okay to make mistakes.

According to the above statement, It is interesting that she usually mentioned the use of English in real-life situations when asked about her beliefs on accuracy in speaking. As she later added, "I think grammar always involves no matter what, but the point is whether it affects communication or the interlocutor's comprehensibility. If so, they need to use it correctly" (PO2).

As can be seen, her beliefs about real-world communication also influenced her beliefs and practices in relation to corrective feedback. She seemed to seek balance between conforming to curriculum goals for the purpose of students' achievement in the exam, and responding to certain degree of accuracy in real-world communication as well as motivating students to speak.

Summary

With reference to the above-mentioned discussion, it could be assumed that there was a tension between Jane's beliefs in terms of what to correct and her practices which she was aware of. She believed in not highlighting grammatical errors in the speaking classroom if they did not affect the meaning; while in her classroom she corrected those errors even if it did not affect communication because they tended to be in the exam. Other than errors in focus, she seemed selective to correct errors she considered important for communication.

Regarding her feedback type, it appeared that her justification for using a recast did not concur with her overall practice. It might be possible that she has less awareness of her beliefs and practices when she decided on a specific type of feedback. Nevertheless, it is evident that she considered student confidence when giving feedback. This was demonstrated by her use of recasts with the student who had tooth braces.

Appendix P: Eve's case study report

Eve: Students' behaviour, students' ability to self-correct, curriculum goals

Background information

Eve holds a BA in English Education and an MA in Teaching English as an International Language. She had taught English in a secondary school for two years before teaching at University A, where she has been for three years. The observed course was a fundamental course focusing on the four integrated skills. There were approximately 40 students in her class.

Prior learning experiences

Eve described her teachers' teaching style as 'communication-focused', emphasising speaking activities. When students made an error, she claimed that they would correct it no matter what kind of mistake it was. When asked to what extent her learning experience affected her teaching, she claimed that the communication-focused teaching of her teachers had had a slight influence on her own teaching, which was partly influenced by the teacher education discussed in the next section.

Teaching experiences

Eve had experience in teaching a pronunciation course for English major students and an English conversation course for non-English major students. With her engagement in teaching English pronunciation, she realised that correct pronunciation was crucial for communication. For this reason, she claimed that she always told her students the importance of correct pronunciation, giving a sample situation "if we say 'write' the same way as 'rice', native speakers may not be able to understand what we want to say" (BG).

Professional coursework

Although she had learned teaching methodologies on her bachelor's and master's degrees, Eve stated that she did not adopt them in her teaching of the observed course

because she thought they were not appropriate to the course objectives. As she claimed, "This course doesn't focus only on speaking and the textbook focuses on the integrated skills" (BG). She added that in a speaking skill-focused course, she would use the 3Ps - presentation, practice, and production - but she did not fully use it in the observed course because "the course focuses more on grammar" (BG). It could be assumed that course objectives would affect her teaching method.

Pre-practice cognition

Regarding Eve's beliefs about errors that should be corrected in students' spoken language, she stated that she normally corrected every area of errors, especially mispronunciation. She realised that sometimes she overlooked some errors because of time constraints. In addition, she claimed that she might not give feedback to errors that did not affect comprehensibility. As she said, "Sometimes I can't correct all errors because of time constraints, so I choose only the important ones, those which affect comprehensibility" (BG).

As for the impact of the exam, Eve claimed that it did not affect her decision on what to correct but did have a significant impact on her teaching content. She highlighted the exam influence on the teaching content: "[In this course] I have to train my students to use the structures and vocabulary in the text book because they'll be in the exam" (BG). Even though it seemed that she focused on the structures because of the exam, she anyway agreed with an emphasis on grammar in the speaking classroom. This stance can be seen in the following statement:

I prefer teaching the structures and having students follow the model conversations to having them create a free conversation [without giving them prior input] because at least they'll have some structures to hold on to. It's like having some instruments to create their own speech in real life. (BG)

Another factor that appeared to underline her beliefs about correctness in speaking was her views on the teacher's roles. She stated that she believed it was the

teachers' responsibility to let students know the differences between correct and incorrect forms. She said, "I'm a teacher, so I'm supposed to tell them what is correct and what isn't. They might speak incorrectly out of the classroom, but we just can't control it...I correct their speaking errors just like I do for their writing" (BG).

According to this point of view, she believed in speech correctness in every area but would focus more on frequent errors and mispronunciation. Furthermore, she thought that teaching spoken English should also focus on correctness to the same degree that teaching written English does because giving correct form was the teacher's responsibility.

Responding to the question about how to give corrective feedback, Eve said, "I ask them to think about the correction first, but sometimes I need to make the correction myself because students cannot do it" (BG). She added that she would notice their reaction to her feedback and give the correct answer if they kept silent for a while.

Practices and interactive cognition

Congruent with her statements in the background interview, Eve exhibited efforts to correct every error no matter what the linguistic area was. Additionally, she mainly gave corrective feedback to mispronunciation and students' frequent, errors as she had claimed. Yet, in some tasks she gave more feedback on mispronunciation than in other areas, such as in a task about ordering and taking orders. She clarified in the stimulated recall interview after that task that, "I mostly corrected the mispronunciation because the students only needed to change some words from the model conversation [so they didn't make lots of errors on grammar]" (SM2). Again, her statements confirmed the impact of the task focus on what to correct. In line with her pre-lesson cognition, it was observed that she did not treat a student's lack of rising intonation, which comes under the phonological area that she had previously claimed she tended to correct. She explained this in the stimulated recall interview thus: "This activity focused on the use of 'was' and 'were' [not on intonation]" (SM2).

Eve also claimed in the background interview that she might not correct some errors due to time constraints and the fact that it did not affect comprehensibility. Her practice and interactive cognition seemed to be at one with this claim. When asked why

she did not correct one student's unpronounced /s/ sound identifying the plural status of a noun, she said, "It was still comprehensible. If I'd had more time, I might have corrected it" (SM1).

Nonetheless, in Lesson Observation 2 Eve did not give corrective feedback to a student although the student made an error which seemed to affect the comprehensibility of the sentence. This is shown in Extract XII.

Extract XII: An activity aiming at using 'was' and 'were' (OB2)

ST1: Was Messy Jay a football? >>> lexical error

TC: What do you want to ask? >>> clarification request

ST1: (in Thai) Was Messy Jay a footballer?

TC: (in Thai) I had taught the word 'นักฟุตบอล' (a footballer in Thai). Did you jot it down? >>> made a compliant

ST1: (said nothing)

TC: (in Thai) Go and see what the word is. >>> told the student to redo the task

Eve explained why she raised the student's error, saying, "I had taught them the word 'footballer', but this student still couldn't use it correctly. It showed she didn't pay attention to the class, so I told her to find the correct word herself" (SM2). When asked whether this act was related to a particular area of error, she replied, "If it was about the grammar, they probably made errors due to a lack of understanding, it'd be more acceptable. But if it was about the vocabulary, they'd use it correctly if they'd jotted it down" (SM2). Although she considered types of errors as a factor of not giving corrective feedback in this case, what seemed to be the major cause of no feedback here was the student's behavior, as it was rather apparent that she was irritated by the fact that the student had not paid sufficient attention to the class.

As noted, students' behaviour influenced Eve's decisions about whether to correct errors. In contrast, in the background interview, when asked about the effects of their behaviour on her error correction, she negated it, saying, "Students' behaviour

doesn't affect how I correct their spoken errors. I always correct every student's errors" (BG). This may be attributable to her unawareness of the effects. She might believe in treating every student evenly, but in practice she probably could not resist her impulse to show dissatisfaction with her students' inability to use previously taught language, which in turn led her to act differently from her prior stated beliefs.

It might be assumed from her stated beliefs and practices that the factors affecting whether she gave feedback and what type of errors she gave feedback on are the task focus, students' behaviour, and time constraints.

With regard to the way she gave corrective feedback, she stated in the background interview that she would try to let students consider the correction first and would correct it herself if they could not. Her practices, however, did not fully reflect this belief. Although she used elicitation to correct some errors, it was apparent that she opted for a recast more often than for types of prompts, especially with phonological errors (as shown in Extract XIII).

Extract XIII: An activity aiming at ordering and taking order in a restaurant
(OB2)

ST1: Are you ready to order?

ST2: Yes. I /θæŋk/ (think) so.

TC: I think (/θɪŋk/) so! >>>recast

ST1: what would you like?

ST2: A steak and /fræns flɑɪ/ (French fries) >>>phonological error

TC: French fries! (/ˈfrentʃ ˈfraɪz/) >>> recast

ST2: /fræns flɑɪ/ (French fries) >>> phonological error

TC: French fries! (/ˈfrentʃ ˈfraɪz/) >>>recast

ST2: /fræns flɑɪ/ (French fries) >>> phonological error

TC: French fries! (/ˈfrentʃ ˈfraɪz/) >>>recast

(TC talked to the whole class. 'Students, be careful with the word 'fries')

ST2: French fries! (/ˈfrentʃ ˈfraɪz /)

ST1: Would you like some water? (with falling intonation)

TC: Would you like some water? (with rising intonation) >>>recast

ST1: Would you like some water? (with rising intonation)

In Extract XIII, Eve used a recast to correct the mispronunciation of 'French fries' and the wrong intonation of the question 'Would you like some water?'. When requested to explain her decision to use a recast in this case, she stated, "I mostly say the correct pronunciation for them straight away if they mispronounce something, so that they can use it as a model" (SM2). This could imply that she would adopt a recast with phonological errors. However, this statement contrasted with lesson observation 1, in which she used a recast with a grammatical error. She claimed in stimulated-recall interview 1 that she opted for a recast in that situation because "Most of them wrote the script, so they knew exactly what their partner's going to ask. But this pair... they didn't. So, I tried to guide them to the correct form" (SM1). Considering both of her claims about using a recast, it could be assumed that she would generally use an elicitation, but would opt for a recast when it was a phonological error or when students tended not to be able to self-correct, such as when they did not speak from the written script they had normally prepared before performing the task. This assumption was supported when it was later observed that she firstly used an elicitation, but opted for a recast when the student seemed unable to correct the error. Extract XIV illustrates this point.

Extract XIV: An activity aiming at ordering and taking order in a restaurant
(OB2)

A: What would you like?

B: I would like the club sandwich and lobster, please.

A: Anything else?

B: No, *I think so.* >>>lexical error

TC: I think so? What should you answer when you don't want anything else? >>>elicitation

B: I think so.

TC: What? You want something else or not? >>>elicitation

B: (said nothing)

TC: I don't think so. >>>recast

As can be seen in Extract XIV, Eve tried to elicit the correction from the student by asking certain questions, but the student remained silent. Then she corrected it for her by using a recast. This concurs with what she had said about her feedback type in the background interview. The reason she gave for eliciting the correction was that she firstly thought the student knew what the correct version was, so she opted for elicitation, but later she realised that the student did not know it, so she used a recast. As she put it, "I had thought she forgot to say the word 'don't', so I tried to let her repeat it, but then I knew she might not know the answer. So, I decided to tell her the correction" (SM2).

It could be said that Eve generally used a recast with phonological errors because she believed it would be easier for students to self-correct if they repeated the target language after her correction. She also used a recast when her students were producing unprepared speaking since she thought giving a recast means 'helping' students who tended not to be able to self-correct. From these conditions, she seemed to opt for elicitation.

Post-practice cognition

Generally, Eve's cognition in practice confirmed her pre-practice and interactive cognition, both in terms of her beliefs on what and how to correct. The aspects of task and lesson objectives emerged again in this stage of cognition. For example, when asked about any other possible factor behind her inconsistent correction of intonation errors, she said, "It was probably because I didn't focus much on it. I tried to focus on the lesson objectives" (PO3). Then, when she was directed to the reason why she had appeared to try to correct every error, she stated, "I corrected almost every error, not all. When I was watching the videos, I was thinking why I didn't correct some. I didn't mean to neglect them, but it might not be the task focus" (PO3). Also, in post-observation interview 3, she affirmed that the exam did not affect her decision on error correction, saying, "I always have a look at the exam only when the course ends" (PO3).

Regarding her post-observation cognition with regard to how to correct, it was highlighted that the reason behind her use of recasts with phonological errors was not due to error types, but due to her belief about students' ability to self-correct phonological errors. She believed these errors should be corrected by her, saying, "For the phonological error, they didn't know how to pronounce it correctly...they had no idea what the correct pronunciation was because they still stuck to the wrong one. If I had them self-correct, they'd mispronounce it again" (PO2). In contrast, she believed grammatical errors are better treated by letting students self-correct because "they could go [and] review what they'd learned" (PO2).

Summary

It could be said that Eve's practices about how to correct generally conformed to her stated beliefs. In contrast, her decisions on what to correct were not in line with what she had claimed. This could be attributable to the complexity of her decision-making process, caused by tensions between her belief in correcting every error and her realisation that this was futile in practice. Her belief of giving corrective feedback to every error might have resulted from her learning experiences, as she revealed that her teachers normally corrected every error. However, this factor seemed to become less important in practicality. What appeared to be the main driver behind her cognition about what to correct was curriculum goals. As can be seen, her corrective feedback was framed by aspects of the course, namely course objectives, lesson objectives, and task objectives. Students' behaviour also appeared to influence her decision to correct errors although she claimed in the background interview that she was not affected by how students behaved in the classroom.

Similarly, her stated belief about her preference for having students self-correct was faint in practice because of her belief about the students' ability to self-correct. In other words, it was observed that she would correct the error herself when she was not sure whether they could correct it themselves. According to the observations, she gave a recast when: 1) the students showed signs of inability to correct; 2) the students were doing a challenging task; and 3) the students made phonological errors, which she did not think they could self-correct.

Above all, it could be concluded that Eve's cognition was mainly driven by curriculum goals, students' behaviour, and students' ability to self-correct.

Appendix Q: Thomas' case study report

Thomas: Time constraints, curriculum goals, student proficiency

Background information

Thomas was a novice teacher with a master's degree in Teaching English as an International Language and a bachelor's degree in English. He had two-year experience in teaching English. He admitted that his expertise was teaching reading and writing skills while teaching speaking and listening skills was not. At the time of data collection, he was assigned to teach a speaking course for the first time. The course was a fundamental English speaking and listening course, aiming to develop basic skills of listening and speaking. There were about 40 students in his class.

Prior learning experiences

Due to his learning experience, he was interested in pronunciation and believed that it was important for effective speaking. He had been praised by his high school teacher about his good pronunciation and he was proud of it. He revealed "Apart from conveying correct meaning, pronouncing correctly made me feel like I was an outstanding student" (BG). Talking about pronunciation, he added that pronunciation was important while the accent was not, because mispronunciation tended to cause miscommunication whereas accent did not. He declared this belief, saying "In my previous writing classes, I added on some speaking interactions with students, but they were too afraid to speak because of their accent. So, I told them accent doesn't matter, pronunciation does" (BG).

Regarding how he was corrected when being a student, he said "when I learned Chinese, the teacher didn't interrupt my speech but later corrected my error to the class. It made me feel good, so I also correct my students in the same way" (BG). This implies that he agreed with his teacher's corrective feedback style and claimed to adopt it to his classroom.

Teaching experiences

Thomas admitted that he had never taught speaking-focused courses. He had little experience of students' spoken language in his writing class. From that experience, he had some ideas of what speaking problems most students faced. He said, "Students were afraid of speaking. They thought they had bad accents" (BG). Then he mentioned his belief about different accents, "I told them 'accent doesn't matter, pronunciation does'. We shouldn't judge other people" (BG). However, he emphasised his lack of experience in teaching speaking, saying "...but, I don't know...when I actually teach it (the speaking course), I might change my view (about different accents), but...now I think just speaking out is good enough" (BG).

Professional coursework

Thomas indicated that a source of his beliefs was the knowledge he gained during his master's study. In the program, he learned that communication was the main purpose of using a language and accurate use of language was part of productive communication. This seemed to confirm his personal views on spoken language resulting from his learning experience. In relation to teaching theories and methodologies, he learned them from the classes. However, he emphasised that his learning experience played an important role in deciding on adopting those theories learned from his master's. Giving an example of how he was trained about error correction in the classroom, he said:

The theory says we should avoid overcorrection and I agree, mainly because my Chinese teacher didn't do it to me, and it encouraged me to speak. I believe students need lots of encouragement and self-efficacy, the same way I received.
(BG)

This could be inferred that he integrated his experience as a learner into the theories to make a decision on adopting them to his classroom. He affirmed this idea "I learned lots of theories, but whether I'd believe in them depends on my learning experience" (BG).

Pre-practice cognition

Thomas had strong beliefs on the variety of English such as different accents and grammar uses. He believed in World Englishes, so he was open-minded about errors in speech as long as it did not cause miscommunication. He said "I accept World Englishes...the idea about the inner circle is antiquated. We need to be aware of the variety of English. Students might pick up any style and it's fine unless it doesn't cause miscommunication" (BG). Asked about accuracy in speech, he explained "It'd be a lie if I said I didn't care about accuracy. We need to pay attention to it to some extent, but not overly. It must be understandable and must not break down communication" (BG). This includes grammar accuracy, he added "I'd argue with whoever says grammar isn't important. It depends on the context and situation" (BG). This implies that speech accuracy for him does not refer to totally correct grammar or pronunciation but to the level that does not cause misleading communication.

Although he believed in 'not overly' accurate grammar in spoken language, he argued that he would correct every error of every student because "they might remember the wrong thing and it could become permanent" (BG). Regarding how to react to students' errors, he said he would "either interrupt them to correct or correct it when they finish the speech" What he highlighted about his feedback style is "not discouraging them, their attitudes are very important" (BG). He believed it was a teacher's job to make students feel relaxed when making a mistake and see it as "a stepping stone" (BG).

Asked about other factors that possibly affect the error he chose to correct such as time constraints, class size, or the exam; he denied effects of those factors saying, "I can manage it (time constraints)" (BG) and "I don't know what are in the exam because I'm not in the exam writer team" (BG).

Practices and interactive cognition

Although he stated that he would correct every error, he did not do so due to several reasons i.e. time constraints, comprehensibility of the speech, and student low proficiency. Even though he previously claimed that time constraints did not influence

his teaching because he could manage the time, in the stimulated recall interviews he often referred his lack of feedback to time constraints. For example, he did not correct the mispronunciation of the word 'cancer' when a student pronounced it as /'kæ.n.səl/. He said "I didn't correct it because I was constrained by the time. There were lots of students waiting (to perform the task)" (SM2). In the same lesson, he mentioned comprehensibility as the reason for not correcting the mispronounced 'throat' in the sentence 'I have a flu and a sore throat' in which the student said /toud/ instead of /θrouθ/. He said "It was still comprehensible...the listener could understand it from the context because of the word 'sore'" (SM2).

Later in the same lesson, a student said, "I have a few sick", but, again, he did not correct it. However, this time he said it was because "that student is not good (at speaking) and rarely speak in the classroom...only speaking something out was fine in his case" (SM2).

His reasons for not giving corrective feedback were closely related to his criteria of what to correct he claimed in the background interview about correcting errors affecting meaning or causing miscommunication. Here, student proficiency also emerged as a factor affecting his decision on correcting an error. The factor of student proficiency was highlighted again in the later pair of students performing in the same lesson. A student said "/'dentɪd/" instead of "/'dentɪst/", but Thomas did not correct it. When asked why, he said:

It wasn't a serious error, the meaning didn't change. Also, they weren't English major students. I'd definitely correct this error if they were because they need a good knowledge of English for their future. They might be English teachers one day. Besides, I think English major students have better ability to acquire much knowledge of English. (SM2)

From the above statement, it seemed that Thomas believed that higher proficiency students, like English major students, needed more knowledge and were

more able to acquire knowledge. For this reason, he tended to correct more errors with higher proficiency students.

Another factor that he mentioned in the background interview was errors relating to the lesson focus. It was observed that he corrected those errors as can be seen in Extract XV and XVI.

Extract XV: The activity aiming at asking about health problems and wishing someone well (OB2)

ST1: Hi Fern. How are you?

ST2: I'm not feeling well.

ST1: Oh. What's wrong?

ST2: I have a fever.

ST1: *Take easy.* >>> lexical error

TC: Take it easy. Take it easy. >>>recast

According to Extract XV, Thomas corrected the wrong form of the expression 'take it easy' by giving a recast. When asked why he corrected this error, he said "One word was missing...and it was the lesson focus" (SM2). The belief of correcting errors relevant to the lesson focus was highlighted again in the later observation when he corrected errors that did not affect communication, as shown in Extract XVI.

Extract XVI: The activity aiming at giving and asking for suggestions (OB3)

ST1: What do you want to do this weekend?

ST2: I don't have plan. Any suggestion?

ST1: *Why we don't go* the MK restaurant. >>>grammatical error

ST2: Let's go. Do you want to go see the movie after that?

ST1: Sorry, I don't have money.

(The conversation ended.)

TC: Why what? >>>elicitation

ST1: *Why we don't go*

TC: Why don't we (stressing on the word 'don't) >>>recast

ST1+ST2: Aha

It can be seen in Extract XVI that Student 1 made an error on word order, which in this case Thomas believed did not cause miscommunication. When asked why he corrected this error even though it did not affect the meaning and he answered “[It didn't affect communication] but it was a lesson focus” (SM3).

Regarding how he gave corrective feedback, it was observed that he used elicitation, recasts, and explicit correction. However, it is interesting that, unlike other participants, he opted for elicitation only to check whether students made an error, as can be seen in Extract XVII.

Extract XVII: The activity aiming at giving and asking for suggestions
(OB3)

ST1: *What do you want to go to this weekend?* >>> lexical error

ST2: I want to go to Chiangmai. Do you have any suggestion?

ST1: Yes. There's a beautiful mountain in Chiangmai. Would you like to *join with me?*

ST2: I want to go by train. Any /sə'ges.tʃən/(suggestion)? >>>phonological error

ST1: Why don't we go by airplane. It's very fast.

ST2: OK.

(The conversation ended.)

TC: There are two points. When we want an opinion, any...? >>>elicitation

ST1: /sə'ges.tʃən/ (suggestion)

TC: /sə'dʒes.tʃən/.....with Jor Jarn (a Thai alphabetical sound similar to /dʒ/) >>>recast

Another one, when you asked about places to go, what did you say?

>>>elicitation

ST1: What do you want to go?

TC: Well... 'What do you want?' is like what you want to do. But in this case, it should be 'where do you want to go?' or 'Where are you going to?' Use 'where' with places. >>>explicit correction

According to Extract XVII, Student 2 mispronounced the word 'suggestion'. After they finished the conversation, the teacher used elicitation to check whether the student had made an error or a mistake. He said, "I let the student complete the question 'any...?' to have her repeat the word 'suggestion' so that I knew if she really mispronounced it" (SM3). After that, he gave a recast saying the correct pronunciation and gave explanation about the consonant sound /dʒ/ by comparing it to the similar sound in Thai to enhance the students' understanding. He backed up his reason for using a recast in this case saying, "I tried to see if the speaker really mispronounced it and she did, so I said the correct pronunciation for her" (SM3).

Similarly, when the student used the wrong wh-word, he asked the student to repeat the phrase 'what do you want to go?' by giving an elicitation. Interestingly, the teacher's purpose of using elicitation here was not to elicit the correct form but to ensure himself that the student made an error. Then, he used an explicit correction to correct the error, however, he claimed that if time allowed he would try to elicit the correct utterance from the student instead of the explicit correction. He had about 40 students in his class and wished it would have been 20 or so, so that he could have had more time for an elicitation. He said, "I'd be more likely to elicit the correction from students when there was enough time" (SM3). It was apparent from the three observations that he rarely used elicitation to have students self-correct. However, elicitations were sometimes used when he thought more time could be allotted to the feedback, as can be seen in Extract XVIII.

Extract XVIII: The activity aiming at talking about health's problems and wishing someone well (OB2)

ST1: Go to shopping with me. (with no rising intonation) >>>phonological error

ST2: No. I don't...

TC: feel. >>>elicitation

ST2: feel better.

TC: I don't feel well. >>>recast

ST1: What happened?

ST2: I have a stomachache. I have a gastritis.

ST1: Want to go to the doctor with me?

ST2: Yes... (paused and acted like she was thinking)

TC: Wish Wish Wish I hope... >>> elicitation

ST1: I hope.

TC: you feel better >>>recast

ST1: you feel better.

In Extract XVIII, after Student 2 expressed the need to go to the doctor, she paused her utterance. Then, Thomas gave her elicitation by saying "wish wish wish. I hope...". When asked why he opted for elicitation in this case, he said "there were only a few pairs waiting to present their conversations" (SM2). It implies that Thomas would opt for elicitations when he thought he had enough time to do so. Taking his claim into account, it is not surprising that most feedback types he used were recast and explicit correction as can be seen in Extract XV-XVIII.

It seemed that the lesson focus and time constraints were the key factors of his decision on corrective feedback types. However, when probed for more detail in the post-observation interviews about his decision on how to treat an error, other factors were revealed.

Post-practice cognition

As can be seen in his interactive cognition, Thomas was significantly affected by time constraints in terms of how he corrected errors and what errors to correct. In the post-observation interviews, he highlighted the influence of time constraints on the conflicts between his stated beliefs and practices by saying "I just wanted them to speak out. It was impossible to correct every error due to the limit of time, and they'd be afraid to speak if I did so" (PO1). Apart from time constraints, the factor of lesson focus was highlighted again when asked how he made a decision on what grammatical errors to correct, as there were some errors that he did not treat in Lesson Observation 2, he

said “there wasn’t grammar focus in that lesson. The focus was on being able to ask about symptoms and to wish someone well” (PO2).

Regarding his types of feedback, he also emphasised that he was constrained by the time. He said “sometimes I wanted to end the correction quickly, so I corrected it myself. But actually, I wanted them to self-correct if the time allowed” (PO2). He added “I think if I taught this course again in the future, I’d have more experiences in solving classroom problems. So, I’d be able to deal with time constraints” (PO3). This implies that he considered his limited teaching experience as part of the problem, with is in line with what he said in the earlier post-observation interview about how he was trying to solve the problem of time constraint. He stated “I asked one of the foreign teachers for some advice and he recommended me not to expect every student to speak. Then I took his advice and things are getting better” (PO1).

Another thing he learned from his first speaking class was the importance of having students practice speaking. However, similar to what he stated in the stimulated-recall interview, he believed in considering students’ needs and proficiency. He said “If I gave them much knowledge...much correction, some students might think it was too much. Some might want it, others might not” (PO1). When asked how he would deal with this issue, he emphasised his belief about student proficiency, saying “I’d consider their proficiency. If they were of high proficiency, I’d give them more knowledge” (PO1).

Apparently, his post-practice cognition supports his practices and interactive cognition. Time constraints, curriculum goals, and student proficiency were the main factors of his feedback types and corrected errors.

Summary

Thomas’ corrective feedback showed an inconsistent pattern and there were mismatches between his pre-lesson beliefs, interactive beliefs and his practices. In the background interview, it seemed he was determined to correct every error and stressed that time constraints did not have any effect on his correction. However, after his practices, he constantly mentioned time constraints as a significant factor affecting his

decisions on corrective feedback. This could be due to his limited teaching experiences as he believed. It appeared that he was struggling of finding his own teaching methods in the speaking classroom and hoping it would be better when he got more experiences.

Another two factors that seemed to drive his beliefs and practices was the lesson focus and student proficiency. He constantly supported his practices by what was focused on the lesson and student proficiency. He seemed to be more selective about error correction with lower proficiency students and a way to limit his correction was to consider whether the error was relevant to the lesson focus. After all, it could be concluded that his cognition about giving corrective feedback was mainly influenced by time constraints and lesson focus, which was related to the curriculum goals, and student proficiency.

Appendix R: Karen's case study report

Karen: curriculum goals, real-world communication, student proficiency

Background information

Karen had a doctoral degree in Education, master's in Applied Linguistics, and bachelor's in Business English. She had lived in a foreign country for a few years when she was young. She had taught at the observed university for 15 years. The observed course was a pre-intermediate listening and speaking course aiming to develop students' speaking and listening strategies in various real-life situations, for instance, at the shop and at the doctor's. There were about 30 students in the class. They were non-English major students in different years of study.

Learning experiences

Karen did not believe in absolute correctness in speech. She paid more attention to communication achievement than to accuracy. Her past experience as a learner considerably contributed to this belief. She stated "I used to teach my classmates to fold the paper into something. I knew I didn't say it all accurately, but they could do it after me" (BG). She also highlighted her teacher's reaction to her spoken errors "My teacher didn't interrupt my speaking at all. She let me finish it and corrected my errors after that. Then I realised I made some errors" (BG). These positive experiences of making spoken errors influenced her teaching style. She revealed "(because of those experiences) I don't want my students to be afraid of making mistakes" (BG). More explicitly about the way her teacher treated her error, she added that she adopted her teacher's feedback style, saying "The teacher didn't explicitly correct them. It made me think more about my errors and remember the correct ones better" (BG).

Teaching experiences

She stated that her teaching related to speaking skills had considerably changed. More specifically, she put more focus on using English in real life instead of only following the content in the course book as she previously did at the beginning of her teaching career. What triggered the change was students' views about speaking English in the classroom. She found that they believed they did not need to learn English or to practice

speaking English in the classroom because knowledge and skills they got in the classroom was not practical in their real-life communication. From then on, she had tried to raise their awareness about adapting English knowledge in the classroom to real life situations.

Professional coursework

Although she did not learn about teaching theories in her bachelor's program, she learned about them during her master's and it influenced her teaching. She declared "I use some the theories I learned during my master's such as the Input hypothesis of Stephen Krashen. I try to link the lesson to their own knowledge and to the Thai context" (BG).

Pre-practice cognition

As mentioned earlier, Karen focused on communication more than accuracy. This aspect of her beliefs may contribute to her stated beliefs about errors that should be corrected in the speaking classroom. She stated, "I'd let go of errors that still make the message comprehensible" (BG). She seemed to apply this idea to every linguistic area. When asked about phonological errors, she said "I mostly correct the final sounds because I believe they affect the meaning of the word" (BG). Elicited more about 'comprehensibility' in her sense, she clarified "I don't think of only Western people, but also people in our region such as Malaysian people. I'd tell my students about the variety of English pronunciation" (BG). She stressed that structures for spoken and written language were different. Then she admitted that this was the reason why she was not serious about grammar in spoken language and focused more on comprehensibility.

Another factor of her decision to correct an error was the course objectives. She revealed that the observed course had different objectives from the fundamental course which aimed at using taught structures and vocabulary; while the observed one focused on achieving communication in different situations. She said, "If the course focused on the use of gerund and students made errors on this, I'd have to correct them" (BG). She added that in the fundamental course focusing on grammar structures, she would

correct errors relevant to the focus even though they did not cause miscommunication, but would not neglect errors important for communication.

Speaking of possible effects of time constraints, she claimed that she did not have problems with the time limit and class size of 30 because she normally corrected only common errors among students and gave feedback to the whole class, which did not take much time. She stated, "I didn't give feedback to every student. It might be good to do so, but the purpose of giving feedback is to let them know which common issues they have" (BG).

Regarding effects of the exam, she claimed that she was not affected by it, instead, it was affected by what she taught because it would be "a test that evaluates what they have learned in the classroom" (BG).

Her stated beliefs about how to correct errors seemed relevant to the errors she would correct in terms of not showing a sign of extreme seriousness in error treatment. Questioned about how she normally treated those errors she chose to correct, she stated "I'd implicitly correct it, then they'd realise their mistake" (BG). She claimed that she would correct errors that way because "It'd take a lot of their courage to speak out" (BG), so she did not want to discourage them by explicitly correcting errors. She made it clearer when giving an example of how she would correct a mispronunciation error, "After I said the right pronunciation, I wouldn't say 'say it again'. I'd only raise their awareness of the error" (BG).

Apparently, her stated beliefs in relation to error correction were driven by real-life communication, and the curriculum goals. Asked about her opinions on those goals, she said "Although I focus on the real use of language, I believe my teaching should also serve the exam goals because they would need a good English test result to apply for a job" (BG). One of the solutions, in her views, could be an improvement of the curriculum targeting on step-by step development of students' English skills.

Practices and interactive cognition

The importance of the course objectives was highlighted again in Karen's teaching practices. According to the observations, almost all the errors she corrected were relevant to the course objective or the lesson focus. As previously mentioned, communication was the main objectives of the course, not correctness in speech. Karen's practices showed that her pattern of selecting an error to correct was indicated by whether it was the course or lesson focus. Take Extract XIX as an example.

Extract XIX: The activity aiming at listening to a record at the doctor's and saying a sentence to check the understanding using the taught expressions (OB2)

Recording 1: These are quite strong. So, just take one tablet in the morning and one at night.

TC: What you need to do is saying a sentence to check your understanding. Begin the sentence with 'So you mean I should...' or 'so you're saying I have to...' followed by what you have heard. Any volunteer?

ST1: One time morning. >>>grammatical error

TC: OK. So you mean I should take one tablet in the morning and one tablet at night. >>>recast

(turned to the class)

You have two options: 'so you mean I should...' or 'right, you are saying I have to..'. They are in the course book, E2. >>>metalinguistic feedback

Recording 2: This is the prescription that may help yourself sorted out. Take two tablets three times a day before meal.

ST2: I should take two tablets three times before meal.

>>> lexical error

TC: So you mean I should take two tablets three times before meal. >>>
recast

Recording 3: They are enough for four weeks. Finish your course. Come back and see me if you're not better.

ST3: I should be back after four weeks. >>> content of the speech

TC: OK. Come back after four weeks. There is something further. If... >>>

elicitation

ST2: If I'm not getting better.

TC: If I'm not getting better. I should come back after four weeks if I'm not getting better. >>>recast

According to recording 1 and 2 of Extract XIX, although the students could grab the main idea of the recordings and said the right answer, Karen said when asked why she gave a recast by adding 'so you mean' at the beginning of the sentence, "It'd be better to use the expression so that the speech sounds smoother and more natural" (SM2). She added "the students didn't say the expression I gave them. I wanted them to use it because it'd make the sentence sound more natural...and it was the objective of this activity" (SM2).

Apart from corrected errors, Extract XIX illustrates Karen's corrective feedback style. It is evident that she regularly used recasts to correct errors. Considering all her corrective feedback in the three observations, recasts and elicitation were the only two types of feedback she used, with recast more frequently. When asked why she mainly opted for correcting the error herself, she said "I preferred students to realise their errors themselves. When I said the correct form, they'd had a light bulb moment about what was wrong with their utterance" (SM2). Questioned about the use of elicitation, she claimed that she used them mostly when it was an error on the content of the speech or language strategies. She gave an example "when they acted like a seller trying to sell a TV and said that it was a squared TV, I'd ask 'do you need to say that?'" (SM2). Similarly, in Recording 3 of Extract XIX, she elicited the student's correction of the error relevant to the content. Asked whether she would use elicitation with other types of errors, she said "I wouldn't elicit the answer from students if it was a mispronunciation because it's not the objective. I didn't want to spend lots of time on it" (SM2). Examining how she gave corrective feedback on a mispronounced word in other observations, it was found that she always used a recast, as it can be seen in Extract XX.

Extract XX: The activity aiming at describing functions of an electric device (OB1)

ST: Kim has an external hard disk. It can be used to store /'dæ.tə/ (data)

>>>phonological error

TC: Very good. It can be used to store /'deɪ.tə/. >>> recast

Extract XX shows Karen's recast on mispronunciation. The reason behind its used might be due to her claim about the lesson objectives.

After all, it could be assumed that her feedback types depended on the course/lesson objectives.

Post-practice cognition

The post-observation interviews suggested Karen's cognition in more detail. They support what she said in the background interview and the stimulated recall interviews about the influences of curriculum goals. In addition, real-world communication was highlighted in her post-practice cognition as another factor affecting her beliefs about corrective feedback.

In Post-Observation Interview 2, when asked about how she would correct spoken errors in a course focusing more on accuracy, she said "Then, accuracy would be highlighted. It depends on the course objectives" (PO2). This agrees with her statements in the background interview previously mentioned. When asked further whether she would consider correcting other types of errors such as politeness. She said "I also corrected errors affecting the politeness of the speech. For example, a student acted as a shop assistant saying, 'What do you want?'. I told them it sounded impolite" (PO2). However, she emphasised the idea of taking students' level of proficiency into consideration, saying "I'd consider two things: the lesson content and the student's level of proficiency. If it was about out-of-lesson focus point, I'd see if they had achieved the lesson goals" (PO2).

The factor of student proficiency was previously highlighted in the previous post-observation interview when she was asked about her opinion on giving feedback to students of different proficiency. She said she would correct fewer errors with low proficiency students because “if I corrected them too much, it might be overwhelming for them. It’d be better to give them a proper amount of knowledge, so they could take time to digest it” (PO2).

Regarding her frequent use of recasts, she was asked to explain more about her preference of having students realise their errors themselves as she claimed in Stimulated Recall 2. She said:

I didn’t want the end product from students. I wanted them to realise their own mistakes. When they were speaking and at the same time being able to spot their own mistakes, they’d finally say it correctly. I considered more on the process of learning. If I told them what was wrong with their language, they might be able to say it correctly too. But when they didn’t have me (in their real communication), who’s gonna tell them? So, I wanted them to go through the process of realising their own mistakes. (PO3)

Her statement implies that the main reason she usually opted for recasts was her concern about students’ ability to notice their own errors in real-world communication when they did not have her to point them out. Later, she also stressed, “When they talked with foreigners and the foreigners could not understand what they were saying, they should be able to realise errors in their utterances” (PO3).

Summary

It can be seen that Karen's beliefs about errors to correct were greatly affected by curriculum goals, student proficiency, and real-world communication. Since the observed course focused on communicative achievement rather than accuracy, she mostly corrected errors affecting communication and ignored errors that did not cause communication breakdown. While it seemed that curriculum goals affected errors she would correct rather than real-world communication, real-world communication could still be considered an important factor on her cognition as it had an impact on her feedback types. It was apparent in the observations that she mostly used recasts. She revealed that it was because she wanted students to be able to notice their errors

themselves in real-world communication. Although she did not directly mention the source of this belief, it could be possible that her learning experience played a role in forming the belief about using a recast. As she said in the background interview that she admired her teacher's feedback style of implicitly correcting students' errors and thought she should do the same to her students, her substantial use of recasts, which is usually considered as an implicit correction, might partly result from this experience.

According to the above discussion, it could be assumed that the core idea of her cognition in relation to error types and feedback types derived by curriculum goals, real-world communication, and student proficiency.

Appendix S: Julie's case study report

Julie: Real-world communication, curriculum goals, student confidence

Background information

Julie has 16 years' experience of teaching English. She obtained a PhD in Linguistics, an MA Teaching English, and a BA in English Education. Although she is highly experienced in teaching English, she has mostly been assigned to teaching writing courses, not speaking ones. She accepted that she was confused about how to teach speaking at the start, saying, "I don't know any concepts of teaching speaking. I don't like teaching it" (BG). She also pointed out the problems she has with teaching speaking: "I think it's an abstract skill, not like reading, which is more concrete. I can have students extract the main idea from a reading passage. Unlike speaking, if students don't speak, it's quite hard to help them develop the skill" (BG). The course observed was a fundamental English speaking and listening aiming to develop speaking and listening skills.

Prior learning experiences

As noted, she was not very confident about teaching speaking. When asked about the source of her teaching style, she said, "It's mostly from my learning experience and intuition" (BG). She realised the importance of correct pronunciation, partly because she used to be corrected by her foreign friend. She stated, "I once said 'The bus is clouded', which should have been 'crowded'. My friend could understand what I said because of the context, but he later pointed out this error to me" (BG). She continued to explain the effect of her use of English in real-world communication, saying "I knew what students should know. The experiences of using English abroad helped boost my confidence to consider what is important for speaking" (BG). These experiences caused her to be more aware of teaching for real-life communication. She said, "When I was exposed to real-life English, I could judge what is important [for speaking] and what is not. Compared to my teaching before living abroad, which only followed the course objectives, now I balance between the objectives and practicality" (BG).

Another important aspect of speaking she considered important was confidence. She admitted that she had not felt confident speaking English until studying abroad. She stated, "I wasn't confident even when I started my study abroad... but the lecturer always called on me to answer, so I thought I needed to try" (BG). Her teacher made her feel comfortable and unafraid to speak. This experience informed her belief about creating a friendly atmosphere in the classroom. As she said, "From then on, I think if I was friendly to students, they'd be getting more confident...I think I need to build their confidence first. If they didn't, communication would never happen" (BG).

Teaching experiences

Apart from learning experience, her teaching experience appear to have influenced her teaching in terms of being attentive to student confidence. She said, "I used to speak English with them, but they didn't respond. Then I realised I was putting them off speaking. They were afraid of losing face" (BG). This might be the reason why she focused on having students speak out, as she noted, "When they didn't speak, the class couldn't progress. They had knowledge but couldn't transfer it into performance. So, I try to make them speak as much as possible in the class" (BG). In her view, even some English-major students are afraid to speak because "they fear being assessed by their friends, especially when they're among friends with an outstanding performance" (BG). She thought that it was because Thai students had been trained to be serious about the need to speak totally accurate English. For this reason, she emphasised, "I want them to be confident that they can speak English. They have the knowledge but lack a chance to practice using it" (BG).

Professional coursework

Although Julie had initial teacher training as part of her BA in Education, when asked about the influence of teacher education on her teaching, she said, "I learned broad theories like grammar translation, audiolingual [method]...but it didn't give me knowledge of how to teach speaking. I didn't get any concept of how to do it" (BG). Not directly involving error correction, however, she revealed that later she got some ideas

of how to teach pronunciation during her PhD: "I partly got the idea when I did research on phonics. I applied this with students' pronunciation problems, such as the similar sounds 'wait' and 'wet'." She continued stressing the importance of pronunciation, adding, "I think if students can pronounce, even though they don't know complicated structures, they can still communicate. If we couldn't pronounce words correctly, communication could break down" (BG).

Pre-practice cognition

When asked what errors she would correct, the first thing she said was, "What has been taught" (BG). It seems in accordance with her previous statements about her focus on the course objectives. Similarly, she again underlined the importance of pronunciation as the issue she would correct, although it might not be the lesson focus:

I mostly correct mispronunciation because of my experience about it. But the accent...if it's clear enough to communicate, it's fine. Some students tried to speak fast to sound like native speakers, I used to tell them speaking fast but unclearly can worsen communication. (BG)

Regarding tone and intonation, she does not consider them as important as word stress, saying, "I normally talk about word stress, not tones, because word stress would affect understanding" (BG). When asked about grammar in speaking, she said she was "not very serious" about it (BG).

It can be noticed here that the subject of communication was raised throughout her answers about teaching speaking and which errors to correct and how. However, she also mentioned the objectives when asked about how to correct erroneous speech, noting, "I'd wait until they finish speaking then pick up errors relating to the focus to correct with the class, but if it's the point I taught, I'd instantly correct it so that they know it's the focus" (BG).

Practices and interactive cognition

In accordance with her pre-practice cognition, the lesson observations suggested that Julie's correction was relevant to the lesson objectives, and to mispronunciation, as shown in Extract XXI and Extract XXII.

Extract XXI: An activity aiming at talking about one's appearance

(OB2)

TC: What do you look like?

ST: I am short *and black hair*. >>>grammatical errors

TC: I am short and.... >>>elicitation

ST: black hair

TC: We don't say I am black hair, but we say 'I have black hair'. Can you repeat the sentence again, please? >>>explicit correction

ST: I am short and...

TC: I am short and have black hair. >>>recast

You also have this (pointing at his glasses). Can you add this to your description, please?

ST: Glasses.

TC: What colour are they? >>>elicitation

ST: Black

TC: Black. Can you make the complete sentence? I have.... >>>elicitation

ST: I have black glasses.

TC: Very good.

As can be seen in Extract XXI, Julie corrected the grammatical error in the sentence 'I am short and black hair'. The students had been taught about how to use the 'verb to be' and the 'verb to have' because the verbs used to describe appearance were the lesson focus, as she commented: "This is the goal of the lesson" (SM2).

Another type of error that she normally corrected was mispronunciation. A sample of her correction on mispronunciation is shown in Extract XXII.

Extract XXII: A conversation between the teacher and the class leading to an activity of describing a roommate's characteristics (OB1)

TC: How many roommates do you have?

Class: /ti:/(three) >>>phonological error

TC: Ok. Some said two, some said three. /ti:/ or /θri:/? >>>elicitation

Class: /θri:/

TC: /θri:/, right? You talked about numbers.

In Extract XXII, Julie corrected the mispronunciation of 'three'. She normally gave corrective feedback on other mispronounced words in all the three observations. When asked for the reason, she said:

I'm very serious about mispronunciation because it can lead to miscommunication. It wasn't the issue in this context, but I wanted them to be aware. If the listener wasn't able to understand what they have said, they'd have less confidence to speak" (SM1).

She added that she provided the correct pronunciation herself because of the possible difficulties students having to self-correct. As she stated, "Sometimes it's hard for them to practice the correct pronunciation themselves because they might not be able to differentiate between the wrong and the right sound. For other types of error, they could find the correct form themselves" (SM1).

However, it was observed that she also corrected errors that did not fall into those two categories, as shown in Extract XXIII and Extract XXIV.

Extract XXIII: An activity aiming at introducing people (OB3)

ST1: Hello, Da. How are you?

ST2: Hi, Luknam. I'm very well. And you?

ST1: Fine, thanks. Da, this is Fern. Fern, this is my friend Da.

ST3: Nice to meet you.

ST2: Nice to meet you too. Luknam, this is Nook. Nook, this is my friend
Luknam.

ST4: Nice to meet you.

ST1: Nice to meet you too. *Are you come from around here?* >>>grammatical errors

ST4: No, I come from Australia.

(The conversation continued)

(After the conversation ended)

TC: What would you say when you wanted to ask about someone's birthplace? Where...? >>>elicitation

Class: (silent)

TC: Ok. You can say either 'are you from...?' or 'do you come from...?' We use 'do' with 'come'. 'Come' is the main verb and we use the 'verb to be' with prepositions. >>>recast

According to Extract XXIII, Julie gave corrective feedback on Student 1's grammatical error in the question, 'Are you come from around here?', although the difference between 'are you from...?' and 'do you come from...?' was not the focus of the lesson. When asked why she chose to correct this error, she said, "The previous group also made this mistake. Then this group made it again. So, I think I should tell them about this. The understanding wasn't affected, but it was about how educated the speaker was" (SM3). This example of her correction highlights her awareness of grammatical accuracy in speaking. As she said, "I don't neglect accuracy, but it'd be more highlighted when students had more confidence to speak. The priority is their confidence. I'm aware of accuracy, but requiring both [confidence and accuracy] would be difficult" (SM3). This justification seems sensible to apply to another case of her correction, in Extract XXIV.

Extract XXIV: An activity aiming at inviting friends to a party (OB3)

ST1: (on the phone) Hello, Jib. What are you doing?

ST2: We're making popcorn and watching a movie.

ST1: Today, I want to invite you and your friends to a party at my new house *on* the evening. Do you have free time? >>> grammatical error

ST2: Yeah. I have free time *on* the evening. >>> grammatical error

ST1: OK. See you.

ST2: See you.

(The conversation continued)

(After the conversation ended)

TC: Preposition of time. Evening...what would we use with this word?

>>>elicitation

Class: in

TC: In... the evening... In...the afternoon

Again, in Extract XXIV, Julie corrected the error on the use of the wrong preposition, which did not affect communication and was not related to the lesson focus. She commented on the extract, "It didn't affect the meaning and wasn't the focus, but it was a common thing which they shouldn't have used incorrectly. When they could speak out, I wanted them to speak more accurately" (SM3).

It could be seen that apart from errors affecting the meaning and errors relevant to the lesson focus, Julie gave corrective feedback on common errors and errors relevant to what students should know, especially when she believed raising her students' confidence had been achieved. Her justification seems convincing as the correction of these two categories happened in the third observation, when the course had running for over one month and the students seemed more relaxed and confident in the class compared to the beginning of the course.

As can be seen in Extract XXI-XXIV, Julie normally uses elicitation to correct students' errors. When asked why she opted for elicitation in Extract XXI, she said, "I thought they could correct it" (SM2). As for Extract XXII, she stated, "I taught them about saying the telephone number in the previous lesson and found that they didn't pronounce the numbers correctly. This was what we had talked about. I wanted to know if they could remember it" (SM1). Regarding the treatment of common errors and errors that students should know in Extract XXIII and Extract XXIV, a similar justification was provided.

Apart from elicitation, she also used recasts and explicit correction. It is apparent that she would opt for the two types of feedback when the students seemed unable to correct the error, as can be seen in Extract XXI and Extract XXIII, in which she corrected the error herself. In addition to this reason, it seemed that she would provide the correct form herself instead of eliciting it from students when she thought it was not an important error. This was rather apparent when she was asked to comment on her type of feedback in Extract XXV.

Extract XXV: An activity aiming at describing people's characteristics

(OB1)

ST: My roommate is creative because she usually *have* new ideas.

>>>grammatical error

TC: My roommate is creative because she usually has new ideas. >>>recast

When asked about her reasons for using a recast in Extract XXV, she said, "If it's not the lesson focus, I'll correct it myself. If it's not a common error, I won't explain much about it" (SM1). She clarified, "I'm not serious about grammar if the communication is successful. In this case, I'll correct it myself" (SM1). This implies that she thought a recast was a quick correction which she could apply with errors out of the lesson focus and errors that do not affect communication, such as certain grammatical errors.

Post-practice cognition

According to the above discussion, it seems that Julie's pre-practice cognition is in line with her interactive cognition. In the post-observation interview, she still expressed similar beliefs as she had in the two earlier stages of interview. The difference is her post-practice cognition revealed more in-depth beliefs, which helped strengthen the previous data.

In the background interview, she often mentioned the course and lesson focus affecting her decisions about what error to correct. In post-observation interview 3, when asked about whether she was searching for the best practice in teaching speaking, she said, "It's like a trial in every semester...I keep trying to help them achieve the (course) goals and raise their motivation and awareness (about learning English)" (PO3). The reason she emphasised motivation and awareness was that she believed they were important for their long-term learning, saying, "I'd do anything that makes them want to learn English and be able to do some self-learning after leaving the classroom" (PO3).

Her statement in post-observation interview 3 also reinforced her beliefs on speaking for communication. She said, "When I gave them feedback, I considered an overall communication, not a total accuracy. If it was about what I had taught or basic knowledge, I'd give them feedback" (PO3). When asked to clarify communication in her views, she stated, "Communication is the priority. Communication here is attached to classroom learning. It's a big term which covers educational goals" (PO3).

It could be said that her post-lesson cognition was in accordance with her pre-lesson cognition, her practices, and her interactive cognition. She believed that a balance between curriculum goals and communication goals was required when considering what to correct.

When it came to types of feedback, factors relevant to students seem to play an important role. Similar to her pre-practice cognition and interactive cognition, her post-practice cognition showed that her use of recasts was due to her concern for students' feelings and confidence. When she used elicitation, she often directed them to the whole class because "Distracting attention to the class helps save the speaker's face...I don't want to put pressure on the speaker. It's good if he can, but he might feel bad if he can't" (PO1).

Summary

Apparently, the errors Julie corrected and the types of feedback she gave were related to various factors, such as the course and the lesson focus, communication goals, students' motivation and students' confidence. Her attempt to balance curriculum goals and communication goals was demonstrated through her decision making on what errors to correct. She realised the need to achieve both goals, and she therefore corrected not only errors relevant to the lesson focus, but also errors relevant to the basic knowledge undergraduate students should know, common errors among students, and errors affecting communication. Regarding her types of feedback, she tried to divert attention away from the error maker to the class in order to allow the student to save face and avoid feeling under pressure. It was evident that her cognition about corrective feedback followed curriculum goals, real-world communication, and student confidence.

Appendix T: Denise's case study report

Denise: Curriculum goals, student confidence, student motivation

Background information

Denise had a master's degree in Applied Linguistics and bachelor's degree in English Language Education. She had taught English in the university for 7 years since completing her master's degree. She had experiences in teaching various English courses focusing on speaking skills such as English for Hotel Businesses and English Phonetics. The course observed in the present study was a fundamental English listening and speaking course focusing on basic listening and speaking skills. There were about 40 students in the class.

Prior learning experiences

she revealed that during high school, her teachers used the grammar-translation method to teach speaking. In the class, the students had small chances to speak and the time was devoted to vocabulary learning and sentence translation. For this reason, she believed that her listening and speaking skills "didn't improve much in high school" (BG). Although her listening skills developed when she was doing her bachelor's, her speaking skills were still at "the same level" (BG) because she was afraid of making mistakes. She admitted "I feared of speaking because I knew lots of grammar rules. I was good at writing and reading, but not at speaking and listening" (BG). She said she felt more confident in speaking English when she became a lecturer interacting with foreign colleagues during her 7 years in the career. Her turning point was when she made spoken mistakes and her foreign colleagues did not criticise her. She stated, "Although I realised the mistakes, they usually praised me saying 'you speak English so well'" (BG). This encouraged her to speak and not to fear of making mistakes.

Teaching experiences

Denise realised Thai students' problems of speaking English from her teaching experience and learning experience. She said, "Thai students know a lot about grammar, so they're afraid to speak. They don't want to make mistakes and lose faces" (BG). When asked about her opinion on how to correct this problem. She stated

“Mistakes make perfect. I always tell them ‘just speak out, I won’t criticise you’” (BG). However, she revealed that when she taught speaking courses, she would expect more on students’ performance in speaking tasks because she wanted them to gain the acquired input “according to the course objectives” (BG).

Professional coursework

Denise revealed that her bachelor’s and master’s program did not significantly affect her teaching because it focused on writing skills. However, the theories she learned during the master’s seemed to play a role in her belief about corrective feedback. It changed her beliefs about the timing of error correction. She used to correct errors immediately after students made it, but later changed to delayed correction. She said, “When I studied my master’s, the teachers said we shouldn’t interfere students’ utterance to correct their errors and it’s better to correct them at the end of the conversation” (BG).

Pre-practice cognition

Denise stated that she normally taught different speaking courses in a similar way, starting from giving students input about essential vocabulary and structures, having them read the model conversation, then having them create a conversation themselves and ending up with speaking presentation and her feedback. Her teaching objectives of speaking courses depended on students’ proficiency level. She said “If they’re of high proficiency, they must gain more knowledge. If they’re of low proficiency, they must have better attitudes toward English” (BG). Her teaching goals reflected on her stated beliefs about what to correct. She expressed her views of errors that should be corrected in terms of student proficiency, saying “If the student is not of high proficiency, just pronouncing correctly and not making too serious errors are enough” (BG). She added that she would correct more errors with English major students because she believed they should have more knowledge than non-major ones. With non-English major students, she would be more compromising with their errors.

When asked what errors she considered serious, she said “any mispronunciation or wrong word order that cause communication breakdown” (BG). Further questioned about grammatical errors, she brought up the lesson focus as the

criteria saying "It depends on the lesson focus. If it focused on grammar, I'd correct it and have them practice more on that point. But if it wasn't the focus, I'd correct it but not give them more practices" (BG).

Regarding how she corrected an error, she revealed "I won't interfere their conversation. It might destroy their confidence" (BG). The source of this belief is the knowledge she gained from the master's program, as previously mentioned. What she highlighted about her feedback style was being sensitive about student's feelings. She emphasised "I try not to humiliate them. I want to raise their motivation (to learn English)" (BG). When asked what she normally did to motivate students, she said "if they made a mistake and it wasn't very serious, I'd praise them first and correct their mistake later" (BG).

Practices and interactive cognition

In contrast to her statements in the background interview, in the first observation, Denise barely corrected students' errors even though they were relevant to the task focus or affected the meaning of the sentence. The example of the untreated error is shown in Extract XXVI.

Extract XXVI: The activity aiming at describing appearance (OB1)

ST1: I am /fɪppɪ ʃɪ:p/ (have / chubby cheeks) And I think I'm so cute. >>
grammatical and phonological errors

ST2: I'm medium-build. I also think I'm cute.

TC: Ok.

The errors in Extract XXVI is one of the errors Denise did not treat in the first two observations. When asked why she did not correct it even though the vocabulary 'chubby' and 'cheek' were focused in the lesson, and the mispronunciation of these two words could cause communication breakdown, she said "They didn't say it right, but I didn't correct them because I just wanted them to speak out first. This was the beginning of the course" (SM1). It seemed here that limiting her corrective feedback at the beginning of the course was one of her strategy to motivate the students to speak.

This is in line with the later observations in which she gave corrective feedback more frequently on both errors relevant to the lesson focus and on those irrelevant to the lesson focus, especially common errors among students, as can be seen in Extract XXVII.

Extract XXVII: The activity aiming at apologising and responding to an apology (OB2)

ST1: Where have you been?

ST2: Sorry, I'm late. I *go* swimming with my family. >>>grammatical error

ST1: Ah, that's OK.

(The conversation ended.)

TC: I went swimming with my family. You should use the past tense here.

>>>recast

Extract XXVII shows Student 2's error on the use of wrong verb tense and Denise corrected it using a recast. Denise accepted that it was not the lesson focus and not a serious error because it could be comprehensible and did not cause communication breakdown. She commented on her correction "Many students had made this kind of error...go shopping. I had corrected them by saying 'went shopping'. This time I told them the past tense was needed to make it clearer" (SM2). Probed for more details about the decision to correct this error, she said "I chose to correct this error because many students had made it before" (SM2). It could be assumed that another criterion of her correction was whether it was a common error among students. This assumption was supported by the later observation when she corrected the missing of the /s/ sound after the word 'always'. She stated, "This wasn't a serious error, but lots of them didn't say it (the /s/ sound), so I corrected it" (SM2).

In accordance with her claim in the background interview, it was observed that she always praised students on their speaking performance by saying 'good'. When asked whether she really thought it was good, she said:

I didn't think it was good, but I just wanted them to participate in the class. I wanted them to speak, so I didn't correct much when they made mistakes. I used to be corrected by my teacher when I was in high school. They focused on grammar and not on having students speak. It made me fear of speaking even though it was just a short sentence. (SM1)

The statements above imply that she gave positive feedback to students to enhance their confidence and motivation to speak because she previously had a bad experience with corrective feedback when she was a student.

As for her corrective feedback types, it was observed that Denise used three types of corrective feedback—metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, recasts, and explicit correction. She seemed to use elicitations with errors relevant to the lesson focus and those she corrected before because she thought "The students were supposed to be able to correct it" (SM1). Her use of metalinguistic feedback and elicitation are illustrated in Extract XXVIII and XXIX from Lesson Observation 1.

Extract XXVIII: The activity aiming at describing appearances (OB1)

ST1: I think I'm so cute, but I *'m* chubby cheeks. >>>grammatical error

TC: If it there is one adjective...I'm so cute. Ok. You can use 'I am'. But if you say I'm chubby cheek, this is a noun. So, you must use..... >>>metalinguistic feedback

The class: have

TC: Yes. I have chubby cheeks.

Extract XXIX: The activity aiming at describing appearances (OB1)

ST1: What does your best friend look like?

ST2: My best friend *are* big eyes. How about your best friend? >>>grammatical error

ST1: My best friend she *is* long hair. >>>grammatical error

ST2: Yes. Thank you.

TC: What error did they make? >>>elicitation

Class: has

TC: Right, she has long hair.

According to Extract XXVIII and XXIX, Denise tried to have the students correct the errors because the lesson focused on the use of verb to be and verb to have to describe people's appearances. She stated, "I wanted to see if they could correct the things I had taught them" (SM1). It is interesting that her metalinguistic feedback and elicitation aimed at the class instead of the error maker. She explained "I thought the speaker said it wrongly because he didn't know what the correct one was. If he had, I'd have been able to notice from his reaction. So, I asked the class to correct" (SM1). In the later observations, she asked the class to correct the errors every time she gave metalinguistic feedback or elicitation. It seemed that she directed elicitation to the class instead of the speaker because she believed the speaker could not self-correct.

Asked about the difference between her use of metalinguistic feedback and elicitations, she said, "Sometimes I told them the clues, other times I didn't. There was no difference for me. Both were used to elicit the correction from them" (SM3). This belief is similar to her views about recasts and explicit correction. The samples of those two feedback types are shown in Extract XXX and XXXI.

Extract XXX: The activity aiming at inviting and refusing an invitation
(OB2)

ST1: Do you want to go to the movie theater?

ST2: I think I cannot. I *have to* dinner with my friend. >>>grammatical error

ST1: That's alright. See you later

ST2: See you.

(The conversation ended.)

TC: I'd love to, but I have dinner with my family. >>> recast

Extract XXXI: The activity aiming at apologising and responding to an apology (OB2)

ST1: Where have you been? I have been waiting you here for /haʊr/ (hour).

ST2: I'm really sorry. I'm late. I ran an... /'er reɪn/ (errand). >>>phonological error

ST1: OK.

TC: I ran an /'er.ənd/. >>> recast One more thing, 'h' is silent...it's /aʊər/, not /haʊr/ >>>explicit correction

Extract XXX and XXXI show a grammatical error and mispronunciation respectively. It can be seen that Denise provided the correct form in both extracts. Interestingly, for the mispronounced 'hour' in Extract XXXI she used an explicit correction instead of a recast. She expressed the reason behind her use of the explicit correction "When I could remember what the error was, I'd say both the error and the correction. But when I couldn't, I'd say only the correction. There's no significant difference" (SM2).

When asked why she chose to use these two types of feedback in the two situations, she said, "The lesson doesn't focus on these (have and have to, and pronunciation of 'errand' and 'hour'). I didn't want to emphasise them...just said the correction to make the students aware of the errors" (SM2). According to her statement, it could be said that she believed the error was less highlighted when using a recast or explicit correction. It seemed that she would correct the error herself when she wanted to make the error less obvious such as with errors irrelevant to the lesson focus.

Her cognition in this stage agrees with that in the previous stage. In accordance with her pre-practice cognition, the factors of lesson focus and communication breakdown were highlighted in her interactive cognition and practices.

Post-practice cognition

The post-observation interviews underline the importance of the lesson focus and student confidence on Denise's cognition about corrective feedback. In line with her interactive cognition, she stressed that the lesson focus and common errors were the main criteria to correct an error. The reasons behind this were the aims to achieve curriculum goals, as she said "I think having teaching aims in each lesson helps me concentrate on what to achieve. If I can achieve the lesson focus in each lesson, I can move on to other focus of the later lesson" (PO1). Another factor leading to her selective correction was her beliefs about building student confidence to speak. When asked why

she did not treat some errors and mostly corrected errors relevant to the focus and common errors, she stated, "I didn't want to destroy their confidence. Only speaking out was good enough. I wouldn't correct them if it wasn't not too serious. I'd direct my teaching to the lesson objectives, no matter what the course was" (PO1). Although she said in the background interview that she would focus more on enhancing confidence of low proficiency students, she emphasised the belief of building student confidence as her basic aim of teaching, saying "In every course I aim to build their confidence first" (PO1).

The idea about confidence to speak was brought up again in post-lesson interview 3 when she was asked about when she would have students self-correct. She said "If the student couldn't correct it or it took a long time for him, I'd ask other students instead. I don't want him to feel pressured" (PO2).

Summary

It could be seen that Denise's stated beliefs and practices seemed logically coherent both in terms of what to correct and how to correct. Obviously from the three stages of cognition, curriculum goals, student confidence and student motivation were her main motives to decide on errors to correct and the way to correct them. She tended to be selective about errors to correct because she wanted to focus more on curriculum goals and also to enhance student confidence and motivation to speak. Similarly, she believed that recasts and explicit correction were appropriate for errors irrelevant to the lesson focus because these two types of feedback would not embarrass students as they were unlikely to be able to self-correct errors they had not been taught; while elicitation and metalinguistic feedback were more proper for errors relevant to lesson focus as students were more likely to be able to correct themselves. Although other themes such as student proficiency emerged in the data, they did not seem to so significant as curriculum goals, student confidence, and student motivation.

Appendix U: Natalie's case study report

Natalie: Time constraints, student proficiency, student confidence

Background information

Natalie was a novice teacher who had taught English at University C for two years. She was a student teacher in a high school during her BA in English Education. Therefore, she had accrued a certain amount of teaching experience before beginning her teaching career. During the data collection, she was studying on an MA in Teaching English as an International Language. She had been assigned to teach various speaking-focused courses. The observed course in this study was a Business English course aimed at developing students' speaking and listening skills for the workplace.

Prior learning experiences

She revealed that she applied the knowledge gained from observing her teachers in terms of teaching techniques and important aspects of spoken English. As a learner, she was taught to focus on both fluency and accuracy, especially pronunciation accuracy, due to her experiences of using English. As she stated, "Correct pronunciation is very important. I used to mispronounce many words and realised it caused miscommunication" (BG). As for grammatical correctness, she thought that absolute correctness might be too extreme. She gave an example: "It'd be fine if there was an error in the use of tenses, but the sentence was still understandable" (BG). When asked about the source of this idea, she stated that it was from her teachers and her learning outside the classroom. She started to develop her speaking skills when she was doing extracurricular activities which entailed interacting with foreigners during the bachelor's programme. It made her realise the flexibility of spoken language in real life. She said, "What I learned from my experiences is the flow of conversation. Sometimes they [foreigners] don't speak accurate grammar, but the conversation flows and is understandable. I think it's fine" (BG).

Teaching experiences

Natalie had some prior teaching experience at a high school during her teaching practicum on her BA in Education. However, she revealed that the university students she was teaching had lower proficiency compared to her previous high school students, saying “The students here have low proficiency in speaking skills. Their major problem is limited vocabulary. They can’t speak because they don’t know the words. Another thing, their grammar knowledge is weak” (BG).

Professional coursework

When she was a student teacher, she learned about teaching theories, including how to teach speaking, such as the technique of drilling pronunciation by having students pronounce words backwards. When asked if she used the teaching techniques she learned as a student teacher, she said, “Sometimes. Mostly, I used the knowledge from my study to balance the idea of accuracy and fluency” (BG).

Pre-practice cognition

Although she seemed flexible about errors in spoken language, she wished she could correct every student's error. However, she realised that it might not be plausible because of time constraints in the classroom. She stated, “I want to correct them all but it'd take too much time, so I choose to correct serious errors” (BG). ‘Serious errors’, in her view, are errors in any linguistic area that affect the meaning of the message.

Due to time constraints, she argued that she would correct serious errors such as errors causing communication breakdown to the whole class while with errors that were not serious she might give corrective feedback only to the error maker, reasoning that, “It might embarrass the student [to correct it in front of the classmates]” (BG). She added that she would try to use ‘soft words’ in her feedback in order to allow the students to save face. This idea came from her teaching experience. She once gave direct feedback to a student and noticed his negative reaction to her feedback. She claimed that normally she was more careful about how she gave corrective feedback,

especially with low proficiency students because they already lacked confidence. She emphasised her awareness of the possible negative effects of corrective feedback: "What I say to them is very important for their confidence to speak. Last semester, I got the students' feedback saying they had more confidence to speak because of my class, so I believe I'm on the right track" (BG). This might be the reason why she used the word 'flexibility' many times in the background interview when asked about her opinions on what to correct and how to correct students' spoken language. She said, "In the classroom, it's still practice. It's better to gradually scaffold their ability because they don't live in an English language environment" (BG).

It could be seen that she had a flexible way of correcting students' errors. However, when it came to her decision to correct an error, she seemed to desire to correct every error. Nevertheless, she realised that time constraints meant that correction of every error was simply not feasible.

Practices and interactive cognition

Natalie's practices showed that she opted to correct only certain errors, as she noted in the background interview. However, some in-depth aspects of her error treatment were revealed. She stated in the background interview that she corrected any errors affecting the meaning of the word or sentence. However, in practice it was noticed that sometimes she did not correct errors meeting that criterion, as can be seen in Extract XXXII.

Extract XXXII: An activity aiming at making an arrangement (OB2)

ST1: Are you free on Thursday at 10?

ST2: Let me see...no, I'm sorry, I'm /*beɪ.zi*/(busy) then. I'm free in the afternoon. How about half-past two? >>> phonological errors

TC: OK. Very good. You talked and acted like you met in person, but actually it was a telephone conversation. You should have acted like you were talking on the phone by making a ringing sound.

In Extract XXXII, Student 2 mispronounced the word 'busy', which could have caused a disruption of communication. However, Natalie did not correct it. Instead, she commented on the students' acting. She said, "Yes, she mispronounced it. But I went over the time, so I didn't correct it. If I'd had more time, I'd have told them the correct way" (SM2). This implies that the reason she did not correct this error was due to her awareness of time constraints. Later, another factor informing her decision not to correct an error emerged, as shown in Extract XXXIII.

Extract XXXIII: An activity aiming at using prepositions to locate locations (OB2)

ST: The copying machine is behind *of* the beautiful woman.

>>> grammatical errors

TC: (said nothing)

In Extract XXXIII, it was apparent when Natalie overlooked the misuse of the preposition 'behind', which was the focus of the lesson, and she did not give corrective feedback on the unnecessary use of 'of'. She justified this by saying, "They're often too afraid to speak, so I wanted them to speak it out first. Also, they're of low proficiency, so I tried to teach slowly" (SM2). According to her justification, it seemed that she tried to focus on one thing at a time, partly because she believed the students had low confidence and proficiency.

Regarding the way she corrected errors, it was observed that she mostly used a recast to correct all errors, even ones that she had corrected before. She said, "I rarely have them self-correct because I usually find that they make the same mistakes I had corrected before. So, I don't expect them to correct it" (SM2). The example of her recast is shown in Extract XXXIV.

Extract XXXIV: An activity aiming at talking about a process of doing something (OB3)

ST1: Hello. Today we are going to present how to /*pɪnt*/(plant) a tree. >>>

phonological error

TC: /plænt/ >>>recast

The observations also showed Natalie's carefulness about students' feelings when giving corrective feedback. As she claimed in the background interview, she tries her utmost not to embarrass students. She demonstrated this clearly when she assigned the students a task to present a presentation in front of the class but gave the corrective feedback privately to the speakers because "they might have felt embarrassed if I'd corrected them in front of their classmates" (SM3). This claim was buttressed when she gave feedback to the last group of students while they were still in front of the classroom. The reason behind this was that "this was the last group and other students had left, so I didn't think they'd feel embarrassed" (SM3).

Post-practice cognition

It was noticeable from the observations that Natalie chose to correct errors affecting communication and errors relevant to the task focus, albeit inconsistently. When asked whether she was worried about not giving corrective feedback to some errors, she said, "I was a bit worried, but there were too many students in the class and it'd take lots of time to correct every error. So I chose only the important ones" (PO3). It could be implied that the major reasons for her selection of errors to correct were time constraints, which resulted from the large class sizes. She emphasised the importance of the task focus, saying, "If it was the task focus, I'd give some comments. Other than that, I'd do it if the time allowed" (PO3).

As can be assumed in her interactive cognition, she realised that she frequently used a recast because of time constraints and the students' low proficiency. She added in the post-observation interview that she used to have them self-correct, but they often proved unable to do it. Since then, she had corrected most of the errors herself. Also, she highlighted the effects of time constraints when asked about other feedback types such as elicitation: "Actually, I like it [elicitation], but I rarely use it because the time

doesn't allow, and the students hardly answer when I ask them to correct the errors" (PO3).

Summary

It can be noticed that her pre-practice cognition mostly agreed with her practices. In the background interview, she stated that she would correct errors affecting communication, but realised it was difficult to do so due to time constraints. It was highlighted in her practice that time constraints and students' low proficiency limit her ability to correct every error which met her criteria. As for the types of feedback, she primarily viewed her feedback as not undermining student confidence and her practice corresponded to this belief.

It was apparent that the factors influencing her views on error types and feedback were time constraints, student proficiency, and student confidence. Due to time constraints, she limited her corrective feedback to certain errors, namely those affecting communication and errors relevant to the task focus. According to her pre-practice cognition, students' low proficiency was another reason for her focus on the task objectives. Similarly, these three factors were her motive for using recasts. As she said in both the background interview and the stimulated-recall interviews, time limitations and student's low proficiency informed her decision to use a recast and be sensitive about students' feelings and confidence in her feedback.

Appendix V: Stefani's case study report

Stefani: Real-world communication, student confidence, student motivation

Background information

Stefani had an MA in marketing from a foreign country and a BA in Business English. She had worked as a private tutor and a part-time lecturer in many Thai universities for four years and had taught various speaking courses. The observed course was a Fundamental English course focusing on speaking and listening.

Prior learning experiences

Stefani had extensive experience as an English learner because she had lived in English-speaking countries for almost 5 years. The critical change of her speaking skills, then, derived from her use of English in real life. She stated that when she was young, she did not like English because her mother was an English teacher and she felt obliged to be good at English. She revealed "The turning point was when I was an exchange student in a foreign country. I needed to quickly improve my speaking skills to survive there" (BG). Since then she had been aware of the differences between in-class English and real-life English. She gave some example "The pronunciation of many words I learned from school isn't the same as what it's pronounced by foreigners" (BG). Due to the pressure to speak English as a communication device, she started to eagerly practice listening and speaking English by herself from the movies.

In addition, her experience of speaking English in the real context made her aware of the importance of correct pronunciation including correct stress. She explained "I used to say the word 'camera' with the wrong stress and no one could understand me. Then I realised correct stress is very important" (BG).

Teaching experiences

Her teaching experience as a tutor and as a university lecturer informed her beliefs about the aim of teaching speaking. She said "From my teaching experience, the main problem (of students) is they are not confident to speak. Thai students are so afraid to

speak, so I personally believe confidence is the most important [point]" (BG). This was the reason that she was not serious about students' errors. She emphasised "I think 'just speak out, even if you made mistakes'" (BG). However, she realised the importance of accuracy in spoken language, especially in a professional setting because "If it's for work, speaking accurately makes us look educated. What's more, we'll get more opportunities" (BG).

Professional coursework

Stefani did not receive a teacher education and did not have knowledge of teaching theories because her educational degrees were not related to them. Therefore, she had limited theoretical knowledge about how to teach English and resorted to her out-of-the-classroom experiences and extensive teaching experience.

Pre-practice cognition

Even though she believed that speaking out was better than saying nothing, her aims for students change according to their level of English proficiency. She stated, "I'd consider an individual's level. If they have good knowledge of English, they're supposed to improve at a higher level. But for those who have very limited knowledge, just speaking out could be considered successful" (BG).

Asked about the errors she usually corrected in the classroom, she said that almost all errors were corrected because she considered them all as part of learning. She stated, "I want them to know that making mistakes is for learning, not for being criticised or embarrassed" (BG). However, she claimed that if the errors were related to the lesson focus, she would correct it: "If it was the objective, I'd definitely correct it" (BG). Other than errors relevant to the lesson focus, she claimed that the most frequently corrected errors were relevant to pronunciation, such as final sounds and consonant sounds which do not exist in the Thai language such as /tʃ/, /ʃ/, and /θ/.

Again, owing to her beliefs about students' fear of speaking, she referred her way of giving corrective feedback as using encouraging words and tones. For example,

"I always say something like 'Thank you for making the mistake. You give your friends the opportunity to learn from it' (BG).

Practices and interactive cognition

Her practices showed that she mostly corrected common errors such as mispronunciation of the consonant sounds that do not occur in the Thai sounds and mispronunciation that could cause miscommunication.

Extract XXXV: An activity aiming at introducing yourself (OB1)

ST1: Where are you from?

ST2: I am form Japan.

ST1: /naɪ/ (Nice) to meet you. >>> phonological error

ST2: /naɪ/ (Nice) to meet you too. >>> phonological error

ST1: See you later.

ST2: See you.

TC: (Turned to the whole class) Before you say 'See you later.' You should say something like 'I need to go to....' to show some politeness. He said, 'See you later.' without any reason to leave. It was like he didn't want to talk. >>> explicit correction

The mistakes... help me think. Did you see any mistakes?

A student: /naɪ/

TC: Oh...I wrote it down too. Like what I said earlier, you should pronounce every final sound in the word. We might understand that word as /naɪn/ or /naɪt/. Nice ends with /s/. But in reality, you don't have to be too nervous about this because the listener will try to understand what you say. It's like when a foreigner tries to speak Thai, we always think oh! Cute. We think it's good he tries to talk with us, don't we? But we try to practice saying it correctly here because when we have to speak in formal situation such as at the workplace we will need to say it correctly. >>> explicit correction

In Extract XXXV, Stefani firstly corrected student 1's lack of showing a signal to leave because it could be considered impolite, saying goodbye without a reason. When asked why she corrected this, she said, "I've told them before, that they should say 'I gotta go' or a reason before saying 'see you later'. It wasn't a nice closure" (SM1). She explained that it was not in the coursebook or the focus of the lesson, but she wanted the students to know that it was better to say something to accompany a goodbye. It could be implied that she considered politeness in speech important because it might cause miscommunication, as she commented on the error, "It was like he didn't want to talk" (OB1).

As can be seen in Extract XXXV, Stefani later corrected the mispronunciation of 'nice', which both students pronounced as /naɪ/. She explicitly corrected it and gave an explanation for her correction. When asked why she was trying to give reasons for her correction, she said, "I wanted them to know pronouncing words correctly isn't only for their good image, but [rather] it's all about communication...It's about conveying the meaning. If they say it wrongly, the meaning could change" (SM1). Taking her interactive cognition and her classroom feedback into account, it could be said that Stefani realised this mispronunciation might not cause miscommunication because the listener could comprehend the message from the context, but she still corrected it because she was also aware of its possible effects on the meaning in other contexts.

Extract XXXV shows an example of Stefani's corrective feedback on errors that could cause miscommunication. This reason for correcting an error was referred to by Stefani in all three observations. Apart from this, the belief that the error was common among students was also used as a justification for correcting an error, as can be seen in Extract XXXVI.

Extract XXXVI: An activity aiming at inviting and responding to invitations
(OB1)

ST1: Hi, How are you doing? I'm Mew.

ST2: I'm /gʊdz/ (good). My name is Pat. >>> phonological error

ST1: Where are you from?

ST2: I'm from Germany.

ST1: I'm from Spain. Where are you going?

ST: I'm going to the library. Do you want to come?

ST1: Sorry, but the class starts in five minutes.

ST2: See you later.

ST1: Good bye.

TC: OK. Very good. Thank you. You may get back to your seat.

(To the whole class) They did well. ... I have some comments. A student said 'I'm goods.' Thai students always mispronounce this. When the word ends with 's' you must pronounce the 's' sound, but if it doesn't...like 'I'm good'. Does it end with 's'? No.

(Turned to the speaker) You did well. You helped your friends know the common mistake. I'll tell you something. This morning I heard a TV host said 'Goods Morning Pa Plean'. Then I tried to search for the TV clip on the Internet but couldn't. It was good you said 'I'm goods', so I don't have to find it and can teach you all about this today. Most of my students say this phrase with 's', so it is very common. So, how should you say? (Said slowly) I'm good. I'm good. >>>explicit correction and encouragement

In Extract XXXVI, Stefani gave corrective feedback on the mispronunciation of 'good', which she said as part of her feedback that it was a common error among Thai students. Similarly, in the later observation, she corrected the misuse of the phrase 'I think so' when a student used this phrase to order the same dish as her friend in a situation where food was being ordered in a restaurant. She thought she needed to correct it because "many Thai students use it wrongly" (SM2).

Extracts XXXV and XXXVI also show a distinctive feature of her feedback style. As can be seen, she attempted to raise students' positive attitudes to mistakes. She often added encouragement as part of her corrective feedback. Her reasons for this are similar to those she had claimed in the background interview. Take Extract XXXVI as an example. She told Student 2 that his mistake was useful for his classmates and it was common to make mistakes. It was because she believes that "The classroom is a practice space. I kept telling them not to feel embarrassed because the more mistakes they made the more they learned" (SM1).

Furthermore, Extract XXXV and Extract XXXVI illustrate her common feedback type—explicit correction, which could hurt students' feelings. For this reason, it was

questionable that she focused on building student confidence, as she claimed in the background interview. When asked about this, she stated that she preferred to make her feedback explicit so that it did not confuse students. She said, "When I was a student, sometimes I didn't understand the teacher's feedback. So, I think it's better to make it as clear as possible for students" (SM1). Regarding the students' feelings, she believed she was careful about her words, so students would not feel intimidated. She brought up her learning experiences: "I never blamed students for making mistakes because I used to be blamed by my teachers and I felt so bad. I always tell them it's alright to make mistakes" (SM1). This implies that she believed her explicit correction did not negatively affect student confidence because she was careful of the words she used to convey feedback.

Considering her practices and interactive cognition, it can be said that the errors she corrected and the types of feedback she used were mainly influenced by real-world communication gleaned from her learning experiences. In the observations, she corrected more phonological errors than grammatical or lexical errors. This might be because her learning experience mostly involved phonological errors. As she pointed out, "I used my own experiences to see what errors to correct, mostly on mispronunciation" (SM2).

Regarding her feedback style, although it was observed that she mostly opted for explicit correction, which is potentially intimidating for students, she claimed that she used it because she wanted to give clear feedback and insisted that she still focused on student confidence by being careful about the words she used in giving feedback.

Post-practice cognition

As she had previously mentioned in the background interview, errors relevant to the lesson focus were also errors she would correct. Nevertheless, she rarely related errors she corrected to the lesson focus. When asked why, she stated, "I think errors that I used to experience in real communication are more important because they need it [the knowledge in relation to those errors] in their daily communication" (PO3). She seemed to confirm this belief when she said that, "Communication, for me, is for all English

speakers, not only the communication with me. There's no point in learning English if they can't use it in real life" (PO3).

Although she claimed that she tried not to discourage students from speaking, she seemed to correct a lot of errors compared to other teachers. When asked for her opinion about this, she said, "My first aim is to raise their confidence. But if I didn't correct their errors, they might make the same error again and again for the rest of their life" (PO3). This statement is in line with what she claimed in the previous interview about grammar in speaking, when she said, "No matter what areas of errors...grammar or pronunciation, I prefer students to know what is correct. So, I always think it's better to correct their errors" (PO2).

Again, she gave an example from her own experience: "I'd never known how to use the tenses correctly until I used them in real life" (PO3). This implies that she valued her experience of using English in the real context and it could be the reason why she supported correction relating to errors that could affect real-world communication.

It seems that Stefani acknowledged the possible adverse impact of corrective feedback on student confidence. However, she tended to value more its benefits for students' learning because she was once a student who seemed to demand correct information from her teachers. Her concerns about student confidence, nevertheless, still affect her corrective feedback in terms of how to give feedback. When asked for her views about whether she thought the idea of giving corrective feedback and maintaining students' confidence were contradictory, she said, "That's why almost every time I correct them, I try to tell them 'It's fine to make mistakes. Don't feel embarrassed. You're helping your friends (to have a chance to learn)'" (PO1).

Summary

It was evident that retaining student confidence and enhancing student motivation was what Stefani considered when giving corrective feedback. She seemed to balance this idea with her beliefs about the advantages of corrective feedback for students' learning. As can be seen, she preferred correcting all errors she considered important, both in

terms of curriculum goals and real-life communication. However, she seemed to focus more on errors that could affect communication. As for the way she gave feedback, she also tried to weigh the benefits of corrective feedback and its possible disadvantageous impact on students' confidence as well as students' attitudes to making mistakes. This was demonstrated in her frequent use of encouraging words to accompany her explicit corrections.

It can be concluded that her corrective feedback is driven by real-world communication, student confidence, and student motivation.

Appendix W: Emma's case study report

Emma: Student motivation, student confidence, real-world communication

Background information

Emma had a doctoral degree in Education, a master's degree in Applied Linguistics, and a bachelor's degree in French. With 12-year teaching experience, she had been assigned to teach various courses including speaking courses. The observed course was a fundamental English speaking and listening course focusing on basic skills in speaking and listening. There were about 40 students in the class. All of them were first year students.

Prior learning experiences

Emma revealed that she barely had a chance to practice speaking in the classroom when she was a student because of, according to her beliefs, the paper-based assessment which made the teachers focus too much on reading and writing skills rather than speaking and listening skills. She added that she was unimpressed by her classroom learning because "the teachers only expected to see the output while not providing enough input" (BG). She claimed that this was the reason she paid attention to students' output.

Teaching experiences

Her experience of teaching appeared to contribute to her different teaching focus with various proficiency levels of students. She gave an example of English major students and non-English major students "English major students are more active in speaking English; while non-English major students don't like me speaking English with them in the class" (BG). She added that she would be less strict with the latter group, saying "With non-English major students, I'd focus more on ideas (in the speech) more than accuracy" (BG). She added that her aim of teaching speaking was to raise student confidence and positive attitudes towards English, saying "I want them to have confidence and a positive attitude towards English. I don't believe that one course could develop all their English skills. If they have good attitudes, they can learn by themselves in the future" (BG).

As she previously mentioned, her teachers seemed to focus on the exam. When asked about effects of the exam on her teaching, she said "It's undeniable that the grades influence getting chances in the Thai society. I try to balance between teaching to serve the exam and the development of students' skills" (BG).

Professional coursework

Emma did not have an initial teacher training before starting the teaching career. However, her doctoral study in Education seemed to influence her belief about teaching speaking. She stated "The Ph.D. changed my attitudes towards speaking. I did a research in relation to native speakers' language which made me realise 100 percent correct grammar was not always necessary. It'd depend on the situation" (BG).

Pre-practice cognition

Although in the background interview Emma said she would be more error-tolerant with students of lower proficiency, when asked what kind of errors she would correct in the speaking classroom, she revealed "I'd consider what the lesson focus are and try to cover them first. But I'd correct other errors as well. And of course, if it's a higher-level course (such as intermediate or advanced courses), accuracy would be more highlighted" (BG). This implies that she would mainly consider the course objectives when making a decision on what to correct.

Asked about the way she would correct errors, she said "I'd direct my feedback to the whole class because I don't want to embarrass the speaker. I don't want to destroy their confidence. Just speaking out...I'd really appreciate it" (BG). She elaborated on her feedback style, saying "If a student made an error, I'd repeat what he said and then give the correct form. I wouldn't say 'You're wrong'" (BG). It could be said that she believed her feedback style was explicit correction.

Practices and interactive cognition

The lesson observations showed that Emma corrected errors in various areas i.e. phonological, lexical, and grammatical errors. It is interesting that in the background

interview, she said errors she would correct were those relevant to the course objectives. However, when she commented on the video segments of her corrective feedback, she referred to the errors as "errors students often make" and "what students should know". The examples are shown in Extract XXXVII and Extract XXXVIII.

Extract XXXVII: The activity aiming at introducing yourself (OB1)

ST: My name is Punya. You can call me Joe. I am studying Information and Computer /'mæn.edʒ.mənt/ (*Management*) >>>phonological error

TC: (turned to the class) Everyone. You still need more practice when you're going to say the word like 'management'. Your 'management' doesn't sound like 'management'. You often say /nedʒ/. 'We should say /mænɪdʒmənt/ >>> explicit correction

Extract XXXVII shows that Emma corrected the mispronounced 'management' although it did not affect the meaning and was not the lesson focus. She said "I corrected this word due to my teaching and learning experiences...I used to mispronounce the word 'manage' and my foreign friend corrected it for me. I wanted them to learn what I had learned" (SM1). It could be said that she applied her learning experiences to consider what students should know. In addition, as can be seen, she said "You often say /nedʒ/"(SM1). This implies that she her teaching experiences also contributed to her decision on what common were.

Extract XXXVIII: The conversation between the teacher and the class to introduce the lesson (OB1)

TC: What is the name of the unit?

ST: I am tall and *thin* (/tɪn/) >>>phonological error

TC: (to the class) I am tall and thin. When you say 'thin', pull out the tip of your tongue. Say it /θɪn/ >>>explicit correction

Class: /θɪn/

During the talk with the student, Emma corrected the mispronunciation of 'thin' because "the /θ/ sound can't be found in Thai. It's a common mistake" (SM1). Then

she added "Any sound I thought problematic for Thai students, I'd raise it up. It's from my teaching and learning experiences" (SM1).

As could be seen in Extract XXXVII and Extract XXXVIII, her justification of choosing the errors to correct highlighted her attempt to solve problems arising from students' utterance. It seemed that she would correct errors commonly made by students. This appears to contrast with the focus on the course objectives she claimed in the background interview. However, her correction styles seemed to accord with her pre-practice cognition.

In accordance with what she said in the background interview that she would be sensitive to student confidence. Therefore, she would direct the feedback to the class instead of the speaker. Her practices seemed to support her claims. As could be seen in Extract XXXVII and XXXVIII, she gave corrective feedback to the whole class. She commented on Extract XXXVIII "I think directing the feedback to the speaker is a double sword in the Thai context. They might be afraid of losing face if they don't have enough confidence" (SM1). Then she added "I intended not to focus my feedback to the speaker... it's challenging to give them feedback that doesn't discourage them. I tried to avoid the word 'wrong' because I was afraid they'd lose confidence" (SM1). This belief seemed to relate to her strategy to alleviate negative effects of her explicit correction on student confidence. As she commented on her explicit correction in Extract XXXVIII:

This student had problems with his tongue and teeth. He knew how to say it, but he couldn't because of the problems. I was afraid he'd be embarrassed, so I just talked to them (the class) and didn't comment on his performance. (SM1)

According to this statement, it seemed that Emma believed her explicit correction did not embarrass the speaker because she directed the correction to the whole class.

Apart from explicit correction, the observations also revealed her use of elicitations and recasts. The two types of feedback are shown in Extract XXXIX.

Extract XXXIX: The activity aiming at answering the question 'what is it used for?' (OB3)

ST: I prefer to use my *bag* (/bæk/)....to..... >>>phonological and grammatical error

TC: To what? What do you use your bag for? >>>elicitation

ST: I prefer to use my bag (/bæk/)....>>>phonological and grammatical error

TC: /bæg/. The sound is longer. If you said /bæk/ it means หลัง¹⁵. I prefer to use my bag to....to...? >>>explicit correction and elicitation

ST: (said nothing)

TC: to store books >>>recast

ST: to store books.

TC: I prefer to use my bag to store books. Right.

When asked what was happening when she said, 'To what?', Emma stated "She stopped speaking, but she was supposed to say further what the bag was used for. So, I tried to urge her to say it by giving her a clue" (SM3). When asked why she did not use elicitation with the mispronounced 'bag', she explained "If it was a mispronunciation, I'd correct it and have them repeat after because the error already occurred. But the incomplete sentence, I tried to have her to complete the sentence. If I completed it myself, I'd be my answers, not hers" (SM3).

The comments about her feedback on the mispronounced 'bag' and the incomplete sentence 'I prefer to use my bag' shows the signs of her preference for eliciting students' correction. Therefore, the reason for using explicit correction in Extract XXXVIII and XXXIX might have something to do with error types since in both situations the corrected errors were mispronunciation and she claimed that she would correct the error herself if it was a mispronunciation. However, considering her explanation that she used elicitation with the incomplete sentence 'I prefer to use my bag to...' because she wanted the speaker to complete it herself, it seemed that she tried to motivate the speaker to use existing knowledge to self-correct.

In contrast, in the case of mispronunciation, Emma said "When a student mispronounces, it means the correct one doesn't ingrain in his head. Whether he knows the correct pronunciation, his performance shows he doesn't get it right. So, I'll say the

¹⁵The back' in English

correct one for him" (SM3). This justification seems rational when later she gave an elicitation to the same incomplete sentence 'I prefer to use my bag to...'. She commented on her use of an elicitation "She didn't know how to say 'ใส่หนังสือ'¹⁶ in English. I heard her asking her friend how to say it and it seemed her friend couldn't help. I was afraid they'd go the wrong way" (SM3). This is another example of providing the correction herself when she assumed the speaker could not self-correct.

It could be seen that she tended to use explicit correction with mispronunciation; while using elicitation with errors of other linguistic areas when she believed students were likely to be able to self-correct. However, when there was a sign of inability to self-correct, such as remaining silent for a while, she tended to give a recast.

In sum, the factors affecting Emma's types of feedback emerged at this stage of cognition were student confidence and students' ability to self-correct. Regarding errors she believed should be corrected, it appeared that she referred to 'common errors' rather than 'errors relevant to the lesson focus' as she claimed in the background interview.

Post-practice cognition

According to the stimulated-recall interviews, Emma mentioned errors students often make and errors that students should know when asked about the reasons for correcting the students' errors. When asked again what errors she would correct in Post-Observation Interview 3, she revealed, "I'd response with students' problems while keeping the lesson aims...whatever I heard from students' speech...if it could improve the communication, I'd raise it up. I'd use students' language as the starting point" (PO3). She added "I'd try to correct errors of each student so that I could hit the nail on the head. I think they could be more motivated when the correction is from their own mistakes" (PO3).

As can be seen, it was revealed in her post-practice cognition that her belief about errors to correct seemed to focus on solving students' problems, and the reason behind this was to promote student motivation. This claim is in line with her justification of eliciting the correction from the student in Extract XXXIX. In addition, she wanted to

¹⁶ 'store books' in English

enhance students' attitudes towards English. She said in the post observation interview "I don't want them to have a worse attitude" (PO1).

Her belief about students' attitudes was also applied with the way she treated student errors. For example, when asked why she did not use elicitation with mispronunciation, she said "if it was a mispronunciation, I'd tell them the correct pronunciation to let them see the difference. I don't want to point out the mistake to make them feel bad" (PO3). Further asked whether she would be afraid of weakening their confidence when using elicitation, she seemed to believe that her elicitation did not affect student confidence because she gave it to the whole class, not directly to the speaker. She stated, "I like to have the peers help correct it to keep the positive atmosphere. I believe the teacher can create a good atmosphere by not making them lose face" (PO3). Then she added how she could use elicitation to raise the speaker's motivation, saying "When the friends helped, I'd go back to the speaker so that he could correct himself and feel a sense of accomplishment" (PO3).

It might be said that Emma's beliefs investigated in all three stages –pre-practice, interactive, and post-practice are related to one another. Each data source seems to strengthen her beliefs on students' confidence and motivation.

Summary

It could be seen that Emma's learning and teaching experiences shaped her beliefs about teaching speaking and giving corrective feedback in terms of her attempt to enhance student confidence and motivation. Although the course objectives seemed to influence the errors she would correct as she claimed that she would pay more attention to accuracy in students' language when teaching a higher-level course such as an intermediate or advance course, her practices and interactive cognition showed that more significant factors affecting her cognition on what to correct were real-world communication, student motivation and confidence. She considered herself as a problem solver who helped students know their own problems and learn from other students' problems. This resulted in her correction of common errors and errors student should be aware of. The drive behind these beliefs and practices of giving attention to students' personal problems seemed to be her aim of motivating students to learn English.

As for her types of feedback, it is evident that her concern over student confidence and attitudes mainly affected her choice of feedback types. She often opted for an explicit correction, especially when the error is related to mispronunciation, because she believed that students tended not to be able to correct themselves when mispronounced a word and they did not have to confront with elicitation when she gave an explicit correction. However, she did not refrain from using elicitation because she believed that it could be applied in an inoffensive way i.e. having peers correct the error instead of the speaker, and at the same time could be used to motivate the speaker by having him correct himself after getting the correct form from the class. According to all the data sources, it might be concluded that student motivation, student confidence formed her cognition about corrective feedback.

References

- Ababneh, I. (2018). English Pronunciation Errors Made by Saudi Students. *European Scientific Journal*, 14(2), 244-261.
- Agudo, J.D.M. (2014). Beliefs in learning to teach: EFL student teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback. *Utrecht Studies in Language and Communication*, 27, 209-230.
- Agustín Llach, M. P. (2005). A Critical Review of the Terminology and Taxonomies Used in the Literature on Lexical Errors. *Miscelánea: A Journal of English and American Studies*, 31, 11-24.
- Ahangari, S., & Amirzadeh, S. (2011). Exploring the teachers' use of spoken corrective feedback in teaching Iranian EFL learners at different levels of proficiency. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 29, 1859-1868.
- Akay, C. (2017). Turkish High School Students' English Demotivation and Their Seeking for Remotivation: A Mixed Method Research. *English Language Teaching*, 10(8), 107-122.
- Alderson, J. C. (2004). Foreword. In L. Cheng, Y. Watanabe, & A. Curtis, (Eds.) *Washback in language testing: Research contexts and methods*. (pp. ix-xii). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Alderson, J. C., & Wall, D. (1993). Does Washback Exist? *Applied Linguistics*, 14(2), 115-129.
- Alexander, P. A., Schallert, D. L., & Hare, V. C. (1991). Coming to terms: How researchers in learning and literacy talk about knowledge. *Review of Educational Research*, 61(3), 315-343.

- Al Shahrani, A. & Storch, N. (2014). Investigating teachers' written corrective feedback practices in a Saudi EFL context: How do they align with their beliefs, institutional guidelines, and students' preferences? *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 37(1), 101–122.
- Ammar, A., & Spada, N. (2006). One size fits all?: Recasts, Prompts, and L2 Learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(4), 543-574.
doi:10.1017/S0272263106060268
- Amrhein, H. R., & Nassaji, H. (2010). Written corrective feedback: What do students and teachers prefer and why? *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 13(2), 95–127.
- Anderson, J. R. (1985). *Cognitive Psychology and its Implications* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Freeman.
- Anderson-Hsieh, J., Johnson, R., & Koehler, K. (1992). The relationship between native speaker judgments of nonnative pronunciation and deviance in segmentals, prosody, and syllable structure. *Language Learning*, 42, 529-555.
- Anderson-Hsieh, J. & Koehler, K. (1988). The effect of foreign accent and speaking rate on native speaker comprehension. *Language Learning*, 38(4), 561-613.
- Andrews, S. (2003). Just like instant noodles: L2 teachers and their beliefs about grammar pedagogy. *Teachers and Teaching*, 9(4), 351–375.
- Armstrong, D., Gosling, A., Weinman, J., & Marteau, T. (1997). The Place of Inter-Rater Reliability in Qualitative Research: *An Empirical Study*. *Sociology-the Journal of The British Sociological Association – SOCIOLOGY*, 31, 597-606.

- Art-in, S. (2014). The development of teacher training curriculum on learning management to develop students' analytical thinking in Thailand. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 116, 939–945.
- Astuti, S. P. (2016). Exploring Motivational Strategies of Successful Teachers. *TEFLIN Journal: A Publication on The Teaching and Learning of English*, 27(1), 1-22.
- Au, W. (2008). "Between Education and the Economy: High-stakes Testing and the Contradictory Location of the New Middle Class." *Journal of Education Policy*, 23 (5), 501–513.
- Aydin, S. (2012). Factors Causing Demotivation in EFL Teaching Process: A Case Study. *Qualitative Report*, 17(51), 1-13.
- Bachman, L. (1990). *Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Bailey, K. M. (1996). Working for washback: A review of the washback concept in language testing. *Language Testing*, 13(3), 257-279.
- Baker, A. (2011). Discourse prosody and teachers' stated beliefs and practices. *TESOL Journal*, 2(3), 263-292.
- Baker, A., & Burri, M. (2016). Feedback on Second Language Pronunciation: A Case Study of EAP Teachers' Beliefs and Practices. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 41(6), p. 1-20.
- Baker, W. (2008). A Critical Examination of ELT in Thailand. *RELC Journal*, 39(1), 131-146.
- Baleghizadeh, S., & Shahri, M. N. N. (2014). EFL teachers' conceptions of speaking competence in English. *Teachers and Teaching*, 20(6), 738-754.

- Bamgbose, A. (1998). Torn between the norms: Innovations in world Englishes. *World Englishes*, 17(1), 1-14.
- Bandura, A. (1995). Exercise of personal and collective efficacy in changing societies. In: A. Bandura, (Ed.), *Self-efficacy in changing societies* (pp. 1-45). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Bandura, A. (2012). On the Functional Properties of Perceived Self-Efficacy Revisited. *Journal of Management*, 38(1), 9-44.
- Bansal, R. K. (1969). *The Intelligibility of Indian English: Measurements of the Intelligibility of Connected Speech, and Sentence and Word Material, Presented to Listeners of Different Nationalities*. Hyderabad, India: Central Institute of English.
- Barcelos, A. M. F., & Kalaja, P. (2011). Introduction to Beliefs about SLA revisited. *System*, 39(3), 281–289.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Stringer, D. (2010). Variables in second language attrition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32(1), 1-45.
- Basturkmen, H. (2012). Review of research into the correspondence between language teachers' stated beliefs and practices. *System*, 40, 282–295.
<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2012.05.001>
- Basturkmen, H., Loewen, S., & Ellis, R. (2004). Teachers' Stated Beliefs about Incidental Focus on Form and their Classroom Practices. *Applied Linguistics*, 25(2), 243-272.
- Baumgardner, R. J. (2006). The appeal of English in Mexican commerce. *World Englishes*, 25(2), 251–266.
- Bax, S. (2003). The end of CLT: a context approach to language teaching. *ELT Journal*, 57(3), 278-287.

- Bazeley, P. (2013). *Qualitative data analysis: practical strategies*. London, UK: Sage.
- Beach, S. A. (1994). Teachers' theories and classroom practice: beliefs, knowledge, or context? *Reading Psychology, 15*, 189-196.
- Bian, F. (2013). The Influence of Chinese Stress on English Pronunciation Teaching and Learning. *English Language Teaching, 6*(11), 199-211.
- Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., & Finegan, E. (1999). *Longman grammar of spoken and written English*. Harlow, UK: Longman.
- Birello, M. (2012). Teacher Cognition and Language Teacher Education: beliefs and practice A conversation with Simon Borg. *Bellaterra Journal of Teaching & Learning Language & Literature, 5*, 88–94.
<http://doi.org/10.5565/253372>
- Birjandi, P., & Shirkhani, S. (2012). The Washback Effect of Konkoor on Teachers' Attitudes toward Their Teaching. *Journal on English Language Teaching, 2*(1), 49-56.
- Birch, G. (2005). Balancing Fluency, Accuracy and Complexity Through Task Characteristics. In Edwards C., Willis J. (Eds) *Teachers Exploring Tasks in English Language Teaching*. London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Bloom, B. (1953). Thought-processes in lectures and discussions. *The Journal of General Education, 7*(3), 160-169. Retrieved October 5, 2018, from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/27795429>
- Bolton K. (2013). 'World Englishes, globalisation, and language worlds.' In Johannesson N.-L. and Melchers G. (eds), *Of Butterflies and Birds, of Dialects and Genres: Essays in Honour of Philip Shaw* (pp. 227–252). Stockholm, Sweden: Acta Universitatis Stockholmiensis.

- Borg, M. (2001). Key concepts in ELT. Teachers' beliefs. *ELT Journal*, 55(2), 186–188
- Borg, S. (1998). Teachers' Pedagogical Systems and Grammar Teaching: A Qualitative Study. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 9-38. doi:10.2307/3587900
- Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe and do. *Language Teaching*, 36(2), 81-109.
- Borg, S. (2006). *Teacher cognition and language education: Research and practice*. London, UK: Continuum.
- Borg, S. (2009). *Introducing language teacher cognition*. Retrieved from <http://www.education.leeds.ac.uk/research/files/145.pdf>
- Borg, S. (2011). The impact of in-service teacher education on language teachers' beliefs. *System*, 39(3), 370-380.
- Brinton, D. (2013). Tools and techniques of effective second/foreign language teaching. In M. Celce-Murcia, D. M. Brinton, & M. A. Snow. *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (4th revised ed.). Boston, MA: Cengage Learning.
- Brennan, Eileen, & Brennan, John. (1981). Accent Scaling and Language Attitudes: Reactions to Mexican American English Speech. *Language and Speech*, 24(3), 207-221.
- Brown, H. (1994). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Brown, D. (2014). The type and linguistic foci of oral corrective feedback in the L2 classroom: A meta-analysis. *Language Teaching Research*, 20(4), 436-458. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1362168814563200>

- Brown, D. (2016). The type and linguistic foci of oral corrective feedback in the L2 classroom: A meta-analysis. *Language Teaching Research*, 20(4), 436–458.
- Brumfit, C. J. (1984). *Communicative Methodology in Language Teaching: The Roles of Accuracy and Fluency*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Bruner, D. A., Sinwongsawat, K., & Shimray, Y. P. (2014). Thai-Serbian A2 university EFL learners' perspectives on learning and teaching oral English communication skills. In P. Subphadoongchone (Ed), *The 34th Thailand TESOL International Conference Proceedings 2014* (pp. 13-34). Chiang Mai, Thailand: TESOL Thailand.
- Bryman, A. (2008). *Social Research Methods* (3rd ed.). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Buck, G. (1988). Testing listening comprehension in Japanese university entrance examinations. *JALT Journal*, 10, 15-42.
- Burkhardt, H., & Schoenfeld, A. H. (2003). Improving Educational Research: Toward a More Useful, More Influential, and Better-Funded Enterprise. *Educational Researcher*, 32(9), 3-14.
- Burrows, C. (2004). Washback in classroom-based assessment: A study of the washback effect in the Australian adult migrant English program. In Cheng, L. and Watanabe, Y. (Eds), *Washback in language testing* (pp. 113–128). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Burt, M. K. (1975). Error analysis in the adult EFL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 9(1), 53-63.

- Burt, M.K., & Kiparsky, C. (1978). Global and local mistakes, in J. Schumann & N. Stenson (Eds.). *New frontiers in second language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishing, Inc.
- Busch, D. (2010). Pre-service teacher beliefs about language learning: The second language acquisition course as an agent for change. *Language Teaching Research*, 14(3), 318–337.
- Butler, Y. G. (2011). The implementation of communicative and task-based language teaching in the asia-pacific region. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 31, 36-57.
- Buyukkeles, G. (2016). *The washback effect of a high-stakes exit test on students' motivation in a Turkish pre-university EFL preparatory school*. (Master's dissertation). University of Reading, Reading, UK.
- Cabaroglu, N. & J. Roberts (2000). Development in student teachers' pre-existing beliefs during a 1-Year PGCE programme. *System*, 28(3), 387–402.
- Canagarajah, A. (1999). *Resisting linguistic imperialism in English teaching*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 1-47.
- Çapan, S. A. (2014). Pre-Service English as a Foreign Language Teachers' Belief Development about Grammar Instruction. *AJTE*, 39(12), 131-152.
- Carrasquillo, A. L. (1994). *Teaching English as a Second Language: A Resource Guide*. New York, NY: Garland Pub.
- Catford, J. (1950). Intelligibility. *ELT Journal*, 1(1), 7-15.

- Celce-Murcia, M., Brinton, D.M. & Goodwin, J.M. (2010). *Teaching pronunciation: A course book and reference guide* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Celce-Murcia, M., Brinton, D.M. & Snow, M. A. (2013). *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (4th revised ed.). Boston, MA: Cengage Learning.
- Chandavimol, M. (1987). Vocational Science Curriculum Development in Thailand. *Education, Industry and Technology*, 107–109.
- Chastain, K. (1980), Native Speaker Reaction to Instructor-Identified Student Second-Language Errors. *The Modern Language Journal*, 64(2), 210–215.
- Chaudron, C. (1986). Teachers' priorities in correcting learners' errors in French immersion classes. In R. R. Day (Ed.), *Talking to learn: Conversation in second language acquisition* (pp. 64-84). Cambridge, MA: Newbury House.
- Cheng, H., & Dornyei, Z. (2007). The use of motivational strategies in language instruction: The case of EFL teaching in Taiwan. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 1, 153–174.
- Cheng, L. (1997). How Does Washback Influence Teaching? Implications for Hong Kong. *Language and Education*, 11(1), 38-54.
- Chiu, H. H. (2008). *Practical understandings: Teachers' beliefs and practices in pronunciation teaching* (Master's thesis). University of Texas, Austin, Texas.
- Choi, I. (2008). The impact of EFL testing on EFL education in Korea. *Language Testing*, 25(1), 39–62.

- Choi, K., & Jeon, Y. J. (2016). *Suggestion on Teachers' Beliefs Research on Teaching English as a Lingua Franca*. 2016 International Conference on Platform Technology and Service (PlatCon), Jeju, 2016, 1-4. doi: 10.1109/PlatCon.2016.7456828
- Choi, S., & Li, S. (2012). Corrective Feedback and Learner Uptake in a Child ESOL Classroom. *RELC Journal: A Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 43(3), 331-351.
- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge, MA: M.I.T. Press.
- Chu, H. Y. (2009). *Stakes, needs and washback: An investigation of the English benchmark policy for graduation and EFL education at two technological universities in Taiwan* (Doctoral dissertation). National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan.
- Clandinin, D. J., & Connelly, F. M. (1987). Teachers' personal knowledge: What counts as "personal" in studies of the personal. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 19(6), 487-500.
- Clark, J. L. (1987). *Curriculum Renewal in School Foreign Language Learning*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Clark, C. M., & Peterson, P. L. (1986). Teachers' thought processes. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (pp. 255-296). New York, NY: Macmillan.
- Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. A. (1994). Motivation, Self-confidence, and Group Cohesion in the Foreign Language Classroom. *Language Learning*, 44(3), 417-448.

- Cogo A. (2012). English as a Lingua Franca: concepts, use, and implications. *ELT Journal*, 66(1), 97–105.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Collentine, J., & Freed, B. (2004). Learning context and its effects on second language acquisition: Introduction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 26(2), 153-171. doi:10.1017/S027226310426201
- Connelly, F., & Clandinin, D. (1990). Stories of Experience and Narrative Inquiry. *Educational Researcher*, 19(5), 2-14. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1176100>
- Cook, G. (1998). The Uses of Reality: A Reply to Ronald Carter. *ELT Journal*, 52(1), 57-63.
- Cooper, J. E., Brandon, P. R., & Lindberg, M. A. (1998). Evaluators' Use of Peer Debriefing: Three Impressionist Tales. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 4(2), 265-279. doi:10.1177/107780049800400207
- Corder, S. P. (1967). The significance of learners' errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 5, 160-170.
- Corder, S. P. (1974). Idiosyncratic dialects and error analysis. In J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Error analysis: perspectives on second language acquisition* (pp. 158-171). London, UK: Longman.
- Corder, S. P. (1975). Error Analysis, Interlanguage and Second Language Acquisition. *Language Teaching & Linguistics*, 8(4), 201-218.
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Creswell, J. W. (2015). *A Concise Introduction to Mixed Methods Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Crookes, G., & Arakaki, L. (1999). Teaching Idea Sources and Work Conditions in an ESL Program. *TESOL Journal*, 8(1), 15-19.
- Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. London, UK: Sage.
- Crystal, D. (1999). The future of Englishes. *English Today*, 15(2), 10-20.
- Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a global language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Crystal, D. (2003). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics* (5th ed.). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Cullen, R., & Kuo, I. C. (2007). Spoken grammar and ELT course materials: a missing link? *TESOL Quarterly*, 41(2), 361-386.
- Cunningham, W., & Sanzo, T. (2002). "Is High-stakes Testing Harming Lower Socio-economic Schools?" *National Association of Secondary School Principals NASSP Bulletin*, 86(631), 62-75.
- Darasawang, P. (2007). English Language Teaching and Education in Thailand: A Decade of Change. In D. Prescott (Ed.), *English in Southeast Asia: Varieties, Literacies and Literatures* (pp. 187-204). Newcastle, UK: Cambridge Scholars.
- Darasawang P., Reinders H., & Waters A. (2015). Innovation in Language Teaching: The Thai Context. In: Darasawang P., Reinders H. (Eds) *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching. New Language Learning and Teaching Environments* (pp. 1-14). London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Davis, A. (2003). Teachers' and Students' Beliefs Regarding Aspects of Language Learning. *Evaluation & Research in Education*, 17(4), 207-222.
- Debreli, E., & Onuk, N. (2016). The Influence of Educational Programme on Teachers' Error Correction Preferences in the Speaking Skill: Insights from English as a Foreign Language Context. *International Education Studies*, 9(6), 76-85.
- De Keyser, R. M. (1993). The Effect of Error Correction on L2 Grammar Knowledge and Oral Proficiency. *The Modern Language Journal*, 77, 501-514.
- Demir, Y., & Özmen, K. S. (2017). Exploring Native and Non-Native EFL Teachers' Oral Corrective Feedback Practices: An Observational Study. *Brock Education: A Journal of Educational Research and Practice*, 26(2), 111-129.
- Derrick, D., Paquot, M., & Plonsky, L. (2018). Interlingual vs. Intralingual errors. In J. Lontas (Ed.), *The TESOL Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching* (pp. 1-6). Malden, MA: Wiley.
- Derwing, T. M., & Munro, M. J. (1997). Accent, Intelligibility, and Comprehensibility: Evidence from Four L1s. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19(1), 1-16.
- Derwing, T. M., & Munro, M. J. (2005). Second Language Accent and Pronunciation Teaching: A Research-Based Approach. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39(3), 379-397.
- Deterding, D. (2011). *English language teaching and the lingua franca core in East Asia*. Proceedings of the International Conference of Phonetic Sciences, 17, 92–95.

- Deterding, D., & Kirkpatrick, A. (2006). Emerging South-East Asian Englishes and intelligibility. *World Englishes*, 25(34), 391-409.
- Dewey, M. (2012). Towards a post-normative approach: Learning the pedagogy of ELF. *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*, 1(1), 141-170.
- Diab, R. L. (2007). Error correction and feedback in the EFL writing classroom: comparing instructor and student preferences. *English Teaching Forum*, 44(3), 172-185.
- Diener, E., & Crandall, R. (1978). *Ethics in social and behavioral research*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Dilans, G. (2011). Corrective Feedback and L2 Vocabulary Development: Prompts and Recasts in the Adult ESL Classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review/ La Revue Canadienne Des Langues Vivantes*, 66(6), 787–816. <http://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.66.6.787>
- Dittmar, N. (1976). *Sociolinguistics: A critical survey of theory and application*. London, UK: Edward Arnold.
- Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and Motivating in the Foreign Language Classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78, 273-284.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Csizer, K. (1998). Ten commandments for motivating language learners: Results of an empirical study. *Language Teaching Research*, 2, 203–229.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

- Dörnyei, Z. (2003). Attitudes, orientations, and motivations in language learning: Advances in theory, research, and applications. In Z. Dörnyei (Ed.), *Attitudes, orientations and motivations in language learning* (pp. 3-32). Oxford, UK: Blackwell.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Csizer, K. (1998). Ten commandments for motivating language learners: Results of an empirical study. *Language Teaching Research*, 2, 203–229.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Otto, I. (1998). Motivation in action: A process model of L2 motivation. *Working Papers in Applied Linguistics*, 4, 43-69.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2011). *Teaching and researching motivation* (2nd ed). Harlow, UK: Longman.
- Doughty, C., & Varela, E. (1998). Communicative focus on form. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 114–138). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Dulay, H.C. & Burt, M.K. (1974). Errors and strategies in child second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly*, 8(2), 129-136.
- Dulay, H. C, Burt, M.K., & Krashen, S. (1982). *Language Two*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Dueraman, B. (2013). Focus on Thai learners of English: Their self-reports about foreign language learning. *International Research Journal of Arts and Social Sciences*, 2(7), 176-186.
- Edge, J. (1989). *Mistakes and Correction*. London, UK: Longman.

- EF English proficiency index. (2017). Retrieved from <https://www.ef.co.uk/epi/regions/asia/thailand/>
- Eisenstein, M. R. (1983). Native reactions to non-native speech: A review of empirical research. *Studies in Second Language Acquisitions*, 5(2), 160-176.
- Eisenhart, M. A., Shrum, J. L., Harding, J. R., & Cuthbert, A. M. (1988). Teacher Beliefs: Definitions, Findings, and Directions. *Educational Policy*, 2(1), 51-70.
- Elbaz, F. (1981). The Teacher's "Practical Knowledge": Report of a Case Study. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 11(1), 43-71.
- Ellis, R. (1990). *Instructed second language acquisition: Learning in the classroom*. Oxford. Cambridge, MA: Basil Blackwell.
- Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition* (2nd ed.). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2009). Regional studies. *Language Teaching Research*, 13(4), 451.
- Ellis, R. (2009). Corrective Feedback and Teacher Development. *L2 Journal*, 1, 3-18.
- Ellis, R. (2013). Corrective feedback in teacher guides and SLA. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research*, 1(3), 1-18.
- Ellis, R., & Barkhuizen, G. (2005). *Analysing Learner Language*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R., Loewen, S., & Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(2), 339-368.

- Ellis, R., & Sheen, Y. (2006). Reexamining the role of recasts in second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(4), 575-600.
- Ellis, R., & Shintani, N. (2013). *Exploring Language Pedagogy through Second Language Acquisition Research*. Oxford, UK: Routledge.
- Emmer, E., & Stough, L. (2001). Classroom Management: A Critical Part of Educational Psychology, With Implications for Teacher Education. *Educational Psychologist*, 36(2), 103-112.
- Ensz, K. (1982). French Attitudes toward Typical Speech Errors of American Speakers of French. *Modern Language Journal*, 66(2), 133-139.
- Erfani, S. S. (2012). A Comparative Washback Study of IELTS and TOEFL iBT on Teaching and Learning Activities in Preparation Courses in the Iranian Context. *English Language Teaching*, 5(8), 185-195.
- Esra, H.B., Cem, B., & Pasa, T.C. (2016). Perceptions of English Instructors and Learners about Corrective Feedback. *European Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 1(1), 54 -68.
- Falhasiri, M., Tavakoli, M., Hasiri, F., & Mohammadzadeh, A. R. (2011). The Effectiveness of Explicit and Implicit Corrective Feedback on Interlingual and Intralingual Errors: A Case of Error Analysis of Students' Compositions. *English Language Teaching*, 4(3), 251-264.
- Falout, J., Elwood, J., & Hood, M. (2009). Demotivation: Affective states and learning outcomes. *System*, 37(3), 403-417.
- Fanselow, J. F. (1977). The Treatment of Error in Oral Work. *Foreign Language Annals*, 10, 583-593. doi:10.1111/j.1944-9720.1977.tb03035.x

- Farrell, T. S.C. (2012). Novice-Service Language Teacher Development: Bridging the Gap Between Preservice and In-Service Education and Development. *TESOL Quarterly*, 46(3), 435-449.
- Farrell, T.S.C., & Bennis, K. (2013). Reflecting on ESL Teacher Beliefs and Classroom Practices: A Case Study. *RELC Journal*, 44(2), 163-176.
- Farrell, T.S.C & Ives, J. (2014). Exploring teacher beliefs and classroom practices through reflective practice: A case study. *Language Teaching Research*, 19(5), 594-610.
- Farrell, T. S. C., & Kun, S. T. K. (2008). Language policy, language teachers' beliefs, and classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics*, 29(3), 381–403.
<http://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amm050>
- Farrokh, P. (2011). Analysing of EFL learners' linguistic errors: evidence from Iranian translation trainees. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 1(6), 676-680.
- Feng, J. (2015). Overview of Languages in Taiwan. In F. V. Tochon (Ed.), *Language Education Policy Studies* (online). Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin-Madison. Retrieved from:
<http://www.languageeducationpolicy.org>
- Fenstermacher, G. D. (1994). The Knower and the Known: The Nature of Knowledge in Research on Teaching. *Review of Research in Education*, 20, 3-56. <http://doi.org/10.3102/0091732X020001003>
- Feryok, A. (2010). Language teacher cognitions: Complex dynamic systems? *System*, 38(2), 272–279. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2010.02.001>
- Field, J. (2005). Intelligibility and the Listener: The Role of Lexical Stress. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39, 399–423.

- Firth, A. (1996). The discursive accomplishment of normality: On 'lingua franca' English and conversation analysis. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 26(2), 237-259.
- Fleming, D., Bangou, F., & Fellus, O. (2011). ESL teacher-candidates' beliefs about language. *TESL Canada Journal*, 29(1), 39-56.
- Flick, U. (1998). *An introduction to qualitative research*. London, UK: Sage.
- Floden, R., & Clark, C. (1988). Preparing teachers for uncertainty. *Teachers College Record*, 89(4), 506-524.
- Foley, J. A. (2007). English as a Global Language: My Two Satangs' Worth. *RELC Journal: A Journal of Language Teaching and Research in Southeast Asia*, 38(1), 7-17.
- Folse, K.S. (2006). *The art of teaching speaking*. Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.
- Freeborn, D. (1992). *From Old English to standard English: A course book in language variation across time*. London, UK: Palgrave.
- Freeman, D. (2002). The hidden side of the work: Teacher knowledge and learning to teach. *Language Teaching*, 35, 1–13.
- Frey, L., Botan, C., & Kreps, G. (1999). *Investigating communication: An introduction to research methods*. (2nd ed.) Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Friedrich, P. (2002). Teaching world Englishes in two South American countries. *World Englishes*, 21(3), 441–444. doi:10.1111/1467-971X.00263
- Fujiwara, T. (2015). Development of Thai university students' beliefs about language learning: A longitudinal study. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 171, 1081-1087. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.01.269>

- Gaitas, S., & Alves Martins, M. (2014). Relationships between primary teachers' beliefs and their practices in relation to writing instruction. *Research Papers in Education*, 30(4), 492-505. doi:10.1080/02671522.2014.908406
- Galloway, N. (2013). Global Englishes and English language teaching (ELT)—bridging the gap between theory and practice in a Japanese context. *System*, 41(3), 786–803.
- Galloway, N., & Rose, H. (2014). Using listening journals to raise awareness of Global Englishes in ELT. *ELT Journal*, 68(4), 386–396.
- Galloway, N., & Rose, H. (2015). *Introducing Global Englishes*. Oxon, UK: Routledge.
- Ganjabi, M. (2011). Effective Foreign Language Teaching: a Matter of Iranian Students' and Teachers' Beliefs. *English Language Teaching*, 4(2). doi:10.5539/elt.v4n2p46
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London, UK: Edward Arnold.
- Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Gardner, R. C., Tremblay, P. A., & Masgoret, A. (1997). Towards a full model of second language learning: An empirical investigation. *Modern Language Journal*, 81, 344–362.
- Gass, S. M., & Mackey, A. (2000). *Stimulated recall methodology in second language research*. Mahwah, NJ: L. Erlbaum Associates.
- Gass, S. M., Mackey, A., & Pica, T. (1998). The role of input and interaction in second language acquisition: introduction to the special issue. *Modern*

Language Journal, 82(3), 299-307. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1998.tb01206.x>

- Gass, S., & Varonis, E. M. (1984). The effect of familiarity on the comprehensibility of nonnative speech. *Language Learning*, 34, 65–87.
- Gibson, W. J. & Brown, A. (2009). *Working with qualitative data*. London, UK: SAGE
- Gil, J. (2016). English Language Education Policies in the People's Republic of China. In R., Kirkpatrick (Ed.), *English language education policy in Asia* (pp.49-90). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.
- Given, L. M. (2008). *The Sage encyclopedia of qualitative research methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Goh, C. (2009). Perspectives on spoken grammar. *ELT Journal*, 63(4), 303-312.
- Golombek, P. R. (1998), A Study of Language Teachers' Personal Practical Knowledge. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(3), 447-464. doi:10.2307/3588117
- Golombek, P. R., & Johnson, K. E. (2004). Narrative inquiry as a mediation space: Examining emotional and cognitive dissonance in second-language teachers' development. *Teachers and Teaching*, 10, 307-327.
- Goodwin, J. (2014). Teaching Pronunciation. In Celce-Murcia, M., Brinton, Donna, & Snow, Marguerite Ann. (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language (4th revised ed.)*. (pp. 136-152). Boston, MA: Cengage Learning.
- Gooskens, C. (2007). The Contribution of Linguistic Factors to the Intelligibility of Closely Related Languages. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 28(6), 445-467.

- Gradman, H.L., & Hanania, E. (1991). Language Learning Background Factors and ESL Proficiency. *The Modern Language Journal*, 75(1), 39-51.
- Graus, J., & Coppen, P. (2016). Student teacher beliefs on grammar instruction. *Language Teaching Research*, 20(5), 571-599.
- Green, A. (2007). *IELTS washback in context: Preparation for academic writing in higher education. Studies in Language Testing 25*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press and Cambridge ESOL.
- Green, A. (2013) Washback in language assessment. *International Journal of English Studies*, 13(2), 39-51.
- Grombczewska, M. (2011). The Relationship Between Teacher's Feedback and Students' Motivation. *Humanising Language Teaching*, 13(3), Retrieved February, 26, 2018, from <http://www.hltmag.co.uk/jun11/stud.htm>
- Grossman, P. L. (1989). A Study in Contrast: Sources of Pedagogical Content Knowledge for Secondary English. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 40(5), 24-31.
- Griffiths, R. (1990). Speech rate and NNS comprehension A preliminary study in time benefit analysis. *Language Learning*, 40, 311-336.
- Guchte, M., Braaksma, M.; Rijlaarsdam, G.; Bimmel, P. (2015). Learning New Grammatical Structures in Task-Based Language Learning: The Effects of Recasts and Prompts. *Modern Language Journal*, 99(2), 246-262.
- Gudmundsdottir, S., & Shulman, L. (1987). Pedagogical content knowledge in social studies. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 31, 59-70.
- Guest, G., MacQueen, K. M. & Namey, E. E. (2012). *Applied thematic analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Guilloteaux, M. J., & Dornyei, Z. (2008). Motivating language learners: A classroom-oriented investigation of the effects of motivational strategies on student motivation. *TESOL Quarterly*, 42, 55–77.
- Gurzynski-Weiss, L. (2010). *Factors Influencing Oral Corrective Feedback Provision in the Spanish Foreign Language Classroom: Investigating Instructor Native/Nonnative Speaker Status, SLA Education, & Teaching Experience* (Doctoral thesis). Georgetown University, USA.
- Gurzynski-Weiss, L. (2016). Factors Influencing Spanish Instructors' In-Class Feedback Decisions. *Modern Language Journal*, 100(1), 255-275.
- Gurzynski-Weiss, L. & Révész, A. (2012). Tasks, Teacher Feedback, and Learner Modified Output in Naturally Occurring Classroom Interaction. *Language Learning*, 62, 851-879. doi:[10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00716.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00716.x)
- Hahn, L. D. (2004). Primary Stress and Intelligibility: Research to Motivate the Teaching of Suprasegmentals. *TESOL Quarterly*, 38(2), 201-223.
- Hahn, L. & Watts, P. (2011). (Un)Intelligibility Tales. In J. Levis & K. LeVelle (Eds.). *Proceedings of the 2nd Pronunciation in Second Language Learning and Teaching Conference*, Sept. 2010. (pp. 17-29), Ames, IA: Iowa State University.
- Hall, W.C. (1975). Models for curriculum development. *Vestis*, 18(1), 62–69.
- Han, Z. (2002). A Study of the Impact of Recasts on Tense Consistency in L2 Output. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36(4), 543-572.
- Harding, J. (2013). *Qualitative data analysis from start to finish*. London, UK: Sage.
- Harmer, J. (2007). *How to teach English* (4th ed.). London, UK: Longman.

- Harper, M., & Cole, P. (2012). Member checking: Can benefits be gained similar to group therapy? *The Qualitative Report*, 17, 510–517.
- Hassan, F., & Fauzee, S. N. (2002). Why aren't students proficient in ESL: The teachers' perspective. *The English Teacher*, 31, 107-123. Retrieved January, 24, 2018, from <https://journals.melta.org.my/index.php/tet/article/view/362/252>
- Hassankiadeh, G.M.A., Jahanda, S., & Khodabandehlou, M. (2012). The effect Of teachers' lexicon teaching beliefs on EFL learners' vocabulary intake. *Journal of Education and Learning*, 1(2), 155-167.
- Hatipoglu, C. (2016). The Impact of the University Entrance Exam on EFL Education in Turkey: Pre-service English Language Teachers' Perspective. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 232, 136-144.
- Hativa, N., Barak, R., & Simhi, E. (2001). Exemplary university teachers: Knowledge and beliefs regarding effective teaching dimensions and strategies. *Journal of Higher Education*, 72, 699–729.
- Hattie, J. A. C. (2009). *Visible learning: A synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses relating to achievement*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Havranek, G., & Cesnik, H. (2001). Factors affecting the success of corrective feedback. *Eurosla Yearbook*, 1(1), 99-122.
- Hendrickson, J. M. (1980). The Treatment of Error in Written Work. *The Modern Language Journal*, 64(2), 216-221. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.1980.tb05188.x
- Havranek, G. (2002). When Is Corrective Feedback Most Likely to Succeed? *International Journal of Educational Research*, 37(3-4), 255-270.

- Hayes, D. (2016). The value of learning English in Thailand and its impact on Thai: perspectives from university students. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 36(1), 73-91.
- Hayes, D. (2010). Language learning, teaching and educational reform in rural Thailand: an English teacher's perspective. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 30(3), 305-319.
- Hayes-Harb, R., & Watzinger-Tharp, J. (2012). Accent, Intelligibility, and the Role of the Listener: Perceptions of English-Accented German by Native German Speakers. *Foreign Language Annals*, 45(2), 260-282.
- He, D., & Zhang, Q. (2010). Native speaker norms and China English: From the perspective of learners and teachers in China. *TESOL Quarterly*, 44(4), 769–789.
- Henderson, L., & Tallman, J. (2006). *Stimulated Recall and Mental Models*. Lanham, MD: The Scarecrow Press.
- Hernández Méndez, E. & Reyes Cruz, M. (2012). Teachers' Perceptions about Oral Corrective Feedback and Their Practice in EFL Classrooms. *PROFILE: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, 14(2), 63-75.
- Hilliard, A. (2014). Spoken grammar and its role in the English language classroom. *English Teaching Forum*, 52(4), 2-13.
- Hirst, P. (1969). The logic of the curriculum. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 1, 142-158.
- Holliday, A. (1994). *Appropriate methodology and social context*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

- Holliday, A. (2016). Appropriate methodology: towards a cosmopolitan approach. In G. Hall (Ed.), *Routledge handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 265-277). London, UK: Routledge.
- Hooper, R. (1971). *The curriculum: Context, design and development; readings*. Edinburgh, UK: Oliver & Boyd.
- Hornstra, L., Mansfield, C., Van der Veen, I., Peetsma, T., & Volman, M. (2015). Motivational teacher strategies: The role of beliefs and contextual factors. *Learning Environments Research*, 18(3), 363-392.
- Horwitz, E. K. (1985). Using Student Beliefs About Language Learning and Teaching in the Foreign Language Methods Course. *Foreign Language Annals*, 18, 333–340.
- Howe, K., & Dougherty, K. (1993). Ethics, IRB's, and the changing face of educational research. *Educational Researcher*, 22(9), 16-21.
- Hufton, N. R., Elliott, J. G., & Illushin, L. (2003). Teachers' beliefs about student motivation: similarities and differences across cultures. *Comparative Education*, 39(3), 367-389.
- Hughes, A. (1989). *Testing for Language Teachers*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Hughes, A. (1990). *Testing for language teachers*. Glasgow, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Hughes, A., Trudgill, P., Watt, D. (2013). *English Accents and Dialects*. Oxford, UK: Routledge.
- Hughes, R. (2011). *Teaching and researching speaking* (2nd ed.). Essex, UK: Longman.

- Hunter, J. (2012). 'Small Talk': Developing fluency, accuracy, and complexity in speaking. *ELT Journal*, 66(1), 30-41.
- Hyland, K., & Anan, E. (2006). Teachers' perceptions of error: The effects of first language and experience. *System*, 34(4), 509-519.
doi:10.1016/j.system.2006.09.001
- Hymes, D. H. (1971). On linguistic theory, communicative competence, and the education of disadvantaged children. In M.L. Wax, S.A. Diamond & F. Gearing (Eds.), *Anthropological perspectives on education* (pp. 51-66). New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Hymes, D. H. (1972). On communicative competence. In J.B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics: selected readings* (pp. 269-293). London, UK: Penguin.
- Iemjinda, M. (2003). *Task-based learning and curriculum innovation in a Thai EFL context* (Doctoral dissertation). University of Tasmania, Australia.
- Irvine-Niakaris, C. (2011). *Teaching reading in English as a Foreign Language: A language teacher cognition study* (Doctoral thesis). University of Bristol, UK.
- Irvine-Niakaris, C., & Kiely, R. (2014). Reading Comprehension in Test Preparation Classes: An Analysis of Teachers' Pedagogical Content Knowledge in TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 49(2), 369-392.
doi:10.1002/tesq.189
- Ismail, Z. (2017). *The evolution of newly qualified English teachers' cognition in Malaysian primary schools* (Doctoral thesis). University of Leeds, UK.
- Jackson, J. (2012). *The Routledge handbook of language and intercultural communication*. Oxford, UK: Routledge.

- Jafarigohar, M., & Gharbavi, A. (2014). Recast or prompt: Which one does the trick? *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 695-703.
- Jafarigohar, M., & Kheiri, S. (2015). A comparison of teacher cognition and corrective feedback between university graduates and teachers certified in English language teaching. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(11), 2320-2326.
- James, C. (1998). *Errors in language learning and use: Exploring error analysis*. New York, UK: Longman.
- Jenkins, J. (2000). *The phonology of English as an international language: New models, new norms, new goals*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Jenkins, J. (2003). *World Englishes: A resource book for students*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Jenkins, J. (2005). Implementing an international approach to English pronunciation: The role of teacher attitudes and identity. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39(3), 535–543.
- Jenkins, J. (2006). Current Perspectives on Teaching World Englishes and English as a Lingua Franca. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(1), 157-181.
- Jenkins J. (2012). English as a Lingua Franca from the classroom to the classroom. *ELT Journal*, 66(4), 486-494.
- Jindapitak, N., & Teo, A. (2012). Thai tertiary English majors' attitudes towards and awareness of world Englishes. *Journal of English Studies*, 7, 74-116.
- Jindathai, S. (2015). Factors affecting English speaking problems among engineering students at Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology. *The 3rd National Interdisciplinary Academic Conference*, 344-348.

- Jin, S., & Liu, C. (2014). Intelligibility of American English Vowels and Consonants Spoken by International Students in the United States. *Journal of Speech, Language, And Hearing Research, 57*(2), 583-596.
- Jodaie, M., Farrokhi, F., & Zoghi, M. (2011). A comparative study of EFL teachers' and intermediate high school students' perceptions of written corrective feedback on grammatical errors. *English Language Teaching, 4*(4), 36-48.
- Johansson, S. (1978). Problems in Studying the Communicative Effect of Learner's Errors. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 1*(1), 41-52.
- John, P. D. (1996). 'Understanding the apprenticeship of observation in initial teacher education: Exploring student teachers' implicit theories of teaching and learning' In G. Claxton, T. Atkinson, M. Osborn, and M. Wallace (eds.). *Liberating the Learner: Lessons for Professional Development in Education*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Johnson, K. E. (1992a). Learning to teach: instructional actions and decisions of preservice ESL teachers. *TESOL Quarterly, 26*(3), 507-535.
- Johnson, K. E. (1992b). The relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices during literacy instruction for non-native speakers of English. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 14*(1), 83-108.
- Johnson, K. E. (1994). The emerging beliefs and instructional practices of preservice English as a second language teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 10*(4), 439-452. doi:10.1016/0742-051x(94)90024-8
- Johnston, S. (1992). Images: A way of understanding the practical knowledge of student teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 8*, 123-136.

- Jung, M. (2010). The Intelligibility and Comprehensibility of World Englishes to Non-Native Speakers. *Journal of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 14(2), 141-163.
- Kachru, B. B. (1985). Standards, codification and sociolinguistic realism: the English language in the outer circle. In R. Quirk and H.G. Widdowson (Eds), *English in the world: Teaching and learning the language and literatures* (pp.11-30). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Kachru, B. B. (1986). The power and politics of English. *World Englishes*, 5(2-3), 121–140.
- Kachru, B. B. (1988). Teaching World Englishes. *ERIC/CLL News Bulletin*, 12(1), 3-4.
- Kachru, B. B. (1990). World Englishes and applied linguistics. *World Englishes*, 9(1), 3-20.
- Kagan, D. M. (1990). Ways of evaluating teacher cognition: Inferences concerning the Goldilocks principle. *Review of Educational Research*, 60, 419-469.
- Kaivanpanah, S., Alavi, S. M., & Sepehrinia, S. (2015) Preferences for interactional feedback: differences between learners and teachers. *The Language Learning Journal*, 43(1), 74-93.
- Kalaja, P., & Barcelos, A. M. F. (2003). *Beliefs about SLA: New Research Approaches*. Dordrecht, the Netherlands: Kluwer Academic.
- Kang, O. (2010). Relative salience of suprasegmental features on judgments of L2 comprehensibility and accentedness. *System*, 38(2), 301-315.

- Karimi, L., & Esfandiari, N. (2016). The effect of recast vs. explicit corrective feedback on Iranian EFL learners' stress patterns learning. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 6(6), 1166-1174.
- Kartchava, E., & Ammar, A. (2014). Learners' Beliefs as Mediators of What Is Noticed and Learned in the Language Classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 48(1), 86–109. <http://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.101>
- Kelly, A. (2009). *The curriculum: Theory and practice* (Sixth ed.). London, UK: Sage.
- Kennedy, G. (1985). Commentator 1. In R. Quirk & H. Widdowson (Eds.) *English in the world: Teaching and Learning the Language and Literatures* (pp. 7-8). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Kennedy, S. (2010). Corrective Feedback for Learners of Varied Proficiency Levels: A Teacher's Choices. *TESL Canada Journal*, 27(2), 31-50.
- Kerlinger, F.N. (1970). *Foundations of behavioural research*. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston
- Kern, R. G. (1995). Students' and Teachers' Beliefs About Language Learning. *Foreign Language Annals*, 28, 71-92. doi:10.1111/j.1944-9720.1995.tb00770.x
- Kerr, J. (1968). *Changing the Curriculum*. London: University of London Press.
- Khamkhien, A. (2010). Teaching English Speaking and English Speaking Tests in the Thai Context: A Reflection from Thai Perspective. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 3(1), 184-200.
- Khamprated, N. (2012). *The Problems with the English Listening and Speaking of Students Studying at a Private Vocational School in Bangkok* (Master's thesis). Srinakharinwirot University, Bangkok, Thailand.

- Kilickaya, F. (2016). Washback Effects of a High-Stakes Exam on Lower Secondary School English Teachers' Practices in the Classroom. *Lublin Studies in Modern Languages and Literature*, 40(1), 116-134.
- Kim, A. (2014). Examining How Teachers' Beliefs about Communicative Language Teaching Affect Their Instructional and Assessment Practices: A Qualitative Study of EFL University Instructors in Colombia. *RELC Journal: A Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 45(3) 337-354.
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2007). *World Englishes: Implications for International Communication and English Language Teaching*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Kissau, S. P., Algozzine, B., & Yon, M. (2012). Similar but Different: The Beliefs of Foreign Language Teachers. *Foreign Language Annals*, 45(4), 580-598.
- Klanrit, P., & Sroinam, R. (2012). EFL Teacher's Anxiety in Using English in Teaching in the Language Classroom. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, 2(6), 493-496.
- Kormos, J., Kiddle, T., & Csizér, K. (2011). Systems of goals, attitudes, and self-related beliefs in second-language-learning motivation. *Applied Linguistics*, 32(5), 495–516.
- Kramsch, C. (1986). From language proficiency to interactional competence. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70(4), 366-372.
- Kubota, M. (1991). Corrective Feedback by Experienced Japanese EFL Teachers. *Institute for Research in Language Teaching Bulletin*, 5, 1-25.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001). Toward a Postmethod Pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35(4), 537-560. doi:10.2307/3588427

- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2012). Individual identity, cultural globalization and teaching English as an international language: The case for an epistemic break. In L. Alsagoff, W. Renandya, G. Hu, and S. McKay (Eds.), *Teaching English as an International Language* (pp. 9-27). Oxford, UK: Routledge.
- Kuzborska, I. (2011). Links between teachers' beliefs and practices and research on reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 23(1), 102-128.
- Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews—An introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Lasagabaster, D. (2011). English achievement and student motivation in CLIL and EFL settings. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 5(1), 3-18.
- Lee, E. J. (2013). Corrective Feedback Preferences and Learner Repair among Advanced ESL Students. *System: An International Journal of Educational Technology and Applied Linguistics*, 41(2), 217-230.
- Lee, H.J. (2004). Grammar teaching in communicative classrooms: Focused on teachers' theories and practice. *English Teaching*, 59(1), 3-26.
- Lee, I. (2005). Error correction in the L2 classroom: What do students think? *TESL Canada Journal*, 22, 1-16.
- Lee, L. (2008). Focus-on-form through collaborative scaffolding in expert-to-novice online interaction. *Language Learning and Technology*, 12(3), 53-72.

- Lee, S. T. (2008). *Teaching pronunciation of English using computer assisted learning software: An action research study in an Institute of Technology in Taiwan* (Doctoral thesis). Australian Catholic University, Australia.
Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.4226/66/5a95dfbac67eb>
- Leech, G. (2000). Grammars of Spoken English: New Outcomes of Corpus-Oriented Research. *Language Learning*, 50(4), 675-724.
- Leinhardt, G. (1990). Capturing craft knowledge in teaching. *Educational Researcher*, 19(2), 18-25.
- Lennon, P. (1991). Error: Some problems of definition, identification, and distinction. *Applied Linguistics*, 12, 180-196.
- Li, S. (2010). The Effectiveness of Corrective Feedback in SLA: A Meta-Analysis. *Language Learning*, 60, 309-365. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00561.x
- Li, S. (2014). The interface between feedback type, L2 proficiency, and the nature of the linguistic target. *Language Teaching Research*, 18(3), 373-396.
- Lightbown, P.M., & Spada, N. (2006). *How Languages are Learned* (3rd ed.). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Lincoln, Y. S. & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Liu, Y. (2015). Spelling errors analysis in college English writing. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(8), 1628.
- LoCastro, V. (2001). Large classes and student learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35(3), 493-496. doi:10.2307/3588032

- Lochtman, K. (2002). Oral corrective feedback in the foreign language classroom: How it affects interaction in analytic foreign language teaching. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 37, 271-283.
- Loewen, S., Li, S., Fei, F., Thompson, A., Nakatsukasa, K., Ahn, S., & Chen, X. (2009). Second Language Learners' Beliefs About Grammar Instruction and Error Correction. *The Modern Language Journal*, 93(1), 91-104. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00830.x
- Loewen, S., & Nabei, T. (2007). Measuring the effects of oral corrective feedback on L2 knowledge. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studies* (pp. 361-377). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Loewen, S., & Philp, J. (2006). Recasts in the Adult English L2 Classroom: Characteristics, Explicitness, and Effectiveness. *The Modern Language Journal*, 90, 536-556.
- Loewen, S. & Reinders, H. (2011). *Key Concepts in Second Language Acquisition*. Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Long, M. H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413-468). New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Long, M. H. (2007). *Problems in SLA*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Long, M. H., Inagaki, S., & Ortega, L. (1998). The Role of Implicit Negative Feedback in SLA: Models and Recasts in Japanese and Spanish. *The Modern Language Journal*, 82(3), 357-371.
<http://doi.org/10.2307/329961>

- Lortie, D. C. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Loubere, N. (2017). Questioning Transcription: The Case for the Systematic and Reflexive Interviewing and Reporting (SRIR) Method. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung / Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 18(2), Retrieved January, 15, 2019 from <http://nbnresolving.de/urn:nbn:de:0114-fqs1702152>.
- Low, E. (2015). *Pronunciation for English as an international language: From research to practice*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Lippi-Green, R. (2012). *English with an accent* (2nd ed.). London, UK: Routledge.
- Llurda, E. (2000). Effects of intelligibility and speaking rate on judgements of non-native speakers' personalities. *IRAL-International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 38(3-4), 289-300.
- Ludwig, A. (2012). *Interlanguage Speech Intelligibility Benefit for Non-native Listeners of English* (Master's thesis). Universitat de Barcelona, Spain.
- Lumban Batu, P.N.F., Puspitasari, L., Barasa, L., & Sitepu, V.T. (2016). Grammatical Errors in Students Speaking English: An Error Analysis on Indonesian Maritime Students. *Asian EFL Journal*, 5, 5-10.
- Lumley, T., & Stoneman, B. (2000). Conflicting perspectives on the role of test preparation in relation to learning? *Hong Kong Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 5(1), 50-80.
- Lyster, R. (2001). Negotiation of Form, Recasts, and Explicit Correction in Relation to Error Types and Learner Repair in Immersion Classrooms. *Language Learning*, 51(Supplement 1), 265-301.

- Lyster, R. (2004). Differential effects of prompts and recasts in form-focused instruction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 26(3), 399-432.
- Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective Feedback and Learner Uptake: Negotiation of Form in Communicative Classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19(1), 37-66.
- Macalister, J. (2010). Investigating Teacher Attitudes to Extensive Reading Practices in Higher Education: Why Isn't Everyone Doing It?. *RELC Journal*, 41(1), 59-75.
- Mackey, A., Al-Khalil, M., Atanassova, G., Hama, M., Logan-Terry, A., & Nakatsukasa, K. (2007). Teachers' intentions and learners' perceptions about corrective feedback in the L2 classroom. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 1(1), 129-152.
- MacDonald, M., R. Badger & G. White. (2001). Changing values: What use are theories of language learning and teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, 949-963.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Clément, R. (1996, August). *A model of willingness to communicate in a second language: The concept, its antecedents, and implications*. Paper presented at the 11th World Congress of Applied Linguistics, Jyväskylä, Finland.
- Mackey, A., & Gass, S. M. (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Mahwah, N.J: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Mackey, A., & Goo, J. (2007). Interaction research in SLA: A meta-analysis and research synthesis. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: a series of empirical studies* (pp. 407-453). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

- Mackey, A., & Philp, J. (1998). Conversational interaction and second language development: Recasts, responses, and red herrings? *Modern Language Journal*, 82, 338-356.
- Mackey, A., Park, H.I. & Tagarelli, K.M. (2016). Errors, corrective feedback and repair. In Hall, G. (ed.) *The Routledge Handbook of English Language Teaching* (pp. 499–512). Oxon, UK: Routledge.
- Maeng, U., & Lee, S. (2015). EFL teachers' behavior of using motivational strategies: The case of teaching in the Korean context. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 46, 25-36.
- Magen, H. (1998). The perception of foreign-accented speech. *Journal of Phonetics*, 26, 381-400.
- Mahboob, A., & Szenes. E. (2010). Constructing meaning in World Englishes. In A. Kirkpatrick, (Ed.) *The Routledge Handbook of World Englishes* (pp. 580-598). New York, Routledge.
- Maiklad, C. (2001). *The beliefs and practices of Thai English language teachers*, (Doctoral thesis). The University of Exeter, UK. Retrieved from <http://ethos.bl.uk/OrderDetails.do?did=1&uin=uk.bl.ethos.367985>
- Mak, S. H. (2011). Tensions Between Conflicting Beliefs of an EFL Teacher in Teaching Practice. *RELC Journal*, 42(1), 53–67.
- Mano-im, R. (1999). *The pronunciation of English final consonant clusters by Thais* (Master's thesis). Chulalongkorn University, Thailand.
- Manurung, K., & Mashuri. (2017). Implementing interest based instructional materials to minimize EFL learners' speaking skills de-motivating factors. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 7(5), 356-365.

- Manzano, B. A. (2015). English Teachers' Beliefs, Practices, and Problems Encountered in Using Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). *International Journal of Education and Research*, 3(3), 549-560.
- Margolis, D. P. (2010). Handling oral error feedback in language classrooms. *MinneWITESOL Journal*, 27, 4–17.
- Marcus, G. (1993). Negative evidence in language acquisition. *Cognition*, 46, 53-85.
- Masgoret, A., & Gardner, R. (2003). Attitudes, Motivation, and Second Language Learning: A Meta-Analysis of Studies Conducted by Gardner and Associates. *Language Learning*, 53(S1), 167-210.
- Mason, A. & Payant, C. (2019). Experienced teachers' beliefs and practices toward communicative approaches in teaching English as a foreign language in rural Ukraine. *TESOL Journal*, 10(1), 1-15.
- Mathison, S. (2005). *Encyclopedia of evaluation*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Matsuda, A. (2002). International understanding through teaching world Englishes. *World Englishes*, 21(3), 436–440. doi:10.1111/1467-971X.00262de
- Matsumoto, M. (2012, December). *Motivational changes and their affecting factors among students from different cultural backgrounds*. Paper presented at CLaSIC 2012: The Fifth CLS International conference, Singapore.
- Matsuura, H., Chiba, R., & Fujieda, M. (1999). Intelligibility and Comprehensibility of American and Irish Englishes in Japan. *World Englishes*, 18(1), 49-62.

- Mattheoudakis, M. (2007). Tracking changes in preservice EFL teacher beliefs in Greece: A longitudinal study. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 23*, 1272-1288.
- Maxwell, J. A. (2013). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Maykut, P. S., & Morehouse, R. (1994). *Beginning qualitative research: A philosophic and practical guide*. London, UK: Falmer Press.
- McArthur, T. (2001). World or international or global English – and what is it anyway? In J.E., Alatis, & A, Tan. (Eds.), *Georgetown University round table on languages and linguistics 1999* (pp. 396-403). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.
- McCarthy, M., & Carter, R. (1995). Spoken grammar: what is it and how can we teach it? *ELT Journal, 49*(3), 207-218.
- McKay, S. (2002). *Teaching English as an international language: Rethinking goals and approaches*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- McKenzie, R.M. (2008). The role of variety recognition in Japanese university students' attitudes towards English speech varieties. *Journal of Multilingual & Multicultural Development, 29*(2), 139-153.
- Méndez, E. H., & Cruz, M. R. R. (2012). Teachers' perceptions about oral corrective feedback and their practice in EFL classrooms. *Profile, 14*(2), 63-75.
- Merriam, S.B. (2001). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Mills, A. J., Durepos, G. & Wiebe, E. (2010). *Encyclopedia of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldana, J. (2014). *Qualitative Data Analysis: a Methods Sourcebook*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Milroy, J., & Milroy, Lesley. (1991). *Authority in language: Investigating language prescription and standardisation* (2nd ed.). London, UK: Routledge.
- Ministry of Education. (2008). *The basic education core curriculum B.E. 2551 (A.D. 2008)*. Bangkok, Thailand: Ministry of Education. Retrieved from: <http://www.act.ac.th/document/1741.pdf>
- Morgan D.L. (1988). *Focus groups as qualitative research*. London, UK: Sage.
- Mori, R. (2011). Teacher cognition in corrective feedback in Japan. *System*, 39, 451-467.
- Moskovsky, C., Alrabai, F., Paolini, S., & Ratcheva, S. (2013). The Effects of Teachers' Motivational Strategies on Learners' Motivation: A Controlled Investigation of Second Language Acquisition. *Language Learning*, 63(1), 34-62.
- Mun, S. (2013). Language Education Policies in South Korea. In F. V. Tochon (Ed.), *Language Education Policy Studies* (online). Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin-Madison. Retrieved February 28, 2018 from <http://www.languageeducationpolicy.org>
- Muñoz, A. P., & Álvarez, M.E. (2010). Washback of an oral assessment system in the EFL classroom. *Language Testing*, 27(1), 33-49.
- Munro, M. J., & Derwing, T. M. (1998). The Effects of Speaking Rate on Listener Evaluations of Native and Foreign-Accented Speech. *Language Learning*, 48, 159-182.

- Munro, M. J., & Derwing, T. M. (1999). Foreign accent, comprehensibility, and intelligibility in the speech of second language learners. *Language Learning, 49*(Suppl 1), 285-310.
- Munro, M. J., & Derwing, T. M. (2001). Modeling perceptions of the accentedness and comprehensibility of L2 speech: Accentedness and comprehensibility of L2 speech: The role of speaking rate. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 23*, 451–468.
- Munro, M. J., Derwing, T. M., & Morton, S. L. (2006). The Mutual Intelligibility of L2 Speech. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28*(1), 111-131.
- Murtagh, L., & van der Slik, F. (2004). Retention of Irish skills: A longitudinal study of a school-acquired second language. *International Journal of Bilingualism, 8*(3), 279-302.
- Musayeva, G. (1998). Corrective Discourse in Turkish EFL Classrooms. *IRAL, 36*(2), 137-160.
- Naderi, S., & Ashraf, H. (2013). The Effect of Active Learning Instruction on the Intermediate Iranian EFL Learners' Listening Self-Efficacy Beliefs. *International Journal of Linguistics, 5*(6), 91-109.
- Nam, J. M. (2005). *Perceptions of Korean college students and teachers about communicative-based English instruction. Evaluation of a college EFL curriculum in South Korea* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). The Ohio State University.
- Naruemon, D. (2013). *Thai Pre-Service Teachers' Beliefs about the Learner-Centered Approach and Their Classroom Practices* (Doctoral thesis). Newcastle University, UK.

- Nassaji, H. (2011). Immediate learner repair and its relationship with learning targeted forms in dyadic interaction. *System*, 39(1), 17-29.
- Nassaji, H. (2015). *The interactional feedback dimension in instructed second language learning: Linking theory, research, and practice*. London, UK: Bloomsbury.
- Nassaji, H. (2017). The Effectiveness of Extensive Versus Intensive Recasts for Learning L2 Grammar. *The Modern Language Journal*, 101(2), 353-368.
- Nassaji, H. (2018). Errors Versus Mistakes. In J. I. Liantas (Ed.), *The TESOL Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Nassaji, H., & Kartchava, E. (2017). *Corrective feedback in second language teaching and learning: research, theory, applications, implications*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Nation, I., & Macalister, J. (2010). *Language curriculum design*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Nelson, C. (2011). *Intelligibility in world Englishes: Theory and application*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Ngowananchai, J. (2013). Natural Occurring Conversation as an English Teaching Model in Thailand. *European Scientific Journal*, 2, 397-408.
- Nguyen, T. N. (2014). *Learner autonomy in language learning: Teachers' beliefs* (Doctoral dissertation). Queensland University of Technology, Australia.
- Nicolaidis, K., & Mattheoudakis, M. (2008). Utopia vs. reality: the effectiveness of in-service training courses for EFL teachers. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 31(3), 279-292. doi:10.1080/02619760802208460

- Nishino, T. (2012). Modeling Teacher Beliefs and Practices in Context: A Multimethods Approach. *The Modern Language Journal*, 96(3), 380-399.
- Noels, K. A., Clement, R., & Pelletier, L. G. (2003). Intrinsic, extrinsic, and integrative orientations of French Canadian learners of English. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 59, 589-607.
- Noom-ura, S. (2013). English-Teaching Problems in Thailand and Thai Teachers' Professional Development Needs. *English Language Teaching*, 6(11), 139-147.
- Norrish, J. (1983). *Language Learners and their errors*. London, UK: Macmillan.
- Numrich, C. (1996). On Becoming a Language Teacher: Insights from Diary Studies. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30, 131-153.
- Oladejo, J. A. (1993). Error Correction in ESL: Learner's Preferences ESL. *Canada Journal*, 10(2), 71-89.
- Omaggio, A. C. (1986). *Teaching language in context: Proficiency-oriented instruction*. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Jiao, Q. G., & Bostick, S. L. (2004). *Library anxiety: Theory, research, and applications*. Lanham, MD: Scarecrow Press.
- Ozmen, K.S. (2012). Exploring student teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching: A longitudinal study. *Current Issues in Education*, 15(1),1-16.
- Özmen, K.S., & Aydin, H.U. (2015). Examining student teachers' beliefs about oral corrective feedback: Insights from a teacher education program in Turkey. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 40(12), 140-164.

- Pae, T. (2008). Second language orientation and self-determination theory: a structural analysis of the factors affecting second language achievement. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 27*, 5-27.
- Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research, 62*(3), 307-332.
- Pan, Y., & Newfields, T. (2013). Student Washback from Tertiary Standardized English Proficiency Exit Requirements in Taiwan. *Journal of Teaching and Learning, 9*(1), 13-29.
- Pan, Y. (2014). Learner Washback Variability in Standardized Exit Tests. *Tesol-Ej, 18*(2), 1-30.
- Panova, I., & Lyster, R. (2002). Patterns of Corrective Feedback and Uptake in an Adult ESL Classroom. *TESOL Quarterly, 36*, 573-595.
- Papangkorn, P. (2015). SSRUIC students' attitude and preference toward error corrections. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 197*, 1841-1846.
- Papi, M. (2010). The L2 motivational self system, L2 anxiety, and motivated behavior: A structural equation modeling approach. *System, 38*(3), 467-479.
- Papi, M., & Abdollahzadeh, E. (2012). Teacher Motivational Practice, Student Motivation, and Possible L2 Selves: An Examination in the Iranian EFL Context. *Language Learning, 62*(2), 571-594.
- Park, H. S. (2010). *Teachers' and learners' preferences for error correction* (Master's thesis). California State University, Sacramento, USA.
- Park, J. S.Y. (2011). The promise of English: Linguistic capital and the neoliberal worker in the South Korean job market. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 14*, 443-455.

- Patton, M. Q. (2002). Two Decades of Developments in Qualitative Inquiry: A Personal, Experiential Perspective. *Qualitative Social Work, 1*(3), 261-283.
- Pawlak, M. (2014). *Error correction in the foreign language classroom: Reconsidering the issues*. London, UK: Springer.
- Peacock, M. (2001). Pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about second language learning: a longitudinal study. *System, 29*(2), 177-195.
- Pennington, M. C., & Urmston, A. (1998). The Teaching Orientation of Graduating Students on a BATESL Course in Hong Kong: A Comparison with First-Year Students. *Hong Kong Journal of Applied Linguistics, 3*(2), 17-46.
- Pettit, S. K. (2011). Teachers' Beliefs About English Language Learners in the Mainstream Classroom: A Review of the Literature. *International Multilingual Research Journal, 5*(2), 123-147.
- Phairee, C., Sanitchon, N., Suphanangthong, I., Graham, S., Prompruang, J., De Groot, F., & Hopkins, D. (2008). The Teaching Practicum in Thailand: Three Perspectives. *TESOL Quarterly, 42*(4), 655-659. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/40264494>
- Phipps, S. (2007). What difference does DELTA make? *Research Notes, 29*, 12-16.
- Phipps, S., & Borg, S. (2009). Exploring tensions between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices. *System, 37*(3), 380-390.
- Phuket, P. N., & Othman, N. B. (2015). Understanding EFL Students' Errors in Writing. *Journal of Education and Practice, 6*(32), 99-106.

- Polesel, J., Rice, S., & Dulfer, N. (2013). The impact of high-stakes testing on curriculum and pedagogy: A teacher perspective from Australia. *Journal of Education Policy*, 29(5), 1-18.
- Prapaisit de Segovia, L., & Hardison, D. (2009). Implementing education reform: EFL teachers' perspectives. *ELT Journal*, 63(2), 154-162.
- Prapphal, K. (2008). Issues and Trends in Language Testing and Assessment in Thailand. *Language Testing*, 25(1), 127-143.
- Prasangani, K. (2015). Global English: A Study of Factors Affect for English Language Learning Motivation in Sri Lankan Undergraduates. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 172, 794-800.
- Pratt, D. D., Kelly, M., & Wong, W. S. S. (1999). Chinese conceptions of 'effective teaching' in Hong Kong: Towards culturally sensitive evaluation of teaching. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 18, 241–258.
- Pring, R. (2004). *Philosophy of education: Aims, theory, common sense and research*. London, UK: Continuum.
- Quirk, R. (1985). The English language in a global context. In R. Quirk & H. G. Widdowson (Eds), *English in the World: Teaching and learning the language and literatures* (pp. 1-6). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Rabbidge, M., & Chapell, P. (2014). Exploring non-native English speaking teachers' classroom language use in South Korean elementary schools. *TESL-EJ*, 17(4), 1-18.
- Rader, K. E. (1990). *The effects of three different levels of word rate on the Listening comprehension of third quarter university Spanish students*, (Doctoral dissertation). Ohio State University, OH.

- Rahimi, M., & Karkami, F. H. (2015). The Role of Teachers' Classroom Discipline in Their Teaching Effectiveness and Students' Language Learning Motivation and Achievement: A Path Method. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research*, 3(1), 57-82.
- Rahimi, M., & Zhang, L. J. (2015). Exploring non-native English-speaking teachers' cognitions about corrective feedback in teaching English oral communication. *System*, 55, 111-122.
- Rahimi, Z., & Nazhand, N. (2010). Perspectives on IELTS Preparation Courses to the learners: Iranian Learners Perspectives on IELTS Preparation Courses. *2010 International Conference on e-Education, e-Business, e-Management and e-Learning* (pp. 490-494). Los Alamitos, CA: IEEE Computer Society.
- Rahimi, M., & Ruzrokh, S. (2016). The impact of teaching Lingua Franca Core on English as a foreign language learners' intelligibility and attitudes towards English pronunciation. *Asian Englishes*, 18(2), 141-156.
- Rajagopalan, K. (2012). 'World English' or 'World Englishes'? Does it make any difference? *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 22(3), 374–391. doi:10.1111/j.1473-4192.2012.00316.x
- Ranta, E. (2010). English in the real world versus English at school: Finnish english teachers' and students' views. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 20(2), 156-177.

- Ratanapinyowong, P., Poopon, K., & Honsa, Jr. S. (2007). Problems and solutions in teaching and assessing English skills in Thai higher education and the need for professional development. In *Voices of Asia 2007 Symposium, MARA University of Technology (UiTM), Malaysia*: UiTM Press.
- Renandya, W. A., & Widodo, H. P. (2016). *English Language Teaching Today*. Cham, Switzerland: Springer.
- Rezaei, S., & Derakhshan, A. (2011). Investigating Recast and Metalinguistic Feedback in Task-based Grammar Instruction. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(3), 655-663.
- Riazi, A. M. (2016). *The Routledge encyclopedia of research methods in applied linguistics*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Richards, J. C. (1971). A Non-Contrastive Approach to Error Analysis. *ELT Journal*, 25(3), 204–219.
- Richards, J. C. (1980). Second Language Acquisition: Error Analysis. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 1, 91-107.
- Richards, J. C. (1994). Teacher Thinking and Foreign Language Teaching, *MEXTESOL*, 18(2), 7-13.
- Richards, J. C. (1998). *Beyond training: Perspectives on language teacher education*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. (2006). *Communicative language teaching today*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. (2013). Curriculum Approaches in Language Teaching: Forward, Central, and Backward Design. *RELC Journal*, 44(1), 5-33.

- Richards, J. C., & Lockhart, C. (1994). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C., & Pennington, M. (1998). The first year of teaching. In J. C. Richards (Ed.), *Beyond training* (pp. 173–200). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J.C., & Schmidt, R. (2010). *Longman Dictionary of Language teaching and Applied Linguistics* (4th ed.). Harlow, UK: Longman.
- Rifkin, B. & Roberts, F.D. (1995). Error Gravity: A Critical Review of Research Design. *Language Learning*, 45(3), 511-537.
- Roberts, A. (2000) Mentoring Revisited: A phenomenological reading of the literature. *Mentoring & Tutoring*, 8, 145-170.
- Roothoof, H. (2014). The relationship between adult EFL teachers' oral feedback practices and their beliefs. *System*, 46, 65-79.
- Roothoof, H., & Breeze, R. (2016). A comparison of EFL teachers' and students' attitudes to oral corrective feedback. *Language Awareness*, 25(4), 318-335.
- Ross, D. D., & Smith, W. (1992). Understanding preservice teachers' perspectives on diversity. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 43(2), 94-103.
- Rostami, G., Kashanian, V., & Gholami, H. (2016). The more proficient in English the students were, the more willing they were to participate in speech communication. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research*, 3(2), 166-176.
- Ruesch, A., Bown, J., & Dewey, D. P. (2012) Student and teacher perceptions of motivational strategies in the foreign language classroom. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 6(1), 15-27.

- Rummel, S. & Bitchener, J. (2015). The impact of Lao learners beliefs on written CF. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 38, 64-82.
- Ryan, E. B., Carranza, M. A., & Moffie, R. W. (1977). Reactions toward varying degrees of accentedness in the speech of Spanish-English bilinguals. *Language and Speech*, 20, 267–273.
- Ryan, J. (2012). Stimulated Recall. In R. Barnard & A. Burns (Eds.), *Researching language teacher cognition and practice: International case studies* (pp. 433-469). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). "Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions". *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 54-67.
- Saengboon, S. (2015). An Exploratory Study of Thai University Students' Understanding of World Englishes. *English Language Teaching*, 8(11), 131-150.
- Sahin, C., Bullock, K., & Stables, A. (2002). Teachers' Beliefs and Practices in Relation to their Beliefs about Questioning at Key Stage 2, *Educational Studies*, 28(4), 371-384.
- Sakui, K. (2004). Wearing two pairs of shoes: Language teaching in Japan. *English Language Teaching*, 58(2), 155-163.
- Saldaña, J. (2009). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. London, UK: Sage.
- Sarandi, H. (2016). Oral Corrective Feedback: A Question of Classification and Application. *TESOL Quarterly*, 50(1), 235-246.

- Sato, C. (1991). Sociolinguistic variation and language attitudes in Hawaii. In J. Cheshire (Ed.) *English around the world: Sociolinguistic perspectives*. Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press.
- Sato, K., & Kleinsasser, R. C. (1999). Communicative Language Teaching (CLT): Practical Understandings. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83(4), 494-517. doi:10.1111/0026-7902.00037
- Scheuer, S. (2008). Why native speakers are (still) relevant. In K. Dziubalska-Kolaczyk & J. Przedlacka (Eds.), *English pronunciation models: A changing scene* (pp. 111–130). Bern, Switzerland: Peter Lang.
- Schulz, R. A. (1996). Focus on Form in the Foreign Language Classroom: Students' and Teachers' Views on Error Correction and the Role of Grammar. *Foreign Language Annals*, 29(3), 343-364. doi:10.1111/j.1944-9720.1996.tb01247.x
- Schulz, R. A. (2001). Cultural Differences in Student and Teacher Perceptions Concerning the Role of Grammar Instruction and Corrective Feedback: USA-Colombia. *The Modern Language Journal*, 85, 244-258.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2005). English as a lingua franca. *ELT Journal*, 59(4), 339-341.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2011). *Understanding English as a Lingua Franca*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Seidlhofer, B. (2014). Research perspectives on teaching English as a lingua franca. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 24, 209-239.
- Sepehrinia, S., & Mehdizadeh, M. (2016). Oral corrective feedback: teachers' concerns and researchers' orientation. *The Language Learning Journal*, 1-17. doi:10.1080/09571736.2016.1172328

- Sereno, J., Lammers, L., & Jongman, A. (2016). The relative contribution of segments and intonation to the perception of foreign-accented speech. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 37(2), 303-322.
- Setter, J. (2006). Speech Rhythm in World Englishes: The Case of Hong Kong. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(4), 763–782. doi:10.2307/40264307
- Sewell, A. (2015). The intranational intelligibility of Hong Kong English accents. *System*, 49, 86-97.
- Shavelson, R. J. (1976). Teachers' decision making. In N. L. Gage (Ed.), *The psychology of teaching methods*, Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Shavelson, R. J., & Stern, P. (1981). Research on teachers' pedagogical thoughts, judgements and behaviours. *Review of Educational Research*, 51(4), 455–498.
- Sharifi, N., & Amiri, B. (2014). The Comparative Impact of Recast and Prompt on EFL Learners' Autonomy and Motivation. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 1754-1761.
- Shenita, K. (2018). *Thinking and Doing: An Investigation of Thai Preservice Teachers' beliefs and practices regarding Communicative Language Teaching in English as a Foreign Language Context* (Doctoral thesis). University of Durham, UK.
- Sheen, Y. (2004). Corrective feedback and learner uptake in communicative classrooms across instructional settings. *Language Teaching Research*, 8(3), 263 – 300.
- Sheen, Y. (2011). *Corrective feedback, individual differences and second language learning*. London, UK: Springer.

- Shen, Y. (2013). Balancing accuracy and fluency in English classroom teaching to improve Chinese non-English majors' oral English ability. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3(5), 816-822.
- Shenton, A. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. *Education for Information*, 22, 63-75.
<http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-618X.2000.tb00391.x>
- Shi, L., & Cumming, A. (1995). Teachers' conceptions of second-language writing instruction: Five case studies. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 5, 87-111.
- Shih, J. C. (2013). How many classroom observations are sufficient? Empirical findings in the context of a longitudinal study. *Middle Grades Research Journal*, 8(2), 41-49.
- Shulman, L.S. (1986). Those Who Understand: Knowledge Growth in Teaching. *Educational Researcher*, 15(2), 4-14.
- Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and Teaching: Foundations of the New Reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57(1), 1-23.
- Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those Who Understand: Knowledge Growth in Teaching. *Educational Researcher*, 15(2), 4-14.
- Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and Teaching: Foundations of the New Reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57(1), 1-22.
- Sifakis, N., & Sougari, A. (2005). Pronunciation Issues and EIL Pedagogy in the Periphery: A Survey of Greek State School Teachers' Beliefs. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39(3), 467-488.
- Singer, E. R. (1996). Espoused teaching paradigms of college faculty. *Research in Higher Education*, 37, 659-679.

- Sinprajakpol, S. (2004). *Teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching: The relationship between beliefs and practices* (Doctoral thesis). The State University of New York at Buffalo, NY, USA.
- Sinwongsuwat, K. (2012). Rethinking Assessment of Thai EFL Learners' Speaking Skills. *Language Testing in Asia*, 2(4), 75-85.
- Skilbeck, M. (1984). *School-based curriculum development*. London, UK: Paul Chapman.
- Slimani, A. (1992). Evaluation of classroom interaction. In C. Alderson & A. Beretta (Eds.), *Evaluating second language education* (pp. 197–221). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Smith, D. B. (1992). *Teacher decision-making in the ESL classroom: the influence of theory, beliefs, perceptions and context* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). University of British Columbia, Canada.
- Smith, D. B. (1996). Teacher decision making in the adult ESL classroom. In D. Freeman & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher Learning in Language Teaching* (pp. 197–216). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Smith, L.E. (1976) English as an international auxiliary language. *RELC Journal*, 7(2), 38–42.
- Smith, L.E. (1988). Language spread and issues of intelligibility. In P. Lowenberg (Ed.), *Language spread and language policy: Issues, implications, and case studies* (pp. 265-282). Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics 1987. Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press.
- Smith, L. E. (1992). Spread of English and Issues of Intelligibility. In B.B

- Kachru (2nd ed.), (Ed.), *The Other Tongue: English Across Cultures* (pp. 75-90). Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press.
- Smith, L. E. & Nelson, C. L. (1985), International intelligibility of English: directions and resources. *World Englishes*, 4, 333–342.
doi:10.1111/j.1467-971X.1985.tb00423.x
- Smith, M. L. (1991). Put to the Test: The Effects of External Testing on Teachers. *Educational Researcher*, 20(5), 8-11.
- Snodin, N.S., & Young, T.J. (2015). Native-speaker' varieties of English: Thai perceptions and attitudes. *Asian Englishes*, 17(3), 248-260.
- Spillett, M.D. (2003) Peer debriefing: who, what, when, why, how. *Academic Exchange Quarterly*, 7(3), 2529–2532.
- Spiro, J. (2013). *Changing methodologies in TESOL*. Edinburgh, UK: Edinburgh University Press.
- Stern, H. (1983). *Fundamental concepts of language teaching*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Stough, L. (2001, April). "Using Stimulated Recall in Classroom Observation and Professional Development." Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association, Seattle, WA.
- Stevens, P. (1985). Standards and the Standard Language. *English Today*, 1(2), 5-7.
- Sugita, M., & Takeuchi, O. (2010). What can teachers do to motivate their students? A classroom research on motivational strategy use in the Japanese EFL context. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 4(1), 21-35.

- Sundrarajun, C., & Kiely, R. (2010). The oral presentation as a context for learning and assessment. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 4*(2), 101-117.
- Sung, C. M. (2015). Implementing a global Englishes component in a university English course in Hong Kong. *English Today, 31*(4), 42-49.
- Suzuki, A. (2011). Introducing diversity of English into ELT: student teachers' responses. *ELT Journal, 65*(2), 145–53.
- Swain, J. (Ed.). (2016). *Designing research in education: Concepts and methodologies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Taba, H. (1962). *Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice*, New York, NY: Harcourt Brace and World.
- Taylor, P.H., & Richards, C.M. (1985). *An introduction to curriculum studies* (2nd ed). Windsor, UK: NFER-Nelson.
- Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2009). *Foundations of mixed methods research: Integrating quantitative and qualitative techniques in the social and behavioral sciences*. London: Sage.
- Test and score data summary for TOEFL iBT tests. (2016). Retrieved from https://www.ets.org/s/toefl/pdf/94227_unlweb.pdf
- Thanh Nga, N. (2014). *Learner Autonomy in Language Learning: Teachers' Beliefs*. (Doctoral thesis). Queensland University of Technology, Australia. Retrieved from http://eprints.qut.edu.au/69937/1/THANH%20NGA_NGUYEN_Thesis.pdf
- Thornbury, S., & Harmer, J. (2005). *How to teach speaking*. Harlow: Longman.

- Tillema, H.H. (1994). Training and Professional Expertise—Bridging the Gap Between New Information and Preexisting Beliefs of Teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 10(6), 601–615.
- Timmis, I. (2002). Native-speaker norms and international English: A classroom view. *ELT Journal*, 56(3), 240-249.
- Ting, S. H., Mahathir, M., & Chang, S. L. (2010). Grammatical Errors in Spoken English of University Students in Oral Communication Course. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies*, 10(1), 53-70.
- Tizazu, Y. (2014). A Linguistic Analysis of Errors in the Compositions of Arba Minch University Students. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 5(3), 195-205.
- Tleuov, A. (2017). *The teaching of speaking: an investigation into the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices in Kazakhstani state secondary school EFL classrooms* (Doctoral thesis). University of Bath, UK.
- Tong, J. (2010). Some Observations of Students' Reticent and Participatory Behaviour in Hong Kong English Classrooms. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 7(2), 239–254.
- Torbjørnsen, A. S. (2015). "A giant bowl of soup" – *Language Varieties in the Lower Secondary ESL Classroom: A study of teachers' beliefs, awareness and practices* (Master's thesis). Norwegian University of Science and Technology, Trondheim, Norway.
- Touchie, Y.H. (1986). Second Language Learning Errors: Their Types, Causes and Treatment. *JALT Journal*, 8(1), 75-80.

- Tran, T. T., & Baldauf, R. B. (2007). Demotivation: Understanding resistance to English language learning—The case of Vietnamese students. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 4(1), 79–105.
- Trent, J. (2009). Enhancing oral participation across the curriculum: Some lessons from the EAP classroom. *Asian EFL Journal*, 11(1), 256-270. Retrieved February 27, 2018 from <http://www.asian-efl-journal.com>
- Trudgill, P. (1983). *Sociolinguistics: An introduction to language and society* (Rev. ed.). New York, N.Y: Penguin.
- Trudgill, P. (1999). Standard English: What it isn't. In T. Bex, & R. J. Watts (Eds.), *Standard English: The widening debate* (pp. 117-128). London, UK: Routledge.
- Tsang, S. (2012). Learning Japanese as a Foreign Language in the Context of an American University: A Qualitative and Process-Oriented Study on De/Motivation at the Learning Situation Level. *Foreign Language Annals*, 45(1), 130-163.
- Tsui, A. B.M. (1996). Reticence and anxiety in second language learning. In K.M. Bailey & D. Nunan (Eds.), *Voices from the language classroom: Qualitative research in second language education* (pp. 145-167). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Tsui, A. B. M. (2003). *Understanding Expertise in Teaching: Case Studies of ESL Teachers*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Tudor, I. (2003). Learning to live with complexity: Towards an ecological perspective on language teaching. *System*, 31(1), 1-12.
- Tyler, R. W. (1950). *Basic principles of curriculum and instruction*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

- Tyler, R. W., & Hlebowitsh, P.S. (2013). *Basic principles of curriculum and instruction*. Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.
- Ulbrich, C. (2013). German pitches in English: Production and perception of cross-varietal differences in L2. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, 16(2), 397-419. doi:10.1017/S1366728912000582
- Ur, P. (1996). *A course in language teaching: Practice and theory*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Ushioda, E. (2010). Motivation and SLA. *EUROSLA Yearbook*, 10, 5–20.
- Uysal, N. D., & Aydin, S. (2017). Foreign language teachers' perceptions of error correction in speaking classes: A qualitative study. *The Qualitative Report*, 22(1), 123-135. Retrieved March, 3, 2018 from <https://search.proquest.com/docview/1867932631?accountid=15181>
- Vacharaskunee, S. (2000). *Target language avoidance by Thai teachers of English: Thai teachers' beliefs* (Master's thesis). Edith Cowan University, Australia.
- Vallerand, R. J., & Bissonnette, R. (1992). Intrinsic, extrinsic, and motivational styles as predictors of behavior: A prospective study. *Journal of Personality*, 60, 599-620.
- Van der Walt, C. (2000). The international comprehensibility of varieties of South African English. *World Englishes*, 19(2), 139-153.
- van Maastricht, L., Kraemer, E., & Swerts, M. (2016). Prominence Patterns in a Second Language: Intonational Transfer from Dutch to Spanish and Vice Versa. *Language Learning*, 66, 124–158. doi:10.1111/lang.12141
- Veenman, S. (1984). Perceived Problems of Beginning Teachers. *Review of Educational Research*, 54(2), 143-178.

- Vefali, Gülsen Musayeva. (2015). (De)Motivation in Preparatory EFL Classrooms. *Applied Language Learning*, 25(1/2), 16.
- Vibulphol, J. (2016). Students' Motivation and Learning and Teachers' Motivational Strategies in English Classrooms in Thailand. *English Language Teaching*, 9(4), 64-75.
- Vidich, A. J., & Lyman, S. M. (1994). Qualitative Methods: Their History in Sociology and Anthropology. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.) *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 23-59). London, UK: Sage.
- Virkiru, L. I. (2011). From assessment to learning: The teaching of English beyond examinations. *Educational Forum*, 75, 129-142.
- Vongxay, H. (2013). *The implementation of communicative language teaching (CLT) in an English department in a Lao higher educational institution: a case study* (Unpublished master's thesis). Unitec Institute of Technology, New Zealand.
- Walia, D. N. (2012). Traditional teaching methods vs. CLT: A study. *Frontiers of language and teaching*, 3(1), 125-131.
- Wall, D. (2012). Washback. In G. Fulcher & F. Davidson (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Language Testing* (pp.79-92). London, UK: Routledge.
- Walker, C., Greene, B., & Mansell, R. (2006). Identification with academics, intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, and self-efficacy as predictors of cognitive engagement. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 16(1), 1-12.
- Wang, B., Yu, S., & Teo, Y. (2018). Experienced EFL teachers' beliefs about feedback on student oral presentations. *Asian-Pacific Journal of Second and Foreign Language Education*, 3(12), 1-13.

- Wang, Q. (2007). *Primary EFL in China: Teachers' Perceptions and Practices with regard to Learner-Centredness* (Doctoral thesis). University of Warwick, UK.
- Wanthanasut, L. (2008). *The problems of English speaking of Mathayomsuksa 1 students at Phosai Pittayakom School, Ubonrachathani Educational Service Area 2* (Master's independent study), Ubonrachathani Rajabhat University, Thailand.
- Watanabe, Y. (2001). Does the university entrance examination motivate learners? A case study of learner interviews. In A. Murakami, (Ed.), *Akita association of English studies., trans-equator exchanges: A collection of academic papers in Honour of Professor David Ingram* (pp. 100-110). Akita, Japan: Akita University.
- Watson, A. M. (2013). Conceptualisations of 'grammar teaching': L1 English teachers' beliefs about teaching grammar for writing. *Language Awareness, 24*(1), 1-14. doi:10.1080/09658416.2013.828736
- Watson Todd, R. (2005). A new methodology for Thailand? *English Language Studies Forum, 2*, 45–53.
- Watson Todd, R. (2008). *The impact of evaluation on Thai ELT. Selected Proceedings of the 12th English in South-East Asia International Conference: Trends and Directions* (pp. 118-127). Bangkok: KMUTT.
- Watson Todd, R. (2012). The effects of class size on English learning at a Thai university. *ELT Research Journal, 1*(1), 80-88. Retrieved June 5, 2018 from <http://www.ulead.org.tr/journal>

- Wei, Y., & Zhou, Y. (2002). *Insights into English Pronunciation Problems of Thai Students*. Retrieved April 5, 2018 from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED476746>
- Westerman, D. (1991). Expert and Novice Teacher Decision Making. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 42(4), 292-305.
- White, R. (1988). *The ELT curriculum: Design, innovation, and management*. Oxford, UK: Blackwell.
- Widdowson, H.G. (1998), Context, Community, and Authentic Language. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(4), 705–716.
- Wilson, S. M., Shulman, L. S., & Richert, A. E. (1987). 150 different ways' of knowing: Representation of knowledge in teaching. In J. Calderhead (Ed.). *Exploring teachers' thinking* (pp. 104-124). London, UK: Cassell.
- Wingstedt, M., & Schulman, R. (1987). Comprehension of foreign accents. In W. Dressler, H. Luschutzky, O. Pfeiffer, & J. Rennison (Eds.), *Phonologica 1984* (pp. 339-345). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Wiriyachitra, A. (2002). English language teaching and learning in Thailand in this decade. *Thai TESOL Focus*, 15(1), 4-9.
- Wongsothorn, A., Sukamolsun, S., Chinthammit, P., Ratanothayanonth, P., & Noparumpa, P. (1996). National Profiles of Language Education: Thailand. *PASAA*, 26(1), 89-103.
- Woods, D. (1996). *Teacher cognition in language teaching*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

- Yang, Y., & Lyster, R. (2010). Effects of form-focused practice and feedback on Chinese EFL learners' acquisition of regular and irregular past tense forms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32(2), 235-263.
- Yashima, T. (2002). Willingness to Communicate in a Second Language: The Japanese EFL Context. *The Modern Language Journal*, 86, 54-66.
- Yazan, B. (2015). Intelligibility. *ELT Journal*, 69(2), 202-204.
- Yin, R.K. (2014). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods* (5th ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Yoshida, R. (2008). Learners' perception of corrective feedback in pair work. *Foreign Language Annals*, 41(3), 525–541. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2008.tb03310.x>
- Yoshida, R. (2008). Teachers' choice and learners' preference of corrective-feedback types. *Language Awareness*, 17, 78-93.
- Yoshida, R. (2010). How Do Teachers and Learners Perceive Corrective Feedback in the Japanese Language Classroom? *The Modern Language Journal*, 94, 293-314. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.2010.01022.x
- Young, T. J., & Walsh, S. (2010). Which English? Whose English? An investigation of 'non-native' teachers' beliefs about target varieties. *Language. Culture and Curriculum*, 23(2), 123–137.
- Yuan, F., & Ellis, R. (2003). The effects of pre-task planning and on-line planning on fluency, complexity and accuracy in L2 monologic oral production. *Applied Linguistics*, 24(1), 1-27.
- Zhao, Y. (1997). The effects of listeners' control of speech rate on second language comprehension. *Applied Linguistics*, 18(1), 49-68.

- Zheng, H. (2009). A Review of Research on EFL Pre-Service Teachers' Beliefs and Practices. *Journal of Cambridge Studies*, 4(1), 73-81.
- Zhu, H. (2010). An Analysis of College Students' Attitudes towards Error Correction in EFL Context. *English Language Teaching*, 3(4), 127-131.
- Zielinski, B. (2008). The listener: No longer the silent partner in reduced intelligibility. *System*, 36(1), 69-84.
- Zoghbor, W. Sh. (2010). *The Effectiveness of the lingua franca core (LFC) in improving the perceived intelligibility and perceived comprehensibility of Arab learners at post-secondary level* (Doctoral thesis). University of Leicester, UK.