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“Exploring teachers’ provision of oral corrective feedback in a private language institute in Toluca, State of Mexico”

Tesis
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Resumen

La retroalimentación oral correctiva es un área de interés en estudios sobre la adquisición de una segunda lengua. A través del tiempo se ha investigado desde diferentes perspectivas y profundizado de acuerdo con su efectividad o bien, si esta se adecua a las prácticas docentes. El presente trabajo de investigación tiene como objetivo explorar la corrección de errores desde el análisis conversacional, así como sus implicaciones en el salón de clases.

Esta investigación se llevó a cabo en una escuela de idiomas ubicada en Toluca, Estado de México, bajo un enfoque cualitativo. La información recolectada para este estudio consta de observaciones y grabaciones de audio y video tomadas de seis salones de clase. En total, nueve horas fueron recopiladas para posteriormente clasificar los episodios de corrección en seis técnicas principales: inducción, modificación, repetición, solicitud de aclaración, retroalimentación metalingüística y corrección explicita (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Dichas técnicas se examinaron con un análisis conversacional que incluyó máximas conversacionales y marcos de referencia.

Los resultados sugieren que las conversaciones en el salón de clase distan de las conversaciones en otros ámbitos debido a que existe un lenguaje específico que moldea las interacciones en clase. Por lo tanto, se busca maximizar las oportunidades en la que los estudiantes puedan participar en clase para que el discurso no sólo dependa del docente y fomentar otras oportunidades de comunicación. Este trabajo está orientado a coordinadores, administrativos y docentes, quienes pueden tomar en cuenta los resultados para promover enfoques conversacionales en el salón de clases.

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I convey my thanks to my classmates and friends since these two years were hard but full of experiences that I will never forget. I have learned many things from you.

I also want to acknowledge CONACYT because I was able to research a topic I like and continue with my professional development. This research would not have been possible without your assistance.

Dedication

I want to dedicate this study to my grandparents Aurelia Reyes and Roberto Mejía because they have always given me support and strength since I was a child. Also, to my mother Luz Mejía. I would not have achieved this without your support, patience, and advice.

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Table of Contents

Resumen i

Acknowledgments ii

Dedication.. iii

Chapter One: Introduction 1

1.1 Introduction 1

1.2 Research motivation 1

1.3 Background of the study 1

1.4 Identification of gaps in research.. 3

1.5 Purpose of the study 3

1.6 Overview of the study... 4

Chapter Two: Literature Review 5

2.1 Introduction 5

2.2 Classroom discourse: The interaction between teachers and students 5

2.2.1 Teacher talk 9

2.2.1.1 Pedagogical teacher talk 10

2.2.1.2 Communicative teacher talk 11

2.3 Conversation analysis 12

2.3.1 The cooperative principle.. 12

2.3.1.1 Grice’s maxims of conversation 12

2.3.2 Turn-taking 14

2.3.3 Repair 15

2.3.4 Frames 16

2.4 Oral corrective feedback.. 17

2.4.1 Historical overview of oral corrective feedback.. 19

2.4.2 Typologies of oral corrective feedback 22
2.4.2.1 Recasts 23
2.4.2.2 Explicit correction 24
2.4.2.3 Elicitation 25
2.4.2.4 Metalinguistic feedback 26
2.4.2.5 Clarification request 26
2.4.2.6 Repetition 27
2.4.3 Oral corrective feedback and pedagogy 28
2.4.4. The interactionist cognitive view 29
2.5 Conclusion 30
Chapter Three: Research Methodology 31
3.1 Introduction 31
3.2 Research question 31
3.3 Qualitative paradigm 31
3.4 Ethnomethodology 32
3.4.1 Conversation analysis 33
3.5. Data collection techniques 35
3.5.1 Recorded classroom observations 35
3.5.1.1 Video recordings and audio tapes 35
3.6 Context of the study 36
3.7 Participants 37
3.7.1 Teachers 37
3.7.2 Students 37
3.8 Ethics 38
3.9 Data analysis 39

3.9.1 First period of analysis 39
3.9.2 Second period of analysis 40
3.9.2.1 The cooperative principle and maxims of conversation 40
3.9.2.2 Principles of conversation analysis 40
3.9.2.3 Frame analysis 41
3.10 Data coding 41
3.11 Conclusion 42
Chapter Four: Data Analysis 44
4.1 Introduction 44
4.2 Corrective feedback and the classification of techniques 44
4.3 Analysis of corrective feedback techniques through conversation analysis 46
4.3.1 Recasts 46
4.3.2 Metalinguistic feedback 49
4.3.3 Elicitation 52
4.3.4 Repetition 54
4.3.5 Explicit correction 57
4.3.6 Clarification request 60
4.4 Discussion of the efficacy of the techniques 61
4.5 Conclusion 62
Chapter Five: Conclusion 63
5.1 Introduction 63
5.2 Revisiting the research question 63
5.3 Summary of findings 63
5.3.1 Corrective feedback and the cooperative principle 63
5.3.2 Corrective feedback, turn-taking and repair 64

5.3.3 Corrective feedback and frame analysis 64
5.3.4 The efficacy of oral corrective feedback 65
5.4 Pedagogical implications 65
5.5 Limitations 67
5.6 Further research 67
5.7 Conclusion 68
References 69
Appendices 81
Appendix 1. Field notes 81
Appendix 2. Description of the activities 82
Appendix 3. Consent letter for teachers 83
Appendix 4. Consent letter for parents 84
Appendix 5. Data transcription excerpts 85

Chapter One
Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This study aims to examine the way teachers provide oral corrective feedback at a private language institute in Toluca, State of Mexico. In this chapter, I will present the foundations of this thesis. It encompasses my motivation, the background of the research topic, and the possible gaps that may be bridged. I will also focus on the purpose and overview of this work.

1.2 Research motivation

There are two main reasons that have led to the development of this study. First, as a teacher with no previous experience, I received training that included error correction techniques. However, in my practice, I used to employ the techniques that I remembered the most, and I cannot recall if I reflected on my teaching practice at that moment. This implies that I did not consider if it was beneficial for my students, and I just applied them in the classrooms as steps that I needed to follow. After some time, I noticed that there were different assumptions related to error correction that I used to take for granted. When I received feedback from the observation of my classes, I became aware that there was no consensus about when it was considered pertinent to correct learners. Some coordinators, for example, suggested I use delayed feedback, while others mentioned that I should not correct students at all. These episodes made me question the effectiveness of error correction. Second, I became interested in other teachers' opinions regarding this topic. Informal conversations with my colleagues showed me that there were different views about errors and how to correct learners. Therefore, I decided to explore this issue to enlighten my understanding of the topic, but also to make it useful for teachers with similar queries.

1.3 Background of the study

Oral corrective feedback, defined as "any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect" (Lightbown & Spada, 1999, p. 216), is an area of interest in the field of second language acquisition (SLA). It has been a topic of discussion since the

1950s, and the studies in this area have varied throughout time. To establish the background of this research, it is relevant to distinguish between four stages. Ellis (2017) classifies them as descriptive studies, experimental studies, meta-analysis studies, and later descriptive studies.

Descriptive studies initiated by exploring questions such as when, how, and why to provide error correction, as well as the categorization of errors and corrective techniques (Hendrickson, 1978; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Seedhouse, 1997). This work laid the foundations for further research. Later, the approach of experimental studies had an impact on the field because corrective feedback was examined under controlled variables in classrooms or language laboratories (Lightbown & Spada, 2001; Sheen, 2006). The purpose of this type of inquiry was to explore whether corrective feedback has effects on SLA, such as the factor of noticing errors, and the consequences of error correction on individual learners. Meta-analysis studies (Li, 2010) have analyzed previous findings, with the purpose of statistically evaluating the impact that corrective feedback has on acquiring a second language in similar contexts. Lately, oral corrective feedback has received increased attention in the areas of conversation analysis (Seedhouse, 2004), attitudinal research (Sheen, 2007), types and frequency (Lochtman, 2002), as well as effectiveness (Su & Tian, 2016). These topics were classified into later descriptive studies since they were conducted after classical research. Such views have enlightened the understanding of corrective feedback through multiple approaches.

Work in Mexico has focused on exploring corrective feedback throughout attitudinal research, (García Ponce & Mora Pablo, 2017; Gómez Argüelles *et al*., 2019; Hernández Méndez & Reyes Cruz, 2012; Mendez García & Morales Martínez, 2018). These studies have been conducted in the States of Quintana Roo, Guanajuato, and Puebla; they have contributed to the field of oral corrective feedback by explaining students' and teachers' attitudes and beliefs regarding error correction. The present research can be categorized into the field of later descriptive studies within the methodology of conversation analysis. In the next sections, more information about this study will be provided.

1.4 Identification of gaps in research

Previous studies in the area allowed me to identify two gaps in the existing research that this project aims to fill. The first one lies in the methodology. Research to date on corrective feedback has focused on classifying the techniques that teachers employ to correct, as well as its implications for SLA (Ellis, 2009, 2015; Li, 2010; Lyster, 1998b; Mackey *et al*., 2016). However, what is has not been deeply explored yet are the contextual factors that occur when teachers employ corrective feedback and how they intervene in the efficacy of error corrections. This study contributes to the body of knowledge by examining whether the conversation analysis principles can be applied in teachers' error correction and what are its effects in the classroom.

The second gap is related to research in Mexico about corrective feedback. The most representative studies in the country (García Ponce & Mora Pablo, 2017; Gómez Argüelles *et al*., 2019; Hernández Méndez & Reyes Cruz, 2012; Mendez García & Morales Martínez, 2018) cover attitudinal research about oral corrective feedback. This investigation was conducted under a different methodological approach, and it provides more information in the area of classroom discourse.

1.5 Purpose of the study

Considering the above, the purpose of this research is to identify how teachers provide oral corrective feedback in English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms. It also aims to analyze the choices that teachers make while they give feedback in their classes. The research question that aligns to this objective is the following:

> *How is oral corrective feedback provided in EFL classrooms by teachers at a private language institute in Toluca, State of Mexico?*

To offer answers to the question, this thesis is situated in a qualitative paradigm. The method used to carry out the research was ethnomethodology with an emphasis on conversation analysis. The data collection techniques used to collect information were recorded-classroom observations.

1.6 Overview of the study

This thesis is comprised of five chapters. In Chapter One, the main characteristics of the research were established. They included my research motivation, the background of the study, the identification of gaps, the objectives, and the research question.

Chapter Two presents the core concepts in the literature that enhance the view of this thesis. It covers three main topics which are classroom discourse, conversation analysis, and oral corrective feedback.

In Chapter Three, the methodology used to carry out this study is presented. This entails an explanation of the research paradigm, the method, and techniques employed to gather and to process the data. It also incorporates a description of the context and participants, as well as a section of ethics and coding.

Chapter Four encompasses the analysis of the data. It includes the classification of the information into corrective feedback techniques, and it presents an in-depth examination of them through conversation analysis.

Finally, Chapter Five provides the readers a summary of the findings of this research and the importance of the study. Also, the pedagogical implications are discussed, and some suggestions for further research are given.

In the chapter that follows, the main concepts for the literature review regarding oral corrective feedback will be examined.

Chapter Two
Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided the overview of this research. In this section, the literature that surrounds classroom discourse, corrective feedback, and elements of conversation analysis will be presented. Classroom discourse and teacher talk is the starting point of this study. The next section addresses conversation analysis, where a range of concepts is explained to understand the particularities of this research. Finally, the corrective feedback section provides classifications and definitions that show a recent view of error correction in SLA literature.

2.2 Classroom discourse: The interaction between teachers and students

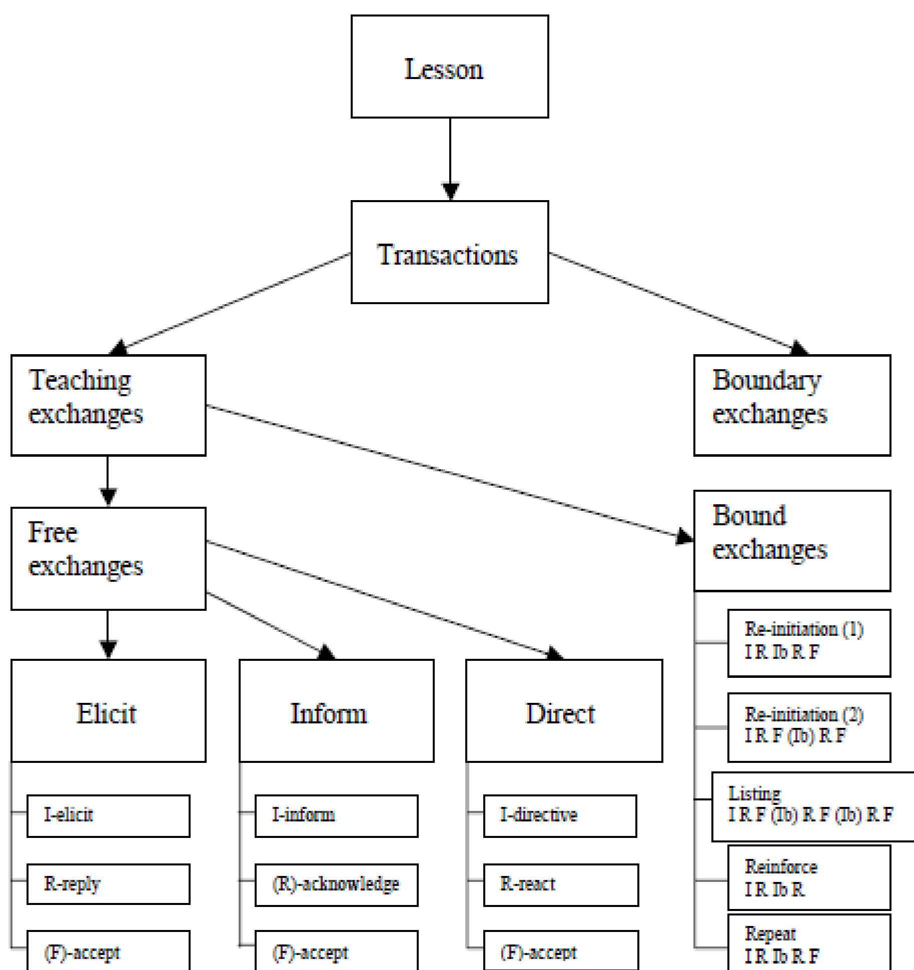
Classroom discourse is an area in applied linguistics that has been studied since the decade of 1970. It is defined in an essential way as “all of those forms of talk that one may find within a classroom or other educational setting” (Jocuns, 2013, p. 1). Classroom discourse is identified by researchers in the field as a unique context regarding other circumstantial discourses where interaction may occur. For Walsh (2002), “The classroom should be viewed as a context in its own right, or rather a series of interrelated contexts, jointly created and defined by the participants: the teacher and learners” (p. 3). Therefore, classroom discourse explores the interaction between teachers and learners, considering it as a unique environment, that has its own rules.

One of the main subjects studied in classroom discourse is the initiative-response-feedback (IRF) sequence, proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). It is employed to analyze the interaction in the classroom and the usual moves that occur during a lesson. The initiatives and feedback are patterns generally used by teachers, and the responses are given by students. This sequence is based on the identification of speech acts in the classroom. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) classify each possible interaction into acts, moves, exchanges, transactions, and lessons. In this model, acts comprise the minimum unit of contact and lessons refer to the complete class. When they work together it is possible to identify the

patterns of teachers' and students' talk. In Figure 1, Atkins (2001) proposes a visual model of the exchange of acts in the classroom.

Figure 1

Initiation-response-feedback sequences



Note. Principal transactions in the classroom, based on speech acts. From "Sinclair and Coulthard's 'IRF' model in a one-to-one classroom: An analysis", by Atkins, p. 3 Birmingham University https://www.birmingham.ac.uk/Documents/college-artslaw/cels/essays/csdp/Atkins4.pdf

Figure 1 shows that in a lesson there are two types of transactions: teaching exchanges and boundary exchanges. Teaching exchanges give place to moves such as eliciting, informing, or directing. Bound exchanges contemplate speech acts like repeating, listing, and reinforcing. Other types of speech acts are also presented. Figure 1 illustrates how teachers' initiations are the key to the next moves. This sequence is helpful to explain that classes are normally controlled by the teachers' discourse. Some related studies (Domalewska, 2015; Hitotuzi, 2005) demonstrate that the percentage of teacher talk in the classroom can go further than 60%. This implies that students do not have enough opportunities to participate in the language classroom. A similar view is provided by Bowers (1980), who analyzed the utterances produced by teachers and students during classes. The research is based on speech acts, where teachers use language to "sociate, organize, direct, present, elicit, respond, and evaluate" (Bowers, 1980, p. 284). The results obtained in his study illustrate that classroom interaction is mainly controlled and initiated by the teacher. Moreover, students seem to have a unique role that consists of responding to teachers' initiations.

Table 1

Teachers' and students' speech acts (adapted from Bowers, 1980)

Category	Teacher	Student
Sociate	72%	28%
Organize	90%	10%
Direct	100%	
Present	90%	10%
Elicit	97%	3%
Respond	3%	97%
Evaluate	98%	2%

Table 1 shows the different speech act categories in Bower's classification. The percentages in each column suggest that students have limited opportunities to speak in the classroom. For this reason, the IRF model has been criticized. For instance, Mehan (1979) investigated the role of information questions in classroom discourse. He identified additional moves while teachers use elicitations (extended elicitation sequences). The major contribution of his work owes to his approach to the language classroom, which he considers to be different from regular conversations. Namely, when students answer questions, teachers

evaluate the answers, and they usually respond with feedback markers. This changes the regular patterns in a conversation where a question should be answered, rather than evaluated. Such behavior likely has negative consequences. For example, students imitate answers and repeat patterns, instead of using language spontaneously. Furthermore, Yu (2009) and Noor *et al*. (2010) found that the IRF sequence is not appliable in the current view of classroom interactions. Instead, the authors identify other types of exchanges, which follow different moves regarding teachers' and students' talk and turn-taking. What is interpreted from these studies is that the nature of classroom interaction is dynamic. Therefore, it cannot be simplified in three moves, which correspond to the IRF sequence.

Another approach was proposed by Waring (2011), who positions IRF as an opportunity for language learning. Instead of giving the teacher a central role, he analyses learner initiatives under the same model. The outcomes of his study revealed that learner initiatives are complex. Three categories resulted from students' sequence initiation, "Type A, students who initiate a sequence; type B, who volunteer a response; and type C, who exploit an assigned turn" (p. 214). In this case, learners' initiatives are viewed as opportunities for learning due to the agency that students have in the use of language. This study is valuable because it demonstrates that students do not only respond to teachers' initiatives; they can have a more active role in the classroom. A critical perspective of classroom discourse was suggested by Kumaravadivelu (1999). It differed from other studies because he analyzed in detail how classrooms are shaped by historical and sociopolitical conditions. Additionally, he examined classroom discourse, considering the diverse identities in the teaching-learning cycle. This view recognized the role of teachers and students as variable and active. It also established that the last purpose of critical discourse analysis is to focus attention on what teachers and students have to say, beyond the traditional turn-taking .

The views addressed throughout this section have shown the complexity of classroom interactions. In terms of this research, these positions are helpful as they provide complementary explanations about EFL classrooms. It is considered that the language classroom is asymmetrical as teachers have more power and opportunities to direct activities in the classroom. These elements will be discussed in the following section.

2.2.1 Teacher talk

Teacher talk is another theme that contributes theoretically to this research, mainly because it has a direct relation with the research question of this study on the subject of corrective feedback. Yanfen and Yuquin (2010) mentionst that:

> The language employed by teachers in language classes is served as the source of input of language knowledge and is used to instruct language communication and organize classroom activities. Moreover, teacher talk plays a very important role in the teaching process as an interactive device. (p. 77)

This shows the significance of analyzing teacher talk, not only for pedagogical purposes such as corrective feedback but also as a source of input for students. Consequently, it is necessary to raise awareness of how language operates. Kumaravadivelu (1993), Thornbury (1996), and Walsh (2002, 2006) argue that teacher talk should be based on the opportunities that teachers offer their learners to communicate using the language in context. However, an argument against teachers' and classroom talk is that it rarely promotes real communication (Nunan, 1987). This premise was previously stated by Mehan (1979), who considered that language teaching does not align with the conventions in regular conversations. To exemplify, he proposed the following comparison:

Table 2

Examples of two excerpts of an ordinary conversation and a classroom conversation (adapted from Mehan, 1979)

Ordinary conversation	Classroom conversation
Speaker A: What time is it, Denise? Speaker B: 2:30 Speaker A: Thank you, Denise	Speaker A: What time is it, Denise? Speaker B: 2:30 Speaker A: Very good, Denise!

As can be noticed in Table 2 a regular conversation seems logical in terms of the sequence of a question, answer, and acknowledgment. Nonetheless, what is different in the second conversation is the last line, which is perceived more as an evaluation of the previous

statement. These kinds of patterns in teacher talk are what promotes distancing from authentic communicative interactions.

Other studies, however, understand classrooms as a unique context, where natural communicative conversations rarely occur due to the conditions imposed by the setting (Cullen, 1998; Walsh, 2002). According to the researchers, it is significant to associate the classroom with the language produced there and to study it under specific circumstances:

> Attempts to define communicative talk in the classroom must be based primarily on what is or is not communicative in the context of the classroom itself, rather than on what may or may not be communicative in other contexts; and that the application of criteria of communicativeness solely on the basis of social behavior which exists in certain contexts outside the classroom could result in an inappropriate and ultimately unattainable model for the majority of language teachers to follow. (Cullen, 1998, p. 180)

Hence, teacher talk should be perceived as a feature of the classroom, rather than to be evaluated in terms of outside settings. Regarding the different positions presented above, teacher talk can be classified into pedagogical teacher talk, and communicative teacher talk (Cullen, 1998). The next sections will provide information about these two categories in detail.

2.2.1.1 Pedagogical teacher talk

Pedagogical teacher talk is considered as non-communicative (Seedhouse, 1996) because it does not follow the regular rules of conversation. However, it is shaped by the language classroom and activities that occur there. Teachers employ it for pedagogical purposes. Cullen (1998) distinguishes four aspects in teachers talk: a) use of display questions, which can be estimated as questions where the teachers already know the answer; b) form feedback, referring to the corrective feedback where teachers focus on form, grammatical or structural patterns; c) echoing responses, which refer to repetitions to emphasize what the students say; and d) predictable IRF sequences, where the teacher initiates an exchange, students answer and the teacher provides feedback.

A more recent view, but not different in content, is proposed by Walsh (2006). He identifies three characteristics of teacher talk: "control of patterns of communication, elicitation techniques, and modifying speech to learners" (p. 3). Concerning the first element, he explains how sequences of IRF work. Second, he examines elicitation techniques as the language used to control classroom discourse. Third, he identifies that teachers ask basic questions that do not encourage long answers. The last characteristic contemplates that teachers modify their regular speech. In this regard, Lynch, (1996) reports three reasons why teachers use this technique: One to promote understanding in the classroom, in a way that the input is clear for students; other is to solve problems in communication such as misunderstandings; and the last one is related with modeling language. These characteristics have an impact on the classroom because they lead to mechanical language, where patterns in speaking are mainly repeated. That may not have space for other types of interaction in the classroom. In summary, Cullen (1998) and Walsh (2006) describe similar features of teacher pedagogical talk, which can be interpreted also as techniques that help them achieve particular objectives related to the class.

2.2.1.2 Communicative teacher talk

As opposed to pedagogical teacher talk, communicative teacher talk refers to the recommendations on how teachers may change their patterns in discourse to promote more spontaneous communication in the classroom. To illustrate, Cullen (1998) recommends modifying didactic teacher talk to adopt the following exchanges: a) use of referential questions, which enhances communication and the teachers do not know the answers; b) content feedback, where students can focus on the message and not only on the form; c) use of speech modification, teachers should not modify their speech; and d) attempts to negotiate meaning, by exposing more the time students talk and by allowing students to interrupt and to contribute in their exchanges. Although teacher talk seems to be rigid and resistant to change, these suggestions open the scope for adaptation.

The present research contemplates both understandings of teacher talk. First, it is considered that the classroom and teacher talk are part of a natural context and participants understand the rules governing such interactions (Goffman, 1974). However, in terms of pedagogy, sometimes teacher talk may be ambiguous or cause misunderstandings because learners require enough linguistic competence to notice what teachers refer to. It is

considered that if the teacher talk is developed taking into consideration conversational rules, this vagueness can turn into opportunities for learning and to improve classroom discourse. Some recommendations are presented by Chenail and Chenail (2011), and Alerwi and Alzahrani (2020), who encourage the use of conversational rules in the classroom as part of tasks to improve communication and to increase interaction between learners. For example, Alerwi and Alzahrani (2020) consider that the use of sitcoms in the classroom can raise student's awareness on speech acts. Afterwards, students can use them in a natural fashion, instead of reducing the interactions to the instruction of a textbook.

2.3 Conversation analysis

The approach that this research followed is conversation analysis. In this section the first aspects to confer are the cooperative principle and Grice's (1975) maxims of conversation. They belong to the field of pragmatics and they refer to how people achieve meaning through interaction. The subsequent section will present these features in detail.

2.3.1 The cooperative principle

The cooperative principle is a concept developed by Grice (1975, 1989). It is helpful to explain the process in which spoken language occurs, specifically how in a conversation people understand what others say, without expressing it explicitly. He indicates that to achieve this type of understanding or implicature, it is essential to reflect clarity in what we state. In his own words, the cooperative principle suggests: "Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged" (Grice, 1975, p. 45). This principle refers to agreements between people where there should be a mutual understanding regarding what it is said. To accomplish these conditions, Grice (1975) proposes four maxims that will be discussed in the next section.

2.3.1.1 Grice's maxims of conversation

Following the cooperative principle, the maxims of conversation aim to clarify the understanding in a conversation. Davies' (2007) view about the Gricean maxims highlights their importance:

> There is an accepted way of speaking which we all accept as standard behavior. When we produce or hear an utterance, we assume that it will generally be true, have the right amount of information, be relevant, and will be couched in understandable terms. If an utterance does not appear to conform to this model, then we do not assume that the utterance is nonsense; rather, we assume that an appropriate meaning is there to be inferred. (p. 2)

Therefore, it is suggested that each speaker contributes to enhance communication in their speaking. Davies (2007) indicates that communication breakdowns can be avoided by adhering to the Gricean maxims, which contemplate the next aspects:

a) Maxim of Quantity: Make your contribution as informative as is required.
b) Maxim of Quality: Do not say what you believe to be false. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.
c) Maxim of Relation: Be relevant.
d) Maxim of Manner: Avoid obscurity of expression, avoid ambiguity, be brief, be orderly. (Grice, 1975, p. 47)

Each maxim presents characteristics that should ideally be used in communicative exchanges. Several studies have informed how Grice's maxims work in diverse settings (Day *et al*., 1984; Hadi, 2013; Wilson & Sperber, 1981). This research proposes that maxims can be meaningful to analyze classroom interactions. Concerning corrective feedback, Carroll (1995) explores a set of excerpts under this model. The results show that according to the maxim of relevance, corrective feedback does not align with the rule. She argues that error correction violates this maxim because it is not pertinent to communication. Additionally, she demonstrates the distance between what is said, the implicature, and the students' understanding. Her study contributes to the area of error correction because it clarifies how in terms of pragmatics, corrective feedback leads to misunderstanding in the classroom, instead of helping students to achieve repair.

Another approach to Grice's maxims as employed in the language classroom consists of using them during communicative exchanges. For example, Armstrong (2007) and Liu

(2017) suggest that using the maxims help improve classroom communication. Liu (2017) studies the application in maxims in questions. She argues that:

> The classroom questioning plays the key part, and as the main way to realize the successful communication between teachers and students. In this regard, to let students master more knowledge and skills, teachers must appropriate application of the Politeness Principle and Cooperative Principle. Teachers should pay attention to the way and method of asking questions. Especially, in class question-answer process teachers should use normative language and words to construct sentences according to students' ability of receptivity and students' academic performance. (p. 569)

It is central to recognize the application of studies like these in the language classroom. Furthermore, they could be extended to specific aspects of language teaching. For instance, it is indicated that teachers could use the maxims while they provide corrective feedback and to link the correction techniques with the purposes of the activity or the lesson. In terms of this research, the cooperative principle is helpful to analyze the way in which error correction is provided and whether the maxims are respected for the purposes of communication.

2.3.2 Turn-taking

Under the scope of conversation analysis, turn-taking represents how talk is organized systematically. In previous sections of this chapter, it was explained how the interaction was displayed concerning teacher talk. This section intends to explore in-depth how turn-taking works. Sacks *et al*. (1978) are known as the pioneers of the analysis of talk-in-interaction, also known as conversation analysis. They propose a model to study how talk operates through turns.

Table 3
Representation of systematics for the organization of turn-taking for conversation (adapted from Sacks *et al*., 1978)

Turn constructional component	Turn allocation component
Initial transition relevance place	a) Current speaker selecting next speaker b) Next turn allocated by self-selection

Table 3 shows the systematics for the organization of turn-taking which consists of two types of turns. The turn constructional component identifies the production of a turn, which can be a word or a phrase. The turn allocation component refers to the selection of the next speaker, which can be self-selected or selected by the current speaker. Mortensen (2008) claims that turn-selection in the classroom had not been fully explored. His study emphasizes that teachers do not provide enough opportunities for turn allocation. Instead, they take the role to initiate transitions. His study elucidates how teachers choose the next student using paralinguistic features, and that they usually choose the student who is willing to participate. On the other hand, Garton (2012) argues that students make use of the turn allocation component:

> Far from being constrained by the classroom turn-taking system, learners are able to engage in complex and sophisticated interactional work. They can take control of the organizational sequences in classroom talk, depending on the type of activity they are involved in, so as to direct the interaction in a way that better suits their learning needs. (p. 42)

A limitation of comparing both views lies in the context of each study. The first example seems to be teacher centered. In the second one, more opportunities for students to take turns are fostered. In conclusion, the interactions generated through turn-taking will depend on the teachers' view of the classroom.

2.3.3 Repair

Repair is another influential element in the analysis of talk. It is a term that, according to Fox *et al*. (2013), refers to attending the source of a problem: "Whether the trouble arises from problems with speaking, hearing, understanding, or, potentially, agreement, repair practices exist which can attend to it within just a few turns of the source of the trouble" (p. 1). Repair is likely to occur when a misunderstanding in communication is presented, and the speaker clarifies the discourse. It is also known as a response to a correction while speaking. For Schegloff *et al*. (1977; as cited in Kasper, 1985) there are four types of repair in a regular conversation, namely:

a) Self-initiated and self-completed repair. The participant responsible for the trouble-source initiates and completes the repair.
b) Other-initiated and self-completed repair. The interlocutor identifies the trouble-source and initiates the repair; the producer of the trouble-source completes it.
c) Self-initiated and other-completed repair. The producer of the trouble-source initiates the repair; the interlocutor completes it.
d) Other-initiated and other-completed repair. The interlocutor identifies the trouble-source and initiates and completes the repair (p. 201)

The types of repair presented above, show that repair can be achieved through different moves that speakers make. In the language classroom, repair does not necessarily occur on the same terms because discourse and language are mainly controlled by the teacher. To illustrate, Mozaffari *et al*. (2018) reveal that teachers mostly react to students' phonological and grammatical errors. Hence, their study does not include evidence of repair in complex conversations. Additionally, it illustrates that students are not guided to self-repair; the most common pattern found was other-initiated and self-completed repair. It means that teachers use strategies to promote self-correction with their students, but learners cannot identify the source of the problem. Considering the social aspect, McHoul (1990) suggests that "Once the social identities of teacher and student are mapped against self-and other-forms of initiation and correction, it is possible to discern some of the structural preferences of classroom discourse along the general axis of repair" (p. 349). This quote reveals that both learners and teachers establish patterns that may lead to specific forms of interaction.

2.3.4 Frames

The last category to be addressed regarding conversation analysis is frames. It is a concept introduced by the sociologist Goffman (1974). Frames refer to a level of interpretation into how people make sense of their experiences. According to the author, people constantly shape their understanding in the way they speak and act. Ribeiro and Hoyle (2009) mention that: "There is no out-of-frame activity. Furthermore, participants in a social encounter are continuously reframing talk and thereby changing the ongoing interaction" (p. 76). This notion is relevant to understand how people behave socially. Ribeiro and Hoyle

(2009) also report that frames as a tool for interpretation can be employed in diverse situations such as context in interaction, nonverbal communication, everyday talk, play, institutional discourse, education, and medicine.

The current research is concerned with the educational setting. A recent example of the use of frames in education is the study carried out by Lane (2019). She analyzes how teachers' interaction regarding evaluation impacts evaluation policies as teachers and stakeholders share the same perspectives on the topic. Persson (2015) examines how a school can be framed differently. For instance, as an institution, as an organization, or as a seminar. Depending on who frames it, the social dynamics change, and so do individuals who make use of it.

The previous examples show framing in broader contexts than in the classroom. However, in terms of this research, frame analysis is helpful to explain how teachers and students perceive the interaction between them. This study will use principles of conversation analysis to identify the teachers' discourse while providing feedback. In the following section, more details about this topic will be addressed.

2.4 Oral corrective feedback

Oral corrective feedback is considered an important area in SLA because it has theoretical and practical relevance (Ellis, 2010). Oral corrective feedback is defined as "the form of responses to learner utterances that contain (or are perceived as containing) an error. It occurs in reactive form-focused episodes consisting of a trigger, the feedback move, and (optionally) uptake" (Ellis & Shintani, 2014, p. 249). This definition comprises three elements necessary to understand the process of error correction. The first one is error, which research has understood as "a systematic deviation made by learners who are lack of knowledge of the correct rule of the target language. It shows a lack of language competence and it reflects a learner's current stage of L2 development" (Jing *et al.*, 2016, p. 98). There are different types of errors depending on the linguistical perspective. For instance, they can be lexical, grammatical, syntactical, phonological or morphosyntactic (Mackey *et al.*, 2016). In the EFL classrooms, the learner, peers, or teachers may respond to an error and try to correct it. This research focuses on the actions that teachers take when they identify an error. Following Ellis and Shintani's (2014) definition presented about oral corrective feedback, an

error can cause a trigger (an utterance that cause a breakdown in communication) and it may lead to a feedback move. However, uptake or the recognition of the error, possibly followed by repair is optional because it does not always occur. Lyster and Ranta (1997) exemplify a sequence of corrective feedback as follows:

> The sequence begins with a learner's utterance containing at least one error. The erroneous utterance is followed either by the teacher's corrective feedback or not; if not, then there is topic continuation. If corrective feedback is provided by the teacher, then it is either followed by uptake on the part of the student or not (no uptake entails topic continuation). If there is uptake, then the student's initially erroneous utterance is either repaired or continues to need repair in some way. (p. 45)

This description is helpful to identify the different moves required to provide feedback. It also implies that it is not necessary to continue with the sequence because it depends on contextual factors in the classroom. Pedagogically, oral corrective feedback is also identified as:

> a tool that teachers use to turn errors into opportunities for L2 development. Corrective feedback provides negative evidence by signaling that a learner's utterance contained an error but can also provide positive evidence if the feedback contains the target form. (Mackey *et al*., 2016, p. 500)

Thus, one of the main roles of corrective feedback from this perspective is to help learners in the process of acquiring a new language, targeting correct forms. Data from other studies indicate that error correction is helpful to promote noticing and it has an influence on the learners' interlanguage system (Ellis, 2015; Li, 2010). As this research is focused on teachers' provision of corrective feedback, a historical background of this topic will be explored.

2.4.1 Historical overview of oral corrective feedback

The inquiry about corrective feedback has its origins in 1950, and since then it has been the subject of diverse studies. The teaching methods active in each period have influenced the approaches to the language classroom, and consequently the views around oral corrective feedback. Rizi and Ketabi (2015) and Russell (2009) report on those changes. For instance, in the 1950s, errors were seen as interferences from the L1. The most influential teaching method was audiolingualism at the time, and it was necessary to correct erroneous utterances as well as constantly repeat the right patterns to avoid further errors (Hendrickson, 1978). Later, in the decade of 1960s, "the researchers… tried to make CF [corrective feedback] more complex by elaborating new terms and posing new questions related to CF" (Rizi & Ketabi, 2015, p. 69). Therefore, questions related to who and how to provide feedback were the key elements for the studies in that period.

The start of the next decade was shaped by research on error analysis and contrastive analysis. Russell (2009) illustrates that in this period, the natural approach attracted interest. It positioned corrective feedback as a negative strategy, under the idea that students needed to receive only positive input and corrections did not benefit them. The author states that, in the 1980s, there was a change in the approaches, and communicative language teaching became popular. As the name suggests, communication in the classroom was fostered. The role of error correction was not the main concern of this approach because it tended to emphasize fluency on spoken interactions. Finally, in the 1990s, corrective feedback was promoted as an important for acquisition since it focused on assisting students to notice their errors. Rizi and Ketabi (2015) state that recent research regarding corrective feedback has become specific, for example, scholars have centered on strategies to correct errors. They have analyzed how it influences the interaction in the classroom. Table 4 summarizes the main characteristics of each decade.

Table 4
Oral corrective feedback through decades (adapted from Rizi & Ketabi, 2015; Russell, 2012; Su & Tian, 2016)

1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000
Behaviorists theories and audiolingual method Prevention of linguistic errors	Language imitation Contrastive and error analysis	Language-communication The natural approach	Variety of topics answering pivotal questions about corrective feedback	Experimental studies Effects on SLA	Corrective feedback and learners' differences Teachers' and students' perceptions

The significance of including a historical perspective aligns with Rizi and Ketabi's (2015) understanding, who discuss that: "a close look at the history of CF [corrective feedback] helps teachers and researchers become familiar with different views about the CF, change their methodological perspectives on CF and try to apply the research findings to language pedagogy" (p. 63). Consequently, the relationship between teaching methods, theories, and corrective feedback, is helpful to recognize the different views on corrective feedback and its impact on teaching practices. Although both angles identify periods related to oral corrective feedback, there is little emphasis on more recent research. Su and Tian (2016) indicate that latter studies on corrective feedback follow three lines: attitudinal research of corrective feedback, the type and frequency of corrective feedback, and the effectiveness of different types of corrective feedback.

In comparison with the previous chart, Ellis (2017) classifies studies of corrective feedback in terms of their methodology. His view provides fruitful information about the diversity in research. The categorization consists of four periods: descriptive studies, later descriptive studies, experimental studies, and meta-analysis of corrective feedback studies. Table 5 exemplifies the characteristics of each label.

Table 5
Research studies on error correction (adapted from Ellis, 2017)

Early research	Later descriptive studies	Experimental studies	Meta-analysis studies	Other descriptive studies
Descriptive studies and treatment of errors.	Categorization of errors and feedback types. For example: explicit and implicit feedback	Effects of corrective feedback. Noticing Individual differences.	Statistical analysis of previous research.	Research on conversation analysis and repair.

Early research refers to studies about corrective feedback which were descriptive. According to Ellis (2017), those studies identified some types of errors and how teachers approach them. The second period is represented by Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994); and Lyster and Ranta (1997), who focused on categorizing the types of errors and techniques. The difference between early research and this phase is that later descriptive studies considered how corrective feedback can promote acquisition. Experimental studies contemplated a wide range of topics that focus on aspects of corrective feedback. Ellis (2017) identifies four themes: the effect of corrective feedback on L2 acquisition, the effects of different types of feedback, noticing as a mediating factor on the effect of corrective feedback, as well as individual factors and the effect of corrective feedback. These studies shared that they were informed by SLA theories and that the results varied depending on the context. Meta-analysis studies consisted of interpreting statistical data obtained from previous research. Li (2010) pointed out that the effects of error correction were different depending on the setting. For example, if the studies were conducted in language laboratories, corrective feedback tended to be more effective because the participants were conditioned by the research. In contrast, classroom studies showed diverse results. In the last category, Ellis (2017) distinguished later studies as descriptive, and he emphasized the importance of conversation analysis research regarding repair.

2.4.2 Typologies of oral corrective feedback

Different models have been proposed to classify oral corrective feedback (Chaudron, 1977; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Seedhouse, 1997; Sheen & Ellis, 2011). For this research two classifications will be considered. They correspond to Lyster and Ranta (1997), as well as Sheen and Ellis (2011), which will be described later in this section. One of the most relevant investigations in oral corrective feedback was carried out by Lyster and Ranta (1997). Their study aimed to identify the different moves presented in error treatment sequences. The outcomes obtained showed that teachers employed six feedback techniques, known as explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. The use of these techniques varies in the language classroom, and sometimes teachers can use a combination of strategies. In a later work, Ranta and Lyster (2007) reclassified the types of feedback in two broader categories which are reformulations and prompts. Table 6 shows the distribution of techniques.

Table 6

Classification of corrective feedback techniques (adapted from Ranta and Lyster, 2007)

Reformulations	Prompts
Recasts	Elicitation
Explicit correction	Metalinguistic feedback
	Clarification request
	Repetition

Reformulations can be identified as techniques that contain information on nontarget output. Recast and explicit correction belong to this category. In contrast, prompts refer to the techniques that promote self-repair. Elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, and repetition form part of this category. This classification focuses on the opportunities that learners have to self-repair.

A recent model was proposed by Sheen and Ellis (2011) in which feedback techniques are classified into input by providing and output prompting. Input providing techniques indicate that the teacher is the main participant. As the error is noticed, the teacher provides feedback targeting to the correct form. Conversational recasts, didactic recasts, explicit correction, and explicit correction with metalinguistic explanations belong to this category.

On the other hand, output-prompting techniques are repetition and clarification requests. The techniques classified in the explicit section correspond to metalinguistic clues, elicitation, and paralinguistic signals. In Table 7 the techniques are displayed to represent the categorization visually.

Table 7
Classification of corrective feedback techniques (adapted from Sheen & Ellis, 2011)

	Implicit	**Explicit**
Input providing	Conversational recasts	Didactic recasts Explicit correction Explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation
Output prompting (negative evidence)	Repetition Clarification requests	Metalinguistic clues Elicitation Paralinguistic signals

Compared to Lyster and Ranta's model (1997), this classification allows a better understanding of the role of students in the corrective feedback. Although both refer to the provision of feedback by the teachers, Sheen and Ellis (2011) also revealed that the use of corrective feedback techniques depends on contextual factors, as well as characteristics from the individuals. The first categorization contributes to this study to identify and to classify the techniques. The second one will be used in further analysis, regarding the data obtained. Following the first model, each feedback technique will be discussed in terms of their definition and effectiveness.

2.4.2.1 Recasts

Recasts are a dominant feature of oral corrective feedback. They have been greatly researched because they have been found to be a technique significantly employed by teachers (Lyster, 1998b; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mohammadi, 2009). Recasts are defined as "a CF [corrective feedback] technique that reformulates the learner's immediately preceding erroneous utterance while maintaining his or her intended meaning" (Ammar & Spada, 2006, p. 545). A recast implies that teachers perceive an error in an utterance and repeat it, but in a

correct form. Sheen and Ellis (2011) distinguish between two types of recasts: conversational recasts, and didactic recasts. The first are reformulations when there is a communication breakdown. Didactic recasts are focused on form because they occur although errors do not affect the communication. An example of a didactic recasts is provided by Balcarcel (2006):

S: He doesn't, he don't understand.

T: He didn't understand it.

S: He didn't understand it. (para. 27)

In the second line the teacher provides the correct form, and in this case the student can repair the error. However, it has been argued that recasts are ambiguous for students due to their implicit nature. For instance, Long (1996) and Lyster (1998a) claim that learners perceive recasts as repetitions of non-corrective nature, and they do not find evidence for self-correction. On the contrary, Lochtman (2002) and Sheen (2006) argue that a great number of recasts are not necessarily implicit. Both studies indicate that recasts are perceived by students as corrective feedback regarding language functions, and the role of the context in the classroom. Having considered these aspects, this study aligns with Lightbown and Spada's (2001) suggestion, which points out that:

> The effectiveness of recasts may depend in part on the overall developmental level of proficiency or interlanguage variety of the learner… Recasts can be effective if the learner has already begun to use a particular linguistic feature and is in a position to choose between linguistic alternatives. (p. 752)

Therefore, a recast as corrective feedback may work in a second language only when learners get used to the teacher's correcting techniques and styles. This implies that learners also should be aware of how to identify the recast as a pragmatic function, and not as a repetition produced from the regular classroom talk.

2.4.2.2 Explicit correction

Another feedback technique classified under reformulations (Ranta & Lyster, 2007) is explicit correction. It is defined as "an overt and clear indication of the existence of an error. In explicit correction, the teacher provides both positive and negative evidence by

clearly saying that what the learner has produced is erroneous" (Rezaei *et al*., 2011, p. 23). The following excerpt exemplifies explicit correction in the second line:

S: He should speak more polite.

T: Don't use the adjectives. He should speak more politely. Let's continue. (Balcarcel, 2006, para. 31)

In this example first, the teacher indicates the error and then, a correct form is provided. Lyster (1998a) suggests that this type of feedback allows the negotiation of form in comparison with other techniques because explicit correction provides negative evidence (the teacher indicates that adjectives are not a correct form). This means that learners are targeted with information in relation with what is not acceptable in their utterance. Sheen and Ellis (2011) add that explicit correction sometimes is followed by metalinguistic explanation. The use of both techniques together reinforces salience and there are more opportunities for the learner to notice negative evidence. Nevertheless, explicit correction in isolation was found not to be beneficial for learner uptake because the correction is immediately provided by the teacher (Lyster, 1998a). Hence, peer or self-repair are not promoted in this type of exchange.

2.4.2.3 Elicitation

Elicitation is an output prompting technique, which, according to Sheen and Ellis (2011), has an explicit nature. Elicitation is recognized because the "teacher directly elicits a reformulation from students by asking questions, by pausing to allow students to complete teacher's utterance, or by asking students to reformulate their utterance" (Lyster, 1998a, p. 272). The following excerpt illustrates how a teacher tries to guide the student to the correct form:

S: She easily catched the girl.

T: She catched the girl? I'm sorry, say that again? (Nassaji, 2007, p. 528).

Elicitation is deemed to enhance negotiation of form, which, according to Lochtman (2002) "occurs when the teacher initiates a correction move, i.e. indicates that there is a formal error, and the learner is left the opportunity to correct his or her own" (p. 275). Elicitation has been shown to be effective in comparison with other techniques. Nonetheless, the present research takes the position suggested by Nassaji (2007), who proposed that "the degree of repair following reformulation or elicitation depends on how each feedback type is

provided and, specifically, on the extent to which feedback occurs with other linguistic or nonlinguistic signals that might make the feedback more or less explicit" (p. 523). Therefore, the correction itself cannot give enough elements to the learner to achieve repair, and other elements need to be considered while using elicitation techniques.

2.4.2.4 Metalinguistic feedback

Metalinguistic feedback is another corrective technique. As its name indicates, it "contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 47). It is usually classified into metalinguistic comments, metalinguistic information, and metalinguistic questions depending on the linguistic choice the teachers select to correct. The following example shows an exchange between teacher and student, where a metalinguistic question is asked.

S: The last two questions was especially hard.

T: Is the word "questions" singular or plural?

S: It's plural, ok then... were especially hard. (Tamayo & Cajas, 2017, p. 170).

As it can be noticed, it has a more explicit nature. Rashidi and Babaie (2013) discuss that metalinguistic feedback is more beneficial for language acquisition when it is delivered immediately because learners have more chances to notice when the correction is provided. However, when metalinguistic feedback is delayed, probably, learners do not transfer it to their interlanguage system. In regard to Sheen and Elli's (2011) classification, this technique falls into the category of output-prompting corrective feedback.

2.4.2.5 Clarification request

Clarification request is another corrective feedback technique identified as implicit, and output prompting (Ellis *at al*. 2006; Ellis & Shintani, 2014). It is defined as:

> Simple linguistic phrases that cause learners to reiterate their flawed utterances. Intonation in the phrases and body gestures are often used as cues to convey misunderstanding. Clarification requests are viewed as being highly implicit as they do not indicate the type of error that has been committed. (Elam, 2014, p. 22)

This technique includes questions such as what? sorry? or excuse me? In the following lines, an example is provided:

S: Mary are, are working today.

T: Sorry?

S: Mary was working yesterday. (Balcarcel, 2006, para. 28).

According to Rezaei *et al*. (2011), "[clarification request] can be more consistently relied upon to generate modified output from learners since it might not supply the learners with any information concerning the type or location of the error" (p. 23). Therefore, the use of clarification requests may be considered ambiguous since the error is not pointed out explicitly.

2.4.2.6 Repetition

The last technique to be discussed in this section is repetition. This one refers to the restatement of an error in isolation. (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Usually, teachers raise the intonation to make the students notice there is a constraint. This type of corrective feedback is deemed implicit, as well as output-providing. To illustrate, the next excerpt shows a teacher repeating with the intention to correct the learner:

S: More funny.

T: More FUNNY?

S: More funnier. (Balcarcel, 2006, para. 28).

Lyster (1998b) differentiates between corrective repetition and non-corrective repetition. The first type usually points at errors and has a corrective purpose. In contrast, non-corrective repetition serves for pedagogical purposes, such as agreeing, understanding, and appreciating. The author argues that repetitions may represent ambiguity for some learners. However, to highlight corrective repetitions, teachers usually employ a combination of corrective techniques. The most representative patterns are "repetition with metalinguistic clues, repetition with elicitation, and repetition with explicit correction" (Lyster, 1998b, p. 67). Furthermore, Doughty and Varela (1998) indicate that to make repetition more successful, it should be provided together with other corrective techniques.

The information presented above showed us the different error correction techniques. In the following section the interplay between oral corrective feedback and pedagogy will be discussed.

2.4.3 Oral corrective feedback and pedagogy

One of the principal articles in the field of corrective feedback and pedagogy was published by Hendrickson (1978). In this research, he asked a set of questions associated with the relevance of corrective feedback, such as whether it is beneficial or not. The questions that he outlined were: "Should learner errors be corrected? When should errors be corrected? Which learner errors should be corrected? How should errors be corrected? And who should correct learner errors?" (p. 389). Several attempts have been made to answer these questions (Elis & Shintani, 2014; Elis, 2017; Li, 2017; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey *et al*., 2016). However, Elis and Shintani (2014) propose the answers to these questions regarding what a set of pedagogical guidelines promote (Harmer, 2007; Ur, 1996). Although the responses vary, the outcomes obtained can be summarized as follows.

First, language pedagogy recommends that teachers must be careful when they use corrective feedback in the classroom, trying to avoid students' disappointment. Teachers are expected to use gentle words and to have a non-threatening attitude. The second point is that teachers need to be selective of when and how they provide feedback. For instance, they can avoid overcorrection and focus on global errors, rather than on individual ones. Therefore, they ought to facilitate communication, and postpone oral corrective feedback during fluency activities. Teachers are suggested to take note of the most salient errors and to give corrections at the end of an interaction. The last element recommends that students can correct themselves. Peer correction is also desirable. However, the teacher is expected to intervene at the end of the communicative exchanges in case the correction has not been noticed by the student.

In summary, language pedagogy takes into consideration the social affective side of the learners, and the affective filter hypothesis (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). For example, Ur (1996) states that "There can be places where to refrain from providing an acceptable form when the speaker is obviously uneasy or floundering can actually be demoralizing, and gentle, supportive intervention can help" (p. 247). As it is shown, she pays attention to how students might feel in the classroom and how the teacher's response should be. These perspectives are significant because they show different views on error correction that might shape teachers' perceptions.

2.4.4. The interactionist cognitive view

Research on corrective feedback, as part of the study of SLA, has been classified into three main theories: innatism, cognitive interactionist, and sociocultural theory. For this research, the cognitive interactionist account will be discussed since most studies carried out in corrective feedback are supported by this learning theory. As claimed by Ellis and Shintani (2014):

> Cognitive-interactionist theories emphasize that CF [corrective feedback] is most likely to assist acquisition when the participants are focused primarily on meaning in the context of producing and understanding messages in communication, commit errors and then receive feedback that they recognize as corrective. That is, CF contributes to acquisition, not just to learning. (p. 259)

Hence, it is relevant to portray the scope of the principles of this theory. One of the representative authors of this field is Long (1983, 1996), who is renowned for the development of the interaction hypothesis. This hypothesis establishes that interactional processes facilitate second language acquisition. One of the key elements is the negotiation for meaning. Long (1996) discusses that "negotiation for meaning, and especially negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the NS [native speaker] or more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways" (p. 452). However, focus on form, as part of the interaction process has been also a matter of discussion regarding its effects on SLA. Ellis (2015) claims that focusing only on meaning does not allow learners to achieve linguistic accuracy. He proposes to focus on form as part of incidental learning. The role of noticing (Schmidt, 2001) is significant in this process because it implies targeting students' attention to form during interaction. This idea is also supported by Batstone (1996), who mentions that:

> Noticing is a complex process: it involves the intake both of meaning and of form, and it takes time for learners to progress from initial recognition to the point where they can internalize the underlying rule. This argues for teachers to provide recurring

> opportunities for learners to notice, since one noticing task is most unlikely to be sufficient. (p. 273)

In this case, it is necessary to provide learners with enough opportunities to focus on form, which can be translated to corrective feedback. As Ellis (2015), concludes:

> Feedback enables learners to carry out a cognitive comparison between their own output, which reflects their current interlanguage system, and the negative evidence and models of target language forms provided through the feedback. In this way, learners have the opportunity to notice-the-gap. (p. 4)

Some of the strategies that he suggests focusing on form have a relationship with employing corrective feedback techniques, such as conversational and didactic recasts, as well as explicit feedback. The purpose is to draw student's attention into wrong forms so they can correct their own errors. To conclude this section, it is significant to point out that according to the interactionist cognitive view, corrective feedback has a purpose, and it has been demonstrated to have effects on SLA.

2.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, the principal concepts that guide the study were discussed. In the first section, classroom discourse and the types of teacher talk were addressed. The second section contemplated elements in conversation analysis relevant for the research such as frame analysis, the Grice's cooperative principle, conversational maxims, as well as a description of turn-taking and repair. The last section reflected the particularities of corrective feedback, classifications, definitions, historical background, and its relationship with the interactionist cognitive view. The next chapter will describe the methodology followed to carry out this study.

Chapter Three
Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

In Chapter Two, the main concepts used in this research were discussed. This chapter aims to explain the methodology carried out in this study. First, the research question is presented to have a general understanding of the investigation. Then, the qualitative paradigm, method of research, and techniques are described to elucidate the procedures followed to conduct this research. A description of the context and participants, as well as the ethical considerations that impacted this study, are included. Finally, the sections of coding and data analysis present an overview of how the data was classified and analyzed. At the end of the chapter, the conclusion is provided.

3.2 Research question

To discuss the methodology, I will mention the research question that guides the overall account of this research:

> *How is oral corrective feedback provided in EFL classrooms by teachers at a private school in Toluca, State of Mexico?*

This question aims to understand how teachers handle corrective feedback, through an in-depth examination of their speech. In the next sections, the methodology used to answer this question is addressed.

3.3 Qualitative paradigm

This section will justify the reasons why a qualitative paradigm was selected, and how this methodological decision influenced the design of the study. According to Leavy (2014), a paradigm is understood as "an overarching perspective that guides the research process" (p. 3), which indicates that a paradigm determines the procedures to carry out a study. In this case, the qualitative paradigm focuses on studying social reality and human experiences. It possesses unique characteristics. For instance, flexibility with the design of

the research and question, the data is gathered in a natural environment because the social phenomena occur there, and it possess an interpretative nature (Dörnyei, 2007). The present study aligns with this model since it analyzes the interaction that occurred in the classroom, and the language used by the speakers to recount their reality. The qualitative paradigm is also adaptable. Denzin and Lincoln (2011), and Leavy (2014) suggest that multiple perspectives can examine the same social problem. This implies that the debate between social sciences allows the exchange of different views to explain a social phenomenon.

Other qualities of this paradigm are "participants meanings, theoretical lens, and holistic accounts" (Creswell, 2007, p. 39). Qualitative research seeks to depict how participants understand a specific issue, and the role of the researcher is to examine their social reality. However, the theoretical lens works as a basis to inform and interpret these aspects in an organized and trustable form, to grant validity to the research. Moreover, holistic accounts report what others have to say through a complex view which considers different elements. In conclusion, the qualitative paradigm defines the characteristics of a research, as well as its method.

3.4 Ethnomethodology

After the discussion of how the qualitative paradigm guides the research, this section presents the account followed in this study. Ethnomethodology was selected because it can give account of social interactions. Additionally, exploring a social phenomenon under an ethnomethodological lens is valuable in terms of interpreting everyday activities. Schiffrin (1994) addresses ethnomethodology as a sociological perspective that elucidates what people know and do in their daily lives. She considers that "much of Garfinkel's research reveals that participants' understandings of their circumstances provide for the stable organization of their social activities" (p. 233). In other words, one of the aims of ethnomethodology is to give an account of people's knowledge about their world through what they do and say. It is considered that these activities follow order and organization. The principles of ethnomethodology can be summarized in the words of Candlin *et al*. (2017), who state that:

> since people are not generally aware of what norms they use to make sense of their everyday world, asking members about how they do is a bit like asking a monolingual

speaker about grammatical rules: they can unconsciously use them, but cannot consciously explain them. (p. 158)

Thus, ethnomethodology seeks to analyze the everyday reality by observing and describing individuals' regular activities. In this research, the participants are EFL teachers and students, who interact in the classroom. This method gives value to the study of ordinary life because, according to Garfinkel (1967), knowledge about the everyday world is accountable to people's actions. This means that humans have the agency to make decisions that influence other aspects which concerns the society. Also, for ethnomethodologists, language is an important component of social reality, as it is considered that "human action is verbalized through language" (Mills *et al.,* 2010 p. 451). This implies that the words people use have a relationship with how they think, but also with how they act. Hence, the language in classroom interactions will be examined because it has a strong relationship with their performances. In terms of this research, language is considered a fundamental part of the social order because people do not use it only to express themselves. The linguistic choices they make, are related to the context, their role, and their purpose for communication. To depict how teachers provide oral corrective feedback, it is necessary to focus on language. Ethnomethodology is a method that offers foundation to conversation analysis, which will be discussed in the following section as it sustains the methodological part of this research.

3.4.1 Conversation analysis

In the previous section, ethnomethodology was discussed in terms of how it seeks to explain social interaction. This section presents conversation analysis as an approach to examine it through language. Both approaches emerged in the 1960s; they have a relationship because conversation analysis took some principles of ethnomethodology to apply them to the study of talk-in-interaction. In the words of Lew *et al.* (2018), "Conversation analysis has broadened greatly to become an influential methodology for examining social interaction and its sequential organization across the social sciences, including applied linguistics" (p. 87). The present research will be guided by this approach because it allows for a detailed analysis of language. It also help me to accomplish the objectives of this study which are related with analyzing teachers' choices regarding corrective feedback.

Hutcby and Wooffitt (2008) illustrate that the main purpose of conversation analysis is to study how talk is organized and produced. This indicates that a conversation is composed of interactions and mutual understanding of the persons who participate in it. The authors state that "utterances are not necessarily determined by their individual beliefs, preferences or mental states, but it can be determined instead by orientations to the structural organization of conversation" (p. 14). This involves a social structure, which plays the main role in the study of talk. Hence, a conversation is not only organized, but it is also associated with social rules. In this respect, Nofsinger (1991) suggests that: "During a sequence of turns participants exchange talk with each other, but, more important, they exchange social or communicative actions. These actions are the moves of conversation considered as a collection of games" (p. 10). This means that our talk is closely related to the way we interact, and to analyze such exchanges, it is necessary to use methodological concepts that support our understanding of social life. Consequently, this research encompasses the way corrective feedback is produced in classroom interactions and how participants construct social meaning by their talk. The characteristics of conversation analysis are explained by Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008), who contemplate four elements to define it:

a) Talk-in-interaction is systematically organized and deeply ordered.
b) The production of talk-in-interaction is methodic.
c) The analysis of talk-in-interaction should be based on natural occurring data.
d) Analysis should not initially be constrained by prior theoretical assumptions. (p. 23).

For this research, such principles are useful to analyze whether they are appliable to the provision of oral corrective feedback. Moreover, conversation analysis offers opportunities to approach diverse types of conversations because language is produced in everyday situations. In this sense, the researcher should be open to multiple phenomena and, in the best conditions, do not make assumptions about the participants and their social reality. In summary, this research is guided by conversation analysis. In the following section, the collection techniques will be discussed concerning this method.

3.5. Data collection techniques

As it was mentioned above, conversation analysis has specific procedures to collect data and to analyze it. This section will describe the technique used for that purpose.

3.5.1 Recorded classroom observations

To gather data, observations were employed in this study. Observation is a technique used in different social sciences, such as anthropology, psychology, sociology, and so forth. Driscoll (2011) elucidates that the type of observation a researcher does depends on the research question. The author also distinguishes between two types of observation. The first one is participant observation, which means the researcher takes an active role in the setting and interacts with the group. The second type of observation is unobtrusive. In this case the researcher does not participate actively or might not inform the group about the observations carried out. In terms of this research, the type of observation was participant because I was in the setting and the participants were informed about the research. However, I did not intervene in the interactions in the classroom, so that the activities followed their regular course.

The observations carried out were helpful to understand teachers' and students' routine in the classroom. Although the first data source for this research is audios and videos of the classroom, it was important to observe to make sense of situations that happened in the classroom that might be difficult to understand without being in the setting. To support this technique, field notes (See Appendix 1) were taken to have complementary evidence for the other data collection sources. There was not a specific guide to follow regarding observations but meaningful moments in the classroom were considered, such as the use of corrective feedback techniques, as well as teachers' and students' turn-taking.

3.5.1.1 Video recordings and audio tapes

As explained before, for conversation "The data consist of tape-recordings of naturally occurring interactions. These may be audio or videotapes" (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008, p. 69). For this research, the material recorded was supported with observations, but raw data is deemed the most valuable for this analysis. Conversation analysis owns its system to transcribe and to interpret information. In this case, it is considered that "The primary purpose of recording for linguistic research is to record speech in order to analyze the

structure of the language" (Margetts & Margetts, 2014, p. 14). The process followed to gather data consisted of two periods during the research. In the first one, sessions of one-hour classes were audio recorded. The purpose of this decision was to collect data considering the regular teachers' and students' practices in the class. The second period of the data collection consisted of speaking activities which included interactions between students. These activities lasted 30 minutes maximum (See appendix 2 for a description of the activities). They were video recorded to identify whether corrective feedback occurred when students were expected to perform an oral activity. Both types of data are helpful, as the first one shows the natural order of the class, while the second one, was oriented to a specific purpose.

3.6 Context of the study

The setting where this research took place is a small private language institute in Toluca, State of Mexico. It was founded in 2015 and it offers services to people from the community of Toluca and surrounding towns. In this institute, English is offered to kids, teenagers, and adults. The program consists of four years. Each year, the students pass a level regarding the common European framework of reference for languages (CEFR). At the end of the course, learners are expected to achieve a B2 level. After they reach that stage, they can add courses of C1, and preparation for the Cambridge First Certificate exam. The school claims to follow a communicative approach, which according to Richards (2006), is centered on producing language through meaningful interactions, and communication has the main role in situations that happen in real life. However, the school uses publisher books as the main source to teach. The analysis of the books showed that they are influenced mostly by notional functional activities. For instance, the objectives of each week are based on functional objectives such as paying compliments. Additionally, it is focused on grammar. It is relevant to point out that the syllabus is guided by the books, so this might affect the teaching practices observed in class. Teachers have the option to design their classes and they deliver a weekly lesson plan. The groups are organized based on the demand for the schedules. For that reason, teachers may have a minimum of five students, and a maximum of twenty. In the following sections, a description of the participants in this study will be presented.

3.7 Participants

This section aims to describe the nature of the participants. It is divided into teachers and students because both took part in the research.

3.7.1 Teachers

Six teachers participate in this study. They offer courses to teenagers at beginner and intermediate levels. To keep their identity private, their real names were changed, and a pseudonym was applied. Table 8 shows information about them such as the teachers' pseudonym, age, gender, educational level, as well as years of experience giving English classes.

Table 8

Participant's background information

Participants' pseudonym	Age	Gender	Educational level	Years of experience
Elena	50	Female	Studying BA in ELT	14
Natalia	38	Female	Technical course in translation	20
Elizabeth	25	Female	BA in Languages	4
Olivia	28	Female	BA in ELT	6
Ernesto	25	Male	BA in Languages	4
Fernando	52	Male	Teaching training courses	15

In Table 8 the similarities and differences of each teacher can be identified. For example, the range of ages is from 25 to 52 years old, and the years of experience is 4 years minimum, and 20 years maximum. The participants have similar educational backgrounds, and most of them have a BA related to English language teaching.

3.7.2 Students

It is also important to provide information about the students that participated in the research. The language institute where the study took place, has a significant number of

teenage students because it offers classes in the afternoon, right after they finish their classes at the secondary school. Therefore, the classrooms that were observed had from eight to eighteen students. Students' ages were from twelve to fourteen years old. Table 9 shows information about each classroom, the level of the students, and the number of male and female students.

Table 9

Students' background information

Classroom	Level	Male students	Female students	Total
1	Intermediate B1	8	10	18
2	Pre- intermediate A2	3	5	8
3	Upper intermediate B2	6	7	13
4	Intermediate B1	5	7	12
5	Upper intermediate B2	6	8	14
6	Upper intermediate B2	4	8	12

Table 9 also includes the characteristics of the students in each classroom. The numbers that appear in the classroom (referred to as classroom 1, classroom 2) correlate with the order in which the teachers were presented in table 1. For example, classroom 3 corresponds to teacher Elizabeth. The level of English in each class is also presented. As can be seen in the table, there are three intermediate groups, two upper-intermediate, and on pre-intermediate. The classroom with the most students belongs to the teacher Elena, and the one with the least students, to the teacher Natalia. There is also a higher number of female students in the six classrooms.

3.8 Ethics

To conduct valid and reliable research, ethics were considered in the development of this study. Sterling and De Costa (2018) suggest a classification of ethics in two themes: "value of research, and ethically conducted research" (p.164). This section details the

procedures followed to ensure that the research have these characteristics. In agreement with the authors, the aspects considered were respect for the participants and anonymity. It was necessary to inform teachers, students, and parents about the research, as well as to obtain their consent to carry out this study. Additionally, it was a priority to guarantee that the research did not involve any risk for them. The next paragraphs summarize this process into three main actions.

a) Access to the school. The first step taken was asking for permission via telephone. As the setting is in Toluca, the coordinator and the principal were contacted to report the purpose of the research, and to ask for the possibility to carry it out in that institute. They accepted and a meeting with the teachers was arranged.
b) Participants' consent. The next step consisted of a meeting with the teachers, where I clarified how and when the research was going to be conducted. The information in the consent form was discussed (see Appendix 3), and six teachers agreed to participate.
c) Parents' consent. The last step was related to the parents' agreement. As previously mentioned, the classes are given principally to teenagers and they are underage. In this case, during a general meeting with the parents, I explained the purpose of the research and I answered questions about it. All the parents let their children take part in the study and they signed a consent form (see Appendix 4).

3.9 Data analysis

This section will provide information about the process followed to analyze the data obtained. It can be classified into two periods of analysis, which will be described in the next sections.

3.9.1 First period of analysis

The first period consisted of classifying the data. In total, there were nine hours of recorded classes (one hour and a half for each teacher). To approach this information, I listened to the audios several times to identify when teachers provided oral corrective feedback. After that, I selected and transcribed each excerpt. Then, I classified them regarding six types of feedback techniques: elicitation, clarification request, recasts,

repetition, metalinguistic feedback, and explicit correction (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). This period in the data analysis aimed to have an overview of the teachers' preferences while providing corrective feedback. For this reason, percentual data about the use of each technique is presented. However, the second period of analysis presents more relevant information to give answer to the research question.

3.9.2 Second period of analysis

Having organized the percentual data, the conversation analysis was carried out. This period included three levels of that will be explained in the following sections.

3.9.2.1 The cooperative principle and maxims of conversation

The initial level of analysis considered for this research is the cooperative principle and the maxims of conversation (Grice, 1975). Previous information was presented in the literature review about the use of the maxims in the analysis of corrective feedback. This approach is helpful to examine the significance of the exchanges between teachers and students. Therefore, the following maxims will be contemplated: maxim of relevance, maxim of quantity, maxim of quality, and maxim of manner.

3.9.2.2 Principles of conversation analysis

Additionally, this research employed two principles of conversation analysis, that are defined as follows:

a) Turn-taking. According to Wilkinson and Kitzinger (2011), they refer to "two turns at talk from different speakers. They speak one at a time, and there is a brief silence between speakers" (p. 25). This system is presented in the analysis because it allows to determine the course of the interactions due to turns at talk vary depending on the intention of the speakers. Garton (2012) explains that turn-taking has been explored throughout the IRF sequence. This view reflects that most of turns at talk are directed by teachers.
b) Repair. This component was also considered since it is one of the objectives of error correction. "It is quite common for speakers to treat what they are saying as problematic in some way and to stop what they are saying in order to fix the problem"

(Wilkinson & Kitzinger, 2011, p. 26). In this case, repair is induced by the teachers, who notice the error and provide signals that lead to the correction of an utterance.

3.9.2.3 Frame analysis

Frame analysis is another lens used in this study for the analysis of talk-in-interaction. This level is suitable to support that language obeys to social rules, and people reflect those norms through interaction. This research recognizes that both, teachers and students frame social interaction inside the classroom. Frame analysis allows to comprehend the language decisions teachers make to provide feedback.

In summary, this section presented an overview of the principles of conversation analysis used for the treatment of the data. The next section offers details about the classification of the information through codes.

3.10 Data coding

This section includes information about data classification. First, it was necessary to assign each teacher a number to identify them. The coding is shown in Table 10.

Table 10

References to teachers in the conversations

T1	Elena
T2	Natalia
T3	Elizabeth
T4	Olivia
T5	Ernesto
T6	Fernando

Table 10 represents each teacher and the assigned number for them. Additionally, in the data samples, to identify students, the letter S will be used to the student who takes part in the conversation. If another learner is participating, it will be identified with S2. When the whole class participates, the label CLASS will be used.

To organize the data, the transcriptions were classified by codes. Each code refers to the feedback techniques that the teachers used. For instance, T1CF8R means teacher 1, corrective feedback. The number eight indicates the number of the feedback move, and the letter R alludes to Recasts. Table 11 includes examples of codification.

Table 11

Data coding examples (audios)

Code	Technique	Source	Feedback technique
T1cf1R	Audio recording	Elena	Recasts
T2cf7CR	Audio recording	Natalia	Clarification requests
T3cf9MF	Audio recording	Elizabeth	Metalinguistic feedback
T4cf3E	Audio recording	Olivia	Elicitation
T5cf4EC	Audio recording	Ernesto	Explicit correction
T6cf5R	Audio recording	Fernando	Repetition

The coding used for videos follows the same order as in the previous chart, but the letter **v** was added to identify them from audio recordings. Table 12 shows some examples.

Table 12

Data coding examples (videos)

Code	Technique	Source	Feedback move
T5cfv7E	Videotape	Ernesto	Elicitation
T2cfv7CR	Videotape	Natalia	Clarification requests

In this case, T5cfv7E means teacher five, corrective feedback video. Seven refers to the move, and E, to elicitation.

3.11 Conclusion

In this chapter, a view of the methodological process that leads to this research was presented. The qualitative paradigm to explain social phenomena was reviewed. In the next section, the characteristics of ethnomethodology were described, as well as an overview of conversation analysis. Then, the techniques used in the method were explored. Other important elements for the methodology were addressed, such as the ethical considerations,

the codes of reference to data, and an explanation of how the data analysis was conducted. The next chapter will discuss the data analysis process.

Chapter Four
Data Analysis

4.1 Introduction

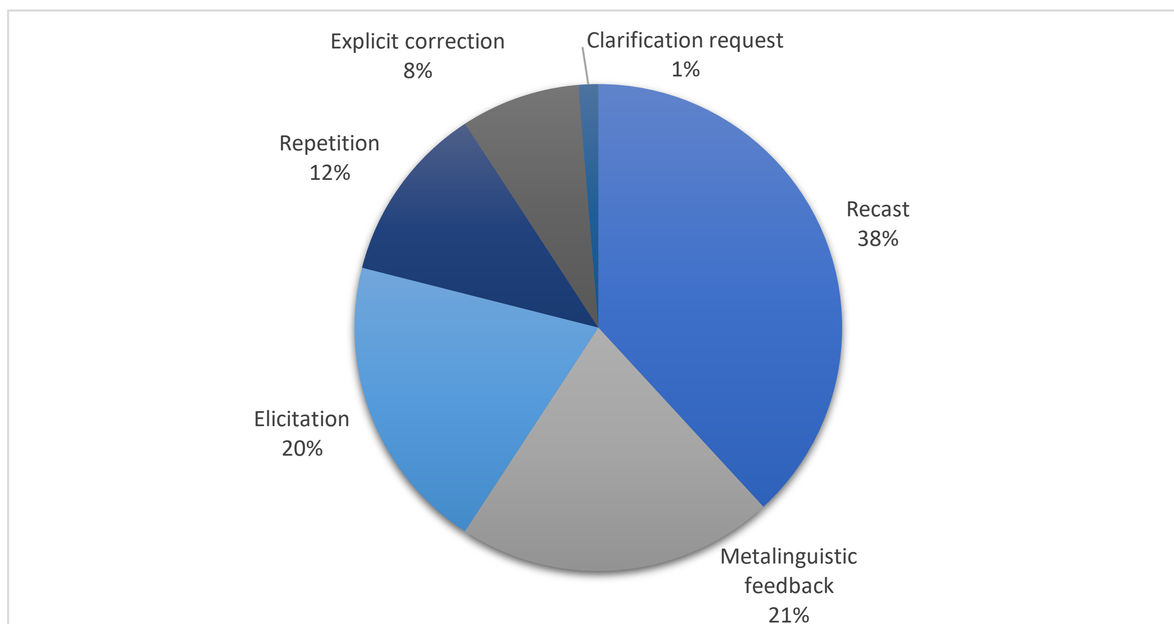
In Chapter Three, the methodology of this research was reviewed. It included the qualitative paradigm, ethnomethodology, and conversation analysis as methods of research, and the techniques used to collect data. The participants and the setting where the study took part were also addressed. This chapter presents the results of the data analysis. It will be explained in two phases. In the first one, the general results are portrayed by means of a classification of the data into corrective feedback techniques, and a general examination of the distribution by percentages. In the second phase, some excerpts taken from the transcriptions are explored throughout conversation analysis.

4.2 Corrective feedback and the classification of techniques

As was stated in Chapter Three, the main source of data for this research was based on observations made in the classrooms, which were videotaped, and audio recorded. I first listened to the audios and watched the videos several times. Then, I separated the fragments where corrective feedback was provided to analyze them. In total, seventy-six moves were identified. After that, I classified them according to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) categorization, which includes elicitation, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, recasts, explicit correction, and repetition. It is relevant to mention that this data was mainly obtained from the regular classroom observations because in the spoken interactions there was scarce use of feedback. The Figure 2 presents the results of the total error corrections provided by the six participants in this study.

Figure 2

Classification of oral corrective feedback techniques



Note. This figure represents the teachers' use of corrective feedback techniques.

In Figure 2, the distribution of error correction techniques is presented. It shows that the most common technique is recasts and the least popular is clarification requests. The number of recasts aligns with results from previous research (Lightbown & Spada, 2011; Lyster & Ranta, 1997) which emphasize a preference for teachers to use this technique. However, the distribution of metalinguistic feedback and elicitation was not reported as common in previous studies. A possible reason for the percentages showed is the focus of the activities. For example, recasts resulted more from a speaking activity, while metalinguistic feedback and elicitation were employed during the class, as when the teachers explained a word.

It is inferred that there is an equivalent distribution of the types of techniques employed. Ranta and Lyster (2007), classified the techniques into reformulations and prompts. As previously stated in the literature review, recasts and explicit correction belong to this category. The addition of the percentages of both techniques is 46%. In contrast, output prompting techniques such as elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition constituted the rest of the percentage, which is 54%. Hence, the teachers used input

to correct, but also, they employed strategies so students could notice their own errors. However, it is necessary to discuss the context in which these techniques were provided and to analyze if they were effective in terms of repair. This section aimed to analyze the percentages obtained from the earlier classifications and to show the general results. The next section explores in greater detail the phenomenon of error correction, using conversation analysis.

4.3 Analysis of corrective feedback techniques through conversation analysis

To approach corrective feedback through conversation analysis, three characteristics of this methodology were taken into consideration: the cooperative principle and Gricean maxims, turn-taking, and frame analysis. This section presents an examination of the information obtained from the recordings. Data will be discussed starting from the most representative to the least representative techniques. It is relevant to clarify that the following examples represent form-focused tasks as no evidence of real communicative exchanges was found in the transcriptions.

4.3.1 Recasts

The first feedback technique that will be examined is recast since it was the most frequent feedback technique presented in the data. The results in this chapter align with what previous research has suggested. Recasts are a common technique employed for error correction. (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mohammadi, 2009). In this research, recasts obtained a higher level of percentage of use (38%).

The next example is an excerpt from a spoken activity. It is taken from Elena's class (T1). The goal of the activity is that students use the form *will*, to talk about the future. The students are arranged in pairs, and the teacher decides which team talks first. The student who has the turn is predicting a classmate's future.

[t1cfv1R]
01 S1: Will you have two cars? two supercars but you don't have money.
02 T1: Will he, will he have two cars? Luxury cars? Look for it, look for it.
03 S1: Will you have a girlfriend, but he's not love you all the life.

04 T1: She won't love you.

05 S1: She won't love you all the life. Only five, no. Two years.

06 T1: Okay, only for two years… okay, what a shame! But you will have a girlfriend. That's okay.

When carrying out a communicative activity, both students should interact. Nonetheless, the second student is supposed to be involved in this conversation, but he does not take part in it. According to Goffman (1974), Student two (who does not appear in the conversation but is paired with S1) would be a non-ratified participant, which means that he is present in the classroom. However, he is not the addressee. He represents another member who can listen and interact but, at that moment, student two does not take her turn. Instead, the teacher intervenes to correct. For instance, in line two, Elena suggests vocabulary, but she also encourages the student to give more information. The error and the recast occur in lines three and four. First, the student says *Will you have a girlfriend, but he's not love you all the life*, and the teacher corrects the utterance by saying *he won't love you*. In terms of repair, the student repeats the sentence. This can be interpreted as the uptake or student's response to the correction. Nonetheless, repetition is not an evidence of the recognition of the error. Finally, in line six, the teacher agrees, stating *okay,* and she finishes the exchange. This example seems to work in terms of the purpose of corrective feedback because the student addresses the correction. It also reflects how the classroom exchanges are controlled by the teacher. Thus, the IRF sequence is prevalent in this type of classroom discourse. Regarding conversation maxims, this exchange does not seem to respect the maxim of quality as the teacher intervenes each turn to make corrections. This breaks the flow of the conversation and does not give opportunities for Student two to participate in the activity.

The following excerpt shows an example of recasts provided by Natalia (T2). In this case, the class is reporting the steps to prepare a sandwich, but the teacher asks a student to read the instructions first. In this exchange there are two students involved, as well as the teacher:

[t2cf4R]

01 T2: Can you help me to read the instructions for the next activity?

02 S1: Pero ¿qué, estamos en la otra?

03 T2: Give me a moment.

04 S2: En la de ...

05 S1: Write the steps for making your favorite kind of sandwich. The food... and have.

06 T2: Give.

07 S1: Your sentence to your parter.

08 T2: Partner.

09 S1: Partner. Ask your partner to put the steps in order.

10 T2: Order. Okay, very good.

Two elements in this exchange will be discussed. The first one appears in line five as the student reads the instructions, and he uses the word *have* instead of *give*. The teacher employs a recast to emphasize the correct word. Repair does not occur in this move since the student continues reading the instructions. The second move can be interpreted as a slip of the tongue made by the student, who says *parter* rather than *partner*. The teacher recasts saying the correct word. In this case, the student repeats the word in the correct form, and he finishes reading the instructions. Line ten shows a preferred second when Natalia uses the words *okay* and *very good* to end that linguistic exchange. Regarding frame analysis, these moves show that the exchanges in the classroom are not only related to the target of the activity. To illustrate, in the first line, the teacher tries to engage the student by asking him to read the instructions. However, in the second line, the student does not know the page, and he uses his first language (L1) to express his confusion. Then, the teacher takes a turn to give time so the student can find the page. In line four, Student two enters the conversation to make more time for his classmate. The intention in this example is to elucidate that there are more social elements that occur in the classroom, and they will guide the conversation. This example shows that recasts are not effective because it is questionable whether the student notices the correction. In this case, the teacher also repeats words such as *order* to emphasize that the student correctly reads the instructions. This supports that the fourth maxims of conversation were not respected since the recasts employed by the teacher might be ambiguous for the learner.

The analysis of these fragments indicate that recasts are not always perceived as error correction. Even though the teachers provide the correct form, students do not necessarily repair errors. To illustrate this, Ellis and Shintani (2014) claim that "learners may interpret implicit feedback as simply indicating that there is some kind of communication problem that needs solving rather than showing them they have made a linguistic error" (p. 261), that might be one of the problems regarding this type of feedback. Additionally, according to Sheen and Ellis, (2011), the type of recasts provided in the examples are didactic recasts. This means that the errors do not cause breakdowns in the communication, but the teachers decide to correct them focusing on form. Therefore, this evidences that perhaps the teachers planned a communicative activity, but the discourse was centered on the way they led the classroom talk.

4.3.2 Metalinguistic feedback

The next corrective feedback technique that will be analyzed is metalinguistic feedback. In comparison with recasts, this technique could be considered as a face-threatening act (FTA), which in pragmatics refers to damaging or threatening an individual face (or how people perceive themselves). It implies asking the student about the specific target language. Brown and Levinson (1978) outline that FTA should be identified in terms of three aspects: power difference, distance or closeness, and degree of imposition. Following the teacher's role in the classroom, metalinguistic feedback focuses on the correction of wrong utterances related to form. Two examples of error correction using this technique will be presented.

In the following dialogue, the objective of the activity is that students distinguish between the use of regular and irregular comparatives and adjectives. This activity was performed by the whole class, which consists of eighteen students. Elena (T1) throws a ball to the students. They have to pass it to another classmate. When the teacher tells them to stop, she asks the student in turn to say a sentence with specific characteristics. In this example, the dialogue is centered on the teacher and a student. However, other student (S2) and the class, which consists of another sixteen students also intervene.

[t1cf1MF]

01 T1: Irregular, comparative... Xime, move there, and you sit here. Yes, in there.

02 S1: Short.

03 T1: Irregular? is that an irregular adjective?

04 S1: Ah, no, no, no. hmm, expensive.

05 T1: Expensive... Is that an irregular adjective?

06 CLASS: Nooo.

07 T1: Is it or not?

08 S2: Me, me, me.

09 T1: Who? okay Irregular adjective, comparative.

10 S2: Eso fue muy repentino.

The first line in the exchange shows episodes that occur in the class that are not part of the activity, for instance, the teacher directs students choosing their places (as they are arriving at the class). In terms of this exchange, it is required that the student says a comparative sentence with an irregular adjective. However, his answer is not correct. Then, the first feedback move occurs in line three; Elena asks: *Irregular? Is that an irregular adjective*? Because of the type of question as well as the intonation, the student notices that his answer is not correct, and he initiates repair by giving another option. Yet, the answer is not accurate, and the teacher employs metalinguistic feedback to ask again: *Expensive... Is that an irregular adjective?* In this case, the whole class answers no. This action evidences the student's positive face, which means that he feels uncomfortable and does not answer the question. That is the reason why, in line eight, another student intervenes intending to save her classmate's face. After that, the teacher reframes the situation by asking the student two. However, Student two does not expect that change in the conversation. Hence, she concludes the move by saying: *eso fue muy repentino.* In this line, the student uses her L1 to save her face, but expressing it in English could be considered challenging to the teacher's authority. This example is relevant because even though the teacher intends to make students provide a correct form, that does not happen. This piece of data also shows that interactions in the classroom result in more complex ways as elements such as FTA get involved during error

correction. This activity focuses on form as specific linguistic features are asked to the learners, so the maxims of conversation are relevant for the communicative exchange.

The second example of metalinguistic feedback was taken from the same class. The context of the activity was described in the example above. The complete class is involved in the activity, but the teacher specifically asks a student to give an example. In this case, the teacher requires a superlative sentence.

[t1CF16MF]
01 S1: The dress is better than jeans.
02 T1: This one. The dress is better than jeans. Is that correct?
03 S1: No.
04 T1: Is this a superlative sentence?
05 S1: No, it's a comparative.
06 T1: It's a comparative.

This example differs from the one above as repair occurs. The teacher repeats a student's sentence, *The dress is better than jeans. Is that correct?* This type of sentence works in two ways. First, it evidences the error. The second function can be explained with the schematic analysis of pairs. While asking if the sentence is correct, the only option to answer is *no*, and that is the student's answer in line two. In this respect, the teacher raises student awareness of the error. Then the teacher changes the strategy for metalinguistic feedback. She asks, *Is this a superlative sentence?* and the student repairs conversation in line four, with a preferred second, *No, it's a comparative*. Line five shows that Elena acknowledges the answer. What can be noticed here is that the student does not reformulate the sentence. In contrast, the teacher concludes the exchange, and she does not encourage the student to mention the right sentence. This action impedes that the student notices the error or how to provide the correct form. Perhaps this technique could be more beneficial if the student had been asked to reformulate the wrong utterance. In comparison to the example above, this excerpt also shows that the conversation maxims are respected considering how corrective feedback was provided.

In summary, the examples presented above reflect how teachers guide classroom conversation. In this case, the teacher focuses on form with the intention that the students notice errors. Although uptake occurs, it does not mean that students perceived the correction. As in both examples, the teacher asks yes-no questions, it can be argued that the students follow a pattern in conversation (adjacency pairs), which means that they will say the expected answer.

4.3.3 Elicitation

The third type of feedback move presented in the data is elicitations. They are defined as the actions to "guide learners to revise their sentences by questioning them" (Su & Tian, 2016, p. 440). Two cases will be analyzed. The first example is taken from Olivia's class (T4). For this activity, she asks students to arrange words to form sentences, so she chooses a student and she says the words randomly. In this case, the participants in this exchange are two students.

[T4CF7E]
01 T4: Number five, the is day hottest of year the. Aldo?
02 S1: Is the day hottest of the year?
03 T4: Is... can you repeat?
04 S1: It's the day hottest of the year.
05 T4: Oh, more or less, more or less, more or less. Alfonso?
06 S2: It's the hottest day of the year.
07 T4: Okay, year. Perfect. Remember the order of adjectives.

This excerpt shows the elicitation in line three. However, in line two it is possible to observe that the student is not sure about his answer, so the sentence intonation is set as a question, *Is the day hottest of the year?* Then, Olivia notices the error and that the student does not know what to answer, so she uses an elicitation technique, asking: *Is… can you repeat?* It implies for the student that he must reformulate what he said. Instead of doing so, the student repeats the same sentence as in line two showing certainty. Olivia indicates that the utterance is wrong, saying: *more or less*. She also tries to save her student's face (not

saying explicitly that he was wrong). Then, she opts to ask another person who takes the next turn and replies with the expected sentence. The teacher agrees in line seven. Nonetheless, she emphasizes on form when she tells students to *remember the order of adjectives.* According to Lyster (1998a), clarification requests should promote the negotiation of form. This example shows that the first student did not address the correction and that the teacher needed to change her strategy by asking someone else. This is a common feature in classroom discourse. However, the elicitation did not allow the student achieve repair, although he was asked to reformulate the sentence on two occasions. Considering the conversation maxims, one can infer that the elicitation in lines three and five does not respect the maxims of quantity and manner because the teacher does not avoid ambiguity and she does not say directly to the student that he is wrong.

The next excerpt is taken from Elizabeth's class (T3). In comparison with the previous examples, the type of feedback she uses is classified as delayed feedback (Lyster *et al*., 2013), which means that the correction is provided at the end of an activity to privilege students' fluency. In this example, the students performed a spoken activity, and the correction is offered at the end of it.

[T3CFV1E]

01 T3: Okay guys, so thank you for your presentations. Just be careful. How do you say "dolor"?

02 S1: Hurt, hurt.

03 T3: Hurt or?

04 S2: Pain.

06 05 T3: Pain, or sore… but you said dolor.

07 T3: Then, how do you say receta médica?

08 S2: Recet medic.

09 T3: No.

10 S2: Medical.

11 T3: Uh-huh.

12 S1: Note.

13 T3: Prescription, and you said reception.

14 S1: (Laughter).

This excerpt presents different moves because the teacher tries to correct two errors regarding word choice. In the first turn, the teacher acknowledges her students for their performance on the activity. However, she also warns them to be careful with words that they use as cognates. Then she asks them about the correct word for *dolor* in English. A student answers *hurt*, but as that is not the expected reply, she uses an elicitation technique. After she receives an answer, she highlights that the word *dolor* is an error. Nonetheless, she also uses the words sore or pain as synonyms, and that can be interpreted as breaking the maxim of manner because she gives more information than expected, and that may cause confusion. In line six, the teacher uses the same technique asking about the word *receta médica,* and the student responds *recet medic*. In the following move, she explicitly corrects *recet medic* by saying *no*. Hence, the student repairs using the word *medical*. The teacher elicits again with *uh-huh* and the students complete the phase saying *note*. Then, the teacher recasts, using the right word *prescription* and she comments the learner error: *and you said reception*. This causes the student to notice his mistake, and he frames it as a funny situation. Therefore, he responds with nervous laughter as a face-saving attempt. This example shows the different moves employed with delayed feedback. The teacher made complex choices since it was necessary to retrieve information and then to focus on form. This might be the reason why she changes strategies to achieve repair.

To conclude this section, both examples demonstrate that elicitation helps students notice some errors as they are not implicit. However, the first excerpt does not lead to repair, instead, the student replies with the same answer. This type of uptake can be considered as unmodified (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), which means that the student experiments some troubles to distinguish the correction. The second example seems to be effective in terms of uptake.

4.3.4 Repetition

The fourth technique obtained through the analysis of the data are repetitions. The characteristic of this type of feedback is that teachers repeat the wrong word, usually changing the intonation to make students notice their errors (Su & Tian, 2016). In this section, two examples will be analyzed.

The first excerpt is taken from Elizabeth's class (T3). The purpose of this activity is that the student shares an example of the present perfect and the class distinguishes between this tense and the past perfect. In this exchange, the participants are the teacher and a student. But it was performed in front of the class, which consists of 13 students.

[T3CF2RE]

01 T3: This is past perfect. Do you remember the present perfect? Yes? Daniel? Do you remember, Daniel, the present perfect?

02 S1: Yes.

03 T3: Could you please give me an example?

04 S1: Ehh... ehh... he have gone.

05 T3: He?

06 S1: Yes.

07 T3: He?

08 S1: He have gone...

09 T3: Are you sure? He had?

10 S1: Has, ah sí. Has done.

11 T3: He has done.

12 S1: His homework.

In this dialogue, the teacher starts the move by asking a leading question, *Do you remember the present perfect? Yes? Daniel? Do you remember, Daniel, the present perfect?* This excerpt is significant in the conversation because the teacher tries to get the student's attention, but she also suggests that he knows the answer. To keep the order of the conversation, the student does not have options but to answer *yes*. Line three has a similar function because the teacher asks for an example. In terms of face, the teacher is using a politeness strategy to avoid FTA. However, the student hesitates and takes time before answering. Then he mentions *he have gone*. Elizabeth repeats the wrong part of the utterance changing the intonation, *he?* In line six, the student answers *yes.* This implies a breakdown in communication because both participants framed the situation differently, which means, they have a different conception of the example that the student is giving. Hence, Elizabeth

asks again *he?*. The student reinforces his idea and repeats the utterance *he have gone*. Line nine works as a dispreferred second. In this case, the teacher reformulates her question, *Are you sure? He had?* Repair occurs until line ten, where the student reframes the conversation. This implies that after those moves the student could produce the right answer and the teacher finishes the exchange. However, the structure of this exchange shows that the student was induced to say the correct utterance, but probably he did not notice why his replies were wrong. He responded because it was part of the language in the classroom as following the IRF sequence. The analysis of conversation maxims imply that the repetitions employed by the teacher break the maxims of quality, relation, and manner. First, the contribution is not informative or relevant for the student and it leads to confusion. This excerpt also shows that, as the teacher has control over the discourse in the classroom, the student did not have the opportunity to reframe the situation or to explain his idea.

The following example was taken from Olivia's class (T4). The objective of this task is that students remember modal verbs before she introduces the topic. In this activity, the teacher asks the whole class, but a student intervenes to answer.

[T4CF3RE]
01 T4: Y acuérdense que hay un modal que podemos utilizar específicamente
02 S1: Can? You can?
03 T4: Can? You can't or can?
04 S1: Can.
05 T4: Can't?
06 S1: No.
07 T4: You can swim in the sea if you want to, can or you should, you might.

In this example, Olivia tries to use students' previous knowledge to remember modal verbs. Then, a student provides an answer but in a question form, expecting the teacher's guidance: *Can? You can?* Line three shows a trigger, related to pronunciation. Then, Olivia repeats, emphasizing in the intonation: *Can? You can't or can.* The student mentions the right form; however, Olivia does acknowledge the response. In line six, the conveys meaning by saying no. Then Olivia repairs giving examples using *can,* and she adds other modal verbs.

This excerpt is unusual because the communication breakdown is not caused by the student; it is a teacher's misunderstanding. However, as the teacher guides the conversation, she omits the student's suggestion. Lyster (1998b) indicates that repetition may work in a corrective and non-corrective form. This example shows no relation between the feedback move and the purpose of the activity. There is no repair in this example, and the student does not notice the development of the moves because the teacher interrupts and modifies the frame. This example also shows that the teacher breaks the maxims of conversation because her feedback is not relevant and causes confusion, instead of leading a better understanding.

In summary, both examples show that repetition might work after different moves. However, it does not reveal a concise understanding of the learners. In both excerpts presented, the repetitions made by the teachers do not work initially as error correction. They seem to be teachers' conversational strategies that intend to clarify their own misunderstandings or breakdowns in the conversation. The first dialogue demonstrates that the student has an idea about the type of phrase that he wants to produce, but the teacher does not understand, and the course of the dialogue forces the learner to reframe the situation until he changes the sentence. Although that could be considered a successful exchange, the student has to make an additional effort to perpetuate the conversation.

4.3.5 Explicit correction

The fifth move that will be discussed corresponds to explicit correction. Ellis *et al.* (2006) have found explicit correction as a problematic technique concerning teacher's perceptions. Their study suggests that teacher find explicit correction too direct, and it may cause problems in the students' affective filter. The next example elucidates what literature says since the teacher uses different strategies before he employs explicit correction. This excerpt was taken from Fernando's class (T6). The purpose of the activity is that students find the correct noun for the word excite as he explains word-formation. In this activity, the whole class is involved, but a student decides to answer.

[T6CF4EC]

01 T6: Too much hmm well give me an adjective, too much happy? too much happy? Okay, you said beauty, what kind of word is that?

02 S1: Umm an adverb.

03 T6: Exactly. When you have too much you have to put a noun here, right? So, what is the noun for excite?

04 S1: Excited?

05 T6: No, excited is not a noun form.

06 S1: Exciting.

07 T6: Exciting is an adjective form or could be a verb form as well.

08 S1: …

09 S1: Excitement.

10 T6: Excitement! okay, good.

The first techniques used by the teacher are elicitations because he tries that students use stored knowledge to find the answer. However, this example seems confusing as he is using metalinguistic forms to make the students aware of the type of word they are looking for (noun). Therefore, the teacher uses other strategies to push students to find a noun. Then, in line three, he makes explicit what he is looking for *So what is the noun for excite?* The conversation moves forward, and the student provides different answers, yet none is correct. In line five, Fernando expresses directly, *no, excited is not a noun form*. In this case, it is understood that the teacher used explicit correction as an alternative, and the conversation guided him to do so. The next moves are related to elicitations and the student continues responding until he exhausts his possibilities. This example shows a complex exchange of moves since Fernando prompts the expected form, but he makes the conversation long and difficult for the student to understand. Even though in the end, the repair is achieved, it does not show that the student has focused on form. He appears to be guessing until he gets the expected answer. Additionally, most of the moves employed by the teacher do not respect the maxims of conversation because the feedback provided does not avoid confusion, and the statements do not follow the maxim of quantity. This exchange represents that corrective feedback can also be difficult to provide, and the teachers do not always direct the discourse in the classroom in the most effective ways.

The following excerpt also is an example of explicit correction, it was taken from Natalia's class (T2). In this context, the students are saying the steps to prepare a sandwich. The participants in this exchange are a student and the teacher, but the whole class is present.

[T2CF6EC]

01 S1: First I put the mayonnaise on the bread, next I put the lettuce in the ham, next.

02 T2: On the ham, on the ham, oon the ham.

03 S1: On, así dijo ella.

04 S1: I put the cheese in the ham, next I put the onions in the cheese, finally I put the slice of bread.

05 T2: Bread, okay, very good.

06 T2: Bread se escribe con A, está mal escrito.

07 T2: Este… ahora se lo regresan y lo van a pegar en su libreta.

The error in this example is displayed in the first line. The student uses the preposition *in* instead of *on*. In line two, the teacher corrects the utterance by recasting, but she repeats it three times so that the student notices his error. As FTA, the student responds, protecting his face and saying *on, así dijo ella.* However, there is no repair in terms of feedback because the student omits the correction, and he continues giving the steps. Line five, shows a preferred second, that, concerning communication, is not achieved. Thus, the teacher mentions *okay, very good* with the intention of concluding the activity, but not to acknowledge the student. Line six shows a change in the frame. The teacher notices a written error and she expresses *Bread se escribe con A, está mal escrito*. In this case, there is no student's response, and the teacher reframes the situation by giving instructions in line seven. In this example, explicit correction appears at the end of the exchange, and it seems decontextualized from the general activity. In terms of the conversational moves, the teacher corrects the form, but it is a dispreferred second as there is no answer from the learner. Even though it is considered that explicit correction could work because students notice the correction, this excerpt shows the opposite.

To conclude the analysis of this strategy, it can be said that this is not a common technique employed by the teachers in this study. In the examples presented, this strategy works as an alternative that compensates for other feedback moves.

4.3.6 Clarification request

The last technique explored in this study is clarification requests. The following excerpt is the only one classified within this technique. It can be found in the data from Elena's class (T1). It is related to the activity previously mentioned, where students are asked to say comparatives and superlative adjectives.

[T1CF2CR]
01 T1: Okay, long adjective
02 S1: Long?
03 T1: Yeah
04 S1: Beautiful?
05 T1: Are you asking me or you're…
06 S1: Beautiful!
07 T1: Okay, send it... throw it

In this example, the teacher asks the student to give an example of a long adjective, the student wants to clarify or make time by asking: *long?* Elena answers positively, also giving extra time for the student to think. In line four, the student replies with the word *beautiful?* expecting the guidance of the teacher. However, she responds with a clarification request: *Are you asking me or you're?* The teacher intends that the student provides a concise answer, and the students interpret that in the same way, so he says, *beautiful*. The teacher agrees with the student and continues with the interaction.

The excerpt indicates that the strategy was effective as the student provides the correct form. Although line five might be considered a FTA, the intonation the teacher uses and the way she manages the class is positive for the student since he has been encouraged to provide a correct form. This could imply that contextual classroom information as well as a strong rapport between the teacher and student are more relevant than the actual technique for error

correction. Furthermore, this could suggest that a teacher's classroom decision-making choices have similar relevance to error correction techniques and could in some instances of individual interaction be more useful in practice.

4.4 Discussion of the efficacy of the techniques

This section aims to provide a discussion about the effectiveness of the techniques following the data presented above. The first technique reviewed were recast. The examples revealed that this technique is ambiguous, and students do not necessarily achieve repair. Previous research (Mackey *et al*., 2016) has demonstrated that this technique works better with advanced learners as they possess extra knowledge to identify recasts during classroom discourse. This study was conducted with basic and intermediate-level students, and that might influence their understanding of this technique. Metalinguistic feedback appeared to be a more successful technique because the teachers focused on a specific aspect to correct, which raised students' awareness of linguistic forms, and it was successful in one of the examples presented. As stated by Rashidi and Babaie (2013), another aspect that influenced on the success of this exchange was that it was delivered immediately. Its explicit nature helped students to understand the possible source of the error. Elicitation worked with a combination of other strategies. This technique implied an extra effort from the teacher to lead students to find the expected answer. However, during the exchange of moves, it might become ambiguous, and the teachers may opt for changing the addressee or reframing the situation, which is not effective in terms of learning. To reinforce this idea, Nassaji (2007) observes that "the benefits found for elicitations could not be due to elicitations alone but to the combination of elicitations with form-focused instruction" (p. 437). In this instance, teachers can be more specific on how they guide the feedback move.

Explicit corrections were not explored in detail because the data presented was reduced as the teachers did not use this technique much. A reason why this happens might be discusses with the conflicting believes teachers have regarding corrective feedback. García Ponce and Mora Pablo (2017) suggest that teachers have positive views of error correction but that is not reflected in practice since they do not want to sound too direct when they provide feedback. This is revealed in the data examples where the teachers use different techniques before they decide to explicitly correct students. Repetition was employed as a

resource to solve communication problems, but the excerpts indicated that it does not work because students do not identify it as a correction. Moreover, the teachers used them to compensate for their own errors. These results relate to previous research (Doughty & Varela, 1998; Lyster, 1998b), which indicate the ambiguousness of using this technique. The authors recommend using other techniques to be clearer on the delivering of feedback. The last technique used was clarification request and this seemed effective because in the context of the correction it involved rapport from the teacher as well as the use of a joke to encourage the student to provide the expected phrase. However, this is the only example presented in the data and I cannot assume this technique would work in other exchanges. From this section, it can be concluded that metalinguistic feedback was more effective. However, teacher knowledge and teacher-decision making play an important role in the approach of the error correction techniques, since the data also revealed that teachers controlled the interactions as well as the discourse in every exchange.

4.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, the results of the data analysis were presented. In the first phase, the general findings were reported. It included a discussion of the classification of techniques. The second phase was composed of a conversation analysis of feedback moves taken from the general data. There were two examples for each technique (except for clarification requests) to compare them and to demonstrate whether they lead to repair. In the last section, I discussed the overall efficacy of the techniques. It can be concluded that each excerpt refers to different moments in classroom interactions. How each situation was developed, guided the teachers to provide specific forms of feedback. According to conversation analysis, language classroom presents patterns that differ from natural conversations. Those results will be explained in detail in Chapter Five.

Chapter Five
Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

Chapter Four aimed to present the data analysis. This chapter establishes the conclusions of the thesis. Initially, the research question is reviewed. The next section contains a summary of findings, where the answers to the research question are provided. After that, the pedagogical implications of this research are discussed. The section of limitations encompasses some of the constraints that arose in the development of this study. This chapter also includes recommendations for further research, as well as the conclusions.

5.2 Revisiting the research question

The objective of the present study was to analyze the teachers' provision of oral corrective feedback using qualitative inquiry, where conversation analysis served as the methodology to collect and process the information. Therefore, this research aimed to respond to the following research question:

> *How is oral corrective feedback provided in EFL classrooms by teachers at a private language institute in Toluca, State of Mexico?*

The results that emerged after the analysis will be discussed in the following section.

5.3 Summary of findings

To answer the question, three levels of analysis were employed: the cooperative principle, turn-taking, as well as frame analysis. To discuss the results, each category is presented.

5.3.1 Corrective feedback and the cooperative principle

The main outcomes of this level of analysis showed that when corrective feedback was provided, it violated the cooperative principle (Grice, 1975) and the maxims of conversation. As it was presented in the literature review chapter, the purpose of the maxims

of conversation is to avoid misunderstandings or confusion. This research showed that during the exchange of feedback moves, some of these principles were followed. However, sometimes the maxims were not respected. The more salient examples are related to the maxims of quantity, relation, and manner because in most cases the feedback techniques were not aligned with the purpose of the activity. Some techniques were presented as incidental moves during classroom interactions. This may happen because teacher talk differs from normal conversations due to pedagogical purposes. Hence, for communicative exchanges, corrective feedback appears to break some of the basic conversational rules.

5.3.2 Corrective feedback, turn-taking and repair

Turn-taking and was another lens used to analyze the data. The findings of this category reflected some of the aspects discussed in the literature review. For instance, teacher talk was dominant, and the teachers guided the exchanges of moves. This means that the opportunities for students to communicate were reduced to teachers' choices of the next speaker. The IRF sequence was prevalent in the classroom discourse due to the purpose of providing error correction. Some of the feedback moves were also extended, and the teachers employed mixed techniques to raise attention to errors, such as repetitions followed by clarification requests. Additionally, it was also reflected that the feedback episodes were initiated by teachers, but learners did not respond as expected. It resulted in a great number of dispreferred seconds. To illustrate, students avoided the correction, or they answered something different from what was required. Teachers had to solve this problem by using strategies to promote their students' understanding. However, learners did not always achieve repair. This finding contrasts with Waring's (2011) position on the IRF sequence. He proposed that learners could find opportunities to intervene during classroom interactions and modify the sequence. Nonetheless, the data presented restrictions for spontaneous conversations since teachers leaded the moves and intervene during exchanges to correct students.

5.3.3 Corrective feedback and frame analysis

The analysis carried out under this frame presented relevant information regarding students' and teachers' interaction. The excerpts showed in the data analysis demonstrated complex moves in the conversations. That is the reason why interactions in the classroom

cannot be reduced to teachers correcting, and students attending (or not) the corrections. This frame was useful to identify that there are moves that go beyond pedagogical intentions. For instance, in most of the exchanges, learners responded to oral corrective feedback only because it was part of the classroom discourse. Hereby, teachers and students knew about the transactions that occurred inside the classroom. If the teacher asked something, learners knew they should respond, as they were following instructions. Frame analysis allowed to explain the feedback moves where teachers tried to reorganize the conversation as students did not respond to error correction. It is relevant to clarify that in some cases the reframing was successful. However, in other situations, the interactions were not completed, and the teachers solved the problems in communication by starting new conversations, changing the topic, or choosing another student to address the correction.

5.3.4. The efficacy of oral corrective feedback

The study of the provision of oral corrective feedback showed that in most of the exchanges it was not effective since students did not achieve repair. Each technique presented different constraints in the development of the correction, and the results did not show solid evidence of language learning. The findings align with Ammar and Spada (2006) who mention that students do not notice feedback as corrective, and that the effects of error correction may vary depending on the teacher, proficiency of students, and the target feature. For this reason, some pedagogical implications are discussed in the following section.

5.4 Pedagogical implications

The results of this research imply that language classroom, in specific corrective feedback has its own rules in interaction. Teachers and students were aware of the dynamic followed in their classrooms, and they used language for objectives different from educational, such as to attend instructions, or to save their classmates' face. This study considered if the conversation analysis principles were applied during corrective feedback. The outcomes showed that error correction was not always conducted successfully. Therefore, some suggestions will be made to promote adjustments to these practices, to foster teachers' provision of error correction. Previous research in the field of corrective feedback (Ellis, 2009; Li, 2010; Lyster, 1998; Mackey *et al.*, 2016) has proposed that teachers should enhance communicative interactions in the classroom. These studies are based on the

cognitive interactionist view, where error correction has been demonstrated to be effective if it is elicited during communication. Thus, teachers need to draw students' attention to wrong forms and to give feedback as part of incidental learning. Nonetheless, this research showed reduced students' talk because classroom interactions were controlled by teachers.

Based on the findings, the first suggestion aims to offer tools to teachers so they can rethink the ways to provide oral corrective feedback. This can be achieved through teacher training, which would include a set of steps where teachers acquire the basic information about error correction such as what is an error, types of errors, and the categorization of techniques. However, to raise awareness about their practice it is necessary to approach them with real data examples where they can notice how research has proposed to correct students, and how it differs from regular classroom interactions. Additionally, being aware of some of the conversational rules might be helpful in terms of making classes more understandable. For instance, Chenail and Chenail (2011) endorse the use of the maxims of conversation and the cooperative principle in the classroom. In this instance, teachers can decide based on their experiences and knowledge but considering that corrective feedback may not be effective because students need to recognize it as a pragmatical function.

Apart from teachers, these considerations have implications at different levels. These findings are relevant for other stakeholders such as teacher trainers, coordinators, and administrators because they could spread this information to educators through teacher training. It would not only help teachers develop their skills but to raise awareness of error corrective feedback techniques. Additionally, teachers can be supplied with examples of how corrective techniques appeared to work in a regular classroom conversation. With this information, teachers may reflect on the possible ways to correct students. The results of this study are also significant for material developers since written materials for training show in their majority a set of steps to follow (as trying to make them practical for teachers). However, they do not include reasoning about the characteristics that need to be considered to provide feedback. Examples of this include the age of the learner, the level, and the purpose of the activities. To address this detail, a collaborative work between stakeholders is suggested.

5.5 Limitations

Four main aspects arose as limitations for this research. They are related to methodological constraints. First, the data were collected when the school year was concluding. For this reason, teachers were focused on finishing the syllabus due to administrative requirements. Therefore, the data obtained does not show some other possible types of interaction in the classroom. In the same way, the analysis of the syllabus in the school suggested that it is not communicative, but notional functional. This also influences in the type of activities carried out in the classroom, and perhaps the way in which teachers provided feedback. This was reflected in the data since the error correction techniques were employed only to focus on form. Another limitation is that the teachers taught in different groups, and no patterns could be stablished in terms of the level. In the same way, this research did not considered teachers personal styles, and problem types to provide feedback that could impact in the results of this study. The last limitation lies in its representativeness for the field. This research was conducted in six classrooms at a private language institute. Consequently, the generalizability of these findings is restricted to similar contexts. Nonetheless, the results reveal particularities that can be used for the benefit of the teachers' community.

5.6 Further research

This section presents recommendations that can be taken into consideration for further research. First, the topic of this study could be expanded to other contexts, such as the public sector, which would include exploring how corrective feedback is conducted there. It might be valuable to collect the data of classes where students have a major number of interactions in the classroom. Second, it could be of significance to complement the study by addressing another research question, for example *why do teachers provide a specific type of feedback*? This proposal involves employing techniques as recall-interviews and focus groups to explore the reasons why teachers prefer a type of feedback over others, which may enrich the outcomes of new studies. Another recommendation is related to the amount of research in Mexico that employs conversation analysis as a methodology to investigate oral corrective feedback. In this case, it is relevant to continue conducting this type of studies because the results may show influential contributions to the field.

5.7 Conclusion

The main objective of this chapter was to present the concluding remarks of this thesis. There were three levels of analysis employed to answer to the research questions, and they were discussed in the section of the main findings. One of the principal results of this research is that, although the teachers employed different corrective feedback techniques, they were not relevant in terms of conversational rules and also, they were not effective for the learners. Most of the language used was not spontaneous because teachers and students predominantly use classroom language. For this reason, some pedagogical suggestions were given. They included how teachers and other stakeholders may approach oral corrective feedback. In the same way, the limitations of this study were reported. They encompassed methodological and pedagogical implications. The last section offered recommendations for further research, such as targeting the topic to other audiences and to take into consideration another research question to enrich later studies.

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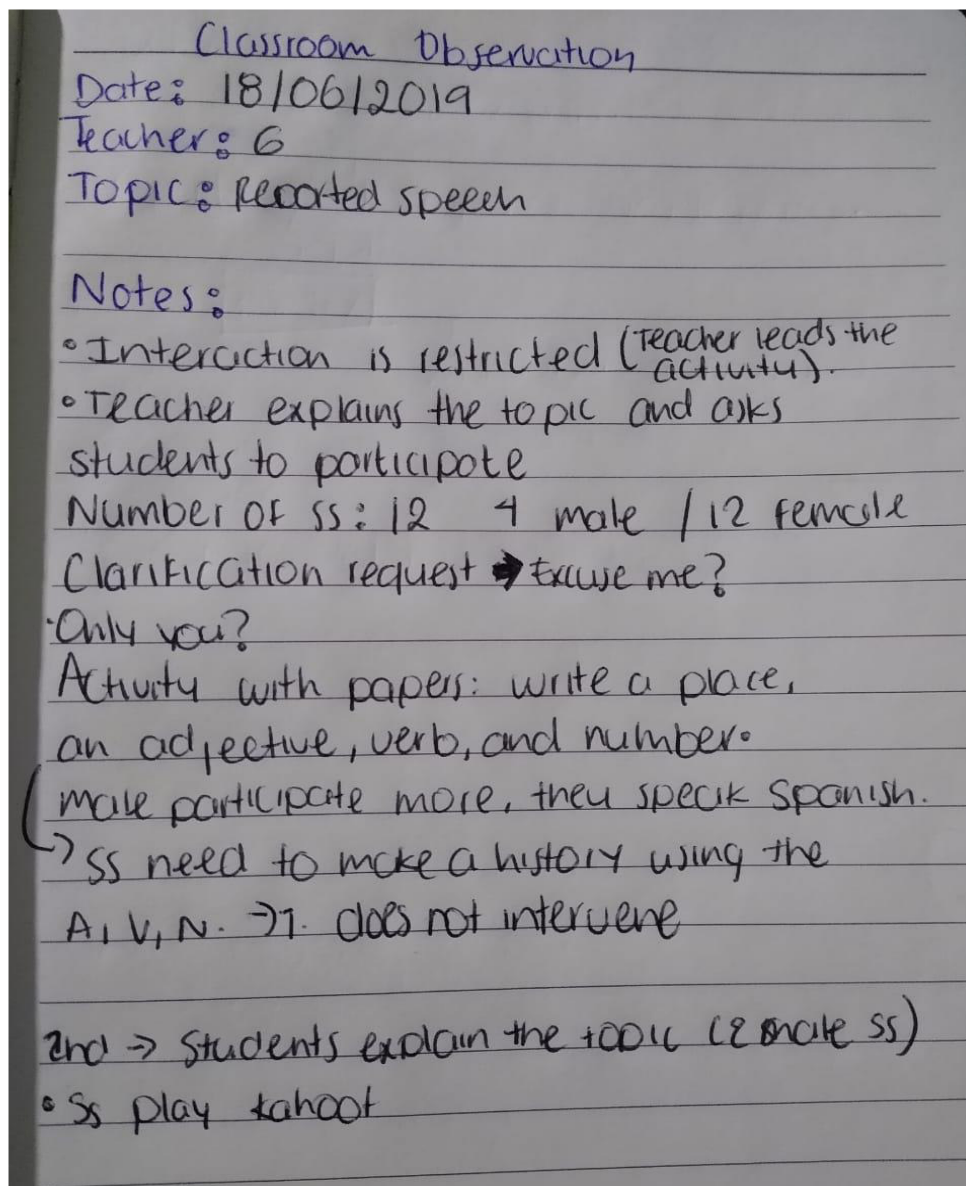
Appendices

Appendix 1. Field notes


Classroom Observation
Date: 18/06/2019
Teacher: 6
Topic: Reported speech

Notes:
• Interaction is restricted (Teacher leads the activity).
• Teacher explains the topic and asks students to participate
Number of ss: 12 4 male / 12 female
Clarification request → Excuse me?
• Only you?
Activity with papers: write a place, an adjective, verb, and number.
(male participate more, they speak Spanish.
→ ss need to make a history using the A, V, N. → T. does not intervene

2nd → Students explain the topic (2 male ss)
• Ss play kahoot

Appendix 2. Description of the activities

Teacher	**Lesson topic in the classroom (focused on form) I -hour activity**	**Speaking activity 30-minute activity**
T1	Topic: Comparative and superlative adjectives. The teacher throws a balloon and asks students about examples of the target form.	Students are arranged in pairs. They need to predict each other's future using sentences with will.
T2	Topic: Giving instructions to make a sandwich. The class follows the book. Students need to write instructions to prepare a sandwich. Then, they read and share their answers.	Students present a song (previously prepared)
T3	Topic: Present perfect. The teacher introduces the past perfect. She tries to recall information asking about structures in present perfect.	Role play doctor and patients. Students are required to give advice using modals.
T4	Topic: Tense's review. The class is focused on following the exercises in the book. They check the answers together and the teacher clarifies or asks extra questions.	Students present experiments and explain the process.
T5	Topic: Passive voice review. Students write a sentence in a piece of paper. Then they need to convert the sentence into passive voice.	Students give a mini class about passive voice.
T6	Topic: Reported speech. The class is centered in the teacher's discourse. They do not follow a book and the teacher asks questions related to form.	Students present an exposition about a topic they like.

Appendix 3. Consent letter for teachers

UNIVERSIDAD DE GUANAJUATO
MASTER IN LINGUISTICS APPLIED TO ENGLISH TEACHING
CONSENT FORM

Title of project: Speaking interactions in the classroom.

Name of researcher: Verónica Andrea Escobar Mejía

I am a student of the Master in Linguistics Applied to English Teaching, I am developing research, which you are invited to take part in. This form has important information about the reason for doing this, what you will be asked to do if you decide to participate, and the way the information you provide will be used. Please read it carefully and ask the researcher if you have any questions.

- Your session will be observed.
- The information you provide will be used purely for educational purposes. Your participation does not involve any emotional or physical risk.
- Your name and other personal data will be protected.
- You have the right to withdraw at any time.

Consent

- I have read and understood the explanation offered to me. I have had all my questions answered to my satisfaction, and I voluntarily agree to participate in this study.
- I give my consent to use my information for research purposes.
- I have been given a copy of this consent form.

Thank you!

______________________	______________________	______________________
Participant's Name	Participant's signature	Date
______________________	______________________	______________________
Researcher's Name	Researcher's signature	Date

Appendix 4. Consent letter for parents

UNIVERSIDAD DE GUANAJUATO
MAESTRÍA EN LINGÜÍSTICA APLICADA A LA ENSEÑANZA DEL INGLÉS
CONSENTIMIENTO INFORMADO

Título del proyecto: Interacciones del habla en el idioma inglés

Nombre de la investigadora: Verónica Andrea Escobar Mejía

Estimado padre de familia:

Soy alumna de la Maestría en Lingüística Aplicada a la Enseñanza del Inglés, de la Universidad de Guanajuato. Estoy realizando una investigación para mi proceso de titulación en el que invito a su hija o hijo a participar. El objetivo de mi estudio es analizar interacciones entre estudiantes y maestros al hablar inglés.

Por este medio solicito su permiso para que su hija o hijo participen en la investigación. El estudio se llevará a cabo en las clases regulares, las cuales serán observadas por mí, audio y video grabadas, así como transcritas. Las grabaciones solo serán vistas por el investigador y su director de tesis. El estudio es de carácter anónimo, por lo tanto, los nombres ni información personal será utilizada.

Usted está en la voluntad de participar o no en el proyecto. De ser así, puede firmar en el siguiente apartado. De lo contrario, favor de dejarlo en blanco.
En caso de tener alguna duda o comentario, puede hacérmelo saber antes de firmar.

¡Gracias por su apoyo!

Consentimiento

- He leído y entendido la explicación acerca del estudio. Mis preguntas han sido resueltas.
- Doy mi consentimiento para que mi hija o hijo participen en la investigación
- He recibido una copia de este documento

____________________	____________________	____________________
Nombre del participante	Firma del participante	Fecha

Appendix 5. Data transcription excerpts

Excerpts Teacher 1

S1: Will you have two cars, two super cars but you don't have money. T1: Will he, will he have two cars? Luxury cars? Look for it, look for it. S1: Will you have a girlfriend, but he's not love you all the life. T1: She won't love you. S1: She won't love you all the life. Only five, no. Two years. T1: Okay, only for two years… okay, what a shame! But you will have a girlfriend. That's okay.
S1: Hello, uhh I tell… T1: I'll tell, I will tell you your future. S1: I will tell you your future. This is my assistant "peppernut". It's very handsome, no? S1: He said me you live in… T1: You will. S1: You will live in London and you meet. T1: You will meet. S1: You will meet a boy, no, boy no, man. And you'll love that but he… T1: He won't. S1: No, he just like she? T1: But he won't. S1: But he won't like you. T: Oh what a shame!
S1: Will you travel? Really? No, you don't have money. T1: You won't. S1: You won't money. T1: You won't have. S1: You won't have money.
S1: Oh no! Will not study… Will don't have not study? T1: You won't study anymore? S1: No.

T1: Oh…

S1: Will don’t have.

T1: No, won’t.

S1: Won’t?

T1: Uh-huh.

S1: mm a home or house.

T1: You will be homeless? Oh my god! Okay.

S1: You won’t bad life.

T1: You won’t have.

S1: You won’t have bad life.

S2: It’s all?

S1: Yes.

S1: You will the company to the laptops and you will millionaire.

T1: You will be millionaire.

S1: Millionaire.

Excerpts Teacher 2

T2: Can you help me to read the instructions for the next activity?

S1: Pero ¿qué, estamos en la otra?

T2: Give me a moment.

S2: En la de ...

S1: Write the steps for making your favorite kind of sandwich. The food... and have.

T2: Give.

S1: Your sentence to your parter.

T2: Partner.

S1: Partner. Ask your partner to put the steps in order.

T2: Order. Okay, very good.

T2: ¿D...Me lo puedes leer por favor?

S1: Ingredients.

T2: ¿Es el de ella? Okay, a ver.

S1: Tomato, ham, cheese, lettuce, mayonneise... First, I put the mayonnaise.

T2: Mayonnaise.

S1: Mayonise on my bread.

T2: Okay.

S1: Next, I put the ham and cheese, then I put the let, let, leet.

T2: Lettuce.

S1: Lettuce and the salt of tomato.

T2: And a slice of tomato, and slices of tomato.

S1: Next I put the other salt of bread, finally I cut.

T2: I cut it, okay. very good.

S1: First I put the mayonnaise on the bread, next I put the lettuce in the ham, next.

T2: On the ham, on the ham, oon the ham.

S1: On, así dijo ella.

S1: I put the cheese in the ham, next I put the onions in the cheese, finally I put the slice of bread.

T2: Bread, okay, very good.

T2: Bread se escribe con A, está mal escrito.

T2: Este… ahora se lo regresan y lo van a pegar en su libreta.

Excerpts Teacher 3

T3: The first one, please.

S1: Singer.

T3: Lead singer.

S1: Lead singer learned about her illness...

T3: Okay, illness, what's the meaning of illness?

T3: This is past perfect. Do you remember the present perfect? Yes? Daniel? Do you remember, Daniel, the present perfect?

S1: Yes.

T3: Could you please give me an example?

S1: Ehh... ehh... he have gone.

T3: He?

S1: Yes.

T3: He?

S1: He have gone...

T3: Are you sure? He had?

S1: Has, ah sí. Has done.

T3: He has done.

S1: His homework.

T3: The next one. Who is the next one? Naomi?

S1: Alan.

S2: I had played with my friends.

T3: I had played with my friends.

S2: Before.

T3: Before, (a ver) before.

S2: before I go to the mall.

T3: I go to the mall? ¿pero por qué I go? Estamos hablando en pasado.

S2: before I went.

S3: I go.

S2: No, I went.

S3: Ah sí, I went.

T3: Okay guys, so thank you for your presentations. Just be careful. How do you say “dolor”?

S1: Hurt, hurt.

T3: Hurt or?

S2: Pain.

T3: Pain, or sore… but you said dolor.

T3: Then, how do you say receta médica?

S2: Recet medic.

T3: No.

S2: Medical

T3: Uh-huh.

S1: Note.

T3: Prescription, and you said reception.

S1:Laughter

Excerpts Teacher 4

<table>
<tr><td>T4: Okay, can you read again the first paragraph?
S1: In 1908 many Germans arrived… to South Africa, country of … they want.
T4: Wanted.
S1: Wanted to look for the animals and they found a lot…</td></tr>
<tr><td>T4: Number four, A.
S1: I….a bite.
T4: A bit
S1: Bit exper?
T4: Scared.
S1: Scared because I can’t speak Portuguese.
T4: Perfect. I can or I can't?
S1: Can´t.
T4: Ah, perfect, perfect. Number five R?</td></tr>
<tr><td>T4: Y acuérdense que hay un modal que podemos utilizar específicamente
S1: Can? You can?
T4: Can? You can't or can?
S1: Can
T1: Can’t?
S1: No
T4: You can swim in the sea if you want to, can or you should, you might.</td></tr>
<tr><td>S1: Sí, porque el dijo: it's good to have security.
T4: No, it’s good haven't, haven´t…No, ahh, it's not good. It's not good to have security, uh huh?
S1: It’s not good.
T4: Ah, okay. ¿Sí están bien entonces las niñas?
CLASS: Sí.
T4: ¿sí? Okay, perfect</td></tr>
<tr><td>T4: Can you repeat? can you repeat A...?
S1: It's not good security in the streets.
T4: To have security.</td></tr>
</table>

S1: To have security in the streets T4: Why?
T4: Number two. Monday, we are morning on leaving. S1: On Monday living on... digo, digo... On Monday living on morning. T4: Hmm, can you repeat? S1: Oh, we are Monday. T4: We are Monday? S1: No, we are leaving T4: We are leaving. S2: On Monday morning T4: On Monday morning, perfect. O puede ser al inicio el otro. On Monday morning, we are leaving.
T4: Number five, the is day hottest of year the. Aldo? S1: Is the day hottest of the year? T4: Is... can you repeat? S1: It’s the day hottest of the year. T4: Oh, more or less, more or less, more or less. Alfonso? S2 It's the hottest day of the year. T4: Okay, year. Perfect. Remember the order of adjectives.
T4: Number two. Este, Alan please. Ah okay, Tania: S1: This is the popular of the world sport. Everybody likes it. T4: What is the mistake? S1: Likes. T4: Likes, why likes? S1: Ehh because… T4: Everybody likes it. All of you likes it. Is it correct or not? S1: You likes it. T4: That's correct. This is not the mistake. Acuérdense que les dije que cuando teníamos *the world*, iba algo en especial, hasta se los anoté y se los dividí con los, con los adjectives. Take out your notebook. S2: Ah no traigo mi libreta.

S3: ¿Cuál, teacher?

T4: Ehh when we were ehh talking about the adjectives, superlative, comparative...

T4: Ruben?

S4: This is the most popular sport in the world, everybody likes it.

T4: Perfect, because when we have the word, we are specifying something, and it's a superlative. We need a superlative uh huh?

Excerpts Teacher 5

S1: Cesar said that Emmanuel will have been always alone.

S2: Ingrid told me that Emmanuel will been always alone.

T5: Okay, ¿está bien o está mal? Is it correct or not?

CLASS: Correct.

T5: Primero empezó con ¿Emmanuel qué?

S3: Emmanuel will be always, always.

T5: Will be always alone. Okay, ¿tienen su tabla por ahí?

CLASS: Yes.

T5: ¿A qué se pasa el will cuando usamos el reported speech?

S4: Present perfect, present perfect.

S2: Would, would.

T5: Entonces, ¿está bien o está mal?

S3: Está mal.

T5: ¿Cómo hubiera quedado?

S2: (Silence)

T5: Bueno, hazla y ahorita checamos las demás, ¿vale?

T5: Luis Fernando loves comics.

S1: Yes, Alan said me that.

T5: told me, uh- huh.

S1: Luis Fernando loved comics.

T5: That Luis Fernando.

S1: Loves comics.

T5: ¿Está bien o está mal? ¿Cesar? ¿Está bien o está mal?

T5: Luis, ¿Está bien o está mal? Can you repeat it again?

S1: Alan told me that Luis Fernando loved comics.

S2: Yes, está bien.

T5: ¿Y qué sigue?

S3: Alan told me...Alan said me that Luis Fernando no sé comics.

T5: No. Okay, está en presente. En presente lo vamos a cambiar a pasado simple. Okay? Y una vez que esté en pasado simple ¿a qué se va a cambiar?

S2: Past perfect.

T5: Exacto, a pasado perfecto. Entonces, esa parte es en pasado perfecto.

S1: Uziel said me that he...

T5: Told me.

S1: Uziel told me that he...?

T5: ¿Okay, is what? Emmanuel is dance. Is dancing.

S1: Dancing?

T5: Yes, right? Because… or Emmanuel dances bachata, I don't know. Without the verb to be.

S1: ¿Con el verbo to be?

T5: Without.

Excerpts Teacher 6

T6: Cecilia, give me a sentence... Cecilia, give me that sentence in passive voice.

S1: In passive.

T6: In passive voice .

S1: The apple uhh... m... (8 seconds).

T6: Okay, she has... listen to her answer.

S1: Okay.

S2: The apple was eat by ... the apple.

T: Okay you guys are like making me feel bad because every question I asked has been wrong...

T6: What is the word that you have to put there?

S1: Excited, excited?

T6: Exciting. S1: Exciting, ah eso... no, no. no. (laughter) T6: Okay, so if I say zoo, it's alright? no. It's not that. S1: Excite, excite...excited. S2: Exciting. S3: excitement, no? very exciting... T6: Okay, no.
T6: Too much hmm well give me an adjective, too much happy? too much happy? Okay, you said beauty, what kind of word is that? S1: Umm an adverb. T6: Exactly. When you have too much you have to put a noun here, right? So, what is the noun for excite? S1: Excited? T6: No, excited is not a noun form. S1: Exciting. T6: Exciting is an adjective form or could be a verb form as well. S1:… S1: Excitement. T6: Excitement! okay, good.