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**FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT IN EFL PRIMARY  
SCHOOLS IN CYPRUS**

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY DISSERTATION**

**GEORGE TH. MICHAELOUDES**

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of Cyprus**

**DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH STUDIES**

**FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT IN EFL PRIMARY  
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**GEORGE TH. MICHAELOUDES**

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The present doctoral dissertation was submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy of the University of Cyprus. It is a product of original work of my own, unless otherwise mentioned through references, notes, or any other statements.

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GEORGE TH. MICHAELOUDES

## ABSTRACT

Η Διαμορφωτική Αξιολόγηση (ΔΑ) είναι μια διαδικασία αξιολόγησης της μάθησης και ταυτόχρονα τροποποίησης της διδασκαλίας, βάσει των πληροφοριών που προέρχονται από τις δραστηριότητες των εκπαιδευτικών και των μαθητών, με σκοπό την προώθηση της μάθησης και τη βελτίωση της μαθησιακής ικανότητας (Black & Wiliam, 1998). Η ΔΑ έχει εφαρμοστεί με επιτυχία σε πολλές χώρες (Hume & Coll, 2009; Tarnamen & Huhta, 2011; Wang, 2008) και ιδιαίτερα στον χώρο της γενικής εκπαίδευσης (Asghar, 2010; Brookhart, Moss, & Long, 2010; Taras, 2008). Όμως υπάρχουν ακόμα προβλήματα στην κατανόηση και σωστή χρήση αυτού του όρου, π.χ. έλλειψη ξεκάθαρου και ενιαίου ορισμού (Boyle & Charles, 2010), μη επαρκής εφαρμογή του λόγω των αντιλήψεων των εκπαιδευτικών και των αρνητικών τους στάσεων έναντι της ΔΑ, καθώς επίσης και έλλειψη σχετικής γνώσης και επιμόρφωσης σχετικά με τη ΔΑ (Ayala et al., 2008; Boyle & Charles, 2010; Hargreaves, 2007). Στον χώρο της γενικής εκπαίδευσης, αν και υπάρχει αυξημένο ενδιαφέρον για τη ΔΑ και την παραγωγή σχετικής έρευνας (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Turner, 2012), είναι ακόμη περιορισμένες οι έρευνες σχετικά με τη ΔΑ για την εκμάθηση της δεύτερης ή ξένης γλώσσας (Rea-Dickins, 2004, 2008). Ιδιαίτερα στο κυπριακό εκπαιδευτικό σύστημα, οι έρευνες γύρω από τη ΔΑ και συγκεκριμένα την αξιολόγηση της εκμάθησης της αγγλικής γλώσσας στα δημοτικά σχολεία είναι ακόμη πιο περιορισμένες (Pavlou & Ioannou-Georgiou, 2005; Tsagari & Pavlou, 2008).

Η παρούσα εμπειρική έρευνα εστιάζεται στη διερεύνηση της ΔΑ και συγκεκριμένα στη διδασκαλία της αγγλικής ως ξένης γλώσσας στα δημοτικά σχολεία της Κύπρου. Μέσα από παρακολουθήσεις και αναστοχασμούς μαθημάτων, ημιδομημένες συνεντεύξεις και ερωτηματολόγια, η έρευνα προσπαθεί να εντοπίσει: α) πρακτικές όπου οι εκπαιδευτικοί σχεδιάζουν, οριοθετούν και εφαρμόζουν τη ΔΑ μέσα από στρατηγικές όπως: ερωτήσεις, παρακολούθηση και ανατροφοδότηση, β) τα είδη ανατροφοδότησης που προσφέρουν οι εκπαιδευτικοί στους μαθητές, γ) τη διαχείριση πληροφοριών σχετικών με την αξιολόγηση από τους εκπαιδευτικούς, δ) κατά πόσο η ΔΑ είναι αποτελεσματική και ε) την προϋπάρχουσα γνώση και τις αντιλήψεις των εκπαιδευτικών αναφορικά με τη ΔΑ.

Τα αποτελέσματα αυτής της έρευνας έδειξαν ότι οι δάσκαλοι χρησιμοποίησαν σε μεγάλο βαθμό τεχνικές της ΔΑ, όπως ερωτήσεις, παρακολούθηση μαθητών και διαμορφωτική ανατροφοδότηση, για να αξιολογήσουν και να συλλέξουν σημαντικές πληροφορίες για την επίδοση των μαθητών και να βελτιώσουν τη διδασκαλία, τη μάθηση και την απόκτηση ξένης γλώσσας. Άλλες όμως τεχνικές της ΔΑ, όπως η αναφορά στους στόχους του

μαθήματος και των κριτηρίων επιτυχίας, η αυτοαξιολόγηση και ετεροαξιολόγηση και η διαμορφωτική αξιολόγηση των τελικών διαγωνισμάτων, χρησιμοποιήθηκαν σε μικρότερο βαθμό από τις υπόλοιπες τεχνικές της ΔΑ. Επιπλέον, παρατηρήθηκε ότι οι εκπαιδευτικοί χρησιμοποιούν τις πληροφορίες αξιολόγησης για να αλλάξουν το περιεχόμενο και τον τρόπο της διδασκαλίας τους στα επόμενα μαθήματα. Η ΔΑ αποδείχτηκε πως είναι μια αποτελεσματική λειτουργία, αφού μέσα από την ανάλυση της πρόσληψης (uptake), καταγράφηκε βελτίωση στην απόκτηση γλώσσας. Τέλος, αναδύθηκαν ενθαρρυντικά αποτελέσματα σχετικά με τις αντιλήψεις και την προϋπάρχουσα γνώση των εκπαιδευτικών. Οι εκπαιδευτικοί φαίνονται να είναι θετικοί και να κατέχουν τις βασικές προϋπάρχουσες γνώσεις σχετικά με τη ΔΑ.

Η έρευνα προσφέρει διάφορες μεθοδολογικές και θεωρητικές εισηγήσεις, προσπαθεί να καλύψει το κενό που παρουσιάστηκε στη βιβλιογραφία αναφορικά με το πώς γίνεται αντιληπτή και κατανοητή η έννοια της ΔΑ και πώς εφαρμόζεται. Μέσα από το προτεινόμενο θεωρητικό πλαίσιο, έγιναν εισηγήσεις σε διάφορους εμπλεκόμενους για τη σωστή εφαρμογή και αξιοποίηση της ΔΑ σε ό,τι αφορά τη διδασκαλία της αγγλικής ως ξένης γλώσσας στα δημοτικά σχολεία της Κύπρου. Εισηγήσεις, επίσης, έγιναν και για την επαγγελματική επιμόρφωση των εκπαιδευτικών, βασισμένες στα αποτελέσματα αυτής της έρευνας.

## ABSTRACT

Formative Assessment (FA) is defined as a process of assessing learning, modifying teaching according to information gathered through teachers and students' activities, and promoting learning with the aim of improving learners' competence (Black & Wiliam, 1998). FA has been implemented successfully in a number of countries (Hume & Coll, 2009; Tarnamen & Huhta, 2011; Wang, 2008) in mainstream education (Asghar, 2010; Brookhart, Moss, & Long, 2010; Taras, 2008). There are still problems in its conceptualization, i.e. lack of a clear and unified definition (Boyle & Charles, 2010), inadequate implementation due to teachers' perceptions, negative attitudes towards FA, and lack of FA-related knowledge and training (Ayala et al., 2008; Boyle & Charles, 2010; Hargreaves, 2007). Despite the increased interest in FA in mainstream education and the current important body of research (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Turner, 2012), FA-related research in the area of second or foreign language (FL/L2) learning is still limited (Rea-Dickins, 2004, 2008). Especially in the Cypriot context, research in FA, in particular, and assessment of English language learning in primary schools, in general, is even more limited (Pavlou & Ioannou-Georgiou, 2005; Tsagari & Pavlou, 2008).

The present empirical study focuses on the investigation of FA of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in Cypriot primary schools. Through the use of classroom observations, stimulated recalls, semi-structured interviews, and questionnaires, the study attempts to identify: a) instances of teachers planning, framing, and conducting FA through the use of techniques, such as questioning, observation, and feedback; b) types of feedback teachers provide learners with; c) teachers' treatment of assessment-related information, d) whether FA is an effective process, and e) teachers' background knowledge and perceptions of FA.

The findings of this study revealed that teachers used extensively major FA techniques, such as questions, observation, and formative feedback to assess learners' achievement, obtain important information for their current level of achievement and improve teaching, learning, and language acquisition. However, additional FA techniques, such as sharing of the learning objectives and success criteria, 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment, and formative use of summative tests were used less frequently than the rest of the FA techniques. Furthermore, teachers were found to use assessment information to change future instruction. FA proved to be an effective process as through the examination of uptake the enhancement of language acquisition was recorded in the findings. Finally, encouraging



findings were revealed regarding teachers' perceptions and background knowledge of FA as teachers seem to be positive towards FA and have basic knowledge of what FA is.

The study provides various methodological and theoretical contributions in an attempt to close the gap identified in the literature regarding the conceptualization, implementation, and understanding of FA. Through the proposed framework, recommendations to various stakeholders are made for the correct implementation and exploitation of FA in the EFL Cypriot primary educational context. Finally, based on the findings of this study, suggestions are also made for teachers' professional development related to FA.

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Finally, this thesis is dedicated to my family and especially to my father and mother who have continually advised and encouraged me throughout these studies and have always believed in me. My brother and my sister's families were always there when necessary to help in any way and most importantly to emotionally support me to survive this long and challenging journey. Their love and support were critical. In conclusion, I would like to acknowledge the tremendous help, patience, love, and understanding of my wonderful wife Stella who has been my support in every moment during this long journey. She gave me the most precious gift, our little son Theodoros, who was the ultimate motivating factor for the fulfillment of this thesis as it signaled the initiation of our new family. Without her endless love and support I would not have come this far.

## **DEDICATION**

This thesis is dedicated to my beloved family.

GEORGE TH. MICHAEL OUIDES

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## **List of Acronyms**

AfL: Assessment for Learning

ARG: Assessment Reform Group

CA: Conversation Analysis

CAQ: Classroom Assessment Questionnaire

CBA: Classroom-Based Assessment

CERE: Centre for Educational Research and Evaluation

CI: Classroom Interaction

DA: Diagnostic Assessment

DA: Discourse Analysis

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

EFL: English as Foreign Language

ELLs: English language learners

FA: Formative Assessment

FL/L2: Second or Foreign Language

IIO: Input Interaction Output

IRE: Initiation Response Evaluation

IR-F/FU: Initiation-Response-Feedback/Feedback Uptake

IRF: Initiation Response Follow-up

LOA: Learning Oriented Assessment

LTA: Language Testing and Assessment

MOEC: Ministry of Education and Culture

OT-E: Overall Teaching Experience

PGCE: Post Graduate Certificate in Education

SA: Summative Assessment

SCT: Sociocultural Theory

TALE: Teachers' Assessment Literacy Enhancement

TESOL-E: Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages Experience

TPFA: Teachers' Perceptions on FA

ZAD: Zone of Actual Development

ZPD: Zone of Proximal Development

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## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

### **1.1 Abstract**

The first chapter of the thesis situates this study, and FA in general, in the field of linguistics and more specifically in applied linguistics. It then provides information about the context of this study and briefly refers to the history of English language teaching and bilingualism in Cyprus based on historical events. The chapter also presents the educational system in Cyprus and the recent reform in education which affected the teaching of English. Finally, the chapter exemplifies the purpose of this study and concludes with the organisation of the thesis.

### **1.2 EFL Teaching and Learning and Formative Assessment**

This is a study in the field of linguistics and in particular of Second or Foreign Language (FL/L2) acquisition and communication. The relationship among second/foreign language teaching, learning and assessment is examined in classroom interaction, with the aim of revealing the role of assessment. More specifically, this study is in the intersection of ‘assessment of learning’ and ‘assessment for learning’ (Bennett, 2010; Glazer, 2014; Stiggins, 2002) which has led to a new body of research within the field of testing and assessment, that of FA (Formative Assessment) – assessment with a focus on the examination of interactions and classroom learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998, p. 7). The framework is primary schools in Cyprus where aspects of language learning and acquisition in the EFL context are explored. In fact, informed by the field of applied linguistics and drawing from the areas of education, second language acquisition, testing and assessment, this study investigates classroom interaction to identify whether teachers’ assessment practices (use of FA) and interactions with learners are beneficial for language acquisition.

Considering the perspective of applied linguistics and the new forms of LTA, this study deviates from exploring the traditional way of testing. The popular and established way of assessing learning through tests, i.e. assessment *of* learning, is not considered sufficient to promote learning according to the literature and more specifically the field of testing and assessment (Black, Harrison, Hodgen, Marshall, & Serret, 2010; Canagarajah, 2006; Stiggins & DuFour, 2009; Tsigari, 2004). Tests are important and necessary in the learning process as they are used for reporting purposes and identifying learners’ current

achievement regarding a particular language area or skill. However, if they are used only for reporting purposes, they restrict learners' opportunities for learning (Clarke, 1998; Rea-Dickins, 2001). Tests, for example, can be used as the stimulus to provide formative feedback to help learners overcome any difficulties identified in the tests (Wiliam, 2011). In this way, tests can be used to promote learning and language acquisition rather than being employed simply for reporting. Therefore, research in LTA has been marked by a shift away from traditional testing to assess learners' achievement, i.e. *Summative Assessment* (SA), towards the examination of interactions, classroom-based assessment and classroom learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998, p. 7; Davison & Cummins, 2006). This has led to the introduction and implementation of *Formative Assessment* (FA), a category of assessment *for* learning, in all levels of education, e.g. primary, secondary and tertiary (Asghar, 2010; Rea-Dickins, 2006; Wang, 2008) in many countries around the world (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Ellery, 2008; Hume & Coll, 2009; Wang, 2008). FA includes characteristics of SA as the formative use of summative tests may facilitate teaching and learning (Black & Wiliam, 2012; Mewald & Wallner, 2015; Wiliam, 2011). Therefore, the areas of assessment *of* learning and assessment *for* learning should not be considered as dichotomous as teachers may use a combination of formative and summative assessment practices for the promotion of learning (Glazer, 2014; Hooshangi, Yousofi, & Mahmoudi, 2014; Torrance, 1993; Wenjie & Chunling, 2013).

FA is grounded in theories of learning and second language acquisition, such as behaviourism, constructivism, interaction hypothesis and sociocultural theory (James, 2007; Krashen, 1985; Long, 1983; Swain, 1985; Vygotsky, 1978). For example, 'observation' and 'questioning', basic techniques of FA, are also important teaching techniques that are facilitated by the learning theories of constructivism (James, 1998) and behaviourism. 'Feedback', another FA strategy, is important in behaviourism (Gass & Mackey, 2007) and Interaction Hypothesis (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Sadler, 1989). Sociocultural Theory (SCT) of Learning and, specifically, scaffolding and Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) are in favor of the incorporation of FA techniques in teaching and learning as they support that knowledge comes through social interaction (Vygotsky, 1978).

Research in both general education and FL/L2 learning has shown that FA is effective for teaching and learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Brookhart, Moss, & Long, 2010; Ellery, 2008; Stiggins, 2002; Taras, 2008). Researchers support that FA has significant effects on learning and was found to improve learners' achievement (Bennett,

2011; Black & Wiliam, 1998; Hudesman et al., 2014; Kingston & Nash, 2011). Furthermore, FA benefits learners and has a positive impact on learners' motivation, self-esteem, self-regulation, feelings of control, self-awareness of learning and their commitment to work and attainment (Brookhart et al., 2010; Hayward & Spencer, 2010; Huang, 2016; Panadero, Brown, & Courtney, 2014; Weurlander, Söderberg, Scheja, Hult, & Wernerson, 2012). In particular, research on the acquisition of a FL/L2 shows that FA is beneficial for language learners in terms of achievement and motivation to learn (Kingston & Nash, 2011; Looney, 2007; Wang, 2008). In addition, FA is said to strengthen teachers' confidence because through FA practices teachers improve teaching and learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Boyle & Charles, 2010; Hayward & Spencer, 2010; Tiknaz & Sutton, 2006).

However, despite the fact that FA is claimed to be effective (Brookhart et al., 2010; Weurlander et al., 2012), there are studies in the field of FA that raise concerns regarding the effective implementation of FA in both general education and FL/L2 learning (Boyle & Charles, 2010; Colby-Kelly & Turner, 2007; Tiknaz & Sutton, 2006). In addition, the variety of terms and definitions available in the literature in combination with possible lack of teachers' training on FA cause further confusion in understanding the concept and the difficulties in implementing FA appropriately in their teaching (Butler, 2009). The complicated concept of FA affects their cognition and this is evident in their practices (Panadero et al., 2014). Also, findings on teachers' perceptions, understanding and knowledge of FA have not been very encouraging as to the successful implementation of FA (Ayala et al., 2008; Boyle & Charles, 2010). Moreover, studies on teachers' skills of and attitudes towards FA (Büyükkarcı, 2014; Black et al., 2010; Hargreaves, 2007; Rea-Dickins, 2000) also revealed worrying results.

In conclusion, FA is claimed to be an effective process, according to the literature, implemented in all levels of education in many countries around the world (Bennett, 2011; Black & Wiliam, 1998; Brookhart et al., 2010; Kingston & Nash, 2011). On the other hand, there are concerns about the conceptualisation and implementation of FA according to various studies (Ayala et al., 2008; Black et al., 2010; Boyle & Charles, 2010; Butler, 2009; Wang, 2008). Thus, the literature findings necessitate further research in the field of FA to identify which FA techniques teachers use and how smooth FA implementation is. Research in teachers' cognition is also necessary to investigate teachers' perceptions and background knowledge of FA due to the important role they play in the implementation of FA. More specifically, further research is required in the Cypriot primary educational

context for two reasons: a) the new curriculum reform of primary and pre-primary education, in which the teaching and learning of foreign languages is promoted and the use of FA techniques is encouraged and b) the lack of research in the fields of FA and EFL assessment in general. In order to explore FA in the Cypriot educational context, a close examination of the contemporary context is required after a discussion on the interconnection of this study with applied linguistics is made.

### **1.3 Linguistics and FA**

The current study explores the relation between second/foreign language teaching and learning and assessment. This study is rooted in the field of linguistics as it focuses on the areas of learning and language acquisition through the use of FA in the EFL context in primary schools in Cyprus. Linguistics, according to Akmajian, Demers, and Farmer (2010), is the scientific study of human natural language and linguistic communication and “a growing and exciting area of study, with an important impact on fields as diverse as education, anthropology, sociology, language teaching, cognitive psychology, philosophy, computer science, neuroscience, and artificial intelligence, among others” (p. 5). More specifically, linguistics aim “to break down the broad questions about the nature of language and communication into smaller more manageable questions that we can hope to answer” (Akmajian et al., 2010, pp. 5, 6) and, therefore, provide findings to answer larger questions. Similarly, through the examination of language that teachers use in classroom and the communication between teachers and learners, this study addresses various aspects of the implementation of FA, as well as the teachers’ perceptions and background knowledge of FA.

The focus on assessment situates this study within the field of applied linguistics as language testing and assessment (LTA) is an integral part of applied linguistics. The field of LTA recently became a sub-discipline of the broad context of applied linguistics. It forms part of applied linguistics because LTA deals with language learners and test-takers, and is related to test designers, publishers, teachers, and researchers interested in the teaching and learning of languages. The theoretical frameworks of LTA are rooted in educational measurement based on classical and modern test theory (Bachman, 1990) and theories from applied linguistics (Canale & Swain, 1980). Language assessment is a transdisciplinary field which encompasses, amongst others, linguistics, general education and psychology (Cumming, 2009; Tsagari & Banerjee, 2015). It is “a broad term referring to a systematic procedure for eliciting test and non-test data [...] for the purpose of making



inferences or claims about certain language-related characteristics of an individual” (Purpura, 2016). According to Clapham (2000, p. 148), “[l]anguage assessment plays a pivotal role in applied linguistics, operationalizing its theories and supplying its researchers with data for their analysis of language knowledge or use”. Therefore, LTA is not restricted in the identification of L2 learners’ linguistic expertise, but through the use of instruments, i.e. valid and reliable tests or tasks (Chapelle, 1998), elicits data for the analysis of language.

Furthermore, apart from the major issue of validity which affects all areas of applied linguistics, the shift in language assessment and the emphasis on assessment for learning and specifically FA, impacts significantly the area of applied linguistics (Grabe, 2010). Identifying learners’ current achievement through assessment of learning is necessary, but not enough for learning a language (Stiggins & DuFour, 2009). The promotion of language learning through the assessment of language learning is a key aspect in the process of FA which aims to integrate these areas to advance teaching and learning.

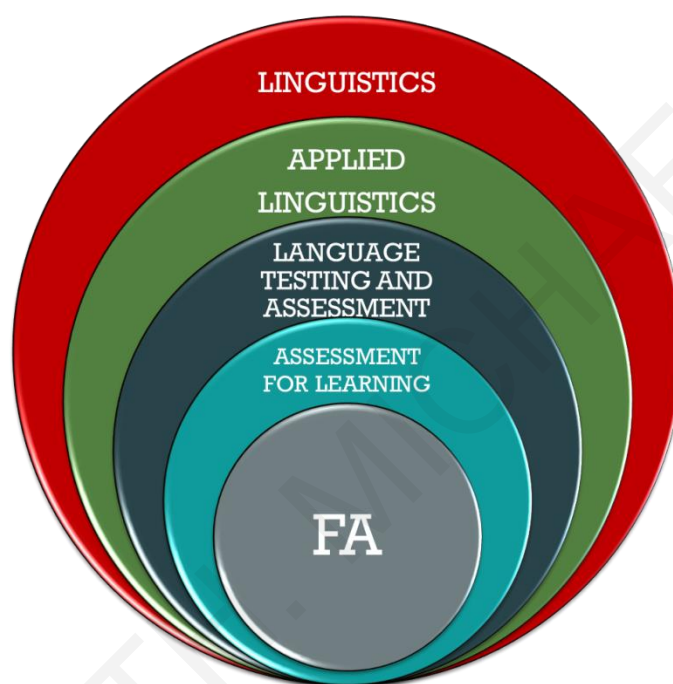
According to Brumfit (1997, p. 93) applied linguistics “deals with the theoretical and empirical investigation of real world problems in which language and communication are a central issue” (see also Grabe (2010)). In the same vein, Knapp and Antos (2016) assume that language, language ability and communication are neither flawless nor perfect among individuals, groups or societies and describe applied linguistics as a “specific, problem-oriented way of ‘doing linguistics’ related to the real-life world”, which is also conceived as ‘linguistics for problem solving’ (Knapp & Antos, 2016, p. xiii).

Rooted in applied linguistics and LTA, this study focuses on the education parameter and examines teaching of EFL in the school context and the way teachers assess learners’ achievement to promote language acquisition through the use of FA. Furthermore, this study aims to identify the potential need for training. In this light, the study falls into the problem-solving aspect of linguistics by providing insights into two major ‘problems’ of the learning process, i.e. the assessment of teaching and learning and the enhancement of learning and language acquisition. Finally, according to Knapp & Antos (2016), applied linguistics is socially accountable as the problems they are called to solve are rooted in society. Therefore, applied linguistics not only considers the social norms while examining and attempting to solve a problem, but also contributes to the enhancement of language and communication of social individuals and social structures by

being reflexive through the suggestions and answers provided (Knapp & Antos, 2016). This study aims to examine and provide suggestions to improve EFL teaching and learning in this context, in order to facilitate effective communication in English among individuals in society.

Figure 1 shows that this study belongs to the field of Linguistics and more specifically to applied linguistics, as it examines language assessment in the areas of FL/L2 learning through the use of FA in the EFL context in public schools in Cyprus.

**Figure 1 FA and Linguistics**



As it can be seen in figure 1, Formative Assessment (FA), the key aspect in this study, is a form of assessment for learning which is part of the LTA field of applied linguistics and linguistics in general. This area of applied linguistics aims to solve everyday communication problems related to language and more specifically to examine the assessment of learners' achievement and the enhancement of language learning.

As mentioned above, in line with applied linguistics and considering that language assessment is “a chief way of applying linguistics” (Davies, 1990, p. 74), this study investigates classroom interaction to identify whether teachers' assessment practices and interactions with learners are beneficial for language acquisition. Considering that the way teachers assess learners' achievement and promote learning and language acquisition is not

flawless, this study aims to solve problems relevant to FA in the Cypriot EFL school context. According to Tzagari and Banerjee (2016, p. 1), “there is nothing more ‘real world’ than a second language assessment tool”. This is due to the fact that language assessment is widely used for feedback, certification, employment, and social and geographical mobility (Cumming, 2009).

More specifically, the examination of FA in the Cypriot EFL context will provide information on everyday problems, such as learners’ language assessment of current achievement. The study examines whether FA is used as an assessment ‘tool’ to assess learners’ achievement during the lesson and identifies how teachers use FA techniques to promote learning and language acquisition. In addition, it will provide information regarding teachers’ effectiveness by identifying whether teachers take advantage of all the possible learning opportunities during the assessment process to promote language acquisition. Finally, it will investigate teachers’ perceptions and background knowledge and identify whether their knowledge is adequate for the appropriate implementation of FA and suggest training in various areas if necessary. The results of this study are expected to have an impact on teaching and learning in the EFL Cypriot school context, through suggestions to the relevant stakeholders.

#### **1.4 Context of the study**

This section provides information about the context of this study. Background information on learning English as a foreign language in public schools in Cyprus and a short description of the educational system in primary education in Cyprus are presented, along with an in-depth analysis exemplifying the reasons for conducting this study into this context.

##### **1.4.1 Second and foreign language learning in Cyprus**

Cyprus has a rich history in second language learning. The several invasions which took place in Cyprus throughout the years, for instance by Romans, Venetians, Franks, Ottomans, English, forced the population of Cyprus to follow the socio-cultural trends and language of their conquerors (Κλεάνθης, 1978). Bilingual education is traced hundreds of years back in Cyprus: Italian, French, Turkish and English successively. Cypriots have experienced and appreciate the use of second language for communicative purposes (Περσιάνης, 2006). English has been the default foreign language taught in primary schools in Cyprus since 1881, after Cyprus became an English colony (Markou, 2008).

As in other post-colonial countries, English has been incorporated into the Cypriot society, into official government documents and buildings, road signs, the media and the business community, as an essential element of the everyday life of Cypriot citizens. The use of English was reinforced after the EU accession of Cyprus in 2004 and the impact of globalization. As Cyprus is a popular holiday destination and tourism is vital to the economy, there is need for both the commercial and business sectors to operate fluently in English and for ordinary citizens to communicate competently. Immigrants working in Cyprus also need to be proficient in English in order to communicate with locals.

As a result of the above, English plays a very important, role in contemporary education in Cyprus. Therefore, English is taught as a foreign language twice a week in public primary schools from Grade 1. In addition, it is a very common practice for parents resort to afternoon foreign language schools, also known as ‘frontistiria’, or private tutors for extra help and instruction in English to ensure the performance of their children in public schools and their advancement in English (Lamprianou & Afantiti Lamprianou, 2013). In these lessons, teachers and learners use instructional material and materials from international publishers (usually exam-oriented) provided by well-known international examination boards (Tzagari, 2012b). This most probably has an impact on teaching and learning English in the public sector as inequalities amongst learners’ achievement are created.

#### **1.4.2 The educational system in Cyprus**

An overview of the educational system of Cyprus is necessary to demonstrate the way schools and, more specifically, teachers are operating in this system. The Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC) in Cyprus is in charge of the public educational system, the administration of education, the enforcement of education-related laws and regulations, and the allocation of the education budget.

Education in Cyprus is provided mainly through pre-primary and primary schools, secondary general and technical/vocational schools, public and private universities. Compulsory education in Cyprus lasts nine years, i.e. six years in primary school and three years in ‘Gymnasium’ (this is lower-secondary education). Compulsory education is free of charge and all courses are taught in Greek, the official language of the state. English, the first foreign language in public schools, is taught from the first grade of primary school (six years old) as an independent subject twice weekly to the end of the secondary school (MOEC, 2012, 2017b). French, the second foreign language in public schools is introduced

in the first year of the secondary school and is an option in the upper cycle of secondary education among seven foreign languages.

More specifically, primary school teachers are responsible for teaching the whole range of school subjects according to the national curriculum (MOEC, 2017b). Furthermore, primary school teachers with specialization in a specific subject through post-graduate qualifications or primary school teachers who show a special interest in a specific subject without possessing a post graduate qualification on that subject, e.g. English, Art, Physical Education, Music, are eligible to teach only the subject they are specialised. Therefore, teachers who offer English as a foreign language are primary school teachers with or without specialisation in English, who either teach English amongst all the other subjects they teach in their responsible class, or they teach mostly English to various classes.

Teachers are encouraged to use formative and summative assessment to assess learners' achievement (MOEC, 2016). In the primary school context, in contrast with the other levels of education, teachers do not assign grades to students but provide oral reports to parents upon request. Teachers tend to use tests for most, but not all, school subjects. They can use ready-made tests provided by the Ministry of Education or their own (Pavlou & Ioannou-Georgiou, 2005). The teachers can choose from a variety of methods to assess learners' attainment e.g. tests, portfolio, and quizzes. Interestingly, the MOEC does not provide strict guidelines for assessment techniques, e.g., questioning and observing learners, assessment instruments or a clear policy on how teachers should assess primary school learners' achievement formatively and promote learning or language acquisition (Kyriakides, 2004). Therefore, the assessment process varies based on teachers' preferences, beliefs and orientations of assessment. Thus, an exploration of teachers' assessment practices would shed light on their assessment habits.

### **1.4.3 Educational reform**

During the last couple of years there has been an educational reform, as mentioned earlier, in the educational system in Cyprus (MOEC, 2017b). The reform proposes the implementation of FA and the expansion of EFL courses to pre-primary education and all grades of primary education (MOEC, 2012, p. 125). More specifically, the new curriculum implemented in 2011/12 emerged from the need for educational reform as the latter was advocated in an UNESCO report (MOEC, 2013). Interestingly, the MOEC suggests the use of FA in the lessons as one of the ways to improve educational achievement and reach the

school target (MOEC, 2016). Therefore, the effectiveness of FA seems to be recognised by the MOEC as it promotes the use of FA for better results. In particular, the guidelines of the new curriculum for EFL in primary and pre-primary education suggest that the assessment procedure should be continuous and support the provision of feedback to learners through classroom interaction. Teachers can use FA through observation and interaction with learners, as well as alternative ways of assessment, such as self-, peer- and portfolio assessment (MOEC, 2012, p. 138). This was suggested because FA techniques, such as observation and self-assessment, engage learners in the learning process, make learners active members of the learning process and promote learners' autonomy and meta-cognitive skills (MOEC, 2012, p. 138). Despite the encouraging guidelines of the new curriculum, there is no evidence of teachers' implementation of FA or other assessment techniques suggested in the new curriculum in the Cypriot primary school context. It remains to be seen whether these principles are indeed followed by teachers and this can only be investigated through a close examination of teachers' perceptions and practices.

Other innovative features introduced by the MOEC were a new timetable and descriptors of achievement and sufficiency instead of the pre-existing learning objectives. The MOEC sets school targets every year and it is important to note that for three consecutive school years 2014-2017 the 'improvement of educational achievement' was one of the MOEC targets (MOEC, 2015, 2016, 2017a) because of these two innovative features. The particular school target is in line with the philosophy of FA which also aims not only to assess learners' achievement but also to enhance learning and language acquisition (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Davison & Cummins, 2006).

### **1.5 The purpose of the study**

Research in assessment in Cyprus is very limited and this is evident and explicitly reported by the small number of researchers who have already examined this field (Pavlou & Ioannou Georgiou, 2008; Tsagari & Koutozi, 2016; Tsagari & Pavlou, 2008). Findings so far of research in FA in mainstream education, and in particular primary schools, in Cyprus show that: a) teachers are positive towards FA, b) teachers believe that FA is more useful than SA (Kyriakides, 1997a, 2005; Kyriakides & Kelly, 2003), and c) teachers who use FA are more effective in promoting learning outcomes than those using SA. In addition, studies reveal the limited number of teachers using FA, their weakness in using FA practices and their lack of knowledge and confidence in assessment (Antoniou & James, 2014; Christoforidou, Kyriakides, Antoniou, & Creemers, 2014; Creemers, Kyriakides, &

Antoniou, 2012; Solomonidou, 2009). Also, inconsistencies were found of teachers' views of FA, between teachers' perceptions and their practices, as well as lack of FA understanding and the need for training in FA (Pavlou & Ioannou-Georgiou, 2005; Tsagari, 2012a, 2013; Tsagari & Pavlou, 2008). The inconsistency among teachers' beliefs and practices indicates lack of understanding and a possible threat to the successful implementation of FA. The investigation of FA practices would provide information regarding the use of FA, e.g. types, frequency, form, and suggestions on how these practices could be improved, changed or developed according to the literature. Furthermore, research in the Cypriot primary school context would reveal whether teachers in this context face the same problems, dilemmas and 'confusion' in implementing FA, as is the case in other studies, or whether contextual factors affect the implementation of FA in different contexts.

The studies presented earlier (see also Section 1.1) show that FA is an effective process of assessing and promoting learning and building teachers and learners' confidence, too (Brookhart et al., 2010; Colby-Kelly & Turner, 2007). However, it has been noted that the various FA-related definitions and the lack of an umbrella term for FA as well as the variety of FA implementation strategies have resulted in a weak understanding of FA on the part of the teachers. The FA concept reflects a vague, conflicting and multi-faceted process which teachers find difficult to incorporate in their practices (Ayala et al., 2008; Boyle & Charles, 2010). This complex nature of FA has a negative impact on their perceptions of and attitudes towards FA (Boyle & Charles, 2010; Hargreaves, 2007). Research in Cyprus regarding these issues is very limited, especially in the EFL primary education context (Pavlou & Ioannou-Georgiou, 2005; Tsagari & Pavlou, 2008). Inappropriate use of FA because of lack of teachers' knowledge or the misunderstanding of the concept of FA may lead to loss of learning opportunities and low-quality teaching, i.e. less effective. Not implementing FA techniques successfully, i.e. questioning and formative feedback, has a negative impact on teachers and learners as teachers are not able to receive feedback on learners' achievement and adjust instruction. Respectively, learners may not receive formative feedback from their teachers to move forward in learning.

Therefore, further research is necessary to examine how primary school EFL teachers assess learners understanding, whether they use FA techniques and which FA technique they use to promote learning and language acquisition. Furthermore, investigation into teachers' perceptions and background knowledge is necessary as these

issues affect their cognition and consequently the teaching practices they use (Borg, 2003; Panadero et al., 2014). These issues are explored in this study which investigates whether primary school teachers' practices in Cyprus follow FA principles in their teaching of EFL according to the suggestions of the new educational reform and the new curriculum introduced.

In particular, the purpose of the study is to investigate FA in the EFL primary context in Cyprus and address:

- How teachers assess learners' achievement
- What the teachers' FA perceptions and background knowledge are
- Whether teachers use FA techniques and which techniques they use, e.g. types of questions/feedback
- How teachers use the assessment information collected
- Whether FA promotes learning opportunities

These topics will shed light on the current implementation of FA in EFL lessons in primary schools in Cyprus and more specifically on teachers' assessment practices and use of FA techniques. It is explored whether teachers take advantage of learning opportunities through the use of FA techniques and classroom interaction and teachers' level of FA understanding and perceptions and attitudes towards FA through teachers' perceptions and background knowledge. The results of this study will inform various stakeholders about the current teachers' assessment practices in this context and provide suggestions for further improvement where necessary. Finally, the study will contribute to the general literature and especially to the field of testing and assessment by providing evidence of use, or not, of FA along with implication and challenges identified in this context.

## **1.6 Organisation of the thesis**

The first chapter presents the structure of the thesis and the scope of each chapter. It also briefly discusses the important aspects of this study with respect to the FA research context and the contemporary situation in primary schools in Cyprus. Furthermore, it presents the aims of the study and the fields explored.

The second chapter analyses the concept of FA. The historical background and the variety of terms and definitions of FA are illustrated. The chapter, also, analyses the



different types of FA suggested in the literature. It presents the theoretical foundations of FA and how learning and FL/L2 theories inform FA. Moreover, the effectiveness of FA and the implications of FA available in the literature are discussed. Finally, the techniques used to establish FA, e.g. questioning, observation and feedback, are analysed in relation to the importance of classroom interaction for the effectiveness of FA.

The third chapter depicts the methodology of this study. It presents and analyses the research instruments employed, i.e. classroom observations, stimulated recalls, semi-structured interviews and questionnaires for the collection of data. It also explains the data analysis and the sample and research procedure followed. Finally, it discusses ethical and triangulation issues.

The fourth chapter presents the results of classroom observations, the stimulated recalls and parts of the semi-structured interviews. It discusses the qualitative and quantitative analyses of the data from classroom observations to address the relevant research questions. In addition, an insight into the findings of the stimulated recalls from the teachers' point of view is provided based on teachers' explanations, and important issues of FA are elaborated.

The fifth chapter presents the results of the close-ended and open-ended questions of the questionnaires. Both types are discussed to inform the research questions.

Chapter six compares the research results of the four instruments and discusses the findings based on the research questions of this study. This allows an approach to each research question through the findings of all the instruments.

Finally, chapter seven concludes with a short overview of the results, a discussion on the limitations of this research and suggestions for further research. Theoretical and pedagogical implications of this research for the educational system in Cyprus and worldwide are also discussed.

## **Chapter 2: Formative Assessment**

### **2.1 Abstract**

This chapter provides an overview of the literature available on ‘Formative Assessment’ (FA). First, the place of FA within the field of linguistics is presented. Then, drawing from the general education literature and making reference to the FL/L2 context where appropriate, it investigates the history, definitions, terms, types, effectiveness and implications of FA. Furthermore, it demonstrates how FA is connected with learning and second language acquisition theories. Also, the chapter focuses on the importance of CI (classroom interaction) in FA by analysing the available techniques of FA (e.g. questioning and feedback) and their contribution to learning and FL/L2 acquisition.

### **2.2 History of FA**

FA has a long history and seems to have become more popular in teaching and learning over the past decades (Antoniou & James, 2014; Lipnevich, McCallen, Miles, & Smith, 2013; Torrance, 2012). According to Clark (2011), the initial reference to formative approaches “may be traced back in 1963 and [the reference to] Cronbach’s seminal article on the improvement of course content” (p.159). The term ‘formative assessment’ was used by Scriven (1967) in his attempt to distinguish between two forms of evaluation that occur in learning. He used the terms ‘formative evaluation’ to refer to evaluation occurring during the lesson and ‘summative evaluation’ for evaluation occurring at the end of a unit. A few years later, Bloom, Hastings, and Madaus (1971) used Scriven’s term ‘formative evaluation’ to describe the type of feedback provided after tests in small learning units. The authors stated that the description used for the evaluation of the curriculum could also be applied to the evaluation of students’ learning. As a result, the assessment occurring during teaching to ‘form’ learning was called ‘formative assessment’ and the assessment occurring using tests at the end of a unit or term was called ‘summative assessment’ (SA) (Bloom et al., 1971). Frey and Schmitt (2007, p. 413) also argue that “formative assessment became a category of assessment that occurred during instruction”. The purpose was not to provide feedback or affect learning but “to evaluate instruction and then improve or alter it” (ibid, p. 413). However, Clark (2010, p. 344) argues that “the starting point for the work on formative assessment was the idea of providing feedback”, especially formative feedback, which is considered to promote learning.

The origin of the term FA is another controversial issue where the researchers do not seem to agree. As Frey and Schmitt (2007) state, some researchers argue that the term ‘formative’ is used to describe the feedback provided in the assessment process which can assist in ‘forming’ teacher and learner behaviour (Airasian, 2001; Black & Wiliam, 1998). Frey and Schmitt (2007) provide an alternative explanation of the origin of this term based on that provided by the founder of FA, Scriven (1967), who distinguishes between assessment occurring during learning and assessment at the end of learning. Another interpretation of Scriven’s (1967) theory comes from Wiliam (2006, p. 284), who supports that assessment of a student’s achievement or a curriculum is formative “if and only if something is contingent on their outcome and the information is actually used to alter what would have happened in the absence of the information”. Taking into consideration all three existing approaches to the origin of the term, it seems that the term ‘formative’ is used to describe assessment that occurs during the lesson. The information provided by teachers and learners is used to form teachers and learners’ behaviour and practices for the promotion of learning, which constitutes FA an effective process to close any gap between the learners’ current achievement and the success criteria set by the teachers.

Inconsistency in the origins of the term reflects different interpretations of the purpose of FA in the literature increasing the complexity of the FA concept.

### **2.3 Definitions of FA**

There are different definitions of FA according to the purposes and techniques used when implemented in instruction. Some researchers refer to FA by focusing on ‘sharing learning criteria’ and providing learners with ‘formative feedback’ (Brookhart et al., 2010). Other researchers refer to FA by focusing on ‘questioning’ and ‘observation’ (Chin & Teou, 2010) or ‘self-assessment’ (Bachman & Palmer, 1996).

Brookhart et al. (2010, p. 1) define FA as:

assessment conducted during instruction in order to give teachers and students a clear idea of how students’ performance levels compare with the learning target (learning goals or objectives) and how they might close the gap between their current level of understanding and the target.

This definition relates to researchers who emphasise teachers’ ‘sharing of learning goals and criteria’ with learners in order to make the latter’s expectations clearer (Harlen, 2012;

Marshall & Drummond, 2006; Rea-Dickins, 2001; Sadler, 1989; Wiliam, 2011). The identification of a gap between the learners' achievement and the learning targets/success criteria shows the necessity for 'formative feedback' which is used to help learners satisfy the success criteria and minimise any discrepancies between what they do and what they can do. Hattie and Timperley (2007, p. 86) describe the process of 'formative feedback' as being based on the three notions of 'feed-up' (the goals), 'feed-back' (the current progress made towards the goals) and 'feed-forward' (activities necessary for better progress) (see Section 2.6.6).

Bachman and Palmer (1996) give another definition of FA in the field of FL/L2 from the learner's point of view, i.e. that FA is used "[for] students [to] guide their own subsequent learning, or for helping teachers modify their teaching methods and materials, so as to make them more appropriate for students' needs, interests, and capabilities" (ibid, p. 98). This definition focuses on 'self-assessment', a learner-oriented strategy of FA. Through 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment learners can self-regulate and improve their learning skills and at the same time provide feedback to their teachers about their teaching methods and materials. This definition of FA, in contrast to other definitions provided in this section, prioritises learners' actions over teachers'. In this case, FA seems to focus on learner-driven and autonomous learning. Alternatively, Chin and Teou (2009, p. 1309) suggest that "formative assessment is assessment that informs teachers about what students have learnt, indicates what students may be finding difficult and helps teachers to adjust their teaching to maximize students' learning". This definition emphasises 'feedback' on learners' attainment and identifies any difficulties learners have. This information can be obtained through the FA techniques of 'questioning' and 'observing' learners and through quizzes or tests (Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall, & Wiliam, 2003; Kiryakova, 2010). Such 'feedback' is to be used formatively (Cauley & McMillan, 2010; Wiliam, 2011) as it is provided to learners to improve their achievement. This process is in line with 'diagnostic assessment', as described by Huhta (2008), which identifies the areas where learners face difficulties and need further improvement.

Based on the above, any information related to the current level of learners and the misconceptions they possess are essential aspects of the process of FA and should be considered by teachers in order to adjust their teaching and create proximal learning opportunities (Moss, Brookhart, & Long, 2013). Another common characteristic of the definitions is the modification and adjustment of instruction for the improvement of teaching and learning. This is the foundation of FA as all techniques, e.g. 'self-

assessment', 'sharing the learning objectives and success criteria', provision of 'feedback', etc., should include the characteristic of change with a view to enhancing performance. A definition that focuses on change and emphasises the benefits of teaching modification is suggested by Black and Wiliam (2009, p. 9), who, based on their previous work (Assessment-Reform-Group, 2002b; Black & Wiliam, 1998), suggest that:

Practice in a classroom is formative to the extent that evidence about student achievement is elicited, interpreted, and used by teachers, learners, or their peers, to make decisions about the next steps in instruction that are likely to be better, or better founded, than the decisions they would have taken in the absence of the evidence that was elicited. (p. 9)

This definition does not refer explicitly to specific techniques. It refers to change that needs to take place for the promotion of learning. Black and Wiliam (2009) interpret FA as all the actions taken by teachers or learners during a lesson to gather necessary evidence relevant to learners' performance. According to this definition, FA promotes learning when teachers use the information gathered to adjust their lessons to the learners' level, or to change their future lesson plans to meet learners' needs. Thus, if the information gathered from the assessment process is not used to promote learning due to teachers' inadequate knowledge or poor skills, then that assessment is not formative; and therefore does not promote learning.

Moreover, the techniques applied in the FA process show that FA is embedded in everyday classroom routines (Leung & Mohan, 2004) with which teachers aim to help learners achieve their target learning objectives through assessment, among others. Similarly, in order to promote language acquisition in the FL/L2 learning context, teachers have to assume a dual role, "facilitator of language development" and "assessor of language achievement" (Rea-Dickins, 2008, p. 5). The combination of these roles improves learning if the evidence generated from learners' assessment, in the form of feedback to teachers, is used to promote learning (Halverson, 2010).

In an attempt to provide a common definition of FA, Torrance (2012) argues that different learning theories provide different approaches to assessment (see also Section 2.7). For example, according to Torrance (2012), the behaviorist tradition of learning (Skinner, 1957; Spada & Lightbown, 2002) supports that teachers should clarify the learning objectives, adjust teaching according to the objectives and ensure that both

teachers and learners know what the desired answer is to successfully complete the task. On the other hand, the social constructivist tradition supports that learning comes through interaction, between teacher and learner or between learners, rather than from mere instruction (Donato, 2000; Vygotsky, 1978). Therefore, it is important for the teacher to know not only what the learner achieved but also what the learner is able to achieve through ‘scaffolding’ (see Section 2.7.5). Despite the fact that both traditions support the effectiveness of ‘formative feedback’, the explanation given and the approach used are different between the two traditions, causing confusion in understanding and defining FA. Therefore, the theoretical background that is followed by teachers, the knowledge and the previous experience of teachers or researchers in learning and assessment affect the way they implement, interpret and define FA.

The different definitions of FA provided in the literature indicate the complex nature of FA and the difficulty to uniformly describe it in one generally accepted definition. This is a possible threat to the teachers’ successful implementation of FA as they may interpret FA in their own different way (as researchers do) or use different terms, which eventually lead to confusion in teachers’ practices. The next section identifies the FA techniques suggested in the literature and demonstrates the large number of terms proposed by researchers to describe processes similar to FA. A detailed examination of the terms and definitions available in the literature is necessary in order to identify common areas and discrepancies. In addition, one of the purposes of this study is to clarify the processes and purposes of FA in order to be more easily understood and used by the teachers.

#### **2.4 FA and-relevant terms**

The great variety of FA definitions in the literature has led to many interpretations of FA which consequently means a variety of different techniques teachers can use in their teaching as these relate to a wide range of lesson processes and purposes. As the purpose of this section is to identify the differences between FA and the rest of the terms found in the literature, it is necessary to consider and clarify FA teachers’ techniques. The FA techniques that have been identified to operationalise FA in the literature so far are:

- ‘observation’ (Berry, 2008; Pryor & Crossouard, 2008),
- ‘questioning’ (Kiryakova, 2010; Pryor & Crossouard, 2008),
- ‘formative feedback’ (Cauley & McMillan, 2010; Wiliam, 2011),

- ‘self-’ and ‘peer-’ assessment (Asghar, 2010; Panadero & Alonso-Tapia, 2013),
- ‘sharing of learning objectives and success criteria’ (Wiliam, 2011),
- ‘formative use of summative tests’ (Black & Wiliam, 2012; Kiryakova, 2010).

Teachers are expected to incorporate these techniques in their teaching to promote learning. They do not have to use the full repertoire of FA techniques at the same time to assess their learners’ achievement formatively (Assessment-Reform-Group, 1999). They can use the most appropriate ones to modify and adjust their teaching to meet their learners’ needs.

Moreover, researchers have proposed a large variety of terms to describe the different types of classroom assessment practices that promote learning and are not used only for reporting purposes. In the literature, many terms are used interchangeably with FA and other terms include FA in their description, but they are all distinguished from each other according to their purpose:

- Assessment for Learning (AfL) (Asghar, 2013; Bennett, 2011; Blanchard, 2008; Boyle & Charles, 2010; Chen, Kettle, Klenowski, & May, 2013; Lipnevich et al., 2013; Missett, Brunner, Callahan, Moon, & Azano, 2014; Panadero et al., 2014; Robinson, Myran, Strauss, & Reed, 2014; Volante & Beckett, 2011),
- Learning-Oriented Assessment (LOA) (Asghar, 2010; Pryor & Crossouard, 2008; Turner & Purpura, 2015),
- Diagnostic Assessment (Antoniou & James, 2014),
- Ongoing Assessment and Dynamic Assessment (Büyükkarcı, 2014),
- Classroom Evaluation (Crooks, 1988),
- Classroom-Based Assessment (CBA) (Turner, 2012),
- Teacher-Based Assessment (Davison & Leung, 2009).

The large variety of the terms that are used to describe FA practices denotes the difficulty in providing a clear definition of FA (Boyle & Charles, 2010; Turner, 2012) as FA “does not have a tightly defined and widely accepted meaning” (Black & Wiliam, 1998, p. 7).

In order to distinguish FA from the aforementioned terms which are sometimes used even interchangeably by some researchers, an examination of the common features and differentiating elements between FA and these terms (AfL, Dynamic Assessment, Diagnostic Assessment, LOA and CBA) is necessary in order to gain a clearer picture of what FA encompasses.

The closer connection of FA is with AfL. The ARG (2002a) uses the following ten principles to describe AfL:

- part of effective planning,
- focusing on how students learn,
- central to classroom practice,
- a key professional skill,
- sensitive and constructive,
- fostering motivation,
- promoting understanding of goals and criteria,
- helping learners know how to improve,
- developing the capacity for self-assessment,
- recognising all educational achievement.

By proposing the above principles, the ARG also supports that “the term ‘formative’ itself is open to a variety of interpretations” (Assessment Reform Group, 1999, p.7) and that teachers do not need to consider all the characteristics of AfL to implement FA. Comparing the techniques of AfL and FA, it seems that FA can be considered a part of AfL as they share common characteristics but, for the purposes of this study, AfL is considered to be a broader process. AfL can be seen as an umbrella term that includes FA and alternative types of assessment (e.g. use of portfolio assessment or oral presentations). In addition, Stiggins (2002, p. 5) argues that FA differs from AfL as AfL “is about far more than testing more frequently or providing teachers with evidence so that they can revise instruction, although these steps are part of it”. These viewpoints indicate where FA and AfL differ.



Dynamic Assessment proposed by Vygotsky (1978) is based on mutual theoretical backgrounds with FA and is an effective way of assessing learners and promoting learning (Ghanbarpour, 2017). Poehner and Lantolf (2005) support that FA and Dynamic Assessment are not the same because FA's unsystematic and informal nature may falsely evaluate learners' achievement, whereas mediation in Dynamic Assessment is "constantly adjusted and attuned to learner's or group's responsiveness" (ibid, p. 252). In cases where FA is systematic, it is helpful for providing support to learners through scaffolding in a specific task, or a lesson, causing short-term instead of long-term effect on learners' achievement. Poehner (2014) also emphasises the overlap between Dynamic Assessment and FA and supports that Dynamic Assessment has more potential and is not only restricted to the classroom context. However, it can be argued that FA is more beneficial to learning because Dynamic Assessment is based on the sociocultural theory and more specifically on the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). FA is not only based on sociocultural theory but also on other theories of learning (i.e. constructivism and behaviourism, see Section 2.7) (Torrance, 2012) and therefore is informed and grounded in more than one theories of learning and language acquisition.

Diagnostic Assessment (DA) (Alderson, 2005; Huhta, 2008) is also related to FA. According to Black and Wiliam (1998, p. 26),

Diagnostic assessment is an expert and detailed enquiry into underlying difficulties, and can lead to a radical re-appraisal of a pupil's needs, whereas formative assessment is more superficial in assessing problems with particular classwork, and can lead to short-term and local changes in the learning work of a pupil.

This definition of DA shows that DA is appropriate to diagnose learners' difficulties and needs, whereas FA assesses learners' attainment and brings change in teaching and learning based on the information gathered. DA has the form of a test or other assessment form, i.e. questioning, identifies learners' strengths and weaknesses and, therefore, provides information of what is missing. Assessment information provided by DA is useful for the FA process and can be considered as its first step on the condition that assessment information is used by the teacher to improve teaching and learning. Therefore, FA moves beyond the process of DA by providing guidance of what action to take in order to improve instruction and reach the desired learning outcomes (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Furthermore, DA may or may not be linked to the curriculum, whereas FA is tied to the

curriculum and embedded in instruction (Doe, 2011, p. 64). Therefore, it can be argued that the processes of DA, e.g. the identification and diagnosis of learners' difficulties and needs, are included in the processes of FA and can be considered the first step of FA. FA moves a step forward from DA by changing instruction and using this information obtained from the DA.

Learning Oriented Assessment (LOA) (Carless, 2007, 2015; Turner & Purpura, 2015) emphasises on "learning goals, performance evaluation and feedback, and the role they play in developing individual learning progressions" thus these areas lead to L2 system change (Turner & Purpura, 2015, p. 260). According to the framework provided by Purpura and Turner (2014), LOA involves many interrelated dimensions: 'contextual', 'affective', 'interactional', 'instructional', 'learning', 'proficiency' and 'elicitation'. FA is closely related to and included in many dimensions suggested in their framework, such as the elicitation, learning, instructional and interactional dimensions. In other words, FA is a part of the above LOA proposed dimensions as it focuses on the promotion of learning during a particular task or a lesson. However, LOA extends its function away from the classroom context. Thus, FA, which refers to assessment during the lesson, can be viewed as being a part of the LOA framework suggested by the researchers.

The term 'Classroom-Based Assessment' (CBA) is used to refer to traditional large scale testing in the classroom. However in the last couple of years there has been a shift towards learning and adjustment of instruction and assessment to learners' needs (Purpura, 2016; Tsagari & Banerjee, 2015; Turner, 2012). Thus, it includes practices that facilitate SA and FA, e.g. it can be used either for reporting purposes and fulfill the bureaucratic demands of teachers (summative assessment) or as a supportive function to learners, embedded in instruction (FA) (Rea-Dickins, 2007). SA and FA can be incorporated in a lesson (Hooshangi et al., 2014) as SA can be used for formative purposes, if the assessment information is used to improve instruction (Black & Wiliam, 2012). FA can then be considered a part of CBA according to how assessment information is treated by the teacher, i.e. with a 'formative' or 'summative' orientation.

FA consists of a relatively wide range of techniques and procedures, which are not always clear and apparent to teachers and learners and sometimes it is even difficult for observers and researchers to identify them during the lesson (Mavrommatis, 1997; Rea-Dickins, 2006). This creates difficulties in understanding FA. In addition to this, Clark (2011) supports that FA "should not be understood as static or rigid in any sense" (p. 165).

Therefore, the term of FA is described as ‘flexible’ (Young & Kim, 2010) and the definition of FA is characterised as ‘fuzzy’ (Dorn, 2010) and ‘ethereal’ (Dunn & Mulvenon, 2009). Thus, FA can be adjusted according to the context to meet learners’ needs and teachers can use it to improve teaching and learning.

Overall, it seems that the terms suggested in the literature to describe various assessment processes similar to FA do not have clear orientations and overlap each other. For example, characteristics of FA can be found in ‘Classroom-Based Assessment’, ‘Dynamic Assessment’, AfL and vice versa. The attempt to distinguish FA from other terms suggested in the literature should be considered as the starting point of further discussion. As Doe (2011, p. 64) argues when referring to ‘diagnostic assessment’, “[d]efining diagnostic assessment in relation to other classroom-based assessments can be problematic, especially when distinguishing it from formative assessment”. This statement verifies what has been argued previously in this section that there is an overlap among different types of assessment because they share common characteristics with FA, e.g. they are ‘learning’ oriented instead of ‘achievement’ oriented, and it is difficult to differentiate them from FA. According to Leung (2014), “[t]he formativeness resides in the efforts made by the teacher to make use of the information given by the student as a basis of developing additional and/or alternative teaching techniques and of providing learning opportunities” (p. 3). Therefore, formative is called an assessment in which teachers, or learners, use the assessment information to improve teaching and learning (Burner, 2014). In order to identify if an assessment practice is ‘for learning’ or ‘of learning’, if it is ‘dynamic’ or ‘diagnostic’, it depends on how users, i.e. teachers, treat assessment information and use assessment in general. Assessment intending to promote learning only becomes formative when evidence is actually used to adapt teaching to accommodate the learning needs (Black et al., 2003). Therefore, techniques and processes of other types of assessment can be characterised as formative if they are treated formatively, i.e. the information is used to enhance learning, based on teachers and learners’ actions. Many researchers have further analysed the functions of FA in the classroom context and suggested different types of FA which are presented in the next section.

## **2.5 Types of FA**

Literature on FA proposes two types of FA i.e. ‘Convergent’ and ‘Divergent’ FA (Pryor & Crossouard, 2008) and ‘planned’ and ‘interactive’ FA (Kiryakova, 2010) and a categorization of the ‘letter’ and ‘spirit’ of AfL (Marshall & Drummond, 2006).

### 2.5.1 Convergent – Divergent FA

Torrance and Pryor (1998) suggested two forms of FA: ‘convergent’ and ‘divergent assessment’. ‘Convergent assessment’ occurs when the teacher tests what learners know, through ‘closed’, ‘pseudo-open’ questions. The feedback provided is authoritative, judgmental or quantitative and is required for the successful completion of the task. The interaction generated in the classroom follows the IRF (Initiation Response Follow-up/evaluation) pattern where the teacher initiates a learning episode, a learner responds to the teacher and the teacher provides a ‘follow-up’ move e.g. in the form of feedback (in the case of convergent assessment in the form of evaluation). Teachers are expected to employ FA to guide the learners down the right path to successful learning. The critical issue of ‘convergent’ assessment is the engagement of learners in the learning process. In ‘convergent’ assessment teachers control the learners, e.g. they assess what they know, in contrast with ‘divergent’ assessment, which consists of actions that teachers use to prompt learners to do more. This nature of ‘convergent’ assessment, though, contrasts with some basic principles of FA which are more learner-centered, such as ‘self-’ assessment, ‘peer-’ assessment and the engagement of the learners in the learning process.

On the other hand, ‘divergent assessment’ includes both ‘self-’ and ‘peer-’ assessment as the lesson is not directed by the teacher only. This deviates from the IRF pattern as the teachers’ questions are geared towards helping the learners rather than testing them. The feedback provided is exploratory, provisional and provocative, aiming to further engage learners in learning rather than correct their mistakes (Pryor & Crossouard, 2008).

Overall, it seems that both types of ‘convergent’ and ‘divergent’ assessment would contribute to the assessment process. The researchers emphasise that ‘convergent’ and ‘divergent’ assessments are not exactly different categories and neither of them can be said to be good or bad assessment practice. Furthermore, ‘convergent’ assessment follows the ‘behaviourist’ approach (see Section 2.7.2) with ‘testing questions’ and ‘divergent’ assessment is in line with the ‘constructivist’ approach (see Section 2.7.3) with “helping questions” (Chen et al., 2013). However, both types are necessary for the learning process as they are both based on theories of learning (Chen et al., 2013; Pryor & Crossouard, 2008). The combination of ‘convergent’ and ‘divergent’ assessment should be considered for the implementation of FA in order to get the positive aspects of both types. One should

complement the other as such a combination would be ideal in the learning process (Pryor & Crossouard, 2008).

### **2.5.2 Categorisation of Assessment in Terms of learners' Autonomy**

Marshall and Drummond (2006), while examining the use of AfL<sup>1</sup> and FA practices of teachers, categorised the lessons observed (interviews were also conducted and questionnaires were administered) based on the level of autonomy allowed to learners, to 'letter' of AfL and 'spirit' of AfL. Lessons 'following AfL to the letter' restrict the scope of the task, as learners are required to follow specific guidelines. On the other hand, lessons 'capturing the spirit' promote pupil autonomy and incorporate assessment as a tool for future development rather than a tool to assess past performance. Thus, it can be argued that following the 'spirit' is more effective but also more complicated and difficult for the teacher to establish. This was evident in their study, as only one fifth of the lessons captured the 'spirit'. This result is also found in other studies too (Ecclestone, 2007; Hayward & Spencer, 2010; Hume & Coll, 2009). A combination of the two types of lessons should provide learners with enough autonomy ('spirit') but also guide the learner toward specific route ('letter') to make the lesson feasible pertaining to time and content coverage. This categorization of AfL will also be used to differentiate FA practices identified in this study into following the 'letter', e.g. when learners are not autonomous and are asked to follow specific guidelines, and following the 'spirit' where learners are autonomous in learning for future development.

### **2.5.3 Planned and interactive FA**

Another categorisation of FA comes from Kiryakova (2010) who distinguishes FA practices into two categories: 'planned', which last for a day or a week with whole-class activities, and 'interactive', which require very short amount of time with small groups of learners or independently. Similar classification of FA into 'planned' and 'incidental' was provided by Ellis (2003, p. 312). In 'planned' FA, information is gathered through pre-determined criteria and learners are graded according to their achievement. 'Interactive' FA occurs during instruction when teachers are "responsive to events that arise" through teacher-learner interactions (Antoniou & James, 2014). Teachers also obtain verbal feedback from learners, analyse it and identify the learners' level of performance. In 'interactive' FA, teachers can provide learners with immediate feedback to advance their

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<sup>1</sup>This categorisation refers to AfL but for the scope of this research it is included in the types of FA because of the close relation of AfL and FA and the fact that teachers in this study were recorded using FA strategies.

performance (Kiryakova, 2010). However, it seems that both ‘planned’ and ‘interactive’ types of assessment are valuable for learning as, according to Harlen and James (1997), even the best plans for observing, assessing or setting certain tasks can be ruined because of unexpected events in the classroom environment. Both types are necessary and should take place in a lesson as the one completes the other.

Overall, FA has been given various meanings and definitions in the literature. There are many terms used interchangeably with FA, e.g. AfL, and there are terms which include FA in their processes, e.g. CBA and LOA (see Section 2.4). The reason for not having clear theoretical orientations among the various terms provided in the literature can be attributed to the fact that all of them tend to be closer to ‘Assessment for Learning’ rather than ‘Assessment of Learning’. That means that all of them include teachers’ practices targeted at the assessment of learners, e.g. questions, observations and even tests, and practices that focus on how to help learners improve, e.g. provision of formative feedback. At the same time, there are different definitions describing FA according to the purpose FA facilitates and the way FA is conceived by various researchers (see Section 2.3). This is probably due to the fact that researchers have different research backgrounds and come from different theoretical disciplines. Researchers have identified different types of FA used by teachers while examining FA in various contexts (see Section 2.5). This complexity of FA can be attributed to the variety of processes it facilitates and the purposes it serves. The combination of many processes and the potential of FA adapted to the teachers and learners’ use are what make FA effective. In the next section, FA techniques will be illustrated in the framework of Classroom Interaction (CI).

## **2.6 Classroom Interaction and FA techniques**

### **2.6.1 Introduction**

FA is embedded in teaching and learning and an investigation of Classroom Interaction (CI) between teachers and learners will facilitate the in-depth examination of teachers’ FA techniques. This section aims to show the relationship between CI and FA and how CI facilitates FA techniques to promote learning opportunities. For the analysis of classroom interaction in this study, a multi-layered approach (Walsh, 2011) will be used for the identification of learning opportunities and FA techniques used to promote them. More specifically, the use of Conversation analysis (CA) (Walsh, 2006) and Discourse Analysis (DA) (McCarthy, Matthiessen, & Slade, 2002; Rymes, 2009) will be incorporated to identify teachers’ FA techniques through the analysis of CI and its patterns. To identify

learning opportunities provided by teachers, teachers' turns e.g. 'questioning' and 'feedback', as well as learners' turns e.g. 'responses' and 'uptakes', will be investigated.

### **2.6.2 Classroom Interaction**

The process of FA can be found in CI which can be employed for the examination of teaching, learning and second/foreign language acquisition. FA techniques, e.g. 'questioning and 'feedback', can be traced in classroom interaction patterns. According to Ackers and Hardman (2001), the quality of teacher–learner interaction is the most important factor for teaching effectiveness. Effective teaching requires “explicit instruction, sensitive and warm interactions, responsive feedback, and verbal engagement/stimulation intentionally directed to ensure children’s learning” (Downer, Sabol, & Hamre, 2010, p. 699). In the FL/L2 context, the quality of teacher–learner interaction is enriched by the use of language. The more language learners interact with L2 speaking teachers, the more proficient in L2 they become (Piker & Rex, 2008). CI is considered “the most vital element in the instructed second language learning process” (Seedhouse, 1999, p. 149). The importance of interaction as a means for pedagogy development is well established and learning theories, e.g. SCT through ‘intersubjectivity’, emphasise on interaction to understand the social structures of learning (Slimani-Rolls & Kiely, 2014; Sundrarajun & Kiely, 2010). FA is situated in this type of instructed interaction between teachers and learners for FL/L2 learning where it aims at assessing and promoting learning and language acquisition.

Researchers suggest a variety of types and categories of CI. According to Storch (2002, p. 127), there are four different types of CI based on the capability of the participants in interaction: ‘collaborative’, ‘dominant/dominant’, ‘dominant/passive’ and ‘expert/novice’. On the other hand, Downer et al. (2010) follow the CLASS framework and identify three domains and purposes of CI: ‘emotional support’, ‘organisational support’ and ‘instructional support’ (Downer et al., 2010, p. 704). Another classification comes from Lee and Ng (2009), who divided CI into three types of techniques: ‘teacher-fronted’, ‘facilitator-oriented’ and ‘learner-oriented’. These categories of CI will be considered for the analysis and interpretation of data.

In the most common CI pattern in general education and FL/L2 settings, the IRF (Initiation, Response, Follow up) as suggested by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), teachers initiate a learning episode by using, for example, a FA technique e.g. ‘questioning’, then, learners respond accordingly. Afterwards, teachers execute a ‘follow up’ turn based on the

learners' 'response' using for example another FA technique, i.e. 'feedback'. Based on the IRF pattern, other researchers have proposed their own patterns (Cazden, 1988; Gourlay, 2005; Lemke, 1990; Mehan, 1979). For instance, IRF was recast by Lemke (1990) as "triadic dialogue". It is also thought of as a three-turn approach known as IRE (Initiation, Response, Evaluation) in the context of summative assessment where the last turn, "E", is treated as evaluative instead of follow-up (Cazden, 1988; Mehan, 1979). IRF was also extended by Gourlay (2005) as a new category of interaction: 'embedded extensions' that step out of the 'triadic dialogue' in suspension of the learning episode where teachers elaborate on learners' responses using various types of descriptive feedback (see section 2.6.6).

The IRF pattern seems to have both advantages and disadvantages in teaching and learning. Seedhouse (1996) supports that the IRF pattern can be found in parent-child interactions and can be very useful for L1 acquisition. The IRF pattern, also, gives teachers the opportunity to "take the control of the class" (Masouleh & Bahraminezhad Jooneghani, 2012, p. 32), an important tool for teachers to deal with a variety of situations e.g. control the pace of the lesson, establish behaviour management or guide learners through specific activities to achieve learning goals. This characteristic of the IRF is similar to the 'convergent' type of FA where teachers guide learners to the path of success (Pryor & Crossouard, 2008). On the other hand, the teacher is very often the only person who decides and expresses what is correct and incorrect through evaluative feedback. This may result in an "asymmetrical interaction" (Maroni, Gnisci, & Pontecorvo, 2008) where the power balance between teachers and learners is not equal. In a similar vein, Jaffe (2007) supports that the "evaluation" from the IRE pattern is a teachers' prerogative as they have the power and authority to reject or accept answers and define the knowledge of their learners. This line of thought contradicts communicative principles and aspects of FA such as 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment. In terms of learners' autonomy, it aligns with the assessment for the 'letter' of AfL where teachers control the classroom environment (Marshall & Drummond, 2006).

In addition, research supports that teachers using the IRE pattern expect to receive correct answers from the learners. Hall (2007) argues that "instructional correction" is a key component for teachers as they most often look for students' correct answers rather than information or learners' opinions. In the case where learners' answers are correct learners are encouraged by the teacher to provide more (Mohr & Mohr, 2007). Leung and Mohan (2004) also claim that teachers pay particular attention to learners' conscious



decisions rather than learners' guessing or describing their approaches to language learning.

So far, the effectiveness of the IRF pattern has been shown to depend on how teachers and learners use this pattern. It can either restrict learning opportunities or help teachers follow their lesson plans. More specifically, the teachers' provision of feedback, a FA technique, determines whether the last turn confirms or corrects learners' responses to move to the next turn, or provides examples and elaborates based on learners' responses. The following section will analyse the three turns of the IRF pattern and the turn that may follow this pattern (uptake) in an attempt to show the characteristics of each phase separately. Through the reference to the three turns, the teacher's FA techniques will be identified and discussed, i.e. 'questioning', 'observation' and 'feedback'. In the feedback turn, other FA techniques, such as 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment, 'the sharing of learning objectives and success criteria' and the formative use of summative tests will be also discussed. Thus, following the IRF pattern, the following section will focus on all possible techniques and processes occurring while FA proceeds in CI.

### **2.6.3 Initiation-Questioning**

Initiation is important in promoting learning as it creates opportunities for learning experiences to follow. Research supports that most initiations come from teachers (Cullen, 2002). Teachers use a variety of methods to initiate learning opportunities including 'questioning', 'wait time' and 'turn allocation' (Lee and Ng, 2009, p.304). Questioning is the most pervasive form of teachers' initiation, dominates classroom interaction and is one of the teachers' most popular FA techniques (Kiryakova, 2010; Pryor & Crossouard, 2008). In their study, Mohr and Mohr (2007) support that 76% of classroom talk was generated by teachers while 60% of teacher talk is questioning. Mohr (1998) also found that teachers ask one hundred questions per hour and Tsui (1995) showed that nearly 70% of classroom talk is devoted to teachers' questioning. These numbers show the necessity for a deep investigation of the use and importance of questioning in classrooms and the role it facilitates in the FA process.

#### **2.6.3.1 Purposes of questions**

Questioning is a very important technique for FA as it is one of the methods, along with observation, that teachers can use to assess learners' achievement, identify their level of achievement in order to adjust instruction and meet learners' needs. This process is in line with SCT (Vygotsky, 1978) and Behaviourism (Long, 1985) where teachers can first

identify learners' current performance level in order to help them improve their achievement.

Questioning facilitates a variety of purposes. First, teachers use questioning to identify and expand learners' background knowledge. Questioning can also help teachers expand on and revise their lessons with a quick, in-class analysis of learners' responses. Another purpose of questioning is to identify learners' difficulties and inadequacies. Finally, questioning is used by teachers to evaluate their teaching performance through learners' achievement. Thus, questioning is necessary for the assessment and learning process because it gives teachers the opportunity to assess learners' current achievement, identify their background knowledge and promote further learning.

As has been previously stated, teachers can use questioning as a way to guide through or expand their lessons. Chin and Teou (2009) in their analysis of their lessons identified 'responsive questioning' (Chin, 2006), which refers to questioning that builds on learners' earlier ideas and gradually guiding those ideas forward. This kind of questioning is a form of scaffolding in which teachers ask questions to promote learning by extending learners' thinking and current knowledge level. 'Responsive questioning' is in line with the FA techniques of 'questioning' and 'formative feedback' where teachers assess learners' attainment and use this information to promote learning. As Chin and Teou (2009) discuss, questioning should replace the Initiation – Response – Evaluation structure of the lesson, where teachers evaluate whether an answer is either correct or incorrect and then proceed to the next topic. Responsive questioning conflicts with the IRF pattern, as the purpose of the teachers' reaction is to expand learners' understanding and knowledge. This is achieved by further developing the interaction via another question based on the learners' response. In other words, in terms of FA, the authors suggest to move from 'divergent' to 'convergent' FA and instead of correcting learners, to try to move them one step further in learning.

Another aim of questioning mentioned is to identify learners' difficulties and inadequacies. Teachers ask questions in order to identify areas that are not fully comprehended by learners. Following FA principles, teachers can use the information revealed by means of questioning to adjust their teaching or planning according to learners' needs. In the same manner, Black et al. (2003) support that "questions are often devised to challenge common misconceptions, create some conflict that requires discussion, and explore ambiguity that needs clarification before an accepted answer can

be formulated”. Questioning is then used to challenge learners’ knowledge and clarify any misconceptions found. This process results in the learners’ clear understanding of the particular concept, which will help them to correctly answer relevant questions in the future.

The fourth purpose of questioning is to assess learners’ achievement in order for teachers to evaluate their teaching effectiveness. Teachers can use the information regarding their teaching effectiveness and change their future lesson plans to improve teaching and learning. Teachers ask questions to verify the comprehensibility of the subject matter taught. Kiryakova (2010, p. 14) states that “questions should be designed to reveal the full degree of learners’ understanding and assimilation of the learning content”. Questions, then, should not only be randomly asked by the teacher but carefully designed in order to provoke deeper thinking and reveal necessary information. The extent of learners’ understanding of the subject matter taught can be investigated through targeted questioning.

#### **2.6.3.2 Timing of questions**

Teachers ask questions to benefit from the different functions of questioning during the entire lesson e.g. introduction, teaching session, activity session and plenary session (Kiryakova, 2010). Questions can be asked at the beginning of the lesson as a warm up to recap the previous lesson and/or introduce the new lesson. In this way, teachers can evaluate whether their teaching in the previous lesson was effective. This type of questioning follows FA principles; evidence gathered from FA techniques (questioning) is used to alter teaching to promote learning. The use of this information to alter teaching is called ‘formative feedback’ (Halverson, 2010). In order for questioning to fulfill the first purpose stated above, questioning can also take place during the introduction of a new concept, in order to help teachers identify the learner’s background knowledge. Thus, following FA principles, teachers can adjust their teaching based on the learner’s knowledge and then provide them with new content to achieve better results. By providing learners with adequate information, they can expand and reform their pre-existing schemata and compare new forms of knowledge.

During the teaching of a new subject matter, questions are necessary to ensure that learners understand the new content without encountering any difficulties. This applies to the second purpose of questioning stated above. It also aligns with the purpose of FA of identifying the gap between learners’ achievement and the desired goal (Sadler, 1989).

Finally, at the end of the lesson, questioning could assist in revision during the plenary session, in which teachers could identify learners' misconceptions and then consider them while planning the next lesson.

### **2.6.3.3 Types of questions**

There are three main categories of questions relevant to the responses elicited, the interaction generated and the purpose of the question (see Table 1) and some of these types of questions will be used for the framework of analysis in this study. Based on the responses elicited, there are two types of questions, namely, 'open' and 'closed'. 'Open' questions are questions for which more than one response is acceptable, whereas 'closed' questions are questions for which only one response is acceptable. From the learners' perspective, Smith and Higgins (2006, p. 486) support that 'open' questions are those which require learners "to explore understandings, to speculate, hypothesize, reason and evaluate, and to consider a range of possible answers" whereas 'closed' questions are those which "elicit short, factual responses of low-level cognitive demand". Teachers, when appropriate, use both types of questions during the lesson (Galton, Hargreaves, Comber, Wall, & Pell, 1999).

According to the nature of the interaction, generated questions are categorized as 'display' and 'referential' questions. 'Display' questions, also known as 'known-information questions' (Lee, 2008), "questions with a known answer" (Macbeth, 2000) or "test questions" (Searle, 1969) are questions to which teachers know the answers. On the other hand, 'referential', also known as 'exploratory queries' (Cazden, 2001), are questions to which teachers do not know the answer (Seedhouse, 1996). 'Display' questions are related to the IRE pattern and are used by teachers to verify whether learners know a particular answer (Masouleh & Bahraminezhad Jooneghani, 2012). Thus, 'display' questions are used to confirm teachers' instruction and 'referential' questions are used to confirm students' efforts to express themselves (Mohr & Mohr, 2007).

Jingxia (2009) suggests another categorisation of questions based on their purpose. This categorisation includes: 'prompting' questions that motivate learners to answer or correct their answers through scaffolding towards the correct answer; 'probing' questions, in which teachers ask learners to think and reform their previous incomplete and insufficient answer; and finally, 'redirecting' questions that have many answers and are redirected to other learners by the teacher.

Another distinction in questions involves the modification of the questions (Table 2). There are ‘comprehension-oriented’ modifications, where questions are modified for the learners to better understand, and ‘response oriented’ modifications, where the teachers modify the questions easily to elicit an answer from the learners (Tsui, 1995). Based on Tsui’s categorisation of modified questions, ‘comprehension-oriented’ questions are those that can be syntactically modified i.e. syntax is changed, becomes simpler or is semantically modified (teachers change lexical items), and ‘response-oriented’ modifications can be syntactical modifications, in which the form of the question is changed from *wh-* to *yes-no*; ‘lexical modifications’, where words are changed to make the answers easier; the provision of clues to help the learner reach the desired answer; and Socratic questioning, where teachers ask smaller questions, in order to scaffold the learners to reach the initial question.

**Table 1 Types of Questions**

Researchers	Category	Question type	Description
Tsui 1995	Response elicited	Open	More than one possible answer
		Closed	Only one expected answer
Walsh 2006	Nature of interaction generated	Display	Teachers know the answer
		Referential Exploratory (Cazden, 2001)	Teachers do not know the answer
Jingxia 2009	Purpose	Prompting	Teachers motivate learners to answer or correct their answers through scaffolding towards correctness
		Probing Smith and Higgins 2006)	Teachers ask learners to think and reform their previous incomplete and insufficient answer
		Redirecting	Teachers have many answers and redirect the same questions to other learners
Chin 2006	-	Responsive	Teachers ask questions to promote learning by extending learners’ thinking and current knowledge level

Table 1 shows the categories and types of questions found in the literature and are related to the exploration of FA in an EFL context. In addition to the question types, Tsui (1995) suggests types of modification. These are displayed in Table 2.

**Table 2 Questions – Types of Modification**

Researcher	Category	Type of modification	Description
Tsui (1995)	Comprehension-oriented	Syntactical Semantic	Syntax and lexis modified so learners better understand
	Response-oriented	Syntactical Lexical Socratic	Teachers modify the questions syntactically and lexically; also, give clues and ask shorter questions to more easily elicit an answer from learners

In Table 2 the types of modifications teachers make are presented to show how teachers help learners through questioning towards the desired outcome.

#### **2.6.4 Observation**

Another FA strategy that is a powerful tool for teachers to assess learners' understanding and gather important information is 'observation' (Mavrommatis, 1997; Pryor & Crossouard, 2008). 'Observation' can effectively work along and actually guide questioning to gather assessment information for planning the next steps of instruction (Torrance & Pryor, 2001). As Rea-Dickins (2008, p. 3) states, research shows that "observation and the collection of language samples were the most useful means for monitoring their learners' language progress". By observing learners during the lesson, teachers receive and gather information in the form of comments, interactions, reactions, attitudes, and responses. Antoniou and James (2014, p. 163) found in their research that "unstructured observation was the foundation of the teachers' formative assessment and a fundamental way in which they obtained information about what children know, understand and can do". 'Observation' is the only FA strategy that provides not only verbal but also non-verbal information to teachers (Kiryakova, 2010). Sometimes, learners can easily pass the message to the teacher by using body language. They may be hesitant to express their ignorance about specific information or have difficulty in understanding the taught subject matter. Observing learners is also important during group work, when teachers have the opportunity to address particular learners and monitor their responses and the discussions generated. Teachers can benefit from 'observation' as it is a successful way of gathering information for adapting teaching strategies and methods. Furthermore,

Butler argues that systematic ‘observation’ is a primary means of assessment in the primary school context in South Korea which facilitates not only formative but also summative purposes of assessment (Butler, 2009). Therefore, ‘observation’ is a powerful FA strategy that will be incorporated in this study for the identification of FA characteristics in lessons.

### **2.6.5 Response**

After questions are provided to learners, the next phase in keeping with the IRF pattern is the learners’ ‘responses’. ‘Responses’ are important in classroom interaction and should be examined carefully as they are the only ad-hoc evidence of classroom learning. ‘Responses’ can be used as assessment information to teachers to adjust instruction and enhance learning in the FA process. Learners’ responses can be categorised according to their level of correctness. Mohr and Mohr (2007) suggest six types of ‘responses’. These include: a) ‘an appropriate or correct response’, where teachers can praise or prompt learners to elaborate their responses and then use the correct response to promote further learning (Waring, 2008); b) ‘a partially correct response’, where teachers can identify the correct part of the response and then try to refine the response; c) ‘an incorrect or inappropriate response’, which can be used for assessment purposes to identify learners’ needs and inadequacies; d) ‘a response in their native language’, rather than in English, which can be accepted as far as the use of mother tongue is related to the task; e) ‘another question’, which teachers should consider carefully; or f) ‘no response’, where teachers should use a variety of techniques to encourage learners to talk, e.g. more wait time, boost their confidence, or give them a chance later on. Another type of response suggested by Emanuelsson and Sahlström (2008) is ‘repair’. ‘Repair’, according to the researchers, is not considered the correction of an incorrect answer, as it is used in other disciplines, but the learners’ requirement for the teacher to rephrase the question. Learners’ responses are very important, as they signify what learners can achieve and therefore initiate teachers’ feedback.

### **2.6.6 Feedback**

The fact that feedback is presented as the third FA technique in this section does not imply that it is less important than the aforementioned FA techniques. Feedback is a central aspect in FA and the reason for presenting it here is because the section follows the structure of the IRF pattern. ‘Feedback’ in the learning environment is information provided to learners, either by teachers or peers, after their response. As mentioned earlier,

FA techniques, i.e. ‘questioning’ and ‘observation’, aim to gather important information about learners’ achievement for further use by teachers to adjust their teaching in the form of feedback, another FA technique. The information elicited through these techniques is worthless if appropriate feedback is not provided to the learners in the form of scaffolding to learn new content. Feedback, then, can have many forms depending on the information elicited through different FA techniques. Based on this differentiation of feedback, researchers suggest different feedback categorizations and frameworks e.g. ‘formative feedback’ (Halverson, 2010), ‘evaluative’ and ‘descriptive’ feedback (Tunstall & Gipps, 1996), ‘implicit’ and ‘explicit’ (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994), and ‘corrective’ feedback’ (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). These types of feedback will be analysed further in order to be taken under consideration during the interpretation and analysis of data.

Feedback in teaching and learning is used to change learners’ attitudes, answer questions, dissolve misconceptions, and motivate learners to move forward during the learning process (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Usually, the valuable feedback which promotes learning can be found in the literature as ‘formative feedback’. Halverson states that “formative feedback is information that can be used to guide both the teaching and learning process” (Halverson, 2010, p. 132). Thus, teachers use feedback to guide learners towards satisfying the learning criteria and learners use feedback to obtain assistance and advice on how to better perform. On the other hand, Clark (2010) argues that not all feedback is formative or promotes learning. He supports that “feedback becomes formative when students are provided with scaffolded instruction or thoughtful questioning that served as a prompt for further enquiry, which then closes the gap between their current level of understanding and the desired learning goal” (Clark, 2010, p. 344). Feedback is a tool for FA, supporting the ‘sharing of goals and success criteria’, a FA technique, which teachers use to close the gap between learners’ current achievement and their learning goals. If feedback consists of general comments it is not formative as it does not promote learning. Feedback becomes formative when learners are engaged in the learning process, identifying their previous performance and having clear success criteria and support to improve their current achievement.

Tunstall and Gipps (1996) observed classes of five to seven-year olds and categorized types of feedback for further analysis. They created a typology in which all forms of feedback could be recorded according to their characteristics. Feedback typology consists of two categories: 1) ‘evaluative or judgmental’ feedback, in which teachers judge learners’ responses and give them appropriate feedback regarding their success or failure



to answer questions correctly; 2) 'task' feedback, where teachers provide learners with feedback related to their current achievement and improvement. All types of feedback are then separated into four double categories: the first two, which are 'evaluative', are 'rewarding' and 'approving' and are considered positive feedback (categories A and B); the next two categories, which are considered negative feedback, are 'punishing' and 'disapproving'; and the final two, those of descriptive feedback, are 'specifying attainment' and 'constructing achievement'. The latter are considered as achievement feedback for categories C and D. 'Specifying improvement' and 'constructing the way forward' are considered improvement feedback. In the study of Tunstall and Gipps (1996), it becomes clear that feedback is a very complicated procedure, embedded in the assessment process and in general in the learning process. Both types of feedback, 'evaluative' and 'descriptive', are necessary since in the learning process, learners need to confirm their successful answer but, at the same time, identify their inadequacy when they are wrong or unable to answer.

In Tunstall and Gipp's (1996) typology of feedback, 'praise' and 'reward' seem to be very important. They are invaluable for learners as they prompt and engage them in the learning process. Teachers develop psychologically supportive classroom conditions by commending learners after they have demonstrated their attempts to learn. As Rea-Dickins (2006, p. 167) states, "...the teacher is involved in an ongoing appraisal of students through the ebb and flow of classroom discourse". Awarding learners appropriately has a direct positive impact on learners' psychological and emotional status making them more confident to engage in the learning process, which is an important factor of FA.

Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) studied nine second-language adult learners while receiving one-on-one feedback on their written work. They examined whether the form of feedback, 'implicit' or 'explicit', affected learners' performance. Asking the learners to find and correct their own mistakes was considered as 'implicit' feedback. 'Explicit' feedback was a demonstration by the teacher of how to perform the task correctly. Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) developed a regulatory scale from zero to twelve to show the level of feedback they provided. Level 0 is considered the most implicit, as learners have the lowest level of support and level twelve is the most explicit since learners receive the highest support. According to their results, the learner who received 'implicit' feedback in the beginning followed by 'explicit' feedback towards the end was more successful than the learner who randomly had either 'implicit' or 'explicit' feedback. In addition, it was noticed that not only the form but also the amount of feedback that is given to a learner is

important in order to better perform. If support is insufficient, the learner is not able to perform the task. Alternatively, if more support is given than necessary, the learner will find the answer without struggling.

A large body of research is devoted to ‘corrective’ feedback. This term refers to “any reaction of the teacher that clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance” (Chaudron, 1977, p. 31). ‘Corrective’ feedback includes a set of teachers’ responses reflecting learners’ wrong answers in an attempt to either explicitly provide the correct answer or implicitly guide the learners to find the correct answer. “Explicit” corrective feedback includes:

- ‘explicit corrections’ - the teacher explicitly provides the correct form,
- ‘metalinguistic’ feedback - the teacher provides either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form.

On the other hand, “implicit” corrective feedback includes:

- ‘recasts’ - the teacher implicitly reformulates all or part of a student’s utterance minus error,
- ‘clarification requests’ - the teacher indicates to the student that either his/her utterance has been misunderstood or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or reformulation is needed,
- ‘elicitations’ - the teacher directly elicits the correct form from the student,
- ‘repetitions’ - the teacher repeats in isolation the student's erroneous utterance (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

The result of corrective feedback (uptake) refers to the different types of student responses immediately following teachers’ feedback, including responses with repair of the non-target items, as well as utterances still in need of repair (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Hattie and Timperley (2007, p. 104) support that feedback is effective when it is “clear, purposeful, meaningful, and compatible with students’ prior knowledge ... and provide[s] logical connection”. They proposed a model of feedback based on three questions: “Where am I going?”, “How am I going?”, and “Where to next?” (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 84). These three questions address the dimensions of ‘feed up’, ‘feed

back' and 'feed forward'. Following these questions, Hattie and Timperley (2007) created a feedback model which includes four main levels: a) feedback about the 'task'; b) feedback about the 'processing of the task'; c) feedback about 'self-regulation'; and d) feedback about the 'self as a person'. Feedback is more effective when it addresses faulty interpretation rather than lack of understanding (Cauley & McMillan, 2010; Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 102). Based on their model, they found that "feedback at the process level is most beneficial when it helps students reject erroneous hypotheses and provides cues to directions for searching and strategizing" (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 102). Finally, they support that feedback at the self or personal level in the form of praise "is rarely directed at addressing the three feedback questions" (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 102) so it is rarely effective.

Gibbs and Simpson (2002) suggest eleven conditions in their framework. The first four are related to the influence of the design of assessment systems and assignments e.g. how much students study, what they study and the quality of their engagement, and the rest are related to feedback and learning (Gibbs & Simpson, 2002, p. 9). The remaining seven conditions are: 1) sufficient feedback is provided both often enough and in enough detail; 2) feedback focuses on students' performance, on their learning, and on actions under the students' control, rather than on the students themselves and their characteristics; 3) feedback is timely in that it is received by students while it still matters to them and in time for them to pay attention to further learning or receive further assistance; 4) feedback is important for the purpose of the assignment and its criteria for success; 5) feedback is appropriate in relation to the students' understanding of what they are supposed to be doing; 6) feedback is received and attended to; and 7) feedback is acted upon by the student (Gibbs & Simpson, 2002).

Hill and McNamara (2012) created their framework of feedback based on pre-existing frameworks (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Tunstall & Gipps, 1996). They classify feedback according to whether it is primarily 'person- (or 'ego-') referenced' or 'task-referenced' in nature (Hill & McNamara, 2012, p. 12). The focus of 'person referenced' feedback is the student's ego. This type of feedback is non-specific. It usually appears in the form of reward or punishment and approval or disapproval. The focus of the 'task-referenced' feedback is the learners' performance in relation to specific task requirements and/or qualities and standard performance. This type of feedback is divided into 'confirmatory', 'explanatory' and 'corrective' feedback. 'Confirmatory' feedback is used when a single correct response is required in the form of ticks, nods and the correct

answers are repeated. 'Explanatory' feedback is used to highlight or explain the successful aspects of learners' performance. 'Corrective' feedback is used to draw attention to the gap between learners' current achievement and what is required.

Drawing from the different types of frameworks suggested in the literature, it seems that the effectiveness of feedback depends on many variables. Feedback should be provided to learners according to their learning goals, needs, and the context in which they work. Thus, 'descriptive' and 'evaluative' feedback (Tunstall & Gipps, 1996) are necessary for learning, as well as 'implicit' and 'explicit' feedback (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994). Teachers should be able to decide which form of feedback is appropriate for each learner and provide this form of feedback at the appropriate level.

Following Hattie and Timperley (2007) suggestion about the three questions of feedback, feedback should include not only information about the current achievement of the learners, but also about how to perform better in order to achieve the learning criteria. Thus, feedback is important for another FA technique, i.e. the 'sharing of learning objectives and success criteria', where teachers clarify their expectations and present the desired learning outcome and level of achievement so learners would go where they need to go (Brookhart et al., 2010; Harlen, 2012; Rea-Dickins, 2001; Sadler, 1989; Stiggins, 2005; Tiknaz & Sutton, 2006; Wiliam, 2011). In addition, Cauley and McMillan (2010) support that feedback is more effective when teachers' expectations are clear to learners.

Furthermore, the sharing of criteria can also take the role of modeling good and bad work samples to learners (Stiggins, 2005). This should clarify any misconceptions towards successful performance and contribute to the process of FA techniques such as 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment which are proven to be effective in the literature (Asghar, 2010; Baleghizadeh & Masoun, 2013; Little & Erickson, 2015; Panadero & Alonso-Tapia, 2013; Taras, 2003). Feedback is necessary for these processes because if learners do not have a clear view of the level of competence they need to achieve, they will not be able to assess themselves or their peers in order to perform better.

In addition, feedback is also important for another FA technique, the formative use of summative tests (Black & Wiliam, 2012; Kiryakova, 2010). According to this, tests or other 'Summative Assessment' activities initially designed to identify learners' current achievement and for reporting purposes, are used for the promotion of learning. This is achieved through formative feedback on summative tests which engage learners further in

the learning process after the completion of the test. In this case, learners receive feedback regarding their mistakes and are asked to correct them (Black & Wiliam, 2012).

### **2.6.7 Uptake**

Uptake in CI is very important, as it is the outcome of the teachers' intervention in the learners' utterance. Lyster and Ranta (1997) consider uptake as "a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance" (p. 49). Teachers' feedback, then, can be followed by 'no uptake', 'repair' or 'needs repair'. Therefore, uptake can have the form of 'repair' and 'needs repair'. 'Repair' is the category of uptake where learners successfully use the feedback provided by the teacher. This category is also divided into:

- 'Self-repair' – refers to self-correction produced by the student who made the initial error in response to the teacher's feedback before the teacher provides the correct answer (implicit feedback).
- 'Guided-repair' – the learner finds the answer after receiving feedback from teacher.
- 'Peer-repair' – refers to peer-correction provided by a student, other than the one who made the initial error, in response to teacher's feedback.

'Needs repair' is the type of uptake that is still not correct and requires further intervention by the teachers in the form of 'corrective' feedback. In case uptake does not occur after teachers' feedback, either the learner continues without using the feedback provided by the teacher or the teacher did not give the learners the opportunity to use the feedback in the form of uptake which is called 'No opportunity for uptake' (Panova & Lyster, 2002).

The aforementioned categories of uptake can be further analysed to 'uptake repair repetition' and 'uptake repair incorporation'. According to how learners treat and use the corrective feedback provided to them, they can either repeat the correct answer mostly in the case of explicit correction, or they can incorporate the correct answer in their speech demonstrating that they not only understood the mistake but also they can use the correct answer in context.

Overall, based on the literature review provided in the previous sections, FA techniques such as 'questioning' and 'observation' can be used to gather assessment information. Another assessment technique, 'feedback', uses assessment information to

provide learners with help or guidance in order to reach the desired level of achievement. According to the IRF pattern, between a question and the provision of feedback (usually provided by teachers), learners provide a 'response' to the 'question' which then receives teachers' 'feedback'. Based on various factors, and most importantly the successfulness of the 'response', 'feedback' can have the form of 'descriptive', 'evaluative', 'metalinguistic', etc. In case of an incorrect response, 'corrective' feedback is provided to learners aiming at correcting the 'incorrect' or 'incomplete' response. The aforementioned FA techniques, e.g. 'questions' and 'feedback', and IRF moves, e.g. 'responses', will be used in this study for the analysis of classroom interaction. Furthermore, the classroom interaction analysis aims to identify other FA techniques in the lessons, e.g. 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment, 'sharing the learning objectives and success criteria', and the 'formative use of summative tests'.

## **2.7 Theories of Learning and FA**

This section refers to the connection between FA and learning and second language acquisition theories. Learning and second language acquisition theories mentioned in this section will be used for the interpretation of the research results as they explain the process of various FA techniques and can prove their effectiveness. FA is rooted in various theories of learning and second language acquisition and is a powerful and effective process for teachers and learners to use to enhance learning and language acquisition. Furthermore, this section provides a detailed reference to the interrelation of FA with Sociocultural Theory (SCT) of Learning and more specifically with the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and Scaffolding to explain how FA processes promote learning and language acquisition.

### **2.7.1 Learning and Second/Foreign Language Acquisition Theories**

FA as a teaching and learning process grounds its theoretical background to many theories and in particular FL/L2 theories (Krashen, 1985; Long, 1983; Swain, 1985; Vygotsky, 1978). The learning and FL/L2 acquisition theories proposed in the last century which are related to FA processes are: Behaviourism, Constructivism, Sociocultural Theory of Learning, Krashen's (1985) Input hypothesis, Long's (1983) Interactional Hypothesis and Swain's output Hypothesis (1985). As Block (2003, p. 25) argues, "it is notoriously difficult to establish exactly how many theories there are present". However, the theories chosen to be examined are explicitly related to the processes of FA and, therefore, will be used in the analysis and interpretation of the data of this study.

### 2.7.2 Behaviourism

The first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century was dominated by Behaviourism (Skinner, 2011). FA is founded on the Behaviouristic theories, i.e. ‘audiolingual’ and ‘direct’ method, as the continuous assessment of learners’ understanding through ‘questioning’ and ‘feedback’ is an important component believed to facilitate learning (Long, 1985). Behaviourists “view that all learning -including language learning- occurs through a process of imitation, practice, reinforcement and habit formation” (Spada & Lightbown, 2002, p. 118). These processes are closely related to FA processes i.e., questioning and feedback, as questioning is linked to imitation and practice, where teachers ask learners to repeat or do something, and feedback is synonym to reinforcement. According to behaviourism, the environment not only stimulates the learners but also provides them with feedback on their responses. This kind of feedback can be also called ‘formative feedback’ when it aims at the acquisition of new skills, knowledge and behaviours and facilitates learning and language acquisition (Halverson, 2010). So, feedback as a FA strategy is rooted in Behaviourism and enhances learning and language acquisition.

Furthermore, Block (2003, p. 13) states that “all human behavior is the product of conditioning”. Conditioning includes stimulus and reward which is a feedback type (Tunstall & Gipps, 1996) and this proves the importance of feedback on the learning process. In addition, habits are formed through positive feedback on learners’ production of language based on stimuli from their environment (Skinner, 1957). Skinner also argues that people could change behaviours if a specific reward or punishment is offered to them for a particular behaviour. Therefore, the provision of feedback is crucial in the learning and assessment process and EFL teachers should use it appropriately for the acquisition of a new language.

In addition, FA, in the form of ‘questioning’, examines whether learners achieved their learning goals and in the form of ‘formative feedback’ shows how learners can achieve the goals (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). More specifically, teachers’ questioning triggers learners’ interest. It also works as a stimulus in behaviouristic terms to answer the question posed or perform a particular task and at the same time checks learners’ performance. Teachers’ provision of ‘positive’ or ‘negative’ feedback in the form of ‘praise’ and ‘reward’ encourages learners to achieve the expected outcomes (Tunstall & Gipps, 1996) and works as a reward in behaviouristic terms. Learners form habits by producing language relevant to the input they are provided with and, by receiving positive

feedback, strengthen the association between stimulus and response (Skinner, 1957). As a result, the acquisition of language learning occurs through positive and negative reinforcement in the same way as the acquisition of new behaviour (Gass & Mackey, 2007, p. 19). Therefore, learners acquire FL/L2 to some extent through imitating the received input and through constant provision of feedback.

Furthermore, the FA strategy (Wiliam, 2011) of ‘sharing the learning goals and success criteria’ is also related to the Behaviourist theory of learning. Behaviourists influenced by the mastery learning tradition assume that “learning is improved if students are aware of a teacher’s goal and the outcomes which indicate they have attained the desired knowledge” (Bell & Cowie, 2000, p. 18). Teachers and learners should be expected to know the required behavior, e.g. learning objectives, for the fulfillment of the objectives in order to succeed (Torrance, 1993). The FA technique ‘sharing the learning goals and success criteria’ requires teachers to exemplify the desired learning outcomes to learners in order for the latter to have a clear view and work towards the successful outcome. In this way, this FA technique relates to behaviourism. The process to achieve learning is defined and pre-planned according to the learning goals and sharing learning objectives and criteria gives learners the opportunity to know where they need to go in terms of learning outcomes.

### **2.7.3 Constructivism**

According to Constructivism (Steffe & Gale, 1995), learners structure their understanding based on external stimuli and according to their previously existing knowledge. Bell and Cowie (2000) argue that previous knowledge affects learning and the ability of learners to understand new concepts. Thus, learning does not follow a predetermined path with a particular outcome, as behaviourists claim, but it is dependent on the previous knowledge and the new stimuli. FA examines the interaction between current achievement and the process of learning through ‘observation’ and ‘questioning’ to identify if the procedure of acquisition of new concepts is successful. As James (1998) states, “it is important that teachers should try to discover how students have related new knowledge to their existing understandings” (p. 181). If teachers know how learners relate new knowledge with existing knowledge they are able to help learners to learn easier. Therefore, through the FA technique of ‘questioning’, teachers can be aware of learners’ pre-existing knowledge and adjust ‘new knowledge’ accordingly. Furthermore, Constructivism views teachers’ assessment role as a social action where teachers provide learning opportunities, introduce



new ideas, and interact with students to support and guide their learning, whereas learning in the classroom comes through appropriation and negotiation (Bell & Cowie, 2000, pp. 18,19). Therefore, FA apart from ‘questioning’ stimulates, supports, guides, and promotes learning through the provision of ‘formative feedback’ and more specifically, through ‘negotiation’.

#### **2.7.4 Interaction Hypothesis**

FA techniques are also rooted in theories and models related to classroom interaction, as has been mentioned previously. The ‘Input-Interaction-Output model’ (IIO) proposed by Gass and Mackey (2007), also known as the ‘Interaction Hypothesis’ (Block, 2003), includes three hypotheses which support the promotion of learning. FA techniques are evident in the processes of these hypotheses. The three hypotheses which are related to FA and included in this model are ‘Comprehensible Input Hypothesis’ (Krashen, 1985), ‘Interaction Hypothesis’ (Long, 1981a), and ‘Output Hypothesis’ (Swain, 1985).

According to the Comprehensible Input Hypothesis proposed by Krashen (1985), comprehensible input is sufficient for L2 acquisition. Krashen believes that plenty of comprehensible input results in L1 and FL/L2 learning. His theory  $i+1$  suggests that by using comprehensible input learners move from their current level which is (i) to the next level  $i+1$  as they understand input containing  $i+1$  (Krashen, 1982). FA processes, such as questioning and observing, are crucial for FL/L2 acquisition as they provide information about learners’ current achievement (i). This information is used by teachers to provide learners with input higher ( $i+1$ ) than their current level (i) in order to understand, learn, and be able to use the new linguistic feature (Krashen, 1985, p. 2). The input provided has to be exactly at a level higher than learners’ current level. If the input is lower ( $i-1$ ) or higher ( $i+3$ ) the second language cannot be acquired as the input would be too easy or too difficult. Teachers can use the information gathered from the FA assessment techniques, i.e. ‘observation’ and ‘questioning’, to provide ‘formative feedback’ adjusted higher than learners’ current achievement ( $i+1$ ) in order to learn the new concept.

Long (1981b) supports that ‘Interaction Hypothesis’ is the extension of the Comprehensible Input Hypothesis. Long argues that in order to understand the Comprehensible Input, suggested by Krashen (1981), one must consider the interaction in which learners are engaged. Long (1981b) through his Interaction Hypothesis supports that input is more effective for learning when it is queried, recycled and paraphrased. The elaboration of Input or its simplification makes it more comprehensible for the learners. In

his research (Long, 1981a), when native speakers were interacting with non-native speakers it was found that native speakers used a variety of conversational tactics like ‘repetition’, ‘confirmation checks’, ‘comprehension checks’, or ‘clarification requests’ in order to be comprehensible (Mitchell and Myles 2004). Many researchers (Gass & Varonis, 1994; Loschky, 1994; Mackey, 1999, 2007) conducted research following Long’s theory. In their experiments they found that groups of learners that were allowed to modify their language while interacting achieved better results than groups that were not allowed to modify their language use. These research results are useful for effective use of FA. FA techniques like comprehensible questioning and feedback should be provided to learners in order to first understand and then get involved in the learning process. This could be achieved through the elaboration of questions and the provision of an open learning environment with opportunities for learners to negotiate the meaning of language used in the classroom.

Furthermore, the Interaction Hypothesis suggests that for interlocutors to communicate effectively the ‘negotiation of meaning’ is required. Negotiation, according to Pica (1994), is defined as the “modification and restructuring of interaction that occurs when learners and their interlocutors anticipate, perceive, or experience difficulties in message comprehensibility” (p. 495). Negotiation is necessary for the acquisition of FL/SL as it makes “input comprehensible while still containing unknown linguistic elements, and, hence, potential intake for acquisition” (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991, p. 144). FA incorporates the process of negotiation of meaning and thus language acquisition through targeted comprehensible questioning and feedback, such as “clarification requests” and “reformulations”. This can be used by teachers to communicate effectively with learners by engaging them in a process where they negotiate, use, and acquire new language forms in order to be comprehensible.

Input Hypothesis and Interaction Hypothesis include notions also found in Output Hypothesis which claims that learners can articulate correct language forms only when they are engaged in the process of producing language (Swain, 1995). The output hypothesis comes from the work of Swain (1985; 1995) with immersion students in Canada. According to Swain, only the production of second language would benefit learning as learners in their attempt to produce L2 are forced to “undertake complete grammatical processing, and thus drive forward most effectively the development of second language syntax and morphology” (Mitchell and Myles (2004, p. 160).

Furthermore, Swain (1995) suggests three functions for learners' output: a) the 'noticing/triggering' function, b) the 'hypothesis-testing' function, and c) the 'meta-linguistic' function (p. 128). The principles of the Output Hypothesis are consistent with FA as the continuous assessment through 'questioning' during the lesson can prompt or 'trigger' learners to produce 'correct' language. In an attempt to produce 'correct' output, learners use their meta-linguistic ability, identify their inadequacies and a gap in their knowledge as they compare their current achievement level with the desired one. Furthermore, teachers are expected to provide learners with formative feedback (Sadler, 1989, p. 121) which aims to eliminate the gap between the actual and the desired level. In this way, learners move to the hypothesis-test process where they test their linguistic output by comparing their performance with the desired one. They produce output and expect feedback to make the necessary adjustments in order to reach the desired outcome.

### **2.7.5 Sociocultural Theory**

Another theory that supports the importance and effectiveness of FA is the SCT (sociocultural theory) of Learning (Pryor & Crossouard, 2008). According to SCT, learning is seen as participation rather than acquisition (Donato, 2000) and occurs through social interaction (Vygotsky, 1978). Socio-cultural theorists (Ellis, 2003; Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Appel, 1994; Mitchell & Myles, 2004) believe that learning can occur in the social environment of the learner. Knowledge and skills are constructed through interaction and adult support. They do not consider language as an autonomous and abstract system but as a symbolic tool used to mediate cognitive activity.

As "knowledge comes from interactions between people" (Masouleh & Bahraminezhad Jooneghani, 2012) and social interaction promotes L2 acquisition (Piker & Rex, 2008) and learning in general (Radford & Roth, 2010), teachers should not only provide learners with input but also engage them in productive interaction. This kind of interaction is also facilitated when teachers and learners swap roles and learners become assessors. Teachers promote learning by using FA techniques, such as 'observation', 'questioning', and 'feedback' (Crossouard, 2009). According to Mitchell and Myles (2004, p. 220), language is seen as a 'tool for thought' in the context of SCT. Using language through collaborative dialogue the expert guides and supports the novice to acquire skills that the novice is not capable of acquiring on their own. Swain (2000 cited in Lantolf 2000, p. 97) argues that collaborative dialogue helps the learner to acquire linguistic knowledge through the use of language. As a result of this, language use mediates language learning.

Furthermore, Vygotsky made interesting claims about “the relationship between language and thought and between individual and society” (cited in Mercer, 2000, p. 9). The learner develops cognitively through the social interaction. This form of learning which is based on the use of language is first social and then individual.

### **2.7.5.1 Mediation**

Socio-cultural theory according to the theorists (Lantolf, 2000; Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1998) is based on the mediation of signs and tools. As Lantolf (2000, p. 1) argues, “[t]he central and distinguishing concept of socio-cultural theory is that higher forms of human mental activity are mediated”. Lantolf’s idea is based on Vygotsky’s theory that humans do not act directly to the physical world but they use artifacts, physical and symbolic tools, such as numbers, music and most importantly language, to interact with others and with themselves. Artifacts are created by human cultures over time, modified and passed on to the next generation. Mediation can be achieved through an interaction among people in order to perform a task. In the classroom environment, mediation is provided in the form of ‘questioning’ and appropriate ‘feedback’ as part of FA. The most important tool for mediation is language as it is the means to control thought, control our mental activity and interact with others. Thus, interaction is crucial for learning.

### **2.7.5.2 Scaffolding**

Scaffolding in SCT is the social dimension of the acquisition and development of a new skill (Lightbown & Spada, 2006; Ohta, 2005). Scaffolding derives from cognitive psychology and has its roots in L1 research. It is the “dialogic process by which one speaker assists another in performing a function that he or she cannot perform alone” (Ellis, 2003). It usually takes place when a knowledgeable person gives the necessary amount of guidance and support, usually verbal, in order to help the learner novice to achieve something not otherwise achieved. A deeper analysis of scaffolding by Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) demonstrates the volume and level of scaffolding appropriate to help learners. FA techniques like ‘questioning’, ‘observation’, and ‘feedback’ are essential for scaffolding in order for teachers to monitor and assist learners’ performance.

### **2.7.5.3 Steps and features of Scaffolding**

The following steps and features during scaffolding are suggested by Wood et al. (1976):

- Triggering interest in the task

- Simplifying the task
- Maintaining pursuit of the goal
- Marking critical features and discrepancies between what has been produced and the ideal solution
- Controlling frustration during problem solving
- Demonstrating an idealised version of the act to be performed

Following their theory, an expert, who is the knowledgeable person and usually an adult, should simplify the task to make it easier for the learner to understand. By doing this, the task becomes more interesting for the learner and the learner does not get apprehensive by the level of difficulty of the task. As a result, the learner maintains pursuit of the goal, which is a key feature the expert should look at during scaffolding.

The expert should also point out the key steps of each task to ensure that the learner is on the right track and show the improvement that took place by completing each step in order to increase the learner's confidence. The expert, by showing the improvement to the learner and praising the learner, can control and avoid any unnecessary and undesired frustration that the learner may experience. This frustration may have negative results on his or her performance.

Finally, when appropriate, the expert should show the learner the required action, or demonstrate the desired outcome, thus enabling the learner to perform successfully in the future. Scaffolding is related to FA especially with 'constructive feedback' which specifies attainment (Tunstall & Gipps, 1996). In addition, scaffolding may differ according to the type of feedback provided. Using Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) regulatory scale of feedback, it seems that the type (implicit-explicit) and amount of feedback provided to learners affects the outcome (see Section 2.6.6).

#### **2.7.5.4 Zone of Proximal Development**

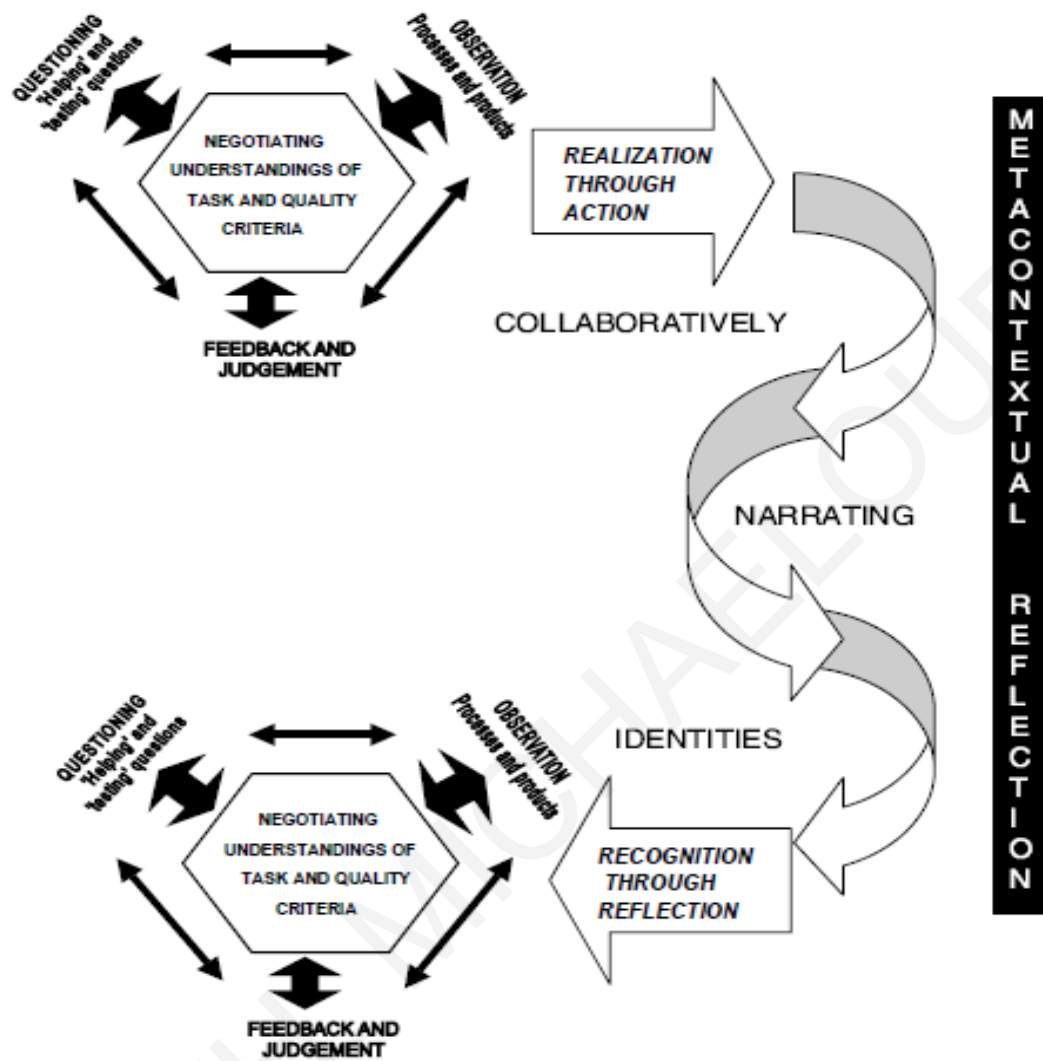
Scaffolding is more effective when it takes place in the ZPD (Mitchell & Myles, 2004, pp. 195,196). Vygotsky (1978) defines ZPD as "the difference between the child's developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the higher level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 85). ZPD overlaps with other terms, e.g.

Dynamic Assessment and regulation, and it even sounds similar to the Krashen's *i+1* theory mentioned earlier, but they are not the same (Ohta, 2017). ZPD is the difference between what a novice can achieve alone while solving a problem and what he or she can achieve when support and guidance are provided, as well as the use of positive and negative feedback by an expert (Ellis, 2003). According to Vygotsky, ZPD promotes learners' future development as the learner is expected to achieve the same results in the future alone without an expert's support (Poehner & Lantolf, 2005). Vygotsky not only conceptualized ZPD as a difference in score, in an IQ test for example, after mediation but also as a chance for the teachers "to rethink how to connect their teaching with development in a systematic and meaningful way" (Valsiner & Van der Veer, 1993, p. 43). This comes in line with FA where teachers should change and adjust instruction according to learners' needs. In addition, FA techniques are necessary for teachers to identify the current level of the learner known as Zone of Actual Development (ZAD). Information about the level of ZAD is necessary in order to make progress in the ZPD. FA facilitates the development of the learner in ZPD through the provision of formative feedback (in the form of guidance). Vygotsky (1978) argues that all learners are in a stage called ZAD which is a set of tasks that learners can do unassisted. This is not the highest stage of learners as they can do much more when appropriate instruction is provided to them.

#### **2.7.5.5 FA and Sociocultural theory.**

By focusing solely on the relation of FA and SCT it is evident that practices and actions used in FA originate from the basic principles of sociocultural theory. According to Poehner (2009, p. 472), "ZPD provides a theoretical framework for the integration of teaching and assessment: For teaching to be more effective, it must be attuned to the ZPD, which entails an assessment that provides mediation to help learners perform beyond their present capabilities". Poehner (2009, p. 472) follows on by stating that "ZPD demands a revolutionary pedagogy in which assessment and teaching are fused as single, development-oriented activity". Figure 2 demonstrates the interrelation of FA and sociocultural theory.

Figure 2 Sociocultural Theory of Learning and FA



(Pryor & Crossouard, 2008)

The three main techniques used in FA, namely ‘questioning’, ‘observation’, and ‘feedback’, are incorporated into the learning process to clarify the instructions and the expectations that teachers have for the particular task. These techniques are used to assist and guide learners towards learning and then assess learners’ achievement to ascertain whether they reached the desired performance. It is evident in the diagram that these techniques are related and they are all based on the interaction between the teacher and the individuals or groups. FA is related to SCT because all its techniques work with the interaction of a novice and a more capable person. Through this interaction learners understand the task, express their thoughts, and move forward with the teachers’ guidance and support.

### **2.7.6 Learning theories and classroom interaction**

Learning theories related to classroom interaction will be discussed briefly, as these theoretical perspectives will be used in combination with FA theories of learning to facilitate the interpretation of research data. Theories of learning are necessary for this study to identify learning opportunities teachers provide to learners from different perspectives. In the context of L2, scholars conceive the notion of learning opportunities differently based on the approach they follow, e.g. cognitive, sociocultural, and CA (Waring, 2008).

The ‘cognitive’ approach and ‘information–processing’ approach are related to the ‘interaction hypothesis’. According to the ‘cognitive’ approach, learning opportunities are created through the process of ‘negotiation of meaning’ (Long, 1983; Radford & Roth, 2010), especially in circumstances when a great deal of negotiation or ‘bargaining’ (Radford & Roth, 2010) is required to resolve communication problems (Lier, 2000) (see Section 2.7.4). The result of this process, which is modified interaction, is necessary for language acquisition since interactional modification promotes acquisition through the use of ‘questioning’ and ‘feedback’ (Long, 1985). ‘Information-processing’ approach is another approach which is in line with the ‘cognitive’ approach and supports that learning is a process in the learner’s mind and knowledge should be transmitted from teachers to learners as teachers’ language use directly affects learners’ output (Masouleh & Bahraminezhad Jooneghani, 2012). Both approaches need to be taken carefully under consideration for the examination of FA and CI, and the identification of possible learning opportunities provided to learners through questioning and feedback.

On the other hand, according to SCT, learning has the form of either opportunities for participation or “opportunities for meaningful action that the situation affords” (Lier, 2000, p. 252). In contrast to the ‘information–processing’ approach, SCT supports that teachers should not just provide learners with input but engage them in productive interaction (see Section 2.7.5). Focusing on FL/L2 acquisition, Mohr and Mohr (2007, p. 440) support that “English–language learners (ELLs) need many opportunities to interact in social and academic situations”. This kind of interaction is generated when teachers and learners swap roles, becoming both teachers and assessors, and incorporate FA techniques, such as ‘observation’, ‘questioning’ and ‘feedback’ for the promotion of learning (Crossouard, 2009, p. 81). These techniques are used to close the gap between learners’ current level and the target use of language through ‘linguistic bridges’, (Kibler, 2011)



which, according to SCT, occur in ZPD through the process of scaffolding (see Section 2.7.5.2). Thus, classroom interaction with the use of FA techniques can be an effective procedure for scaffolding aiming at the improved performance of learners.

In addition, according to Waring (2008), CA does not deal with learning opportunities that follow a ready-made framework. CA uses an emic approach of dealing with learning opportunities as it focuses on details, e.g. ‘pause’, ‘pitch’, and ‘pace’, that the participants use and consider as learning opportunities which are created on their own (Waring, 2008). This means that learners and teachers conceive learning opportunities as particular instances of CI, according to the context and their own understanding.

### **2.7.7 FA techniques and FL/SL Theories**

To sum up, learning theories are used to interpret the processes underpinning teaching and learning in a classroom environment. Based on the theoretical overview of learning and second language acquisition theories, the relation of learning theories with FA is evident. Learning theories have different views on learning, e.g. ‘behaviourism’ and ‘constructivism’, as they inform FA processes in their own way. This view is also supported by Pryor and Torrance (1996) who state that different types of FA, ‘convergent’ and ‘divergent’, are supported by different theories of learning, behaviourism and SCT respectively (see Section 2.7). More specifically, Pryor and Torrance (1996) argue that ‘convergent’ assessment, which identifies if the learners can do a particular task, is followed by a linear, behaviouristic and pre-planned progression of teaching. On the other hand, divergent assessment, which emphasises what the children know, is followed by teaching in the ZPD based on what the learner knows in order to construct knowledge and advance their performance. This view by Pryor and Torrance (1996) is in line with the theories and studies mentioned in the previous sections and shows the multi-faceted function of FA and at the same time the variety of learning theories that underpin each of the forms that it can take.

‘Formative feedback’ shows that FA is based on FL/SL theories of learning as it seems that the different forms of feedback have a pivotal role in these theories. According to the ‘Interaction Hypothesis’, feedback can be ‘explicit’ through correction and metalinguistic explanations, or ‘implicit’ through ‘confirmation checks’, ‘clarification requests’, ‘comprehension checks’, and ‘recasts’ (Gass & Mackey, 2007, p. 182). ‘Corrective’ feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) and input facilitate learning and are crucial for L2 development (Gass & Mackey, 2007; Long, 1996). For the ‘sociocultural’ and

‘constructivism’ theory, feedback in the form of ‘scaffolding’ is important to monitor and guide learners to construct new understandings based on their previous knowledge.

Not only feedback but also ‘questioning’ is another strategy of FA embedded in all learning theories examined. The variety of types and purposes of ‘questioning’ (see Section 2.6.3) makes it important for SL/FL acquisition as it can be used for the identification of learners’ current attainment in order for further instruction to be supplied according to behaviourism theory, Krashen’s (i+1) hypothesis, and sociocultural theory (ZAD). Furthermore, following constructivism, questioning can be used to trigger learners’ interest.

## **2.8 Effectiveness of FA**

Despite the complexity of FA, research in both general education and the FL/L2 context provides evidence of the effectiveness of FA in teaching and learning (Kingston & Nash, 2011). A number of studies show that FA is an effective teaching and learning approach which promotes learning and develops learners’ autonomy (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Brookhart et al., 2010; Ellery, 2008; Stiggins, 2002; Taras, 2008) in different contexts around the world (Hayward & Spencer, 2010; Stiggins, 2002; Waring, 2008). Furthermore, FA was found to have significant effects on all levels of education e.g. primary education (Brookhart et al., 2010; Carless, 2005; Rea-Dickins, 2006), secondary education (Davison, 2007; Wang, 2008) and higher education (Asghar, 2010; Jacoby, Heugh, Bax, & Branford-White, 2013; Weurlander et al., 2012).

More specifically, research in general education has shown that FA is beneficial for teaching and learning in England (Boyle & Charles, 2010; Tiknaz & Sutton, 2006), Scotland (Hayward & Spencer, 2010), Portugal (Fernades & Fontana, 1996), and South Africa (Ellery, 2008). Boyle and Charles (2010), through questionnaires and classroom observations investigating teachers’ perceptions and practices in schools in England, found that teachers seem to appreciate the effectiveness of FA, use it for planning their lessons and rate FA high because it informs next steps of instruction, or the next teaching plan. Teachers’ most common FA practice is learners’ ‘self-assessment’. They implement this through the process of self- reflection and self-evaluation. They support that this practice is the stronger link between FA and learning. In addition, other FA techniques, e.g. the use of ‘feedback’, ‘targeted questioning’, and ‘sharing success criteria’, were also rated very high (Boyle & Charles, 2010). Another study in England by Tiknaz and Sutton (2006) identified ‘good’ assessment practices employed by teachers, such as ‘sharing the assessment

criteria' successfully, providing learners with 'feedback', 'feed-forward' by providing more opportunities to learn, and the provision of different task assessment formats to learners. Furthermore, in the Scottish context, the implementation of Assessment is for Learning programme (AifL) revealed that FA stimulates confidence in teachers and is a "powerful driver in enhancing learning and teaching" (Hayward & Spencer, 2010, p. 175). FA was also found to focus on developing learners' abilities rather than on over-emphasising curriculum coverage and 'feedback' was recognised as crucial for effective learning (ibid, 2010, p. 166).

Other researchers have also found that learners benefit from the use of FA (Brookhart et al., 2010; Hayward & Spencer, 2010; Hudesman et al., 2014; Panadero & Alonso-Tapia, 2013; Weurlander et al., 2012). For example, Hayward and Spencer (2010) found that FA "had a significant impact on pupil's self-esteem, engagement with work and attainment" (p. 166). Khaldi (2017) supports that learners involved in 'self-assessment', a FA technique, know their strengths and weaknesses, and become aware of their progress. Brookhart et al. (2010), in their study of teacher enquiry professional development program in remedial reading classrooms in kindergarten and Year 1 learners, found that the use of FA, e.g. adjustments in teachers' planning, provision of 'feedback', and the interactions with learners, had a small but measurable effect on remedial Year 1 students' reading. In addition, teachers supported that learners were motivated as they felt autonomy and control over their own learning. Hudesman et al. (2014) examined the use of FA and self-regulation learning through the Enhanced Formative Assessment and Self-Regulated Learning (EFA-SRL) programme to help learners in Mathematics. The researchers found that learners' achievement in developmental mathematics courses improved after the introduction of enhanced FA, e.g. 'formative use of summative tests' and self-regulation. The mean grade for these students was 5.2 (increased in their achievement from 63.5% to 79.2%) compared to the control group (mean grade= 4.1). Another study by Lipnevich et al. (2013) showed that university students were benefited by their tutors' FA techniques in the form of written 'feedback'. Carrillo-de-la-Peña and Pérez (2012) in their study of undergraduate medicine students found that learners who used mid-term tests in the form of FA achieved higher scores in the final assessment than those who did not use FA. In a similar context with undergraduate medicine students, Weurlander et al. (2012) found that FA, i.e. individual written assessment and group oral assessment, is an important tool for students' learning in three areas: a) motivation to study, i.e. triggers extrinsic aspects of motivation, b) awareness of their own learning, i.e., through feedback on their progress,

and c) tool for learning as it has a positive effect on how they learn and what they learn (process and outcomes).

One of the pioneering studies that discusses the issue of FA is by Black and Wiliam (1998). According to the authors, their meta-analysis showed that FA was effective in teaching and learning. More specifically, the researchers (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Black & Wiliam 1998; Black & Wiliam, 2009) found that the benefits of using FA in various school subjects were “the largest ever reported for education interventions, with the largest gains realized among low achievers” (Hudesman et al., 2014, p. 108). Another meta-analysis by Hattie (2009) based on a synthesis of more than 800 meta-analyses found that the third most positive evidence for student achievement, out of 138 parameters, was formative evaluation (a term used closely with formative assessment). ‘Feedback’, an integral part of formative assessment according to the author, comes in the tenth ranking position.

However, other studies questioned the extent of effectiveness of FA in teaching and learning. Kingston and Nash (2011) in their meta-analysis found lower mean effect size for FA (.20) than Black and William did (0.40 and 0.70). That means that FA had limited positive impact on learning compared to the previous meta-analysis (Kingston & Nash, 2011). Despite the smaller effect size of FA, Kingston and Nash (2011) still support the significance and effectiveness of FA in student learning. Furthermore, Bennett (2011) challenges the representativeness of Black and Wiliam’s results and argues that “the research covered is too disparate to be summarized meaningfully through meta-analysis” (p. 11). He also challenges the results of a series of other studies that support the effectiveness of FA arguing that the effect sizes are less than stated, as there are methodological concerns with each study. The argument is based on the effect sizes found by Black and Wiliam (1998) that were between .4 and .7 but according to Bennett (2011) the results were extremely optimistic. Bennett explains that the effect size they found is “roughly double the average growth US children in the upper primary to lower secondary grades would be expected to make on standardised tests in a school year” (Bennett, 2011, p. 10). However, acknowledging the diversity of the studies and the difficulties to interpret meaningfully the impact of FA using a single mean effect-size statistic, researchers who challenge Black and Wiliam’s study (Bennett, 2011; Kingston & Nash, 2011) agree that FA is effective and can be considered as “work in progress” and, thus, further research in the effectiveness of FA is necessary (Bennett, 2011, p. 21).

In addition, the effectiveness of FA on teaching and learning is also evident in FL/L2 research. Kingston and Nash (2011), for example, found in their meta-analysis that FA is more effective in teaching English Language and Arts than Mathematics or Science with .32, .17 and .09 respectively. Research in the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) context also shows that teachers strongly support and use FA in their classrooms (Colby-Kelly & Turner, 2007). For example, research in the EFL context in China (Wang, 2008) supports that FA is beneficial for learning. Teachers provide learners with feedback and adjust classroom activities by focusing on learners' needs and engaging them in learning thus making the lessons more interesting (Wang, 2008). EFL research in Iran by Baleghizadeh and Masoun (2013) recommends the use of FA realized through self-assessment. Actually, findings revealed that self-assessment improved significantly the self-efficacy levels of students. Similar results were also found in a different context with Spanish Foreign Language learners by Coronado-Aliegro and Schwartz (2015).

Looney (2007) found that correct and systematic use of FA can advance learners' language performance and skills. FA was found to motivate, encourage, build confidence in low achieving learners, promote learners' language awareness, and engage learners in the learning process (Colby-Kelly & Turner, 2007; Rea-Dickins, 2006; Wang, 2008). FA was achieved through the use of self- and peer- assessment, in which learners were actively engaged in learning. Thus learners became responsible for both their classmates' and their own learning.

Overall, the literature supports the effectiveness of FA in many aspects of teaching and learning. FA is found to be effective for teachers (Boyle & Charles, 2010; Hayward & Spencer, 2010) and learners (Brookhart et al., 2010; Hudesman et al., 2014) in mainstream education (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Tiknaz & Sutton, 2006; Weurlander et al., 2012) and FL/L2 settings (Baleghizadeh & Masoun, 2013; Kingston & Nash, 2011). Empirical evidence shows that FA provides teachers with useful information necessary to adjust their lessons according to the learners' needs. Boyle and Charles (2010) demonstrate that educational authorities and teachers in England, based on the positive results of FA on learners, believe that FA should be used in the curriculum to benefit learners. Thus, despite the complex nature of FA, its implementation should be suggested in every learning and FL/L2 learning context because of its dual factor, the ability not only to assess but also to promote leaning and language acquisition during the lesson (Rea-Dickins, 2008). In order to ensure the effectiveness of FA in diverse contexts, possible inadequacies and pitfalls of FA have to be analysed and considered carefully for the successful implementation of FA

as they affect teachers' cognition. Teachers' cognition along with the implications and challenges of FA, as found in the literature, are presented in the next sections.

## **2.9 Teachers' Cognition and FA**

Studies in the previous section illustrated the effectiveness of FA on both teachers and learners. Some of these studies investigated teachers' perceptions and practices related to FA and revealed the positive impact of FA in teaching and learning. According to the literature, there is a relation between a persons' knowledge and perceptions and their practices (Borg, 2006). This relation is known as 'cognition' and 'teachers' cognition' affects the teaching and promotion of learning in the classroom environment (Borg, 2006). Studies in teachers' cognition are dated back in the late 1960's which aimed to shed light on the pshychological aspects of teachers' professional practice. Despite the fact that there are different definitions describing cognition (Borg, 2003; Pajares, 1992; Richards, 1996), according to Borg (2006, p. 50) teacher cognition is:

what teachers at any stage of their careers think, know or believe in relation to any aspect of their work, and which, additionally but not necessarily, also entail the study of actual classroom practices and of the relationships between cognitions and these practices.

Borg (2006) also provides another, more inclusive definition of cognition which is "the complex, practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts and beliefs that language teachers draw on in their work" (Borg, 2006, p. 272). Drawing from the definitions provided by Borg, teachers' cognition includes teachers' beliefs, knowledge and attitudes and indicate that there is a relation with teachers' practices. In addition, teachers' cognition may differ at different career stages. This is due to the fact that teachers' knowledge, beliefs, experience and attitudes change over time. Therefore, the change in teachers' cognition may cause a change in teachers' practices.

An examination of the impact of teachers' cognition underpinning their practices is necessary (Borg, 2006; Fang, 1996; Woods, 1996). Focusing on teachers' experience, Borg (1999a, 1999b) listed three points that have large influence on teacher cognition: (a) schooling, especially language education, (b) teacher education, and (c) classroom experience. Woods (1996) by examining eight L2 experienced teachers through classroom observations, interviews, and stimulated recalls also found that teachers' beliefs were influenced by these factors. Teachers' language education refers to how previous L2

learning experience has an effect on their beliefs and classroom practices. Similarly, teachers' education and classroom experience affect their perceptions, knowledge, and attitudes (Othman & Kiely, 2016).

From Borg's (2003) review, however, it should be noted that "behaviour change does not imply cognitive change, and the latter does not guarantee changes in behaviour either" (p. 91). In addition, Borg (2003) argues that a change in teachers' cognition may not directly lead to a change in their behaviors because contextual factors, i.e. social, psychological, and environmental factors of the learning environment may impede the language teachers' ability to adopt practices which are in line with their beliefs. Thus, a change in classroom practices may happen without a change in stated beliefs, and vice versa (Phipps & Borg, 2009) as changes in cognition, attitudes, and emotion do not always need to precede behavioural change (Sanchez & Borg, 2015). On the other hand, research in teacher cognition shows that behavioural change is usually linked with teachers' perceptions and knowledge (Barnard & Burns, 2012).

Furthermore, researchers support that teachers' cognition is crucial for the successful implementation of innovations in a context (Verloop, Van Driel, & Meijer, 2001). In addition, EFL research on teachers' cognition shows that language teachers' beliefs and perceptions about language learning, subject matter, curriculum implementation, classroom management, students, and the role of the teacher have a positive impact on effective teaching and teachers' development (Freeman & Richards, 1996; Richards, 1998; Richards & Lockhart 1994; Woods 1996).

Therefore, the investigation of teachers' cognition is important in this study as it involves teachers' perceptions, background knowledge, and their impact on their practices pertaining to FA. In addition, the primary state school context and especially the area of young learners lacks research on teacher cognition (Borg, 2009). Drawing from the above discussion it seems that teachers' cognition related to FA impacts their FA practices. Pre- or in- service training on FA, teachers' education, and the everyday classroom experiences affect teachers' practices and, consequently, the way they assess learners' achievement (Borg, 1999c). In addition, teachers' cognition should be expected to differ depending on their years of teaching experience, education, and training as teachers do not share the same characteristics (Borg, 2006). Finally, teachers' cognition should be considered when discussing the challenges of FA (see Section 2.10) in order to explain and interpret teachers' practices and suggest ways of overcoming these challenges.

## 2.10 Challenges of FA

Although research has widely acknowledged and supported the effectiveness of FA (Brookhart et al., 2010; Weurlander et al., 2012), concerns by researchers have been raised as to the effective implementation of FA in both general education and FL/L2 learning. Investigation of teachers' perceptions towards FA (Boyle & Charles, 2010), knowledge relevant to FA (Ayala et al., 2008), attitudes of FA (Hargreaves, 2007; Rea-Dickins, 2000), and their practices of FA (Black & Wiliam, 1998) are challenging areas of FA.

Teachers' perceptions and understanding are a crucial factor in the implementation of FA. Teachers need to have a clear understanding of FA in order to implement it successfully (Harlen & Gardner, 2010). Research on teachers' understanding of FA (Boyle & Charles, 2010) revealed that teachers do not seem to have a very clear view of what FA actually is. In the study by Boyle and Charles (2010), teachers' responses included definitions and practices irrelevant to FA. Teachers were found to be unaware of the fact that they use FA and believed that FA was the continuous use of SA for reporting purposes (Harlen & James, 1997). This implies a vague understanding of the principles of FA. Inconsistency also became evident between what teachers believe is effective and what they actually do to successfully implement FA (Boyle & Charles, 2010). However, these studies did not explain in depth the reasons of teachers' limited understanding and unclear perceptions relevant to FA.

Studies also show that teachers lack FA knowledge. Research by Ayala et al. (2008) indicates that teachers have inadequate knowledge regarding the design, development, and implementation of FA practices. Additional research in the Chinese EFL context by Wang (2008) demonstrates that teachers exhibit weaknesses in understanding and using evaluations within the curriculum. They, also, insisted on traditional ways of teaching. Teachers generally seem to lack skills and confidence in assessment (Black et al., 2010; Tsagari, 2016). These studies, however, did not investigate the reasons of teachers' lack of knowledge and confidence so as to suggest ways for successful implementation of FA.

Various studies on FA also show that teachers retain negative attitudes towards FA. Researchers of FA revealed that teachers admit that FA promotes learning but they state that it requires a lot of their time and effort to implement it (Büyükkarcı, 2014; Hargreaves, 2007; Rea-Dickins, 2000; Wang, 2008). Furthermore, research shows that teachers feel overloaded by the work required by FA. They consider it as an additional task instead of an



integral part of their teaching (Baker, 1995). The reasons underpinning the negative attitudes towards FA may be closely related to their lack of knowledge and perceptions and further investigation of whether these attitudes affect the implementation of FA is necessary. Finally, other studies show that even if teachers retain positive attitudes towards FA, they still have difficulties in its 'correct' implementation (Hall & Burke, 2003).

Teachers' perceptions, education, knowledge, and attitudes towards FA affect teachers' cognition and have a direct impact on their practices. Panadero et al. (2014, p. 13) found that the use of FA, especially in the form of students' 'self-assessment' in the Spanish classroom settings "is strongly influenced by teachers' values, attitudes and prior experiences". Tiknaz and Sutton (2006) found that teachers had limited guidance to improve their practices relevant to FA and limited understanding to plan assessment tasks that promote learners' autonomy. Research on teachers' practices indicates that teachers have difficulties with FA, e.g. exam-oriented context and big classes (Wang, 2008), or do not always incorporate FA in their lessons (Boyle & Charles, 2010). Additional research (Colby-Kelly & Turner, 2007) found that teachers were hesitant in proclaiming the usefulness of FA, e.g. self- and peer- assessment. This was also manifest by the fact that teachers were unwilling to provide their learners with assessment power. According to the researchers, teachers' possible reason for their uncertainty on the effectiveness of 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment is their preference to maintain the traditional assessment power. In addition, primary school teachers were found to hesitate and have difficulties in using 'peer-' assessment (Volante & Beckett, 2011). The researchers argued that learners were not objective enough and were unfamiliar with the content in order to assess their peers' understanding effectively. Ayala et al. (2008) found that teachers handled 'embedded assessments' the same way as any other test. They did not provide immediate feedback and needed further guidance to assist learners with the use of embedded assessment. Although these studies found that some FA techniques, i.e. 'self-' assessment, were not implemented successfully and that teachers faced difficulties in using FA because of the context does not mean that other FA techniques were not implemented successfully in the same study. Therefore, the context under investigation should be considered and further investigated to identify which FA techniques it affects.

Moreover, Black and Wiliam (1998) show that teachers have difficulties in implementing FA in other contexts, too. In their meta-analysis they found that teachers seem to focus their assessment on low-level aims in the form of recall and this is not representative of FA (see also Tsigari (2014); Tsigari and Koutozi (2016)). This is

probably due to the highly structured lessons and IRF pattern that teachers use extensively in their lessons. Teachers are unaware of their colleagues' assessment practices and do not discuss assessment issues or cooperate with each other. In England (Pollard, Broadfoot, Croll, Osborn, & Abbott, 1994) and in Greece (Mavrommatis, 1997), teachers' assessment in primary schools puts emphasis on the quantity of learners' work rather than the quality. Teachers in the US also seemed to feel pressure and anxiety towards FA most probably due to lack of training in FA. They are having difficulty in reporting the learners' achievement and providing them with feedback whilst feeling the pressure of external accountability testing (Black & Wiliam, 1998). Moreover, teachers in Britain, when asked to carry out their own assessments, used the format of external tests in the form of frequent summative tests without providing feedback (Black & Wiliam, 1998). Black and Wiliam (1998) identified areas that could be improved and practices that should change for the successful implementation of FA.

Furthermore, according to Torrance (2012), even if assessment is used formatively, it may not lead to the desired results. He argues that feedback in the form of extensive comments or grades, and especially negative comments or low grades, will impact students' learning in a way that is not always positive. For example, this comment will have the same impact as a mark on a test, restricting learning opportunities. Even if the comment may suggest ways of improving, it is still a negative comment equal to a low mark which brings discomfort to the learner with unpredictable results. Torrance (2012) called this type of FA 'de-formative' assessment and supports that teachers should find ways to minimize its impact. Therefore, teachers should be aware of this and make sure that the type of 'feedback' provided to learners is the best choice available towards the promotion of learning considering the context, i.e. learners' level of achievement.

### **2.11 Research in FA in Cyprus**

An important motivating factor for conducting this research in the Cypriot primary school EFL context is the lack of research in this particular context. Research in mainstream education and the EFL context in Cyprus in the field of assessment and more specifically in the area of FA is very limited as only few studies are available in the literature (Pavlou & Ioannou-Georgiou, 2005; Tsagari, 2014; Tsagari & Koutzi, 2016; Tsagari & Pavlou, 2008). This shows the need for further research in this area as misconceptions and mismatches between teachers' beliefs and practices were identified.

Research in FA in mainstream education and in particular primary schools in Cyprus identified inconsistency in teachers' beliefs and practices despite teachers' positive attitudes towards FA (Kyriakides, 1997a; Kyriakides & Campbell, 1999; Kyriakides & Kelly, 2003). Furthermore, Kyriakides (2005) supports that primary school teachers who conduct assessment for formative purposes are more effective in promoting learners' learning outcomes than those using assessment for summative purposes. Kyriakides (1997b) supports that teachers implement FA through 'structured observation' and 'questions', where further research (Kyriakides & Campbell, 1999) found that 'observation' and 'questions' are the assessment techniques teachers use less. This difference between teachers' perceptions and practices indicates a vague understanding of FA.

Furthermore, studies report that teachers lack knowledge of and confidence in assessment (Kyriakides & Kelly, 2003) and only a limited number of teachers use FA practices in their teaching (Christoforidou et al., 2014; Creemers et al., 2012). Solomonidou (2009) examined FA in Greek language lessons in secondary education and revealed that important principles of FA, such as 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment or the possibility of the 'formative use of summative tests', were unknown to teachers and learners who participated in the study. Antoniou and James (2014) examined the use of FA in the Cypriot context and found that, despite the fact that teachers retained positive perceptions towards FA, they showed weaknesses in their FA practices. Some of these weaknesses include the lack of 'provision of success criteria' to learners and their unwillingness to pass some control power over to learners, or create the necessary culture among learners through 'self-assessment' practices. Pavlou and Ioannou-Georgiou (2005) found that EFL teachers are not consistent in their views about assessment and stress teachers' lack of training in EFL, especially in terms of assessment (Tzagari, 2012a, 2013; Tzagari & Pavlou, 2008). Teachers' statements of their actions regarding the provision of 'descriptive feedback' differ from their actual practices observed during class observations (Pavlou & Ioannou-Georgiou, 2005). These findings indicate teachers' deficit in understanding FA and their need for further improvement. This can be connected with the very limited number of studies conducted in FA. Pavlou and Ioannou-Georgiou (2005) state that "assessment in Cyprus State Schools EFL has scarcely been researched and very little is known in this area". They suggest further research in this field.

Moreover, other studies (Michaeloudes, 2009; Tzagari & Michaeloudes, 2012) examining the use of FA in EFL Cypriot primary schools show that despite the extensive

use of FA techniques by teachers, inconsistencies in teachers' perceptions of FA were identified. In addition, the lack of teachers' adequate knowledge on understanding and implementing FA successfully and the domination of both the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) pattern of EFL classroom interaction and the teacher-centered lessons were evident in the classes. Furthermore, the same researchers in another study (Tzagari & Michaeloudes, 2017) found that EFL teachers used a variety of feedback types to reward, correct, and promote language acquisition, but at the same time the researchers report the 'washback effect' of an exam-oriented context on teaching and learning and more specifically on the types of feedback provided to learners. It seems that the time constraints led teachers to use types of feedback that require less time than others which may be more effective but required a lot of time.

## **2.12 Conclusions and Research Questions**

Overall, the literature reveals that FA has significant effects on all levels of education (Davison, 2007; Rea-Dickins, 2006; Weurlander et al., 2012) and is beneficial for teachers (Boyle & Charles, 2010; Tiknaz & Sutton, 2006) and learners (Brookhart et al., 2010; Hudesman et al., 2014). In addition, various meta-analyses identified the positive effect FA has on the learning process (Bennett, 2011; Black & Wiliam, 1998; Hattie, 2009; Kingston & Nash, 2011). The effectiveness of FA is probably due to the fact that FA techniques are rooted in learning and second language acquisition theories, i.e. Behaviourism (Skinner, 2011), Constructivism (Piaget, 1950), SCT (Vygotsky, 1978), and Interaction Hypothesis (Block, 2003), are associated with CI techniques as FA is embedded in classroom routines and procedures. Therefore, for the purpose of this research the working definition of FA is the following:

FA is a range of planned and unplanned teachers' and learners' assessment practices during the lesson aiming at gathering assessment information of learners' achievement and providing information to learners on how to improve and to teachers on how to change current and future planning and instruction for the promotion of learning and language acquisition

However, teachers face difficulties in their attempt to use FA in their lessons. Teachers' perceptions, attitudes, and skills are important components in the correct implementation of FA. As mentioned above, the distinction among teachers who use FA successfully and those who do not have a clear understanding probably originates from the complex nature of FA. The inconsistency expressed in teachers' perceptions, practices, knowledge, and

attitudes is also probably due to the teachers' doubt about FA's effectiveness, which is perhaps founded on the inconsistency of FA definition (Butler, 2009). The literature has shown that FA can become an unsystematic approach (Poehner & Lantolf, 2005) embedded in classroom routines where the teacher is responsible for deciding which routine to implement and how to implement it. FA is a complicated process incorporating different functions and practices that aim to provide learning opportunities (Wang, 2008).

Furthermore, the studies revealed various challenges of FA (see Section 2.10), e.g. regarding teachers' understanding (Boyle & Charles, 2010) and lack of knowledge of FA (Ayala et al., 2008), which denote the need for further research in this area. An investigation of teachers' misconceptions, the reasons why teachers have misconceptions and lack of knowledge relevant to FA, what they could do to overcome them and whether teachers have similar misconceptions about FA in other contexts (Ayala et al., 2008) is required. As training on assessment skills is necessary for the implementation of FA (Tsayari, 2011a; Tsayari & Vogt, 2017), an exploration into teachers' background knowledge and skills in assessment is crucial to identify the reasons for the inappropriate or unsuccessful implementation. The fact that there are many definitions that describe FA, as there is a lack of an "umbrella" term that includes all terms and definitions that describe classroom assessment (Turner, 2012), makes the concept of FA complicated. Consequently, "more research is needed to fully understand the realities of assessment practice in the classroom" (Turner, 2012, p. 68). Research in FA is necessary in different contexts, e.g. levels of education and educational systems, to identify whether teachers use FA in their lessons or face difficulties in its implementation. FA needs to be explored in depth in order to be better conceptualised.

In addition, the introduction of the new curriculum (MOEC, 2012) in the Cypriot primary school educational context suggests the use of FA and, more specifically, FA techniques such as 'observation' and 'interaction with learners' along with alternative ways of assessment like 'self-', 'peer-' and 'portfolio assessment' (MOEC, 2012, p. 138). However, there is lack of evidence of its implementation due to the limited research conducted in FA in this context and, therefore, this study aims to explore the use of FA in the EFL Cypriot primary school context. In particular, this study attempts to address the following research questions:

1. How do teachers assess EFL learners' achievement in primary education in Cyprus?

2. What are the primary school EFL teachers' background knowledge on and perceptions of FA?
3. Do English teachers use FA techniques? If yes, which techniques (e.g. questioning, observation, feedback) do they use and what types of feedback do they provide to learners?
4. How do teachers use the information gained from FA?
5. Do FA techniques promote learning opportunities? If so, how? If not, why?

More specifically, this study aims to explore how teachers assess EFL learners' achievement in the EFL primary school context and whether they use FA in their assessment practices. It also investigates which FA techniques teachers use along with their subcategories. As mentioned earlier, whether teachers use FA or not depends on how teachers treat the assessment information. Therefore, this study will investigate the treatment of assessment by teachers. In addition, despite the fact that studies showed the effectiveness and implications of FA, this study aims to identify whether it promotes learning through the examination of the uptake, the learners' move succeeding teachers' 'corrective feedback'. Finally, this study aims to explore teachers' perceptions and background knowledge of FA in this context. The results of this study will indicate whether EFL primary school teachers in Cyprus follow the guidelines of the new curriculum and vary their assessment practices from the traditional ways of testing. The findings of this study will become a useful resource for various stakeholders, e.g. teachers, inspectors, curriculum developers. In addition, the findings will not inform only the current context under investigation, but they will contribute in the evolving FA body of research around the world.

FA is an effective process for the teaching and learning of FL/L2 (Baleghizadeh & Masoun, 2013; Black & Wiliam, 1998; Kingston & Nash, 2011; Looney, 2007). Because of the range of purposes and principles that it covers and the lack of a unified definition to describe it (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Turner, 2012), it is at the same time a vague concept for many teachers who find difficulties in understanding and using FA successfully (Ayala et al., 2008; Black & Wiliam, 1998; Boyle & Charles, 2010). FA techniques are associated with CI techniques as FA is embedded in classroom routines and procedures. Thus, 'questioning', 'observing', and 'providing feedback' were analysed in this chapter in an attempt to give the necessary background for further investigation of FA in the Cypriot EFL primary school context.

## **Chapter 3: Methodology**

### **3.1 Abstract**

This chapter illustrates the research design used for the investigation of FA in the Cypriot EFL primary school context. More specifically, it discusses the design and approach followed and provides information about the population and the sample used. The instruments used for the collection of the data are also presented. In addition, it exemplifies the research procedure and demonstrates the data analysis procedures. Finally, the chapter discusses the triangulation of this study and the ethical considerations that apply in this research.

### **3.2 Research design**

The scope of this study is to investigate the use of Formative Assessment (FA) in EFL Cypriot primary schools. In order to achieve this, an exploratory design (McMillan & Schumacher, 1989; Weurlander et al., 2012) was employed to identify and explore the teachers' current perceptions and practices of FA in the EFL primary school context in Cyprus.

The mixed method approach (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007) used in the current study is the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches for the collection and analysis of data. According to Dörnyei (2001), quantitative research gathers numerical data showing a relationship between categories of data and qualitative research examines the participants and their reactions. This methodological and data triangulation, i.e. multiple methods of data collection (Creswell, 2014), was opted to ensure the reliability of the study which consists of its replicability and internal validity, i.e. findings can be sustained by the data of the study (Brown & Rodgers, 2002; Cohen et al., 2007). Thus, the mixed method approach was selected to triangulate the results and “map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behavior” (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 141).

More specifically, the researcher employed an exploratory sequential mixed method design (Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Clark, 2011). According to this design, qualitative data are collected and analysed first to investigate, for example, teachers' practices and perceptions, e.g. in classroom observations and interviews. These then are used as a basis to gather quantitative data to conduct, for example, a large scale study, i.e. to develop a questionnaire (Creswell, 2014). In addition, in order to provide answers to the

research questions, this study emphasises the qualitative more than the quantitative approach and the exploratory sequential mixed method design is suitable as it is most appropriate when the qualitative approach is to be emphasised (Creswell, 2014). Therefore, the results from the qualitative analysis can be accepted by researchers of the quantitative field. Furthermore, this design is also suitable for single investigator studies, like the current study where the researcher collects manages and analyses the data one after another in two manageable tasks (Creswell, 2014).

Grounded theory approach (Charmaz, 2006; Cohen et al., 2007; Estrada & Hondagneu-Sotelo, 2011; Glaser, 1992; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Rea-Dickins, 2001; Strauss, 1987) was selected to analyse the qualitative data as it is suitable and commonly used for exploratory studies (Cohen et al., 2007; Sapsford & Jupp, 2006). Grounded theory was suitable for the investigation of FA in EFL Cypriot primary schools as the researcher aims to formulate a general theory or framework of FA, based on the data, i.e. the participants' views, through systematic data gathering and analysis (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Creswell, 2007). However, for the analysis of the quantitative data collected a series of parametric and non-parametric analyses was used (Coolican, 2009; Dancey & Reidy, 2011).

The research design of this study took into account the EFL primary school context under investigation and adjusted the instruments to better inform the research questions. For example, the classroom observations were necessary to be video-recorded. This facilitated capturing the actions teachers do in this context to infer the meaning of new vocabulary and help young learners in the learning process through body language, flash cards, and pictures (Mewald & Wallner, 2015). These instances would not be recorded if the classroom observation were only audio-recorded.

### **3.3 Population and Sample**

The participants in this study were primary school teachers of state schools in Cyprus. All participants were contacted through personal communication via the schools' head teachers. More specifically, questionnaires accompanied by a cover letter (see Appendix A) were sent to all primary schools in Cyprus (n=320), requesting from the head teacher to inform teachers teaching English to complete the Classroom Assessment questionnaire. The exact number of primary school teachers teaching English throughout Cyprus during the school year the research was conducted was not available as official documents or evidence regarding this number, e.g. after personal communication with inspectors of the



MOEC, did not exist. In order to estimate this number, 20 school head teachers of state primary schools in Cyprus which were randomly selected were contacted by the researcher to establish the exact number of teachers teaching English. It was estimated that, on average, 2.1 teachers were teaching English in each primary school. The maximum number of teachers teaching English was four, whereas the minimum one. There were 320 primary schools<sup>2</sup> in operation in the academic year 2013-2014 when the research took place ([http://www.moec.gov.cy/dde/katalogoi\\_sxoleion.html](http://www.moec.gov.cy/dde/katalogoi_sxoleion.html)). The number of the valid questionnaires received was 373. This means that approximately 55.5% of the population responded to the questionnaire. The purpose of the study was to receive responses from at least half of the population. Having in mind that it is very difficult to get responses, the final amount of valid responses was adequate.

The participants of the other instruments were all the same. The participants of the classroom observations, stimulated recalls, and semi-structured interviews were five teachers who taught English among other subjects as well as specialised EFL primary school teachers. These teachers were selected via maximum variation sampling (Cohen et al., 2007). Maximum variation sampling selects cases from diverse population to ensure strength, richness and the interpretation of the data (Cohen et al., 2007).

### **3.3.1 Teachers' Profiles**

#### **3.3.1.1 Participants of Classroom Observations, stimulated recalls, and semi-structured interviews**

The participants of the classroom observations, the stimulated recalls, and the semi-structured interviews vary in gender, years of teaching experience, years of English teaching experience, major teaching subject, and postgraduate degrees in English teaching (see Table 3).

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<sup>2</sup>Eleven all-day compulsory primary schools were not included in the sample as they use different curriculum in English and the lessons are taught by either specialised EFL primary school teachers or secondary EFL teachers and, therefore, they would affect the representativeness of the sample.

**Table 3 Teachers' Profile**

Teacher	Gender	Years of teaching experience	Years of teaching English experience	Teaching subjects (more periods/week)	Degrees relevant to teaching English
T1	M	18	18	English	MA PhD
T2	F	9	2	various	-
T3	F	21	21	English	MA
T4	F	13	4	various	BA in Primary Education (UK graduate)
T5	M	13	8	English	Diploma (English Literature)

The description of the participants' personal information aims solely to show the attempt of the researcher to observe as many different teacher personalities as possible. Variations in teachers' profiles, e.g. gender and years of experience, help the researcher to explore FA through different teaching styles and contexts. Observing lessons from only female or experienced or specialised teachers would probably affect the results and restrict the types, forms, and nature of FA practices. This, of course, is by no means an attempt to generalise the qualitative results of the five participants as they are not representative.

### 3.3.1.2 Questionnaire Responders

The total number of received questionnaires was 405 of which 373 were fully completed and 32 questionnaires were partially completed. Fifty three (13%) participants are 25-30 years old, 261 (64%) participants are 31-40 years old, 89 (22%) participants are 41-50 years old, and only 2 participants are over 51 years old. As expected, the majority (89%) of the teachers was female and 11% were male. The highest education of 115 participants (28%) is a bachelor's degree, 254 (62%) hold a Master's degree, and 31 (8%) a PhD. Regarding participants' teaching experience in state primary schools, 47 of the participants (12%) have 1-5 years, 108 (27%) have 6-11 years, 195 (48%) have 12-21 years, and 55 (14%) have more than 22 years of teaching experience in state schools in Cyprus.

Participants' experience in English teaching is less than their teaching experience in general as 250 teachers (62%) have been teaching English 1-5 years, 96 teachers (24%) 6-11 years, 50 teachers (12%) 12-21 years, and finally 9 teachers (2%) for more than 22 years. In addition, 40 teachers (10%) also stated that they have teaching experience in private schools or universities. When teachers were asked whether they have been trained in teaching English, 258 teachers (64%) stated that they had in-service training, 18 (4%)

have a diploma in teaching English, 18 (4%) have a bachelor's in teaching English, 5 (1%) have a Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) relevant to the teaching of English, 49 (12%) hold a Master's in teaching English, 3 teachers (1%) have a PhD relevant to the teaching of English. Finally, 220 participants (54%) teach at schools that are located in cities and 178 (44%) teach in villages.

Overall, it seems that most of the participants are well educated primary teachers with a Master's degree. They have many years of teaching experience, with less experience in teaching English, and therefore, practices related to FA are expected to be identified in their answers because of teachers' high level of education and experience.

### **3.4 Instruments**

This section presents the instruments employed in this study and discusses the rationale of their choice for the investigation of FA in Cypriot EFL primary schools.

#### **3.4.1 Classroom observations**

Observation is necessary for the investigation of the complex reality of classroom assessment and the identification of forms and methods of FA used by teachers (Tsagari & Banerjee, 2015). Merriam (2009, p. 118) supports that observation becomes a research instrument when "it is systematic, when it addresses a specific research question, and when it is subject of the checks and balances in producing trustworthy results". Classroom observation is useful for researchers in the field of language assessment as it provides the opportunity to accumulate large amounts of rich data of the participants' behaviour and actions (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Observation is also an effective way of discovering the routines and patterns of teaching in classroom contexts (Darlington & Scott, 2002). The advantage of this method is that the researcher is able to "see what participants cannot, since many features of the environment and the behaviour are taken for granted and may be difficult for participants to describe" (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006, p. 59) in order to discover classroom realities and record the most important events (Morse & Richards, 2002). As many teachers use non-verbal techniques to help and respond to learners, observation is necessary to record such instances.

Classroom observations provide valid information about teachers' practices as teachers' practices differ from what they usually state in interviews or questionnaires (Othman & Kiely, 2016; Turner, 2012). Classroom observations are a central instrument for this study and provide direct information to the researcher (Dörnyei, 2007). They help

the observer to elicit as much information as possible since they can “discover things that participants might not freely talk about in interview situations, move beyond perception-based data and access personal knowledge” (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000, p. 305). Thus, observations reveal teachers’ actual practices and provide an account of events more objectively than self-report data (Dörnyei, 2007). In addition, they “have the advantage of allowing direct, in-depth, contextualized study of what participants actually do” (Long, 2005, p. 51). The data obtained from classroom observations is a crucial component in the investigation of teachers’ cognition (Borg, 1999b, 2003). They provide information on teachers’ practices, which are the result of teachers’ beliefs and attitudes. Moreover, classroom observations have been beneficial for the examination of FA in many studies (Hill & McNamara, 2012; Leung & Mohan, 2004; Mavrommatis, 1997; Rea-Dickins, 2006).

There are many types and ways of classroom observation that researchers can implement while observing teachers in action, depending on observations’ level of structure. Hopkins (1993) classifies the types of classroom observation into ‘systematic’, ‘structured’, ‘focused’, and ‘open’ observations, whereas McDonough and McDonough (1997) classify classroom observations into ‘systematic’ and ‘naturalistic’. ‘Systematic’ observation refers to the identification and recording of instances observed in the lessons using pre-determined coding schemes. On the other hand, ‘naturalistic’ observations aim to investigate the natural environment and do not test a theory or a practice. For the purpose of this research, ‘naturalistic’ observations were conducted to capture a normal everyday EFL lesson rather than an ‘one-off’ lesson which follows a particular methodology and is adjusted to the purposes of the observation (McDonough & McDonough, 1997, p. 114). In particular, ‘naturalistic’ observation was opted to explore and identify instances of FA in the observed lessons using grounded theory approach for the coding scheme to emerge. ‘Naturalistic’ observation facilitated this process as the coding scheme was based on the data rather than a pre-determined scheme that is used in the ‘systematic’ type of classroom observation. Without using a pre-determined coding scheme the current researcher was able to record as many instances as possible related to FA. Finally, this type of observation facilitated not only the generation of a coding scheme, but also a new framework of FA.

Another categorisation of observations deals with the level of researcher participation. Hammersley and Atkinson (1983) propose four types of observers, i.e. ‘complete participant’, ‘participant as observer’, ‘observer as participant’, and ‘complete observer’. However, the participation of the researcher in the lesson might influence the

reaction of teachers, learners, and the accuracy of data (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006). On the other hand, the researcher needs to be present in the classroom to “get a “feel” for the atmosphere of the setting” (Zuengler, Ford, & Fassnacht, 2005, p. 4) in a multi-dimensional way. The priority of the researcher of the current study was to observe normal lessons in order to record what teachers do in their everyday teaching rather than during a lesson ‘customised’ to the scope of the research. Being a ‘complete observer’, which means that the researcher is present in the classroom, without participating in any way in the lesson was the most appropriate form of participation for the purposes of this study. Any kind of participation in the lesson influences the flow of a normal lesson. Furthermore, the researcher by being a ‘complete observer’ is able to elicit information which would be obtained with difficulty from other methods (Long, 2005). As Sapsford and Jupp (2006, p. 59) support, “people may, consciously or unconsciously, change the way they behave because they are being observed, and therefore observational accounts of their behaviour may be inaccurate representations of how they behave ‘naturally’”. In addition, the impact of the observer on the lesson is also known as the ‘observer’s paradox’ (Labov, 1972) and certain actions were taken by the researcher to avoid this. For example, even though a microphone attached on the teachers’ or learners’ neck would capture in a better way the interactions between the teacher and the learners (Mori & Zuengler, 2008), this was avoided to minimize the impact of the observations on a ‘normal’ lesson. For recording purposes, an audio recorder was placed on the teacher’s desk and the video camera recorder was used.

To sum up, for the purpose of this research, ‘naturalistic’, ‘non-participant’ observations (i.e. complete observer type) were conducted with five teachers in twenty three lessons to examine the use of FA in EFL classes in Cypriot primary schools. The classroom observations facilitate the analysis of teacher-learners interactions, the FA teachers’ techniques, and the potential of FA to promote learning and language acquisition.

The classroom observations were pilot tested in an observed 40-minute English lesson in a public primary school class. This also pilot tested the quality of equipment, i.e. video-camera, audio-recorder, and timer. In addition, it was a good practice and experience for the researcher to use the timer and keep field notes during the pilot observation. The teacher observed was not included in the population of this study. She is a secondary

school teacher<sup>3</sup> and was observed and audio-/video-recorded while teaching English in a Year 4 class.

Overall, the field notes taken during the classroom observations for the examination of FA (Mavrommatis, 1997) included three columns/categories, i.e. time, type of FA used, and comments, and were recorded on a grid (see appendix B). When the observer identified instances of FA or instances that required further discussion during the stimulated recall (see Chapter 4) with the teacher, notes were taken. The observer used a timer synchronised with the video-recorder timer. In this way, the researcher could note on the grid the exact time of the incidence. This information was used during the stimulated recalls. The video sequences were stopped for further discussion with the participant teachers. Field notes were taken to be used in the stimulated recalls and to facilitate the analysis of data.

Furthermore, classroom observations are more powerful in a study when they are combined with other methods of data collection (Mackey & Gass, 2005), i.e. stimulated recalls, semi-structured interviews, and questionnaires. The following sections will present these methods and discuss the rationale of their use.

### **3.4.2 Stimulated recalls**

Stimulated recall is a retrospective method of collecting data according to which the observed teacher is asked by the researcher to elaborate and comment on specific parts of the lesson (Nunan, 1989, p. 94). Stimulated recalls when used in combination with other research techniques can provide reliable and valid results (Nunan, 1992) by enriching the findings with the teachers' point of view and triangulating the results. They also help the researcher to access indirectly teachers' beliefs in order to explore teachers' cognition (Kagan, 1990). Having recorded teachers' practices, further discussion by the teachers to provide the rationale of their practices explores teachers' cognition which consists of their beliefs, knowledge, and practices. As Carter and Nunan (2001) noted, stimulated recalls have at least two advantages: a) to generate insights into the teaching and learning process which would be difficult to obtain otherwise and b) to make the class participants' voice heard. Thus, stimulated recalls is the best retrospective method as there is no interval

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<sup>3</sup>The lesson observed was from a compulsory all-day school by a secondary school teacher. This type of school was excluded from the sample.

between the audio or visual stimulus and the recall (Dörnyei, 2007) and it is used in this study to explore FA teachers' beliefs and practices.

More specifically, the reasons for employing stimulated recalls were that observational data do not provide information from the teachers' point of view. As opposed to classroom observations which aimed at recording introspective data to examine teachers' current practices, stimulated recalls were aimed at recording retrospective data to recall tasks previously performed (Borg, 2006; Gass & Mackey, 2000). In addition, considering that "key variables of the processes that researchers investigate are mental and thus unobservable" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 185) stimulated recalls are appropriate to reveal this 'unobservable information', e.g. the reason for using particular type of questions or feedback, to the researcher. Thus, stimulated recalls are expected to provide the researcher with information that he is not able to observe, along with background information related to previous lessons. Moreover, recording a phenomenon does not mean that the researcher knows why this happened or the rationale underpinning this teaching practice. Also, observations do not provide information to the researcher about participants' motivation for their behaviour and actions (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Therefore, stimulated recalls are of great importance as they provide the extra information missing from the mere observation of lessons (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

Furthermore, the second purpose of the stimulated recalls was to be used as an independent data set to provide answers to the research questions e.g. to examine teachers' perceptions, background knowledge and practices pertaining to FA. In this research, stimulated recalls prompted participants to reflect on their FA practices and facilitated the interpretation of FA incidents identified in the video-recorded lessons. A visual reminder, such as the video footage of a lesson, stimulates and recalls the mental processes occurred during the event (Gass & Mackey, 2000). More specifically, their purpose is to "reactivate or refresh recollection of cognitive processes" in order to be accurately remembered and verbalized during the stimulated recall sessions (Gass & Mackey, 2000, p. 53). Implicit questions, without influencing the following lessons and the validity of the data by focusing explicitly on key aspects of FA, were used. A wide range of information relevant to teachers' perceptions and practices e.g. pertaining to FA techniques (see Appendix 3) was collected. This provided answers to specific research questions of this study, i.e. how teachers assess, what FA they use and what their perceptions pertaining to FA are. This information would be difficult to express in, for example, questionnaires where teachers usually answer closed questions and do not have the opportunity to talk about their own

lesson. The interaction generated between the researcher and the participants while watching their observed lessons was the ideal situation to discuss, solve, and elaborate on “difficult” concepts of FA, e.g. the reason for providing feedback or asking questions, the use of ‘self-’ and ‘peer-’ assessment in their lessons etc.

The researcher and the participants planned the stimulated recall meetings in advance. Bloom (1954) in his study found that the participants’ recalls were accurate only 48 hours after the event and Dornyei (2007) argues that the recall should take place in less than 24 hours. Thus, the researcher managed to have the stimulated recall meetings on the same day with the observations in order to have as accurate results as possible. The stimulated recalls were audio recorded to facilitate data analysis. The critical points for discussion were identified and noted down by the researcher during the classroom observations. Thus, during the stimulated recalls the researcher stopped the video at specific incidents identified earlier during the classroom observations and the teachers had the opportunity to stop the video whenever they wanted to discuss or comment on what they watched. The researcher developed and followed during the stimulated recalls the stimulated recall protocol (see Appendix C) (Gass & Mackey, 2000). The purpose of the stimulated recall protocol was to provide all the participants with the same instructions and re-assure the reliability of the instrument by asking all participants to do exactly the same thing. The protocol included general instructions available to the participants and a set of possible questions for the researcher.

The stimulated recalls were pilot tested in the same way as the classroom observations. The purpose of the pilot testing was to refine the protocol (see Appendix C), save time, and “avoid the loss of valuable, potentially useful, and often irreplaceable data” (Gass & Mackey, 2000). For example, in this study, the researcher had to point out particular issues for discussion and FA incidents in the time limits available. The stimulated recalls required the most changes compared to the other instruments as they were time consuming. If the duration of the stimulated recalls had not been reduced, this could have become a serious drawback as they would have increased the data collection time, along with the classroom observations. The participants would likely find it time consuming and withdraw their participation. Therefore, the questions in the stimulated recall protocol were refined and only those directly linked to the research questions of the study remained in the protocol (see Appendix C). These questions were used as the basis for opening FA related discussions and were included in the protocol so all participants would be treated the same.



### 3.4.3 Semi-structured interviews

Interviews is an effective way of collecting data as they allow for greater depth compared to, for example, questionnaires (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996) which despite their effectiveness do not have the option of adaption according to the answers received. During interviews people are in the best position to report how they experience a particular event (Darlington & Scott, 2002). Thoughts and perceptions cannot be directly observed (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998) and interviews can retrieve these types of information. Another advantage of interviewing is the flexibility it allows for the negotiation of understanding between interviewer and interviewee and for checking any misunderstanding during the data collection process (Brenner, Brown, & Canter, 1985). The primary purpose of an interview is to collect data and information that could not easily be gathered otherwise. Also, due to the researcher's indirect involvement in the interview process, a 100% response rate of the answered questions could be achieved (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003) as in the interview session participants tend to answer all questions.

Nunan (1992) categorised interviews into three types according to the degree of formality: 'unstructured', 'semi-structured', and 'structured'. According to Borg (2006), 'semi-structured' interviews are based on loosely defined questions and are widely used in educational research. 'Semi-structured' interviews are more flexible because they do not follow a structured framework, they have more extensive follow-up responses and are considered closer to the qualitative paradigm by providing richer interactions and more personalized data than the structured/fixed type of interview (McDonough & McDonough, 1997, p. 184). Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2006, p. 120) note that this method is useful when the researcher has a particular topic he or she wants to focus on and gain information from individuals. Furthermore, this method is appropriate when "the researcher has a good enough overview of the phenomenon or domain in question and is able to develop broad questions about the topic in advance but does not want to use ready-made response categories that would limit the depth and breadth of the respondent's story" Dörnyei (2007, p. 136) . In 'semi-structured' interviews the researcher follows "a written list of questions as a guide, while still having the freedom to digress and probe for more information" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 173). However, "the format and ordering of the questions are informed by the ongoing responses of the interviewee to the questions posed" (Merriam, 2009, p. 45; Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003).

Interviews were necessary in this study (Gall et al., 1996) to explore teachers' background knowledge and perceptions pertaining to FA and more specifically the use of the FA techniques, the use of tests, and their conceptualisation of FA. In addition, the teachers during the semi-structured interviews were asked to provide their answers based not only on the observed lessons, as in the stimulated recalls, but also on their English teaching experience in general. In this way, the researcher could explore their perceptions, background knowledge, and practices based on their overall EFL teaching experience. Thus, semi-structured interviews included questions relevant to how teachers assess learners' achievement (RQ1), the FA techniques (RQ3), the use of assessment information (RQ4) and the definition of FA (RQ2).

The semi-structured interviews took place before the first stimulated recall and after the last stimulated recall. The reason for completing the semi-structured interviews at the very last meeting was to assure the validity of the data. This was necessary because the interviews contained explicit questions that served the purpose of the study. Thus, if they had been asked before the observed lessons they may have influenced the results and their validity would have been questioned. The sessions were audio-recorded and the researcher used a protocol with pre-defined questions in order to keep track of the interview procedure and make sure that all participants were asked the same questions (see Appendix D). In this way, the FA perceptions and background knowledge of the participants were examined without affecting the observed lessons.

The first part of the interviews included questions pertaining to the general teaching experience and specific English teaching experience of the participants in order to create a short profile of them. The last meeting, which took place after the last stimulated recall, included further questions which explicitly examined and referred to the teachers' background knowledge and perceptions of FA. More specifically, this meeting focused on the particular lesson observed and examined teachers' perceptions and attitudes towards FA in general. Teachers were asked questions related to the ways of assessing learners' attainment, whether they are familiar with the term "FA" and if they can provide a definition of the term.

Piloting the semi-structured interviews is very important (Nunan, 1992, p. 151) as "it assists in eliminating ambiguous questions as well as in generating useful feedback on the structure and flow of [the] intended interview" (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003, p. 52). The semi-structured interviews were pilot-tested in the same way as the classroom

observation and the stimulated recalls, i.e. based on the same lesson. Piloting the semi-structured interviews was very helpful for the researcher in terms of time management. For instance, the semi-structured interview with the teacher during pilot lasted too long, so the pre-planned questions were reduced to the most important ones during the semi-structured interviews. The duration of the stimulated recalls along with the semi-structured interviews lasted more than 70 minutes and it was clear that the semi-structured interviews should focus on the research questions as much as possible.

#### **3.4.4 Questionnaires**

The third method used for the examination of FA perceptions, background knowledge, and practices of EFL teachers in Cypriot Primary schools is the Classroom Assessment Questionnaire (CAQ) in electronic and hard copy form. The questionnaire was specifically designed and developed to investigate FA in EFL primary schools in Cyprus to reveal representative results about teachers' beliefs and practices of FA. More specifically, the questionnaire aimed at examining teachers' perceptions of (RQ 2) and practices on FA (RQ 1 and 3), the provision of feedback (RQ 3), the way teachers treat assessment information (RQ 4), as well as their background knowledge on FA (RQ 2). It was necessary for the provision of answers to the research questions and it facilitated the triangulation of the research results. This was achieved as despite the fact that these areas were examined with the use of the other instruments of this study, the questionnaire was used to confirm, reject or enrich the findings of the other instruments. By examining these areas the questionnaire could provide representative information about Cypriot EFL primary school teachers' perceptions, background knowledge and practices of FA

The questionnaire was used as it is one of the most widely used research instruments for social sciences (Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight, 2010; Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010; Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003) despite some limitations mentioned earlier while comparing it to the other instruments of this study. The reason for its wide use, according to Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003), is that it is "a cheap and effective way of collecting data in a structured and manageable form" (p.7). The cost of the questionnaires, especially in the last decade, has been reduced to the minimum as the distribution of the questionnaire via emails or electronic platforms reduced further or even eliminated its cost. Brown (2001, p. 6) defined questionnaires as "any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting them among existing answers". This definition demonstrates that the

questionnaire through open-ended and closed questions provides written and solid evidence of data.

An advantage of questionnaires is “enabl[ing] the transmission of useful and accurate information or data from the respondent to the researcher” (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003, p. 8) in an objective way which “can be easily and quickly analysed” (ibid p. 8) and where “little training is needed to develop them” (p. 8). This aspect of questionnaires was very helpful for the current study where large amounts of data were gathered and various statistical analyses were conducted to provide answers to the research questions.

On the other hand, a disadvantage of questionnaires stressed by Nunan (1989, p. 62) is by “having developed our categories and questions before collecting the data we may have predetermined to a large extent, what we actually find”. In order to avoid this, the researcher formulated the questions in a way that avoids both syntactically and semantically any guidance to a particular view or answer. In addition, the categories and questions were specifically formulated to answer particular research questions (RQ 1, 2, 3 and 4) of the study. Another disadvantage is the low rate of responses usually collected as sometimes participants are not willing to participate in a research. Several actions were taken in order to overcome this major difficulty of low response rate, e.g. reminder emails, sent the questionnaire through fax and personal visits to schools (see Section 3.5)

The questionnaire was divided in four parts and aimed at providing answers to the research questions (RQ 1, 2, 3 and 4). The first part contains a cover letter appended at the beginning of the questionnaire. The purpose of the cover letter is to show the aim of the research and its importance, to assure them of confidentiality in order to increase the response rate (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 339). The second part of the questionnaire includes questions on teachers’ background in the form of multiple choice questions (see Appendix A), e.g. their age, gender, highest level of education, general teaching experience and English teaching experience, the location of their school, and training in English teaching. These variables were used during the statistical analysis to identify any interaction with the other variables used in this study.

The third part of the questionnaire includes closed questions in ranking and Likert scale form and open-ended questions. The closed questions provide all possible answers whereas open-ended questions allow the respondent to provide answers one feels appropriate (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). According to McDonough and McDonough

(1997, p. 177), “[t]he designer has to choose a mix of question types that will maximize the range and detail of the information elicited”, which is why closed questions are used in combination with open-ended questions. At the bottom of each closed question, the questionnaire prompts the respondents, according to the type of question, to provide further comments or actions to the above closed-type statements. This type of questions is normally used to avoid a complete foreclosure of the response and obtain responses that are unexpected or are not included in the questionnaire (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006).

The third part of the questionnaire examines different aspects of FA. More specifically, the third part of the questionnaire starts with three ranking questions which examine how teachers assess learners’ achievement (RQ 1) (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Pryor & Crossouard, 2008; Wiliam, 2011). The participants were asked to rank the same statements three times depending on the techniques they use more often, the techniques they believe are more effective in promoting learning and the techniques they believe are easier to use. Then, through Likert scale questions teachers’ beliefs and practices regarding the treatment of the information gathered from the assessment techniques (RQ 4) were investigated (Black & Wiliam, 1998). Teachers were asked to state their beliefs and practices of a series of techniques related to ‘learning’ and ‘non-learning language acquisition assessment practices’, on how they handle assessment information. Ranking questions follow related to teachers’ corrective feedback practices when learners provide incorrect answers (RQ 3). The teachers, as in the previous ranking question, were asked to state which technique they use more often, which technique they believe is more effective in promoting learning and which one is easier to use. The next Likert scale questions, include one double and one single column, pertaining to teachers’ FA techniques (RQ 3 and RQ 2). The first question examined teachers’ beliefs and practices related to teachers’ FA techniques on the provision of questions and feedback (RQ 3) (Tunstall & Gipps, 1996; Walsh, 2006) and the second question examined teachers’ perceptions of the effectiveness of FA (RQ 2) (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Kingston & Nash, 2011). Finally the questionnaire concludes with two open-ended and one closed question. These questions focused on the examination of teachers’ background knowledge (RQ 2) (Boyle & Charles, 2010; Harlen & James, 1997).

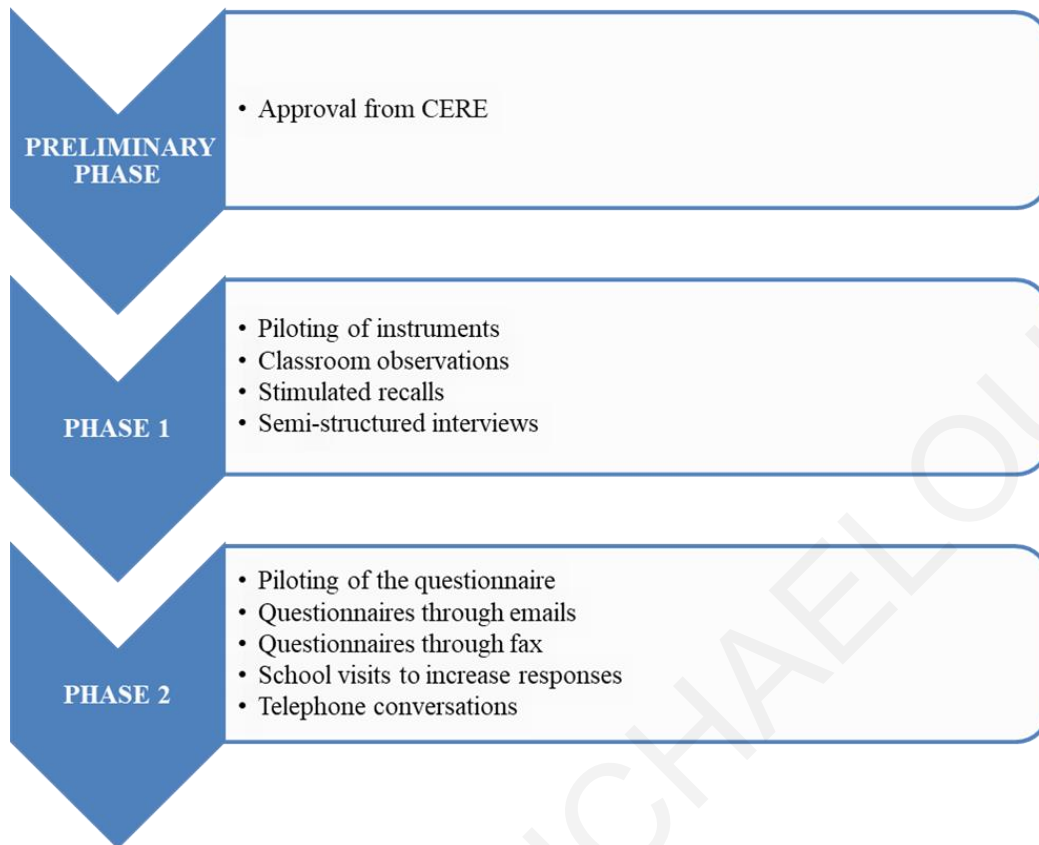
The questionnaire was distributed to researchers, experts in TESOL and Research Methods, and classroom teachers for piloting purposes. According to Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003), piloting the questionnaire provides information pertaining to its suitability and clarity. It also identifies any ambiguous questions and checks the required

time needed for its completion (Cohen et al., 2007). Firstly, for face validity purposes (Creswell, 2009), the first draft of the questionnaire was given to five university professors experienced in drafting questionnaires and experts in TESOL. Written and oral feedback in the form of comments, suggestions and questions was provided to the researcher. The valuable feedback received led to changes and modifications of the questionnaire's first draft, e.g. more detailed instructions to some questions and data analysis issues. Secondly, the updated version was provided to twenty primary teachers who teach English. Those teachers were not included in the main sample of this study. They were asked to answer the questionnaire and suggest changes, identify questions and statements that are not clear, and ask for any clarifications. It was interesting to see that some of the questions and suggestions were common among the pilot participants, e.g. ranking of statements instead of rating them and use of difficult vocabulary/terminology. As a result, explicit instructions were added indicating the requirements of each question and restrictions were inserted in the electronic form (<https://www.1ka.si/a/41711>) of the questionnaire to limit invalid types of answers. Therefore, all those answering the questionnaire electronically were forced to follow the instructions.

### **3.5 Research Procedures**

Before conducting research in the Cypriot primary educational context and involve teachers during school time, the researcher applied for and acquired the necessary permission from the Ministry of Education and Culture (see Appendix L). An application with all the necessary information about the research, i.e. the purpose, the procedures, the ethical issues, the research questions, the instruments, and the potential contribution of the study, were submitted to the Centre for Educational Research and Evaluation (CERE) affiliated to the local Pedagogical Institute. The approval from the Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC), which examined further the application to CERE, included a minor comment, i.e. each teacher that would be approached by the researcher should be contacted through the head teacher of the school and this indication was followed during the research process.

**Figure 3 Research process**



Having the official approval (see Appendix L) and taking into account the comment by the MOEC, the researcher started the recruitment of participants for the study. Most of the teachers invited were not willing to participate because they were not willing to be observed, audio- and video-recorded. Most probably their unwillingness was due to the fact that most of the times, teachers' observations are conducted by the affiliated educational inspector or their head teacher for evaluation purposes, thus the concept of observations may have acquired negative connotations as another form of evaluation.

Five teachers agreed to participate in the study. Twenty three lessons were observed. One of the teachers, Mr. Oliver (pseudonym), was willing to be observed seven times and the rest of the participants accepted four observations. After the completion of the classroom observations, the on-line questionnaire was activated. As at the beginning of the collection of questionnaires there were only few responses, several actions, planned and spontaneous, were taken to raise the level of responses. The researcher sent emails (and reminder emails) as well as fax to all state primary schools of Cyprus explaining briefly the purpose of the research, asking the head teachers to forward the email or provide the link of the electronic questionnaire to the teachers teaching English at their school.

In addition, the researcher visited schools in all districts of Cyprus to explain the purpose of the study and ask for teachers' contribution to the research. During the personal communications with the head teachers, hard copies of the questionnaire were provided to them. Either follow up meetings were arranged to receive the completed questionnaires or an envelope with the necessary stamps and address was provided to the head teacher or the administration office to mail the completed questionnaires back to the researcher. In this way, the anonymity of the participants was assured. The hard copy of the questionnaire also included the link of the electronic questionnaire in case teachers preferred to complete the questionnaire on-line. In addition, the researcher arranged for representatives, usually teachers of the school, to approach the head teacher for permission, or ask the teachers of English to complete the questionnaire. Records of visits to schools by the researcher and the representatives' schools were kept for better organizing the visits and avoiding visiting the same school twice. In cases where schools were not approached through personal communication, the researcher called the head teachers to get more participants.

Finally, the researcher attended conferences and workshops where English primary school teachers attended in order to increase the response rate. All these actions proved to be effective as the number of completed questionnaires was adequate.

### **3.6 Analysis of Data**

A mixed method approach was chosen for the analysis of the data of this study in order to answer the research questions (Cohen et al., 2007; Creswell, 2014). Data from the stimulated recalls and semi-structured interviews were analysed qualitatively and data from classroom observations and questionnaires were analysed qualitatively and quantitatively (Creswell, 2014). Using the grounded theory approach (Glaser, 1992; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss, 1987) frameworks of analysis were developed for classroom observations (see Appendix E), stimulated recalls (see Appendix F), and semi-structured interviews (see Appendix G). A series of parametric and non-parametric analyses were conducted for the quantitative analysis of the data from the questionnaires.

The procedure followed for the analysis of classroom observations, stimulated recalls and semi-structured interviews was the same. The video and audio files were transcribed and then coded (Dörnyei, 2007; Paltridge & Phakiti, 2010). 'Sound Scribe' software was used to make the transcription process easier and faster. The transcriptions created were saved in rich text format (Microsoft Word) and imported in Atlas.ti. The qualitative data analysis and research software Atlas.ti was employed for the analysis of



qualitative data as it is a popular software which provides tremendous opportunities for qualitative analysis (Cheng & Wang, 2007; Doe, 2011; Muhr & Freise, 2004). Learners and teachers' names were replaced with pseudonyms before the analysis. The Atlas.ti software provided quantitative results, i.e. frequencies of use for each code, along with the qualitative results. The quantitative analysis of the qualitative data process is also known as 'the quantification of the qualitative results' which allows for further analysis of phenomena with mathematical means (Cohen et al., 2007) and, thus, provides more information and contributes to the findings of the qualitative analysis.

The analytical process of classroom observations, stimulated recalls, and semi-structured interviews, based on the principles of grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006; Cohen et al., 2007), was iterative and abductive (Dörnyei, 2007) in that the categories of the explanations were not pre-determined, but rather emerged from the actual data. Data analysis involved a number of readings of the data entries and progressive refining of emerging categories. In addition, existing frameworks of classroom interaction (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Walsh, 2006) and feedback (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Tunstall & Gipps, 1996) were considered (see Section 2.6.6). The analysis of qualitative data consisted of three stages:

- 1) pre-coding (transcription of data, initial development of categories of analysis),
- 2) coding (reduction of data, checking and refining categories), and
- 3) interpreting (drawing conclusions, developing theoretical frameworks) through the realities of the local educational system, society and culture.

In order to increase the reliability of coding, the researcher asked a second researcher to analyse one classroom observation, stimulated recall, and semi-structured interview from each teacher. Considering the time and financial constraints of this study, only 23% of all the transcriptions was possible to be analysed by the second researcher (Loewen, 2009; Mackey et al., 2007; Oliver, 2009). The second rater was an experienced research assistant of the University of Cyprus, familiar with the use of Atlas.ti. She received training on the frameworks of analysis in advance. To determine the inter rater reliability of the classroom observation framework of analysis, the ratio of the identical coded learning episodes by the two raters was calculated. This ratio was calculated by identifying the learning episodes coded by the second rater using the same code with the first rater. The coding of the first and second researchers showed an agreement of 91% which was found to be satisfactory.

### 3.6.1 Classroom observations

Despite the fact that grounded theory approach was used for the analysis of the data of classroom observations, existing frameworks of analysis were used for the analysis of classroom interaction as recorded through the observations (Cazden, 1988; Gourlay, 2005; Lemke, 1990; Mehan, 1979; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). Also, analysis focused on the provision of feedback and pre-existing feedback frameworks were considered for the analysis to examine the data gathered (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Gibbs & Simpson, 2002; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Hill & McNamara, 2012; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Tunstall & Gipps, 1996). The categories of the framework were also completed by codes suggested in the literature, e.g. 'Evaluative' and 'Descriptive' feedback, and were found in other contexts as trial codes, e.g. 'Translation feedback', to verify whether they were identified in this context too. The researcher followed the three systematic steps of grounded theory approach coding:

- open (generating categories)
- axial (making connections between categories and subcategories), and
- selective coding (explicating a story or a model from the interconnection of categories)

(Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Creswell, 2007; Strauss & Corbin, 1998)

When the analysis of the data started, the researcher analysed one lesson from each teacher to identify the main codes (open coding). Every time a new code was added, the researcher verified, through revisions of the coded transcriptions, whether this code should be used in the previously analysed text and made the necessary adjustments (axial coding). As a result, many revisions of the analysis of the data were made during and at the end of the analysis of all the data. This was necessary to make sure that the framework adequately covered all codes for the analysis of the specific data and that it was strictly followed by the researcher. The final product of the framework of analysis also includes codes that were added to the framework as they were identified in the data. Thus the framework includes all the codes used, extensively or not, in this context (see appendix E). For the interpretation of the results and the contribution to the framework of analysis, the most popular and important codes were selected (selective coding).

### **3.6.2 Stimulated recalls**

The analysis of the stimulated recalls took place after the analysis of classroom observations and aimed at enriching the findings of the classroom observation as they offer the teachers' perspective and explanation of the issues emerged.

The stimulated recalls were also analysed using grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), as the framework of analysis (see Appendix F) emerged from the data and pre-existing categories of frameworks were not used. The researcher followed the three systematic steps of the grounded theory approach coding, which they were also used in the analysis of classroom observations, i.e. open, axial, and selective coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Creswell, 2007; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The data was coded into broad categories of analysis e.g. 'Questioning', 'Feedback' and 'Observation'. These categories were further divided into subcategories based on the discussion's central theme. For example, if the discussion between the researcher and the teacher during the stimulated recall was about the types of questions used and focus was given specifically on the questions for 'revision purposes' (-a subcategory of the 'Questions' category), then the discussion would be coded as 'Question Revision' (QR). Furthermore, different types of extensions i.e. 'Procedure' (-P), 'Reason' (-R), and 'Beliefs' (-B), are attached to the aforementioned subcategories based on what subject the discussion elaborates on. Therefore, the same basic code but with different extensions was given for the procedure of these questions (QR-P), the reason why they use this particular type of question (QR-R), and their beliefs on using this type of questions (QR-B). Most of the subcategories, e.g. QR, were given three different extensions. The discussion usually started with the procedure aspect of the sub-category, followed by the reason of doing this, and ended with the beliefs. This facilitated the presentation of the results as the three types of codes' extensions – procedure, reason, and beliefs –formed the basis for the discussion even if they were not clearly presented.

### **3.6.3 Semi-structured Interviews**

The semi-structured interviews took place before the first and after the last session of the stimulated recalls to avoid any influential effect of the questions, e.g. teachers change the way they assess learners' understanding, on the observed lessons and the validity of the research. Their analysis was conducted after the analysis of the stimulated recalls. Semi-structured interviews were transcribed in the same Word file with the stimulated recalls and coded in the same hermeneutic unit of Atlas.ti.

During the semi-structured interviews that took place at the beginning of the stimulated recalls personal data were retrieved in order to create a profile of the participants. This data were coded based on the information gathered, i.e. years of teaching experience was coded as YEx (see Appendix G). Grounded theory approach (Corbin & Strauss, 2008) was used for all the interview data, i.e., personal information and questions on FA. The three systematic steps of grounded theory approach coding were used: open (generating categories), axial (making connections between categories and subcategories) and selective coding (explicating a story or a model from the interconnection of categories) (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Creswell, 2007; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The semi-structured interviews aimed at answering specific research questions, i.e. teachers' perceptions and background knowledge of FA, teachers' assessment and FA practices, and how they treat assessment information, through specific questions formed in advance (see appendix D). Therefore, each question formed a different category of analysis and had a different code, e.g. Ways of assessing learners' understanding (W), How do you use info from tests? (USET). Further codes were added to cover the categories emerging from the semi-structured interviews (see appendix G).

### **3.6.4 Analysis of the questionnaires**

#### **3.6.4.1 Closed Ended questions**

Analysis conducted for the Classroom Assessment Questionnaire (CAQ) started with preliminary analysis. Data collected from the Likert type groups of questions were submitted to preliminary analyses (see Section 5.2) to determine whether normality assumptions were met, in order to determine their appropriateness for parametric analysis, and also to identify the factorial structure of each group of Likert type questions included in the CAQ. Parametric tests usually have more statistical power than nonparametric tests. Thus, a significant effect when one truly exists is more likely to be detected (Cohen et al., 2007; Dancey & Reidy, 2011). The results indicated that one measure was adequately reliable (*Cronbach's alpha* >0.7). The analysis revealed that the CAQ could reliably measure the variable created from the items included in Question 7 of the questionnaire for the analysis of data, i.e. Teachers' Perceptions on Assessing Learners and Using this Information during the Lesson (TPFA). Finally, the analysis measured the frequency, effectiveness, and ease of FA teachers' techniques and provision of corrective feedback techniques (ranking questions).

TPFA variable emerged after the application of exploratory factor analysis on the data collected from the specific item of the questionnaire. Factor analysis is a statistical method used to describe variability among observed and correlated variables in terms of a potentially lower number of unobserved variables called factors (Coolican, 2009; Dancey & Reidy, 2011). The variable used for the analysis of the quantitative data collected for the purpose of the study were recorded using the CAQ.

After a composite variable was created, Univariate Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to investigate the effect of independent variables on the composite variable which was identified during the preliminary analysis. Furthermore, to investigate the effect of the independent variables Overall Teaching Experience (OT-E), TESOL Experience (TESOL-E), and Training on the Composite variable Teachers' Perceptions on FA (TPFA), an ANOVA factorial design was applied which required investigations on whether a combination of two or more categorical independent variables affected the values of one dependent variable (Coolican, 2009; Dancey & Reidy, 2011).

In addition, during the main analysis, data were collected from the group of questions in the CAQ and, more specifically, from ranking questions. Questions 7-9 measured the frequency, the effectiveness, and the ease of teachers' assessment techniques and questions 12 - 14 the frequency, the effectiveness, and the ease of corrective feedback techniques when learners provided an incorrect response. The data from ranking questions were submitted to non-parametric analysis, using the Kendall's W test, in order to calculate and compare their mean ranks. Kendall's W test was used as appropriate when participants are asked to rank a list of items included in a questionnaire from most to least important and can be used for assessing agreement (Cohen et al., 2007; Dancey & Reidy, 2011). More specifically, Kendall's W tests were conducted to identify which items ranked first in the respondents' preferences in each category, i.e. terms of frequency, effectiveness, ease of use, and check whether the differences between the mean ranks of the categories were statistically significant. In addition, Kendall's W tests were also conducted to identify the respondents' preferred category for each teacher's assessment technique and teachers' corrective feedback technique and whether the differences between the mean ranks of each category, i.e. frequency of use, effectiveness, and ease of use, were statistically significant. Finally, the data were also submitted to correlation analysis using Spearman's rho. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient or Spearman's rho is a non-parametric measure of rank correlation which shows statistical dependence between the ranking of two variables (Cohen et al., 2007). This analysis was performed in order to identify statistically

significant correlation among the mean ranks of the frequency, the effectiveness, and the ease of teachers' assessment techniques.

#### **3.6.4.2 Open ended questions**

The open ended question was placed at the end of the questionnaire requesting participants to provide a definition of FA. The first step to analyse the open ended question of the questionnaire was to gather the definitions of FA and keep only the valid ones. Definitions were considered invalid and excluded from the data if they did not follow any principles of FA supported by the literature or have any close relation with the topic of the question. All valid definitions were analysed using Atlas.ti qualitative data analysis software. Grounded theory approach (Cohen et al., 2007; Glaser & Strauss, 1967) was followed for the detailed analysis of the definitions as the researcher did not follow existing frameworks of analysis. Characteristics and various aspects of FA were identified in the definitions and generated categories based on the data which were coded separately.

The characteristics used to describe FA were then categorised in three larger categories:

- 'essential aspects' which include fundamental aspects for the description of FA, i.e. references to learning and change of instruction
- 'important aspects' which include important and common to both FA and SA aspects, i.e. assessing learners' achievement and getting feedback from them without any particular reference to change, improving, and promoting learning, and
- 'complementary aspects' which include useful but not representative of FA aspects.

If a definition included even one 'essential aspect', it was placed in the first category. If it included 'important' and/or 'complementary' aspects it was placed in the second category and, finally, if it included complementary aspects only, it was placed in the third category.

### **3.7 Triangulation**

Triangulation raises the validity of the research as, according to Denzin and Lincoln (1998), it "reflects an attempt to secure an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon in question. Objective reality can never be captured. Triangulation is not a tool or a strategy of validation, but an alternative to validation". In its original sense, triangulation is a technique of physical measurements (Cohen et al., 2007) which helps someone who wants to locate their position on a map. It requires two landmarks to identify their exact position rather than one which provides limited information (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1983). In a

research study, different methods and types of data will provide more accurate results rather than drawing results from only one type of data or research method. In addition, triangulation is important as the weaknesses of one research technique can become complemented by the strengths of another (Runeson, Host, Rainer, & Regnell, 2012). The use of different methods provide a richer and more complete set of data.

According to Cohen et al. (2007), there are six types of triangulation:

- ‘time triangulation’ (considers the factors of change and process over time)
- ‘space triangulation’ (use of cross-cultural techniques)
- ‘combined levels of triangulation’ (more than one level of analysis, i.e. individual, interactive, collectivities)
- ‘theoretical triangulation’ (draws from various theories)
- ‘investigator triangulation’ (use of more than one observer)
- ‘methodological triangulation’ (use of different methods on the same object)

However, other classification of triangulation has been provided in the literature. Denzin (2006) divides triangulation in:

- ‘data triangulation’ (time, space, people)
- ‘investigator triangulation’ (use of more than one observer)
- ‘theory’ (draws from various theories)
- ‘methodological’ (use of different methods on the same object)

Drawing from the above categorisations of triangulation, the current research study supports the use of three types of triangulation, i.e. methodological triangulation, data triangulation, and theoretical triangulation. More specifically, the study used a combination of quantitative and qualitative methodological approaches for methodological triangulation. The various instruments used provided data triangulation which increases construct validity since “the multiple sources of evidence essentially provide multiple measures of the same phenomenon” (Yin, 2009, pp. 116-117).

Theoretical triangulation was also used as different disciplines and research fields were used for the analysis and interpretation of the research results. These included ‘Language/Classroom-Based assessment’ (Rea-Dickins, 2008; Tsagari & Csepes, 2011; Tsagari & Vogt, 2017; Turner, 2012) and ‘Classroom Interaction’ (Gass & Mackey, 2007; Long, 1981b, 1983), ‘corrective feedback’ (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey, 2012; Sakurai, 2014) along with various theories of learning and language

acquisition, e.g. ‘SCT’, ‘Interaction Hypothesis’ and ‘Constructivism’ (Bell & Cowie, 2000; Block, 2003; Vygotsky, 1978) (see chapter 2). All research fields were used to inform the frameworks of analysis and interpret the research results from various perspectives.

### **3.8 Ethical issues**

This section addresses the ethical issues that were considered before, during, and after the completion of this research. Creswell (2007, p. 141) drawing from Lipson (1994) and the American Anthropological Association (2001) supports that a qualitative researcher faces the following groups of ethical issues: “informed consent procedures; deception or covert activities; confidentiality toward participants, sponsors, and colleagues; benefits of research to participants over risks; and participant requests that go beyond social norms”. In addition, the researcher has to consider the following: “a researcher protects the anonymity of the informants, . . . [and] conveys to participants that they are participating in a study, explains the purpose of the study, and does not engage in deception about the nature of the study” (Creswell, 2007, p. 142). In another categorization of the ethical issues, Cohen et al. (2007) classifies the ethical principles into two categories: responsibility to research and responsibility to participants and audiences. These principles should be agreed upon ‘before’ the research commences (p. 77).

The study took several measures in order to safeguard the rights of the participants and protect their identities and are mentioned in the previous sections. Other measures were also taken for the participation of teachers and learners in the study. These include a letter of information about the research sent to all the participants, i.e. school head teachers (see Appendix K) and teachers (see Appendix I). The letter was sent along with a consent form to teachers (see Appendix H) and parents (see Appendix J). The consent form included a clear explanation of the purpose of the study, the level of involvement required of the participants, and the time span of the study. The teachers who agreed to take part in the study signed a written informed consent (Appendix H). The participating students’ parents also signed written informed consent (Appendix J) since the students were under the age of 18. The letter also explicitly indicated that participation in the study is entirely voluntary and that each participant has the right to withdraw from the study without any reasons at any point, or to request removal of all or part of his/her data.

Creswell (2014) uses the term ‘reciprocity’, meaning that the researcher should give something back to the participants for their participation in the study, should consider



how to leave the field, how to report the data, the right of participants to withdraw, and the credit to people who have contributed substantially to the study. Through the letter to teachers, head teachers, and the consent form to parents, the researcher informed the participants of the classroom observations, stimulated recalls, and semi-structured interviews that he would be keen to present the research results during staff meetings to the schools where the research took place. Furthermore, a summary of the results of the research would be sent as a report to the relevant department of the Ministry of Education and Culture (Primary division) and to CERF to use the findings of this research for the benefit of teaching and learning in this context. Finally, the letter informed participants that the whole thesis would be available at the University of Cyprus Library for anyone to read.

### **3.9 Autobiographical reference**

The field of FA has always been a challenging and intriguing area for the current researcher. Drawing from his experience as an EFL teacher for young learners and adult immigrants and as a primary school teacher, since the first years of his teaching experience, he has realised the importance of assessment in teaching and learning. This resulted in the selection of specific courses focusing on Language Testing and Assessment and Change and Evaluation in TESOL during his postgraduate studies (MSc in TESOL at the University of Bristol).

In addition, his interest in FA is evident in his choice to investigate FA in the CLIL context in the Cypriot EFL context for his MSc dissertation entitled “FA in CLIL: An Observational study in Cypriot Primary Schools”. The completion of this dissertation provided the researcher with necessary skills and knowledge for the investigation of FA instances in lessons. For the purposes of this investigation, lessons were observed, audio-recorded, transcribed, and analysed qualitatively, and questionnaires were distributed to teachers who used CLIL. The research experience gained became a valuable tool for the researcher to pursue a PhD and explore FA in the Cypriot EFL primary school context.

As an EFL teacher and a primary school teacher with the aforementioned ‘qualifications’, exploring FA in the EFL primary school context is a very interesting and challenging area. It is an inquiry that the researcher enthusiastically continues to investigate since the initiation of his teaching career. The reason for this is his belief that FA is ‘the key’ for effective teaching and the enhancement of learning and language acquisition.

### **3.10 Conclusion**

This chapter presented the research design followed for the investigation of FA perceptions, background knowledge, and practices of teachers in Cypriot EFL primary school. A mixed method approach (Cohen et al., 2007) and grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) were used for the analysis of the data emerging from classroom observations, stimulated recalls, semi-structured interviews, and questionnaires to facilitate method and data triangulation. The research process was described along with the ethical considerations (Creswell, 2007).

The next chapter presents the findings from the classroom observations, stimulated recalls, and semi-structured interviews. Lessons' excerpts are used, along with findings from the other instruments and other studies for the discussion of the results.

## **Chapter 4: Findings from Classroom Observations, Stimulated Recalls and Semi-structured interviews.**

### **4.1 Abstract**

This chapter presents the research findings of the analysis of the classroom observations, the stimulated recalls, and the semi-structured interviews. Classroom observations are the core of this research as they shed light on how teachers assess learners' achievement, how they use the information gained from assessment, and whether they use FA during the lesson. This chapter provides excerpts from the lessons observed to illustrate the types of questions and feedback that teachers provide to their learners, the types of responses that the learners provide to the teachers along with the types of uptake occurred after the provision of corrective feedback. In addition, excerpts from the stimulated recalls provide an insight from the teachers' point of view and facilitate the interpretation of the data. Short excerpts from the semi-structured interviews are also used to discuss issues related to FA that were not mentioned in the other two instruments. The chapter starts with the findings of the quantitative analysis and then presents the qualitative analysis of the classroom observations and the other instruments too.

### **4.2 Quantitative analysis**

The quantitative analysis of classroom observations identified the preferences towards the most widely used types of each of the framework's categories i.e. 'initiation', 'response', 'feedback', and 'uptake'. The quantification of the classroom observation data (Chi, 1997; Nunan, 1992) provided valuable information to answer the research questions and different data interpretation from the qualitative analysis. The following sections present the frequencies of each category of the IR-F/FU model used by the teachers or learners, during the observed lessons.

#### **4.2.1 Initiation**

Table 4 demonstrates the instances of teachers and learners' initiations. The quantitative results of the present study showed that there is an 'asymmetrical interaction' (Maroni et al., 2008) between teachers and learners characterized mainly by a teacher-fronted type of classroom interaction. The most common type of initiation is 'questioning' by teachers (58%) which denotes a teacher-centered approach where the teacher controls and initiates learning during the lesson. This kind of approach restricts learners from participating more actively in the learning process (Lee & Ng, 2009). However, the results show that learners

had the opportunity to initiate a learning episode to some extent (10%) (see Table 4). Furthermore, it is important to note that a large proportion (18%) of initiations from teachers and learners were devoted to ‘initiation irrelevant to learning’. This type of initiation demonstrates that teachers might have been aiming for a positive and inclusive classroom climate by asking questions not only to assess the learners’ achievement, but rather to establish a productive learning environment based on mutual respect and understanding. Thus, teachers seem to have considered various social aspects while teaching and assessing their learners’ achievement. A more detailed analysis of the types of questions used follows.

**Table 4 Types and number of occurrences of Initiation**

<b>Teachers</b>	<b>T1</b>	<b>T2</b>	<b>T3</b>	<b>T4</b>	<b>T5</b>	<b>Total:</b>
<b>Initiation</b>						
<b>QCD/-L</b>	153 (24%)	169 (43%)	193 (43%)	176 (49%)	198 (28%)	<b>889 (35%)</b>
<b>TI/-L</b>	102 (16%)	16 (4%)	73 (16%)	30 (8%)	123 (17%)	<b>344 (13%)</b>
<b>TEX/-L/LW/-W</b>	95 (15%)	60 (15%)	52 (12%)	58 (16%)	40 (6%)	<b>305 (12%)</b>
<b>QOR/-L</b>	84 (13%)	21 (5%)	11 (2%)	35 (10%)	24 (3%)	<b>175 (7%)</b>
<b>IT/-L</b>	52 (8%)	20 (5%)	27 (6%)	18 (5%)	27 (4%)	<b>144 (6%)</b>
<b>LI/-L/-S</b>	5 (1%)	5 (1%)	20 (4%)	5 (1%)	97 (14%)	<b>132 (5%)</b>
<b>LQ/-L/LW/-W</b>	34 (5%)	18 (5%)	10 (2%)	10 (3%)	51 (7%)	<b>123 (5%)</b>
<b>QOD/-L</b>	44 (7%)	40 (10%)	14 (3%)	9 (2%)	12 (2%)	<b>119 (5%)</b>
<b>TT/-L</b>	4 (1%)	8 (2%)	18 (4%)	4 (1%)	50 (7%)	<b>84 (3%)</b>
<b>QC/-L</b>	18 (3%)	10 (3%)	5 (1%)	5 (1%)	26 (4%)	<b>64 (3%)</b>
<b>QCR/-L</b>	22 (3%)	6 (2%)	11 (2%)	5 (1%)	12 (2%)	<b>56 (2%)</b>
<b>TLO/-L</b>	14 (2%)	3 (1%)	2 (0%)	5 (1%)	16 (2%)	<b>40 (2%)</b>
<b>OTHER</b>	14 (2%)	19 (5%)	12 (3%)	1 (0%)	31 (4%)	<b>77 (3%)</b>
<b>Total:</b>	<b>641</b> <b>(100%)</b>	<b>395</b> <b>(100%)</b>	<b>448</b> <b>(100%)</b>	<b>361</b> <b>(100%)</b>	<b>707</b> <b>(100%)</b>	<b>2552</b> <b>(100%)</b>

Notes:

QCD: Question Closed Display; TI: Teachers’ Initiation (processes); TEX: Teachers’ Expectations/Instructions; QOR: Question Open Referential; IT: Initiation Teacher; LI: Learner’s Initiation (irrelevant); LQ: Learner’s question (relevant); QOD: Question Open Display; TT: Teacher teaching; QC: Question Confirmation; QCR: Question Closed Referential; TLO: Teacher Learning Objectives/Success Criteria

The results (see Table 4) reveal a tendency towards the use of ‘closed display’ questions (QCD) (35%), where teachers already know the answer. This type of question, also found in other studies (Boyd & Rubin, 2002), is typical of teacher-centered lessons mostly based on the IRF pattern (Maroni et al., 2008). According to the literature, ‘display’ questions are used more than ‘referential’ questions in language classrooms (Brock, 1986; Long & Sato, 1983; Nunan, 1987; Pica & Long, 1986), which shows that the teachers keep control of the

classroom through assigning to learners specific questions, whose answers they know, thus reducing the opportunities for open-ended interactions to take place or for learners to initiate and take the control of their own learning.

However, it is worth noticing that the second most popular type of questioning is the ‘open referential’ (QOR) type of question (7%), where teachers accept a range of correct answers unknown to them. This indicates that teachers create opportunities for open classroom interactions despite the closed type interaction generated. This is very encouraging. Teachers through ‘open referential’ questions give more opportunities to learners to express their thoughts or feelings and talk about topics that are usually not included in the classroom material and are unknown to the teachers. Thus, this type of interaction could benefit language acquisition because learners are asked to refer to personal topics and experiences and are ‘forced’ to generate output which is usually more interesting to them and more extended. Answers are unknown to the teachers. This is also in line with the Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985) (see Section 2.7.4).

The next most popular type of questioning is the ‘open display’ (QOD) question (5%), where teachers accept many answers -known to them. It is very interesting to see that although the first teachers’ choice is closed type questions, the next two preferences are “open type”. ‘Closed referential’ (QCR) questions (2%), where teachers seek for a single correct answer unknown to them, is the least common type of question used in the observed lessons. It seems that teachers do not use questions with one correct answer and without knowing the answer as this may not be common in this particular context. In other words, when teachers correct homework, they use ‘closed display’ questions and when they introduce a new topic they use ‘open referential’ questions. Finally, it seems that teachers in this context do not ask learners to answer one answer questions without knowing the answer as most probably these questions would refer to learners’ personal information.

Other types of questions identified, but rarely used, in the lessons are questions in the form of confirmation (QC) (3%). This type refers to short questions as confirmation checks to identify whether learners understood a previously mentioned question or the taught subject matter. It is used less compared to other types of questions. The use of this type of questions also indicates the emphasis teachers gave on learners’ comprehension or understanding of the questions. Thus, teachers seem willing to stop and clarify to increase the learners’ ability to follow instruction.

The initiation of learning episodes is not only achieved through questioning, but also through other types of initiation as well. Some of these types are in line with FA principles some of them are not. The results identified a relatively large number of 'instructions and expectations' (TEX/TEXP) (12%) and some initiations referring to the 'learning objectives' (TLO) (2%). This shows that teachers aim to clarify the success criteria for the learning objectives and their expectations in general through detailed instructions. This practice is consistent with the FA technique of 'sharing learning objectives and success criteria' with learners (Brookhart et al., 2010; Wiliam, 2011). On the other hand, the large number of initiations 'relevant to processes' (TI) (13%) indicates that teachers may not manage their time as efficiently as they could as the results show that they ask too many questions regarding the classroom's processes and routines which are irrelevant to learning. This signifies an area for improvement.

Other types of initiation include teachers' techniques that are used to prompt learners to participate in the lesson (IT) (6%), as well as short teaching sessions of new language phenomena or concepts (TT) (3%). The first type of initiation shows the willingness of teachers to engage all learners in the learning process. This type of initiation is the result of FA techniques, i.e. 'questioning', 'observation', where teachers realise that learners do not follow their instructions or are not willing to participate and through this type of initiation teachers motivate and encourage learners to become active participants. The latter type of initiation includes all teachers' actions to teach something new or revise a topic. This type represents the actual teaching without questions or other introductory activities. Most of the times, it is related to a new grammatical phenomenon or vocabulary item. It is important to note that the frequency of this type of initiation is relatively small compared to the frequency of the lessons transcribed. This shows that teachers used other methods, e.g. 'questions' - a FA technique, to present the new subject matter rather than simply present or lecture the new content.

Despite the large number of initiations recorded by teachers, initiations were also made by learners in smaller amounts and this is evident in other studies too (Tsagari & Koutzi, 2016; Tsagari & Michaeloudes, 2012). The focus on learners and their engagement in the learning process is very important for the FA process (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006). The most popular type of learners' initiation is the one 'related to processes' (LI) (5%). The results in Table 4 show that the learners are not involved in the learning process as they do not initiate the majority of the learning episodes. Most learners' initiations refer to off-learning questions and comments. Evidence of off-learning

initiations was found in the teachers' initiations too and this shows that a lot of classroom interactions do not target learning. However, the second most popular type of learners' initiation is the learners' 'learning-related' questions (LQ) (5%), the majority of which were produced in L1. This shows that teachers aim to create a safe environment for learners by asking questions and providing comments in the most preferable -to the learners- language.

#### 4.2.2 Response

Response is a category which consists of a variety of types according to the level of success of each response (see Table 5).

**Table 5 Types and number of occurrences of Responses**

Teachers	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	Total:
<b>Responses</b>						
<b>RC/-L/-S/-SL</b>	429 (62%)	376 (63%)	386 (78%)	293 (73%)	310 (67%)	<b>1794 (68%)</b>
<b>RI/-L/-S/-SL</b>	61 (9%)	91 (15%)	41 (8%)	27 (7%)	34 (7%)	<b>254 (10%)</b>
<b>RT/-L</b>	56 (8%)	20 (3%)	7 (1%)	11 (3%)	69 (15%)	<b>163 (6%)</b>
<b>RPC/-L/-S</b>	60 (9%)	47 (8%)	11 (2%)	29 (7%)	13 (3%)	<b>160 (6%)</b>
<b>RIN/-L/-S</b>	18 (3%)	44 (7%)	29 (6%)	22 (5%)	5 (1%)	<b>118 (4%)</b>
<b>RP/-L/-S</b>	53 (8%)	11 (2%)	13 (3%)	8 (2%)	12 (3%)	<b>97 (4%)</b>
<b>RN</b>	7 (1%)	8 (1%)	4 (1%)	10 (2%)	10 (2%)	<b>39 (1%)</b>
<b>RA/-L/-S/-SL</b>	5 (1%)	1 (0%)	1 (0%)	0 (0%)	11 (2%)	<b>18 (1%)</b>
<b>RPR</b>	1 (0%)	1 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (0%)	0 (0%)	<b>3 (0%)</b>
<b>Total:</b>	<b>690 (100%)</b>	<b>599 (100%)</b>	<b>492 (100%)</b>	<b>401 (100%)</b>	<b>464 (100%)</b>	<b>2646 (100%)</b>

Notes:

RC: Response Correct; RI: Response Incorrect/Inappropriate; RT: Response Teacher; RPC: Response Partially Correct; RIN: Response Incomplete; RP: Response Processes; RN: Response No; RA: Response Agreement; RPR: Response Peer

The most common type of response is the 'correct response' (RC) (68%). 'Correct responses' are provided to the teacher by an individual or a group of learners. The large number of 'correct responses' shows that the activities correspond to the current level of learners and the teaching techniques are most probably effective. Teachers, most probably through diagnostic or other types of assessment, seem to be aware of the learners' level of achievement and adjust their questions and activities accordingly. As a result, the majority of learners' answers are correct. On the other hand, one can argue that the questions were too easy for the learners and that is the reason for the increased number of 'correct

responses'. However, this is not the case for the observed lessons as according to the classroom observations the learners were motivated by the questions and activities during the lessons and did not seem unmotivated or uninterested due to the low level of instruction.

It is important to note that only 100% correct responses were recorded as 'correct'. Other categories included 'incorrect', 'partially correct', or 'incomplete responses'. The next most common type of learners' response is the 'incorrect' response (RI) (10%) provided either by an individual or a group of learners. 'Incorrect' responses show the unsuccessful attempt of learners to provide the desired answer. The other two categories are 'partially correct' (RPC) (6%) and 'incomplete' (RIN) (4%) responses. The difference between the last two categories is that in the case of the 'partially correct' response the learner provides a 'correct' response with a single mistake in it, whereas in 'incomplete' response the learner clearly provides an incomplete answer. Despite their small number of instances, unsuccessful responses ('incorrect', 'partially correct', and 'incomplete') were identified in all lessons and in most activities. Learners seem to try to respond even if they were not sure for their answer. This is important in the learning process as learners interact with the teacher and with each other and learn through their mistakes. Furthermore, unsuccessful response is the stimulus for 'corrective' and 'formative' feedback by the teacher and possible 'uptake' by the learner. Therefore, opportunities for learning after receiving incorrect response still exist and should be used by teachers.

Other types of responses are: the 'agreement' response (RA) (1%), where learners show agreement to teachers' 'confirmation' questions and the 'no' response (RN) (1%) where learners are unable or unwilling to answer teachers' questions. These two types of responses provide little information in the form of feedback to teachers and are not very helpful in the learning process. A reason likely to stimulate such responses is the type of questions asked by the teachers. Reformulation of the question will decrease this type of responses and the lack of learning opportunities.

Moreover, learners' responses relevant to classroom procedures (RP) (n=97) and 'teachers'' responses (RT) (6%) to learners' questions, are two additional types of responses. Responses 'relevant to processes' are not very helpful in the promotion of learning and assessing learners' competence, since important lesson time is wasted. This is another type of response resulting from initiation non-related to learning. The starting point should not be 'initiation related to processes' by the teachers or another learner. However,



the relatively large number of instances where teachers responded to learners' questions shows that teachers not only encourage learners to participate and ask questions during the lesson, but also care about their needs and questions and reply. This form of feedback is important in the FA assessment process as teachers have the opportunity to provide specific feedback on what learners asked for. Through this interaction teachers seem to create a safe environment for the learners to ask questions as they assure that a learner will get a response by the teacher. This is important for learners' confidence and engagement in the learning process.

#### 4.2.3 Feedback

The large number of 'correct responses' has an impact on the type of feedback provided to learners. It seems that feedback on correct responses is used more often than feedback on incorrect answers ('corrective feedback'). This is due to the fact that the number of 'correct responses' was much larger than the number of unsuccessful responses. It seems that teachers provided feedback to learners after receiving a successful or unsuccessful response either to confirm and expand their knowledge or to correct it. According to Waring (2008), feedback on correct answers can be beneficial for learners if teachers involve learners in extended interactions in order to explore their understandings. The following table shows the types of feedback used and their frequencies.

**Table 6 Types and number of occurrences of Feedback**

Teachers Feedback	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	Total:
FR/-L/-W	209 (28%)	236 (33%)	148 (35%)	108 (29%)	78 (17%)	<b>779 (29%)</b>
FD/-L/-LW/-W	100 (13%)	46 (6%)	60 (14%)	41 (11%)	57 (12%)	<b>304 (11%)</b>
FEV/-L/-W	67 (9%)	54 (7%)	42 (10%)	56 (15%)	59 (13%)	<b>278 (10%)</b>
FCR	54 (7%)	77 (11%)	23 (5%)	20 (5%)	6 (1%)	<b>180 (7%)</b>
FM/-L	33 (4%)	34 (5%)	18 (4%)	27 (7%)	48 (11%)	<b>160 (6%)</b>
FCE/-L/-W	36 (5%)	59 (8%)	24 (6%)	21 (6%)	7 (2%)	<b>147 (5%)</b>
FCM/-L	53 (7%)	48 (7%)	14 (3%)	18 (5%)	13 (3%)	<b>146 (5%)</b>
FMO/-L	36 (5%)	16 (2%)	9 (2%)	13 (4%)	26 (6%)	<b>100 (4%)</b>
FCEV/L	22 (3%)	47 (6%)	15 (4%)	1 (0%)	9 (2%)	<b>94 (3%)</b>
FT	11 (1%)	6 (1%)	3 (1%)	2 (1%)	59 (13%)	<b>81 (3%)</b>
FCEC/-L/-W	15 (2%)	17 (2%)	11 (3%)	16 (4%)	16 (4%)	<b>75 (3%)</b>
FEL	14 (2%)	20 (3%)	17 (4%)	6 (2%)	2 (0%)	<b>59 (2%)</b>
FC/-L	28 (4%)	13 (2%)	3 (1%)	7 (2%)	0 (0%)	<b>51 (2%)</b>

<b>FST/-L/-W</b>	32 (4%)	4 (1%)	2 (0%)	7 (2%)	4 (1%)	<b>49 (2%)</b>
<b>FRR/L</b>	3 (0%)	13 (2%)	14 (3%)	4 (1%)	6 (1%)	<b>40 (1%)</b>
<b>FPR/-L/-S</b>	5 (1%)	5 (1%)	1 (0%)	4 (1%)	12 (3%)	<b>27 (1%)</b>
<b>FS/L</b>	2 (0%)	6 (1%)	2 (0%)	0 (0%)	15 (3%)	<b>25 (1%)</b>
<b>FCP/-L/-S</b>	6 (1%)	6 (1%)	0 (0%)	5 (1%)	2 (0%)	<b>19 (1%)</b>
<b>FE/-L</b>	2 (0%)	4 (1%)	9 (2%)	4 (1%)	0 (0%)	<b>19 (1%)</b>
<b>FCC/-L</b>	9 (1%)	2 (0%)	4 (1%)	1 (0%)	1 (0%)	<b>17 (1%)</b>
<b>FCL/-L</b>	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	16 (4%)	<b>16 (1%)</b>
<b>FCRP/W</b>	6 (1%)	4 (1%)	2 (0%)	4 (1%)	0 (0%)	<b>16 (1%)</b>
<b>FDE/-L</b>	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	12 (3%)	<b>12 (0%)</b>
<b>FW/-L</b>	0 (0%)	7 (1%)	0 (0%)	3 (1%)	1 (0%)	<b>11 (0%)</b>
<b>FP</b>	1 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	5 (1%)	<b>6 (0%)</b>
<b>FSA/L</b>	1 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (0%)	<b>2 (0%)</b>
<b>SR</b>	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (0%)	<b>2 (0%)</b>
<b>Total:</b>	<b>745</b> <b>(100%)</b>	<b>724</b> <b>(100%)</b>	<b>421</b> <b>(100%)</b>	<b>368</b> <b>(100%)</b>	<b>457</b> <b>(100%)</b>	<b>2715</b> <b>(100%)</b>

Note:

FR: Feedback Repetition; FD: Feedback Descriptive; FEV: Feedback Evaluative/Confirmatory; FCR: Feedback Corrective Recast; FM: Feedback Metalinguistic; FCE: Feedback Corrective Elicitation; FCM: Feedback Corrective Metalinguistic; FMO: Feedback Modelling; FCEV: Feedback Evaluative Incorrect; FT: Feedback Translation; FCEC: Feedback Corrective Explicit Correction; FEL: Feedback Elicitation; FC: Feedback Clarification Request; FST: Feedback Strategies; FRR: Feedback Repetition of the Question; FPR: Feedback Peer; FS: Feedback Self; FCP: Feedback Corrective Peer; FE: Feedback Explanatory; FCC: Feedback Corrective Clarification Request; FCL: Feedback Clue; FCRP: Feedback Corrective Repetition; FDE: Feedback Development; FW: Feedback Work; FP: Feedback Processes; FSA: Feedback Self-Assessment; SR: Self-Regulation

The most popular type of feedback that teachers use is the ‘evaluative’ feedback (FEV) (10%) on learners’ correct answers<sup>4</sup>. More specifically, teachers use ‘feedback repetition’ (FR) (29%), a type of ‘evaluative’ feedback, where they repeat learners’ correct answers more times than any other type of feedback. These types of feedback are necessary in confirming learners’ answers and rewarding learners’ successful attempt, but they do not seem to extend learners’ horizons. Learners would benefit more if the feedback provided by the teachers extended the interaction through examples or further elaboration on the particular topic discussed.

Other types of feedback on correct answers include ‘descriptive’ feedback (FD) (11%) and ‘metalinguistic’ feedback (FM) (6%) which aim to broaden learners’

<sup>4</sup> See descriptions of different types of feedback in Section 2.7.6 and Appendix E.

understanding through examples and extended discussion. Thus, these types of feedback provide opportunities for improving learners' achievement. Modelling the desired answer (FMO) (4%) is another important type of feedback for the process of FA, as it explicitly clarifies the success criteria and makes learners aware of how they should perform. 'Translation' feedback (FT) (3%) seems not to be used extensively despite the fact that it is an easy and quick way to help learners. This shows that teachers preferred to use the target language rather than resorting to translation of the words. This practice is in line with the Input Hypothesis theory by Krashen (1985) (see Section 2.7.4). 'Elicitation' feedback (FEL) (2%) was used to verify learners' correct answer after a correct answer has already been elicited and indicates that teachers used this technique to clarify and confirm the previously correct answer provided by the learner.

On the other hand, feedback on incorrect answers ('corrective feedback') and more specifically 'recasts' (FCR) (7%) is an 'implicit' type of corrective feedback and the teachers' favourite type. 'Recast' is provided when teachers correct learners' mistakes without emphasizing the mistakes. The tendency of teachers to use 'recasts' is also evident in the literature as other studies found 'recasts' as the most used 'corrective' feedback type (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004) (see Section 2.6.6.) and it seems that it is an easy and popular way to correct learners' mistakes. Whether 'recasts' is the best possible way to correct learners is not straight forward in the literature (Sheen, 2008). Their appropriate use, though, seems to benefit learning and language acquisition as they contribute to the production of learners' uptake (see Section 2.6.7).

The next most popular corrective feedback types are the feedback 'corrective elicitation' (FCE) (5%), where teachers use elicitation techniques to retrieve the correct answer from learners, and the 'corrective metalinguistic' feedback (FCM) (5%), where teachers provide comments and questions to help learners find the correct answer (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). 'Corrective Metalinguistic' feedback aims to the constructive interaction between learners and teachers where learners will implicitly realise that their answer is incorrect and at the same time receive information on how to correct their mistake. The reaction of learners on these types of feedback is very interesting and is therefore qualitatively analysed in the next section.

On the other hand, 'evaluative feedback on incorrect answers' (FCEV) (3%) does not provide a lot of opportunities to learners to improve or correct their answer and 'explicit correction' feedback (FCEC) (3%) does not give learners a second chance to

correct their answer. Both types are easy to use and effective in the correction of learners' 'incorrect answers', but they are not effective in the promotion of learning and language acquisition. This is also evident in Table 7 as these types of feedback were not as effective as other types of feedback in the production of 'uptake'. Learners realise that their answer is not approved and either receive the correction of their answer without having a second chance to correct the answer, or show some evidence of understanding their mistake or the correction.

#### 4.2.4 Uptake

The purpose of corrective feedback is the 'successful uptake' by the learners, which is the correction of their incorrect answer. 'Uptake' is not always successful, thus many categories of uptake were created according to their level of success (see Table 7).

**Table 7 Types and number of occurrences of Uptake**

Teachers	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	Total:
<b>Uptake</b>						
<b>URG/-I/-L/-R/-S/-W</b>	110 (71%)	63 (48%)	21 (57%)	23 (51%)	7 (64%)	<b>224 (59%)</b>
<b>URN/-L/-S</b>	14 (9%)	33 (25%)	9 (24%)	17 (38%)	3 (27%)	<b>76 (20%)</b>
<b>UNO</b>	23 (15%)	16 (12%)	4 (11%)	2 (4%)	1 (9%)	<b>46 (12%)</b>
<b>URS/-I/-L</b>	6 (4%)	6 (5%)	3 (8%)	1 (2%)	0 (0%)	<b>16 (4%)</b>
<b>UI</b>	3 (2%)	9 (7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	<b>12 (3%)</b>
<b>UN</b>	0 (0%)	5 (4%)	0 (0%)	2 (4%)	0 (0%)	<b>7 (2%)</b>
<b>Total:</b>	<b>156 (100%)</b>	<b>132 (100%)</b>	<b>37 (100%)</b>	<b>45(100%)</b>	<b>11 (100%)</b>	<b>381 (100%)</b>

Note:

URG: Uptake repair guided; URN: Uptake repair needs; UNO: Uptake no opportunity; URS: Uptake repair self; UI: Uptake Incomplete; UN: Uptake no

The most successful type of uptake is the 'guided repair' uptake (URG) (59%) where learners find the correct answer after receiving guidance from their teacher. This type of uptake shows the contribution of teachers in the learning process, as learners are now able to correct their previously incorrect answer. Despite the large number of 'corrective feedback types' that teachers use (see Table 6), not all types of corrective feedback are successful in resulting to the correction of learners' mistake (see Table 8). 'Unsuccessful uptake' (URN) (20%) shows that there is room for improvement in the learning process in order to reduce the 'unsuccessful' uptake by choosing more appropriate types of feedback,

e.g. 'feedback corrective elicitations' and 'recasts'. Another indication that successful corrective feedback types should be used is the number of 'incomplete' uptakes (UI) (3%) and 'no' uptakes (UN) (2%). These categories show the need of learners for further support and guidance to find the correct answer. Another interesting finding is that in some cases learners are not given opportunities to provide uptake (UNO) (12%). This was usually the result of corrective 'recasts', 'metalinguistic' feedback, or 'explicit corrective' feedback (see Table 8) where the teacher was correcting the mistake without giving a second chance to the learner to reformulate and correct the answer. Teachers, in order to promote learning and FL/SL, should provide learners with implicit type of feedback. In this way, they give them the opportunity to consider teachers' feedback which is in the form of comments, questions or indications and provide a correct answer. Thus, learners will not just listen or even repeat the ready-made correct answer, but they will try to find the correct answer themselves. This will enhance their understanding regarding the mistake and reduce the possibility of doing the same mistake again.

The next most popular type of uptake is the correction of a mistake by the learners themselves (URS) (4%). This is a very important aspect as 'self-assessment', a FA technique, helped the learners to realise that their first answer is not correct and provide a correct answer without receiving feedback. This shows the self-efficacy of learners to identify and correct their mistakes which is a necessary learners' strategy for life-long learning (Coronado-Aliegro & Schwartz, 2015). In addition, this type of uptake can also be the result of 'implicit corrective' feedback where teachers indicate, but do not correct, the mistake thus giving the opportunity to learners to correct it themselves.

#### **4.2.5 Feedback – Uptake quantitative analysis**

As mentioned earlier, one of the purposes of this study is to provide a framework of FA which demonstrates the processes of FA recorded in this context. In an attempt to inform this framework, further analysis of the 'uptake' and the type of feedback that caused each type of 'uptake' took place. More specifically, analysis was conducted to identify which types of 'corrective feedback' lead to learning, i.e. successful uptakes, and which corrective feedback types are not so effective in the promotion of learning and language acquisition. The results are presented in Table 8.

**Table 8 Findings of Feedback – Uptake Interaction Analysis**

Uptake Type of Corrective Feedback	Repair Guided (URG)	Repair Self (URS)	No Opportunity (UNO)	Incomplete (UI)	Repair Needs (URN)	No (UN)
Metalinguistic	17		8	3	14	
Corrective Evaluative			4		2	
Explicit Correction	11		5		5	2
Recasts	48	0	37		7	1
Elicitations	45	7		6	30	3
Repetition of the Question	2	3			12	

Note: The table includes only the most common types of corrective feedback that preceded each uptake category.

The investigation of the turns preceding the ‘successful’ and ‘unsuccessful’ uptakes was revealing. The results show that ‘successful’ uptakes (‘repair-guided’ and ‘repair-self’) were mostly the result of ‘recasts’ (n=48) and ‘elicitations’ (n=45). Both implicit types of ‘corrective’ feedback seem to be successful in language interaction. However, despite the encouraging results and the positive impact of ‘recasts’ on ‘guided repair’ uptakes, they had zero impact on ‘self-repair’ uptakes. This is a drawback of ‘recasts’ as they do not give the opportunity to learners to find the answer by themselves. In addition, ‘recasts’ is the major reason identified for ‘no opportunity’ uptakes (n=37). In the same way, ‘elicitations’ were effective in ‘guided repair’ (n=45), but, at the same time, they were the corrective feedback type that caused the most ‘unsuccessful’ uptakes (n=30). However, another corrective feedback type which contributed to both categories is ‘metalinguistic corrective’ feedback which caused ‘guided repair’ uptakes (n=17) and ‘repair need’ uptakes (n=14).

These findings were also identified in other studies (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Sakurai, 2014). More specifically, the study of Lyster and Ranta (1997) which examined the ‘corrective’ feedback and learner’s ‘uptake’ found that ‘recasts’ were the most used ‘corrective’ feedback type in the case of ‘no’ uptake, contributed to ‘guided repair’ recasts, and had no impact on ‘repair self’ uptake. In addition, they found that elicitations were equally beneficial for ‘guided-’ and ‘self-’ repair uptake and one of the most popular for the ‘repair needs’ uptake.

Drawing from the results and the relevant SLA literature, it is very interesting to note that there is not one ‘corrective’ feedback type that is responsible for either the successful or unsuccessful uptakes (Csépes, 2016). It seems that there is not a clear conclusion about which ‘corrective’ feedback types lead to learning or not. The results

show that the same feedback type, i.e. ‘recast’ and ‘corrective elicitation’, can be used to either trigger successful uptake or uptake that needs repair. Therefore, it is up to the teachers’ discretion, experience, and ability to choose which feedback type fits their learners best. More investigation to examine how other factors, i.e. ‘questions’, ‘responses’, affect the provision of ‘guided-/self-’ uptake or ‘repair needed’ uptake by learners is very interesting, but is beyond the scope of this research.

The quantitative analysis demonstrates the different categories of classroom interaction used whereas the qualitative analysis of classroom interaction will identify the relationship of FA with the promotion of learning and language acquisition in general.

### **4.3 Qualitative analysis**

The qualitative analysis of the transcriptions aims to provide answers to the research questions pertaining to the FA techniques used by teachers, the types of feedback provided to learners, and whether FA promotes learning. Therefore, this section uses excerpts from the lessons observed, the stimulated recalls, and the semi-structured interviews to provide evidence to the above questions based on the classroom interaction categories of ‘questioning’, ‘response’, ‘feedback’, and ‘uptake’. The particular excerpts were chosen for the presentation of each category as they were the most representative.

#### **4.3.1 Initiation - Teachers’ Questions (classroom observations findings)**

Questioning is the most common way to assess learners’ understanding during a lesson. Questioning plays a significant role in the process of FA as it affects the type of classroom interaction generated during the lessons (Mohr & Mohr, 2007; Tsui, 1995). Based on the framework of analysis (see Appendix E), the most popular categories of questions identified are ‘open’, ‘closed’, ‘referential’, ‘display’, and their combinations e.g. ‘open-display’, ‘open-referential’. Each category will be further discussed and exemplified through the use of excerpts.

##### **4.3.1.1 Closed Questions**

‘Closed-display’ questions (QCD), the most popular type identified in the data (see Table 4), are a common characteristic of teacher-centered classrooms (Lee & Ng, 2009). ‘Closed’ questions are used frequently for the correction of exercises which leads to the assessment of learners’ current achievement. In the data, ‘closed’ questions were helpful to teachers and effective in the learning process as they seem to save time for teachers and help learners to correct their answers. Learners listen to the correct answer and compare it with

their own. Through the ‘self-assessment’ technique, they get involved in the FA process (Asghar, 2010). Furthermore, these questions are also categorised as ‘display’ teachers’ questions as the teachers know the answer beforehand while correcting students’ homework or book exercises. ‘Display’ questions can also be used when learners are asked to provide short answers so that teachers assess whether learners completed the activities correctly. By using ‘closed display’ questions teachers assess learners’ answers on particular areas, e.g. grammar, vocabulary, and move either to the correction of exercises or to teaching the next topic. Therefore, ‘closed display’ questions facilitate the process of FA as it is a quick way of gathering information of learners’ current achievement and this information can be used to inform teaching and learning (Black & Wiliam, 2009).

To exemplify the above, the following excerpt shows the teacher using ‘closed-display’ questions to check learner’s answers. This is an excerpt from the beginning of a lesson during which the teacher corrected a listening activity on Present Simple. The learners were asked to listen to the audio-recording and complete a fill in the gap activity.

**Excerpt 4.1 (T4, p.18, t.9)<sup>5</sup> Example of Closed-Display Questions**

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| (9) Teacher: Let me see if you remember the words! Give me the first verb, the first, yes! | Teacher’s Initiation QCD                                  |
| (10) Sokratis (student): ‘Wash’.   | Learner’s Response Correct                                |
| (11) T: ‘Wash’! In second paragraph, give me the second verb, only the verb! Yes!          | Teacher’s Feedback Repetition<br>Teacher’s Initiation QCD |
| (12) S: ‘Brush’.   | Learner’s Response Correct                                |
| (13) T: Yes, thank you! Nepheli! ‘Brush’!  | Teacher’s Feedback Repetition                             |
| In the third paragraph, give me the third verb!<br>Yes! Charalambos!                       | Teacher’s Initiation QCD                                  |
| (14) C: ‘Put on’.  | Learner’s Response Incorrect                              |

In this excerpt, the teacher looks for a single answer and explicitly asks for a verb. The teacher asks a ‘closed-display’ question in turn 9 and a student responds correctly (Turns 10, 12). The teacher then provides feedback in the form of repetition to confirm the answer (e.g. “wash”) and moves to the next question (e.g. In second paragraph...Yes!). The teacher emphasises the fact that she looks for a single word answer by reminding the students that she looks for the verb only. She seems to save time and corrects only the single word required by the exercise. However, ‘closed’ questions demand low level

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<sup>5</sup> T4, p.18, t.9: Teacher 4, lesson observed 18, turn 9



cognitive activity, according to the literature (Smith & Higgins, 2006), and using only ‘closed’ questions is not the recommended practice. Teachers need to be aware of that and perhaps, after receiving training, try to introduce other types of questions too which stimulate higher cognitive skills.

Moreover, there are instances where teachers ask ‘closed’ questions without knowing the answer. This type of questions is coded as ‘closed-referential’ question (QCR) and is another way to gather assessment information to be used further by the teacher in the FA process. According to Long and Sato (1983), ‘referential’ questions stimulate much longer and syntactically complex responses than ‘display’ questions. ‘Closed-referential’ questions stimulate learners’ interest as they have the opportunity to express themselves and talk about their experiences, feelings, and interests. Thus, it is a great opportunity for teachers to prompt learners to use the target language by elaborating on their thoughts based on their experiences and at the same time assess the quality of learners’ product.

The following excerpt exemplifies the above as the teacher introduces the expression ‘Would you like to...’. Through ‘closed referential’ questions, she asks learners to answer correctly. The teacher mentioned earlier that she brought a lamp with her in the classroom and introduced the concept of a lamp and a genie. The lesson became more interesting when the teacher asked learners to make a wish, which of course was unknown to the teacher. In this way, she engaged learners in an interaction with the genie where they had to say whether they would like to have or become different things.

#### **Excerpt 4.2 (T4, p.16, t.102) Example of Closed-Referential Questions**

(102) T: Would you like to become a doctor, Sokratis?	Teacher’s Initiation QCR
(103) So: Doctor eehh.. No!	Learner’s Response Incomplete
(104) T: No?	Teacher’s Feedback Corrective Repetition
(105) S: Please!	Learner’s Uptake Repair Needs
(106) T: No, thank you! No!	Teacher’s Feedback Explicit Correction
Would you like to go to the cinema, Nepheli?	Teacher’s Initiation QCR
(107) N: Yes, please.	Learner’s Response Correct
(108) T: Ah yes, please!	Teacher’s Feedback Repetition
Would you like to would you like to go to the zoo, Alexia?	Teacher’s Initiation QCR

(109) A: Yes, please.	Learner's Response Correct
(110) T: Ah yes, please!	Teacher's Feedback Repetition
Would you like to go to the doctor? You don't look very well today Alexia, would you like to go to the doctor?	Teacher's Initiation QCR
(111) A: No, thank you!	Learner's Response Correct
(112) T: Ah No, thank you. She doesn't want to. Ok. Now.	Teacher's Feedback Metalinguistic

The teacher asks 'closed referential' questions (Turns 102, 106, 108, 110) and indicates the right way of responding to these questions by explicitly correcting the learners (Turn 106) who responded unsuccessfully (Turns 103 and 105). Then, the teacher asks two more learners who respond correctly (Turn 107 and 108). In this learning episode, it seems that closed questions are effectively used, as the teacher's intention was to introduce the two possible ways of answering this kind of questions, i.e., 'Yes, Please' and 'No, thank you'. In addition, 'referential' questions are also used as learners are able to respond based on their personal experiences and preferences which are unknown to the teacher. Thus, the teacher used 'closed referential' questions to assess whether learners' could answer correctly. It is evident that the teacher in this learning episode followed FA principles since when she received incorrect responses she did not move to the next learner. She insisted on the incorrect response and, by providing first 'implicit' and then 'explicit' corrective feedback (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994), gave the correct answer to the learner. Teachers' feedback probably worked as a model for the other learners to answer correctly (Stiggins, 2005). The data also showed that other instances of 'closed referential' questions referred to learners' everyday program or their personal life.

#### 4.3.1.2 Open Questions

'Open questions', in contrast with 'closed questions', were mainly used in the introduction of the lessons when teachers presented and elaborated on a new topic. Teachers used this type of questions frequently (see Table 4). 'Open' questions facilitated the FA process as they were used to assess learners' previous knowledge and teachers could adjust the teaching of the new content accordingly. In the following excerpt, the teacher starts the lesson by introducing/revising the parts of the house using a power point presentation. The teacher shows different slides of the rooms of a house and learners are asked to use the expression 'There is...' or 'There are...' to describe what they see. After referring to all parts of the house, a picture of a kitchen is presented and the teacher asks learners to identify what they see in the open fridge.

### Excerpt 4.3 (T2, p.9, t.95) Example of Open-Display Questions

(95) T: Very nice!	Teacher's Feedback Evaluative
Now, let's move back to the kitchen! What might be in this fridge? What food is there in this fridge?	Teacher's Initiation (QOD)
(96) S: Eggs!	Learner's Response Correct
(97) T: Eggs! What else?	Teacher's Feedback Descriptive
(98) S: Chicken?	Learner's Response Correct
(99) T: Chicken!	Teacher's Feedback Repetition
[...]	
(106) I: Apple	Learner's Response Correct
(107) T: Apples?	Teacher's Feedback Repetition
(108) S: Fruits!	Learner's Response Correct
(109) T: Fruits apples are fruits!	Teacher's Feedback Metalinguistic
What other fruits do you know except apples?	Teacher's Initiation QOD
(110) S: Ehh... bananas!	Learner's Response Correct
(111) T: Bananas	Teacher's Feedback Repetition
What else?	Teacher's Feedback Descriptive
(112) S: Coconut!	Learner's Response Correct
(113) T: Coconut? Hmm hm.	Teacher's Feedback Repetition

The teacher initiates this learning episode by asking an 'open-ended' question (Turn 95), learners respond correctly (Turns 96 and 98) and the teacher repeats the answer. The same pattern continues up to the point that a learner provides 'fruits' as an answer (Turn 108). The teacher provides metalinguistic feedback and categorises apples as fruits (Turn 109) and extends learners' knowledge by asking them another 'open-display' question based on the learner's answer (Turn 109). This type of question, which can also be categorised as 'descriptive' feedback, requires of learners to choose one fruit they know and say it to the teacher (Turn 111). During the assessment process in the above excerpt (Turns 95-111), this type of question gives the opportunity of participation to more learners as more than one answers is accepted. In this way, more learners are engaged in the learning process and have the opportunity to express themselves in the target language. Furthermore, it can be argued that 'open display' questions work in the same way as 'descriptive' feedback where the teacher asks the learners to provide more answers or examples, as there are many

correct answers (Turns 97 and 109) (see Section 2.6.6). Despite the fact that teachers know and expect particular responses by the learners, these questions are important for the FA process as they provide information to the teacher about their achievement and signal the need for revision or the continuation of the lesson.

‘Open-referential’ questions (QOR) have a lot of correct answers that the teacher is not aware of. This type of questions is usually used for open classroom interactions that move beyond the IRF pattern. This type of questions is also in line with the ‘divergent’ type of FA which deviates from the IRF pattern and aims at helping learners in the learning process (Pryor & Crossouard, 2008). QOR give the opportunity to the learners to provide complete and elaborated answers (see Section 2.6.3). However, this type of extended responses by the learners were not found in the data although many instances of QOR occurred (n=175, see Table 4).

In the following excerpt, the teacher asks year two learners to express their feelings after a storytelling activity and say which part of the story is their favourite.

**Excerpt 4.4 (T5, p.20, t.238) Example of Open-Referential Questions (QOR)**

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| (238) T: Ok, it was a really nice story! Ήταν πολύ ωραία ιστορία ( <i>It was a really nice story</i> ). What did you like the most? Τι σας άρεσε περισσότερο; ( <i>What did you like the most?</i> ). What did you like? Κάποιες λεξούλες θέλω να μου πείτε. ( <i>I want you to tell me some words</i> ). Did you like... did you like the mud? Άρεσε σας η λάσπη θέλατε να βουτήξετε μέσα; ( <i>Did you like the mud? Did you want to dive in?</i> ) What did you like? | Teacher’s Initiation QOR   |
| (239) S: The mud!  | Learner’s Response Correct   |
| (240) T: Ok. I accept both Greek and English. Είτε στα Ελληνικά θέλετε να μου πείτε είτε στα Αγγλικά ( <i>If you want to say it in Greek or English</i> ) I accept both. What did you like? Τι σας άρεσε; Τι σας άρεσε; ( <i>What did you like? What did you like?</i> )   | Teacher’s Initiation Learning Objectives<br>Teacher’s Initiation QOR |
| (241) S: Grass!  | Learner’s Response Correct   |
| (242) T: The grass! He liked the grass. That bit, Raphael?   | Teacher’s Feedback Repetition<br>Teacher’s Initiation QOR            |
| (243) R: The river!  | Learner’s Response Correct   |
| (244) T: The river was cold, Raphael. It was really cold. Vangeli?   | Teacher’s Feedback Metalinguistic<br>Teacher’s Initiation QOR        |

(245) V: Bear!

Learner's Response Correct

(246) T: You liked? I liked the bear as well man! He was my favourite. Come on! Look at him! You really need to take a closer look at this guy!

Teacher's Feedback Metalinguistic

The teacher uses 'open-ended' questions to give the opportunity to the learners to describe their favourite part of the story (Turns 238, 240, 242 and 244) and at the same time 'referential' questions as the answer is unknown to the teacher. Afterwards, the teacher repeats the responses and elaborates with short comments based on the learners' answers (Turns 242 and 244). The teacher in turn 238 shared the success criteria with the learners, a FA technique (William, 2011), and then asked a QOR question. In addition, QOR questions in this learning episode seem to facilitate the FA process as they assess whether learners understood the story and their ability to use the right vocabulary and express their preference regarding the story. Despite the fact that this type of questions should provide extended interactions, the responses provided are very short (Nunan, 1987). This is probably due to the young age of learners and is in line with the findings of a study (Wu, 1993) which supports that 'referential' questions do not necessarily lead to open interactions or higher quality student language use. However, this cannot be considered as a drawback of teaching and learning as even short answers prove that learners understood what was required of them and answered successfully.

Furthermore, this excerpt demonstrates the use of L1 by the teacher (Turns 238 and 240). More specifically, the teacher translates certain parts of her instructions in order to be comprehensible to learners. It is evident that the teacher uses 'translation', a type of feedback which is a FA technique, to help learners understand the instructions and have a clear view of what the success criteria are for this activity. All types of questions articulated in L1 were coded differently from those articulated in the target language in order to examine which language is more preferable to teachers and whether the use of either L1 or L2 affects the way they assess learners' achievement. By using both languages, the teacher makes it clear to learners that they can provide answers in both languages. This also signifies a content-centered rather than language-centered focus of the teacher. Similar instances were coded in other lessons as well, where the teachers seem to prioritise content over language.

#### **4.3.1.3 Teachers' Questions (stimulated recall findings)**

This section further investigates teachers' beliefs on questioning and the reasons they use questioning. Teachers stated that they ask questions mostly for revision and assessment

purposes and for the introduction of a new lesson. The most popular reasons for asking questions will be presented and analysed in depth through stimulated recall excerpts in order to further examine teachers' perceptions of questioning.

Teachers frequently stated that they ask questions for 'revision' purposes. Revision can be considered a form of assessment and more specifically 'diagnostic' assessment (Doe, 2011; Huhta, 2008), as students are asked to recall what they have been previously taught. During the stimulated recalls a variety of revision instances were identified by the teachers and the researcher. For example, teachers asked learners to revise the numbers, colours, types of food, animals, the days of the week, as well as other areas previously taught like the rooms of the house and how to present their self. The possible inability of learners to recall previously taught vocabulary is probably an indication that further instruction and adaption of activities to learners' current knowledge is necessary. Thus, teachers can formatively assess and adjust instruction based on learners' answers. The following excerpt shows a teacher's comment during the stimulated recall where she asked learners to revise the numbers. The teacher was asked to elaborate on a revision activity of the numbers.

#### **Excerpt 4.5 (T4, p.17, t.20) Example of Question/Revision**

- (20) Researcher: Now, we see that you ask from the learners to count... The teacher asks learners questions on previous taught matter for revision purposes.
- (21) Teacher: Yes! The numbers from 0 to 20.
- (22) R: Hm, hm!
- (23) T: We are doing a short revision as they have already acquired this knowledge since last year.
- (24) R: Certainly!
- (25) T: I just wanted to link to the tens later on 10, 20, 30 in order to learn how to count. The teacher's purpose is to construct new knowledge on pre-existing knowledge.
- (26) R: Nice!
- (27) T: Up to... up to one hundred.
- (28) R: Up to 20 is from the previous year.
- (29) T: From the previous year, yes!
- (30) R: So, the new, the new...
- (31) T: The new knowledge is from 10 to 100.

The teacher's aim was first to assess previous knowledge through question for revision purposes and then to construct new knowledge based on learners' previous knowledge. In other words, the teacher through the process of FA elicits assessment information to adjust instruction in order to reach the learning objective, i.e. count from 10-100. Therefore, questioning for revision purposes is a way to revise the subject matter with learners and assess their previous knowledge. In addition, it is a way to introduce a new linguistic phenomenon and build new knowledge based on pre-existing schemata. This is in line with the constructivist or Piagetian approach of learning where emphasis is placed "on the computational processes that happen in the brain" (Lier, 2000, p. 254). This type of questioning facilitates a number of functions, such as reminding learners of something, assessing learners' understanding, connecting previous knowledge with new and introducing the new lesson. Furthermore, teachers believe that revision is very important and helpful for learning and should be presented through a variety of activities, e.g. games.

In the stimulated recall data, another category of questioning is questioning for 'assessment' purposes. Teachers explained that the reason for asking particular questions was to assess learners' understanding. As it can be seen in Excerpt 4.11, these questions for assessment purposes can be categorised in other subcategories, e.g. 'assessment to motivate learners', or 'assessment to introduce a new lesson or activity successfully'.

Teachers provide a wide range of reasons to show that questioning for 'assessment purposes' was necessary during the lessons, e.g. to check if the learners know or remember something (see Excerpt 4.11). The purpose of questioning 'for assessment purposes' is to assess learners' previous knowledge in order to adjust her teaching based on learners' abilities. This type of questioning is closely related with and can be used as a tool for 'Diagnostic assessment' (see Section 2.4) which usually occurs at the beginning of or before the lesson and aims at examining previous knowledge (Alderson, 2005). By using questions to assess learners' knowledge beforehand or at the beginning of the lesson, teachers use the results of the assessment process (learners' responses in this case) to improve teaching and learning, by adjusting their instruction according to learners' current needs, promote learning, or even use this information in order to form ability groups of a class. The following excerpt from the stimulated recalls is about the introduction of a new lesson on countries and nationalities where the teacher assesses learners' background knowledge.

#### Excerpt 4.6 (T1, p.6, t.25) Example of Question/Assessment

(25) T: To find out whether they can guess the theme, I write various letters on the board and they have to find which country the letters form. The teacher asks learners to find the name of a country using the mixed letters written on the board in order to introduce the new lesson.

(26) R: A country...

(27) T: I started with Cyprus, easy.

(28) R: So, this is an introduction of the new lesson. Does it relate to the previous lesson or is it an introduction to the new lesson?

(29) T: It is the introduction of the new one, yes!

(30) R: Certainly!

(31) R: Now, with various questions...

The teacher assesses learners' background knowledge through questions.

(32) T: To see...

(33) R: Are you exploring their knowledge now?

(34) T: Certainly! Yes!

(35) R: Yes, introduction I suppose again right?

(36) T: Yes, to see what knowledge they will bring in today's lesson.

(37) R: UK! What is UK? Is it to...?

The teacher asks a question to check whether learners know what the initials UK mean.

(38) T: It is yes, to check whether they know the meaning of the initials.

(39) R: Certainly!

The teacher argues that she asks questions for assessment purposes to assess learners' previous knowledge and check "what knowledge they will bring in today's lesson" (Turn 36). The reason for asking assessment questions is to adjust her teaching based on learners' abilities. The information received is important for the new lesson content and teaching manner.

In addition, questions for assessment purposes were categorised differently when their purpose was to 'introduce' a new lesson, or a new activity. Teachers used games, puppets, power point presentations, and storytelling to ask assessment related questions. As evident in Excerpt 4.11, the teacher initiates the new lesson through a game and a set of questions in order to attract their interest, check their previous understanding, and introduce what the new lesson is going to be about.



Furthermore, when teachers check previous knowledge, they also assess what learners know from their previous lesson. They also check whether learners are adequately prepared for the lesson, e.g. for the projects, as well as comprehension and vocabulary. In Excerpt 4.7, the teacher explains that the reason for asking questions was to check whether learners did their homework, i.e. take decisions about their projects.

#### **Excerpt 4.7 (T1, p.1, t.64) Example of Question/Assessment**

(64) T: To check how many, ehh, they had to start thinking about their project in the last lesson, about the person they want to study, the approach they would like to follow, the source of information to answer the questions, what questions shall they ask the famous person.

The teacher asks questions to check whether learners came adequately prepared for the lesson.

Additionally, teachers asked assessment related questions to assess if learners can successfully perform a task, form questions, or use complete sentences. Excerpt 4.8 illustrates the expectation of the teacher when she asked learners to use complete sentences while using the expression 'There is' and 'There are'.

#### **Excerpt 4.8 (T2, p.9, t.49) Example of Question/Assessment**

(49) R: We see that without helping learners, without saying there is or there are, you must just say complete sentence, they respond and answer.

The teacher asks learners to provide complete sentences for answers and the learners respond accordingly.

(50) T: Yes, yes, yes, in complete sentences.

(51) R: This is what you ask right?

(52) T: Hm, hm!

From the above two excerpts it seems that teachers are concerned with learners' background knowledge and with their ability to use target language appropriately in order to communicate effectively and meet the lesson's learning objectives. Therefore, 'assessment questions' facilitated continuous assessment of learners during the lessons to gather information about learners' current achievement. Thus, assessment related questions can be used to assess previous knowledge, to assess something taught during the lesson, and to assess whether learners can use something in the future. This is in line with the trilogy of feedback suggested by Hattie and Timperley (2007) according to which, three questions represent the function of feedback in learning, i.e. 'Where am I going?', 'How am I going', and 'Where to next'. Drawing from the data, teachers also used assessment

questions to retrieve assessment information to be used for the provision of formative feedback and guide the learners towards learning.

Furthermore, teachers referred to other reasons for asking assessment related questions too, e.g. to check if learners listened, understood, and followed the instructions and if they were paying enough attention during the lesson. In the following excerpt, the teacher refers to the questions that were asked after completing a story telling activity. The teacher explains the reason for asking specific questions at the end of the story.

#### **Excerpt 4.9 (T4, p.17, t.170) Example of Question/Assessment**

(170) R: Hm, Hm! yea, the reason for the questions at the end is...

The teacher asks questions to check what learners have learned and whether they were paying attention to her.

(171) T: To check which words they acquired and to check whether they were paying attention.

Through this type of questions the teacher assesses what learners have understood after a certain activity. This is important information for FA as the teachers use this information to adjust the next steps of instruction (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Stiggins, 2002; Torrance, 2001). The importance of assessment questions was evident in the data where teachers stated that these questions facilitate language acquisition and involve all learners in the learning process. Therefore, assessment related questions have many functions and provide teachers with information regarding learners' previous and current level of achievement and facilitate the planning of the next lessons that follow.

#### **4.3.1.4 Other types of Initiation (classroom observations findings)**

Questioning is not the only type of initiation used by teachers. Other forms of initiation are also used. The teaching of a new language phenomenon, the implicit or explicit reference to the learning objectives, the teachers' motivation of learners to participate in the classroom interaction, and the provision of instructions to learners are some of the ways that teachers use to initiate learning episodes. The aforementioned types of initiation were coded independently to investigate their contribution in the FA process. The following excerpts provide examples of these types of initiation and show their relationship with FA.

In excerpt 4.10, the teacher, after assessing learners and realizing that the learners did not know the word 'through', uses different types of initiation to introduce the meaning of the new word before proceeding to the following activities. The teacher presents a picture showing a lion jumping through a hoop. The teacher tries to prompt the learners to

find the new word, e.g. ‘through’, but after receiving incorrect answers, she proceeds with presenting the meaning of the new word using L1 when necessary.

#### **Excerpt 4.10 (T5, p.20, t.137) Examples of Teacher’s Teaching and Processes**

##### **Initiation**

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| (137) T: Ah! That’s right. Good job buddy!  | Teacher’s Feedback Self                      |
| (138) T: Λουπόν! (So!) The lion jumps through που μέσα από ένα στεφάνι πηδά από μέσα εντάξει πάει από μέσα (through a hoop jumps through). Είδατε τον; (Have you seen him?) Lion! Τι όμορφα και τι καλά που το κάμνει; Είδατε τον; Δεν πάει... (How nicely and successfully he does this? He doesn’t go..)  | Teacher’s Initiation Teaching-Language       |
| (139) S: Είναι λίγο τεμπέλης! (He is a bit lazy!)   | Learner’s Initiation Irrelevant              |
| (140) T: Δεν είναι τεμπέλης! (He is not lazy!). Δουλεύει στο τσίρκο, έχει οικογένεια αγάπη μου (He works at the circus, he has a family my dear). Δουλεύει όλη μέρα τούτος ο κύριος Lion (Mr. Lion works all day long). Mr. Lion works day and night δουλεύει πολύ σκληρά για την οικογένεια του (works too hard for his family). Και δέστε τον τι καλά που δουλεύει! (Check how nicely he works!). | Teacher’s Response                           |
| (141) He doesn’t go under the hoop, he doesn’t go over the hoop, he goes through the hoop! Ha? Ok guys?   | Teacher’s Initiation Teaching                |
| (142) So, are we ready? We are going to listen to a story.  | Teacher’s Initiation Expectation/Instruction |
| (143) No, Ifigenia! We need to close that! You too! Ee Mr. Marios you close that too! Right! You don’t need your books, you don’t need a single thing just eyes on me and keep your ears open! Come on, close your book! Close your book! That’s it. Good job! That’s it. I found something on the internet about this movie here and...<br><i>CD playing</i>                                       | Teacher’s Initiation Processes               |
| (144) T: These are main characters ok? Τούτοι είναι οι χαρακτήρες της ιστορίας μας να τους κι’ εδώ! Ναι, Ifigeneia; (These are our story’s characters, here they are, right Ifigeneia?). Yes!   | Teacher’s Initiation Teaching-Language       |

The teacher introduces the new word herself, through body language and use of L1, after giving the opportunity to learners to find it alone (Turn 138). An irrelevant to the lesson discussion was made between a learner and the teacher (Turns 139 and 140) and then the teacher explains further the new word. The instances of teachers’ initiation (Turn 138 and

Turn 144) are coded as teacher's teaching, as teachers provide new knowledge and information to learners. This type of initiation is usually short and is used regularly by teachers when they want to explain a new grammatical phenomenon, or introduce new vocabulary. This learning episode is the result of the FA process where the teacher realised that learners did not know the meaning of a word. The teacher through body language and a short revision/teaching session (Turn 141), in the form of formative feedback, promoted their understanding and level of achievement.

On the other hand, other types of initiation which do not have a direct relationship with the learning process, such as instructions, or comments related to behavior, or classroom management are considered to be irrelevant to the process of FA, to the learning process, and to the purpose of this study in general, and are therefore coded independently. An example of this type of initiation is turn 143, which is a prerequisite for the normal flow of the lesson, but does not explicitly contribute to the promotion of learning or language acquisition, or to the process of FA in general. This type of initiations was identified in other studies too (e.g., Tzagari & Michaeloudes, 2012) and it is therefore important to further investigate the amount of time spent on this type of classroom interactions. However, this type of initiations falls beyond the scope of this research and therefore it will not be included further in the results that follow (e.g. feedback and stimulated recall discussions).

Another type of initiation used by teachers identified in this assessment episode is the 'provision of instructions and expectations'. Despite the fact that these aspects differ in terms of terminology and definition, they are coded under the same category in the data as teachers' expectations were expressed through their instructions. In turn 142, the teacher introduces the next activity by stating that they are going to listen to a story. This turn indicates to learners what to expect. It is more like a guideline than explicit instruction of what they have to do. This type of initiation is very important for the process of FA as learners must have a clear understanding of what they are expected to do in order to be able to perform the task successfully and to assess themselves on whether they were successful or not. In this way, 'self-assessment' can be used by learners more effectively. This type of initiation is related to the next category presented which is the initiation through a reference to the learning objectives, a FA technique (Stiggins, 2005).

Another type of initiation relevant to learning and the FA process is the teachers' implicit and explicit reference to the learning objectives (William, 2011). Teachers were

recorded to refer to the learning goals usually at the beginning of the lesson or a new activity in their attempt to clarify their intentions and expectations for that particular lesson/activity. The following excerpts provide evidence of the implicit and explicit reference to the learning objectives by the teachers. The teacher in the beginning of the lesson introduced the phrase “My favourite...is...”. She asked the learners to form a phrase including their names “My name is... and my favourite ..... is .....”. After completing this activity, the teacher in excerpt 4.11 introduces the new activity and the new lesson.

**Excerpt 4.11 (T1, p.4, t.71/t.220) Example of Reference to the Learning Objectives**

**Initiation**

(71) T: Excellent! Excellent! Ok! So, my favourite sport is football.	Teacher’s Feedback Repetition
Now. Today we are going to talk a little bit about your favourite animals.	Teacher’s Initiation (TLO)
Can you tell me some animals grade 5? Tell me some animals!	Teacher’s Initiation Question Open Referential
(72) S: ‘Monkey’!	Learner’s Response Correct
(73) T: ‘Monkey’! Let’s write them down, monkey, ok.	Teacher’s Feedback Repetition
I want ten animals!	Teacher’s Initiation Expectation/Instruction
Yes!	Teacher’s Initiation Question Open Referential
(74) S: ‘Cat’!	Learner’s Response Correct
[...]	
(220) T: The ‘donkey’, ok.	Teacher’s Feedback Repetition
Today we are going to write a story about a donkey. Now. Mr. Oliver is thinking of a movie. There is a movie, a famous movie, with a big green monster and a donkey. What’s the name of the movie?	Teacher’s Initiation (TLO) Teacher’s Initiation Question Closed Display
(221) S: ‘Shrek’!	Learner’s Response Correct

Excerpt 4.12 takes place in the middle of a lesson and more specifically in a vocabulary activity where Year 2 learners learn new letters and words.

**Excerpt 4.12 (T5, p.22, t.252) Example of Reference to the Learning Objectives**

**Initiation**

(252) T: This is a new word! New word! So, we are going to write down this later on in our notebook, ok? This is a new word! The word	Teacher’s Initiation (TLO)
---	----------------------------

carrots and we are going to write it down!

Ok? Ready?

(253) T: SS: Do you like carrots?

Teacher's Initiation Question Confirmation  
Learner's Response Correct

In the above two excerpts, T1 explicitly articulates some of the lesson's learning objectives, a FA technique, while initiating the new learning episodes (Turns 71 and 220). By referring to the learning objectives, the teacher is able to demonstrate to the learners what they aim to do and therefore the learners become aware of what to expect. On the other hand, excerpt 4.12 shows an implicit way used by another teacher while referring to the learning objectives, where one of the lesson's objectives is to learn new letters and write some words in the picture dictionary. Both types of references to the learning objectives or success criteria are fundamental for the successful implementation of FA as, according to the literature (Wiliam, 2011) teachers should always share the learning objectives with learners (see Section 2.4).

#### 4.3.1.5 Initiation by learners

Initiation was not always made by teachers and instances where learners initiated learning episodes were identified in the results. Learners' initiation takes place when participating in games, e.g. to initiate the interaction, and for clarification purposes. The role of learners in the FA assessment process is very important and further analysis of learners' initiation is necessary. Initiation by learners in the form of questions to teachers work as feedback for teachers, e.g. includes learners' misunderstandings and difficulties during the FA process and can be used to adjust instruction. Despite the fact that learners' initiation is very limited compared to teachers' initiation, the following types of questions were created: 'initiations relevant to the lesson' and 'clarification requests'.

Questions relevant to the lesson are asked by learners when they do not know a new word, or when they do not understand what the teacher said. In the following excerpt, the teacher asks learners to think of some endangered animals of Cyprus and describe them to her in order to assess their vocabulary use and ability to express themselves correctly. Learners in their attempt to describe the animals came across some difficulties especially when they did not have the required vocabulary.

#### Excerpt 4.13 (T1, p.4, t.161) Example of Learners' Questions

(161) S2: How do I say *άγριο*; (*wild?*)

Learner's Initiation Question (LQ)

(162) T: Wild! w, i, l, d (The teacher spells the

Teacher's Response

word)

(163) S: How I say...?	Learner's Initiation Question (LQ)
(164) T: How do I say...?	Teacher's Feedback Recast
(165) S: 'Λαιμός'; ('neck'?)	Learner's Initiation Question-Language(LQ-L)
(166) T: 'Neck'! n, e, c, k (The teacher spells the word).	Teacher's Response
(167) T: It's dangerous! There is danger! Dangerous or wild! It's a dangerous animal! It's not a dangerous animal! It's a wild animal! It's not a wild animal! Ok?	Teacher's Feedback Metalinguistic
(168) S: Mr. Oliver?	Learner's Initiation Question (LQ)
(169) T: Yes!	Teacher's Response
(170) S: Mr. Oliver? How do I say 'τελείες'; ('spots')	Learner's Initiation Question-Language (LQ-L)

Learners ask for the translation of certain words (Turns 161 and 170) by using the appropriate expression and the teacher accepts the questions and prompts learners to use the appropriate way of asking for the translation of an unknown word (Turn 164). In a second language learning environment, it is vital to be given the freedom to ask any kind of questions, as this will possibly result in the fulfillment of the learners' desire for learning. In this way learners become active and are engaged further in the learning process. Thus, learners' questions can be used as evidence for learner's current achievement and understanding in the FA process.

Another type of learners' initiation is 'clarification requests'. Learners ask teachers to repeat instructions or their previous utterance, as this was not fully comprehended by them. In the following example, the teacher gives instructions on how to play a card game, the last activity of that lesson.

#### **Excerpt 4.14 (T3, p.13, t.217) Example of Learners' Clarification Requests**

(217) T: No! Later!	Teacher's Initiation Processes
Here I have cards.	Teacher's Initiation Expectation/Instruction
(218) S: Cars?	Learner's Clarification Request (LC)
(219) T: 'Cards'! Not 'cars'!	Teacher's Response
(220) SS: Cards!	Learners' Correct Response
(221) T: Cards! I've got cards now.	Teacher's Feedback Corrective

The teacher after giving instructions about their next activity, receives a clarification by a learners for the word “cards” (Turn 218) and the teacher responses in the form of feedback. The teacher leaves no questions unanswered or misunderstandings and emphasises on learners’ current understanding, an important aspect of the FA process. This is necessary in the learning process as it boosts learner’s confidence. Thus, the information in the form of a question asked by the learner was used ‘formatively’ by the teacher as she first resolved misconceptions and then she continued her lesson.

#### **4.3.1.6 Use of tests to gather assessment information (semi-structured interviews**

##### **findings)**

The findings show that questions and observation are the main ‘tools’ for teachers to assess and gather assessment information. However, tests, a more traditional way of assessing learners, are still an option to assess learners’ achievement and receive information about their current achievement. Teachers were not recorded in the classroom observation data to use tests, but when they were asked during the semi-structured interviews two out of the five participants stated that they use tests in their lessons.

A reason for teachers not to use tests was provided by Teacher 2 as she stated that “I do not want to overload learners with extra tests...I prefer [not to use them] so learners enjoy the lesson as we know that tests bring stress to learners” (p.11, T2, str. t.256). This statement by Teacher 2 response illustrates her belief that English tests are not necessary for young learners although she uses tests for other subjects. She also explained that she uses other ways, e.g. questions and observation, to assess learners’ understanding. Another teacher, Teacher 3, explained that she also does not use tests. She stated that “I do not believe that tests should indicate a learner’s achievement. I think that Portfolio as a tool for assessment or activities related to Portfolio assessment are more substantial” (p.15, T3 str. t.230). In the same way as Teacher 2, Teacher 3 uses other ways of assessment, e.g. portfolio, to assess learners’ achievement instead of tests.

On the other hand, Teacher 1 who supported the use of tests actually uses them for the promotion of learning and language acquisition. She achieves that by using summative tests formatively, which is a FA technique (Black & Wiliam, 2012). More specifically, Teacher 1 stated that “I underline the mistakes and I ask the leaners to correct them...in case many learners did the same mistake...we focus on this mistake...” (p.7, T1, str., t.286) and she explained that she revises the linguistic phenomenon, she changes previous method used to teach it and then discusses the concept further with learners in order to



learn it. Therefore, Teacher 1 gathers assessment information through the use of tests and then uses this information to change the way she teaches and the content, e.g. she revises certain topics by adding extra activities.

#### **4.3.2 Responses (classroom observation findings)**

Response is the second turn of the triadic dialogue (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) and is usually used by learners to demonstrate their skills and knowledge in what they were previously asked by the teachers. Responses are very important in the FA process as the information obtained from them is evaluated by teachers as learners' current level of achievement and knowledge. Also, through learners' responses, teachers can estimate and evaluate the level of success of their lesson.

Learners' responses are evaluated by teachers as 'correct', 'partially correct', 'incomplete', 'incorrect', and 'no response' (Mohr & Mohr, 2007), in accordance with what the teacher was looking for in the initiation in order to be used accordingly in the FA process. In other words, a single word answer may be deemed as 'correct' but 'incomplete' or 'partially correct' by teachers especially in cases when the learners are required to provide whole sentence answers, according to the teacher's instructions.

The following excerpt illustrates a variety of response types. The teacher in the following excerpt started the lesson by revising vocabulary used to describe animals. Then she asked the learners to clarify what animals like or do not like. She then showed a photo of a boy and asked the learners to guess what the boy does not like.

#### **Excerpt 4.15 (T3, p.14, t.128) Example of Correct, Incorrect and Incomplete Responses**

(128) S: He doesn't like school!	Learner's Response Correct
(129) T: He doesn't like! Do you like school?	Teacher's Feedback Descriptive
(130) S: Yes!	Learner's Response Correct
(131) T: Yes? Ok, let's see!	Teacher's Feedback Repetition
(132) S: He doesn't like pineapple!	Learner's Response Correct
(133) S: 'Pineapple'!	Learner's Response Correct
(134) T: How did you find that?	Teacher's Feedback Self
Right! He doesn't like pineapples!	Teacher's Feedback Repetition
Good morning Mr. Johnes! Go and sit there!	Teacher's Initiation Processes

This is Lee. This is Lee. Look at Lee! Look at Lee!	Teacher's Teaching
Is she from Cyprus?	Teacher's Initiation Question Closed Display
(135) SS: No!	Learners' Response Correct
(136) T: Where do you think she is from?	Teacher's Initiation Question Open Display
(137) S: She is from ...	Learner's Response Incomplete
(138) T: Look at Lee! Where do you think she is from?	Teacher's Feedback Repetition Question
(139) S: She is from Canada!	Learner's Response Incorrect

In this learning episode the learners are unable to guess the correct answer and, finally, when the teacher shows the picture (Turn 131), a learner responds correctly by stating the correct answer (Turn 132). Correct responses are the most popular type of responses (see Table 5) and can be produced by one or more learners. When the teacher addresses questions to the whole class without any expectations of raising hands, a group of learners tend to answer by saying the answer loudly. Correct responses show that learners are following the lesson and also indicate the effectiveness of teaching. Research also shows that there is more for teachers to do after a correct response as they can extend the learners' knowledge to explore and resolve their understandings (Waring, 2008). Therefore, in the FA process, a correct response can be considered as a signal to the teachers to move on as teaching and learning were effective, or the initiation for further discussion e.g. through examples, based on the correct response.

'Incomplete' responses (Turn 137) most probably show the learner's hesitation to complete the answer because the learner is not confident about the correctness of the answer. This should not be taken for granted as the data show instances of incomplete answers due to lack of knowledge or language ability of learners. Incomplete answers are usually considered as incorrect by the teacher who usually provides corrective feedback to the learner in an attempt to get a complete and correct answer. During the FA process, this is an indication to the teacher and useful feedback by learners in order to take actions, e.g. provide corrective feedback, reformulate the question, revise a concept.

Responses are coded as 'incorrect' if they are completely wrong, in opposition to 'incomplete' or 'partially correct' responses and are usually followed by corrective feedback (see Table 6). For example, in turn 139 the learner provides a linguistically correct and complete answer but wrong in content. This response was coded as incorrect as after the indications from the teacher, cannot be considered as a guess anymore. Therefore,

incorrect responses are the stimulus for the provision of corrective feedback. During the FA process, the teachers should consider learners' current achievement and abilities and provide learners with the appropriate type of corrective feedback to lead to successful uptake and promote learning and language acquisition.

Finally it is important to note that a response is assessed by the teacher as correct, partially correct, incomplete, or incorrect according to the learning objectives of the particular activity and the teacher's expectations. The type of response given during the guessing games (see Excerpt 4.15) where the learners were required to use a particular expression to guess something, was coded as correct response in the case it fulfilled the linguistic expectations of the teacher.

Another category found and recorded in the data is the 'partially correct' responses. Responses are coded as 'partially correct' if they include minor linguistic mistakes or mistakes in pronunciation where meaning is understood, but the overall result is not perfect. Despite the fact that a large portion of the answer is correct, for FA purposes, the slight mistakes by the learners should be treated accordingly. The following excerpt is from the beginning of the lesson where the teacher asks from learners to introduce themselves and use the expression "My favourite ... is..." to state something about themselves.

**Excerpt 4.16 (T1, p. 4, t.19) Example of Partially Correct Responses**

(19) T: Next!	Teacher's Initiation Question Open Referential
(20) S: My name is Haris and my favourite subject is English.	Learner's Correct Response
(21) T: Excellent!	Teacher's Feedback Evaluative
Next!	Teacher's Initiation Question Open Referential
(22) S: My name is Andria and my favourite hobby is piano.	Learner's Response Partially Correct (RPC)
(23) T: Is 'playing the piano'.	Teacher's Feedback Recast
Very good!	Teacher's Feedback Evaluative
(24) S: My name is Elias and my favourite ma, eh, my favourite animal is monkey.	Learner's Response Partially Correct (RPC)
(25) T: Is?	Teacher's Feedback Corrective Elicitation

(26) T: and S: 'the monkey'	Learner's Uptake Repair Guided-Repetition
(27) T: Excellent!	Teacher's Feedback Evaluative
Next!	Teacher's Initiation Question Open Referential

The learners present themselves successfully (Turn 20) and a student fails to complete the sentence correctly (Turn 20). The teacher provides corrective feedback (recast), then evaluative feedback to reward the effort (Turn 23), then implicit feedback (corrective elicitation) (Turn 25). Both learners' responses in turns 22 and 24 are coded as partially correct as learners manage to provide the largest part of the answer correctly, making only minor mistakes. Other types of partially correct answers include mistakes on pronunciation where learners know the word but are not able to pronounce it correctly. The teachers' treatment of partially correct answers is very important in the FA process as it indicates the continuous assessment of learners' achievement during the lesson. In addition, the correction of 'minor' mistakes evident in the above excerpt shows that teachers expect high level performance by learners.

Another type of responses is the 'no response' category. Learners, most probably because they did not know the answer or because of weakness or lack of concentration, do not provide an answer to the teacher's question. After reading the story, the teacher, in the following excerpt, asks the learners to describe the pictures of the story. After describing the first and second pictures, the teacher asks the learners to describe the third picture.

#### **Excerpt 4.17 (T4, p.18, t.134) Example of No Responses**

(134) T: Every day, every day, yes! Photos of him at school or photos about his friends.	Teacher's Feedback Metalinguistic
What do you think? Yes, Charalambos?	Teacher's Initiation Question Open Display
(135) C: Em...	Learner's Response No (RN)
(136) T: Yes, Yiannis?	Teacher's Feedback Corrective Peer
(137) Y: ...	Learner's Response No (RN)
(138) T: What he is doing in the third picture? What he is doing? Yes?	Teacher's Feedback Corrective Metalinguistic
(139) S: He is eating breakfast.	Learner's Response Incorrect
(140) T: Third picture!	Teacher's Feedback Repetition Question

The first learner does not provide an answer (Turn 135) and the teacher redirects the question to another learner (Turn 136) who also fails to provide an answer (Turn 137).

Then the teacher provides corrective metalinguistic feedback to help learners to find the correct answer. 'No response' usually arises from the inability of the learner to answer a question, or the lack of appropriate attention to the lesson. However, the two silent responses and the incorrect response at the end of the above excerpt may indicate confusion among learners despite the teacher's actions and feedback. No answer, therefore, is very important for the process of FA as it may hinder important information for the teaching and learning processes. For example, the teacher's instructions were not clear to learners, or the difficulty level of the task was too high for them. The teacher, following FA principles, should reconsider and alter the activity by adjusting it according to learners' ability, or providing feedback to clarify any misconceptions.

### **4.3.3 Feedback**

Evidence of appropriate use of feedback, the third and most important turn for the FA process in the IRF pattern during the classroom interaction between teachers and learners (see chapter 2), will indicate successful implementation of FA techniques. 'Questioning' and 'gathering information about learners' achievement' without taking any actions to improve learning are not considered as FA. As Davison and Leung (2009) argue, if the assessment information is not used, i.e. provision of formative feedback, then the assessment process cannot be named as formative or for learning purposes. Feedback is necessary to improve learning, correct unsuccessful learners' responses, and encourage learners. Feedback should then be based and adjusted on learners' current achievement, which has been identified through other FA techniques, i.e. 'questions' and 'observation'. Thus, the findings are divided into 'feedback on correct responses' and 'feedback on incorrect responses'. Along with feedback on incorrect responses, also known as 'corrective feedback', 'uptake', the last move of the classroom interaction pattern, will be presented to show the impact that implicit and explicit corrective feedback has on successful and unsuccessful uptake.

#### **4.3.3.1 Feedback on correct answers (classroom observations findings)**

Feedback on learners' correct answers is very useful to learners' self-esteem and future development (Ecclestone, 2007; Waring, 2008). The most common way that teachers use to evaluate learners' answers is 'evaluative feedback on correct responses' (see Table 4). This type of feedback was, most of the times, followed by feedback repetition of the correct answer. Feedback repetition is a type of 'evaluative' feedback where teachers, in order to confirm learners' responses, repeat the correct answer. Thus, 'repetition feedback'

does not only reward learners and confirm their answers as correct, but also clarifies them for the other learners through repetition.

The following excerpt is the beginning of an activity where the teacher asked the learners to write some questions about their preferred famous person, a project that they were working on. Then, the learners were asked by the teacher to read their questions in the whole class.

**Excerpt 4.18 (T1, p.1, t.80) Examples of Evaluative, Elicitation, Descriptive and Repetition Feedback**

(80) S: Is he the best player?	Learner's Response Correct
(81) T: Is...?	Teacher's Feedback Elicitation Correct
(82) S: He the best player?	Learner's Response Correct
(83) T: Ok! Is he the best player?	Teacher's Feedback Repetition
Who can finish the question? Who can write something else? Is he the best player...?	Teacher's Feedback Descriptive
(84) S: 'In the world'!	Learner's Response Correct
(85) T: 'In the world'?	Teacher's Feedback Repetition
Good!	Teacher's Feedback Evaluative Correct
Is he the best player...? Who can tell me something else? Is he the best player...?	Teacher's Feedback Descriptive
(86) S: 'In his team'?	Learner's Response Correct
(87) T: 'In his team'. Ok!	Teacher's Feedback Repetition
Another question? Is he the best player...?	Teacher's Feedback Descriptive
(88) S: 'In his country'!	Learner's Response Correct
(89) T: 'In his country',	Teacher's Feedback Repetition
'In Cyprus'. Very good! So we can make a question longer, ok? Right? Who can change this question? Who can change this question by putting something there? Who can change the question? Who can change the question?	Teacher's Feedback Descriptive

The teacher provides feedback elicitation on the correct answer (Turn 81) and, after the learner repeats the correct answer, offers evaluative feedback (Turn 83).

The most common way that teachers use to evaluate learners' answers is 'evaluative feedback on correct responses' (n= 278, see Table 4), also known as 'confirmatory feedback' (Hill & McNamara, 2012). 'Evaluative' feedback was identified

in the form of small approving and rewarding words .e.g. ‘Good’, ‘OK’, and ‘Very Good’ in Turns 85, 87, 89 respectively. ‘Evaluative’ feedback aims to confirm the answer and encourage or reward the learner, which is important in the FA process as it works as a short and informal oral report to the learners regarding their successful current achievement and enhance learners’ confidence.

The ‘evaluative feedback’ on correct answers was, most of the times, followed by ‘feedback repetition’ of the correct answer (n=779, see Table 6). ‘Feedback repetition’ is a type of evaluative feedback where teachers in order to confirm learners’ responses, repeat the correct answer. According to Duff (2000), repetition of the correct answer can be beneficial for language learners in many ways, e.g. to gain learners’ attention and credit learners for their answer. Teachers in this study used repetition along with confirmatory words to confirm learners’ answers and close successfully the ‘assessment loop’ and move on to the next activity or question. Teachers used frequently this type of feedback (see Table 6) also on incorrect as they wanted to make it audible to the rest of the class. Furthermore, the teacher in turns 83, 85, 87, 89 repeats the answer because she aims to elaborate and ask further questions based on the correct answer in the form of descriptive feedback in order to move the learners forward in learning.

The teacher provides feedback elicitation on the correct answer (Turn 81) which was a new category added in the framework of analysis as many of these instances were identified in the data (n=59, see Table 6). This type of feedback is similar to clarification request type of feedback, but there is no evidence in the recordings to show that the learner’s answer was not audible but rather the teacher intended to emphasise on the correct answer and use the answer as a model for other learners to follow. Modelling of good work and clarifying the success criteria to learners benefit learning and language acquisition. Teachers, through elaboration and comments based on a learners’ response, help learners towards the correct and ‘ideal’ answer. Thus, this type of feedback is important for the FA process and is closely related with one of its techniques, sharing the success criteria (William, 2011), as it can be used to model the desired level of achievement to learners.

The provision of ‘descriptive’ feedback (Tunstall & Gipps, 1996) to learners is used to expand their knowledge and help learners achieve something more difficult than they have already achieved. ‘Descriptive’ feedback is rooted in many learning theories, such as constructivism and sociocultural theory of learning (Bell & Cowie, 2000;

Vygotsky, 1978) and is closely related with the notion of scaffolding and moving the learner towards the ZPD (see Section 2.9.5). In this learning episode (Excerpt 4.18), after the learners provided a correct response (Turn 82), the teacher asked for a change of the initial question and then used elicitation techniques to prompt the learners to answer and to make clear what she expects from them.

#### 4.3.3.2 Descriptive and Evaluative Feedback (stimulated recalls and findings)

'Descriptive feedback' is one of the most popular types of feedback identified in the classroom observations (see Chapter 4, Table 6). Teachers stated that they provide descriptive feedback by constructing knowledge, based on learners' answer or a question raised by learners, by asking learners to give further examples, by providing translation according to learners' needs and by extending learners' knowledge and abilities. The following excerpt of the stimulated recalls is a part of the discussion between the participant and the researcher regarding a project. More specifically, while the learners were asked to write questions about a famous person, the teacher kept asking the same question in different ways in an attempt, by building on learners' current achievement, to enrich the learners' repertoire and improve their questioning skills.

#### Excerpt 4.19 (T1, p.3, t.24) Example of Descriptive Feedback

(24) T: Just to say here that in the last question we heard "How many albums has she got?", which is not wrong, but I wanted to give them...because I usually notice that they do not use 'does' in the questions. The teacher explains the reason for providing descriptive feedback to learners

(25) R: HmHm!

(26) T: And there was the possibility in previous lessons or in different groups to listen "How many albums he she got?", without using has nor does.

(27) R: HmHm!

(28) T: But I wanted, as they said... "How many albums has she got?" to remind them that there is a second way to ask questions with 'does'. That is why we said. The teacher provides descriptive feedback to learners by providing an alternative way of expressing a question

(29) R: So you repeated, actually not repeated, you offered the other way.

(30) T: Way to do.

(31) R: Questions.

(32) T: To form questions.

(33) R: In order to .... Do you think that this will enrich The teacher explains that according to



their knowledge?

(34) T: I believe that if they are used to, yes, because 'does' is most commonly used in questions and I wanted them to know as I see from different, let's say this years' year 4, 5 that they lack the ability to form because they think a lot in Greek.

his experience learners should know and be able to use the alternative way of asking a question that he suggested earlier

Drawing from the above discussion, during the lesson 'descriptive feedback' was provided in the form of an additional way of asking a question and it was adjusted and built on learners' current achievement, in an attempt to enrich their knowledge and improve their questioning skills. Based on the teacher's response in this excerpt (Turn 24), 'descriptive feedback' can be seen as an example of scaffolding where teachers motivate learners to produce something beyond their abilities and knowledge and work in the Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1978). Attempts by teachers to scaffold learners towards the ZPD are beneficial for the acquisition of foreign language and are effective techniques for teaching and learning (Vygotsky, 1978).

Furthermore, in Excerpt 4.19 it is evident that through the provision of 'descriptive feedback', teachers aim to promote language acquisition and practice and/or extend the targeted vocabulary or grammatical phenomenon. The teacher reported the necessity of 'descriptive feedback' as she identified learners' weaknesses and needs based on their previous experience with the same age group of EFL learners (Turn 34). The use of 'descriptive feedback' is a way for the teachers to act proactively, expand learner's knowledge and understanding to avoid possible misconceptions and difficulties in the learning process (Tunstall & Gipps, 1996).

Teachers also state that through 'descriptive feedback' they challenge high achievers and adjust feedback according to learners' level in order to include all learners in the learning process regardless their competence. The following excerpt is part of the stimulated recalls discussion regarding the lesson's project on extinct animals.

#### **Excerpt 4.20 (T1, p.5, t.128) Example of Descriptive Feedback**

(128) T: Here they wanted to write the word "hawk" and they did not know how to write it. It was unusual I think and I spelled it for them, ehh again I try according to the learner, if someone is a good student in Greek and asks for the spelling instead of writing the word on the board and ask the learners to copy it, I spell the word to them letter by letter to practice even more. In case a low achiever learner has difficulties writing letter by letter, I will write the word on the board.

The teacher spells the word to the learners in order to write it in their books. She did not write it to the board to make the task more challenging.

In this excerpt, the teacher explains that she differentiates the level of feedback she provided to learners. Differentiation on instruction according to learners' needs and achievement - a teacher's technique to involve learners in the learning process, - is very effective according to the literature (Morgan, 2014) and very important for the promotion of learning. The process of differentiation is closely related to the assessment process as assessment is the first step to identify learners' current achievement and differentiate learners. In addition, differentiation is in line with the FA process as instruction needs to be adjusted to learners needs and each learner receives feedback based on his/her achievement. Therefore, the differentiated feedback provided during instruction is descriptive in nature and moves the learners forward in learning and language acquisition (Tunstall & Gipps, 1996).

Furthermore, descriptive feedback has also been used to recycle subject matter and to prompt learners to provide complete, structured and coherent answers. In the following excerpt the teacher explains the reasons for referring to and analysing words that start with a letter that is not included in the lesson's objectives, but it will be taught in the future.

#### **Excerpt 4.21 (T5, p.22, t.84) Example of Descriptive Feedback**

(84) T: I continuously try to work spirally. The reason for working and introducing letter "W" is because I will find this letter after two or three lessons.

The teacher explains that she refers to the letter 'W', as she had this opportunity during the lesson, because she knows that this will be the learning objective in the next lessons.

Through recycling the subject matter the learners come in contact with new knowledge, and the teacher expands learners' knowledge through 'descriptive feedback'. After a couple of lessons the teacher will revise this knowledge through questions, so as to promote language acquisition.

Drawing from the semi-structured interviews findings, like Teacher 5, Teacher 3 also uses the method of recycling the subject matter. When she referred to how she handles assessment information, she explained that "I will identify the learners who did not perform the way they should for example the 'third person singular' and in this case, I will do an extra activity or I will introduce this activity in another lesson because I have opportunities through recycling to do this" (p.15, T3, str. t.325). Recycling the subject matter can have the form of 'descriptive feedback' as Teacher 5 did in the above excerpt to refer to future lessons or it can be used for revision purposes as this was necessary after the assessment information indicated the need for extra reference based on the previous lessons.

Overall, it seems that descriptive feedback is used and appreciated by the teachers as they referred extensively to its effectiveness in the lesson during the stimulated recalls. Teachers, considering learners' current level of achievement, stated that they tend to expand learners' knowledge to promote language acquisition. This is in line with FA processes as teachers assess learners' attainment, provide customized feedback for each learner and move learners forward in learning and foreign language acquisition.

'Evaluative feedback' is used by teachers to approve or disapprove learners' answer, as well as to encourage learners to continue their active participation in the learning process (see Section 2.8.6). The analysis of classroom observations showed that the provision of evaluative feedback is the most popular type of feedback provided to learners (see Table 6).

The following excerpts from the stimulated recall sessions refer to the same lesson and are examples of different ways of providing evaluative feedback immediately after the provision of a correct answer by learners. In the first excerpt, the teacher uses rewarding words, providing 'evaluative feedback' to learners in an attempt to encourage them to continue their engagement in the learning process. Later on, in the second excerpt, the teacher provides 'evaluative feedback' in the form of applause to reward learners' effort of the dancing performance.

#### **Excerpt 4.22 (T5, p.21, t.64/t.193) Example of Evaluative Feedback**

(64) R: I see!

The teacher provides evaluative correct feedback on a correct answer.

(65) R: That's correct. During the answers you reward the learners right?

(66) T: Yes, because I like the fact that my learners are excited by trying. At this stage, I stopped looking for new words for our alphabetario, but my learners wanted to say.

The teacher believes that learners after receiving evaluative feedback get excited and are encouraged to continue in the learning process.

(67) R: They liked the activity.

(68) T: Yes! Yes! Yes!

[...]

(193) R: And then, I see the applause.

The teacher asked learners to applaud their classmates

(194) T: Yes!

(195) R: Did you ask them for a round of applause? Do you usually use this kind...

(196) T: Yes! Yes! Yes!

(197) R: Was the purpose the reward? A form of motivation?

The reason of the applause was the reward of the learners and the attempt to make the lesson as interactive as possible

(198) T: Reward for the 4 learners who performed the dance and for the rest of the learners to feel more active, to make the lesson as active as possible.

(199) R: Certainly!

Teachers provide 'evaluative feedback' to learners through a variety of ways. From asking learners for a round of applause for their classmates and providing praise after a correct answer to displaying learners' work on the classroom display, repeating the correct answers, and giving points to learners during games are some of the ways teachers provide evaluative feedback to learners. Different forms of evaluative feedback facilitate different purposes. According to teachers' statements in the stimulated recalls, the reason for providing evaluative feedback is to praise and reward learners for their successful achievement in order to encourage them to do their best, and to realise that they can contribute in the learning process by becoming active learners (Turn 68). Finally, T5, the same teacher of the above excerpt argued that learners believe that it is cool to get rewarded in English as they use it in when they express themselves in the target language.

#### **Excerpt 4.23 (T5, p.22, t.22) Example of Evaluative Feedback**

(22) R: During the lesson you use phrases like this. Do you want to talk about this?

The teacher supports that through rewards the learners get familiar with expressions in the target language.

(23) T: Yes, it is an extra opportunity for familiarisation with the language and also they like it and they think it is cool to listen and get rewarded in English, that is why I do it, and slowly slowly my learners get familiar with some of these expressions.

Being the last turn of the IRF interaction sequence, there is a belief that 'evaluative feedback' restricts learners' opportunities for language acquisition (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). However, teachers' statements in the stimulated recalls that types of evaluative feedback can be effective in the learning process are supported in the literature too (Hill & McNamara, 2012).

#### **4.3.3.3 Other types of feedback on correct answers (classroom observations findings)**

Another type of feedback that was provided to learners after a correct response and aimed at providing extra information about the correct response and promote learning through assessment process is 'metalinguistic' feedback. In the following excerpt (Excerpt 4.19),

the teacher asked learners to recall the animals mentioned in the song previously listened and watched. The teacher uses ‘metalinguistic’ feedback through extra comments to remind learners of some animals that were mentioned earlier in the song.

**Excerpt 4.24 (T3, p.14, t.33) Example of Metalinguistic Feedback**

(33) T: ‘Monkeys’. Yes!	Teacher’s Feedback Repetition
(34) S: ‘Monkey’! Όχι ( <i>no</i> )! ‘Monkeys’.	Learner’s Correct Response
(35) T: There were monkeys and then the other one was doing tricks.	Teacher’s Feedback Metalinguistic
(36) S: Yes!	Learner’s Response Agreement
[...]	
(40) S: ‘Pigs’.	Learner’s Correct Response
(41) T ‘Pigs’ Oing! Oing! Pigs!	Teacher’s Feedback Metalinguistic
[...]	
(51) T: ‘Hippos’! The big hippopotamus stuck in the door.	Teacher’s Feedback Metalinguistic
[...]	
(54) S: ‘Hen’.	Learner’s Correct Response
(55) T: The little red hen! Yes!	Teacher’s Feedback Metalinguistic

In turn 33 the teacher repeats the correct answer provided previously by a learner and, before moving on to the next learner, she provides a comment which describes what the aforementioned animal usually does (Turn 35), then uses a quote from their song, and then a phrase from another story. ‘Metalinguistic’ feedback was used during the assessment of the teacher to help learners and explain a particular concept by providing extra information through comments or questions in order to extent learners’ understanding. The teacher’s actions observed above are used to avoid the use of L1 and in an attempt to use L2 the most. This type of feedback is valuable for the process of FA, learning, and language acquisition (Sheen, 2008) as it extends learners’ boundaries by providing them something extra the same way descriptive feedback does.

Another type of feedback used on correct answers is ‘clarification request’ type of feedback. The following example shows teachers’ concerns that learners’ answers may not be audible. The following excerpt is part of a ball game where the learner who gets the ball says his/her favourite food and throws the ball to another classmate.

#### **Excerpt 4.25 (T2, p.9, t.280) Example of Clarification Request Feedback**

(280) S: My favourite food is pasta!	Learner's Response Correct
(281) T: Is...?	Teacher's Feedback Clarification Request
(282) S: 'Pasta'.	Learner's Response Correct
(283) T: Oh! Sotos you can throw wherever you want!	Teacher's Initiation Expectation/Instruction
He is thinking hmhm!	Teacher's Initiation Processes
(284) S: What's your favourite food?	Learner's Response Correct
(285) T: Louder, please!	Teacher's Feedback Clarification Request

After a learner's correct answer (Turn 280) the teacher makes a clarification request (Turn 281) to confirm what the teacher heard so everybody in the classroom would be sure about the learner's answer. Finally, the teacher prompts a learner to speak louder (Turn 285). This is not a clear clarification request by the teacher, but it facilitates the same purpose as the previous clarification request on correct answer. This type of feedback is necessary in classroom environment for a variety of reasons. For example, learners who do not speak loud and clear and learners who are not able to listen clearly because of noise distractions are benefited from the provision of this type of feedback. This type of corrective feedback is also necessary for FA purposes as teachers need to hear the answer clearly in order to evaluate it and provide appropriate feedback and learners need to compare their own answer with the answer provided by their peers for self-assessment purposes. Furthermore, the provision of this type of feedback shows the teacher's concern for everyone to participate in the lesson and have equal opportunities to learning.

The following excerpt demonstrates the use of 'Explanatory' feedback. 'Explanatory' feedback aims to highlight and explain the successful aspects of learners' performance. In the following excerpt, the class is working on an exercise in their activity books. The teacher asks learners to read the question and then the teacher and the learners find the answer together.

#### **Excerpt 4.26 (T2, p.8, t.284) Example of Explanatory Feedback**

(284) T: Who wants to read this one? Spyros?	Teacher's Question Closed Display
(285) S: There are pigs.	Learner's Response Correct
(286) T: 'Pigs'!	Teacher's Feedback Elicitation
(287) S: In the garden.	Learner's Response Correct

(288) T: Very nice! There are pigs.	Teacher's Feedback Repetition
We put an 's' on the end because there are many pigs. There are two pigs, ok?	Teacher's Feedback Explanatory
So let's move on to the next one!	Teacher's Question Closed Display

The teacher through 'elicitation' feedback on a correct response (Turn 286) manages to get a complete answer by the learner (Turn 287). Then she provides 'evaluative' feedback and 'feedback repetition'. The teacher draws learners' attention on the grammatical rule of plurals and in this way emphasises the correct answer and explains why this is correct. The teacher used the assessment information to revise and extend on a particular topic (Turn 288), which is in line with FA processes. Thus, this type of feedback works to encourage and reward the learner and to explain to the whole class the way and the reason for answering correctly. This type of feedback is also important for other FA processes, such as self-assessment, as it provides opportunities for this FA technique and engages learners in the learning process by teaching or revising a concept based on a learner's answer. The learners can self-assess their own answer and current level of achievement by comparing it with the metalinguistic feedback provided by the teacher.

Other types of feedback include categories of feedback that have to do with the provision of strategies to find the correct answer, the engagement of learners to self-assessment procedures, feedback which models how learners should answer a question or play a game, and feedback on learners' work or specifically on their selves.

In the following excerpt, the teacher had already asked learners to write questions about their preferred famous person and she went around the tables to observe learners while working. During this observation she had short discussions with the learners.

**Excerpt 4.27 (T1, p.1, t.49) Example of Feedback on Strategies and Self-Assessment**

(49) T: Yes, write them down! Write them down!	Teacher's Response to Learner							
Ok. At the end of the lesson you will give me one project sheet for week 1 and for week 2.	Teacher's Initiation Expectation/Instruction							
(50) T: Yes, write questions!	<table border="0"> <tr> <td>Are they correct?</td> <td>Teacher's Assessment</td> <td>Feedback</td> <td rowspan="3">Self-Feedback Strategies</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Ανοιξε το τετράδιο! (<i>Open your exercise book!</i>). Open your exercise book!</td> <td>Teacher's Initiation Language</td> <td>Participation-</td> </tr> </table>	Are they correct?	Teacher's Assessment	Feedback	Self-Feedback Strategies	Ανοιξε το τετράδιο! ( <i>Open your exercise book!</i> ). Open your exercise book!	Teacher's Initiation Language	Participation-
Are they correct?		Teacher's Assessment	Feedback	Self-Feedback Strategies				
Ανοιξε το τετράδιο! ( <i>Open your exercise book!</i> ). Open your exercise book!		Teacher's Initiation Language	Participation-					
(51) T: Questions! Write questions!								

What do you want? Think! What questions? If I come to class today what would you ask me? What do you want to ask?

First, the teacher clarifies her expectations (Turn 49) and then asks learners to think whether their questions are correct (Turn 50). This type of feedback engages learners in the self-assessment process where they have to evaluate their own work to find out whether their questions are correct (Asghar, 2010; Cauley & McMillan, 2010). This is one of the fundamental principles of FA as this process seems to have beneficial results for learning and second/foreign language acquisition (see Section 2.6). This was not a common type of feedback despite its beneficial outcomes (see Table 4). This category is also interpreted as ‘descriptive feedback’ as learners are encouraged to move one step forward in learning, use their skills and background knowledge in order to decide whether their answer is correct or wrong.

The same teacher working with another group of students who did not cope well with their task of writing questions prompted the learners to think and created a scenario pretending to be a stranger where the learners had to ask her questions. The teacher used a FA technique to gather assessment information, i.e. ‘observation’, and then used ‘formative’ feedback in the form of ‘feedback on strategies’ to show them how to deal with and solve their difficulties. ‘Feedback on strategies’ is a feedback category where teachers try to demonstrate or provide different strategies to learners in order to show them how to reach the desired outcome. It is very important as these strategies help the learners to move forward and overcome their difficulties.

However, there were incidents when teachers were not the only “experts” in the classroom. Learners were found to provide feedback to their classmates. This type of feedback, also known as ‘peer-feedback’, was coded and will be analysed further, as ‘peer-’ along with ‘self-’ assessment, are very important for the process of FA (Asghar, 2010). The following excerpt shows two different examples of peer feedback in the same lesson. In both excerpts, the teacher revises the types of food and meals.

**Excerpt 4.28 (T2, p.11, t.129/t.178) Examples of Peer-feedback and Feedback on Work**

(129) T: And Hasan yes!

Teacher’s Feedback Repetition

Very nice! You did a good job!

Teacher’s Feedback on Work



What food?	Teacher's Question Closed Display
(130) S: 'Λεμόνι'. ( <i>Lemon</i> )	Learner's Response Partially Correct
(131) S2: Lemonade!	Learner's Feedback Peer
(132) T: Lemonade! Yes!	Teacher's Feedback Repetition
[...]	
(178) T: 'Breakfast'!	Teacher's Feedback Repetition
And at noon when we go home after school όταν πάμε σπίτι το μεσημέρι τι τρώμε; ( <i>when we go home at noon what do we eat?</i> )	Teacher's Question Repetition-Language
(179) S: 'Μεσημεριανό'! ( <i>Lunch</i> !)	Learner's Response Correct
(180) T: In English please!	Teacher's Feedback Descriptive
(181) S: Goody..	Learner's Incorrect Response
(182) S2: 'Lunch'?	Learner's Feedback Peer
(183) T: 'Lunch'!That's lovely!	Teacher's Feedback Repetition

This excerpt shows two instances where two learners could not answer the teacher's question in the target language (Turns 130, 179) and opted for the source language so the teacher had to ask for a translation. The learner fails to translate the word and another learner provides the correct answer. Peer feedback is necessary in every learning environment when it is used and monitored appropriately by the classroom teacher (see Section 2.8.6). Learners should be alert and pay attention to their teacher and classmates throughout the lesson and be able to answer and contribute by any means to the learning process. Peer-assessment is an effective FA technique (Glyn, Dona, & Kathleen, 2011) and can be used by teachers when appropriate to promote learning and language acquisition. Additionally, another type of feedback identified in the above excerpt is 'feedback on work' (Turn 129). This type of feedback is provided to learners when a specific attainment or outcome is praised or rewarded through rewarding words and expressions. This type of feedback is beneficial as it does not only work for the learner who receives this feedback, but also for the rest of the class who are motivated through this rewarding process. If the reward is related to the attainment of the learning objectives, then it can be used in the same way as the FA of sharing the learning objectives. This can be achieved by demonstrating to the rest of the learners what the desired outcome is, as the next type of feedback presented.

Teachers used feedback to reward or move learners forward in learning after a correct response and also provided feedback to demonstrate the form of the desired

outcome. This type of feedback is called ‘modelling feedback’ and was used by teachers to show learners how they should answer a question, or play a game. In other words, teachers share the success criteria with learners, a FA technique (William, 2011). The following excerpts show the interaction between the teacher and the learners where the teacher shows a picture of different rooms on the projector and learners are asked to state what they see.

**Excerpt 4.29 (T2, p.8, t.27/t.63/t.97) Example of Modelling Feedback**

(27) T: He is in the kitchen.	Teacher’s Feedback Repetition
Hmm...What is there in the kitchen? What is there in the kitchen? Elena?	Teacher’s Question Closed Display
(28) E: ‘Chair’.	Learner’s Correct Response
(29) T: There is a ‘chair’.	Teacher’s Feedback Repetition
I want you to say a sentence like this! There is a chair or there are... Ok?	Teacher’s Feedback Modelling
Now! Are there any pictures in the kitchen? Are there any pictures in the kitchen? Sotos?	Teacher’s Question Closed Display
[...]	
(63) T: There is a ‘car’. Lovely!	Teacher’s Feedback Repetition
Now! I am going to show you Roude’s living room. Roude’s living room and I want you to tell me sentences like these: there is or there are with the furnitures or things you see here. Anna?	Teacher’s Feedback Modelling
[...]	
(97) T: No! So,	Teacher’s Feedback Evaluative
I want you to guess what other animals might be in the next picture? What animal could be on this one? What is this? On this table? And ask me! Ask me!	Teacher’s Question Exploratory Display
‘Is there ammmmm on the table’? Or ‘Are there any mmmmmmm on the table’?	Teacher’s Feedback Modelling
Come on! I want more hands up!	Teacher’s Initiation Participation

The use of ‘modeling’ feedback by the teachers (Turns 29, 63 and 97) show their desire to clarify as explicitly as possible the success criteria of an answer. This type of feedback was quite common in the lessons (see Table 4). In this excerpt, the teacher uses body language and a characteristic sound to explicitly show the desired form that learners’ final answer should have. Another way of using this type of feedback was while providing instructions, or demonstrating how learners should play a game where the teacher performed the

appropriate actions or dialogues and learners should act according to teachers' guidelines. 'Modeling' feedback is very important for the process of FA as it is the practical implementation of one of the FA's teaching strategies suggested by the literature, the 'sharing of learning goals and success criteria' which is found to be used in other contexts (Stiggins, 2005; Tiknaz & Sutton, 2006). It is important for learners to know the goals and the performances they are expected to produce (Mewald & Wallner, 2015; Torkildsen & Erickson, 2016). The clearer the expectations and success criteria, the better the performance expected by the learners according to the literature (see Section 2.4).

A more specific type of evaluative feedback which facilitates more purposes, such as self-esteem and self-awareness, is the 'feedback related to self'. This specific type of 'evaluative' feedback does not target the whole class but the individual for his or her successful response or achievement. In the following excerpts, the learners are working in their picture books where they write the new letter and draw a picture.

**Excerpt 4.30 (T5, p. 22, t.80/t.86) Example of Feedback Related to Self**

(80) T: Six to work in rabbit?	Teacher's Question Irrelevant
Who else? Who else? Ποιος άλλος ( <i>Who else?</i> ) Hands up!	Teacher's Feedback Translation
Eemm... Good job Thalia!	Teacher's Feedback Self
Thalia you need to do... Yhea yhea start! Εντόξει ( <i>Ok</i> ). Ok! So...	Teacher's Feedback Development
[...]	
(86) T: My God Raphael, that's very good! We haven't started yet, but ok! I am going to take this and...	Teacher's Feedback Self
Μωρά, ο Raphael είπε ότι κύριε είδες τη λεξούλα what έχω το...; ( <i>Guys, Raphael said that sir, have you seen the word what I have the...?</i> )	Teacher's Feedback Explanatory

While the teacher is talking to the whole class, she spots something nice on a learner's work and rewards the learner personally by saying 'good job' and the name of the learner (Turn 80). Later on, she also praises a learner at a personal level using superlative expressions to show her surprise and thankfulness of the learners' achievement (Turn 86). 'Feedback related to self' seems to be even more effective and rewarding than other forms of 'evaluative' feedback as learners in this case know that they did really well and this is acknowledged by their teacher too. This can work as motivation for other learners to

accomplish successfully the next task in order to be rewarded too and is a very important tool for the learning process and a great reward for the assessment process.

#### **4.3.3.4 Corrective Feedback (classroom observations findings)**

Feedback provided from teachers was not only to reward and encourage learners to participate, but also to correct learners based on their incorrect response, known as ‘corrective’ feedback (Chaudron, 1977). ‘Corrective’ feedback is divided into ‘Implicit’ and ‘Explicit’ which are further divided into many subcategories. Implicit corrective feedback includes strategies and types of feedback where the corrections are not so evident as in the explicit way of correcting a mistake (Gass & Mackey, 2007) (see Section 2.6.6). The successful outcome of corrective feedback is an ‘uptake’, thus corrective feedback is crucial for L2 development (Gass & Mackey, 2007; Long, 1996). As the provision of corrective feedback is not always successful, there are different types of uptakes according to the level of success and the help provided or used for the formation of the uptake (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). The effectiveness of corrective feedback can be estimated based on the rate of accurate uptakes (Csépes, 2016). In order to show the interrelation of ‘corrective’ feedback and ‘uptake’, this section will present these two aspects together.

As mentioned earlier, ‘implicit corrective feedback’ is used to correct an incorrect response in an implicit way, without giving a lot of emphasis on the mistake but rather correct the mistake as ‘quietly’ as possible. This category of corrective feedback includes ‘recasts’, ‘corrective elicitations’, ‘clarification requests’, ‘repetition of the incorrect answer’, and ‘repetition of the question’ (see Appendix E). One of the most commonly used types of feedback evident in the data are recasts (see Table 6) and this is in line with the literature (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Sheen, 2008). ‘Recast’ is a very helpful way of correcting an incorrect response as teachers do not point the mistake but rephrase the answer by correcting it. The benefits of recasts are also evident in other studies (Long, Inagaki, & Ortega, 1998; Mackey & Oliver, 2002; Mackey & Philp, 1998). In the following example, the teacher asks the learners to ask each other what they want to be when they grow up and at the same time reformulates learners’ incorrect or incomplete answers.

#### **Excerpt 4.31 (T4, p.19, t.123) Example of Recast Corrective Feedback and Uptake Repair Incorporation**

(123) T: Anna! Ask Niki.

Teacher’s Question Closed Display

(124) A: What tari you...?	Learner's Response Incorrect
(125) T: What do you want ...?	Teacher's Feedback Recast
(126) A: What do you want to be?	Learner's Uptake Repair Guided-Incorporation
(127) T: What do you want to be Niki?	Teacher's Feedback Repetition
(128) N: I want to be a 'singer'!	Learner's response Correct
(129) T: 'Singer'. Ok!	Teacher's Feedback Repetition
Now, Niki ask her!	Teacher's Question Closed Display
(130) N: What a...?	Learner's Response Incorrect
(131) T: What about...?	Teacher's Feedback Recast
(132) N: What about you?	Learner's Uptake Repair Guided-Incorporation

The learner fails to form a question (Turn 124) and the teacher reformulates learner's answer through corrective 'recast' (Turn 125). The learner uses this feedback to provide uptake 'repair incorporation' as he moves on to complete the question by himself (Turn 126). Next, a learner provides an incomplete response (Turn 130), the teacher provides recast (Turn 131) and the learner provides uptake 'repair incorporation' (Turn 132). In this learning episode both recasts were successful as they resulted to uptake repairs which learners used to incorporate them into their own answers. This type of uptakes, in contrast to the repetition repair uptakes, shows that learners not only identified and corrected the mistake by repeating it, but were also able to understand the mistake and produce a correct response. This is an evidence of learning taking place due to conscious correction than mere repetition of what the teacher has already said.

In a similar way, as 'clarification requests' were used on the 'correct' answers, they were also used after an 'incorrect' response in order to get a correct response. In the following excerpt, the learners are working on a project about famous people, they are forming questions about their preferred famous person and the teacher asks each group to read their questions to the rest of the class.

**Excerpt 4.32 (T1, p.1, t.141) Example of Clarification Request Corrective Feedback and Incomplete Uptake**

(141) S: How many olds?	Learner's Response Incorrect
(142) T: How many?	Teacher's Feedback Corrective Clarification Request
(143) S: How old?	Learner's Uptake Incomplete

(144) T: How old is she? Right!

Teacher's Feedback Recast

Learner's Uptake No Opportunity

The learner provides an incorrect response (Turn 141) and the teacher replies with 'clarification request' (Turn 142). The fails to provide a complete question, thus he provides an 'incomplete' uptake. The teacher finally, through corrective 'recast', completes the missing part and reformulates the whole question (Turn 144). The use of corrective 'clarification request' helped the learner to find the answer (or at least part of it) without any further assistance from the teacher. The answer he provides in turn 3 is correct, comparing to the answer provided earlier (Turn 141), but still incomplete as it does not meet the requirements of the teacher. Incomplete uptakes include some characteristics of change and correctness, but are not completed and able to stand in speech alone.

'Clarification request' on incorrect response is an implicit way of indicating to learner that there is a mistake in the answer, without any attempt from the teacher to correct the mistake. The learner provided an incomplete uptake which includes some characteristics of change and correctness, but is not completed and able to stand in speech alone. Therefore, this type of corrective feedback proved effective at some level as it improved the learner's current performance during the teacher-learner interaction.

Other ways of assessing and correcting learners' answer and indicating that there is a mistake implicitly, without correcting the mistake, is the repetition of the question, initially asked by the teacher, or the repetition of the incorrect answer, which are presented below. The teacher in the following excerpt shows some pictures to the learners and expects that they should provide complete questions, which she modelled earlier, about the pictures.

**Excerpt 4.33 (T2, p.8, t.81) Example of Repetition of the Question Corrective Feedback and Uptake Repair Self**

(81) T: Are there any pictures? Are there any pictures in the living room?

Teacher's Question Closed Display

(82) S: Yes!

Learner's Response Incorrect

(83) T: Yes! Are there any pictures?

Teacher's Feedback Corrective Repetition

(84) S: Yes, there is.

Learner's Uptake Incorrect

(85) T: Are there any pictures?

Teacher's Feedback Corrective Repetition of the Question

(86) S: Yes, there are.

Learner's Uptake Repair Self

The learner provides an incorrect response (Turn 82) and the teacher firstly repeats the incorrect response and secondly repeats the initial question (Turn 83). In the next turn, the learner provides an incorrect sentence (Turn 84). The teacher provides the same type of feedback, ‘corrective repetition’ of the question again to retrieve the desired response (Turn 85). Finally, the learner provides the correct answer in turn 86. This type of uptake where the learner responds to the implicit type of feedback and finds the correct answer with the minimum assistance is called ‘uptake repair self’. In the above example, ‘corrective feedback repetition’ of the question was unsuccessful in the beginning and successful later on. This is due to the fact that through this type of feedback, the minimum amount of help or indication of the problem is provided to the learner as it is simply a second chance to provide the correct answer. In this FA process the teacher did not provide explicitly the answer or moved on to the next question, but insisted until the learner corrects the mistake to make sure that there is no ‘gap’ in their knowledge. As opposed to other types of corrective feedback which do not give the opportunity to learners to find the answer by themselves, e.g. ‘recasts’ and ‘explicit correction’ (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), this type of feedback promotes independent learning as learners strive to find the correct response, thus it is beneficial for language acquisition (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994) (see Table 7).

Similar to this type of feedback, another type which is more specific is the ‘repetition of incorrect answer’ feedback. The same teacher in the next lesson asks questions based on the pictures she shows on the board.

**Excerpt 4.34 (T2, p.9, t.39) Example of the Repetition of the Incorrect Answer Corrective Feedback and Uptake Repair Guided**

(39) T: Now! How many chairs are there? How many chairs are there Maria?	Teacher’s Question Closed Display
(40) M: There is two chairs in the kitchen.	Learner’s Response Partially Correct
(41) T: There is two chairs? Or there... mmmm two chairs?	Teacher’s Feedback Corrective Repetition of the Incorrect Answer Teacher’s Feedback Corrective Elicitation
(42) M: Are!	Learner’s Uptake Repair Guided

The learner provides a partially correct answer which includes a grammatical mistake (Turn 40). The teacher repeats the wrong answer in a question form and assesses the learner’s language ability by providing an alternative using an elicitation technique to indicate where the mistake is and that correction is required (Turn 41). This type of uptake

belongs to the category of ‘uptake repair guided’ as the learner found the answer after guidance than by herself. Repetition of the incorrect answer indicates that there is a mistake in the incorrect answer without correcting it. It is another implicit type of feedback which provides slightly more information than the repetition of the incorrect question, but still leaves all the correcting work to be carried out by the learner. In this excerpt, this type of feedback led to an ‘uptake repair guided’ as the learner found the answer after guidance than alone. It seems that the combination of ‘repetition of the incorrect response’ and ‘corrective elicitation’ proved effective for the learner to reach a successful uptake.

‘Corrective elicitation’ type of feedback is also evident in the next excerpt where it is combined with another corrective feedback type, the ‘redirection to peers corrective feedback’. The following excerpt takes place at the beginning of the lesson where the teacher practices the present continuous. She asks learners to describe what the animals are doing in the pictures and match the sentences on the cards with the pictures.

**Excerpt 4.35 (T4, p.16, t.12) Examples of Corrective Elicitation Feedback, Peer-Corrective Feedback and No Uptake**

(12) T: Now I have, here I have my sentences and somebody, I want someone to come here to match the sentences with the pictures.	Teacher’s Initiation / Instruction	Expectation
The first one! What are the animals doing? What is the animal doing? What do you think Socrates?	Teacher’s Questions	Closed Display
(13) S1: The giraffe...	Learner’s Response	Incomplete
(14) T: Yes, the giraffe!	Teacher’s Feedback	Elicitation
(15) S1: ee...	Learner’s Uptake	No
(16) T: Is... What is he doing?	Teacher’s Feedback	Elicitation
Would you like to try Charalambos?	Teacher’s Feedback	Peer
(17) C: The giraffe is kissing!	Learner’s Response	Correct
(18) T: Ahh is kissing. Is kissing what...?	Teacher’s Feedback	Descriptive

A learner fails to provide a complete answer (Turn 13) and the teacher repeats learner’s ‘incomplete answer’ in order to get a complete one (Turn 14), but the learner is unable to answer correctly (Turn 15). Learners’ responses were coded as ‘no’ uptake when learners, despite the provision of corrective feedback by the teachers, did not produce any kind of uptake and mostly remained silent. The teacher uses once more an elicitation technique to retrieve the correct answer by starting the sentence and waiting for the learner to complete it and then he redirects the question to another learner and asks him to try (Turn 16). In this



way, the teacher does not provide the correct answer, but another learner provides the answer to a learner. This type of feedback belongs to the corrective feedback peer category where teachers ask another learner to contribute in the learning process. This is very important for the process of ‘peer assessment’, a FA strategy, as peers have a crucial role in the language development of a learner, according to the literature. Finally, the second learner provides the correct response (Turn 17) and the teacher through feedback repetition confirms the correct answer.

On the other hand, ‘explicit corrective feedback’ is also used by teachers in their attempt to correct learners immediately. Types of explicit corrective feedback are ‘feedback corrective metalinguistic’ and ‘feedback corrective explicit correction’. The following excerpt is the introduction of storytelling where the teacher introduces the main character, Mrs T.

**Excerpt 4.36 (T5, p.21, t.49) Examples of Explicit Correction Feedback and Corrective Metalinguistic feedback**

(49) T: Mmh? Yhea! What else did we call her? What’s her name?	Teacher’s Metalinguistic	Feedback	Corrective
(50) S: Tyrannosaurus X!	Learner’s Uptake	Needs Repair	
(51) T: Yes, what else called? Mrs. T?	Teacher’s Feedback	Explicit Correction	
What’s her name?	Learner’s Uptake	No Opportunity	
(52) S: Tyrannosaurus.	Teacher’s Question	Closed Display	
(53) S: To tyrannosaurus Rex.	Learner’s Uptake	Needs Repair	
(54) T: No!	Teacher’s Feedback	Evaluative Incorrect	
(55) S: Mr. T?	Learner’s Uptake	Needs Repair	
(56) T: That’s good! Mrs.! Mrs.!	Teacher’s Feedback	Explicit Correction	
Because she is a lady. She is a girl. She is not a guy like myself. She is a girl like Ifigenia. She is... so she is Mrs. T! Mrs. T! Ok?	Learner’s Uptake	No Opportunity	
	Teacher’s Metalinguistic	Feedback	Corrective

The teacher in her attempt to help the learners to find the correct answer uses ‘corrective metalinguistic feedback’ to remind learners that they gave a special name to her (Turn 49). The learner provides an ‘incorrect response’ (Turn 50) and the teacher insists by repeating the question again about the name of the character (Turn 51). The learners provide

incorrect responses again and the teacher provides ‘evaluative feedback’ on their incorrect responses. Then the teacher provides evaluative feedback on an almost correct response and then spots the mistake and emphasises on the correct form (Turn 56). Furthermore, she explains why learners should use that form through ‘metalinguistic corrective feedback’.

Teachers when assessing learners’ language ability and using ‘explicit corrective feedback’ they are emphasising the mistake through explicit indications or corrections pertaining to a learners’ mistake. As opposed to ‘implicit corrective feedback’, ‘explicit corrective feedback’ makes clear to learners that there was a mistake in their answer and that the answer is incorrect. Thus, it is a quick and effective way to assess and correct learners’ outcome and this practice was found in other studies too (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Sakurai, 2014). However, despite the fact that correcting learners facilitates language learning (Hall, 2007) and should be noticed by the student (Gass, 2010), this specific type of feedback restricts learners’ opportunities to find the correct answer themselves. ‘Corrective metalinguistic feedback’ gives the opportunity to teachers to elaborate on the incorrect answer through examples, further questions, and short explanations of the mistake and the form that the answer should have. The use of ‘explicit corrective feedback’ seems to be an effective way of correcting a wrong answer, but it does not give the opportunity to learners for an uptake (see Table 7). This is coded in the data as ‘no opportunity for uptake’ and it is common feature after the provision of explicit correction or corrective recast type of feedback.

#### **4.3.3.5 Corrective Feedback (stimulated recalls and semi-structured interviews findings)**

During the stimulated recalls, all teachers agreed that they use ‘corrective feedback’ in different forms for various reasons. More specifically, teachers support that they provide feedback to correct syntax, vocabulary, and the use of articles, or when learners omit something or when they expect that learners should answer in complete sentences. Furthermore, the stimulated recalls revealed that teachers shared the same ideas and/or concerns on some aspects of ‘corrective feedback’, such as the prioritization of correcting speaking over writing, the need for the correction to be adjusted to learners’ needs, and the treatment of incorrect pronunciation.

When teachers were asked to elaborate and explain each of their corrective feedback actions, they revealed that the reason for emphasising speaking is because, according to their experience, in the future and more specifically in the high school, a lot

more attention is paid on writing than on speaking and learners do not have the opportunity to practise their speaking skills extensively.

#### **Excerpt 4.37 (T1, p.1, t.69) Example of Corrective Feedback**

(69) T: Yes, I corrected, yes, I corrected basically when I heard something syntactically incorrect, I wanted the children to be able to know how to form questions correctly and when I heard an incorrect answer, I wanted to correct them as they usually make grammatical and syntactical mistakes.

The teacher supports that she corrected all syntactic and grammar mistakes, so learners would be able to use English correctly

(70) R: Oral mistakes you mean?

The teacher corrected mostly speaking as she supports that learners in the primary school have the opportunity to speak English. The older they get the less speaking they do.

(71) T: Oral and written but mostly oral because they are not used to speak English. They have more writing from the other years and especially, as I know from my previous students, when they go to lower and higher secondary school and they emphasise on writing rather than speaking. So, I believe that when learners leave the Primary school, they should have a good start in expressing themselves. That is why I proceeded with the correction.

The learners' frequent syntax and grammar mistakes seem to be one of the reasons that T1 uses 'corrective feedback' in writing and mostly in speaking at this stage. T1 believes that 'corrective feedback' should help learners in expressing themselves correctly and becoming capable of correcting themselves in the future, thus enhancing self-assessment and self-improvement. Important words and learners' mistakes should be corrected as correction of mistakes benefits all students in enriching their vocabulary and using the appropriate tense. The use of self-assessment, through comparing their work with cards or other pictures on the board for example, is an important aspect of FA and teachers seem to be aware of the effectiveness of self-assessment and use it in their lessons (Asghar, 2010).

Furthermore, teachers emphasise the importance of taking under consideration the learners' needs and level of achievement while providing 'corrective feedback'. In the following excerpt the teacher describes how she treated a learners' incorrect answer.

#### **Excerpt 4.38 (T1, p.2, t.104) Example of Corrective Feedback**

(104) R: Here, in the second mistake of your student you were more...

The teacher explains that in case a learner makes a mistake, she gives the opportunity to the learner to find the correct answer by reformulating the word. When the learner did not succeed she helped the learner even more.

(105) T: I helped yes, I saw that the learner repeated the same mistake, so I showed and formulated the word and the learner repeated it.

Yes!

(106) R: You used a different strategy the second time the learner made the mistake. You gave the learner the opportunity the first time.

(107) T: Yes, to correct himself, we saw that he did not succeed and made a mistake again! So, I helped him even more.

(108) R: You usually do this right?

(109) T: Ehh, usually ok, it depends from the learner, but yes, there are cases that one intervention is not enough and he needs a second one.

(110) R: The way you treat the mistake depends on the learner.

(111) T: Yes, because usually the high achievers may make one mistake, but with little help they correct their mistake. A low to average achiever certainly needs more help. I gave him the opportunity to correct himself when he did not succeed.

In cases that one intervention is not enough the teacher continues by providing extra help. The level of help depend on learners' competence.

According to the teacher beliefs, learners should always have a second chance after their first unsuccessful attempt and in case another unsuccessful answer was provided they should change their strategies and try again. She also believes that the provision of corrective feedback should differ among learners. As it appears in Excerpt 4.38, the teacher has higher expectations from high achievers and insists more when these learners make a mistake. Through 'implicit corrective feedback' she gives the opportunity to high achievers to find the answer alone by repeating the question or providing examples. On the other hand, in the case where a low achiever fails to answer correctly, teachers have fewer expectations and they use 'corrective feedback' up to a point so as not to create negative feelings and discourage the learner from learning the target language. This is important and in line with the process of FA, as teachers based on the assessment information received provide learners with feedback according to their needs.

Another issue discussed extensively by the participants is the provision of 'corrective feedback' on pronunciation. Although while watching the lessons on the computer several instances of correcting pronunciation were spotted by the researcher or the teachers, when teachers were asked to elaborate on the particular or other corrections, they provided diverse answers. T1, for example, was spotted to correct pronunciation mistakes, but later on she supported that while reading she prioritises correct reading without leaving words behind rather than pronunciation. In another discussion, she also

supports that the correction of grammar is more important than the correction of pronunciation. The same teacher during the discussion of another lesson supports that correction of pronunciation is important as it is challenging for learners. Perhaps the correction of pronunciation is not the first priority for teacher 1, but her actions and statements support that correcting pronunciation is important for the learning process. T2 in a different note supports that correction of pronunciation is necessary as learners should pronounce the words correctly, but is not appropriate for all words as there are some very complicated and difficult ones to pronounce. Therefore, teachers' responses on the correction of pronunciation are not as consistent as in the other fields, as pronunciation is very challenging for learners.

Teachers in this study support that corrective feedback is necessary, but they also believe that correction should be carefully provided in order to guide learners towards the correct answer and not just give them the correct answer and move on. Therefore, the teachers stated that they prefer providing 'implicit corrective feedback' instead of explicitly correcting the learners. They achieve that through a variety of ways, e.g. spelling instead of writing the word, repeating an unanswered question considering the learners' level, and saying the beginning of a word so learners can find the rest of the word. They believe that they should not use phrases like "you are wrong". Instead, they can repeat the activity to help learners find the correct answer and do not discourage them during the learning process. They also support that if a learner provides a wrong answer after the provision of corrective feedback (unsuccessful uptake), they should change their strategies, for example repeat or even show a word, in order to help the learner as much as possible to find the answer (see Excerpt 4.38). In the following excerpt, the teacher and the learners are working on a listening activity where a learner made a mistake and the teacher in the stimulated recalls explains her corrective feedback strategies.

#### **Excerpt 4.39 (T4, p.18, t.47) Example of Implicit Corrective Feedback**

(47) R: The learner made a mistake here.

The researcher identified a point where a learner provided an incorrect answer.

(48) T: Yes!

(49) R: How did you deal with it? Did you say something?

(50) T: I did not tell him you made a mistake for sure.

The teacher asked the learner whether he is sure about his answer in an attempt to correct him implicitly.

(51) R: Hm, Hm!

(52) T: You are just sure.

(53) R: With a more implicit way.

(54) T: Yes, we said that it is wrong when someone tells us the correct answer. I proceeded since the children will hear it again and again until my objective is fulfilled.

The teacher believes that she should play the song again and give learners a second chance instead of providing the correct answer.

(55) R: Did you proceed further since you have put a line?

(56) T: Maybe I should give, I was waiting from one or two learners, I saw that they were thinking, but, I did not want to lose more time.

The teacher thought of getting an answer from a peer, but because of time constraints she played the song again.

(57) R: I see, it changed because of time.

(58) T: Yes! Yes! Yes! I had to proceed like this and the children would listen to it again.

(59) R: Very nice! That is why you put it forward and then they listened to it one more time. I just put the track forward because of the song.

(60) T: Yes! Yes!

(61) R: To move forward and ... The children found it.

(62) T: Yes! Yes!

(63) R: So, it was your way to correct it.

(64) T: Yes, without making a remark, without offending the learner, without discourage him because he is a child that participates during lessons.

The teacher explains that she corrected the mistake implicitly by playing the song again, without any explicit corrections.

The teacher instead of correcting the incorrect answer, she plays the song again in order to give a second chance to learners. This technique seems to be effective as the learners found the correct answer when they got the chance. According to teachers, 'implicit corrective feedback' should be also adjusted according to the learners' individual needs and level of achievement (see also Excerpt 4.38). The findings showed that teachers used various ways of 'implicit corrective feedback', i.e. play the song again, spell a word, write a word on the board, say the first sentence of a story, use cards on the board, give more time to learners to think, use body language and sounds, repeat questions, speak slowly etc. In this way, teachers provide learners with an opportunity to correct their responses, or ask further questions in order for the students to be able to answer correctly, thus, engaging them in the self-assessment process.

Time constrains seem to be a factor that changes teachers' actions. Teachers stated that they would react different when providing 'corrective feedback' if the time limits available are different (Excerpt 4.39). In case teachers had more time, they would elaborate

more, explain, and provide more examples to the learners rather than providing corrective feedback explicitly and move on.

Time is a central issue in the implementation of FA. Not only data from classroom observations, but also data from the semi-structured interviews show that the time spent on assessing learners' achievement is an issue that concerns the teachers. When participants were asked if they consider FA as time consuming, three of the five participants stated that it is not time consuming. One said that it is time consuming and needs planning (p.19. T4, str., t.395) and the other said it is time consuming as everything they do, but "as long as it is effective, it is time well spent for me" (p. 23, T5, str. t.247). Therefore, lesson time should be used in the best way for the benefit of learning. FA, even if it requires extra time according to the participants, can take the necessary time required as it is an effective way of teaching, assessing learners' achievement, and promoting learning.

Furthermore, feedback from peers is also important for the learning process and more specifically for the FA process. This type of feedback is used when learners need help. Most of the times, low-achievers fail to answer successfully or meet the requirements of an activity and teachers either ask for help from the whole class or from a particular learner. In this way, the teacher does not provide the answer, but gives the opportunity to a peer. In excerpt 4.39, the teacher admitted that she should seek for feedback from peers but because of the time constrains she did not follow her first thought.

#### **4.3.4 Observation (stimulated recall findings)**

Stimulated recalls were extremely helpful in the identification and understanding of observation instances, a teaching technique of FA (Mavrommatis, 1997; Pryor & Crossouard, 2008) which is inherently difficult to be identified by the researcher. During the stimulated recalls, there were several instances where the researcher spotted possible instances of teachers observing learners and there were also cases where the teacher was explaining that, through observation, information about learners' understanding or achievement was gathered. In the analysis of the data, observation was divided in two categories. The first category refers to teachers observing learners while working on 'one to one or as a team' and the second category refers to teachers observing learners during the 'whole class sessions'. In the first category, during 'one to one sessions', teachers observed learners to assess their performance, correct learners' mistakes, check if learners follow the teachers' instructions, or even help learners. In the second category, during the

'whole class sessions', teachers observed learners to identify whether they need to change their teaching strategies and also to assess, help, and monitor the learners.

#### **4.3.4.1 Observation of one to one session**

Teachers supported that the most important reason for observing learners is to assess learners' current achievement. The following excerpt presents a part of the stimulated recalls focusing on instances of teachers' observation during a group work session of the lesson. The teacher explains that she observed learners to assess whether they completed the task successfully. The teacher also explains that observation is useful for assessment purposes, to check whether learners follow instructions, but also to help and correct learners.

#### **Excerpt 4.40 (T1, p.2, t.60) Example of Observation (one to one) for Assessment Purposes**

(60) R: I see that you go around the tables, the teams.

The teacher states that she observes learners to assess if they can perform a task successfully, to check if they need help and to correct them.

(61) T: Again! To check, to make sure that they can form questions based on their worksheet they have in front of them. That they would not get confused and say "would you like to" or to take out "a" and having "to" instead. When the verb follows to check if they can read the vocabulary they have in front of them. To help them with any words of the worksheet they do not understand and in general to help them form correct questions with "would like to".

(62) R: So in your interactions with learners you corrected, observed...continuously.

(63) T: I listened, I went to each group, each group articulated a question, I checked when necessary.

During the one to one sessions the teacher observes learners to assess their performance in order to take further actions where necessary. Observation is very useful for the process of FA (Rea-Dickins, 2008) and is characterised as the foundation of FA (Antoniou & James, 2014). As mentioned above, teachers in the stimulated recalls stated that they observe learners to check if they write correctly and if they understand what they write as teachers support that they need to observe learners continuously during the writing session. Moreover, they added that they do not observe all learners at once and at the same pace as they firstly focus on those that will possibly need help in understanding the instructions and completing the activity. Not only do they observe those learners first, but they also spend more time with them if necessary.



Another reason, evident in Excerpt 4.40, for observing learners in one to one interaction sessions is the correction of mistakes and the difficulty learners have in expressing their ideas correctly, along with their difficulty in following instruction (e.g. understand which exercise to do, what to do etc.). Especially regarding instructions, observation is necessary because it engages learners in the learning process and facilitates their attention when they are lost or unable to complete the activity because of misunderstandings.

#### 4.3.4.2 Observation of whole class session

Observation of whole class session is helpful for teachers to assess, help, monitor, and most importantly change instruction when necessary in order to meet learners' needs. The following excerpt demonstrates the teacher's future plans after realising that learners did not completely meet the learning objectives of the lesson and explains how she deals with this kind of situation. The teacher, through observation and other possible assessment techniques, i.e. 'questioning', during a whole class session, realised that learners had difficulties in understanding the target language. The teacher explains that she changes future lesson plans to revise or provide further instruction to learners, following the principles of FA, when the learning objectives have not been met in the current lesson.

#### Excerpt 4.41 (T5, p.21, t.178) Example of Whole Class Observation

(178) T: Here, I try to check whether they understood those words and if they can use them. Here, I expected to be able to use the word "happy" in this case, or if I showed them a sad face to be able to say the word "sad". I see that the majority of learners can use them, but probably I have to work again on the feelings.

The teacher, through assessment and more specifically observation, identifies learners' difficulty to use the word 'happy' and 'sad' and realises that she has to work in this field again in the future.

(179) R: And you realized this through learners' reaction?

(180) T: Yes, and because of the fact that I had more difficulties introducing these feelings than expected.

(181) R: Hm, Hm!

(182) T: Which they should know well since last year.

(183) R: Do you usually do these practices? I mean you see that something goes wrong. You realized it through observation or your questions, I do not know if you have another way to create this picture, and you change this in the following lesson.

The teacher agrees that she usually uses information gathered from observation to change future lessons according to the needs identified during the assessment process.

(184) T: Yes! Yes! Either the next or after 3 and 4.

(185) R: Whenever you want any way you have the

intention.

(186) T: Yes! Yes! Yes! Yes!

(187) R: Do you usually do this?

(188) T: I usually do this because I always check which are my objectives and which are the curriculum's objectives, what I expect from them to understand and to know, based on previous years, and have this knowledge while moving to the next years.

The teacher decides whether further revision or instruction is required, as by considering what learners should know, she compares their achievement with the learning objectives, to check whether the objectives are fulfilled or further instruction is required.

During the whole class session, teachers get a wider and more general perspective of learners' achievement. They do not only consider each lesson's learners' performance but throughout the year they develop a complete picture. Feedback received from learners' achievement through observation can be elicited from a wide range of teachers' activities, for example storytelling, where teachers evaluate learners' reactions and adjust their teaching based on them.

Teachers, following the principles of FA, change their current or future lesson plans when they identify that change of instruction is necessary to improve the acquisition of language (Turn 188). Observation is very useful for teachers to check the effectiveness of their teaching and change their strategies accordingly. In the stimulated recalls, teachers stated that if observation shows that learners do not understand something or are unable to answer correctly, they write words on the board or refer to other cards and they give extra time when they realise that learners are not ready. Observation during the whole class sessions is also important for monitoring purposes (see Excerpt 4.41). Information from observation is useful for monitoring learners during the lesson. In addition, observing learners is important for keeping the learners alert throughout the lesson as according to what teachers say, if learners are left to work alone, they will finally end up with nothing.

To sum up, observation, of one to one interactions or whole class interactions, a FA teachers' technique, facilitates the assessment process by providing useful information of learners' current achievement. Based on the statements of teachers in the stimulated recalls, this information is used to make teaching more effective, adjust instruction according to learners' needs, thus promoting learning and language acquisition.

#### **4.3.5 Sharing the Learning Objectives (stimulated recall findings)**

'Questioning', 'feedback', and 'observation' were the main themes of discussion during the stimulated recalls as they seem to be the most popular ways of receiving feedback on learners' current achievement and providing feedback to learners when necessary. Other

aspects of FA, such as the ‘sharing of learning objectives and success criteria’ and ‘self- and peer- assessment’ were also identified and discussed less extensively and will be presented shortly.

One of the topics discussed during the stimulated recalls is the ‘sharing of learning objectives and success criteria’ with learners. It is very interesting to see that teachers have different approaches regarding the sharing of the learning objectives. Teachers referred extensively to the use and importance of the learning objectives in their lesson and, when asked by the researcher, provided a wide range of learning objectives examples from the lessons observed. Learning objectives referred, among others, to the learning of new vocabulary, the correct use of grammatical rules and formation of a variety of questions, the composition of a story or a description of an animal. In most cases, teachers reported that their learning objectives were fulfilled during the lesson apart from one case where the learning objectives of a particular lesson were partly fulfilled because of the high level of difficulty of a particular activity. Furthermore, teachers support that good teaching leads to the fulfillment of the learning objectives.

Teachers’ perceptions varied on whether they should share explicitly the learning objectives with the learners. Drawing from the teachers’ statements in the stimulated recalls it seems that learning objectives are very important in the learning process. An interesting aspect of the use of and reference to the learning objectives was revealed in the stimulated recalls and had to do with the fact that teachers should always focus on the learning objectives and try not to disorient themselves from them through learners’ interruptions, questions, and worries. T4 in the following excerpt explains why teachers should stick on their learning objectives.

#### **Excerpt 4.42 (T4, p.19, t.77) Example of Reference to the Learning Objectives**

(77) T: Yes, it was more personal. You know, “he”, “she” and all that are all well practised from last year, and from previous lessons we are targeted on professions, this is our target and to guess and answer with “Yes, I do / No, I don’t”.

The teacher explains that she does not let learners lose the lesson’s focus, as there are learning objectives for each lesson that have to be fulfilled. If the discussion is moved away, learners will not achieve the learning objectives.

(78) R: I see!

(79) T: I mean there are some objectives. We do not let the children to enroll with other things because afterwards, the lesson will not be completed.

(80) R: Very nice!

(81) T: And the initial objectives will not be fulfilled!

(82) R: Hm, Hm!

As sometimes learners during the lessons tend to move the discussion away from the target point and the learning objectives by emphasizing and elaborating on aspects not closely relevant to them, teachers should be alert and refocus the discussion on the tasks relevant to the learning objectives according to T4. Furthermore, this statement shows that learning objectives are very important in the learning process and they should be the first priority of the teacher as they work as a compass for teaching and learning in a lesson. Another thought to this direction identified in the data is that teachers should prioritise exercises and activities that have a direct link and are relevant to the learning objectives.

The importance of learning objectives is also evident in the belief of some teachers that they should be clearly displayed on the board or a flash card in order for learners to be able to read them during the lesson. According to these teachers, this strategy is very helpful for learners as the flashcards most of the times demonstrate the correct way of saying or asking something. In Excerpt 4.43, another teacher supports that she writes the general objective of the current period of lessons on the board, leaves it on the board for a week or two, and refers to this when necessary in order to help learners.

#### **Excerpt 4.43 (T2, p.8, t.41) Example of Reference to the Learning Objectives**

(41) R: With what you are saying now, I understand that you often put either a card, or you write the objective at some place, or it just happened now?

The teacher writes the learning objective of a series of lessons on the board.

(42) T: We usually write the material we are working on, time to time.

(43) R: Hm, Hm!

The reference of the learning objective on the board may have the form of the grammatical phenomenon studied that particular period or the more general theme that the learners are working on. Another teacher referred to the general objective of the lesson and, more specifically, to the fact that she prefers to share the general learning objective and not the individual ones as more effective in co-operation with the learners. The engagement of learners in the learning process and in particular in meeting the learning objectives is also suggested by another teacher through a stimulus, such as a picture or a flash card placed on the board and then a discussion between the teacher and the learners in order to find the lesson's objective together.

On the other hand, one particular teacher had a different view regarding the sharing of learning objectives with learners. She supports that a teacher should not explicitly state the learning objective to learners, but only indirectly refer to them through the instructions and guidelines provided during the lesson. The particular teacher also supports that no references to any grammatical rules are necessary either.

#### **Excerpt 4.44 (T3, p.13, t.21) Example of Reference to the Learning Objectives**

(21) R: The way you mentioned target language. You mention these objectives to your students from the beginning.

The teacher explains that she does not explicitly refer to the learning objectives or grammatical rules due to the young age of the learners, as they come out during the lesson implicitly.

(22) T: No!

(23) R: You mention them implicitly.

(24) T: Yes!

(25) R: You do not say that at all?

(26) T: You are not going to say that today's objective is to learn "I've got". No! They learn this effortlessly. You do not even bother to mention grammatical rules. Let's say that we teach higher grade, Year 4 for example, the third person singular. You extract the rule from the lesson. For example, he gets up, he goes to school, by writing the sentences and highlighting 'S' let's say you immediately put them in the process of wondering. Hey! OK! What's happening here? Right? The rule comes out effortlessly, but no, you are not going to say it to them. They are too young to...maybe to older learners you can say at the end of the lesson that this is the objective for today's lesson. For example, we learnt the Present Perfect but you do not say this to young learners.

Teacher 4 believes that the learning objectives as well as the grammatical rules can be transmitted to the learners indirectly through instructions, examples and further practice. This is in contrast with the rest of the teachers' beliefs on how the learning objectives should be presented. However, it is in line with the principle that learners should be aware of the learning objective, as despite the fact that the teacher does not explicitly state the learning objective for each lesson, the learners understand the purpose and the success criteria of the lesson through teachers' instructions.

On the whole, in the stimulated recalls all teachers showed that they emphasise on the learning objectives and consider them crucial for the learning process. Using explicit

ways e.g. flash cards, or implicit e.g. introductory activity, or a picture, to inform learners about the learning objectives, all teachers referred to the benefits of making learners aware of the learning objectives. Sharing the learning objectives and success criteria, a FA technique, is very important for the promotion of learning and language acquisition.

#### **4.3.6 Self- and Peer- assessment (stimulated recall findings)**

‘Self-assessment’ practices were identified in the lessons and discussed in the stimulated recalls as teachers seem to support the effectiveness of ‘self-assessment’. More specifically, in the following excerpt the teacher explains the reason for collecting learners’ work, i.e. worksheets, underlining the mistakes, and giving the work back to learners. The learners, then, had the opportunity in the following lesson to listen or re-read the text and then try to correct their mistakes as the teacher would play the sound clip again.

#### **Excerpt 4.45 (T1, p.7, t.156) Example of Self-Assessment**

(156) T: And we have to say that in the second time, despite the fact that the lesson finished here, I will... What I will do with their worksheet, I will underline the mistakes, I will not correct them in the first time, I will give them back to know where to focus, they will listen to the song again without any help from me this time.

The teacher will gather the worksheets, underline the mistakes and give it back to the students to correct the mistakes themselves.

(157) R: So you want to say that you do type of assessment which you will give back to the students.

The purpose of this assessment activity is not to get a mark, but to self-correct their mistakes.

(158) T: Yes!

(159) R: To the learners aiming to...

(160) T: To correct.

(161) R: Not just to get a mark, you are not marking them.

(162) T: No! Nothing.

(163) R: Aiming to...

(164) T: To correct themselves to listen to a different accent.

(165) R: Hm, hm!

(166) T: The main target is to self-assess and to improve their selves.

The teacher prompted the learners to assess themselves by returning the worksheets uncorrected. In this way, learners have to identify the mistake and try to correct it while

listening to the song again. Evidence of self-assessment in the observed lessons and the stimulated recall discussions indicate that teachers are willing to employ this strategy in their lesson. However, the limited number of these instances (see Table 6) and references in the stimulated recalls may denote that the particular primary school context is not appropriate for its extensive use. Furthermore, teachers' perceptions on the use of 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment were examined during the semi-structured interviews where teachers explained the reason for not using them frequently.

Teacher 5 and Teacher 3 when asked whether they use self-assessment, they referred to the end of the lesson self-assessment activities of the course book. However, Teacher 5 showed her disagreement with this type of assessment as not objective or honest on the part of the learners by saying that "In a lesson you cannot teach something and then expect from the learners...I do not know how honest the learner is in terms of assessment although I encourage them to be honest...but when there is something 'fresh' in their mind, they believe that they know it. First of all, this is not assessment and second, whatever that is, it is not objective" (p.23, T5, str. t.256). Despite the limitations of self-assessment in this context because of the young age of learners, this practice is very effective according to the literature as its use benefits learning and language acquisition (Baleghizadeh & Masoun, 2013; Panadero et al., 2014; Taras, 2003).

#### **4.4 Conclusion**

The findings from the classroom observations, stimulated recalls, and semi-structured interviews revealed the way teachers assess learners' achievement in the EFL Cypriot primary school context. As it is found in other studies (Mohr & Mohr, 2007; Pryor & Crossouard, 2008), teachers use 'questioning' extensively to assess learners and initiate the learning episodes. They stated that they mostly ask questions for 'assessment' and 'revision' purposes. In addition, they use 'observation' to assess learners and gather assessment information of their achievement and this is also found in other studies too (Antoniou & James, 2014; Mavrommatis, 1997). They observe learners working in 'whole class activities' or 'one to one sessions'. Most teachers stated that they do not use tests, which is another way of gathering assessment information. Some of them stated that tests are not representative of learners' general knowledge of English and they also bring extra stress to learners.

Teachers in this context use the assessment information gathered from the aforementioned techniques to inform future planning or to provide various feedback types

(Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Tunstall & Gipps, 1996) in order to reward, correct, or expand learners' understanding. 'Descriptive' and 'metalinguistic' types of feedback were recorded to be effective in expanding learners' EFL knowledge and understanding. Extensive use of 'corrective feedback' was recorded and seemed to be effective for the correction of learners' incorrect responses. Particular corrective feedback types, e.g. 'recasts', 'elicitations', and 'corrective metalinguistic feedback', were used more than the other corrective feedback types. However, despite the fact that specific corrective feedback types were the reason for 'uptake repair guided' they were also the reason for 'problematic' uptakes. More specifically, 'recasts' caused a large number of 'No opportunity uptake' and 'elicitations' caused a lot of 'repair need uptake'. Thus, the type of corrective feedback provided to learners should be carefully chosen to meet their individual needs and be more effective.

Therefore, FA techniques such as 'questioning', 'observation', and 'feedback' are used extensively. However, other FA techniques, such as 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment, 'sharing the learning objectives and success criteria' along with the 'formative use of summative tests' are used less frequently. This is an aspect that questions the suitable implementation of FA in this context and an indication that there is space for further improvement in order to take advantage of the benefits of FA in this context.



## **Chapter 5: Findings from the Classroom Assessment Questionnaires**

### **5.1 Abstract**

This chapter presents the findings of the Classroom Assessment Questionnaire (CAQ). The purpose of the CAQ is to investigate FA in the EFL primary school and provide a more general picture than already provided by the other instruments used in this study. The CAQ facilitated the triangulation of the results and contributed to the other instruments' findings. More specifically, the CAQ aims at examining teachers' perceptions of and practices on FA (RQ 2 and RQ 1 and 3 respectively), the provision of feedback (RQ 3), the way teachers treat assessment information (RQ 4), as well as their background knowledge on FA (RQ 2). Initially, the results of the quantitative analysis of data collected using the CAQ are presented and then the findings of the qualitative analysis of the open-ended questionnaire are discussed.

### **5.2 Preliminary Analysis**

#### **5.2.1 Likert-Type Questions**

Initially, data collected from the groups of Likert type items of the CAQ were submitted to preliminary analyses to determine: (a) whether normality assumptions were met in order to determine their appropriateness for parametric analysis and (b) the factorial structure of the instrument. For this purpose, descriptive statistics for all CAQ items was calculated in order to assess whether the data were normally distributed and appropriate for exploratory factor analysis (Cohen et al., 2007; Coolican, 2009). All Likert-type items were included in an exploratory factor analysis which, however, did not yield interpretable or reliable factors. Subsequently, a series of exploratory factor analyses were performed to each of the CAQ Likert-type items groups that assessed: (a) Agreement of the Use of the Information Obtained from the FA Techniques (Question 10), (b) Application of the Use of the Information Obtained from the FA Techniques (Question 11), and (c) Perceptions on Assessing Learners and Using this Information During the Lesson (Question 17).

The Exploratory Factor Analysis performed on the CAQ Likert-type items groups that assessed Agreement of the Use of the Information Obtained from the FA Techniques (Question 10) revealed two factors which, nevertheless, could not be used for further analyses because their internal consistency was below the minimum acceptable limits (*Cronbach's*  $\alpha < .70$ ) and only two items primarily loaded on one of them. Hence, the aforementioned items were dropped from the main analysis.

Similarly, the Exploratory Factor Analysis performed on the CAQ Likert-type items groups that assessed the Application of the Use of the Information Obtained from the FA Techniques (Question 11) revealed two factors which, nevertheless, could not be used for further analyses because their internal consistency was also below the minimum acceptable limits (*Cronbach's*  $\alpha < .70$ ) and only two items primarily loaded on one of them. Hence, the aforementioned items were dropped from the main analysis.

Contrary to the above preliminary analyses findings, the Exploratory Factor Analysis performed on the CAQ Likert-type items groups that assessed Perceptions on Assessing Learners and Using this Information During the Lesson (Question 17) revealed one dominant factor that accounted for 61.40% of the total variance, which was reliable (*Cronbach's*  $\alpha = .815$ ). Descriptive statistics for the CAQ Likert-type items in Question 17 is presented on Table 9. As it can be seen, all items were normally distributed ( $-2 < \text{Skewness} < 2$ ). The values for asymmetry and kurtosis between -2 and +2 are considered acceptable in order to prove normal univariate distribution (George & Mallery, 2010). The results of the Exploratory Factor Analysis performed on them are presented on Table 10.

**Table 9 Descriptive Statistics of Teachers' Perceptions on Assessment**

	<i>n</i>	$\bar{x}$	<i>SD</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>SE Skewness</i>
17.1 It can promote learning	374	4.5615	.53831	-.661	.126
17.2 It is an effective way to assess learners	373	4.4236	.58446	-.512	.126
17.3 It is helpful for learners	374	4.4439	.60009	-.718	.126
17.4 It is informative for next day's planning	374	4.3824	.66374	-.778	.126
17.5 It is not very useful because it is not valid	373	1.9169	.84310	1.024	.126

**Table 10 Factor Loadings of Teachers' Perceptions on Assessment**

Question	Factor
	1
18.3 It is helpful for learners	.867
18.1 It can promote learning	.848
18.2 It is an effective way to assess learners	.836
18.4 It is informative for next day's planning	.744
18.5 It is not very useful because it is not valid	-.589

Therefore, for the purposes of the main analysis that followed next, one new composite variable was created, namely 'Teachers' Perceptions of FA' (TPFA), by calculating the mean score of items 18.1 through 18.5 after participants' answers were recoded for question 18.5.

In conclusion, the preliminary analysis resulted in the creation of one composite variable from the Likert-type items included in the CAQ that could validly and reliably measure 'Teachers' Perceptions of FA' (TPFA). Therefore, this was used in the main analysis as a dependent variable.

### **5.2.2 Ranking Questions**

The groups of items that required participants to rank answers, instead of providing answers to Likert-type items, were not submitted to normality tests or exploratory factor analyses, because they were not intended for parametric analyses. The results obtained are presented below.

### **5.3 Main Analysis**

By closely examining the research questions and given that the CAQ could reliably measure the aforementioned dependent variable, several two-way between subjects ANOVAs were applied. These parametric analyses were selected due to their statistical power and also because they were considered most appropriate for providing answers to the research questions of this study. Addressing these questions required investigation on whether a combination of two or more categorical independent variables affected the values of one or more dependent variables (Coolican, 2009; Dancey & Reidy, 2011).

#### **5.3.1 The effect of OT-E and TESOL-E on TPFA**

This analysis aims to provide answers to the second research question of this study regarding teachers' perceptions of FA. This particular analysis investigates whether teachers' experience and teachers' teaching English experience had any effect on their perceptions of FA.

To investigate the effect of Overall Teaching Experience (OT-E) and TESOL Experience (TESOL-E) on Teachers' Perceptions on FA (TPFA) a 2 x 2 between subjects two-way ANOVA factorial design was applied. OT-E and TESOL-E served as the independent variables, whereas Teachers' Perceptions on FA (TPFA) served as the dependent variable. Table 11 shows the mean scores for TPFA by OT-E and TESOL-E.

**Table 11 Descriptive Statistics of Experience on TPFA**

OT-E	TESOL-E					
	>6			<6		
	$\bar{x}$	(SD)	N	$\bar{x}$	(SD)	N
>12	21.94	(2.36)	115	22.63	(2.26)	24
<12	21.82	(2.66)	115	21.81	(2.46)	118

Note:

OT-E: Overall Teaching Experience

TESOL-E: TESOL Experience

TPFA: Training on Teachers' Perceptions on FA

The results from the above analysis revealed no significant main or interaction effect of OT-E and TESOL-E on TPFA. Table 12 presents the results of this analysis.

**Table 12 ANOVA results of assessing the effects of experience on TPFA**

	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Subjects			
OT-E	1	2.119	.145
TESOL-E	1	1.089	.297
OT-E * TESOL-E	1	1.170	.280
Error	368		

Note:

OT-E: Overall Teaching Experience

TESOL-E: TESOL Experience

TPFA: Training on Teachers' Perceptions on FA

### 5.3.2 The effect of OT-E and Training on TPFA

The purpose of this analysis is to investigate teachers' perceptions of FA, the second research question of this study. This analysis examines whether teachers' teaching experience and training affect the perceptions of teachers of FA.

To investigate the effect of Overall Teaching Experience (OT-E) and Training on Teachers' Perceptions on FA (TPFA) a 2 x 3 between subjects two-way ANOVA factorial design was applied. OT-E and Training served as the independent between subjects variables, whereas Teachers' Perceptions on FA (TPFA) served as the dependent variable. Table 13 shows the mean scores for TPFA by OT-E and Training.

**Table 13 Descriptive Statistics of OT-E and Training on TPFA**

	Training								
	No Training			In service Training			Extensive Training		
OT-E	$\bar{x}$	(SD)	N	$\bar{x}$	(SD)	N	$\bar{x}$	(SD)	N
>12	22.34	(2.25)	38	22.03	(2.25)	67	21.79	(2.66)	34
<12	21.39	(2.70)	51	22.03	(2.41)	138	21.57	(2.83)	42

Note:

OT-E: Overall Teaching Experience

TPFA: Training on Teachers' Perceptions on FA

The results from the above analysis revealed no significant main or interaction effect of OT-E and Training on TPFA. Table 14 presents the results of this analysis.

**Table 14 ANOVA results of assessing OT-E and Training on TPFA**

	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Subjects			
OT-E	1	1.843	.175
Training	2	0.537	.585
OT-E * Training	2	1.083	.340
Error	364		

Note:

OT-E: Overall Teaching Experience

TPFA: Training on Teachers' Perceptions on FA

### 5.3.3 The effect of TESOL-E and Training on TPFA

This analysis examines how teachers' teaching English experience and Training affect their perceptions of FA in order to provide answers to the sixth research question of this study.

To investigate the effect of TESOL Experience (TESOL-E) and Training on Teachers' Perceptions on FA (TPFA) a 2 x 3 between subjects two-way ANOVA factorial design was applied. TESOL-E and Training served as the independent between subjects variables, whereas Teachers' Perceptions on FA (TPFA) served as the dependent variable. Table 15 shows the mean scores for TPFA by TESOL-E and Training.

**Table 15 Descriptive Statistics of TESOL-E and Training on TPFA**

TESOL-E	Training								
	No Training			In service Training			Extensive Training		
	$\bar{x}$	(SD)	N	$\bar{x}$	(SD)	N	$\bar{x}$	(SD)	N
>6	22.00	(2.60)	72	22.08	(2.28)	127	20.77	(2.85)	31
<6	20.94	(2.16)	17	21.95	(2.48)	78	22.29	(2.43)	45

Note:

TESOL-E: TESOL Experience

TPFA: Training on Teachers' Perceptions on FA

The results from the above analysis revealed a significant interaction of TESOL-E with Training on TPFA [ $F(2, 364) = 4.767, p = .009$ ]. No significant main effects were observed. Table 16 presents the results of this analysis.

**Table 16 ANOVA results of assessing TESOL-E and Training on TPFA**

	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Subjects			
Training	2	1.655	.192
TESOL-E	1	0.119	.731
Training * TESOL-E	2	4.767	.009
Error	364		

Note:

TESOL-E: TESOL Experience

TPFA Training on Teachers' Perceptions on FA

The observed interaction was caused by the fact that the differences in TPFA mean scores of participants with less or more than 6 years or TESOL-E were not uniform across the three levels of Training (No Training, In-service Training, and Extensive Training). Specifically, low TESOL-E teachers who had not received any training had a higher TPFA mean score compared to high TESOL-E who had also not received any training. On the contrary, low TESOL-E teachers who had received extensive training had a lower TPFA mean score compared to high TESOL-E teachers who had also received extensive training. Teachers who had received only in-service training had almost the same mean TPFA score regardless of their TESOL-E level.

For example, teachers with less than 6 years of teaching English experience, who had not received any training, agreed more with statements supporting that assessing learners' achievement during the lesson and using this information in teaching can promote learning, compared to teachers with more than six years of teaching English experience, who had not received any training. Although teachers had more experience in teaching

English, they did not show more agreement than the inexperienced teachers and this was due to the fact that both groups had no training. This denotes the importance of training in FA for all teachers despite their years of teaching experience. On the contrary, teachers with one to five teaching experience in English, who had received extensive training, had agreed less with the same statements compared to teachers with more than six years of teaching English experience who had also received extensive training. This finding shows that when teachers receive training the years of teaching experience affect their perceptions. It also contrasts with the previous finding with untrained teachers whose years of teaching experience did not affect their perceptions.

#### **5.4 Analysis of Ranking Questions**

Furthermore, data collected from the group of items in the CAQ and, more specifically, from ranking questions that assessed the frequency, the effectiveness, and the ease of teachers' assessment techniques were submitted to non-parametric analysis, using the *Kendall's W* test in order to calculate and compare their mean ranks. In addition, the data were also submitted to correlation analysis using *Spearman's rho* in order to identify statistically significant correlations among the mean ranks of the frequency, the effectiveness, and the ease of teachers' assessment techniques.

##### **5.4.1 Frequency, Effectiveness, and Ease of Teachers' Assessment Techniques**

Table 17 provides the mean ranks of each of the six statements that the participants were asked to rank based on the three items pertaining to the frequency, the effectiveness, and the ease of teachers' assessment techniques. The purpose of this analysis is to provide answers to the first research question of this study regarding the ways that teachers use to assess learners' achievement. More specifically, Kendall's *W* tests were conducted to identify which items ranked first in the respondents' preferences in each category, i.e. terms of frequency, effectiveness, ease of use, and check whether the differences between the mean ranks of the categories were statistically significant. In addition, Kendall's *W* tests were also conducted to identify the respondents' preferred category for each teachers' assessment technique and whether the differences between the mean ranks of each category, i.e. frequency of use, effectiveness, and ease of use, were statistically significant. The differences between the mean ranks of the teachers' assessment techniques presented to participants in terms of frequency used were examined for statistical significance using the *Kendall's W* test. Results indicated that the above differences were statistically significant (*Kendall's W* = 0.386,  $p = .001$ ).

**Table 17 Mean ranks of teachers' assessment techniques**

<i>Question</i>	<i>Used more often</i>	<i>More effective</i>	<i>Easier to use</i>
I ask questions and interact with learners	1.91	2.11	1.97
I observe learners during the lesson	<b>1.86</b>	2.23	<b>1.90</b>
I use tests at the end of the unit	2.12	2.39	<b>1.48</b>
I use short tests and other assessment activities (e.g. quizzes) during the lesson	<b>1.89</b>	1.94	2.17
I involve learners in self-evaluation	2.03	<b>1.64</b>	2.32
I involve learners in peer-assessment	2.05	<b>1.66</b>	2.29

More specifically, the assessment technique used more often by participants, and thus ranked first, was “I observe learners during the lesson”. This is in line with the findings gathered from the other instruments of this study according to which teachers used observations extensively to assess learners’ understanding during the lesson. Furthermore, observation is found to be a popular way of assessing learners’ achievement in other studies as well (Butler, 2009; Torrance & Pryor, 2001). The least used assessment technique was “I use tests at the end of the unit”. This finding is also in line with the findings of other instruments as most of the teachers stated they do not use tests. Two assessment techniques, “I involve learners in self-evaluation” and “I involve learners in peer-assessment”, were ranked the same. Teachers seem to treat these two assessment practices the same as the other findings of this study showed that teachers do not use any of these techniques but they believe that both of them are effective.

Furthermore, the assessment technique considered more effective by participants, and thus ranked first, was “I involve learners in self-evaluation”. Despite the fact that teachers did not use this FA technique in their lesson and reported that it is not appropriate because of the young age of the learners, in this question they show that they appreciate it as it is characterised as one of the most important FA techniques (Panadero et al., 2014). The least effective assessment technique was “I use tests at the end of the unit” and this is in line with the formative way of assessing learners’ achievement during the lesson instead of using a test at the end of the unit. It is important to note that another assessment technique “I involve learners in peer-assessment” was almost ranked the same as the first choice of the participants “I involve learners in self-evaluation”.

Moreover, the assessment technique assumed as easier to use by participants, and thus ranked first, was “I use tests at the end of the unit”. However, the findings in the previous analyses found that teachers stated that it is the least used and the least effective technique. Therefore, teachers do not use the easiest assessment technique because they



believe that is the least effective in the promotion of learning and language acquisition. This shows that teachers are aware of other ways to assess learners' achievement, i.e. FA, and prioritise learning and language acquisition over their convenience. The most difficult assessment technique was "I involve learners in self-evaluation". Probably this is the reason that self-assessment was not found to be used during the classroom observation and this denotes the need for teachers' training in this field. Two assessment techniques, "I ask questions and interact with learners" and "I observe learners during the lesson" were ranked almost the same. The differences between the mean ranks of the teachers' assessment techniques presented to participants in terms of usage frequency were examined for statistical significance using the *Kendall's W* test. Results indicated that the above differences were statistically significant (*Kendall's W* = 0.393,  $p = .001$ ).

The assessment techniques presented to participants were ranked differently for frequency of use, effectiveness, and ease of use. To assess whether the differences observed between the mean ranks achieved by each teacher's assessment technique for frequency of use, effectiveness, and ease of use were statistically significant the *Kendall's W* test was used. Results indicated these differences were statistically significant for each of the teachers' assessment technique examined (*Kendall's W* = 0.023,  $p < .001$ , *Kendall's W* = 0.065  $p = .001$  and *Kendall's W* = 0.316,  $p < .001$ , *Kendall's W* = 0.030,  $p < .001$ , *Kendall's W* = 0.165,  $p < .001$ , *Kendall's W* = 0.154,  $p < .001$  respectively). As it can be seen in Table 17, the teachers' assessment techniques ranked highest in terms of their frequency were: "I ask questions and interact with learners", "I observe learners during the lesson", and "I use short tests and other assessment activities (e.g. quizzes) during the lesson". This was evident in the other research results, where questioning and observing learners were the most popular types used along with the provision of feedback. Similarly, assessment techniques ranked highest in terms of their effectiveness were: "I involve learners in self-evaluation" and "I involve learners in peer-assessment". This finding shows that teachers are aware of their effectiveness (Asghar, 2010; Panadero & Alonso-Tapia, 2013) but comes in contrast with the results of the classroom observations as these practices were not used frequently. The assessment technique ranked first in terms of ease of use was "I use tests at the end of the unit".

To further investigate the relationship between teacher's replies regarding how high they rank the various assessment techniques for frequency of use, effectiveness, and ease of use, Spearman's rho correlations were also calculated.

**Table 18 Spearman's rho analysis of teachers' assessment techniques.**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18		
Frequency of use																				
1 I ask questions and interact with learners.		-,110*	-,088	-,221**	-,194**	-,184**	,533**	,109*	-,048	-,157**	-,237**	-,151**	,308**	,080	-,136*	-,085	,043	-,149**		
2 I observe learners during the lesson.			-,097	-,227**	-,170**	-,260**	,046	,430**	-,090	-,087	-,110*	-,192**	,015	,173**	-,069	,007	-,001	-,076		
3 I use tests at the end of the unit.				,080	-,341**	-,543**	-,118*	-,095	,588**	,157**	-,080	-,248**	-,063	,016	,194**	,018	-,103	-,127*		
4 I use short tests and other assessment activities (e.g. quizzes) during the lesson.					-,369**	-,275**	-,102	-,034	,102	,414**	-,073	-,175**	-,081	-,073	,141**	,141**	-,106	-,125*		
5 I involve learners in self-evaluation.						,297**	-,241**	-,079	-,204**	-,164**	,398**	,201**	-,035	-,056	-,087	-,062	,229**	,130*		
6 I involve learners in peer-assessment.							-,069	-,235**	-,297**	-,188**	,125*	,570**	-,085	-,103	-,100	-,059	,071	,391**		
Effectiveness																				
7 I ask questions and interact with learners.								,176**	,005	-,232**	-,502**	-,372**	,209**	,085	-,048	-,127*	,008	-,098		
8 I observe learners during the lesson.									-,048	-,236**	-,410**	-,484**	,020	,102	-,031	,040	,036	-,077		
9 I use tests at the end of the unit.										,162**	-,366**	-,413**	-,191**	-,012	,128*	,065	,066	-,096		
10 I use short tests and other assessment activities (e.g. quizzes) during the lesson.											-,235**	-,276**	-,046	-,097	,114*	,103	-,046	-,077		
11 I involve learners in self-evaluation.													,434**	,022	,048	-,048	,030	-,038	,005	
12 I involve learners in peer-assessment.														-,058	-,084	-,099	-,091	,026	,341**	
Ease of use																				
13 I ask questions and interact with learners.															,081	-,350**	-,250**	-,149**	-,151**	
14 I observe learners during the lesson.																-,350**	-,281**	-,195**	-,167**	
15 I use tests at the end of the unit.																	,185**	-,356**	-,391**	
16 I use short tests and other assessment activities (e.g. quizzes) during the lesson.																			-,305**	-,353**
17 I involve learners in self-evaluation.																				,308**
18 I involve learners in peer-assessment.																				

Note: \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

In the first group of items where the participants were asked to rank assessment techniques according to their frequency of use, the highest positive statistically significant correlation was found between the statements “I involve learners in peer-assessment” and “I involve learners in self-evaluation”. This is a finding in the results of the other instruments to be used in the same way as both statements refer to learner-initiated assessment techniques instead of the other statements which are teacher-initiated. In addition to this, negative moderate statistically significant correlation was found between these statements with the statements “I use tests at the end of the unit” and “I use short tests and other assessment activities (e.g. quizzes) during the lesson”. The highest negative statistically significant correlation was found between the statements “I involve learners in peer-assessment” and “I use tests at the end of the unit”. These statements show the two extremes of a testing oriented culture (tests) and an alternative oriented culture (self/peer-assessment).

In the second group of items, the participants ranked the statements according to their effectiveness. In the same way as the previous group of items, the highest positive statistically significant correlation was found between the statements “I involve learners in peer-assessment” and “I involve learners in self-evaluation”. This is also supported in the literature (Asghar, 2010; Panadero & Alonso-Tapia, 2013) and the fact that teachers are aware of the benefits of these practices is very encouraging. On the other hand, the highest negative statistically significant correlation was found between the statements “I ask questions and interact with learners” and “I involve learners in self-evaluation”. This negative correlation is very interesting as both assessment techniques are effective according to the literature, but not according to the participants.

In the third group of items, the participants were asked to rank the statements according to their ease of use. In the same way as the previous groups of items, the highest positive statistically significant correlation was found between the statements “I involve learners in peer-assessment” and “I involve learners in self-evaluation”. The highest negative statistically significant correlation was found between the statements “I involve learners in peer-assessment” and “I use tests at the end of the unit”. This again shows the difference between the two statements.

In an attempt to examine the correlation of the same statements based on the three categories, the results showed that the correlations were different. Positive statistically significant correlations were found for the “I ask questions and interact with learners” statement among the three questions ( $\rho = .533$ ,  $\rho = .308$ ,  $\rho = .209$ ). There was a

positive strong statistically significant correlation for frequency-effectiveness and a positive moderate statistically significant correlation for frequency–ease and effectiveness–ease. This is also supported by the results of the classroom observation analysis as questioning and interacting with learners were used extensively. It is also supported in the literature as questioning was found to be used extensively in many studies (Chinn, Anderson, & Waggoner, 2001; Mohr, 1998; Tsui, 1995)

Similar findings emerged for the second statement as there was a positive strong statistically significant correlation ( $rho = .430$ ) between frequency and effectiveness and a positive low statistically significant correlation ( $rho = .173$ ) between frequency and ease, which is also supported in the stimulated recalls of this study and found to be popular in other studies too (Butler, 2009; Torrance & Pryor, 2001), but there was not a statistically significant correlation between effectiveness and ease.

Positive statistically significant correlations emerged for the “I use tests at the end of the unit” statement among the three questions ( $rho = .588$ ,  $rho = .194$ ,  $rho = .128$ ). There was a positive strong statistically significant correlation for frequency-effectiveness and a positive weak statistically significant correlation for frequency–ease and effectiveness–ease.

Similar findings emerged for the fourth statement “I use short tests and other assessment activities (e.g. quizzes) during the lesson” as there was a positive strong statistically significant correlation ( $rho = .414$ ) between frequency and effectiveness and a positive low statistically significant correlation ( $rho = .141$ ) between frequency and ease, but there was not a statistically significant correlation between effectiveness and ease.

In the same vein are the findings for the fifth statement “I involve learners in self-evaluation” as there were positive moderate statistically significant correlations ( $rho = .398$ ,  $rho = .229$ ) between frequency-effectiveness and frequency–ease, but there was not a statistically significant correlation between effectiveness and ease.

Positive statistically significant correlations emerged for the “I involve learners in peer-assessment” statement among the three questions ( $rho = .570$ ,  $rho = .391$ ,  $rho = .341$ ). There was a positive strong statistically significant correlation for frequency-effectiveness and a positive moderate statistically significant correlation for frequency–ease and effectiveness–ease.

Smaller correlation emerged among the statements of the questions regarding ease of use compared to the other two questions of frequency and effectiveness.

#### 5.4.2 Frequency, Effectiveness, and Ease of Corrective Feedback Techniques

Table 19 provides the mean ranks of each of the six statements that the participants were asked to rank based on the three questions pertaining to the frequency, the effectiveness and the ease of using corrective feedback techniques. This analysis provides answers to the second research question which examines, amongst other issues, the types of feedback that teachers provide to learners. More specifically, Kendall's *W* tests were conducted to identify which items ranked first in the respondents' preferences in each category, i.e. terms of frequency, effectiveness, ease of use, and check whether the differences between the mean ranks of the categories were statistically significant. In addition, Kendall's *W* tests were also conducted to identify the respondents' preferred category for each teachers' corrective feedback technique and whether the differences between the mean ranks of each category, i.e. frequency of use, effectiveness, and ease of use, were statistically significant.

**Table 19 Mean ranks of corrective feedback techniques**

<i>Question</i>	<i>Used more often</i>	<i>More effective</i>	<i>Easier to use</i>
Give them the correct answer	2.37	2.41	<b>1.22</b>
Reformulate learners' answer without mentioning the mistake	1.83	<b>1.76</b>	2.42
Indicate the mistake and wait for the correct answer	1.81	<b>1.80</b>	2.39
Repeat learners' answer	1.99	2.09	<b>1.92</b>
Give them information and comments in order to find the correct answer	1.70	<b>1.53</b>	2.77
Use Greek to help the learner	2.23	2.38	<b>1.38</b>

The differences between the mean ranks of the corrective feedback techniques presented to participants in terms of usage frequency were examined for statistical significance using the *Kendall's W* test. Results indicated that the above differences were statistically significant (*Kendall's W* = .359, *p* = .001). In particular, the corrective feedback technique used more often by participants, and thus ranked first, was "Give them the information and comments in order to find the correct answer". This corrective feedback type is the most beneficial for learning and language acquisition as it provides learners with information on how to move on in learning (Tunstall & Gipps, 1996). The least used corrective feedback technique was "Give them the correct answer". This is an explicit corrective feedback type which does not leave the opportunity to learners to provide uptake (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) and, therefore, restricts learning opportunities. Two corrective feedback techniques,

“Reformulate learners’ answer without mentioning the mistake” and “Indicate the mistake and wait for the correct answer” were ranked the same.

Furthermore, the differences between the mean ranks of the corrective feedback techniques presented to participants in terms of usage frequency were examined for statistical significance using the *Kendall’s W* test. Results indicated that the above differences were statistically significant (*Kendall’s W* = .485, *p* = .001). The corrective feedback technique considered as more effective by participants, and thus ranked first, was “Give them the information and comments in order to find the correct answer”. In combination with the above finding, teachers’ statements show that they believe that a descriptive or metalinguistic type of corrective feedback is the most effective. This is also supported by the literature as beneficial for learning and language acquisition (Sheen, 2008; Tunstall & Gipps, 1996). The least used corrective feedback technique was “Give them the correct answer” which is in line again with the previous result on the frequency of use of this statement and the literature of the limited opportunities provided to the learners to find the answer by themselves (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002). Two corrective feedback techniques, “Reformulate learners’ answer without mentioning the mistake” and “Indicate the mistake and wait for the correct answer” were ranked almost the same.

Furthermore, the differences between the mean ranks of the corrective feedback techniques presented to participants in terms of usage frequency were examined for statistical significance using the *Kendall’s W* test. Results indicated that the above differences were statistically significant (*Kendall’s W* = .310, *p* = .001). The corrective feedback technique assumed as the easiest to use by participants, and thus ranked first, was “Give them the correct answer”. Although it was ranked first, the participants are aware that it is not the best way to correct learners, thus, they rarely use it, according to the previous statements. The least used corrective feedback technique was “Give them the information and comments in order to find the correct answer”. The fact that teachers state that this type of corrective is the most difficult to use, but they use it the most compared to the other types because it is the most effective, shows that teachers are aware of the best way to correct learners (Sheen, 2008) and put effort and time to provide it to their learners. Two corrective feedback techniques, “Reformulate learners’ answer without mentioning the mistake” and “Indicate the mistake and wait for the correct answer” were ranked almost the same.

The corrective feedback techniques presented to participants were ranked differently for frequency of use, effectiveness, and ease of use. To assess whether the differences observed between the mean ranks achieved by each corrective feedback technique for frequency of use, effectiveness, and ease of use were statistically significant the *Kendall's W* test was used. Results indicated these differences were statistically significant for each of the corrective feedback technique examined (*Kendall's W* = 0.619,  $p < .001$ , *Kendall's W* = .182,  $p = .001$ , *Kendall's W* = 0.165,  $p < .001$ , *Kendall's W* = .011,  $p = .023$ , *Kendall's W* = .610,  $p = .001$ , *Kendall's W* = .401,  $p = .001$  respectively). As it can be seen in Table 19, the corrective feedback techniques ranked highest in terms of their effectiveness were: “Reformulate learners' answer without mentioning the mistake”, “Indicate the mistake and wait for the correct answer”, and “Give them information and comments in order to find the correct answer”. All these types are implicit types of corrective feedback and are effective for the promotion of learning, according to the literature (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). In addition, findings from other studies show that implicit types of feedback were used more than explicit types (Afitska, 2008). Similarly, the corrective feedback techniques that ranked highest in terms of ease of use were: “Give them the correct answer”, “Use Greek to help the learner”, and “Repeat learners' answer”. None of the corrective feedback techniques was ranked higher in terms of its frequency of use.

To further investigate the relationship between teacher's replies regarding how high they rank the various assessment techniques for frequency of use, effectiveness, and ease of use, Spearman's rho correlations were also calculated.

**Table 20 Spearman's rho analysis of teachers' corrective feedback techniques**

Frequency of use	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1 Give them the correct answer.		-.072	-.021	-.285**	-.157**	-.110*	.686**	-.065	.000	-.210**	-.078	-.094	-.141**	.145**	-.091	-.038	.107*	.034
2 Reformulate learners' answer without mentioning the mistake.			-.311**	-.173**	-.159**	-.384**	-.038	.622**	-.271**	-.153**	-.233**	-.183**	-.104	-.147**	.212**	-.125*	.076	.102
3 Indicate the mistake and wait for the correct answer.				-.171**	-.223**	-.144**	.024	-.236**	.635**	-.180**	-.069	-.031	.087	.139**	-.131*	.064	.016	-.135*
4 Repeat learners' answer.					-.269**	-.194**	-.181**	-.124*	-.129*	.655**	-.099	-.252**	-.002	-.054	.009	.124*	.015	-.024
5 Give them information and comments in order to find the correct answer.						.004	-.136*	-.096	-.096	-.098	.555**	.082	.110*	-.025	-.017	-.035	-.156**	.056
6 Use Greek to help the learner.								-.282**	-.045	-.119*	.144**	.645**	.097	.010	-.059	-.048	-.040	.021
Effectiveness																		
7 Give them the correct answer.								-.107*	-.046	-.251**	-.130*	-.185**	-.215**	.175**	-.087	-.023	.181**	.000
8 Reformulate learners' answer without mentioning the mistake.									-.426**	-.227**	-.286**	-.347**	-.038	-.205**	.130*	-.068	.044	.166**
9 Indicate the mistake and wait for the correct answer.										-.191**	-.046	-.017	.109*	.098	-.187**	.111*	-.092	-.063
10 Repeat learners' answer.											-.159**	-.250**	-.055	.028	.105	.038	-.002	-.088
11 Give them information and comments in order to find the correct answer.												.061	.076	-.031	-.035	.054	-.225**	.083
12 Use Greek to help the learner.													.114*	.076	-.009	-.094	.023	-.102
Ease of use																		
13 Give them the correct answer.														-.120*	-.218**	-.002	-.489**	-.118*
14 Reformulate learners' answer without mentioning the mistake.															-.140**	-.184**	-.075	-.440**
15 Indicate the mistake and wait for the correct answer.																-.322**	.214**	-.238**
16 Repeat learners' answer.																	-.169**	-.175**
17 Give them information and comments in order to find the correct answer.																		-.244**
18 Use Greek to help the learner.																		

Note: \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level



In the first group of items where the participants were asked to rank the corrective feedback techniques according to their frequency of use, as there was not a positive statistically significant correlation, the highest correlation was a negative moderate statistically significant correlation “I use Greek to help the learner” and “Reformulate learners’ answer without mentioning the mistake”. This negative correlation indicates the two “categories” of English Language teachers; the teachers who insist on the use of the target language and the teachers that use the mother tongue frequently. Furthermore, a negative moderate statistically significant correlation between the statements “Reformulate learners’ answer without mentioning the mistake” and “Indicate the mistake and wait for the correct answer” was found. This was not an expected result as they are both implicit types of corrective feedback and if teachers use one of them, they would probably use the other frequently as well.

In the second group of items the participants ranked the statements according to their effectiveness. In the same way as the previous group of items, there was not a positive statistically significant correlation among the statements. The highest negative correlation was a negative moderate statistically significant correlation and was found between the statements “Indicate the mistake and wait for the correct answer” and “Reformulate learners’ answer without mentioning the mistake”. This was a similar finding of the previous group of items.

In the third group of items, the participants were asked to rank the statements according to ease of use. The highest positive significant correlation was found between the statements “Give them information and comments in order to find the correct answer” and “Indicate the mistake and wait for the correct answer”. The first is an explicit type of corrective feedback and the second is an implicit type. The fact that both seem to be effective according to the teachers is also found in the literature as researchers support that both types are beneficial for learning (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Kim, 2004; Oliver, Philp, & Mackey, 2008). The highest negative statistically significant correlation was found between the statements “Give them the correct answer” and “Give them information and comments in order to find the correct answer”. The result of the negative correlation was expected as a manifestation of one of the dilemmas that teachers face when they receive an incorrect response, i.e. should they explicitly correct the response, or provide further comments and help to the learner in order to find the correct

response alone. Therefore, participants retain opposite perceptions regarding the ease of use of these perceptions.

In an attempt to examine the correlation of the same statements based on the three questions, results showed that the correlations were different. A positive statistically significant correlation emerged for the “Give them the correct answer” statement for the frequency and effectiveness ( $\rho = .686$ ). There was a negative low statistically significant correlation for frequency-effectiveness and a negative moderate statistically significant correlation for frequency–ease.

A positive statistically significant correlation emerged for the “Indicate the mistake and wait for the correct answer” statement for frequency and effectiveness ( $\rho = .635$ ). There was a negative low statistically significant correlation for frequency-ease ( $\rho = -.131$ ) and for frequency–ease ( $\rho = -.187$ ).

Similar findings emerged for the fourth statement “Repeat learners' answer” as there was a positive strong statistically significant correlation ( $\rho = .655$ ) between frequency and effectiveness and a positive low statistically significant correlation ( $\rho = .124$ ) between frequency and ease, but there was not a statistically significant correlation between effectiveness and ease ( $\rho = .038$ ).

A positive statistically significant correlation emerged for the “Give them information and comments in order to find the correct answer” statement for the frequency and effectiveness ( $\rho = .555$ ). There was a negative low statistically significant correlation for frequency-ease ( $\rho = -.156$ ) and there was a negative moderate statistically significant correlation for frequency–ease ( $\rho = -.225$ ).

Similar findings emerged for the fourth statement “Use Greek to help the learner” as there was a positive strong statistically significant correlation ( $\rho = .645$ ) between frequency and effectiveness, but there was not a statistically significant correlation between frequency-effectiveness and effectiveness-ease.

## **5.5 Results from the open-ended questions**

The findings of the open-ended item 18 are presented in this section in order to answer the second research question of this study which examines teachers' background knowledge on FA. The findings are divided into three categories: essential aspects, important aspects, and complementary aspects. The first category includes aspects of FA that are fundamental for its description (i.e. references to learning and change of instruction). The second category includes aspects that are important for the description of FA but which are common to both FA and SA (i.e. assessing learners' understanding and getting feedback from them without any particular reference to changing, improving, and promoting learning). The respondents, despite the challenging task they were asked to do, provided a large number of FA definitions. Most of the definitions were classified into the first and second categories. More specifically, the number of definitions classified into the first category was almost the same as the number of definitions in the second category. This is very encouraging as it shows that respondents recall the essential and most important aspects of FA when they are asked to define it. A more detailed analysis of the findings will follow in the next subsections in order to answer the research question 2 regarding teachers' background knowledge on FA.

### **5.5.1 Essential aspects of FA**

The essential aspects category includes aspects of the second and third categories, but, most importantly, these aspects include definitions about the essential aspects and characteristics of FA. What makes FA different from other forms of assessment is the change and improvement that brings in teaching and learning so that teachers and learners can potentially perform better (Black & Wiliam, 2009; Moss et al., 2013; Sadler, 1989). Despite the necessary aspects that are included in the second category (FA strategies, assessment of attainment, and reference to the time occurred), which can also be found in summative or other types of assessment, learning or language acquisition will hardly take place if improvement in instruction does not occur. In the definitions provided, references to adaptation of instruction and modification of lesson plans, provision of feedback to learners, and promotion of learning are considered essential aspects, vital for the correct representation of FA, and are analysed below.

A very common reference in the category of essential aspects is to the modification of teaching towards successful learning. References to lesson plan modification and adaptation of instruction according to learners' needs were also found in the definitions provided by the respondents. The following definition is an example which prioritises the adaptation of lesson plans.

### **Example 1. Definition Including Essential Aspects**

“Formative assessment is an essential part of my daily routine in the class, not only during the English language lesson but also in other subjects. I personally believe that it is of great importance for a teacher to use the formative assessment method to evaluate the effectiveness of his lesson plans and change or modify them immediately to adjust them to his students['] needs and learning abilities.”

In this definition, the respondent initially refers to the importance of FA in teaching and learning in general and not in the EFL context in particular. This information adds on the value of FA but it does not describe the core principles of FA. The respondent then continues by showing the importance of FA for the evaluation of lesson plans, that is, the evaluation of his/her own teaching. The assessment of his/her teaching performance is necessary in order to change and modify the lesson plan during the lesson based on learners' needs and abilities. This definition is not limited to the benefits of FA or the assessment aspect of it but stresses the immediate need for change and modification for the promotion of learning and language acquisition. The modification of the current lesson plan and the alteration of activities were evident in the observed lessons and reasoned during the stimulated recalls by the teachers. Teachers in the classroom observations were recorded to insist on learners' mistakes, provide alternative forms of teaching, and revise the linguistic phenomena where necessary. Teachers explained in the stimulated recalls that they modify instruction based on learners' needs and the assessment information received during the lesson.

Another definition that shows the necessity of change for better teaching and learning performance is the following.

### **Example 2. Definition Including Essential Aspects**

“Formative assessment is helpful for teaching and achieving the learning objectives, as it provides information to teachers and students to improve.”

This definition explicitly provides the aspect of improvement for both teachers and learners. It shows that both of them are required to work collaboratively in order to improve and be able to fulfill the learning objectives. It starts with the usefulness of FA for teachers to teach effectively and learners to achieve learning goals, and then it concludes with the statement that FA informs teachers and learners on how to improve. Improvement in teaching and learning refers to the promotion of language acquisition, which is a necessary condition in this context. References to the learning objectives were also recorded in the classroom observations and denote that most participants not only were aware of the theory, but also used their background knowledge in their teaching.

#### **5.5.2 Important Aspects of FA**

In this category, definitions include important aspects for the description of FA but do not make any particular reference to change, promotion of learning, and improvement as do definitions in the first category. The important aspects category includes a variety of aspects pertaining to the practical implementation of FA. Most references in the questionnaire responses were made to the time that FA takes place, the FA teaching techniques, e.g. questioning, observing, providing feedback to learners, and the assessment of learners' attainment. This information is very important for the description of FA as it provides insights into how to assess learners' attainment during the lesson. The only drawback of this category is the fact that FA does not refer only to assessing learners' achievement as does SA but also to promoting learning and language acquisition (Halverson, 2010; Rea-Dickins, 2008).

The following example is a definition that is limited to the important aspects of FA, i.e. form and time, and does not make any references to the change, improvement, or promotion of learning.

### **Example 3. Definition Including Important Aspects**

“Formative assessment can be written or verbal and takes place during the whole teaching period. It refers to all kind[s] of activities given during the lesson that reveal children[']s understanding o[f] the phenomenon being taught.”

This definition describes in a nice way the forms of FA as teachers during the lesson assess learners’ both written and oral production in order to have a complete view of learners’ achievement. It also refers to the fact that FA takes place during the whole teaching period which distinguishes it from other types of assessment that take place either in the beginning, i.e. diagnostic assessment, or at the end, i.e. SA. On the whole, this definition refers to all kinds of activities, including FA teaching techniques that enable teachers to identify whether learners have understood, comprehended, or acquired the new subject matter. It shows that there are many ways to gather information about learners’ current achievement and FA includes all these processes. Despite the successful description of FA processes, this definition failed to draw the larger picture of FA, which is its potential to promote learning and language acquisition. In the same vein, the following definition provides information on how to assess learning but not on how to promote learning.

### **Example 4. Definition Including Important Aspects**

“To use short tests and other assessment activities during the lesson. Apart from this, to ask them questions during the lesson to understand if they have accomplished the objectives.”

Questioning, observing, sharing the learning goals, and using summative tests in a formative way are some of the techniques teachers use to implement FA in a lesson (Black & Wiliam, 2012; Pryor & Crossouard, 2008). It is necessary to refer to these techniques when describing FA in order to explain how FA is used. However, this aspect of FA only provides information about learners’ achievement. Such input can be acquired from a variety of other methods as well, such as high stakes tests and other forms of SA. An assessment method cannot be effective on and beneficial for teaching and learning unless it improves them. Thus, FA is a process not only of assessing learners’ achievement but also of using such information to help learners improve.

### **5.5.3 Complementary aspects of FA**

This category includes short definitions which reveal the usefulness and importance of FA. However, they do not provide any detailed information about the way learners are assessed, or the FA processes that promote learning and language acquisition. The following two short phrases were provided as definitions of FA.

#### **Example 5. Definition Including Complementary Aspects**

“valuable for educational purposes”

“using pictures, games”

In order to understand better these definitions we need to make some premises. It is very important to notice that despite the short size of the first definition in example five, the respondent makes a positive evaluation of the impact of FA on learning. As mentioned earlier, definitions including references to learning should be placed in the first category. However, this could occur only by assuming that the respondent is aware of the ways that FA can be implemented to assess learners' achievement. As this information is not available in the definition, the definition is placed in the complementary aspects category. The second definition provided includes ways of assessing learners' achievement but no reference to assessment or any details on how to process the information gathered. Games, pictures, quizzes, and small tests were regularly mentioned in the definitions and are part of the FA, according to the literature. However, they cannot stand alone for the description of FA. Lack of information is also evident in the following definition which refers to the use of exercises, books, and portfolio in the FA process.

#### **Example 6. Definition Including Complementary Aspects**

“Using different kind[s] of teaching games exercises provided in the activity or in the pupils book. Keeping a portfolio for each student with activities based on the lesson”.

This definition emphasises the use of resources when implementing FA in the lesson, which was evident in the classroom observations too, although this is not explicitly mentioned in the literature as teachers' FA techniques. However, asking learners to do an exercise in their books,

observing them, and having one-to-one interaction with them, or even providing feedback and correcting the exercise in a whole class session, is a way to assess learners' achievement and identify any difficulties and misconceptions. Unfortunately, there is no such reference in the definition and the researcher has to assume that constructive feedback to learners will follow in order for learners to improve. Nonetheless, considering the findings of the other instruments where teachers used extensively the provision of formative feedback, it might be argued that participants know more than what they reported in this category of definitions.

The reference made to the use of portfolio, which is one way of alternative assessment, is incomplete as the respondent does not provide any information on how the teacher should use the portfolio. Quite a few respondents referred to a portfolio in their definitions of FA and this requires further investigation. Participants also expressed their preference to portfolio assessment in the semi-structured interviews too (see Section 4.3.1.6). The portfolio can be beneficial for learning and follows FA principles if implemented correctly and learners participate in self-assessment procedures (Hasselgreen, 2005; Kiely, 2013; Little, 2005; Tsagari, 2005). On the other hand, if it is used only as a means of demonstration of attainment, then it has no place in the FA model. Thus, if the researcher assumes the correct use of portfolio, which potentially leads to learning and foreign language acquisition, then this definition would be included in the essential aspects category. Otherwise, this definition is considered as an add-on to a definition of FA and cannot be representative.

## **5.6 Conclusion**

The findings of the Classroom Assessment Questionnaire showed the effect of teachers' teaching English experience, teaching experience in general, and training in teaching English on teachers' perceptions of FA. Conclusions on how these variables affect the use of FA and teaching and learning in general were also made. Furthermore, the chapter presented the findings of participants' statements regarding their assessment techniques that are more effective in the learning process, easier to use, and more frequently used. Based on the same variables, i.e. frequency, ease of use, and effectiveness, it presented teachers' perceptions on the provision of corrective feedback.



Finally, the chapter concluded with the definitions of FA provided by the participants and revealed the good understanding of participants regarding the concept of FA. Many participants provided a definition of FA which included the essential aspects of FA. The essential aspects included the characteristics of FA in relation to the promotion of learning and its capacity to change instruction or teaching strategies in order to improve teaching and learning. Most of the teachers used the important aspects in their definition and described FA, e.g. it takes place during the lesson and it is performed by teachers and learners. Finally, only a few teachers did not provide a representative definition of FA and included only complementary aspects of its process. These aspects included for examples expressions that FA is useful and that is used through games and other alternative ways.

## **CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION**

### **6.1 Abstract**

This chapter examines how teachers assess learner' achievement, whether teachers use FA techniques, which FA techniques they use, whether FA promotes learning and how teachers treat assessment information (see also Section 2.5). Results are discussed and interpreted in the light of the literature discussed previously and the research questions of the study which intend to identify EFL primary school teachers' practices, perceptions and background knowledge of FA. A mixed method approach and different instruments were used, i.e. classroom observations, stimulated recalls, semi-structured interviews and questionnaires, to identify teachers' perceptions, background knowledge, and implementation of FA. The chapter concludes with a presentation of a proposed framework on FA, emerging from the results of this study and an extensive discussion on FA and SL/FL learning identified in this context.

### **6.2 Assessment of EFL primary school learners in Cyprus.**

The first research question investigates the ways that EFL primary school teachers use to assess learners' achievement in Cyprus. To achieve this, the assessment practices of teachers in the particular context were explored and the results of all the data of this study were considered. In this section, emphasis is given on the teachers' use of tests as the other FA techniques found to be used are exemplified in the next section (Section 6.3) under another research question.

The semi-structured interviews and the questionnaire included specific questions that provided information pertaining to teachers' practices in assessing learners' achievement. The five participants of the semi-structured interviews reported that they all assess learners' achievement during the lesson using, for instance, 'questions', 'observation', 'games', 'evaluation sheets available in the books', and 'portfolio' to assess their learners' outcome (Mewald & Wallner, 2015). In general, they value oral assessment more than written assessment because of the young age of learners. Emphasis is given first on speaking and listening and then on writing. This finding is supported by the literature as, according to the developmental predispositions, foreign language teaching should emphasise on speaking and listening (Gardner, 2011; Mewald & Wallner, 2015). One of the reasons that teachers did not mention in their assessment practices 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment is the young age of the learners, as teachers

believe that these practices are not appropriate for them (see Section 6.3). However, ‘portfolio assessment’ was mentioned by the teachers as an assessment technique which is beneficial for language teaching and learning (Black et al., 2010; Hasselgreen, 2005; Kiely, 2013; Little, 2005; Lynch & Shaw, 2005; Tsagari, 2005; Wiriyakarun, 2007). This is one of the techniques suggested by the MOEC which can be used by teachers to assess learners’ achievement (MOEC, 2012). The ‘formative’ use of portfolios is very important in the learning process as it promotes learning instead of assessing learning and deviates from the traditional way of testing learners’ attainment. Thus, according to teachers’ treatment of ‘portfolios’, portfolios can be used for reporting purposes and/or for the promotion of language acquisition. For the purposes of this research, portfolio assessment, despite its formative aspect if it is used appropriately, is considered a category of ‘Alternative Assessment’ and is not analysed further.

The first ranking question of the questionnaire revealed the most popular types of assessment used by teachers, i.e. questions and observation. Short tests and other assessment activities (e.g. quizzes) came third, whereas the use of tests at the end of the unit was the least preferred strategy. It is important to note that when participants were asked to state which of these techniques they find more effective in promoting learning, tests came last, whereas when asked which technique is easier to use, tests came third after questions and observation. It seems that the results regarding the use of tests show that teachers do not use tests. Most probably, they do this because they stated that tests are not effective in promoting learning. However, they admitted that tests are relatively easy to use. Teachers’ statements to these questions show that they prioritise learning and language acquisition and prefer to use less easy techniques to achieve this. In addition, ‘self-’ and ‘peer-’ assessment were not popular practices among the participants. Even though these activities were considered to be more effective in promoting learning than ‘short tests and other assessment activities’, they were perceived as the most difficult to use. The fact that teachers appreciate their effectiveness in learning, but do not use them and perceive them as difficult may indicate the lack of knowledge or experience in using them. Therefore, these results show that teachers appreciate the effectiveness of FA in teaching and learning, but do not use all FA techniques to exploit its positive outcomes.

Furthermore, although teachers’ practices on the use of tests varied, their perceptions did not. Teachers supported that tests do not benefit learners because they cause stress to them and

that learners should enjoy the lesson and feel happy. However, two teachers admitted that they use tests as part of their assessment practice. These findings can be identified in other EFL contexts too. According to Looney (2007), various countries, e.g. Scotland and New Zealand, provide the opportunity for alternative ways to assessment instead of tests for certification purposes. According to a study by Clarke and Gipps (2000), written tests focus on the assessment of specific attainment targets as it is difficult to test speaking, listening and problem solving. The fact that the participants of this research do not support the use of tests seems to be beneficial for learning as, according to Clarke (1998), tests do not contribute to raising learners' level as much as FA techniques do. Continuous assessment through authentic assessment, teaching and learning experience provides a better representation of learners' achievement than end of the unit tests (Cross & O'Loughlin, 2013). Furthermore, teachers in this study seem to save lesson time by using FA, as in terms of test washback (Alderson & Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Tsagari, 2009, 2011b; Tsagari & Cheng, 2016) other studies show that teachers sacrifice learning, e.g. by spending time on test preparation, as they are 'forced' to teach to the test (Kiely, 2014) for good test results (Buhagiar, 2004; Buhagiar & Murphy, 2008). However, this is not the case in the Chinese context, as the research of Favley and Cheng (2000) showed that teachers preferred traditional ways of assessment than alternative ways of assessment.

Also, similar results with this study were found in the Cypriot context where EFL teachers' perceptions were examined regarding the use of ready-made tests provided by the Ministry of Education and Culture. The findings revealed that teachers used tests frequently as an assessment method despite the fact that they expressed their concerns about the use of tests (Pavlou & Ioannou-Georgiou, 2005). Similarly, in Kyriakides (2004), the majority of mainstream teachers support that tests are helpful for FA and SA, as tests can be used to rank learners based on their achievement and provide a picture of learners' achievement and literacy skills in Cyprus. In addition, research in a similar context in Greece found that teachers use tests, their own actually instead of ready-made (Mavrommatis, 1997). Therefore, it seems that the use of tests varies depending on the context and the way teachers use them. However, the literature suggests the formative orientations of tests as they can be used to improve teaching and learning (Black & Wiliam, 2012). If tests are used by teachers 'formatively' (Black & Wiliam, 2012) they can contribute in the promotion of learning and language acquisition and provide marks of

evidence for reporting purposes, too. Therefore, the use of tests is not abolished in the context of FA, as far as they are used for the enhancement of learning and language acquisition, too.

The results also showed that teachers use questions and observation extensively to assess learners' understanding and obtain important information of their current level of achievement. More specifically, classroom observations showed that teachers use various types of questioning such as 'open', 'closed', 'referential', 'display' and their combinations e.g. 'open-display' and 'open-referential'. Furthermore, during the stimulated recalls, teachers stated that they ask questions mostly for revision and assessment purposes. Questioning seems to be a common practice in other studies as well. Chaudron (1988) supports that 20-40% of classroom talk is questioning. Boyd and Rubin (2006) also found in their research that 50.2% of teacher talk is questioning, whereas questioning in two different classroom types in the research of Chinn et al. (2001) reached the level of 91.6% and 70.8% respectively. Considering the fact that questioning is one of the FA techniques and that excessive use of questioning is found in other studies too, teachers' practices of this study are in line with the 'recommended' practice, according to the literature. They seem to use questioning effectively to gather assessment information regarding their learners' achievement.

In addition, classroom observations revealed that teachers use observation while working with one learner (on one to one interaction) or when working with all learners (during whole class sessions). When working with one learner, teachers observed each learner in order to assess their performance, correct learners' mistakes, and check if learners follow the teachers' instructions or even help learners. During the whole class sessions, teachers observe learners to identify whether there is a need to change their teaching strategies and also assess, help, and monitor learners. Observation, which is another FA technique, is an effective way of assessing learners during the lesson (Pryor & Crossouard, 2008) and teachers in this study used this technique in all their lessons to assess learners' achievement. Thus, teachers in this study used both FA techniques, i.e. questions and observation, of assessing learners' current achievement suggested in the literature and their practices show their formative orientation.

To sum up, EFL teachers in primary schools in Cyprus use various ways of assessment practices which are supported in the literature. This shows that teachers in this study do not focus only on traditional ways of assessment, e.g. tests. Apart from the FA techniques, i.e. questions

and feedback, teachers referred to the use of portfolios which is an assessment practice beneficial for learning and language acquisition. Regarding the use of tests, in the literature, there are similar findings to this study as some studies show that teachers use tests to assess learners' achievement and others show that teachers do not use tests. Tests, a summative assessment technique, have formative potential if the information gathered is used to inform teaching and learning (Black & Wiliam, 2012; Irons, 2008; Kyriakides, 2004; Mewald & Wallner, 2015; Wiliam, 2011). The way teachers treat tests define their formative or summative orientation. Therefore, tests should not be considered an inappropriate practice for the promotion of learning and language acquisition in the classroom context, but a combination of formative and summative practices should be used for classroom assessment (Berry, 2008; Glazer, 2014; Hendrickson, 2012; Hooshangi et al., 2014; Torrance, 1993; Wenjie & Chunling, 2013).

### **6.3 Use of FA techniques by EFL teachers**

The third research question aims at examining the use of FA in depth as it firstly investigates whether and which FA techniques (see Section 2.4) were used by EFL primary school teachers in Cyprus and, secondly, it examines the types of feedback (see Section 2.6.6) used by teachers in this context.

The classroom observations and stimulated recalls revealed that most of the FA techniques suggested in the literature are used by teachers in this context. More specifically, the results show that teachers use 'questioning', 'observation', and 'formative feedback' extensively while assessing learners' achievement during the lesson. The results of this study (extensive use of questioning) show that teachers used more 'closed' than 'open' questions and more 'display' than 'referential' questions. 'Closed' and 'display' questions were used more frequently and indicate the teacher centered structure of the lesson where teachers kept the control of the classroom interaction and classroom learning in general. Teachers in this study seem to initiate mostly themselves learning episodes and do not provide as many opportunities for learners to initiate learning episodes or for open-ended interactions to occur. Ackers and Hardman (2001), who conducted research through observations in Kenyan schools in general education, support that the use of 'open' and 'closed' questions is common in various other studies. Galton et al. (1999) in their research in primary schools in England in general education also used 'observations'. They found that 'closed' questions are used more often than 'open' and 'higher

order' cognitive questions. They also suggest that teachers should be encouraged to use the latter as they support that 'open' questions improve teaching and learning (Galton et al., 1999). The argument that 'open' and 'higher order' thinking questions promote learning and language acquisition is also evident in another study by Smith and Higgins (2006). However, in teacher-centered classrooms like the ones observed in this study, the use of 'closed'-questions to recall facts and vocabulary is also necessary for the learning process when, for example, there are time constraints while correcting an exercise or checking previous knowledge. 'Closed' questions were used by teachers to assess learners' background knowledge and identify their current achievement. Therefore, teachers in this study make good use of 'closed' questions to assess learners' understanding. However, there is space for improvement of their questioning practices by introducing 'open' questions in order to promote higher thinking and achieve open-ended interactions.

Similarly, 'display' questions were used more often than 'referential' questions and this can be found in other studies, too, where teachers used 'display' questions a lot more than 'referential' questions (Brock, 1986; Hu, 2004; Long & Sato, 1983; Nunan, 1987; Pica & Long, 1986; Zhao, 1998). However, Zhou and Zhou (2002) supported the contrary, i.e. that 'referential' questions were used more often by the teachers than 'display' questions. As both types of questions are necessary in the learning process (see Section 2.6.6.3), the teachers' role is very important as they have to choose the right combination of questions based on learners' needs. 'Referential' questions should not be neglected as they provide the opportunity to learners to elaborate and express their ideas. A better ratio between 'display' and 'referential' questions would stimulate longer and more complex responses (Long & Sato, 1983). Thus, teachers in this study despite the fact that they seem to assess learners' outcomes effectively according to the results, they could improve their questioning skills by introducing more frequently 'referential' questions in their practices.

The questionnaires also show that teachers prioritise 'questions', 'observation', and 'short tests or other assessment activities during the lesson'. These results confirm the findings of the other instruments and show that teachers use FA techniques to assess learners' achievement. 'Questions' and 'observation' were also identified in a research conducted in Cyprus by Kyriakides (1997b) where Mathematics teachers considered 'unstructured observation' as the

easiest but the least appropriate assessment technique, and ‘questioning’ the third most appropriate and easiest technique. The use of ‘observation’ is a popular technique used by teachers in other contexts, too. Butler (2009) in a study with elementary and secondary EFL teachers in South Korea found that the teachers used ‘observation’ to assess primary school learners’ understanding. In a similar way, Torrance and Pryor (2001) in their research in primary schools in mainstream education found that ‘observation’ was the foundation for teachers’ assessment as it was used for obtaining information about learners’ understanding, ability, and knowledge. The authors also stressed the interconnection between ‘observation’ and ‘questioning’. Furthermore, another study by Clarke (1998) in primary schools revealed that ‘observation’ was used by most of the teachers to gather information about learners. Overall, the participants of the current study seem to prioritise ‘observation’ along with ‘questioning’ over all other assessment techniques and this is in line with research results in the literature. This is very encouraging and promising for the implementation of FA in the EFL Cypriot Primary Schools as ‘questioning’ and ‘observation’ are necessary for gathering assessment information to be used in the form of ‘feedback’ or for decisions in adjusting instruction. The role of teachers is crucial as the way they treat this information will clarify the purpose of their assessment, i.e. reporting or learning purposes.

‘Self-’ and ‘peer-’assessment were used less frequently than other FA techniques (see Table 6), according to the results of the classroom observations. The semi-structured interviews included specific questions for the particular FA techniques that were not used frequently in the lessons, such as ‘self-’ and ‘peer-’ assessment, and confirmed and enriched the results of classroom observations and stimulated recalls. Teachers’ statements varied regarding the use ‘self-’ and ‘peer-’ assessment as some concerns about the appropriateness in this context and the validity of this type of assessment were raised. Overall, teachers do not seem to be sure about the appropriateness of these techniques in this context and this was evident in their practices as they were scarcely used during classroom observations. Most probably, teachers lack knowledge, understanding and training in order to be able to use ‘self-’ and ‘peer-’ assessment effectively.

However, the results of the rare use of ‘self-’ and ‘peer-’ assessment are in line with the literature as, regardless of the fact that teachers appreciate their importance in the assessment process (Tsagari & Vogt, 2017) they do not use these types of assessment in their teaching.



Research by Tiknaz and Sutton (2006) in KS3 in Geography also found that teachers were aware of the benefits of 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment but they did not use them in their lessons. Researchers support that these two FA techniques were not used as teachers seem not to be ready to pass over to learners the control of the classroom and the assessment role. In addition, 'self-' assessment is very helpful for learners and teachers as it promotes learners' autonomy (Badrinathan, 2015) and decision making process (Cauley & McMillan, 2010). Through the provision of questions and feedback teachers should encourage learners to focus on self-monitoring, as learners should be able to judge their own work, identify discrepancies, and use learning activities to enhance their knowledge and skills (Cauley & McMillan, 2010). Boyle and Charles (2010) based on their finding argue that self-assessment through the process of self-reflection and self-evaluation is the stronger link between FA and learning. Black and Wiliam (1998) in their meta-analysis show the importance and positive impact of self-assessment on learners' achievement, but also revealed findings from another research stating that only one third of mainstream education teachers, i.e. science teachers, use self-assessment techniques (Daws & Singh, 1996). Glyn et al. (2011) justify this by supporting that FA practices, and especially 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment, although they are beneficial for teaching and learning, are also time consuming as teachers need to spend time with their learners to discuss the rationale of these practices and carefully plan and prepare the activities beforehand. The teachers of this study did not mention time as the reason for not using 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment. On the other hand, literature supports that self-assessment is effective and motivating for learners, as they become more self-reliant, autonomous, confident, and independent (Klein, 2007; Taras, 2008). Also, according to Klein (2007), self-assessment is used in many contexts worldwide, e.g. Korea (Butler & Lee, 2006), U.S.A (Magnan & Back, 2007), and Spain (Geeslin, 2003). In addition, a study by Burner (2014) revealed that teachers believed that peer-assessment saved some of their teaching time. The main reason stated in the interviews of the current study for not using self-assessment was that the learners were very young. More specifically, teachers stated that learners are not able to assess their selves objectively. This is also most probably the basic reason for the infrequent use of self-assessment, as teachers were recorded to engage learners in the learning process regularly but without promoting self-assessment techniques explicitly. Considering the benefits of 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment in the literature (Asghar, 2010; Panadero et al., 2014), training teachers in how to introduce these techniques in the primary

school context would help them overcome possible difficulties and benefit from developing autonomous learners.

Drawing from the analysis of data from the observations and stimulated recalls, the other FA technique 'sharing the learning objectives and success criteria' was used frequently but not by all teachers. This FA technique is an important aspect of teaching and learning (Brookhart et al., 2010; Sadler, 1989). According to Sadler (1989), in order to improve teaching and learning the learners should know the purpose of the task and the level of the task, and should receive help to move towards the desired goal. In contrast to questioning and observing learners, sharing the learning objectives and success criteria was not recorded as a popular technique among the teachers in this research. Most probably this is due to the fact that some teachers stated, for example, that they are not in favour of explicitly providing the learning objectives as those can be implicitly revealed through the lessons' activities. This is an issue which raises concerns as this technique is the basis for other FA techniques. If learners do not know their target and which level they are expected to reach in learning (Hattie & Timperley, 2007), the feedback provided by teachers or peers is not effective. Also, processes such as 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment cannot take place if the objectives and the teacher's expectations are not clear to learners (Brookhart et al., 2010; Harlen, 2012; Marshall & Drummond, 2006; Rea-Dickins, 2001; Stiggins, 2005).

In order to answer the second sub-question, which was the identification of feedback types that teachers provide learners with, findings from all the data were used. The quantitative and qualitative analysis of the classroom observations revealed a large number of feedback types which was divided into feedback on correct answers (n=1790) and feedback on incorrect answers (n=675). These two categories were further divided into other feedback sub-categories e.g. 'evaluative', 'descriptive', 'metalinguistic'. The quantitative results of the classroom observations are very promising as, according to a meta-analysis by Kluger and DeNisi (1996), feedback on correct answers was more effective than feedback on incorrect answers. The finding that teachers in this study use feedback on correct answers twice as much as on incorrect answers shows their good teaching practice and their attempt to offer opportunities for learning provided to their learners during the lessons (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). In addition, the fact that feedback was provided mostly on correct than incorrect answers has to do with the amount of correct

responses received by the learners. Considering that teachers tended to always provide feedback to learners is evidence that their teaching can be assumed as successful because the learners provided mostly correct answers.

However, the large number of evaluative feedback found for correct (n=278) and incorrect answers (n=94) is not supported in the literature as a good assessment practice. Hattie and Timperley (2007), based on a meta-analysis on educational achievement (Hattie, 1999), found that feedback types which provided clues to learners and were related to goals were more effective than evaluative feedback in the form of praise, punishment, or rewards. They also questioned whether rewards should be considered feedback at all as they include little task information. They also refer to the results of a meta-analysis of the effects of feedback on motivation by Deci, Koestner, and Ryan (1999) which showed that extrinsic rewards had a negative impact on learners' motivation and self-regulation. Praise was found ineffective in another meta-analysis of feedback interventions (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996) as it included little information related to learning. Csépes (2016) supports that praise may not be beneficial to learners as information on what was achieved and what needs improvement may not be clear to learners. On the other hand, during the stimulated recalls and the semi-structured interviews of the current study, teachers explained the reasons for using evaluative feedback excessively. They stated that one of the main purposes of teaching English to young learners is to make the lesson interesting and make the learners love and appreciate the new language introduced, thus they use praise and reward to achieve this. One teacher stated that she places learners' work on the classroom displays as a form of reward and another teacher stated that she asks learners to applaud a learner that performed really well. During the classroom observations teachers praised learners continuously and learners seemed to really enjoy it. Therefore, the views of teachers in this study support the use of evaluative feedback and come in contrast with the literature above. Other types of feedback are also beneficial for teaching and learning and, thus, a variety of feedback types should be used according to the context.

During the stimulated recalls, teachers elaborated on the rationale of the different feedback types they provided to learners, e.g. 'descriptive' feedback, 'evaluative' feedback, and 'corrective' feedback. The questionnaires revealed that participants showed a preference for the 'provision of information and comments' to learners and generally tended to prioritise implicit

corrective feedback strategies over explicit ones. By doing this, the teachers of this study aimed at providing help and guidance to learners in order to correct their answer by themselves rather than explicitly correcting them. Additionally, the findings from classroom observations showed that ‘recasts’ (which is another implicit type of feedback) was the corrective feedback type more often used for the production of guided repair uptakes. Teachers seem to prefer recasts, i.e. the reformulation of the correct answer without mentioning the mistake, as they correct learners without offending them. This, of course, is related to the age of the learners where the young learners of this study would not be happy if they were explicitly corrected by their teachers for every mistake they make. This can be seen as a positive result for the promotion of learning and language acquisition, as Mackey and Philp (1998) found that recasts were beneficial to advanced learners by helping them produce more advanced question forms. In the same way, recasts in this study were beneficial for the production of ‘guided repair uptakes’. This means that teaching was effective when recasts were provided to learners (see Table 8). However, recasts in this study were also the reason for ‘No opportunity uptakes’, thus the teachers should be aware of the positive and negative aspects of each corrective feedback and choose the appropriate one or a variety of corrective feedback types for each learner (Csépes, 2016).

When participants were asked to state whether they use ‘descriptive’, ‘corrective’, and ‘evaluative’ feedback, most of them stated that they use all these types in their teaching. More specifically, the quantitative analysis of classroom observations showed that implicit corrective feedback (n=360) was more often used than explicit corrective feedback (n=315). As mentioned earlier, teachers seem to prefer implicit corrections of their young learners in order to retain the positive attitude towards learning English. A larger usage ratio was found in a research conducted by Afitska (2008) with ESL primary school learners, where teachers were found to provide implicit corrective feedback 3-4 times more frequently than explicit feedback. She also argues that the frequent use of implicit corrective feedback caused lower rates of learners’ uptakes. Carroll and Swain (1993) also support that explicit corrective feedback is more effective than implicit corrective feedback as the former shows the precise area and nature of the mistake, whereas the latter needs learners’ mental ability and guesswork. On the other hand, some types of explicit corrective feedback, e.g. ‘explicit correction’ and ‘recasts’, do not give learners the opportunity to provide an uptake themselves, which is a restrictive factor for learning and language acquisition (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) (see Section 6.8). Considering the age of the

learners in this study, implicit corrective feedback was an effective way to correct learners as it was the reason for 'guided repair uptakes'. On the other hand, 'explicit corrective feedback' was effective too, thus a combination of the types of feedback would be ideal.

As the purpose of this research is not to identify which type of feedback is better than others, this study follows the argument of Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) that implicit and explicit types of corrective feedback both contribute to the linguistic development of the learner. Oliver et al. (2008) support that different types of feedback benefit different age groups as one type of feedback may benefit older learners where another type of feedback younger learners. Lyster and Saito (2010) in their meta-analysis found that corrective feedback benefited younger learners more than older ones. Kluger and DeNisi (1996) found that both positive and negative feedback are beneficial for learning. Li (2013) found that explicit feedback was more effective than implicit over a short period of time and implicit feedback was remembered over a long period of time. In addition, Kim (2004) in her attempt to identify which type of feedback is more effective for second/foreign language acquisition concluded that all types of corrective feedback are effective to the promotion of learning and language acquisition in their own way. She supports that feedback types which expose learners to target forms, e.g. recasts, potentially cause repetition which can eventually enhance learning. On the other hand, corrective feedback which provides clues to the learners stimulates the declarative knowledge of learners and test hypotheses. What is important for teachers is that when they provide learners with feedback, they should consider that feedback should motivate and engage learners (Ellery, 2008; Falchikov, 1995; Harlen, 2006; Weaver, 2006). This is in line with the teachers' statement of this study that their main purpose is to make learners positive to learning English. Furthermore, teachers of this study used a variety of feedback types in their lessons to motivate, encourage, reward, and correct learners. Teachers, then, considering the level of achievement of their learners, their age, as well as the learning objective of the lesson, should choose the most appropriate type of feedback for the promotion of learning and language acquisition.

Overall, the research findings show that most of the FA techniques suggested by the literature are used by EFL primary school teachers in Cyprus. 'Questioning', 'observation', and 'feedback' are used more than 'sharing the learning objectives and success criteria', 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment, and 'formative use of summative tests'. This is evidence that teachers use FA

in their lessons, but also that they can improve their FA practices by introducing more FA techniques in their teaching. These findings comply with findings in the literature. The extensive use of 'questioning', 'observation', and 'feedback' is in line with the sociocultural theorisation of FA by Pryor and Crossouard (2008). Close relation of 'observation' and FA is also supported in the research of Torrance and Pryor (2001). According to Ecclestone (2007), specific assessment practices, such as 'questioning' and 'feedback', can explicitly or implicitly reinforce learners' ego. This is very important for the learning process as it aims to help learners become independent learners and be able to assess and guide themselves during learning. Clarke and Gipps (2000) support that 'observation' and 'dialogue with the pupil' were assessment techniques that were used frequently as a source of information. The fact that other research emphasises the effectiveness of these two FA techniques is very promising as they are both effective in assessing learners' achievement (Clarke & Gipps, 2000). The results showed that teachers used FA techniques, therefore they are probably aware of their effectiveness and importance in the lesson. However, the findings of the semi-structured interviews showed that a teacher could not provide a definition for FA, but used FA techniques extensively in her lessons. Teachers' background knowledge and perceptions are examined further in sections 7.2.5 and 7.2.6 to identify the level of teachers' understanding and perceptions of FA. Teachers' practices are in line with FA techniques and this helped teachers in their teaching by assessing learners' understanding effectively and providing feedback where necessary.

However, the fact that the rest of the FA techniques were not used frequently by teachers in this study is also supported in the literature. Hume and Coll (2009) show research evidence where teachers did not use basic FA techniques including self- and peer-assessment. In addition, according to Brown and Hudson (1998), the disadvantage of self-assessment is inaccuracy as studies show that high achiever learners underestimate their language ability (Blanche, 1988; Yamashita, 1996). Drawing from the literature and the findings of this study, it seems that teachers in this context do not use 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment because of the validity issues raised, especially when dealing with young learners like the ones in this context. The infrequent use of these FA techniques indicates that there is space for improvement in teachers' practices. Teachers through in-service training would understand the benefits and may be able to implement more FA techniques in their lessons.

#### **6.4 Teachers' treatment of FA information**

The fourth research question is critical for the purpose of this research as it aims to investigate how teachers use the information gathered from the various assessment techniques and identify whether teachers use FA or not. According to the literature (Rea-Dickins, 2007), the way teachers treat this information denotes the type of assessment, i.e. 'Formative' and/or 'Summative' assessment, that teachers use. For example, if the assessment activity is used for reporting purposes, i.e. summative assessment, then the information has the form of a grade which is provided to learners or other stakeholders. On the other hand, if the assessment activity is used for formative purposes, the information is used by the teacher to adjust current and future lesson plans and modify instruction according to learners' needs. Therefore, whether teachers use FA techniques depends on the way they use the information obtained from these techniques.

The semi-structured interviews and the questionnaire addressed the treatment of assessment information. Teachers stated that they use assessment information to improve their teaching effectiveness by changing mostly future lesson plans and less frequently current lesson plans. The findings of both instruments show that teachers do not only assess learners' achievement for reporting purposes but also use information to improve teaching and learning. They achieve this by adjusting instruction according to their learners' needs, changing the current and future lesson plans and providing feedback to learners in various forms, e.g. extra instruction, activities, material. The aim is to cover the 'gap' identified in learners' achievement and reach the desired learning outcomes which are based on the particular lesson's objectives.

On the other hand, changes in instruction do not take place only when learners perform inadequately but also when assessment data show that learners performed well, as teachers stated that they build on this knowledge to further promote learning. Thus, considering assessment information and change in instruction is necessary for the promotion of learning. An assessment that is carried out frequently and planned to take place during the lesson does not necessarily promote learning, i.e. formative (Assessment-Reform-Group, 1999), as it can be used only for reporting purposes. In the same way, alternative assessment, e.g. portfolio, is not necessarily FA as it can be used for summative purposes. Furthermore, Torrance (2012) in his argument refers to Klenowski (2009) who supports that sources of evidence are formative if they enhance learning. She also argues that all assessment is formative but not necessarily in a positive way as it may

provide learners with negative evidence and discourage them from the learning procedure (see Section 2.5). An assessment is formative only if the information is used to alter/improve teaching and learning. Teachers in this study provide a formative orientation in their assessment as they support that they use assessment information for the promotion of learning.

Furthermore, information gathered from summative assessment tools, i.e. tests, is also used to change instruction according to the participants. In case a common mistake is identified in the tests, teachers tend to teach again the particular subject area, give extra material and other activities to 'fill the gap' identified in the tests. Davison and Leung (2009) state that continuous or alternative assessment is not always formative. The researchers argue that a series of tests is continuous assessment but not formative if the information is not used to promote learning. However, teachers in this study use the tests in a formative manner, a FA technique (Black & Wiliam, 2012; Kiryakova, 2010), according to which a test is not only used for reporting purposes but it identifies areas that need revisions and teachers provide extra instruction.

In addition, teachers in this study supported that they use this information to provide feedback to learners and to revise the linguistic phenomena when necessary. According to Taras (2002), feedback counts as formative when it is understood and used by learners to show that the issues have been addressed. This is emphasized by Ellery (2008) who supports that, according to research, feedback on essays is not always effective if it is not read, understood, or used by learners (Ding, 1998; Hounsell, 1987; Lea & Street, 2000).

Therefore, if assessment information gathered is not used for the promotion of learning and language acquisition, the formative aspects of assessment are not activated. Assessment can be called formative if it is used to promote learning (Burner, 2014). Gathering assessment information without using it in the learning process, or assessing learners for reporting purposes and handling assessments as any other tests (Ayala et al., 2008) is just information that can be potentially used for FA purposes, i.e. adjust instruction, change lesson plans, but it is not formative. If this information is eventually used for FA purposes then and only then the assessment process can be characterised as formative. The findings of this research are positive as participants stated that they use assessment information to promote learning and language acquisition and were also observed treating the assessment information correctly.



## 6.5 FA promotes learning

The fifth research question is the most challenging to answer as it is not always easy to measure learning and be sure that learning takes place during a lesson unless a specific research design is used. The approach of this study aligns with what Mackey (2006, p. 409) states, “absence of evidence is not the same thing as evidence of absence”. Therefore, learning may take place without being able to prove it or vice versa. The use of pre- and post- tests research design could be helpful to measure learning but this is beyond the scope of this study as it examines teachers’ practices and use of FA techniques during the lesson. However, a closer examination of the ‘uptake’, the learners’ response after the provision of corrective feedback by teachers, is an indication that some level of learning has taken place. The nature of this study does not provide an examination of whether this kind of learning lasts until the next lesson or the future in general. Therefore, the focus of this study is to find evidence of learning during the lesson.

Although participants in the questionnaires were asked whether ‘FA is an effective process which helps learners and promotes learning’ and most of the participants agreed with the above statements, the findings from classroom observations and, more specifically, the findings on ‘uptake’ will shed light on research question 5. Having a closer look at Table 7 of the classroom observations findings, 53 instances were recorded as ‘no uptake’, 88 instances of ‘incomplete’ or ‘incorrect’ uptakes, and 240 instances of ‘successful’ uptake. By comparing these numbers, it is identified that the number of successful uptakes, a proof that learning took place as learners followed teachers’ feedback successfully, is twice as much as ‘unsuccessful’ or ‘no uptake’. ‘Successful uptake’ is the result of effective provision of corrective feedback. This shows that provision of feedback, a FA technique, promotes learning and language acquisition. This happens when teachers through ‘questioning’, ‘observation’, or other assessment activities identify a mistake or a misconception after assessing learners’ response. Teachers, then, provide learners with corrective feedback and learners respond positively by providing a correct response based on the feedback received by teachers.

The effectiveness of FA is also evident in the literature. The review of Black and Wiliam (1998) provided evidence that FA raises standards. In many cases the researchers found that FA “effectively doubles the speed of student learning” (Wiliam, 2011, p. 36). Specifically, according to Wiliam (2011, p. 161), there is 70 to 80 percent increase in the speed of learning and this

process is not expensive to produce as it is approximately “twenty times as cost effective in raising achievement as class-size reduction”. Despite the fact that the effect size found in the meta-analysis of Black and Wiliam (1998) was questioned by some researchers (see discussion in Section 2.9) it is still an evidence that FA promotes learning.

Another way to measure and identify learning is by trying to answer two questions suggested by Yorke (2003). Drawing from the work of Yorke (2003, pp. 483-484), the two questions that judge the effectiveness of FA are: “Is what the assessor has done regarding feedback the best that could have been done?” and “Did the formative assessment influence student behaviour?”. In terms of the first question, the research results of this study show that there is space for improvement on feedback on correct answers as teachers provided mostly evaluative rather than descriptive feedback, without inferring that evaluative feedback restricted learning opportunities in every occasion. However, considering that the number of successful uptakes, when feedback was provided on incorrect answers, was more than double of the unsuccessful uptakes shows that teachers treated learners’ mistakes with the appropriate type of feedback in the best possible way. To answer the second question, the large number of successful uptakes also denotes that FA influenced positively the learners’ behaviour.

In an attempt to interpret the findings from a different perspective, evidence that FA promotes learning also comes from learning and language acquisition theories. More specifically, according to the interaction hypothesis and more specifically the cognitive and information-processing approach, during the process of negotiation of meaning a gap is identified between the learners’ achievement and the target level of achievement. The teacher then provides higher level input to the learner to produce modified output (Gass & Mackey, 2007) (see discussion in Section 2.8.4). The qualitative and quantitative data of this study related to corrective feedback and uptake is evidence of this process taking place in the lessons. This is due to the fact that teachers through questions and/or observations identify a gap in learners’ achievement and through corrective feedback lead learners to the production of uptakes. According to the Sociocultural Theory of Learning (SCT), “knowledge comes from interactions between people” (Masouleh & Bahraminezhad Jooneghani, 2012, p. 33). The qualitative data prove that the lessons, despite their teacher-centered orientation, were full of productive discussions mostly between the teacher and the learners and sometimes among the learners

themselves. Finally, according to Conversation Analysis (CA), learning opportunities occurred throughout the lesson as close investigation of Classroom Interaction (CI) shows that teachers used various types of feedback to promote learning and language acquisition.

To conclude, despite the fact that specific tests were not used to measure whether learning took place, there are several indications, e.g. successful uptakes, provision of feedback, learning theories, to show that FA promotes learning through the learning opportunities provided to learners. The close examination of the corrective feedback and uptakes in combination with the learning and language acquisition theories indicate that learning affordances were created during the lessons observed.

### **6.6 EFL teachers' background knowledge of FA**

Research question two examines the existing background knowledge of participants on FA. This question looks for evidence that shows that participants are aware of the term FA, e.g. whether they are familiar with one of its definitions and can provide their own working definition of FA using their own words. In order to investigate these, questions related to the definition of FA in the semi-structured interviews were included along with open-questions at the end of the questionnaire where participants were asked to provide a definition of FA.

During the semi-structured interviews, all participants except one provided different definitions of FA which included principles of FA. The participants characterised FA as an effective assessment process which takes place during the lesson and provides feedback to learners and teachers to promote teaching and learning. One participant, despite being observed using FA during the lesson, provided a definition to FA which was irrelevant to the processes of FA as the definition was more summative assessment orientated. However, when probing questions about the processes and the characteristics of FA, she agreed that she uses FA practices in her teaching. The fact that teachers provide definitions of FA irrelevant to learning (Boyle & Charles, 2010) and are unaware that they use FA in their lessons (Harlen & James, 1997) is found in other studies, too. Overall, the participants of the semi-structured interviews showed adequate knowledge and awareness of the term and definition of FA. This is not always the case in the literature as teachers' background knowledge is questioned (see discussion in Section 2.11).

The findings from the open-ended question of the questionnaire (where participants were asked to provide a definition of FA) are promising as a large percentage of the respondents referred to the 'essential aspects' of FA. The majority of the participants' definitions described FA and referred to its characteristics, but failed to make a reference to the implications of FA on learning and language acquisition ('important aspects') and only a small number of respondents provided definitions limited to the general and basic characteristics of FA ('complementary aspects'). Overall, participants showed that they have a moderate level of understanding of FA. These findings support the findings of the literature review. The relevant literature supports that there is not a clear definition of what FA is (Boyle and Charles 2010; Turner 2012) and this is evident from the large number of different responses. All respondents provided a different definition of FA. Furthermore, a large part of the participants most probably do not know, or are not certain what FA is as they did not provide a definition. The variety of FA definitions which implies conceptual ambiguity is most probably the reason for this (Turner, 2012).

The large number of references to the essential parts of FA shows that participants know how to assess learners' understanding and get information about their achievements, and emphasise the need for change and improvement of their instruction. This is in line with one of the most widely accepted definitions by Black and Wiliam (2009), that alteration of teaching to meet learners' needs is necessary for improving learning. By explicitly referring to aspects such as the change of lesson plans or the necessity of providing feedback to learners and mentioning that FA promotes learning, teachers show that they have a moderate understanding of FA and probably use it in their lessons. This is very important for the successful implementation of FA as teachers' understanding affects their cognition which eventually has an impact on their practice.

The majority of the respondents' definitions failed to make a reference to the implications of FA in learning and language acquisition. This does not mean that they are not aware of them. However, by not prioritising learning, as did respondents in the first category, they reflect misconceptions or even lack of knowledge of FA. Further professional development may be necessary to help teachers delve into FA. However, they were able to describe important aspects of FA, such as teachers' techniques to assess learners' attainment and effectiveness of their lessons, and explain that FA takes place during lessons. Furthermore, many teachers through this

category of definitions were able to distinguish FA from SA. This is very important as, according to the literature (Frey and Schmidt 2007), one way to define FA is to distinguish it from the SA practices. This proves that teachers have basic knowledge and understanding of some practical FA aspects.

Only a small number of respondents provided definitions which did not refer to the general and basic characteristics of FA. A lot of speculations can be made here as they had the option not to answer but they preferred to provide a short and general definition. This can be interpreted in two ways. The first is that respondents are not confident in or lack knowledge of FA (Ayala et al., 2008) and this is the best definition they can think of. In this case, extra training is urgently needed for the correct conceptualisation of FA. The second is that they are well aware of the term and think that they do not need to provide any further details except for characterising it as effective and helpful for teachers. However, these are only hypotheses and concrete assumptions cannot be formed based on the data of the CAQ.

Overall, respondents show that they have a sufficient level of understanding of FA. This happens despite the availability of many FA terms and definitions indicating different ways and strategies of implementation. This makes the concept of FA difficult for teachers to understand and follow in their practices (Turner, 2012). The overall impression from the definitions provided is that all the aspects mentioned can be traced in the literature. Only a limited number of definitions were discarded and considered invalid as they did not relate to any aspect of FA. This is strong evidence that the majority of respondents are well informed about FA.

Despite the very encouraging results on the background knowledge of teachers on FA, there is space for improvement as stakeholders should not expect from teachers to use FA effectively without training (Ayala et al., 2008). Such improvement in this area can be achieved through pre- and in-service training of teachers, an important aspect to raise their levels of assessment literacy in the field of language testing and assessment (Tsagari & Vogt, 2017; Vogt & Tsagari, 2014). This conclusion was also highlighted in another research in the same context in this research area as Pavlou and Ioannou-Georgiou (2005) emphasise the lack of and need for training of English language teachers in the Cypriot context.

## 6.7 EFL teachers perceptions of FA

The second research question also examines EFL primary school teachers' perceptions of FA in Cyprus. In contrast to the first and third research questions, which examined teachers' practices, the second research question examines teachers' beliefs about FA. Therefore, the data used to answer this research question are the stimulated recalls, semi-structured interviews and questionnaires, where the participants had the opportunity to elaborate on and express their beliefs. Teachers' perceptions are also included in the answers of other research questions, e.g. RQ1 and RQ3, as instruments such as semi-structured interviews and the questionnaire do not examine practices, as classroom observations do, but are based on what teachers report.

In the semi-structured interviews, participants' perceptions were examined as to whether FA is easy to use or time consuming. Most participants stated that FA is easy to use and others that it is time consuming. In Inbar Lourie and Donitsa Schmidt (2009) research, teachers mentioned, among others, many obstacles in their attempt to use alternative assessment methods, such as lack of time, resources, and training. Finally, Neesom (2000) in her report for teachers' perceptions of FA states that for some teachers FA means something extra because it is not seen as integral to teaching and learning. Regarding the issue of time required to implement FA, it should be seen that FA is an assessment process which involves learners too, not only teachers, and therefore relieves teachers of the pressure of time.

Participants' perceptions were examined throughout the questionnaire regarding FA techniques, the provision of feedback and other aspects and characteristics of FA. Among other assessment techniques, participants rated the 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment technique as more effective and, at the same time, as the most difficult to use (see Section 6.3). It is important to note that although they qualified 'test' as the easiest assessment technique, they also qualified it as the least effective assessment technique by prioritising 'questioning', 'the use of short test-quizzes', and 'observation' (see Section 5.4). When they were asked whether they agree or disagree on the way they use information from the above assessment techniques, most of them agreed with the statements about the provision of feedback and change of instruction and disagreed with statements about no action towards the promotion of learning (see Section 6.4). In the same manner, when participants stated their beliefs about different assessment practices most participants reported that they agree with FA related practices mentioned in the statements apart

from the statement “I ask questions that I do not know the answer”. This is in line with the qualitative findings of the classroom observations where teachers used referential questions fewer times than display questions. This probably denotes that teachers want to keep control of the lesson by preferring to ask questions whose answers they already know, i.e. display questions. The use of referential questions would give opportunities to learners to elaborate on various issues. However, display questions seem to facilitate the ‘guidance of learners’ to specific learning paths for the fulfilment of the lesson’s learning objectives as they are used to ‘test’ what learners know (Masouleh & Bahraminezhad Jooneghani, 2012) in order to proceed.

When participants were asked to state their beliefs regarding the provision of corrective feedback, implicit corrective feedback techniques were ranked higher despite the fact that explicit corrective feedback techniques were ranked as easier. This is in line with the classroom observation results (see Table 6) where teachers used more implicit than explicit corrective feedback, thus they chose the ‘difficult’ way to correct learners as they believe it is more effective. This shows that teachers believe that they should help learners when they make a mistake and at the same time give them the chance to correct their answer. This also follows findings in the literature which support the effectiveness of the implicit type of feedback over explicit because most implicit types of feedback give learners the chance to correct their mistake (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). In addition, the implicit type of feedback in the form of mediation to help the learner find the correct answer is more effective as feedback is adjusted to learners’ needs (Ghanbarpour, 2017).

Finally, in the questionnaires the participants stated that FA is beneficial for teaching and learning. More specifically, they stated they agree with the statements that FA can promote learning, is helpful for learners, is an effective way to assess learners’ achievement, and is informative for future planning. In addition, they stated that they disagree with the statement that FA is not very useful because it is not valid. Those results show that participants are not only positive about FA, but also in favour of the use of FA.

Despite the fact that the literature shows that teachers’ perceptions lack knowledge and understanding of FA, the results found in this research about teachers’ perceptions are positive (see discussion in Section 2.11). Black and Wiliam (1998) found that FA is not well understood by teachers and that FA implementation requires deep changes in teachers’ perceptions of their

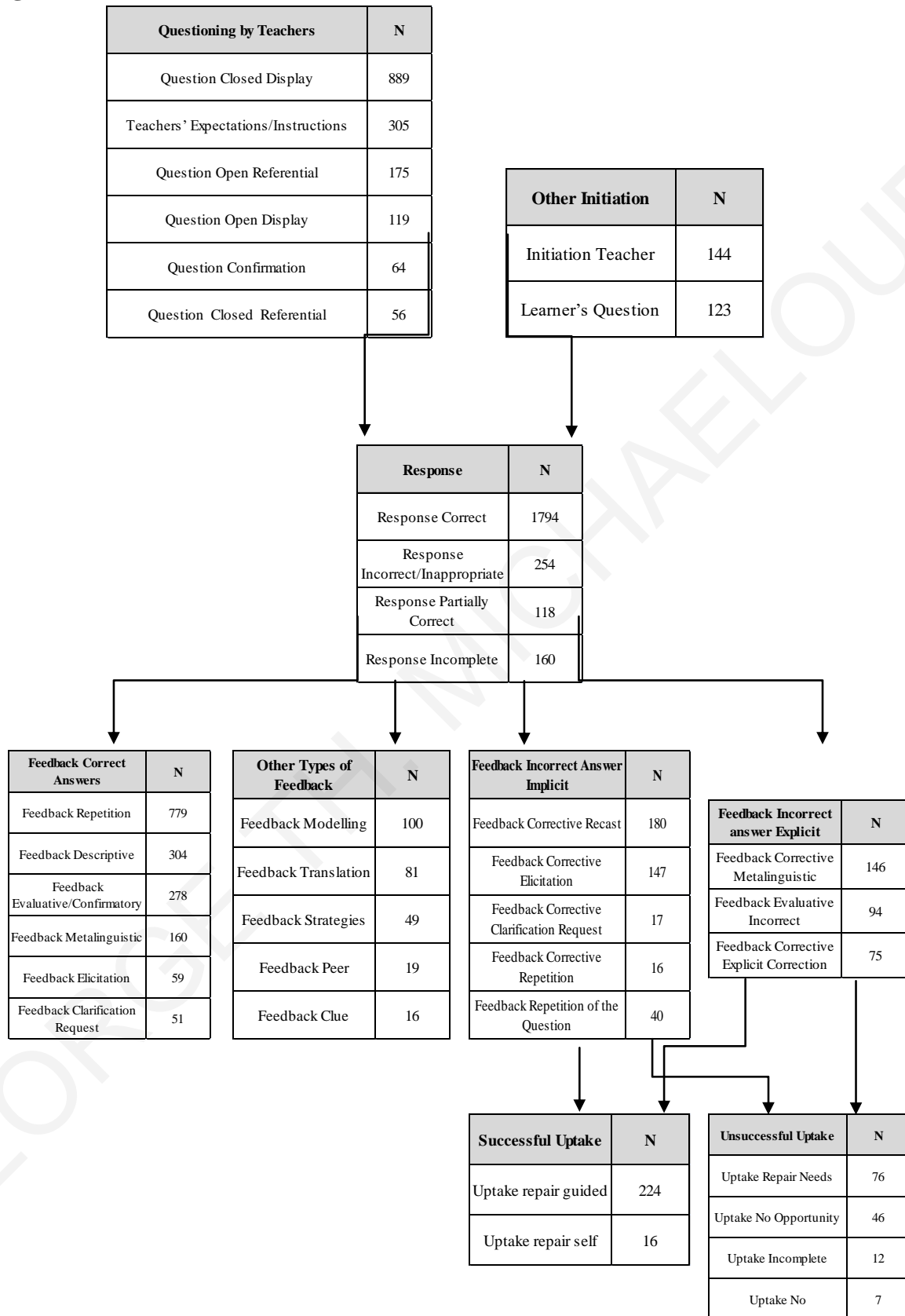
role vis a vis their students' and of classroom practice. Boyle and Charles (2010) found that teachers' understanding of FA is poor. However, the results of this study showed that teachers are positive about the use of FA and believe that FA is helpful for teaching and learning. They recognise its importance but admit the difficulty of some FA practices in their use, i.e. 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment, and show preference over the corrective feedback category which they consider beneficial for language acquisition, i.e. implicit type of corrective feedback. Overall, teachers' perceptions are in line with FA techniques and this is evident in their practices too.

### **6.8 Classroom interaction and FA**

Classroom interaction was examined in this study for the identification of FA instances, from a different perspective. Using a grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), the most popular teachers' techniques and processes of FA that were recorded in the instruments are presented in the diagram below. 'Questioning', 'responses', 'feedback', and 'uptake' are based on the qualitative and quantitative analysis of classroom observations. In order to show the tendencies and preferences of teachers in each category, the sub-categories are placed starting from the most common to the least common. The other categories being 'unstructured observation', 'sharing the learning objectives and success criteria', 'self- and peer-assessment' and 'formative use of summative tests' are based on the findings of all the other instruments.



**Figure 4 Classroom Interaction and FA**



Three main conclusions can be made by analysing the diagram of classroom interaction and FA which is based on the quantitative results of the classroom observations. Firstly, the large number of feedback on correct answers is mainly due to the fact that the correct responses were far more than the incorrect ones. Consequently, teachers were asked to treat the correct answers either by evaluative/confirmatory ways, e.g. repetition, or descriptive ways to expand learners' understanding, e.g. 'metalinguistic' feedback. At this point, it is worth noting that there is space for improvement and descriptive and metalinguistic feedback should be used more frequently than evaluative as the former are beneficial for learning and language acquisition, according to the literature (Sheen, 2008; Tunstall & Gipps, 1996).

Secondly, the relatively large number of 'No opportunity of uptake' is another area that needs improvement. The reason for not providing opportunities for uptake whenever learners provide an incorrect response is the frequent use of specific types of feedback, e.g. recasts and metalinguistic feedback (see Table 8). These types of implicit and explicit corrective feedback, despite their beneficial aspects for learning, do not allow learners any space to provide a revised answer (Panova & Lyster, 2002). This is a negative aspect of these types of feedback which teachers should have in mind while teaching.

Thirdly, the larger number of 'guided' than 'self-' corrected uptake relates to the type of corrective feedback provided to learners. More specifically, the large number of 'recasts' used results in 'guided uptake' where learners simply repeat the correct form of feedback provided by the teachers (see Table 7). In this case, not only 'guided repair uptake' but also 'no opportunity for uptake' is the result of excessive use of 'recasts'. Other implicit feedback types could be used instead. Learners should be encouraged to provide 'self-repair uptakes' through implicit types of feedback, such as 'feedback corrective elicitation', 'feedback corrective clarification request', 'feedback corrective repetition', and 'feedback repetition of the question'. More use of these types of corrective feedback may engage learners deeper in the learning process and advance their achievement.

The analysis of the classroom interaction (see Section 4.2.5) revealed relations among types of corrective feedback and uptake. The analysis revealed that there is not one corrective feedback type that promotes solely either the successful or the unsuccessful uptakes (Csépes, 2016). There are various types of corrective feedback for both categories. The results also show

that recast is the ‘key element’ of the corrective feedback types used in this study and this is evident in other studies too. Recasts provided 48 ‘repair guided uptake’ and 37 ‘no opportunity for uptake’. Research findings show that although recasts were the most frequently used corrective feedback technique, they had one of the lowest uptake rates (Panova & Lyster, 2002). In the same vein, Lyster and Ranta (1997) found that teachers used ‘recasts’ extensively, but they were ineffective at eliciting ‘self-repair uptake’ compared to other types of corrective feedback. This shows that ‘recasts’ are not as effective as other feedback types. On the other hand, research by Mackey and Philp (1998, p. 351) supports that learners who received ‘recasts’ “showed a greater increase in structures at higher developmental levels” than those who did not. Sheen (2008) argues that there are researchers that support the effectiveness of ‘recasts’ (Long et al., 1998; Mackey & Oliver, 2002) and researchers that support that ‘recast’ is not as effective as other feedback types (Ellis et al., 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Kim (2009) suggests that ‘recasts’ should be further categorised for better interpretation of the results. The analysis of the current study shows that ‘recasts’ are effective in producing ‘guided repair uptake’ (n=48) but ineffective in producing ‘self-repair uptake’ (n=0). This makes other types of feedback, e.g. ‘feedback corrective elicitations’, which cause ‘self-repair uptake’, more effective than ‘recasts’ as it is better for learners to find the correct answer alone than through guidance.

### **6.9 FA in Cypriot EFL Primary Schools**

Drawing from the data and the relevant literature reviewed for the purposes of this study, the study concludes that FA is indeed used in the Cypriot EFL primary educational context observed. Teachers were found to use various FA techniques and treat assessment information in a formative way towards the promotion of learning and language acquisition. This is due to the fact that teachers in this context believe that FA is beneficial for learning and second language acquisition. This ‘unplanned’ FA process takes place in everyday EFL lessons and can be divided in three phases according to the framework grounded on the data.

**Figure 5 Framework of FA**

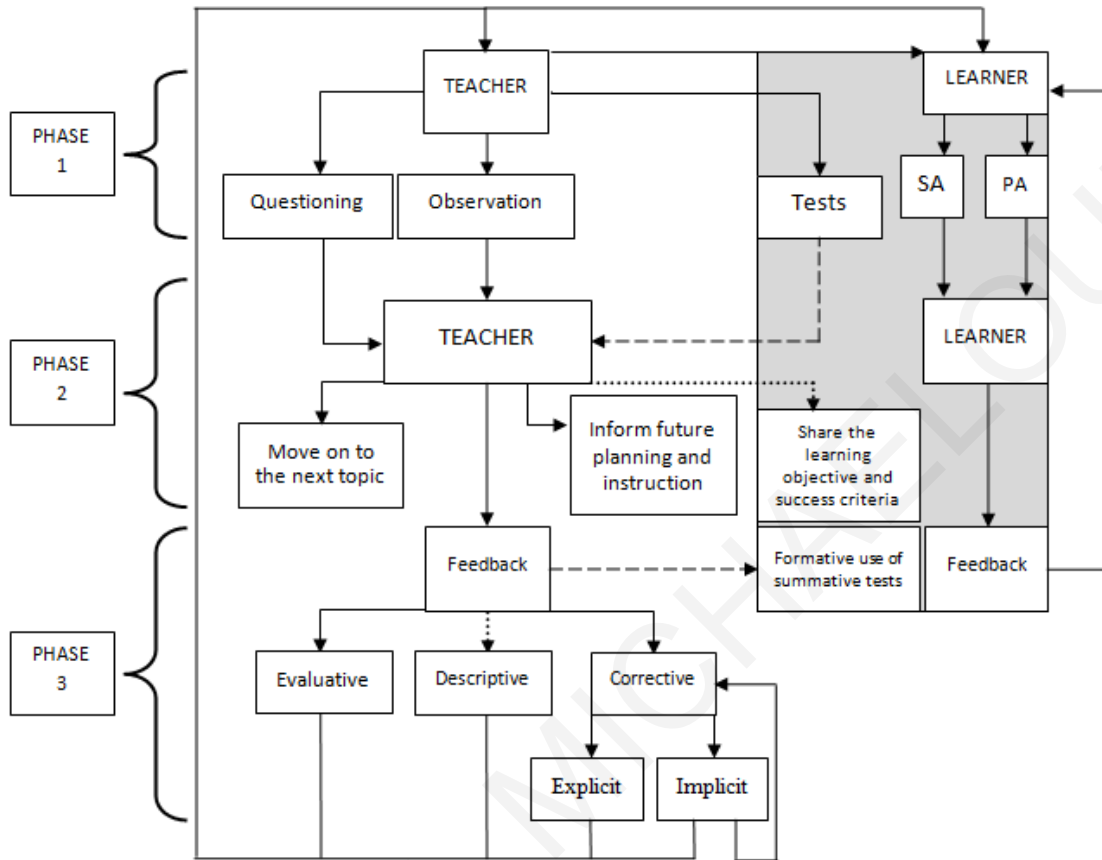


Figure 5 presents the FA processes recorded in this study. It comprises of three phases and shows the FA techniques used by teachers in this study. The FA techniques used less frequently in this study are placed in the shaded area.

The first component of the FA process recorded is the gathering of assessment information and is initiated by teachers, i.e. teacher assessment, or learners, i.e. ‘self-’ and ‘peer-’ assessment. Various types of questions, e.g. ‘open’, ‘closed’, ‘display’, ‘referential’, and ‘unstructured’ in nature observation are used mostly by teachers to assess learners’ current achievement and gather assessment information for further use. Less frequently, tests are used to assess learners’ understanding and obtain information about their current achievement too, but this was not followed regularly and by all teachers. The first phase also includes initiations by learners where they assess their current achievement or their peers’. Information gathered from

learners for themselves or their peers is important for FA as it can be used formatively for the enhancement of learning. If the assessment process stops in the first phase and does not move to the second phase, then this process cannot be characterised as formative. In this case, the teacher after assessing learners' attainment moves on to the next topic without taking any actions. In other words, if the information gathered is not used by teachers or learners to improve learning, it can be used for other purposes, e.g. reporting, and thus the process cannot be called formative.

The second component of FA identified in this study is the use of assessment information by teachers or learners. This is a key aspect in FA process and the way teachers or learners treat assessment information signifies the type of assessment, i.e. formative or summative. Teachers stated that they use assessment information to inform mostly future instruction. This is achieved through extra activities, e.g. for revision purposes, or the adjustment of various activities according to learners' needs. In order to inform future instruction, teachers adjust their lesson plans or any other forms of planning according to learners' current achievement. In addition, teachers use assessment information during a lesson in the form of ad hoc provision of feedback. This leads to the third component of FA which refers to the ways that teachers use to provide feedback to learners.

However, rarely, learners receive information either from themselves through self-assessment activities encouraged by teachers or through peer-assessment where they get feedback from their peers. This information facilitates learning and language acquisition and is as important as teachers' feedback. Like teachers, if learners do not use the assessment information from their peers or themselves, the assessment process stops there. This process is not formative as it does not facilitate the learning process.

The third component of the FA process is the provision of feedback. During the lesson, teachers based on learners' responses, use assessment information by providing various types of feedback such as 'evaluative', 'descriptive', and 'corrective', to reward, guide, or correct learners respectively. In case corrective feedback is provided, the learners are expected to proceed with various uptake types e.g. 'self-repair', 'guided repair', 'repair needs', according to the successfulness of the corrective feedback provided by the teacher earlier. When the uptake was not successful after the provision of implicit corrective feedback, the teachers were found to provide corrective feedback again, using the same or different type, and this corrective feedback

loop was completed when the correct response was provided by the learner, through ‘repair uptake’, or the teacher through the provision of explicit type of feedback.

Through the three components of FA, an assessment learning episode is over and the same procedure starts from the beginning. The fact that processes like ‘self-’ and ‘peer-’ assessment are scarcely used raises concerns regarding the learning opportunities missed by not using these FA techniques. In addition, other FA techniques such as the formative use of summative tests and the sharing of learning objectives and success criteria are also used less frequently. The aforementioned FA techniques are successful according to the literature (Baleghizadeh & Masoun, 2013; Black & Wiliam, 2012; Wiliam, 2011) and including them in the teachers’ ‘teaching repertoire’ would benefit teaching and learning. On the other hand, other FA techniques, such as, questioning, observation, and feedback are used extensively and were effective for the promotion of learning and language acquisition as many assessment episodes were successfully completed by a repair uptake by the learners.

#### **6.10 FA and SL/FL Learning in EFL Primary schools in Cyprus**

According to the literature, FA advances learners’ current achievement and promotes learning and SL/FL acquisition (Bennett, 2011; Black & Wiliam, 1998; Kingston & Nash, 2011). Considering that the aforementioned meta-analyses disagree with the level of effectiveness of FA, it is clear that it is very difficult to measure the contribution of FA in learning. However, it is widely accepted that FA is beneficial for teaching and learning (Asghar, 2010; Black & Wiliam, 1998; Boyle & Charles, 2010; Brookhart et al., 2010). The current study revealed instances which indicate that FA may be effective and the fact that it can promote learning and language acquisition is evident through the examination of ‘uptake’. More specifically, the findings show that corrective feedback provided by teachers was successful. This was evident as successful uptakes, the result of successful feedback, were identified more times than unsuccessful uptakes and, thus, it can be argued that instant learning occurred during teacher and learner interaction.

In addition, a significant factor for successful uptake which leads to the effectiveness of FA in learning is the type of feedback teachers provided to learners. In case of incorrect responses, implicit feedback may provide learners with the opportunity to find the correct response by themselves and explicit feedback may provide the correct answer to the learner so

that the teacher can move on to the next activity or topic. In case of a correct response, descriptive and metalinguistic feedback are crucial for learners' further linguistic development as teachers provide extra information or examples based on learners' answer. Therefore, both categories of feedback were found in the observed lessons to be effective in learning and language acquisition. Further improvement is possible so teachers can make the best combinations of feedback types considering their learning objectives and teaching context, in order to benefit from as many learning opportunities as possible.

Furthermore, FA has a positive impact on teaching too. Teachers reported that they use assessment information to adjust instruction and inform future planning. This shows a good understanding of the FA process but at the same time signifies the need for all teachers to be familiar with the term of FA and be able to use it in their everyday lessons. EFL teachers' cognition which includes teachers' knowledge, perceptions, and previous experience may have an impact on their practices (Borg, 2006). The impact of cognition on teachers' practices is not guaranteed (Phipps & Borg, 2009). However, the teachers in this study showed adequate understanding of FA and the combination of their positive attitudes towards FA and their teaching experience impacted positively their teaching towards the use of FA. The quantitative findings showed that years of teaching experience affected their beliefs of teachers who received training in assessment. Teachers' cognition is related to teachers' education and experience as EFL learners and teachers (Othman & Kiely, 2016) and there is space for improvement for EFL teaching and learning in this context. The findings showed lack of understanding and thus not frequent use of specific FA techniques, e.g. 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment. In addition, not all teachers could provide a representative definition of FA. This indicates the need for training on specific aspects of FA in order to affect their cognition and potentially have impact on their practices. Thus, more teachers should be able to provide a complete definition of FA, e.g. which includes essential aspects of FA, in order to have clear understanding of the potentials of FA and use it to improve their teaching. This indicates that assessment practices may vary according to the teachers' preferences, beliefs, and previous experience on assessment.

The findings of this study also provide evidence regarding the use of some FA techniques suggested by the new EFL curriculum introduced in this context a few years earlier (MOEC, 2012). According to the new curriculum, teachers are encouraged to interact with learners for

assessment purposes, observe them, and also use self-, peer- and portfolio assessment. EFL primary school teachers in Cyprus examined in this study, use classroom interaction, i.e. questions and observation, to assess learners' understanding. In addition, teachers stated that they use portfolio assessment and this also constitutes evidence, apart from questioning and observation, that they follow the Ministry's guidelines of the new curriculum. The only aspect that is identified to need further development and exploitation because of the learning opportunities missed, as it is effective according to the literature, is the process of 'self-' and 'peer-'assessment. The young learners' context and their inability to assess themselves and their peers objectively are the reasons that teachers do not use these assessment techniques. Further training on how young learners can be enrolled in the effective process of 'self-' and 'peer-'assessment (Asghar, 2010; Panadero & Alonso-Tapia, 2013) is necessary for the enhancement of learning and language acquisition.

However, despite the evidence provided that learning takes place while teachers use FA, this study did not provide robust evidence that the learning occurred through the process of FA is significant, or lasts for a longer period of time. This is due to the fact that this was not the primary scope of this study. Further research is necessary to reveal the effectiveness of FA and its significance in learning.

## **6.11 Conclusion**

The present study identifies which FA techniques were used by EFL primary school teachers and particularly emphasises the provision of feedback and the learning opportunities provided in the lesson. Teachers in this context use various feedback types that support learning and language acquisition. They also use questions and observations extensively to gather assessment information about their learners. The study examined specifically how teachers use the information obtained from the assessment activities to establish the formative or summative orientation of the assessment practice. The results show that teachers use this information to adjust future instruction according to their learners. Finally, it examined teachers' perceptions and background knowledge of FA which was found more than satisfactory, considering the complicated nature and numerous definitions of FA.



Overall, some of the research findings on FA techniques and SL/FL Learning in EFL primary schools in Cyprus can be found in other studies too. The excessive use of questioning (Boyd & Rubin, 2006; Chinn et al., 2001) and observation (Butler, 2009; Torrance & Pryor, 2001) to assess learners' current achievement and the provision of feedback (Tunstall & Gipps, 1996), and corrective feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) when necessary, are FA techniques identified by other researchers too. The fact that not all FA techniques are used by teachers, e.g. 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment (Daws & Singh, 1996; Tiknaz & Sutton, 2006), is also found in the literature. Regarding the use of tests, there are studies that showed that teachers used tests to assess learners' achievement (Favley & Cheng, 2000) and others that do not (Cross & O'Loughlin, 2013; Looney, 2007). Other findings regarding the use or lack of understanding and conceptualisation of FA (Ayala et al., 2008; Boyle & Charles, 2010) is not found in great extend in this study. Teachers in this study showed adequate conceptualisation of FA. In addition, studies revealed teachers' negative attitudes towards FA (Büyükkarçı, 2014; Wang, 2008). In opposition, this study revealed that teachers in this context appreciate the effectiveness of FA despite the fact that they do not always implement all its techniques.

Despite the fact that positive findings, e.g. the use of some FA techniques and the positive attitude of teachers towards FA, and negative findings, e.g. rare use of some FA techniques ('self-' and 'peer-'assessment), were revealed by the exploration of FA in this study and were found in other studies too, FA in this context is used effectively and there is also space for further improvement. Teachers' good understanding of FA was evident in their practices as FA through 'questioning', 'observation', and 'feedback' was used effectively. The challenges that teachers face in this context, e.g. the young age of learners in order to use FA techniques, e.g. 'self-' and 'peer-'assessment could be solved through training in this area. Furthermore, the guidelines of the new curriculum contribute to the extended use of FA techniques in this context by motivating teachers to use them extensively. At the same time, in-service training from the MOEC or other stakeholders is required to help and guide teachers towards the use of FA in their lessons.

## **Chapter 7: Conclusion**

### **7.1 Abstract**

The chapter begins with a short overview of the research findings and, then, the contribution and significance of the study are discussed. In addition, several insights are provided to primary school teachers and EFL teachers who teach in primary schools, to various official stakeholders, e.g. the Ministry of Education and Culture, and to current and future researchers with interest in the use of FA.

### **7.2 Overall findings of the study**

This study investigates teachers' assessment practices and use of FA techniques, the way teachers treat information obtained from FA practices, whether FA promotes learning, and, finally, teachers' perceptions of and background knowledge on FA. The findings of this research emerged from the qualitative and quantitative analysis of the instruments used (see Chapters 4 and 5).

The analysis of the data from all the instruments showed that teachers used extensively FA techniques, such as 'questions' (see Sections 4.2.1 and 4.3.1), 'observation' (see Section 4.3.4), and 'formative feedback' (see Section 4.2.3 and 4.3.3) to assess learners' understanding and obtain important information for their current level of achievement. This information was used to improve teaching and learning. These techniques were also found in a great extent in other studies, too, e.g. 'questions' (Boyd & Rubin, 2006; Chaudron, 1988), 'observation' (Butler, 2009; Clarke, 1998), 'feedback' (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Tunstall & Gipps, 1996). Current results prove that EFL primary school teachers are aware of the benefits of FA techniques but make limited use of them in their practice as they do not use extensively all FA techniques suggested in the literature.

Furthermore, evidence that teachers use FA comes from their statement that they assess learners' achievement during the lesson instead of using tests at the end of a unit and through their negative attitude towards the traditional way of testing (see Section 6.2). Tests are a controversial issue since there are studies supporting the use of other methods for assessing learners different from tests (Clarke & Gipps, 2000; Looney, 2007) while others show preference

to the use of tests (Favley & Cheng, 2000). The context of teaching and the formative use of summative tests (Black & Wiliam, 2012), a FA technique which was not recorded frequently in the data of this study, should be considered by teachers in order to use tests in a formative way to promote learning and language acquisition.

However, the results also revealed that the other FA techniques were not used frequently and uniformly by all the teachers in the classroom observations (see Section 6.3). The sharing of the learning objectives and success criteria was used frequently but not by all teachers. This FA technique is important for many processes like ‘self-’ and ‘peer-’ assessment (Brookhart et al., 2010) and the provision of formative feedback (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Sadler, 1989) as it is beneficial for learning and language acquisition (Wiliam, 2011). This is an important gap in teachers’ recorded assessment practices as sharing the learning objectives and success criteria are crucial for the successful implementation of FA. Further investigation of teachers’ background knowledge is necessary to identify these types of gaps in their understanding of FA. Furthermore, ‘self-’ and ‘peer-’ assessment is another FA technique that was used less frequently, a finding that is in line with other studies (Cauley & McMillan, 2010; Tiknaz & Sutton, 2006). Teachers do not seem to be confident about the appropriateness of ‘self-’ and ‘peer-’ assessment in this context. This was also evident in their practices as they were scarcely used during the classroom observations. One of the reasons for not using these FA techniques extensively is that the learners are very young to assess objectively themselves or their peers. Another limiting factor may be the limited teaching time available. EFL teachers in Cypriot primary schools have to follow a certain curriculum. The introduction of activities like self- and peer- assessment may not be used as they are perceived as time consuming since these FA techniques require learners’ training on how to use them effectively. However, in the questionnaires they stated that these two techniques were the most effective compared to other FA techniques. The mismatch between teachers’ perceptions and their practices is very interesting. The controversial findings between teachers’ perceptions and practices indicate the need for teacher training in order to enhance their Language Assessment Literacy (Tzagari & Vogt, 2017). Training on the conceptualization and use of FA, such as ‘self-’ and ‘peer-’ assessment, could benefit teaching and learning.

Furthermore, teachers stated in the stimulated recalls that they use the information gathered from assessment to improve their teaching effectiveness by changing mostly future lesson plans and less frequently current lesson plans. On the other hand, changes in instruction do not take place only when learners perform inadequately but also when assessment data shows that learners performed well, as teachers stated that they build on this knowledge to promote learning. The fact that teachers use assessment information is a key aspect for the FA process and differentiated it from other types of assessment, e.g. summative assessment. The fact that teachers were recorded using FA information during their teaching and reported that they use this information to improve teaching and learning is abstract evidence of awareness of the FA process and its effectiveness and it is in line with the literature (Black & Wiliam, 2009).

Moreover, in an attempt to show whether FA promotes learning, a closer examination of the ‘uptake’ turn, which is the learners’ response after the provision of corrective feedback by teachers, can be considered an indication that learning took place (see Section 4.2.4). More particularly, specific types of corrective feedback, e.g. recasts and elicitation, seemed to be effective as, after teachers provided them, learners were in a position to provide repair guided uptake (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). This is an indication which shows that learning takes place during the learner-teacher interaction. It can also be considered evidence that FA promotes learning and language acquisition. Further research with specific design on measuring learning would enlighten this field and contribute to the pre-existing literature (Bennett, 2011; Black & Wiliam, 1998; Kingston & Nash, 2011).

Finally, the investigation of the background knowledge and the perceptions of teachers on FA were very encouraging based on the answers given to the open-ended question of the questionnaire related to the definition of FA. Most of the definitions given included the ‘essential’ or the ‘important’ aspects of FA. Overall, participants showed that they have a moderate level of understanding of FA (see Section 5.5). In the examination of teachers’ perceptions of FA, most participants stated that FA is easy to use, not time consuming, and even in cases where it takes more time than planned, it is worth a try. The statements of participants regarding FA practices, e.g. ‘self-’ and ‘peer-’ assessment, and the use of tests show that teachers’ perceptions are in line with the FA principles suggested in the literature. In addition, questionnaire findings revealed that teachers agree that FA can promote learning, is helpful for

learners, is an effective way to assess learners' achievement, and is informative for future planning (see Section 5.3). Finally, the teachers seemed to disagree with the statement that FA is not very useful because it is not valid. Teachers' perceptions and background knowledge indicate the sufficient level of FA understanding. However, the findings show that teachers' practices, e.g. some FA techniques were not used extensively, and teachers' perceptions and background knowledge, e.g. inability of all teachers to provide definition, on particular areas of FA show that there is space for improvement. These misconceptions identified for the effective use of FA require teachers' training in order for teachers to improve their understanding of FA and increase their levels of Language Assessment Literacy in general.

### **7.3 Contribution and Significance of the study**

The contribution, significance, and implications of this study are discussed in relation to the teaching and learning educational context and the relevant research field.

#### **7.3.1 Methodological contributions**

This study used a number of effective methodological procedures for exploring FA. Black (2015) raised the issue that there are few studies where observation is used to validate FA practices. This study used classroom observations and an innovative mixed methods approach, including classroom observations, stimulated recalls, semi-structured interviews, and questionnaires. This design has been a methodological contribution in the sense that the methods have complemented and sometimes contradicted each other. For example, a topic which has been raised through classroom observations was also confirmed in the questionnaires and elaborated in the semi-structured interviews and the stimulated recalls. Studies using only one method fail to capture the reciprocal and dynamic nature of FA, whereas mixed method approaches reveal the complicated nature of FA and how this is perceived by teachers.

The use of grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) for the investigation of FA through a detailed analysis of the classroom interaction provided a framework of analysis which revealed the components of FA identified in the classroom observations. This framework illustrates the types of questions, responses, feedback, and uptake used by EFL primary school teachers while interacting with learners and assessing them during the lessons. As opposed to other frameworks and categorisations available in the literature (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Tsui,

1995; Tunstall & Gipps, 1996; Walsh, 2006), this framework of analysis used a grounded theory approach and is related to various bodies of research, such as ‘questioning’, ‘feedback’, ‘corrective feedback’, and ‘uptake’. Thus, it is a useful reference for researchers in this field as it can be used to enrich, confirm, expand, or challenge pre-existing frameworks available in the literature. Furthermore, it can be used for the investigation of FA in different age groups and other contexts too. As such, the study aspires to become the stimulus and starting point for further examination of the complex nature of FA. Furthermore, the framework of analysis of classroom observations was the basis of the proposed framework of FA of this study. Through the unique research design mentioned above, the dynamics of FA are presented along with the interrelationship of its techniques in order to show the processes of FA that occurred in this context. In addition, the proposed framework of FA (see Section 6.9) demonstrates the processes and factors that might promote or could have an impact on the effectiveness of FA during the assessment process.

### **7.3.2 Theoretical contributions**

A theoretical contribution of the study is its attempt to map the FA term among other available terms found in the literature. In the literature, many terms are used interchangeably with or are closely related to the FA term (Antoniou & James, 2014; Assessment-Reform-Group, 1999; Büyükkarcı, 2014; Crooks, 1988; Davison & Leung, 2009; Turner, 2012; Turner & Purpura, 2015) (see Section 2.4). This study discusses (see Section 2.4) and maps the relation and similarities of FA with the other terms suggested by various researchers in the field and, at the same time, analyses the differences between them, using references to the literature. It can be used by researchers as a starting point for further research in an attempt to clarify the already ‘fuzzy’ areas of definition and terminology of FA. This should lead to a refined conceptualisation and definition of FA which will replace the variety of terms and definitions used interchangeably in the current FA-related literature.

### **7.3.3 Contributions for practice and policymakers**

Detailed analysis of FA contributes to clarifying how teachers can use effectively certain FA techniques and shows how these techniques have the potential to promote learning and language acquisition in the EFL primary school context, in an attempt to fill the gap of FA implications found in the literature (see Section 2.10). More specifically, this study identified the extensive

use of some FA techniques, i.e. questions, observations, and the limited use of other FA techniques, i.e. 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment, which have then been analysed in depth drawing from and referring to all instruments used in this study. The fact that not all FA techniques have been identified to be used extensively is in line with the argument found in the literature that not all FA techniques need to be used for the effective implementation of FA (Assessment-Reform-Group, 1999). The FA techniques used extensively in this study were popular in other studies, too, e.g. 'observation' (Butler, 2009; Torrance & Pryor, 2001), 'questions' (Boyd & Rubin, 2006; Chaudron, 1988), and the techniques used rarely here were also used rarely in other studies, e.g. 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment (Glyn et al., 2011; Tiknaz & Sutton, 2006). Therefore, the results of this study may indicate that FA can be implemented successfully even if not all FA techniques are used by teachers. It provides answers to other studies that although some teachers may experience problems in the understanding, implementation, and conceptualization of FA, FA can still be implemented and promote learning as is the case in this study.

A number of suggestions and recommendations can be provided to various stakeholders: teachers, educational inspectors, and curriculum designers, as it is crucial to receive appropriate training in FA. Simply including FA in the curriculum does not guarantee improved learning and teaching (Ayala et al., 2008). Teachers need a lot of support to use assessment in their teaching practice. Moreover, teachers must also decide how to best adapt FA to their own and their learners' needs. As pointed out by Black and Wiliam (1998, p. 147), " ... if the substantial rewards promised by the evidence are to be secured, each teacher must find his or her own patterns of classroom work. Even with optimum training and support, such a process will take time".

The need for training in assessment in order for teachers to become knowledgeable in assessment issues, also known as 'Assessment Literacy', has already been noted (Tzagari, 2011a, 2012a; Tzagari & Pavlou, 2008; Tzagari & Vogt, 2017; Vogt & Tzagari, 2014). European research programmes, such as the 'Teachers' Assessment Literacy Enhancement' (TALE) coordinated by the University of Cyprus, are aimed at contributing to the field of teachers' assessment literacy through online courses and material to teachers. Furthermore, ongoing training for staff development, which includes classroom observations, is necessary to gain a deeper understanding of teachers' implementation of formative techniques and this was evident

in the quantitative findings of the study. Thus, it is important to note that the teachers need specific and consistent feedback, as well as methods, to self-assess their own progress and this can be achieved through training on the correct implementation on FA.

Considering the rich descriptive and interpretive data generated, this study has enormous potential for promoting teacher development through teacher training, seminars, and conferences. The study can also be used as an informative reference for educational authorities and assist in developing initiatives for various kinds of training in FA and classroom interaction in the FL/L2 context. The findings provide teacher trainers with the results of an in depth analysis of the practices of five participants, but most importantly with their own views explaining and elaborating on their practices. Teacher training referring to these results would differ from the standard material used in such training and promote teacher's self-reflection regarding FA. More specifically, teacher educators can present learning episodes from the observed lessons to analyse the classroom interaction generated and discuss with teachers asking them to elaborate on and evaluate the treatment of assessment learning episodes. Through the examination of assessment learning episodes, the choice of the most appropriate type of feedback in each case could also be discussed. Thus, teachers could be informed about the positive and negative aspects of each type of feedback (including corrective feedback) and be able to use the right form and type of feedback in their teaching. The fact that implicit types of feedback were used more than explicit in this study along with the impact this preference of teachers had on 'uptakes' can be used as an example of how feedback can be provided and how this practice can be improved. Furthermore, the representation of the relation of FA with the other terms in the diagram can be used by teacher trainers to provide to teachers a better understanding of what FA is, eliminate possible misconceptions, and distinguish the various types of assessment. Better conceptualization would be achieved through the proposed framework of FA which can be used by teacher trainers and researchers in this field to 'simplify' the processes of FA for teachers to better understand them and use them effectively. Also, teachers can suggest which techniques are more appropriate and effective based on each context. Therefore, teachers will have the opportunity, through conferences and in-service training to become aware of the potential of the appropriate use of FA techniques. Based on the results of this study, training should also indicate which FA techniques, e.g. types of questions, should be preferred over others.



In the case of practicing teachers, it is also important to get informed about FA, through in-service workshops or conferences. In in-service teacher education programmes, the classroom observation findings can be used to promote reflective practice and develop assessment skills. Given the level of inhibition which self-reflection may involve in this type of training, in-service teachers can be encouraged by educational trainers, e.g. educational inspectors, to firstly reflect on the teachers' practices presented in this study and then on their own teaching. According to Borg, "teacher development activities which draw upon vivid portraits of teaching and teachers to be found in research data can provide an ideal platform for the kind of other oriented inquiry which facilitates self-reflection" (1998, p. 273). Thus, training with the purpose of promoting self-reflection based on the findings in combination with a set of 'good' FA practices found in the literature review of this study would be very useful for teachers. Therefore, the Ministry of Education and Culture, e.g. educational inspectors, and the Pedagogical Institute, e.g. teacher trainers and curriculum developers, should exploit the findings of this study for English teachers and at some level they can use the results for all teachers who work in primary or even secondary schools in Cyprus. Some of the actions policy makers can take are revising the guidelines provided in the curriculum regarding FA and enriching the suggestions to teachers to assess learners' achievement formatively (MOEC, 2012). They can achieve this by adding FA techniques as standard practice in everyday lessons and providing ideas and suggestions on how to include all the FA techniques in the lesson. Examples of the use of FA through the learning episodes can be used from the policy makers in order to provide more details on the nature, timing, and effectiveness of FA. The findings of this study can also provide more details in their training curriculum on FA. For instance, practical examples can be provided when they advise teachers to use FA to achieve the school year's target (MOEC, 2016). They can also use the findings for in-service training and specific conferences on classroom assessment using real classroom data from the findings. In this way, the findings can be used as literature for other studies.

#### **7.4 Limitations**

A common concern of any research is the inherent limitations which signify potential weaknesses of the study. This study bears unique characteristics in terms of context, i.e. primary schools in Cyprus, number of observed lessons, i.e. twenty three lessons, and the limited number

of teachers involved, i.e. five. Thus, limited generalisation is warranted of the qualitative part of the study to other contexts and teachers, even to teachers within the same educational context. However, as stated in section 7.3, through the rich descriptive and interpretive data generated and the overall findings of this research, teachers, educators, and trainers will be in a position to draw their own conclusions and transfer paradigms to their own realities based on their own context.

The primary school context where the study was conducted restricted the research design and had a possible impact on the findings. Learners were not included in the sample of this study. The possibility of examining learners' views on FA would further enrich the research results. Learners' views would provide an insight into what they find more effective, e.g. what types of questions or feedback, and what they understand better or prefer, e.g. what type of corrective feedback. This, of course, could hinder validity because of the young age of the learners and the high possibility of providing inaccurate answers. Furthermore, popular FA techniques, such as 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment, were identified in other studies because of their effectiveness in the promotion of learning (Baleghizadeh & Masoun, 2013). The fact that these techniques were not used extensively in this study is probably due to the young age of learners as teachers in the stimulated recalls and semi-structured interviews supported that these techniques are not appropriate for young learners. The reason is, according to them, that learners are not honest with their statement about themselves or are not able to judge or assess their peers (see Section 6.3). This had an impact on this research as the researcher was unable to examine these two FA practices in depth, in the same way as the other FA practices, e.g. questioning and observation. Therefore, the young learners in the primary context of the study did not reveal the whole range of FA teacher techniques proposed in the literature.

Finally, the last limitation refers to the research design and analysis of the study and how the instruments can affect the research results. To start with, the fact that the classroom observations were video recorded might have an impact on the 'naturalness' of the lesson. It is possible that the teachers and learners' behaviour was influenced by the presence of the observer and the video camera in the classroom. Furthermore, the use of a research design which included pre- and post- tests with FA intervention and a pilot group to identify if FA promotes learning would add robust information on the findings of this research. Finally, while piloting the

questionnaire and, more specifically, the ranking questions of the questionnaire, the researcher received comments which indicated the need for clarification of the instructions of the ranking questions. Despite the fact that the necessary adjustments were made, there were still a few cases where participants did not rank but rated the ranking questions, thus leading to useless data.

Despite these limitations, the study successfully managed to explore FA in the EFL Cypriot primary school context and provide answers to the research questions. It examined the way teachers assess learners' achievement in this context and identified the FA techniques used by teachers. It also inquired teachers' background knowledge and perceptions regarding FA and revealed the way teachers handle assessment information. Thus, this study has made a contribution to the field of FA and can be used as a valuable reference for its implementation in this context.

### **7.5 Recommendations for further research**

Based on the research results and considering its limitations, this study recommends areas for further research. In order to further enhance the validity of this study, its replication in similar and alternative contexts is encouraged. Further research including other sectors of education, i.e. secondary and tertiary, would also add on the current research results. Using and adjusting the design of the current research for the investigation of FA in other contexts would also be interesting in order to identify not only similarities but also differences amongst them. Additionally, focusing on aspects which were neglected, e.g. location of the schools and number of years that teachers remained in the same school, time and space constraints inherent in a PhD thesis, would capture other factors that may be related to the process of FA. Moreover, further research is necessary on the provision of evaluative feedback in the form of applause or display of learners' work, which was considered as a positive practice by the participants but not as effective for learning according to the literature (Hattie & Timperley, 2007) (see Section 7.3). Finally, future research with a larger number of participants selected randomly with more diverse backgrounds, especially for the classroom observations, stimulated recalls, and semi-structured interviews would provide valuable insight into the complex area of FA.

Further research with the incorporation of learners would also add in the educational and research field of FA. Evidence from different populations, e.g. learners' perceptions on FA or

tests, and their attitude towards FA would shed light on the phenomenon of FA and probably reveal other aspects of FA, thus making it more understandable. This might also reveal the extent to which teachers and learners share a common understanding of the nature and purpose of FA and the way in which the interaction outcomes, e.g. ‘questioning’, ‘feedback’, and ‘uptake’ variations, can improve learning. Furthermore, another possible pathway for future research entails the investigation of learners’ perceptions of the questions and feedback they are provided with. Therefore, a replication of the study on different subjects, sectors, and populations, e.g. learners or other countries, in order to increase the potential of generalisation of the current research would contribute both to the field of FA and to the educational context of this study.

In addition, the research findings revealed FA practices which are related mostly to classroom interaction. This was due to some limitations faced, mentioned in section 7.4, and include amongst others the young age of the participants and therefore the limited use of self- and peer-assessment FA practices. Further research that focuses on other perspectives, e.g. self- and peer- assessment and the formative use of summative tests, would shed light on the rich and complex nature of FA in an EFL setting.

Furthermore, future studies may employ the analytical FA framework which emerged from this study. Therefore, the present study could become the preliminary stage of future studies aiming to improve teachers’ FA practices. Researchers wishing to study similar aspects can build on this design, i.e. classroom observations, stimulated recall, semi-structured interviews, and questionnaires, to gain more validity on their research by considering the limitations of this study. It can also be useful for researchers that are particularly interested in classroom observation, stimulated recall, and interviews, regardless of the focus or design of their research. In addition, the impact of FA on learning could be further explored and the connection between FA and learning could be analysed in more depth. Moreover, apart from the FA framework, the diagram representing the conceptual place of the term FA amongst other terms available in the literature can be the starting point for further research/discussion on this issue in the hope that at some point these terms and definitions will be clarified, presented clearly, and agreed upon among scholars.

Further research could be conducted by adjusting several aspects of the research design of this study. For example, in order to reduce the ‘observer’s paradox’ discussed in the

methodology chapter, the video camera and the researcher can be introduced to the teachers and learners observed a lot earlier than at the observed lesson, thus future studies can eliminate their impact on the data. The video camera can be set up on a tripod in the classroom for a couple of days or lesson periods or the observer can observe some lessons, before the targeted observed lesson. Finally, future studies may consider conducting interviews to form the questionnaire questions, whereas the instructions for the ranking questions should include a visual example, e.g. a screenshot of what participants are expected to do in order to avoid losing useful data.

## **7.6 Epilogue**

This study aspires to become a useful resource of information on teaching and learning in the EFL context in Cyprus and to contribute to FA discussions and research in various ways. It also offers insight into teachers' perceptions and practices, which provides teachers with an opportunity to become more efficient in incorporating FA techniques.

This study sheds light on aspects of FA that need further improvement and examination pertaining to teachers' practices on their understanding, knowledge of, and attitudes towards FA as identified in the literature (Ayala et al., 2008; Boyle & Charles, 2010; Brindley, 1998; Hargreaves, 2007; Rea-Dickins, 2000; Wang, 2008) both in other educational contexts and in addition in Cyprus (Pavlou & Ioannou-Georgiou, 2005). It revealed that EFL primary school teachers in this study may use FA techniques in an effective way, e.g. 'questions', 'observations', 'feedback', but at the same time there is space for improvement as other significant FA techniques were rarely used, e.g. 'self-' and 'peer-' assessment and sharing the learning goals and success criteria. These findings are very important for teachers and can be a useful resource for teacher trainers for reference in 'in-' and 'pre-' service training, conferences, and seminars.

Finally, the proposed framework of this study presents all the FA practices recorded in this context. It shows the FA techniques identified and their interrelationship. Thus, it can be used by teacher educators to provide teachers with a better understanding of the process of FA in an attempt to eliminate the aforementioned implications of FA in teaching and learning found in the literature.

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GEORGETH. MICHAELOUDES

## Appendices

### Appendix A

#### Content of the Email to Schools, Cover Letter and Questionnaire

Αγαπητοί/ές Κύριοι/ιες,

Θέμα: Επιστολή προς τους εκπαιδευτικούς της Δημοτικής Εκπαίδευσης που διδάσκουν Αγγλικά στο Σχολείο σας

Ονομάζομαι Γεώργιος Μιχαηλούδης και είμαι διδακτορικός φοιτητής του Τμήματος Αγγλικών Σπουδών του Πανεπιστημίου Κύπρου. Παρακαλώ όπως βρείτε πιο κάτω τον ηλεκτρονικό σύνδεσμο του ερωτηματολογίου της έρευνάς μου. Σκοπός του ερωτηματολογίου είναι να διερευνήσει τις πρακτικές και αντιλήψεις των εκπαιδευτικών σχετικά με τους τρόπους αξιολόγησης και τη χρησιμοποίηση των αποτελεσμάτων της αξιολόγησης κατά τη διεξαγωγή του μαθήματος των Αγγλικών.

Θα σας παρακαλούσα όπως ενημερώσετε ΟΛΟΥΣ τους εκπαιδευτικούς που διδάσκουν Αγγλικά στο Σχολείο σας (εκτός αυτού του απογευματινού Ολοήμερου Σχολείου, όπου υπάρχει) και τους δώσετε τον πιο κάτω σύνδεσμο για να απαντήσουν το ερωτηματολόγιο.

<https://www.1ka.si/a/41711>

Το ερωτηματολόγιο συμπληρώνεται ηλεκτρονικά, ούτως ώστε να διασφαλιστεί η ανωνυμία των συμμετεχόντων. Η συμμετοχή στην έρευνα είναι εθελοντική. Η έρευνα έχει εγκριθεί από το Υπουργείο Παιδείας και Πολιτισμού (Αρ. Φακ.: 7.15.01.25.8.1/6) ημερομ. 29 Ιανουαρίου 2014.

Θα επικοινωνήσω μαζί σας ξανά στο μέλλον, για να βεβαιωθώ πως παραλάβατε το ερωτηματολόγιο. Σε περίπτωση που έχετε οποιοσδήποτε απορίες ή ερωτήσεις, μη διστάσετε να επικοινωνήσετε μαζί μου!

Σας ευχαριστώ εκ των προτέρων,

Γεώργιος Μιχαηλούδης

Διδακτορικός Φοιτητής

Τμήμα Αγγλικών Σπουδών

Πανεπιστήμιο Κύπρου

michaeloudes.george@ucy.ac.cy

99-596905

## Appendix A

### Content of the Email to Schools, Cover Letter and Questionnaire

Dear Sir/Madam

Subject: Letter to primary school teachers who teach English at your school

My name is George Michaeloudes and I am a PhD student at the English Department of the University of Cyprus. Kindly find below the electronic link to my research questionnaire. The purpose of the questionnaire is to investigate teachers' practices and perceptions regarding the way they assess learners and use assessment information during the English lesson.

I would like to kindly ask you to inform ALL teachers who teach English at your school (do not include those who teach in the afternoon school, if any) and provide them with the following link in order to answer the questionnaire.

<https://www.1ka.si/a/41711>

The questionnaire is completed electronically to protect the anonymity of participants. The participation is voluntary. The research has been approved by the Ministry of Education and Culture (App. No. 7.15.01.25.8.1/6 dated 29 January 2014).

I will contact you in the future to make sure that you received the questionnaire. Should you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact me.

Thanking you in advance,

George Michaeloudes

PhD Student

English Department

University of Cyprus

[michaeloudes.george@ucy.ac.cy](mailto:michaeloudes.george@ucy.ac.cy)

99-596905

My name is George Michaeloudes, a PHD student at the University of Cyprus. This questionnaire aims to reveal teachers' perceptions of and practices on assessing learners in English lessons in Cypriot primary schools. It starts with five multiple choice questions regarding your personal and professional background. The closed-ended questions elicit teachers' attitudes on classroom assessment. In each question, you have the opportunity to provide further information. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me ([michaeloudes.george@ucy.ac.cy](mailto:michaeloudes.george@ucy.ac.cy)).

Your participation in this survey is voluntary and you are free to withdraw from this study at any time. Confidentiality of answers and anonymity of respondents are maintained. The survey should not take more than 10 minutes to complete. Please answer all questions as honestly as possible.

Thank you very much for your time.

George Michaeloudes  
PhD student  
English Department  
University of Cyprus  
[michaeloudes.george@ucy.ac.cy](mailto:michaeloudes.george@ucy.ac.cy)  
99-596905

**Put  $\checkmark$  where appropriate.**

**1) Age:**

- 25 - 30
- 31 - 40
- 41 - 50
- 51 +

**2) Gender:**

- Male
- Female

**3) What is your highest level of education?**

- Bachelor's degree
- MA / MSc
- PhD
- Other:

**4) Teaching experience:**

	1 - 5	6 - 11	12 - 21	22 +
Years of teaching experience in state primary education	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Years of teaching English in state primary education	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**Other teaching experience (e.g. private school/institute for 2 years):**

--

**5) Have you been trained in teaching English? If yes, what kind of training?**

- In-service training (e.g. seminars, conferences)
- Diploma
- Bachelor (other than your Bachelor's degree in Primary Education)
- PGCE
- MA / MSc
- PhD
- Other:
- I have not been trained

**6) Location of your current school?**

- City
- Village
- Other:

**Rank from 1 to 6 the following statements according to what you think is more appropriate. Put 1 for the most appropriate, 2 for the next more appropriate, ... and 6 for the least appropriate.**

**7) Which techniques do you use more often to identify learners' language ability?**  
Leave the box empty if you do not use it.

7.1 I ask questions and interact with learners.	
7.2 I observe learners during the lesson.	
7.3 I use tests at the end of the unit.	
7.4 I use short tests and other assessment activities (e.g. quizzes) during the lesson.	
7.5 I involve learners in self-evaluation.	
7.6 I involve learners in peer-assessment.	

**Any other comments**

--

**8) Which techniques do you believe are more effective in promoting learning?**  
Leave the box empty if you do not know it.

8.1 I ask questions and interact with learners.	
8.2 I observe learners during the lesson.	
8.3 I use tests at the end of the unit.	
8.4 I use short tests and other assessment activities (e.g. quizzes) during the lesson.	
8.5 I involve learners in self-evaluation.	
8.6 I involve learners in peer-assessment.	

**Any other comments**

--

**9) Which techniques do you believe are easier to use?**  
Leave the box empty if you do not know it.

9.1 I ask questions and interact with learners.	
9.2 I observe learners during the lesson.	
9.3 I use tests at the end of the unit.	
9.4 I use short tests and other assessment activities (e.g. quizzes) during the lesson.	
9.5 I involve learners in self-evaluation.	
9.6 I involve learners in peer-assessment.	

**Any other comments**

--

**How do you use the information obtained from the above techniques?**

I use it:	10) How much do you agree/disagree with the following?					11) How often do you apply the following?				
	strongly agree	agree	not sure	disagree	strongly disagree	always	frequently	sometimes	rarely	never
1 to provide feedback to learners.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2 to change my lesson plan immediately during the lesson and revise the linguistic phenomenon.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3 to change my lesson plan immediately and move on to the next activity, if learners have achieved the learning objective.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4 to change future lesson plans.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5 only for reporting purposes (e.g. to parents).	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6 I do not take any actions and I follow my lesson plan.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**Please provide any other actions that you take.**



**Rank from 1 to 6 the following statements according to what you think is more appropriate. Put 1 for the most appropriate, 2 for the next more appropriate, ... and 6 for the least appropriate.**

**12) Which techniques do you use more often? When learners provide an incorrect answer I:**

12.1 Give them the correct answer.	
12.2 Reformulate learners' answer without mentioning the mistake.	
12.3 Indicate the mistake and wait for the correct answer.	
12.4 Repeat learners' answer.	
12.5 Give them information and comments in order to find the correct answer.	
12.6 Use Greek to help the learner.	

**Please provide any comments.**

--

**13) Which techniques do you believe are more effective in promoting learning? When learners provide an incorrect answer I:**

13.1 Give them the correct answer.	
13.2 Reformulate learners' answer without mentioning the mistake.	
13.3 Indicate the mistake and wait for the correct answer.	
13.4 Repeat learners' answer.	
13.5 Give them information and comments in order to find the correct answer.	
13.6 Use Greek to help the learner.	

**Please provide any comments**

--

**14) Which techniques do you believe are easier to use? When learners provide an incorrect answer I:**

14.1 Give them the correct answer.	
14.2 Reformulate learners' answer without mentioning the mistake.	
14.3 Indicate the mistake and wait for the correct answer.	
14.4 Repeat learners' answer.	
14.5 Give them information and comments in order to find the correct answer.	
14.6 Use Greek to help the learner.	

**Please provide any comments**

--

In my teaching I:	15) How much do you agree/disagree with the following?					16) How often do you apply the following?				
	strongly agree	agree	not sure	disagree	strongly disagree	always	frequently	sometimes	rarely	never
1 provide examples or ask learners questions based on their answer.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2 correct learners' incorrect/incomplete answers.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3 use rewarding words (e.g. well done, excellent) to praise learners' correct answers.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4 ask questions that I already know the answer.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5 ask questions that I do not know the answer.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6 share the learning objectives and success criteria with my learners.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**Please provide any comments**

**Please state how much you agree/disagree with the following statements.**

**17) I think that assessing learners during the lesson and using this information in my teaching...**

	I strongly agree	I agree	I am not sure	I disagree	I strongly disagree
17.1 can promote learning.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
17.2 is an effective way to assess learners.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
17.3 is helpful for learners.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
17.4 is informative for next day's planning.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
17.5 is not very useful because it is not valid.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**Please provide any comments.**

**18) IN YOUR OWN WORDS please provide a short definition of formative assessment (διαμορφωτική/συντρέχουσα αξιολόγηση). In case you do not know the answer, please write DK in the box below. If you do not want to answer write XX.**

You can use Greek if you prefer.


**19) Did you have any training in Language Assessment?**

- Yes. Please provide more information (e.g. type, organising body, place)
- No
- Other:

**20) Do you think that (further) training in Language Assessment would benefit your teaching? If yes, what kind of training?**


## Appendix B

### Grid of Classroom Observations Field Notes

#### Field Notes

Date:.....

Teacher:.....

Class:.....

School:.....

TIME	Type of FA used	Description/Comments

## Appendix C

### Stimulated Recall Protocol

#### Initial instructions for the participants

We are going to watch parts of your video-recorded lesson. All interactions between you and your learners are recorded. As it is not possible for me to know what you were thinking while saying or doing something in class, I would like to ask you to comment on particular parts of the lesson which you think will provide me with further information about the lesson. Furthermore, I would appreciate your answers/clarifications to my questions on particular parts of the lesson. If you want to pause the video clip just press this button. Do you have any questions before we start?

#### Possible questions relevant to the lesson observed

- How would you describe the lesson?
- Was it an ordinary lesson as regards learners' and your behaviour?
- What were you thinking at that point?
- I notice that you are looking confused/concerned...what were you thinking at that point?
- I see you are laughing there, what was the reason?
- What were you thinking when you said/did this?
- Why did you ask this question?
- Do you usually provide this kind of feedback to your learners?
- Could you please provide some more information about this event?
- You mentioned the word feedback/questioning/assessment/test several times in your responses. Is this your main concern while teaching English?
- What is your opinion regarding feedback/questioning/assessment/test?
- What is your number one priority during teaching?
- What would you say about the classroom interaction in the lesson? Did it help learners? Did it contribute to the promotion of learning and acquisition of foreign language?

## Appendix D

### Semi-structured Interviews Protocol

#### Initial questions (first interview)

- How long have you been teaching in public primary schools?
- How long have you been teaching English in public primary schools?
- How long have you been teaching in this school?
- How many lesson periods do you teach English per week?
- Are you specialised in Teaching English?
- Have you received any kind of training in teaching English as a foreign language?
- Do you consider yourself to be specialised in teaching English?

#### Final questions

- Would you like to talk about the methods you use to assess learners during your English classes? Is there anything I did not have the opportunity to observe during the lessons?
- Are you happy/satisfied with the way you assess learners?
- Would you like to introduce additional ways of assessing learners in your teaching? If yes, what ways?
- Which obstacles do you face (if any), in changing the way you assess?
- Do you know what FA is?
- Do you believe that it promotes learning?
- Do you use FA in your classes?
- Did you have the opportunity to receive training on assessment issues?
- Do you think your training was adequate?
- Would you like to receive more training on FA?

## Appendix E

### Framework of Analysis of Classroom Observation

#### Initiation

##### *Initiation by Teachers*

<b>Code</b>	<b>Acronym</b>	<b>Description</b>
QOD	Question Open Display	Teacher asks an Open/Display Question
QOR	Question Open Referential	Teacher asks an Open/Referential Question
QCD	Question Closed Display	Teacher asks a Closed/Display Question
QCR	Question Closed Referential	Teacher asks a Closed Referential Question
QAU	Question After Uptake	Teacher asks a question based on the uptake move by a learner
QT	Question Teacher (irrelevant)	Teacher asks an irrelevant to the subject matter question
<b>QED</b>	<b>Question Exploratory Display</b>	<b>Teacher asks a factual question but focuses on the language use rather than content/information (e.g. guessing game)</b>
<b>TEX</b>	<b>Teachers' Expectations/Instructions</b>	<b>Teacher clarifies his expectations, or gives instructions</b>
<b>TI</b>	<b>Teachers' Initiation (processes)</b>	<b>Teacher says something that has to do with classroom processes routines (not/or not explicitly relevant to the lesson)</b>
<b>TLO</b>	<b>Teacher Learning Objectives/Success Criteria</b>	<b>Teacher refers to the learning objectives of the lesson or success criteria of a particular task.</b>
<b>QC</b>	<b>Question Confirmation</b>	<b>Teacher asks Learners to confirm something</b>
<b>IT</b>	<b>Initiation Teacher</b>	<b>Teacher prompts learners to participate</b>
<b>TT</b>	<b>Teacher teaching</b>	<b>Teacher teaches something new</b>

##### *Initiation by Learners*

<b>Code</b>	<b>Acronym</b>	<b>Description</b>
LQ	Learner's question (relevant)	Learner asks a question relevant to the lesson
LC	Learner's Clarification request	Learner asks a question to clarify what the teacher has already said
LI	Learner's Initiation (irrelevant)	Learner asks a question irrelevant to the lesson
<b>LR</b>	<b>Learner's response</b>	<b>Learner's response (not to a question)</b>

#### Response

<b>Code</b>	<b>Acronym</b>	<b>Description</b>
RC	Response Correct	Learner provides a correct response

RPC	Response Partially Correct	Learner provides a partially correct response
RI	Response Incorrect/Inappropriate	Learner provides an incorrect or inappropriate response
RQ	Response Question	Learner responds with a question
RR	Response Repair	Learner asks the teacher to rephrase his/her question
RN	Response No	Learner does not provide an answer
RT	Response Teacher	Teacher answers learner's question
<b>RP</b>	<b>Response Processes</b>	<b>Learner responses back to the teacher about processes</b>
<b>RIN</b>	<b>Response Incomplete</b>	<b>Learner provides an incomplete response</b>
<b>RPR</b>	<b>Response Peer</b>	<b>Another learner (peer) answers the question</b>
<b>RA</b>	<b>Response Agreement</b>	<b>Learner's response to Question Agreement</b>

## Feedback

### *Correct answer*

<b>Code</b>	<b>Acronym</b>	<b>Description</b>
FEV	Feedback Evaluative/Confirmatory	Teacher confirms a correct answer
FD	Feedback Descriptive	Teacher expands/elaborates on Learner's correct answer. Moves the learners forward
FE	Feedback Explanatory	Teacher highlights and/or explains the successful aspects of performance
FR	Feedback Repetition	Teacher repeats a correct answer
FC	Feedback Clarification Request	Teacher asks for clarification
FM	Feedback Metalinguistic	Teacher provides extra information on the correct answer
FT	Feedback Translation	Teacher provides feedback in L1 (translates)
<b>FEL</b>	<b>Feedback Elicitation</b>	<b>Teacher uses elicitation techniques to get the correct answer. A correct answer has already been mentioned.</b>

### *Feedback Incorrect answer-Implicit*

<b>Code</b>	<b>Acronym</b>	<b>Description</b>
FCR	Feedback Corrective Recast	Teacher repeats the wrong answer without mentioning the mistake
FCC	Feedback Corrective Clarification Request	Teacher asks for clarification
FCE	Feedback Corrective Elicitation	Teachers uses elicitation techniques to get the correct answer
FCRP	Feedback Corrective Repetition	Teacher repeats the wrong answer
<b>FRR</b>	<b>Feedback Repetition of the</b>	<b>Teacher repeats the question</b>



	<b>Question</b>	
<b>FCL</b>	<b>Feedback Clue</b>	<b>Teacher provide clues before the question</b>

### Feedback Incorrect answer-Explicit

<b>Code</b>	<b>Acronym</b>	<b>Description</b>
FCEV	Feedback Evaluative Incorrect	Teacher rejects the wrong answer
FCE	Feedback Corrective Explicit Correction	Teacher explicitly corrects the wrong answer
FCM	Feedback Corrective Metalinguistic	Teacher provides extra information, comments, or questions relevant to the correct form of the answer
<b>FCP</b>	<b>Feedback Corrective Peer</b>	<b>Teacher redirecting to peers and asks them to answer the question.</b>

### Feedback/Praise

<b>Code</b>	<b>Acronym</b>	<b>Description</b>
FP	Feedback Processes	Provision of feedback irrelevant to learning
FST	Feedback Strategies	Provision of guidelines/strategies to succeed against pre-determined criteria/objectives
FW	Feedback Work	Teacher's praise on current achievement (about Learner's achievement/work)
FD	Feedback Development	Teacher's praise connected to future development
FS	Feedback Self	Teacher's personalised praise to learners
FSA	Feedback Self-Assessment	Engage learners to self-assessment (prompt them to compare their current achievement to their previous work)
SR	Self-Regulation	Learners self-monitor-direct-regulate their actions
<b>FMO</b>	<b>Feedback Modelling</b>	<b>Teacher models the appropriate answer/presentation</b>
<b>FPR</b>	<b>Feedback Peer</b>	<b>Learner receives feedback from a peer</b>

### Uptake

UN	Uptake no	Learner does not provide an answer after teacher's feedback
URS	Uptake repair self	Learner responds to implicit feedback and finds the answer by him/her self
URG	Uptake repair guided	Learner finds the answer after receiving feedback from teacher

URP	Uptake repair peer	Learner responds to teacher's feedback with the help of peer.
-R	Uptake repair <b>Repetition</b>	Learner repeats teacher's feedback
-I	Uptake repair <b>Incorporation</b>	Learner uses teacher's feedback in a sentence
URN	Uptake repair needs	Learner provides a wrong answer after receiving feedback from teacher.
UNO	Uptake no opportunity	Learner does not have the opportunity for uptake.
<b>UI</b>	<b>Uptake Incomplete</b>	<b>Learner provides an incomplete answer after receiving corrective feedback.</b>

Notes:

If a code ends in 'L' it means that this quotation was articulated in L1.

If a code ends in 'S' it means that students answered altogether.

If a code ends in 'W' it means that it is one to one interaction focusing on writing.

## Appendix F

### Stimulated Recalls Framework of Analysis

Main Category	Code	Sub category	Code	Sub classification	Code		
Questioning	Q	Revision	QR				
		Assessment	QA	Motivating	QAM		
				Introduction of new lesson or activity	QAI		
				Learning	QAL		
		Self-Assessment	QSA				
		Clarification	QCL				
		Focus (learning objectives)	QF				
		Engage L's	QE				
		Recycling	QRC				
		Display Q's	QD				
		Feedback	F	Descriptive	FD		
				Modeling/Self-assessment	FMSA		
Helping	FH						
Translation	FT						
Body Language	FB						
Evaluative	FE			Applause	FEA		
Monitoring	FMO						
Repetition	FR						
From Peers	FP						
Restrictive	FRES						
Corrective Feedback	CF			Correction	CF		
		Implicit Correction (L's correct)	CFIC	Self-Assessment	CFICSA		
		Metalinguistic-Revision	CFMR				
		Elicitation	CFER				
		Repetition	CFR				
		Translation	CFT				
Observation	O	1 to 1 interaction	OI	Assess	OIA		
				Correct	OIC		
				Check if they follow instr.	OII		
				Help	OIH		
		Change/Do Stg	OC				

		Assess	OA
		Help	OH
		Monitor	OMO
Instructions	IN	Repetition	INR
		Clarification	INCL
		Translation	INT
Learner's Initiation	LI	Prompts learners to speak	LIP
		T's initiation	LITI
Responses	RE	Accept (Open Q's)	REA
Games	GA	Assessment	GAA
		Revision	GR
Gather data (project plan)	G	Assess	GA
		Correct	GC
Recycling	REC		
Self- Assessment	SA		
Assessing Speaking	AS		
Assessing Listening	AL		
Assessing Writing	AW		
Learning Objectives and Success Criteria	LO		
Beliefs	B	Exercise	BE
		Lesson	BL
		Different Abilities	BD
		Routines	BR
		Work Alone	BWA
		Change the lesson - FA	BCH
Learning	LER		
Evidence	LEVR		

## Appendix G

### Framework of Analysis

<b>Initial Semi-structured Interview</b>	
<b>Code</b>	<b>Sub-category</b>
YEx	Years of Teaching Experience
YEn	Years of Teaching English
YSc	Years in this School
PE	Periods of Teaching English per week
SP	Specialisation in Teaching English
<b>Final Semi-structured Interview</b>	
W	Ways of assessing Learners
MW	More ways of Assessing Learners (Would you like?)
H	Are you happy with the way you assess learners?
P	Problems in changing the way you assess
D	Definition of FA
TR/T	Training in FA/Tests
SP	Self-/Peer- Assessment
EA	Is FA easy to use?
CO	Is FA time consuming?
USE	How do you use information from FA?
USET	How do you use information from tests?

## Appendix H

### Teacher's Consent form for Classroom Observations, Stimulated Recalls and Semi-structured Interviews



#### ΣΥΓΚΑΤΑΘΕΣΗ ΕΚΠΑΙΔΕΥΤΙΚΟΥ ΓΙΑ ΣΥΜΜΕΤΟΧΗ ΣΕ ΕΡΕΥΝΑ

Αγαπητέ/ή κύριε/α,

Θα σας παρακαλούσα όπως δηλώσετε πως έχετε ενημερωθεί για τη διαδικασία, το σκοπό και τη διάρκεια της έρευνάς μου και ότι αποδέχεστε να λάβετε μέρος στην υλοποίησή της και στον ελεύθερό σας χρόνο.

Δηλώνω πως αποδέχομαι να συμμετάσχω στην υλοποίηση της έρευνας του διδακτορικού φοιτητή Γεώργιου Μιχαηλίδη, όπου θα διεξαχθούν βιντεοσκοπήσεις των μαθημάτων μου και ηχογραφήσεις των συνεντεύξεων που θα ακολουθήσουν.

Όνομα εκπαιδευτικού:.....

Σχολείο:.....

Υπογραφή:.....

Σας ευχαριστώ εκ των προτέρων,

Γεώργιος Μιχαηλίδης

Διδακτορικός Φοιτητής

Τμήμα Αγγλικών Σπουδών

Πανεπιστήμιο Κύπρου

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**Appendix H**  
**Teacher's Consent form for Classroom Observations, Stimulated Recalls and Semi-structured Interviews**



TEACHER'S CONSENT FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH

Dear Sir/Madam,

I would kindly ask you to state that you have been informed for the process, the purpose and the duration of my research and that you accept to participate in this research during your free time as well.

I hereby declare that I accept to participate in the implementation of the research of the PhD student George Michaeloudes during which video-recordings of my lessons and audio-recordings of the interviews that will follow, will take place.

Teacher's Name:.....

School:.....

Signature:.....

Thanking you in advance,

George Michaeloudes

PhD Student

Department of English Studies

University of Cyprus

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## Appendix I

### Letter to teachers for participation in classroom observations



Αγαπητέ/ή Κύριε/α,

Ονομάζομαι Γεώργιος Μιχαηλούδης και είμαι διδακτορικός φοιτητής του Τμήματος Αγγλικών Σπουδών του Πανεπιστημίου Κύπρου. Θα ήθελα να σας εκφράσω την επιθυμία μου να διεξάγω μέρος της έρευνάς μου, στα πλαίσια της διατριβής του διδακτορικού μου προγράμματος, στην τάξη σας. Σκοπός της έρευνας είναι να διερευνήσει τον τρόπο διδασκαλίας του μαθήματος των Αγγλικών και πιο συγκεκριμένα να εξετάσει εις βάθος τις λεκτικές αλληλεπιδράσεις μεταξύ του εκπαιδευτικού και των μαθητών. Στόχος της έρευνας είναι να συγκεντρώσει δεδομένα από διδασκαλίες Αγγλικών, να τα αναλύσει και να συμπεράνει κατά πόσο οι λεκτικές αλληλεπιδράσεις μεταξύ των εκπαιδευτικών και των μαθητών προωθούν τη μάθηση και την απόκτηση ξένης γλώσσας.

Προκειμένου να επιτευχθούν τα προαναφερθέντα, θα πρέπει να διεξαχθούν παρακολουθήσεις μαθημάτων. Για καλύτερη ανάλυση των δεδομένων, τα μαθήματα θα βιντεοσκοπηθούν. Ο αριθμός των μαθημάτων θα είναι περίπου τέσσερα (με ελάχιστο αριθμό μαθημάτων τα δύο). Μετά από κάθε μάθημα παρακολούθησης, θα ακολουθήσουν ημιδομημένες συνεντεύξεις οι οποίες θα ηχογραφηθούν. Μετά από κάθε συνέντευξη θα σας παρουσιάζεται μία μικρή περίληψη (είτε προσωπικά, είτε τηλεφωνικά) με το τι συζητήθηκε στη συνέντευξη και κατά πόσο συμφωνείτε με αυτά που αναφέρθηκαν. Σε περίπτωση που χρειάζονται αλλαγές, αυτές θα γίνουν κατόπιν συνεννόησης. Οι συνεντεύξεις θα λάβουν μέρος στον ελεύθερό σας χρόνο. Οι παρακολουθήσεις-συνεντεύξεις, θα λάβουν μέρος στο διάστημα Φεβρουαρίου-Απριλίου 2014. Ενημερώθηκε ήδη η Διεύθυνση του σχολείου σας γραπτώς και έχει παρθεί η σχετική άδεια. Θα ζητηθεί και γραπτή συγκατάθεση από τους γονείς/κηδεμόνες των μαθητών, για τη συμμετοχή των μαθητών στην έρευνα.

Η έρευνα έχει την έγκριση του Υπουργείου Παιδείας και Πολιτισμού (Αρ. Φακ.:7.15.01.25.8.1/6 ημερομ. 29 Ιανουαρίου 2014). Η συμμετοχή σας στην έρευνα είναι εθελοντική και θα μπορείτε να αποχωρήσετε όποτε εσείς το επιθυμείτε. Θα διασφαλιστεί τόσο η ανωνυμία σας, όσο και η προστασία των προσωπικών σας δεδομένων.

Σας διαβεβαιώνω πως θα είμαι στη διάθεσή σας μελλοντικά, για παρουσίαση και συζήτηση των αποτελεσμάτων της έρευνάς μου. Επίσης, η διατριβή θα είναι διαθέσιμη σε έντυπη μορφή στη βιβλιοθήκη του Πανεπιστημίου Κύπρου. Τα πορίσματα της έρευνας θα κοινοποιηθούν μόλις αυτή ολοκληρωθεί, στη Διεύθυνση Δημοτικής Εκπαίδευσης και στο Κέντρο Εκπαιδευτικής Έρευνας και Αξιολόγησης για σχετική μελέτη και κατάλληλη αξιοποίηση.

Σας ευχαριστώ εκ των προτέρων,

Γεώργιος Μιχαηλούδης

Διδακτορικός Φοιτητής

Τμήμα Αγγλικών Σπουδών

Πανεπιστήμιο Κύπρου

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## Appendix I

### Letter to teachers for participation in classroom observations



Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is George Michaeloudes and I am a PhD student at the English Department of the University of Cyprus. I would like to let you know that I wish to conduct part of my research, for the purposes of my dissertation, at your class. The purpose of my dissertation is to investigate the way of teaching English and more specifically, to examine in depth the interaction between the teacher and the learners. The research's objective is to gather data from English lessons, analyse it and make conclusions on whether interactions between teachers and learners promote learning and language acquisition.

In order to achieve the above, classroom observations will be conducted and video-recorded to facilitate the analysis of the results. Approximately four lessons will be observed (minimum number is two). After the classroom observations, semi-structured interviews will follow which will be audio-recorded. After the completion of each interview, a summary report will be presented to you (either in person or by phone) with what has been discussed to give you the opportunity to state whether you agree. In case any changes are necessary, these will take place after mutual agreement. The interviews will be conducted during your free time. The observations-interviews will be conducted between February-April 2014. Written consent will be also asked from the parents/guardians of your students for their participation in the research.

The research has been approved by the Ministry of Education and Culture (App. No: 7.15.01.25.8.1/6 dated 29 January 2014). Your participation in the research is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw your participation at any time. Your anonymity and your personal data will be safeguarded.

I assure you that I will be at your disposal in the future to present and discuss the results of my study. A hard copy of my dissertation will also be available at the University of Cyprus library. The findings will be provided to the Division of Primary Education of the Ministry of Education and the Center of Educational Research and Evaluation for further study and use.

Thanking you in advance,

George Michaeloudes

PhD Student

Department of English Studies

University of Cyprus

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## Appendix J

### Parents' Consent Form for Classroom Observations



#### ΣΥΓΚΑΤΑΘΕΣΗ ΓΟΝΕΩΝ ΚΑΙ ΚΗΔΕΜΟΝΩΝ ΓΙΑ ΣΥΜΜΕΤΟΧΗ ΤΟΥ ΠΑΙΔΙΟΥ ΣΑΣ ΣΕ ΕΚΠΑΙΔΕΥΤΙΚΗ ΕΡΕΥΝΑ

Αγαπητοί γονείς/κηδεμόνες,

Θα διεξαχθεί μία έρευνα στην τάξη του παιδιού σας, με σκοπό να εξετάσει εις βάθος τον τρόπο διδασκαλίας του μαθήματος των Αγγλικών και τις λεκτικές αλληλεπιδράσεις μεταξύ του εκπαιδευτικού και των μαθητών. Για το σκοπό αυτό τα μαθήματα θα βιντεοσκοπηθούν. Η βιντεοκάμερα θα είναι ακίνητη και θα εστιάζει στον εκπαιδευτικό, αφού αυτός θα είναι και ο κύριος στόχος της έρευνας. Τα παιδιά δεν θα συμμετέχουν με οποιοδήποτε άλλο τρόπο στην έρευνα, παρά μόνο με την παρουσία και συμμετοχή τους στο μάθημα. Η συμμετοχή είναι εθελοντική και τα παιδιά μπορούν να αποχωρήσουν από την έρευνα όποτε αυτά το επιθυμούν. Η έρευνα θα διαρκέσει 2-4 μαθήματα. Η έρευνα έχει εγκριθεί από το Υπουργείο Παιδείας και Πολιτισμού (Αρ. Φακ.: 7.15.01.25.8.1/6 ημερομ. 29 Ιανουαρίου 2014) καθώς και από τη Διεύθυνση του Σχολείου. Τα πορίσματα της έρευνας θα κοινοποιηθούν μόλις αυτή ολοκληρωθεί, στη Διεύθυνση Δημοτικής Εκπαίδευσης και στο Κέντρο Εκπαιδευτικής Έρευνας και Αξιολόγησης για σχετική μελέτη και κατάλληλη αξιοποίηση.

Δηλώνω πως αποδέχομαι/δεν αποδέχομαι να συμμετάσχει ο/η πιο κάτω μαθητής/τρια σ' αυτή την έρευνα.

Όνομα μαθητή/τριας:.....

Υπογραφή κηδεμόνα:.....

Μη διστάσετε να επικοινωνήσετε μαζί μου για τυχόν απορίες και επισημάνσεις σας.

Σας ευχαριστώ εκ των προτέρων,

Γεώργιος Μιχαηλούδης

Διδακτορικός Φοιτητής

Τμήμα Αγγλικών Σπουδών

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## Appendix J

### Parents' Consent Form for Classroom Observations



Πανεπιστήμιο Κύπρου  
Τμήμα Αγγλικών Σπουδών

#### CONSENT OF PARENTS AND GUARDIANS FOR THE PARTICIPATION OF YOUR CHILD IN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Dear Sir/Madam,

A research will be conducted in the class of your child in order to investigate in depth the way of teaching English and the interaction between the teacher and the learners. For this purpose the lessons will be video-recorded. The video camera will remain static and will focus on the teacher as he is the research's target. The learners will not participate in any other way in the research apart from their presence in the class and their participation in the lesson. Participation is voluntary and the learners can withdraw their participation in the research at any time they wish. The research will last for 2-4 lessons. The research has been approved by the Ministry of Education and Culture (App. No: 7.15.01.25.8.1/6 dated 29 January 2014) and also by the School's management. The findings will be provided to the Division of Primary Education of the Ministry of Education and to the Center of Educational Research and Evaluation for further study and use.

I declare that I accept/do not accept the participation of the below student in this research.

Students' name:.....

Guardian's Signature:.....

Do not hesitate to contact me for any questions or comments.

Thanking you in advance,

George Michaeloudes

PhD Student

Department of English Studies

University of Cyprus

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## Appendix K

### Letter to Head Teachers for Participation of their School in Classroom Observations



Αγαπητέ/ή Κύριε/α Διευθυντή/τρια,

Ονομάζομαι Γεώργιος Μιχαηλίδης και είμαι διδακτορικός φοιτητής του Τμήματος Αγγλικών Σπουδών του Πανεπιστημίου Κύπρου. Θα ήθελα να σας εκφράσω την επιθυμία μου να πραγματοποιήσω μέρος της έρευνάς μου, στα πλαίσια της διατριβής του διδακτορικού μου προγράμματος, στο σχολείο σας. Σκοπός της έρευνας είναι να διερευνήσει τον τρόπο διδασκαλίας του μαθήματος των Αγγλικών και πιο συγκεκριμένα να εξετάσει εις βάθος τις λεκτικές αλληλεπιδράσεις μεταξύ του εκπαιδευτικού και των μαθητών. Στόχος της έρευνας είναι να συγκεντρώσει δεδομένα από διδασκαλίες Αγγλικών, να τα αναλύσει και να συμπεράνει κατά πόσο οι λεκτικές αλληλεπιδράσεις μεταξύ των εκπαιδευτικών και των μαθητών προωθούν τη μάθηση και την απόκτηση ξένης γλώσσας.

Προκειμένου να επιτευχθούν τα προαναφερθέντα, θα πρέπει να διεξαχθούν παρακολουθήσεις μαθημάτων. Μετά από κάθε μάθημα παρακολούθησης, θα ακολουθήσουν ημιδομημένες συνεντεύξεις με τους εκπαιδευτικούς. Οι συνεντεύξεις θα διεξαχθούν στον ελεύθερο χρόνο των εκπαιδευτικών, κατόπιν συνεννόησης. Για καλύτερη ανάλυση των δεδομένων, τα μαθήματα θα βιντεοσκοπηθούν. Ο αριθμός των μαθημάτων θα είναι περίπου τέσσερα (με ελάχιστο αριθμό μαθημάτων τα δύο) και θα καθοριστεί μετά από συνεννόηση με τον εκπαιδευτικό του σχολείου σας. Οι παρακολουθήσεις-συνεντεύξεις θα λάβουν μέρος στο διάστημα Φεβρουαρίου-Απριλίου 2014. Θα προσκομισθεί γραπτή συγκατάθεση του εκπαιδευτικού του σχολείου σας για συμμετοχή στην έρευνα. Θα ζητηθεί και γραπτή συγκατάθεση από τους γονείς/κηδεμόνες των μαθητών.

Η έρευνα έχει την έγκριση του Υπουργείου Παιδείας και Πολιτισμού (Αρ. Φακ.:7.15.01.25.8.1/6 ημερομ. 29 Ιανουαρίου 2014). Η συμμετοχή στην έρευνα θα είναι εθελοντική και οι συμμετέχοντες θα μπορούν να αποχωρήσουν όποτε αυτοί το επιθυμούν. Θα διασφαλιστεί τόσο η ανωνυμία, όσο και η προστασία προσωπικών δεδομένων των εκπαιδευτικών και του σχολείου.

Σας διαβεβαιώνω πως θα είμαι στη διάθεσή σας μελλοντικά, για παρουσίαση και συζήτηση των αποτελεσμάτων της έρευνάς μου, στο προσωπικό του σχολείου σας. Τα πορίσματα της έρευνας θα κοινοποιηθούν μόλις αυτή ολοκληρωθεί, στη Διεύθυνση Δημοτικής Εκπαίδευσης και στο Κέντρο Εκπαιδευτικής Έρευνας και Αξιολόγησης για σχετική μελέτη και κατάλληλη αξιοποίηση.

Σας ευχαριστώ εκ των προτέρων,

Γεώργιος Μιχαηλίδης

Διδακτορικός Φοιτητής

Τμήμα Αγγλικών Σπουδών

Πανεπιστήμιο Κύπρου

michaeloude.george@ucy.ac.cy

99-596905

## Appendix K

### Letter to Head Teachers for Participation of their School in Classroom Observations



Dear Mr/MrsHeadteacher

My name is George Michaelouides and I am a PhD student at the English Department of the University of Cyprus. I would like to let you know that I wish to conduct part of my research, for the purposes of my dissertation, at your school. The purpose of my dissertation is to investigate the way of teaching English and more specifically, to examine in depth the interaction between the teacher and the learners. The research's objective is to gather data from English lessons, analyse it and make conclusions on whether interactions between teachers and learners promote learning and language acquisition.

In order to achieve the above, classroom observations will be conducted. After the classroom observations, semi-structured interviews will follow with the teachers. The interviews will be arranged to take place during the teachers' free time. In order to facilitate the analysis of the results, the lessons will be video-recorded. Approximately four lessons will be observed (minimum number is two) and the number will be agreed with the teacher of your school. The observations-interviews will be conducted between February-April 2014. Written consent will be asked from the teacher of your school for his/her participation in the research. Written consent form will be also asked from the parents/guardians of your students for their participation in the research.

The research has been approved by the Ministry of Education and Culture (App. No: 7.15.01.25.8.1/6 dated 29 January 2014). Your participation in the research is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw your participation at any time. Your anonymity and your personal data will be safeguarded.

I assure you that I will be at your disposal in the future to present and discuss the results of my study. A hard copy of my dissertation will be also available at the University of Cyprus library. The findings will be provided to the Division of Primary Education of the Ministry of Education and to the Center of Educational Research and Evaluation for further study and use.

Thanking you in advance,

George Michaelouides  
PhD Student  
Department of English Studies  
University of Cyprus  
michaelouides.george@ucy.ac.cy  
99596905

## Appendix L

### Letter of Research Approval by the Ministry of Education



ΚΥΠΡΙΑΚΗ ΔΗΜΟΚΡΑΤΙΑ  
ΥΠΟΥΡΓΕΙΟ  
ΠΑΙΔΕΙΑΣ ΚΑΙ ΠΟΛΙΤΙΣΜΟΥ

Αρ. Φακ.: 7.16.01.26.8.1/8  
Αρ. Τηλ.: 22800805  
Αρ. Φαξ: 22800613  
E-mail: [info@picoc.gov.cy](mailto:info@picoc.gov.cy)

ΔΙΕΥΘΥΝΣΗ  
ΔΗΜΟΤΙΚΗΣ ΕΚΠΑΙΔΕΥΣΗΣ

29 Ιανουαρίου, 2014

Κύριο Γεώργιο Μιχαηλίδη  
Κωνσταντίνου Καβάφη 5  
2201 Γ.Γ.ρι

#### Θέμα: Άδεια για διεξαγωγή έρευνας με εκπαιδευτικούς δημοτικών σχολείων

Αναφέρομαι στη σχετική με το πιο πάνω θέμα αίτησή σας προς το Κέντρο Εκπαιδευτικής Έρευνας και Αξιολόγησης, που υποβλήθηκε στις 4 Ιανουαρίου 2014, και σας πληροφορώ ότι εγκρίνεται το αίτημά σας για διεξαγωγή έρευνας με εκπαιδευτικούς δημοτικών σχολείων που εσείς θα επιλέξετε, με θέμα «Διερεύνηση της συντρέχουσας αξιολόγησης στη διδασκαλία Αγγλικών, ως ξένης γλώσσας στα δημοτικά σχολεία της Κύπρου», την παρούσα σχολική χρονιά 2013-2014, νοουμένου ότι θα ληφθούν υπόψη οι παρατηρήσεις του Κέντρου Εκπαιδευτικής Έρευνας και Αξιολόγησης, οι οποίες σας αποστέλλονται συνημμένα για δική σας ενημέρωση. Θα πρέπει, επίσης, να παρουσιάσετε το Αναλυτικό Σχέδιο Έρευνας, σε περίπτωση που αυτό σας ζητηθεί.

2. Νοείται, βέβαια, ότι πρέπει να εξασφαλιστεί η άδεια των διευθυντών/διευθυντριών των σχολείων που θα επισκεφθείτε, εκ των προτέρων, ώστε να ληφθούν όλα τα απαραίτητα μέτρα για να μην επηρεαστεί η ομαλή λειτουργία τους και η διεξαγωγή της έρευνας θα πρέπει να γίνει στο μη διδακτικό σας χρόνο. Επίσης, θα πρέπει να έχετε τη συγκατάθεση των εκπαιδευτικών, στην τάξη των οποίων θα μετέτε για παρακολούθηση μαθημάτων. Η έρευνα θα πρέπει να διεξαχθεί με ιδιαίτερα προσεγμένο τρόπο, ώστε να μη θίγεται το έργο των εκπαιδευτικών, το σχολικό περιβάλλον ή οι οικογένειες των μαθητών και όλες οι δραστηριότητες που θα ανασπυχθούν πρέπει να εμπιστούν μέσα στο πλαίσιο που καθορίζεται από το Αναλυτικό Πρόγραμμα. Οι εκπαιδευτικοί πρέπει να λάβουν μέρος στην έρευνα στο μη διδακτικό τους χρόνο. Σημειώνεται, επίσης, ότι τα πορίσματα κρίνεται απαραίτητο να είναι ανώνυμα και οι πληροφορίες που θα συλλεγούν να τηρηθούν απόλυτα εμπιστευτικές και αποκλειστικά και μόνο για το σκοπό της έρευνας.

3. Η παρούσα έγκριση παραχωρείται με την προϋπόθεση ότι τα πορίσματα της εργασίας, θα κοινοποιηθούν μόλις αυτή ολοκληρωθεί, στη Διεύθυνση Δημοτικής Εκπαίδευσης για σχετική μελέτη και κατάλληλη αξιοποίηση.

  
(Ελπίδοφορος Νεοκλέους)  
Διευθυντής  
Δημοτικής Εκπαίδευσης

Καν.: Π.Λ.Ε., Επαρχιακό Γραφείο Παιδείας  
: Ε.Δ.Ε. Αγγλικών  
Επαρχιακό Γραφείο Παιδείας Λευκωσίας

ΑΤΑΤ ΕΡΕΥΝΕΣ



Υπουργείο Παιδείας και Πολιτισμού, 1474 Λευκωσία  
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