MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING
UNIVERSITY OF PHAN THIET

TRAN NGUYEN HUY

THE ROLE OF THE 'LISTENING RELAY' ACTIVITY IN DEVELOPING REFLEXIVE ERROR DETECTION IN ENGLISH LEARNING OF FIFTH-GRADE STUDENTS AT HAM CUONG PRIMARY SCHOOL

MASTER'S GRADUATION PROJECT
MAJORED IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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Lam Dong Province - 2026

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SCIENCE INSTRUCTOR'S NAME(s):

1. Assoc. Prof. Ph.D. LE DINH TUONG

2. Ph.D. TRAN THI QUYNH LE

Lam Dong Province – 2026

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this graduation project is my own work. The ideas, analyses, data, and interpretations presented in this thesis were produced through my own reading, research, data collection, and synthesis. All sources used in the thesis have been acknowledged in the reference list. The data reported in this thesis are truthful and have not been published in any other research work.

Lam Dong, February 2026

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Sincerely,

ABSTRACT

This classroom-based mixed-method study investigated the role of the Listening Relay activity in supporting reflexive error detection in English learning among fifth-grade students at Ham Cuong Primary School. Reflexive error detection was defined as learners' developing ability to notice inaccurate spoken forms and respond with appropriate correction or reformulation during classroom interaction. The study involved 40 fifth-grade students divided into a control group and an experimental group. Data were collected through pre-task and post-task questionnaires, pre-test and post-test performance scores, classroom observation, and interview comments. Quantitative evidence was analyzed descriptively and through retained statistical outputs, including inter-rater correlations, Q-Q plots, and t-test results; qualitative evidence was used to interpret participation, confidence, peer interaction, and error-awareness patterns. The findings showed high inter-rater consistency for pre-test and post-test scoring and indicated that students perceived Listening Relay positively. Students reported greater enjoyment, confidence, attention to peers, awareness of spoken mistakes, and willingness to participate in speaking activities. The study concludes that Listening Relay did not function merely as a motivational game; rather, it created structured opportunities for attentive listening, peer-supported response, and quicker recognition of spoken errors in this specific primary EFL classroom context.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CG – Control Group

EG – Experimental Group

EFL – English as a Foreign Language

Q-Q – Quantile–Quantile

RED – Reflexive Error Detection

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Rationale

English has become an increasingly important subject in Vietnamese primary education because it is associated not only with immediate school achievement but also with longer-term participation in wider educational, social, and professional contexts, where communicative ability in English is often treated as a valuable resource rather than a peripheral accomplishment (Canh, 2004; Brown, 1980; Littlewood, 1981). At the primary-school level, however, learning English cannot be reduced to memorizing vocabulary items or grammatical rules in isolation, because learners are also required to process spoken language, interpret meaning under classroom conditions, and respond appropriately when English is used in interaction rather than only in written exercises or teacher-led repetition (Brown, 1980; Bygate, 1997; Canale & Swain, 1980; Vandergrift, 1999). In this sense, one important but often underdeveloped aspect of English learning is reflexive error detection, that is, the learner's developing ability to notice an error in a spoken form and respond to it promptly and appropriately during classroom communication rather than only after reflection or teacher explanation (Ellis, 1997; Bygate, 1997; Canale & Swain, 1980). This ability matters because it links grammatical awareness to communicative use and helps move learners from passive recognition of language forms toward more functional classroom performance in real time (Canale & Swain, 1980; Ellis, 1997; Brown, 1980).

For fifth-grade students, this ability is especially important because learners at this stage are often moving from highly controlled language practice toward more active and participatory classroom use of English, where they are expected not only to listen and repeat but also to recognize whether an utterance is acceptable, identify what is wrong when it is not, and produce a more appropriate form under the pressure of classroom response (Bygate, 1997; Ur, 1996; Ellis, 1997). In real classrooms, this process unfolds under time constraints, limited planning time, and varying degrees of confidence, all of which make spoken response more demanding than simple recognition of a rule in theory (Bygate, 1997; Brown, 1980; Dörnyei, 2001). As a result, many pupils may know a rule when they are given time to think, yet still fail to react quickly when they hear an incorrect spoken phrase in the flow of

classroom interaction, which reveals a gap between stored knowledge and usable performance rather than a total absence of linguistic knowledge itself (Ellis, 1997; Bygate, 1997; Vandergrift, 1999). This gap between knowledge and immediate response is therefore a practical classroom problem that deserves attention because it affects not only accuracy, but also learners' ability to participate actively and confidently in spoken English lessons (Canale & Swain, 1980; Brown, 1980; Dörnyei, 2001).

The baseline data in the thesis also point to the need for an intervention of this kind, because students generally recognize the importance of English and speaking, yet their classroom participation remains uneven and fragile (Brown, 1980; Dörnyei, 2001). A large proportion view listening as the most difficult skill, many are only sometimes willing to speak, and a substantial group report that they are never willing to speak in class, which suggests that the problem is not simple rejection of English, but the combination of skill difficulty, performance pressure, and affective restraint that interferes with oral participation (Vandergrift, 1999; Bygate, 1997; Brown, 1980; Dörnyei, 2001). At the same time, students show a very positive orientation toward game-based activities and indicate stronger willingness to participate when games are used, which is consistent with literature suggesting that structured games can reduce classroom tension, increase learner involvement, and create more manageable entry points into speaking tasks, especially for young learners who may otherwise remain hesitant or passive (Lee, 1979; Rixon, 1981; Lewis & Bedson, 1999; Johnson & Johnson, 1999). These patterns suggest that an effective intervention should not only support linguistic performance in a narrow sense, but also reduce anxiety, broaden participation, and create conditions under which learners are more willing to listen, notice, and respond during classroom interaction (Brown, 1980; Dörnyei, 2001; Johnson & Johnson, 1999).

Within this context, the Listening Relay activity appears pedagogically suitable because, unlike general games used merely for enjoyment, it requires learners to listen attentively, process language rapidly, notice inaccuracies, and respond under immediate classroom conditions, thereby linking listening, speaking, and error awareness within the same task structure (Bygate, 1997; Vandergrift, 1999; Canale & Swain, 1980). It also involves peer interaction, repetition, collaboration, and quick oral reformulation, all of which

are features that the literature associates with learner-centered participation, cooperative support, and the gradual movement from passive knowledge toward active communicative performance (Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Vygotsky, 1978; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Littlewood, 1981). These features make Listening Relay a potentially useful classroom technique for strengthening reflexive error detection while also supporting speaking confidence, peer attention, and learner engagement, which is particularly relevant in a classroom where students already value speaking but do not always feel able to perform it confidently in practice (Canale & Swain, 1980; Ellis, 1997; Dörnyei, 2001; Lewis & Bedson, 1999).

At Ham Cuong Primary School, this issue is particularly relevant because fifth-grade learners are studying in a context where listening and speaking tasks require both attention and quick response. If learners are hesitant, afraid of making mistakes, or slow in noticing incorrect language, classroom communication may remain passive and teacher-dependent. Therefore, a focused investigation into the role of Listening Relay is warranted, not simply as a motivational game, but as an instructional activity that may help learners develop quicker and more accurate responses to spoken errors.

For these reasons, this study was conducted under the title "The Role of the 'Listening Relay' Activity in Developing Reflexive Error Detection in English Learning of Fifth-Grade Students at Ham Cuong Primary School." The study contributes to primary EFL pedagogy by examining Listening Relay as a feasible, low-cost classroom activity that connects game-based participation with attentive listening, peer-supported correction, and rapid noticing of spoken errors. Its contribution is context-specific rather than universal: it shows how one structured activity functioned in one fifth-grade classroom and clarifies the conditions under which game-based oral practice may support reflexive error detection.

1.2. Research aims

This study aims to investigate the role of the Listening Relay activity in English learning among fifth-grade students at Ham Cuong Primary School. More specifically, the study aims to examine this activity in relation to the learners' classroom situation, their perceptions of game-based learning, the practical factors involved in using such an activity, and its role in developing reflexive error detection in spoken English.

1.3. Research questions

This study is guided by the following research questions:

1. *What is the current situation of English learning and classroom participation among fifth-grade students at Ham Cuong Primary School?*
2. *How do students perceive the use of language games, especially the Listening Relay activity, in English lessons?*
3. *What positive factors and challenges are associated with the use of the Listening Relay activity in this classroom context?*
4. *To what extent does the Listening Relay activity support the development of reflexive error detection in spoken English?*

1.4. Scope of the study

This study was conducted at Ham Cuong Primary School with 40 fifth-grade students. It is limited to this specific school context and to the use of the Listening Relay activity in English learning. The study does not attempt to examine all dimensions of English achievement. Instead, it focuses on the students' participation, their perceptions of language-game activities, the practical use of the intervention, and its role in relation to reflexive error detection in spoken English.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the theoretical foundations relevant to the present study. In primary English classrooms, it is rarely sufficient to discuss language learning only in terms of grammar knowledge or vocabulary accumulation. Young learners participate in language lessons through classroom tasks that place demands on attention, memory, confidence, listening, and immediate oral response. This is particularly relevant in the present study, which investigates whether Listening Relay can support the development of reflexive error detection in spoken English. Because the activity under examination requires students to listen carefully, notice whether a spoken phrase is correct or incorrect, and respond within the flow of classroom interaction, the theoretical framework must account for more than language form alone. It must also address task structure, learner participation, social interaction, and the conditions that make noticing and rapid response possible (Bygate, 1997; Vandergrift, 1999; Johnson & Johnson, 1999).

2.1. Language games

2.1.1. Concept of language games

In language pedagogy, games are best understood as rule-governed, goal-oriented classroom activities that require learners to participate, make decisions, and use language for an immediate purpose. This view is important because it distinguishes pedagogical language games from unstructured entertainment. In a language classroom, a game has instructional value only when its rules, goals, and participation structure direct learners toward meaningful language use (Lee, 1979; Rixon, 1981; Hadfield, 1987; Lewis & Bedson, 1999).

Language games have long been regarded as compatible with communicative language teaching because they can create situations in which learners use language to exchange information, solve problems, negotiate meaning, or respond to one another in a way that resembles real communicative behavior more closely than isolated drills do (Littlewood, 1981; Johnson & Morrow, 1991; Hadfield, 1987). In this respect, the value of a language game lies not only in its enjoyable form, but in the way it organizes language use.

A well-designed game gives students a reason to listen, speak, decide, or react. It can therefore create a functional context in which the target language is used as part of an action sequence rather than as an abstract system detached from classroom behavior (Carrier et al., 1985; Hadfield, 1987; Lewis & Bedson, 1999).

For young learners, the action-oriented nature of games is especially significant. Children often respond more actively when they are asked to do something with language than when they are asked merely to repeat or memorize it. Games can therefore help convert language practice into observable classroom performance by linking attention, response, and participation within the same task frame (Lee, 1979; Lewis & Bedson, 1999; Hirsh-Pasek et al., 2009). This is relevant to the present study because Listening Relay is not treated simply as a fun classroom break. Rather, it is treated as a structured activity through which learners are expected to listen carefully, process spoken language quickly, notice inaccuracies, and respond orally. It is therefore more accurate to describe it as a game-based classroom task with specific cognitive and interactional demands than as entertainment separated from learning (Bygate, 1997; Vandergrift, 1999).

The literature also suggests that not all games are educationally equal. A game may create excitement without necessarily creating meaningful language use. This distinction is important because it prevents an overly simplistic assumption that any game automatically benefits language learning. Rixon (1981) and Hadfield (1987) both imply that the pedagogical value of a game depends on its design, its relation to the lesson objective, and the extent to which it requires learners to engage with the target language rather than bypass it. This point is central to the present thesis. Listening Relay is relevant not because it is a game in the general sense, but because its structure appears suited to the classroom problem under investigation: students need to listen, notice spoken errors, and react more quickly in English (Rixon, 1981; Hadfield, 1987; Lewis & Bedson, 1999).

For this reason, the present study adopts a bounded understanding of language games. It does not assume that games are universally effective or inherently motivating in all circumstances. Instead, it treats them as classroom tools whose value depends on the way they organize learner participation and linguistic attention. In the case of Listening Relay, the classroom value of the game is expected to lie in its ability to combine attentive listening,

immediate response, peer interaction, and repeated exposure to spoken forms. These are precisely the features that connect the concept of language games to the specific concerns of the thesis (Canale & Swain, 1980; Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Vandergrift, 1999).

2.1.2 Benefits of using language games

2.1.2.1. Language games - attractive learning environment

One of the most frequently cited benefits of language games is their potential to create a more attractive and engaging classroom atmosphere. Lee (1979) argues that games can dispel boredom and make learners more ready to attend to classroom activities. Rixon (1981) similarly notes that games can encourage participation by making language practice feel less monotonous and more immediate. For younger learners, this is particularly important because engagement is often inseparable from learning. If students experience classroom work as dull, threatening, or repetitive, they may withdraw even when the content itself is not beyond their ability (Lee, 1979; Rixon, 1981; Lewis & Bedson, 1999).

An attractive learning environment does not mean an environment in which every activity is playful in a superficial sense. Rather, it refers to a classroom condition in which students are more willing to attend, respond, and persevere because the task feels manageable and worth entering. Gee (2003), Kapp (2012), and Hirsh-Pasek et al. (2009) all suggest, in different ways, that engagement matters because it sustains attention and creates opportunities for repeated participation. In language learning, such participation is especially valuable because learners do not improve only by knowing rules; they improve by using language repeatedly in meaningful situations (Gee, 2003; Hirsh-Pasek et al., 2009; Kapp, 2012).

In practical classroom terms, a game-based activity can change how difficulty is experienced. A speaking task that feels threatening when performed alone may feel more approachable when embedded in a turn-taking or team-based format. The linguistic challenge may remain the same, but the emotional experience of the challenge may shift. This is one reason why games are often associated with lower tension and greater willingness to attempt a response (Brown, 1980; Dörnyei, 2001; Lewis & Bedson, 1999). The present study later reports that students associated Listening Relay with enjoyment and reduced

difficulty, and this finding is consistent with the literature suggesting that classroom atmosphere can shape whether learners choose to participate at all (Lee, 1979; Dörnyei, 2001). Another important point is that enjoyment does not necessarily oppose learning. In some classroom traditions, serious learning is implicitly contrasted with enjoyable activity. However, the literature on child-centered and play-related learning challenges this dichotomy by suggesting that enjoyment can coexist with concentration and meaningful cognitive engagement (Hirsh-Pasek et al., 2009; Lewis & Bedson, 1999). In the present thesis, this perspective is useful because it allows Listening Relay to be understood as both enjoyable and instructional. The activity is not meaningful because it is fun, nor is it educational despite being fun. Rather, its fun and its pedagogical value may be partly connected, insofar as enjoyment encourages attention, participation, and repeated attempts at oral response (Gee, 2003; Kapp, 2012; Dörnyei, 2001).

2.1.2.2. Language games as learner-centered classroom practice

Language games are often associated with learner-centered teaching because they shift the center of classroom action away from the teacher as sole speaker and toward learners as active participants. In learner-centered practice, the teacher does not disappear; instead, the teacher becomes an organizer, guide, and facilitator who creates conditions under which students must perform the target behavior themselves (Littlewood, 1981; Rixon, 1981). This is significant because language learning, especially speaking development, cannot be achieved only by explanation. Students need opportunities to use language, react to input, and make decisions within classroom activity (Bygate, 1997; Ur, 1996).

Games can support learner-centeredness because they often require learners to communicate, collaborate, and solve problems together. Unlike purely teacher-fronted tasks, many games demand that students listen to classmates, negotiate what to do next, or contribute information that affects the progress of the activity. These demands make learner behavior more visible and place more responsibility on students for the movement of the lesson (Carrier et al., 1985; Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Lewis & Bedson, 1999). In this sense, games are not learner-centered simply because they are enjoyable. They are learner-centered because the learners become the agents through which the task proceeds.

This characteristic is directly relevant to the present study. Reflexive error detection in spoken English cannot be developed through teacher explanation alone. Students must be given opportunities to hear spoken language, judge whether it is accurate, and respond in some form themselves. Listening Relay appears relevant precisely because it requires learners to occupy this active role. Instead of passively receiving correction, students are asked to detect inaccuracies and reformulate language as part of the task sequence (Bygate, 1997; Vandergrift, 1999; Johnson & Johnson, 1999). The learner-centered nature of games also has an affective dimension. When students interact in pairs or groups rather than always performing in isolation before the full class, the burden of participation may be redistributed. This can be beneficial for learners who are shy, uncertain, or afraid of making mistakes publicly (Brown, 1980; Dörnyei, 2001). At the same time, learner-centeredness does not mean lack of control or unlimited freedom. The literature consistently suggests that games are effective only when their procedures are clear and their objectives are aligned with the lesson (Rixon, 1981; Ur, 1996; Hadfield, 1987). This caution is especially relevant to the present thesis because one of the classroom challenges later identified is the need for clear task structure and focused peer work.

2.1.2.3. Language games and motivation

Language games are also frequently associated with increased learner motivation and willingness to participate. Dörnyei (2001) argues that motivation is shaped by classroom tasks, participation structures, and the emotional climate of learning rather than by learner personality alone. In game-based language lessons, challenge, cooperation, short-term goals, and visible progress may encourage learners to attempt oral responses that they would otherwise avoid in more formal teacher-fronted conditions (Lee, 1979; Rixon, 1981; Lewis & Bedson, 1999; Kapp, 2012).

For the purposes of the present study, however, motivation must be understood carefully. The issue is not broad motivational theory in general, but a more specific classroom question: can game-based activity help learners enter oral participation more willingly in a context where fear of mistakes and reluctance to speak are already evident? This narrower understanding matters because the present thesis does not investigate global learner motivation across all domains. It examines whether the form of a classroom activity

can affect students' readiness to participate in spoken English, especially when the activity requires immediate listening and response (Dörnyei, 2001; Lee, 1979; Lewis & Bedson, 1999). Competition, cooperation, short-term goals, and visible progress are all factors that may increase willingness to take part in a task (Rixon, 1981; Kapp, 2012; Gee, 2003). For young learners especially, the immediate experience of participation may matter more than abstract future benefits. If a game makes students feel that they can take part, contribute to a team, or respond successfully in the moment, it may help overcome hesitation that would otherwise block oral participation (Lewis & Bedson, 1999; Dörnyei, 2001). This is one reason why the present study treats motivation as important but not sufficient. A game may increase willingness to participate, yet still fail to support the target skill if its structure does not keep attention on the relevant linguistic behavior. Listening Relay is important in this thesis because it appears capable of combining motivational value with a specific language-learning objective. It may encourage participation, but it does so while directing learners toward listening, noticing, and responding. This combination is pedagogically stronger than a simple increase in enjoyment because it links willingness to participate with the actual classroom behavior the study seeks to support (Bygate, 1997; Vandergrift, 1999; Canale & Swain, 1980).

2.1.2.4. Types of language games relevant to the present study

Language games take many forms, including guessing games, matching tasks, information-gap activities, role plays, and relay tasks (Hadfield, 1987, 2003; McCallum, 1980; Lewis & Bedson, 1999). Not all of these, however, are equally relevant to the present study. Since the focus here is on reflexive error detection in spoken English, the most relevant games are those that require attentive listening, rapid processing, oral reformulation, and some form of peer interaction or information transfer (Johnson & Morrow, 1991; Bygate, 1997). Information-gap tasks are relevant because they require students to obtain or transmit information through communication rather than simply display already rehearsed language (Johnson & Morrow, 1991; Littlewood, 1981). Relay tasks are particularly relevant because they often require learners to process input quickly and respond within a sequence where timing and accuracy both matter. Guessing and matching games may also support language development, but they do not always demand the same level of immediate noticing

of spoken inaccuracies. This is why Listening Relay occupies a special place in the present thesis. Its task design appears especially compatible with the study's concern with quick detection and correction of spoken forms (Bygate, 1997; Vandergrift, 1999).

In a relay format, language use is often distributed across several turns. Learners hear input, react, and then compare their own performance with that of others. Such a design may strengthen the link between noticing and response because it makes spoken form consequential within the activity rather than merely descriptive of it. In other words, the learner does not only hear an error; the learner must do something with that error promptly enough for the task to continue. This feature makes relay-style work theoretically attractive for a study concerned with reflexive error detection (Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Vandergrift, 1999; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). The literature identifies many advantages of language games, including increased engagement, greater opportunity for practice, reduced tension, collaboration, immediate feedback, and the possibility of informal assessment (Lee, 1979; Rixon, 1981; Hadfield, 1987; Lewis & Bedson, 1999). In the present thesis, these advantages matter only insofar as they connect to the actual classroom needs reflected in the data. The issue is not whether games are generally useful, but whether a game-like activity such as Listening Relay is theoretically plausible.

Immediate feedback is one such advantage. When students respond incorrectly in a game-based task, they may hear the correct version quickly and compare it with their own attempt. This makes the contrast between inaccurate and accurate language more immediate and may sharpen attention to form (Ur, 1996; Rixon, 1981). Repeated practice is another advantage, because games often allow students to produce multiple responses without making every one of them feel like a formal test. This may be particularly important in classrooms where speaking anxiety suppresses participation (Brown, 1980; Dörnyei, 2001). Games also generate visible classroom behavior. A teacher can see who participates readily, who hesitates, who relies on peers, and who notices forms more quickly. This makes games useful not only for learners, but also for teacher observation and informal assessment (Byrne, 1995; Ur, 1996). In the present study, this feature is especially relevant because observation and interview data later help interpret how the activity functioned in practice. In short, the literature suggests that language games may be pedagogically valuable not because they

replace instruction, but because they make important classroom behaviors more likely and more observable (Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Kapp, 2012).

2.2. Speaking and listening in classroom interaction

2.2.1. Definitions of speaking and listening

Speaking is generally understood as a productive skill through which learners select language forms and produce meaning under conditions of time pressure and reciprocal interaction. Bygate (1997) emphasizes that speaking involves not only the use of correct sounds, rhythm, and intonation, but also the organization of words and structures in a way that communicates intended meaning. This definition is important because it highlights that speaking is not a purely linguistic act in the narrow sense; it is a performance act shaped by time, memory, audience, and interaction (Bygate, 1997; Brown, 1980).

Listening, in turn, is not simply the passive reception of sound. Vandergrift (1999) treats listening as an active process involving decoding, interpretation, and strategic attention to meaning. Brown (1980) similarly suggests that listening is inseparable from interpretation because what matters is not merely hearing language, but understanding it in a usable form. In classroom interaction, these two skills are deeply linked. Students often speak in response to what they have just heard, whether the source is the teacher's instruction, a classmate's utterance, or a spoken model embedded in the task (Vandergrift, 1999; Bygate, 1997). This interdependence is central to the present study. Reflexive error detection begins with listening. A student cannot notice whether a spoken phrase is inaccurate unless the phrase has first been heard and processed accurately enough for the inaccuracy to become salient. Likewise, correction is not purely a listening event; it requires some form of spoken response. For that reason, the thesis treats speaking and listening not as isolated skills but as linked components of classroom performance. Listening Relay depends precisely on this linkage because the activity begins with attentive listening and culminates in spoken reformulation or correction (Canale & Swain, 1980; Vandergrift, 1999; Bygate, 1997).

2.2.2. The importance of speaking in the present context

Speaking is often treated as one of the clearest visible indicators of language ability because it requires learners to organize meaning, select linguistic forms, and respond under

interactional pressure. In educational settings, speaking is closely connected with communicative competence, active participation, and social presence in the classroom (Canale & Swain, 1980; Littlewood, 1981; Bygate, 1997). For this reason, speaking is frequently given a central place in language teaching, even when learners' written abilities may be more developed. However, the importance of speaking does not guarantee ease of speaking. The literature repeatedly suggests that oral performance is shaped by both linguistic and affective factors. Learners may understand the value of speaking but still hesitate because they fear mistakes, lack confidence, or struggle to process language quickly enough in interaction (Brown, 1980; Bygate, 1997; Dörnyei, 2001).

2.2.3. Stages of oral practice

Descriptions of speaking instruction often distinguish among presentation, practice, and production stages. Byrne (1988) suggests that speaking development benefits from a sequence in which learners first encounter the target language, then use it in guided ways, and finally attempt freer production. Ur (1996) similarly stresses that learners need opportunities for both controlled practice and increasingly independent language use. These accounts remain relevant to the present study because Listening Relay appears most suitable after learners have already encountered the target forms and need opportunities to process and use them more actively and quickly (Byrne, 1988; Ur, 1996). This means that Listening Relay should not be treated as a substitute for all stages of speaking instruction. It is better understood as a bridge between recognition and performance. Learners who already have some familiarity with relevant forms may use the activity to sharpen speed of response, attention to spoken detail, and oral reformulation. For reflexive error detection, this is important because students must already possess at least partial knowledge of the forms they are being asked to notice and correct. The challenge is not always lack of knowledge in absolute terms, but inability to access and apply that knowledge rapidly in classroom interaction (Bygate, 1997; Ellis, 1997). Bygate (1997) also emphasizes that speaking differs from writing because it is shaped by time limitations and reciprocal conditions. Spoken language unfolds under pressure and requires immediate decision-making. This observation is especially relevant to the present thesis because it helps explain why learners may know a correct form in writing or in delayed practice but still fail to respond successfully when the

same issue appears in real-time speech. Listening Relay appears theoretically useful because it works precisely in this space between stored knowledge and immediate spoken application (Bygate, 1997; Ur, 1996; Ellis, 1997).

2.2.4. Listening Relay as a classroom task

Listening Relay may be defined as a classroom activity in which learners listen to spoken input and then respond, pass on, or reformulate that input through a sequence of turns. Its pedagogical value lies in the fact that learners must remain attentive to what they hear while also preparing an oral response. The activity usually combines repetition, collaboration, light competition, and turn-taking, all of which may help sustain attention and participation (Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Lewis & Bedson, 1999). In the context of the present study, the central feature of Listening Relay is that it can focus learners on spoken inaccuracies. If a phrase contains a grammatical, lexical, or pronunciation problem, the learner must detect it and produce a corrected version. This turns error detection from a passive recognition task into an active classroom event. The relay format gives urgency to the noticing process because the learner is expected to respond within the sequence of the activity rather than after extended reflection (Bygate, 1997; Vandergrift, 1999). The task also redistributes participation. In many conventional speaking lessons, classroom response may be dominated by a small number of confident speakers. A relay activity can involve a broader range of learners because turn-taking and group support reduce the reliance on volunteerism alone. This feature is theoretically important because the present thesis investigates not only linguistic performance but also classroom participation and learner confidence. A task that changes who speaks, how often learners speak, and under what conditions they speak is likely to be pedagogically meaningful in such a context (Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988).

In Listening Relay, students listen to audio information before communicating back to the speaker via the same way: repeated communications, incremental modifications or altered replies. Learners are required to be attentive to what they hear as well as prepare their answer while still performing the same activity. Through this task, the student engages in both listening and speaking as part of one task rather than as two separate skills (Bygate, 1997; Vandergrift, 1999). This specific characteristic of Listening Relay is highly relevant

for the current research because the ability for learners to self-check their spoken English involves completing the following sequence: hear the utterance → process the utterance → evaluate the accuracy of the utterance → respond to the utterance. The relay format is significant because it introduces urgency and continuity into the task. A learner is not merely asked whether a phrase is correct in an abstract sense; rather, the learner must respond within the flow of the activity. If the phrase contains a grammatical, lexical, or pronunciation error, the learner must detect that error and produce a corrected version with limited delay. This makes attention to spoken detail consequential and pushes the learner toward more immediate language processing (Bygate, 1997; Canale & Swain, 1980; Vandergrift, 1999). In a classroom where students may know a form in theory but hesitate to respond orally, this kind of task may help reduce the gap between knowledge and performance. Listening Relay also redistributes classroom participation. In many speaking lessons, oral response tends to be dominated by a few confident learners, while quieter or less certain students remain passive. A relay-based format can broaden participation by structuring turn-taking and by embedding response within group activity rather than relying only on voluntary individual performance before the whole class (Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Lewis & Bedson, 1999). This is important in the present study because the classroom problem identified in Chapter 1 is not that students reject English or speaking altogether, but that many do not participate confidently under ordinary classroom conditions. A task that changes participation structure may therefore be pedagogically relevant in its own right. Another important feature of Listening Relay is that it can create a more visible link between attention, response, and error awareness. Because the activity depends on spoken input and immediate reaction, it makes the process of noticing more observable both for learners and for the teacher. Students hear forms, compare them with their own knowledge, and respond within a meaningful sequence. When an incorrect form is identified and corrected, the contrast between inaccurate and accurate language may become more salient than it would in a slower or more teacher-dominated lesson format (Ur, 1996; Vandergrift, 1999; Ellis, 1997). This feature is central to the thesis because the activity is being studied not merely as a motivational technique, but as a classroom means of supporting reflexive error detection. Listening Relay is also socially organized. Learners do not respond in complete isolation; they hear classmates, observe peer

responses, and often rely on shared task momentum. This means that the activity may support learning not only through individual cognition but also through peer attention and collaborative comparison (Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). Later findings in the thesis, especially those related to students' attention to classmates and learning from peers, become more meaningful when this task structure is understood clearly at the theoretical level. For these reasons, Listening Relay may be seen as an especially relevant classroom task for the present research context. It combines attentive listening, oral response, repetition, peer interaction, and light time pressure in a way that is closely aligned with the study's focus on spoken participation and rapid noticing of spoken errors (Bygate, 1997; Vandergrift, 1999; Johnson & Johnson, 1999).

2.2.5. Phases of teaching speaking

Byrne (1988) distinguishes three main stages in the development of learners' oral ability: the presentation stage, the practice stage, and the production stage. This sequence remains useful in speaking pedagogy because it reflects the movement from initial exposure to language, through guided use, and finally toward more independent oral performance (Byrne, 1988; Ur, 1996). In the present study, this framework is relevant because the Listening Relay activity is not intended to replace all stages of speaking instruction. Rather, it is better understood as a task that becomes most pedagogically useful after students have already been introduced to target language and need opportunities to process, notice, and respond to it more actively in classroom interaction (Byrne, 1988; Bygate, 1997; Ur, 1996).

In the presentation stage, the teacher typically occupies the central instructional role and functions mainly as an information provider. At this stage, students are primarily expected to observe, listen, and receive new language input. The purpose of this phase is to establish initial familiarity with target forms, meanings, and uses before learners are required to manipulate them independently (Byrne, 1988; Ur, 1996). Although students may participate in limited ways during this stage, such participation is usually tightly controlled and often depends on imitation, repetition, or highly guided response. In this sense, the presentation stage is necessary because it gives learners a linguistic starting point, but it does not by itself ensure that they will later be able to use the language quickly or confidently in real-time oral interaction (Bygate, 1997; Brown, 1980).

In the practice stage, learners take on a more active role. According to Byrne (1988), this is the stage at which students receive a greater amount of controlled and guided practice in order to develop vocabulary, grammar, and fluency. Learners may answer guided questions, work with partners, or carry out structured oral tasks that require them to manipulate target language in a more active way than in the earlier presentation phase (Byrne, 1988; Ur, 1996). Ur (1996) notes that effective speaking practice requires focused attention, clear exposure to the target language, understanding of meaning, and sufficient repetition for short-term retention. This is particularly relevant in the present study because reflexive error detection depends on learners already having at least some familiarity with the target forms they are expected to notice and correct. If students have no prior exposure to such forms, then rapid noticing and oral reformulation become much less likely (Bygate, 1997; Ellis, 1997).

In the production stage, learners are given opportunities to use English more freely and with less direct teacher control. This stage often includes pair work, group work, or other tasks in which learners must speak with greater independence and rely more on their own linguistic resources (Byrne, 1988; Ur, 1996). The importance of this phase lies in the fact that language ability does not fully develop through guided practice alone. Learners need opportunities to test their knowledge, make decisions, take risks, and express meaning in more flexible ways (Bygate, 1997; Littlewood, 1981). At the same time, freer production can also increase anxiety, particularly for young learners who fear making mistakes or being judged by others. Therefore, the value of the production stage depends partly on whether the classroom conditions make such risk-taking manageable (Brown, 1980; Dörnyei, 2001). In the present thesis, this three-stage model is useful because it clarifies where Listening Relay fits pedagogically. The activity is not most appropriate as an initial presentation device, because learners need some prior familiarity with spoken forms before they can detect inaccuracies in them. Nor is it simply a free-speaking activity without structure. Rather, Listening Relay can be understood as a practice-to-production bridge: it still provides task structure and repetition, but it also requires learners to listen, judge, and respond in a more active and immediate way than conventional drills do (Byrne, 1988; Bygate, 1997; Ur, 1996). This is particularly important for the development of reflexive error detection,

because the target ability involves moving from recognition of a form to rapid oral response under classroom conditions. Thus, the stages of speaking instruction remain relevant to the present study not merely as a general pedagogical model, but as a way of locating the specific function of Listening Relay within classroom speaking development. The activity is theoretically meaningful because it operates at the point where learners must begin to transform existing knowledge into more immediate and participatory spoken performance (Bygate, 1997; Ellis, 1997; Ur, 1996).

2.2.6. Theoretical foundations supporting Listening Relay

One foundational theory supporting the use of Listening Relay is communicative competence, as articulated by Canale and Swain (1980). This theory argues that language learning involves not only grammatical knowledge but also the ability to use language effectively and appropriately in context. Learners need more than formal accuracy in isolation; they need to process and use language in real time within actual communication (Canale & Swain, 1980; Bygate, 1997). This is directly relevant to the present thesis because reflexive error detection belongs to this real-time dimension of language ability. A learner who can notice and respond to an inaccurate spoken form is demonstrating not only knowledge of grammar, but also the capacity to use that knowledge under communicative classroom conditions. From this perspective, Listening Relay is theoretically meaningful because it requires learners to process spoken language under conditions that resemble classroom communication more closely than written exercises do. Students do not merely select answers on paper. They hear language, judge it, and respond within an unfolding interactional sequence. In this sense, the activity supports communicative competence by bringing grammatical awareness into live oral classroom use (Canale & Swain, 1980; Bygate, 1997). If learners cannot respond when they hear an inaccurate utterance, then their participation remains passive and teacher-dependent. Listening Relay is therefore relevant because it places learners in situations where noticing and responding become part of active language use rather than later reflection.

A second important theoretical support comes from research on active listening. Vandergrift (1999) emphasizes that listening is not passive reception, but an active process involving strategy use, focused attention, prediction, and interpretation in context. Brown

(1980) similarly presents listening as a process that requires learners to connect incoming sound to meaning rather than merely hear words. These ideas are directly relevant to the present study because Listening Relay begins with attentive listening. Before students can detect whether a spoken phrase contains an error, they must first hear and process that phrase accurately enough for the error to become noticeable (Vandergrift, 1999; Brown, 1980). This means that the activity under investigation is not simply a speaking task with a listening component attached. It is a task in which listening is the first and indispensable stage of response. If students struggle with listening, then their ability to identify and correct spoken inaccuracies is likely to remain weak. The later findings in the thesis, where listening emerges as the most difficult skill, make this theoretical point especially important. The relevance of Listening Relay therefore lies partly in the way it transforms listening from passive exposure into goal-directed classroom behavior (Vandergrift, 1999; Canale & Swain, 1980).

A third important foundation is social interaction theory, especially as proposed by Vygotsky (1978). Vygotsky argues that cognitive development takes place within a social context and that learning is mediated through interaction with others. Later collaborative learning research, including Johnson and Johnson (1999), supports this view by showing that learners often perform more effectively when tasks are structured cooperatively and when peers function as sources of support, comparison, and feedback (Vygotsky, 1978; Johnson & Johnson, 1999). This theoretical perspective is highly relevant to Listening Relay because the activity is socially organized. Learners hear classmates' responses, observe successes and errors, and sometimes depend on one another to sustain the task. In the context of the present study, this social dimension is not incidental. It helps explain why peer attention and peer-supported learning later emerge as positive perceptions of the activity. If students learn from classmates and pay close attention to peer performance during the task, then social interaction is functioning as part of the learning process, not merely as background classroom noise. This is particularly important for reflexive error detection, because noticing may be strengthened when learners compare their own understanding with what they hear from others (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Johnson & Johnson, 1999).

A fourth relevant perspective is constructivist learning theory. Piaget (1973) and later Vygotskian and socially oriented constructivists argue that learners construct knowledge through activity and interaction rather than receiving it passively from authority. In classroom terms, this means that learners understand more deeply when they engage with content, test interpretations, and build meaning through participation (Piaget, 1973; Vygotsky, 1978; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). Listening Relay fits this perspective because it places students in a dynamic context where they must actively interpret spoken language and respond to it. They are not simply told which forms are correct; they are required to notice, judge, and reformulate within the task itself. This constructivist angle is especially useful for the present thesis because it helps explain why a relay-style activity may be more developmentally productive than explanation alone. A student who hears a phrase, identifies an error, and produces a correction is participating in a process of knowledge construction through action. Repeated participation in such tasks may gradually strengthen the learner's response pattern and reduce the gap between passive knowledge and active use (Piaget, 1973; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Ellis, 1997).

2.3. Reflexive error detection among EFL learners

In this thesis, the phrase reflexive error detection does not refer to biological reflexes such as infant motor responses. Rather, it refers to a classroom language behavior: the learner's developing ability to notice a spoken error quickly and to respond with an appropriate correction or reformulation. This concept is therefore pedagogical and cognitive rather than physiological. It belongs to the domain of classroom performance, where stored knowledge must be mobilized rapidly enough to shape spoken response (Bygate, 1997; Ellis, 1997). Among young ESL learners, this ability is often uneven. A student may know a correct form when given time to think or when the form is presented visually, yet fail to recognize or correct the same problem when it appears in fast spoken language. This gap between knowing and responding is central to the present study. It helps explain why learners may seem to understand English in some lesson phases yet remain hesitant or inaccurate during real-time classroom speaking activities (Brown, 1980; Ellis, 1997; Bygate, 1997). Rapid noticing matters because it moves language knowledge from passive recognition toward usable classroom performance. When learners become quicker at hearing and

challenging an incorrect form, they are not simply memorizing rules; they are beginning to apply those rules in interaction. This is especially important in primary classrooms, where learners often need repeated, low-stakes opportunities to transform attention into action (Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). A well-designed task may support this transformation by making noticing visible, repeated, and socially supported. Listening Relay appears theoretically relevant in precisely this way because it places learners in situations where they must listen, judge, and respond within a shared classroom sequence (Vandergrift, 1999; Canale & Swain, 1980). The idea of self-correction is also relevant here. When students can recognize that a spoken form is inaccurate and move toward a corrected form, they demonstrate not only knowledge of the language, but an emerging ability to regulate their own classroom response. This is a significant developmental step in language learning because it suggests movement away from exclusive dependence on teacher correction and toward greater learner agency in monitoring spoken language (Ellis, 1997; Brown, 1980). Although the present thesis does not claim to measure all forms of self-regulation, it does examine whether Listening Relay can support the conditions under which such monitoring becomes more likely.

2.4. Significance of rapid noticing and self-correction in learning

Rapid noticing and self-correction are significant in language learning because they help move learners' knowledge from passive recognition toward usable classroom performance (Ellis, 1997; Bygate, 1997; Canale & Swain, 1980; Brown, 1980). In second-language development, it is not enough for learners merely to know a rule in an abstract or delayed sense; they must also be able to identify relevant language forms when they occur in real use and respond to them under communicative conditions (Canale & Swain, 1980; Ellis, 1997; Bygate, 1997). When learners become quicker at hearing an inaccurate form, noticing the problem, and attempting a correction, they are no longer functioning only at the level of memorised rule knowledge; rather, they are beginning to apply that knowledge in interaction, where comprehension, judgment, and response must operate together and under time pressure (Bygate, 1997; Brown, 1980; Ellis, 1997). In this sense, rapid noticing is closely related to communicative development because it links grammatical awareness to

actual language use instead of leaving it at the level of passive recognition alone (Canale & Swain, 1980; Bygate, 1997).

Self-correction is equally important because it reflects an emerging capacity for learners to monitor and regulate their own spoken production rather than relying entirely on teacher intervention or delayed external correction (Ellis, 1997; Ur, 1996; Brown, 1980). When a learner can hear a problematic form, recognize that it is inaccurate, and move toward a more acceptable version, that learner is demonstrating more than factual knowledge of grammar or vocabulary; the learner is showing developing control over language in action (Bygate, 1997; Ellis, 1997; Canale & Swain, 1980). This ability is pedagogically valuable because classroom speaking depends not only on what learners know, but also on whether they can access and use that knowledge quickly enough during live interaction (Brown, 1980; Bygate, 1997; Vandergrift, 1999). For this reason, rapid noticing and self-correction may be understood as important indicators that language knowledge is beginning to shift from static competence toward more functional performance in classroom communication (Canale & Swain, 1980; Ellis, 1997).

This issue is especially important in primary classrooms, where learners often need repeated and low-pressure opportunities to transform attention into action and partial understanding into more active oral performance (Lewis & Bedson, 1999; Dörnyei, 2001; Brown, 1980; Hirsh-Pasek et al., 2009). Young learners may recognize a correct form when they see it written, when it is explained slowly, or when they are given time to think, yet still fail to respond appropriately when the same form appears in fast spoken input (Bygate, 1997; Vandergrift, 1999; Ellis, 1997). This suggests that the difficulty is not always the total absence of knowledge, but rather the speed, confidence, and attentional control required to use that knowledge during classroom interaction (Brown, 1980; Bygate, 1997; Dörnyei, 2001). In other words, learners may know more than they can immediately perform, and it is precisely this gap between stored knowledge and real-time response that makes rapid noticing and self-correction such important educational concerns (Ellis, 1997; Bygate, 1997; Canale & Swain, 1980). The significance of rapid noticing is also closely connected to the role of listening in spoken language use. Before learners can correct a spoken error, they must first hear and interpret the utterance accurately enough for the problematic form to

become noticeable (Vandergrift, 1999; Brown, 1980; Canale & Swain, 1980). This means that rapid noticing is not simply a grammatical skill, but a combined process involving attentive listening, linguistic comparison, and readiness to respond (Vandergrift, 1999; Bygate, 1997; Ellis, 1997). In classroom interaction, especially in activities involving oral response, learners must process spoken language under time pressure and often without the support of written text or extended planning time (Bygate, 1997; Brown, 1980). Therefore, the development of rapid noticing is significant because it strengthens the connection between listening comprehension and spoken reaction, both of which are necessary for meaningful participation in classroom English use (Canale & Swain, 1980; Vandergrift, 1999; Bygate, 1997).

A well-designed classroom activity can support this developmental process by making noticing more visible, more repeated, and more socially supported (Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Vygotsky, 1978; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). When learners encounter target forms repeatedly in an activity that requires them to attend, compare, and respond, they may gradually strengthen the link between hearing language and acting on it (Vandergrift, 1999; Ellis, 1997; Bygate, 1997). Repetition is important because it allows learners to encounter similar forms across multiple response opportunities, while visibility is important because it makes the process of error detection and correction observable to both the learner and the teacher (Ur, 1996; Johnson & Johnson, 1999). Social support is equally important because learners often develop through interaction with others, especially when peer responses, shared attention, and collaborative comparison help make language forms more salient in the classroom (Vygotsky, 1978; Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). From this perspective, rapid noticing and self-correction are not only individual mental acts; they are classroom behaviors that may be strengthened through carefully organized social practice (Vygotsky, 1978; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988).

Moreover, the importance of low-stakes opportunities should not be underestimated. In classrooms where learners fear mistakes or public embarrassment, they may avoid speaking even when they partly recognize an error or suspect that something is wrong (Brown, 1980; Dörnyei, 2001). Under such conditions, learners may fail to show what they know because the emotional cost of response is too high (Brown, 1980; Dörnyei, 2001).

Activities that reduce pressure while preserving attentional and linguistic demands may therefore be especially useful for supporting rapid noticing and self-correction (Lewis & Bedson, 1999; Johnson & Johnson, 1999). When learners feel that they can attempt a response without severe penalty, they may become more willing to test their understanding, notice discrepancies, and correct themselves in the flow of interaction (Dörnyei, 2001; Brown, 1980; Ur, 1996). This is particularly relevant for young learners, whose oral participation is often shaped as much by confidence and classroom atmosphere as by formal language knowledge (Lewis & Bedson, 1999; Hirsh-Pasek et al., 2009).

From a broader pedagogical perspective, rapid noticing and self-correction matter because they represent movement toward greater learner agency in language use (Ellis, 1997; Brown, 1980; Canale & Swain, 1980). A learner who depends entirely on external correction remains largely reactive, whereas a learner who begins to detect and repair spoken inaccuracies is participating more actively in the regulation of his or her own language performance (Ellis, 1997; Ur, 1996). This does not mean that teacher guidance becomes unimportant. Rather, it means that teaching becomes more effective when learners are placed in conditions that allow them to notice, test, and refine their own responses during classroom interaction (Ur, 1996; Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). In this sense, the significance of rapid noticing and self-correction lies not only in immediate correctness, but also in the longer-term development of learners who can respond to spoken language with increasing speed, awareness, and independence (Bygate, 1997; Canale & Swain, 1980; Ellis, 1997).

For the present study, this significance is especially relevant because the development of reflexive error detection in spoken English depends precisely on these processes. If learners are to become quicker at identifying and responding to spoken inaccuracies, they need classroom experiences in which attention to form, listening accuracy, peer-supported response, and repeated oral action are brought together rather than taught separately (Vandergrift, 1999; Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Canale & Swain, 1980). Activities that require learners to attend closely to spoken input, compare forms, and respond within meaningful interaction may therefore play an important role in helping learners develop more immediate and functional control over spoken English (Bygate, 1997; Johnson &

Morrow, 1991; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). Rapid noticing and self-correction are significant, then, not simply because they improve accuracy in a narrow sense, but because they help learners transform language knowledge into live classroom performance, which is one of the central developmental goals of communicative language learning itself (Canale & Swain, 1980; Ellis, 1997; Brown, 1980).

2.5. Previous studies on relay activities and classroom interaction

Previous studies of game-based and relay-style activities generally suggest that such tasks can support engagement, cooperation, and active classroom participation. Dörnyei (2001) emphasizes the importance of motivational conditions in language learning and suggests that interactive, enjoyable tasks may increase willingness to participate. Johnson and Johnson (1999) similarly argue that cooperative structures often improve learner involvement and create more meaningful interdependence among students. These general findings do not prove the value of every game, but they do support the idea that structured interactive tasks deserve attention in classrooms where learners are reluctant to speak (Dörnyei, 2001; Johnson & Johnson, 1999). Research on listening-based activities also suggests that learners often respond more actively when information must be processed, remembered, or transferred under time pressure. Vandergrift (1999) highlights the importance of active listening strategies and the role of focused attention in successful listening performance. From the perspective of the present study, this is relevant because Listening Relay combines listening with immediate classroom consequences. Learners must do something with what they hear, and this may increase the salience of spoken form more effectively than static listening exercises alone (Vandergrift, 1999; Brown, 1980). Although the exact label Listening Relay is not always used consistently across previous studies, the broader pedagogical implication remains relevant. Tasks that combine attentive listening, peer support, repeated response, and purposeful movement of information may be better suited to promoting classroom speaking than lessons that rely mainly on teacher explanation or isolated individual performance (Littlewood, 1981; Johnson & Morrow, 1991; Lewis & Bedson, 1999). For the present thesis, the most useful conclusion from previous work is therefore not that games are always beneficial, but that tasks integrating listening, cooperation, and immediate response deserve serious pedagogical consideration in hesitant-

speaking classrooms (Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Dörnyei, 2001; Vandergrift, 1999). The present study contributes to this area in a bounded and context-specific way. It does not attempt to make broad universal claims about all game-based instruction. Instead, it examines one specific activity, Listening Relay, in one specific setting, namely fifth-grade students at Ham Cuong Primary School, and considers the activity in relation to four closely connected issues: the current classroom situation, students' perceptions of game-based learning, the practical strengths and challenges of the intervention, and its role in supporting reflexive error detection in spoken English. In this sense, the study adds to the literature by connecting game-based pedagogy, classroom participation, and rapid noticing of spoken errors within a concrete primary-school context (Canale & Swain, 1980; Ellis, 1997; Johnson & Johnson, 1999).

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research design

This study employed a mixed-method classroom design in order to examine the role of Listening Relay in the English learning of fifth-grade students at Ham Cuong Primary School. A mixed-method approach was appropriate because the study did not rely on one type of evidence alone. Instead, it combined quantitative data from questionnaires and performance scores with qualitative evidence from classroom observation and open-ended student comments. This design made it possible to describe the classroom situation, examine students' perceptions, and interpret the practical role of the intervention more fully.

The study also included an intervention component. Forty students were organised into two groups: a control group and an experimental group. The experimental group participated in Listening Relay activities, whereas the control group continued with regular classroom practice.

The research design is described conservatively and only in ways that remain consistent with the preserved results. The study therefore does not claim more statistical precision than the thesis record can support. Its central purpose is not to provide a large-scale causal model but to examine whether Listening Relay functioned as a useful classroom intervention in relation to the four research questions: classroom situation, students' perceptions, positive factors and challenges, and support for reflexive error detection.

3.2. Participants

The study was conducted with 40 fifth-grade students at Ham Cuong Primary School. These students were the main participants in the research and represented the learner group described throughout the thesis. In order to support the intervention design reflected in the later analysis, the participants were divided into two groups: a control group (20 students) and an experimental group (20 students).

The students were studying English through the I Learn Smart textbook in the school context described in the thesis. The classroom setting is relevant to the study because the lesson sequence involved both listening and speaking, and the activity under investigation was used within that broader English-learning context. In addition to the students, one

English teacher who taught the class also formed part of the research setting, especially in relation to implementation, classroom observation, and the interpretation of student participation.

The choice of these participants was appropriate for the study because the thesis focuses specifically on fifth-grade learners at this school and because the classroom data already reflect their English-learning situation, their participation patterns, and their responses to language-game activities. For that reason, no attempt was made to generalize beyond this participant group.

3.3. Instruments for Data Collection

The study drew on several instruments for data collection, namely pre-task and post-task survey questionnaires, pre-test and post-test score data, classroom observation, and semi-structured interview data. These instruments were not used separately from one another. The questionnaires provided information about learners' attitudes and perceptions, the test scores supported performance-based analysis, and the qualitative instruments helped interpret the positive factors, challenges, and reflexive changes discussed later in the thesis.

In addition, a student questionnaire was developed to explore learners' perceptions of learning through language games. The questionnaire used a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree and included two main constructs: (1) Enjoyment and engagement with language games, and (2) Perceived improvement in speaking skills. The questionnaire was piloted on five students to ensure clarity and appropriateness before full implementation.

The post-task perception instrument reported in the thesis was a fourteen-item, five-point Likert questionnaire organized into two constructs: learning perceptions through games and interpersonal engagement in activities. The questionnaire items were aligned with the study focus on enjoyment, confidence, peer collaboration, attention to classmates, awareness of mistakes, and willingness to continue using similar activities.

Table 3.1. Reliability test

Constructs	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Learning Perceptions through Games	8	0.732
Interpersonal Engagement in Activities	6	0.846
Total	14	0.793

The study used both a pre-task questionnaire and a post-task questionnaire. However, the two instruments did not serve exactly the same purpose.

3.3.1 Pre-Task and Post-Task Survey Questionnaires

The post-task questionnaire was used after the intervention in order to examine students' perceptions of the activity and of game-based classroom participation. According to the retained methodology, the questionnaire followed a five-point Likert scale and was organized into two constructs: Learning Perceptions through Games and Interpersonal Engagement in Activities. The reliability coefficients reported in Table 1 indicate acceptable internal consistency for the questionnaire as used in the thesis.

In practical terms, the post-task questionnaire generated the data later discussed in relation to enjoyment, confidence, fluency, learning of sentence structures, awareness of mistakes, willingness to continue using games, peer collaboration, attention to classmates, and team participation. The instrument therefore contributes directly to Research Questions 2 and 3, and indirectly to Research Question 4 because students' perceptions of mistake awareness and attention to peers help explain how the activity may support reflexive error detection.

To strengthen content relevance, the questionnaire items were checked against the research questions and the classroom focus of the intervention. This alignment was necessary because the purpose of the study was not to measure general motivation in isolation, but to examine how students responded to a specific listening-speaking activity designed to support error awareness and oral participation.

The questionnaire data were therefore interpreted together with observation and interview evidence. This triangulation helped reduce overreliance on self-report data and made the interpretation of students' perceptions more defensible within the limits of a small classroom-based study.

3.3.2 Pre-Test and Post-Test

In addition to the questionnaires, the study used pre-test and post-test score data in order to examine reflexive performance before and after the intervention. According to the original methodology section, each test consisted of 20 spoken phrases, some of which

contained deliberate errors involving grammar, vocabulary, or pronunciation. Students were required to listen to the spoken phrases and provide the correct form. Because the later data analysis reports pre-test and post-test score patterns for both the control group and the experimental group, these tests formed the main performance-based component of the study.

The scores were evaluated by two raters. This inter-rater procedure is important because it strengthens the credibility of the scoring process and makes the later interpretation of performance data more defensible. Since the original chapter states that each correct identification and correction received a score and the total possible score was 40, the test procedure in this methodology is best understood as awarding two points per item: one for accurate detection and one for accurate correction, resulting in a total possible score of 40 points across 20 items.

3.4. Procedures and Methods of Data Collection

Classroom observation formed an additional qualitative source of evidence in the study. It was used during the implementation stage to record students' engagement, participation, attentiveness, and interaction while the Listening Relay activity was being used. Observation was therefore useful not only for describing what happened in class, but also for helping interpret why certain positive factors and challenges emerged.

3.5. Data Analysis

The data were analyzed by combining quantitative and qualitative procedures.

The questionnaire data were analyzed mainly through descriptive statistics. Because the questionnaires were designed to gather students' attitudes, perceptions, and classroom preferences, descriptive analysis was appropriate for showing response patterns across items and categories. This type of analysis was used for both the baseline questionnaire and the post-task perception questionnaire.

The pre-test and post-test data were analyzed through statistical procedures appropriate to classroom-based performance evidence. Pearson correlation was used to examine inter-rater consistency between the two raters. Normal Q-Q plots were used to inspect whether the score distributions were approximately normal. The retained t-test outputs were interpreted cautiously and were not overextended beyond the statistical

comparisons actually available in the thesis. This conservative interpretation was necessary because the small sample size and classroom-based design limited the strength of causal claims.

3.6. Data Collection Timeline

The data collection process followed the general sequence already outlined in the thesis and may be understood in three stages: baseline collection, implementation, and post-intervention collection.

In the first stage, the study established the baseline classroom situation. The pre-task questionnaire was administered in order to collect information about students' general attitudes toward English, their perceptions of different language skills, their willingness to speak, and their views of classroom techniques and language games. The pre-test was also administered at this stage in order to gather initial performance data from both the control group and the experimental group before the intervention.

In the second stage, the Listening Relay activity was implemented with the experimental group as part of classroom learning, while the control group continued with regular classroom practice. During this stage, classroom observation was carried out in order to record students' participation, interaction, and response patterns. The original methodology section describes this stage as the period in which the experimental group engaged in the Listening Relay activity and the control group continued with traditional exercises. This stage is also the one most closely connected to the later discussion of positive factors, challenges, and the explanation of improved reflexes.

In the third stage, post-intervention data were collected. The post-task questionnaire was administered in order to examine students' perceptions after participating in the activity. The post-test was then used to obtain final performance data from the two groups. In addition, interview-based evidence and observation records contributed to the qualitative interpretation of the results. Taken together, this sequence enabled the study to move from initial classroom description to intervention and then to post-task analysis without introducing data beyond what the thesis already contains.

CHAPTER 4: DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the findings of the study in relation to the research questions. The analysis first reports performance evidence from the pre-test and post-test, then discusses students' post-task perceptions of Listening Relay, the baseline classroom situation, the positive factors and challenges of the activity, and the role of Listening Relay in supporting reflexive error detection. The interpretation remains conservative: the results are treated as classroom-based evidence rather than as proof of a large-scale causal effect.

4.1. Performance evidence from the pre-test and post-test

4.1.1. Pre-test scoring evidence

Figure 4.1. Correlation of speaking pre-test scores of the control group by two raters

Correlations

		Spk_Pre_CG_Rater 1	Spk_Pre_CG_Rater 2
Spk_Pre_CG_Rater1	Pearson Correlation	1	.932**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	20	20
Spk_Pre_CG_Rater2	Pearson Correlation	.932**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	20	20

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

		Spk_Pre_EG_Rater 1	Spk_Pre_EG_Rater 2
Spk_Pre_EG_Rater1	Pearson Correlation	1	.820**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	20	20
Spk_Pre_EG_Rater2	Pearson Correlation	.820**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	20	20

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As shown in Figure 4.1, the scoring of the speaking pre-test demonstrated a high degree of consistency between the two raters in both groups. In the control group, the Pearson correlation coefficient between Spk_Pre_CG_Rater1 and Spk_Pre_CG_Rater2 was r = .932, with p = .000 and N = 20, indicating a very strong positive relationship between the two sets of scores. In the experimental group, the correlation between Spk_Pre_EG_Rater1 and Spk_Pre_EG_Rater2 was also strong, with r = .820, p = .000, and N = 20. Since both coefficients were significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), the results shown in Figure 4.1

provide clear evidence that the two raters evaluated students' pre-test performance in a largely similar manner across both groups.

The importance of this result lies in the role of the pre-test within the wider design of the study. Because the pre-test was used to establish students' initial level before the Listening Relay intervention, the credibility of the later analysis depends in part on whether the scoring process was stable and dependable. In this respect, Figure 4.1 is methodologically important. The very high coefficient of .932 in the control group suggests especially close agreement, while the coefficient of .820 in the experimental group, though slightly lower, still represents a substantial level of correspondence between the two raters. Taken together, these two values indicate that the pre-test scores were not shaped mainly by arbitrary individual judgment, but reflected a relatively consistent evaluation of the learners' spoken performance.

A closer reading of Figure 4.1 also shows that inter-rater agreement was somewhat stronger in the control group than in the experimental group. This difference should be noted, but it should not be overstated. Both coefficients remain sufficiently high to support confidence in the scoring process. The difference may simply suggest that the control-group responses were slightly more straightforward to rate, or that the experimental-group performances showed somewhat greater variation in the way students responded to the speaking items. However, because both sets of scores still produced strong and statistically significant correlations, the overall conclusion remains the same: the pre-test ratings were consistent enough to justify their use in subsequent analysis.

From an analytic perspective, Figure 4.1 strengthens the internal logic of Chapter 4 because it establishes that the baseline performance evidence was scored reliably before any interpretation of improvement or difference was attempted. In studies involving spoken responses, this step is especially important. Unlike some written items that can be marked more mechanically, speaking performance often involves interpretive judgment, particularly when students are asked to listen, detect an error, and produce a corrected form. The strong correlations shown in Figure 4.1 therefore help reduce concerns that the pre-test results might have been distorted by scorer subjectivity. This, in turn, makes the later discussion of

reflexive error detection more defensible, since the study begins from a baseline that has been evaluated with substantial inter-rater consistency.

In addition, Figure 4.1 has relevance beyond mere statistical procedure. The figure also suggests that the pre-test itself was sufficiently clear and operationalized in a way that allowed two independent raters to interpret students' responses in broadly the same way. This is important because the test was intended to capture students' ability to respond to spoken language forms, an ability closely related to the thesis focus on reflexive error detection. If two raters can score such responses with strong agreement, then the measure can be treated as reasonably stable for the purposes of classroom-based research. Thus, the figure contributes not only to reliability checking, but also to the overall trustworthiness of the performance-based evidence reported in this chapter.

For this reason, the results presented in Figure 4.1 support the use of the retained pre-test scores in the subsequent statistical interpretation. The figure does not in itself show whether the students improved after the intervention, nor does it answer the research question about the effect of Listening Relay directly. However, it performs an essential preliminary function: it confirms that the pre-intervention speaking scores were assessed in a sufficiently consistent manner to serve as a valid starting point for later comparison. In that sense, Figure 4.1 forms a foundational part of the chapter's argument by showing that the study's baseline speaking data were dependable enough to support cautious later interpretation.

To assess whether the pre-test scores satisfied the assumption of normality, the speaking results of both the control group (CG) and the experimental group (EG) were analyzed using Normal Q-Q plots. As presented in Figure 4.1, the data points in both groups were distributed in a pattern that generally followed the diagonal reference line. No major deviations, extreme dispersion, or obvious clustering away from the line were observed. This indicates that the distributions of the pre-test scores were approximately normal. In methodological terms, this finding is important because it suggests that the baseline speaking data were sufficiently regular to support the use of the subsequent statistical procedures reported in the chapter. Thus, Figure 4.1 provides additional evidence that the pre-test results were stable and statistically suitable for later comparison between groups.

Figure 4.2. Normal Q-Q plots for speaking pre-test results

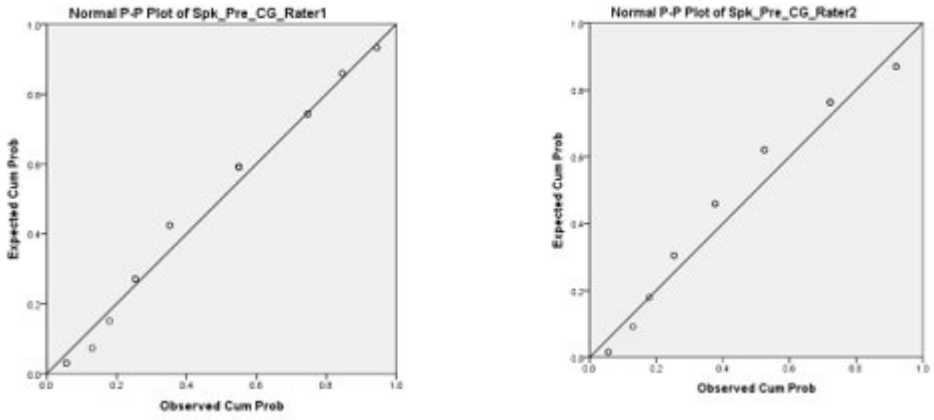


Figure 4.2 presents the Normal Q-Q plots for the pre-test score distributions. The plotted points generally follow the diagonal reference line closely enough to support the thesis claim that the pre-test data were treated as approximately normal. This visual pattern helps explain why the original analysis proceeded with parametric testing.

Figure 4.3. Results of the retained pre-test t-test output

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 0					
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
Spk_Pre_CG_Rater1	21.583	19	.000	11.45000	10.3396	12.5604
Spk_Pre_CG_Rater2	20.562	19	.000	11.25000	10.1049	12.3951

A one-sample t-test was conducted to examine whether the mean pre-test speaking scores of the control group (CG), as rated independently by the two raters, were significantly different from a test value of zero. As reported in Figure 4.3, the result for Rater 1 showed a t-value of 21.583 with 19 degrees of freedom and a p-value of .000 ($p < .001$). The mean difference was 11.45, and the 95% confidence interval ranged from 10.34 to 12.56. For Rater 2, the result was similarly strong, with a t-value of 20.562, 19 degrees of freedom, and a p-value of .000 ($p < .001$). The mean difference for this rater was 11.25, with a 95% confidence interval extending from 10.10 to 12.40. On this basis, Figure 4.3 indicates that the mean pre-test scores assigned by both raters were significantly above zero.

This finding is important mainly as a piece of baseline statistical evidence. Since the test value used in the analysis was zero, the result does not by itself demonstrate any intervention effect or any difference between groups. Rather, it shows that, before the

intervention, the control-group students already displayed a measurable level of speaking performance on the pre-test. In other words, the learners did not begin from the complete absence of skill; they entered the study with a detectable capacity to respond to the speaking task, even though that capacity was still limited and formed part of the baseline condition examined in the thesis.

The closeness of the two results reported in Figure 4.3 also deserves attention. The values for Rater 1 and Rater 2 are highly similar in terms of t-statistics, mean differences, and confidence intervals. This consistency supports the earlier inter-rater correlation evidence by showing that the two raters not only scored students in a strongly corresponding manner, but also generated very similar statistical summaries of the control group's pre-test performance. Such convergence strengthens the credibility of the pre-test evidence and reduces concern that the reported baseline scores were heavily dependent on the judgment of only one scorer.

The 95% confidence intervals shown in Figure 4.3 provide further support for this interpretation. For Rater 1, the interval from 10.34 to 12.56, and for Rater 2, the interval from 10.10 to 12.40, both remain entirely above zero. This means that the estimated mean differences were clearly positive in both cases and that the likelihood of the true mean being close to zero is not supported by the data. Accordingly, the statistical pattern presented in Figure 4.3 reinforces the conclusion that the control group had an observable and non-trivial level of pre-test speaking performance prior to any later comparison.

In the context of Chapter 4, however, this result should be interpreted with appropriate caution. The one-sample t-test shown in Figure 4.3 is useful for confirming that the control group's pre-test performance was measurable and statistically above the reference value, but it should not be overextended. It does not show progress, improvement, or superiority. Its contribution is more limited and more precise: it establishes that the pre-test scores were substantial enough to serve as a meaningful baseline for the later analysis. Thus, Figure 4.3 supports the methodological foundation of the study by confirming that the control group entered the research with a real, though still developing, level of speaking-related performance that could be examined further in relation to the study's broader focus on Listening Relay and reflexive error detection.

4.1.2. Post-test scoring evidence

Figure 4.4. Correlation of post-test scores of the control group

Correlations

		Spk_Post_CG_Rater1	Spk_Post_CG_Rater2
Spk_Post_CG_Rater1	Pearson Correlation	1	.912**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	20	20
Spk_Post_CG_Rater2	Pearson Correlation	.912**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	20	20

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As shown in Figure 4.4, the post-test scores assigned by the two raters in the control group were very strongly and positively correlated, with a Pearson correlation coefficient of r = .912, a p-value of .000, and N = 20. This result indicates a high level of inter-rater agreement in the evaluation of the control group's post-test speaking performance. Since the correlation was statistically significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), the relationship between the two sets of scores may be regarded as both strong and reliable. In practical terms, this means that the two raters assessed students' post-test responses in a highly consistent manner rather than producing substantially different judgments of the same performances.

This finding is methodologically important because the credibility of the post-test evidence depends not only on the students' responses themselves but also on the consistency with which those responses were scored. In classroom-based research involving spoken performance, scorer variation can become a serious issue if the criteria are unclear or if oral responses are difficult to interpret uniformly. However, the coefficient reported in Figure 4.4 suggests that this problem was limited in the present study. A correlation of .912 is sufficiently high to indicate that the post-test scores in the control group were not heavily shaped by scorer inconsistency. Instead, the two raters appear to have applied the scoring criteria in a closely aligned way.

The result shown in Figure 4.4 also gains additional value when read together with the inter-rater evidence reported elsewhere in the chapter. Earlier results showed strong agreement between raters in the scoring of the pre-test, and the present figure demonstrates that a similarly high level of consistency was maintained at the post-test stage in the control group. This continuity is important because it suggests that the scoring process remained

stable across the study rather than becoming less dependable over time. Such stability strengthens the internal trustworthiness of the performance data and supports the later interpretation of post-test patterns with greater confidence.

In addition, Figure 4.4 should be considered alongside Figure 4.5, which reports a similarly strong positive correlation for the experimental group post-test ($r = .867$, $p = .000$). Although the coefficient in the control group is slightly higher than that in the experimental group, both values remain clearly strong and statistically significant. This pattern suggests that post-test scoring was dependable in both groups, not only in one. Therefore, the post-test performance evidence retained in the thesis rests on a reasonably solid scoring foundation across the full sample. The slight difference between the two coefficients may simply reflect normal variation in the complexity or diversity of student responses across groups rather than any serious scoring problem.

From the perspective of Chapter 4, the main contribution of Figure 4.4 is therefore not to show improvement in itself, but to confirm the reliability of the control group's post-test measurement. The figure does not directly answer whether Listening Relay improved performance, nor does it by itself indicate the direction or size of any group difference. Its contribution is more technical but still essential: it demonstrates that the control group post-test scores were scored consistently enough to be used as credible evidence in the wider analysis. In this sense, Figure 4.4, especially when read together with Figure 4.5, strengthens the methodological basis of the chapter by showing that the retained post-test results were supported by strong inter-rater reliability and could therefore be interpreted with appropriate confidence in the later discussion of performance-related outcomes.

Figure 4.5. Correlation of post-test scores of the experimental group

Correlations

		Spk_Post_EG_Rater1	Spk_Post_EG_Rater2
Spk_Post_EG_Rater1	Pearson Correlation	1	.867**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	20	20
Spk_Post_EG_Rater2	Pearson Correlation	.867**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	20	20

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As shown in Figure 4.5, the post-test scores assigned by the two raters in the experimental group were strongly and positively correlated, with a Pearson correlation coefficient of r = .867, a p-value of .000, and N = 20. This result indicates a high level of agreement between the two raters in their evaluation of the experimental group's post-test speaking performance. Because the correlation was statistically significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), the relationship between the two sets of scores can be regarded as both strong and reliable. In practical terms, this means that the post-test performances of the experimental group were assessed in a consistent manner rather than being strongly affected by scorer variation.

This finding is important because the interpretation of the experimental group's post-test results depends in part on the stability of the scoring process. In research involving spoken performance, especially when learners are expected to listen, detect errors, and produce oral corrections, scorer consistency is essential. If two raters evaluate the same spoken responses in substantially different ways, then the credibility of the resulting performance evidence becomes weaker. However, the coefficient reported in Figure 4.5 suggests that this was not a major problem in the present study. A correlation of .867 is sufficiently high to indicate that the two raters shared a broadly similar judgment of students' post-test responses and that the retained scores can therefore be treated as dependable for later interpretation.

The result in Figure 4.5 also becomes more meaningful when it is considered together with the corresponding post-test evidence for the control group in Figure 4.4. While the correlation in the experimental group (r = .867) is slightly lower than that reported for the control group (r = .912), both coefficients remain strong and statistically significant. This pattern suggests that the scoring of post-test responses was consistently reliable across both groups, even if minor variation existed between them. Such variation is not unusual in classroom-based speaking assessment and does not undermine the overall conclusion of strong inter-rater agreement. Instead, the two figures together indicate that the study maintained a solid level of scoring consistency at the post-test stage for the full sample.

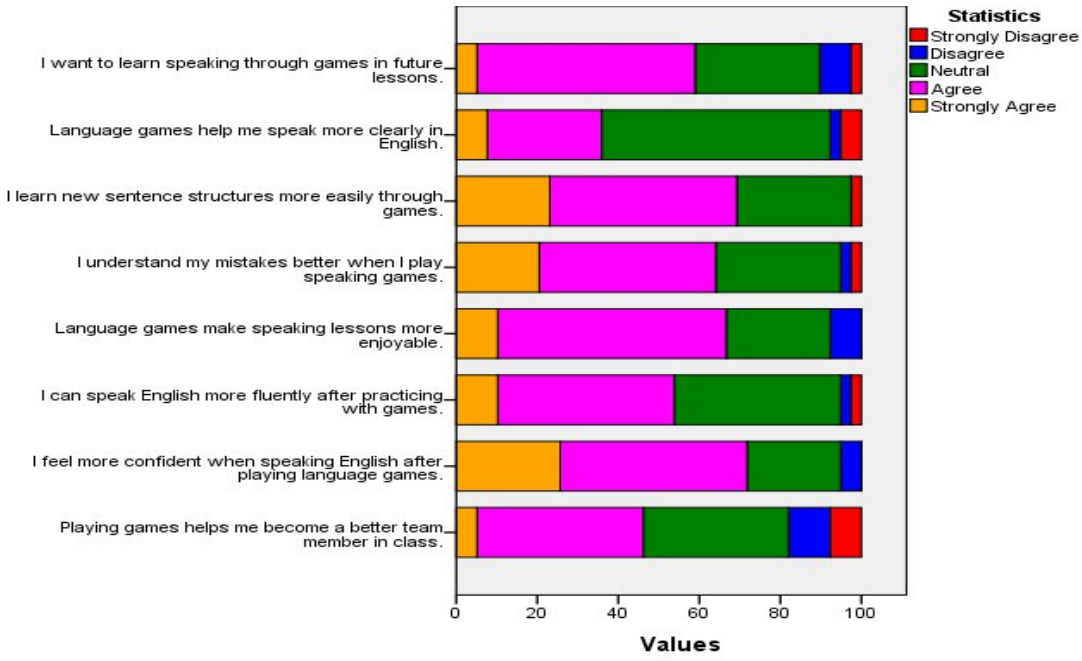
From an analytic standpoint, Figure 4.5 plays an important methodological role in Chapter 4. It does not in itself prove that the experimental group improved because of the

Listening Relay activity, nor does it directly measure the size of any treatment effect. Rather, its value lies in confirming that the post-test scores for the experimental group were assessed with sufficient consistency to support later interpretation. In this sense, the figure helps secure the trustworthiness of the performance-related evidence that underpins the discussion of reflexive error detection and spoken response in the later parts of the chapter.

Moreover, the strong inter-rater reliability shown in Figure 4.5 is particularly relevant because the experimental group was the group exposed to the Listening Relay activity. Since this group is central to the study's main research concern, it is especially important that its post-test performance was scored in a stable and credible way. The coefficient of .867 provides reassurance that the evaluation of this group did not depend excessively on the subjective tendencies of one scorer. Instead, the result indicates that the scoring reflected a shared assessment pattern between both raters. Therefore, Figure 4.5 strengthens the methodological foundation of the chapter by showing that the experimental group's post-test data were reliable enough to be used in the broader interpretation of how Listening Relay may have supported spoken performance and reflexive error detection in this classroom context.

4.2. Post-task perceptions of Listening Relay

Figure 4.6. Activity perceptions of students



The questionnaire results presented in Figure 4.6 reveal generally positive student perceptions toward the use of language games in speaking lessons, particularly in relation to enjoyment, confidence, fluency, sentence-pattern learning, and awareness of mistakes. A clear majority of respondents either agreed or strongly agreed that language games made speaking lessons more enjoyable, with 56.4% selecting “agree” and 10.3% selecting “strongly agree.” This means that more than two-thirds of the respondents viewed game-based speaking activities as positively affecting the classroom atmosphere. This is an important finding because enjoyment, especially in a primary-school context, is not merely an emotional reaction but also a pedagogical condition that can influence willingness to participate. In a classroom where some learners hesitate to speak, a more enjoyable activity format may help reduce tension and make oral participation feel less threatening.

A similarly positive trend can be seen in relation to students’ confidence in speaking. As shown in Figure 4.6, 46.2% of the students agreed and 25.6% strongly agreed that language games helped them become more confident speakers. This combined proportion is substantial and suggests that the students did not experience language games only as entertaining activities, but also as supportive contexts for oral performance. This point is especially meaningful when considered against the earlier baseline findings in Chapter 4, where many students reported fear of making mistakes, embarrassment, and reluctance to speak in class. In that sense, the positive responses in Figure 4.6 suggest that game-based speaking activities may help create a safer and more manageable environment for students who would otherwise remain hesitant.

The same pattern is also visible in students’ perceptions of fluency development. According to Figure 4.6, 43.6% of the respondents agreed and 10.3% strongly agreed that language games improved their fluency. Although the proportion here is slightly more moderate than in the items on enjoyment and confidence, it still indicates that more than half of the students associated games with smoother or easier spoken production. This is noteworthy because fluency, especially for young learners, is not simply a matter of speaking quickly. It also involves reduced hesitation, more continuous response, and greater readiness to attempt spoken language. Therefore, the results suggest that students perceived language games as helpful not only for emotional comfort but also for actual oral performance.

A further important result shown in Figure 4.6 concerns the learning of sentence structures. The figure indicates that 46.2% of the students agreed and 23.1% strongly agreed that they learned new sentence structures more easily through games. This is a particularly valuable finding because it shows that students associated language games with language learning in a concrete sense, not merely with relaxation. The item points to a perception that games can support form-focused learning within a communicative context. In other words, students did not appear to interpret games as activities detached from instructional content. Instead, they seemed to recognize that games could make it easier to remember, practise, and use sentence patterns that might otherwise feel more difficult in conventional exercises.

The result related to error awareness is even more closely connected to the main focus of the thesis. As reported, 43.6% of the students agreed and 20.5% strongly agreed that language games helped them understand their mistakes better. This is a major finding in relation to the study's concern with reflexive error detection. If students perceived that game-based activities made their mistakes more understandable, then this suggests that such activities may contribute not only to participation but also to heightened attention to spoken form. For the present thesis, this point is especially important because the central argument is not simply that Listening Relay increases motivation, but that it may help students notice and respond to spoken inaccuracies more effectively.

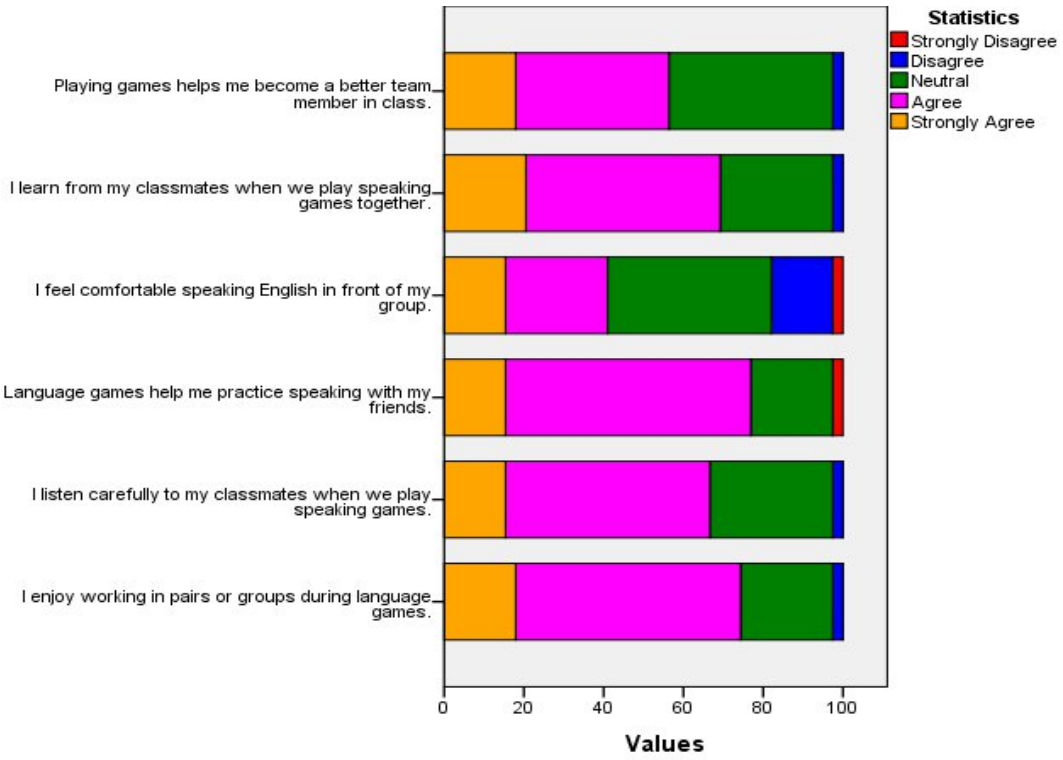
At the same time, the figure also reveals that the impact of language games was not perceived equally strongly across all dimensions. In particular, more students gave neutral responses regarding the effect of games on speaking clarity, with 56.4% selecting the neutral category. This suggests that while students clearly felt that games made lessons more enjoyable and helped with confidence, they were less certain that such activities directly improved the clarity of their spoken English. This is an important nuance, because it prevents an overgeneralized interpretation of the data. The figure does not suggest that language games were seen as universally effective in every aspect of speaking development. Rather, it indicates that their strongest perceived contributions lay in creating participation-friendly conditions and supporting confidence, while more technical aspects of oral production, such as clarity, may have required more time, more direct correction, or more focused practice.

A similar pattern of caution appears in relation to teamwork. As shown in Figure 4.6, 35.9% of the respondents selected the neutral option for the teamwork-related item, although 41.0% still selected “agree.” This distribution suggests that students’ views on the effect of games on teamwork were somewhat more mixed than their views on enjoyment or confidence. One possible interpretation is that students recognized the collaborative nature of the activities, but did not all feel equally transformed by them in terms of becoming better team members. In a primary-school classroom, this is understandable. Working with peers does not automatically lead all learners to experience teamwork in the same way. Some students may benefit more immediately from peer interaction, while others may still feel uncertain or passive within group-based tasks. Therefore, the responses on teamwork suggest that the interpersonal value of language games was present, but not uniformly experienced.

Despite these variations, the final item reported in Figure 4.6 points to a strong overall endorsement of game-based learning for future lessons. A majority of the students expressed interest in continuing to learn speaking through games, with 53.8% selecting “agree” and 5.1% selecting “strongly agree” for the statement, “I want to learn speaking through games in future lessons.” This result is significant because it shows that the positive reactions reported across the earlier items were not temporary or isolated. Rather, they were strong enough to shape students’ preferences for future instruction. In other words, students were not merely reporting that the activity had been enjoyable in the moment; they were also expressing a desire for similar methods to remain part of their speaking lessons.

Taken together, the findings presented in Figure 4.6 indicate that students generally perceived language games as pedagogically beneficial in speaking classes. Their strongest positive responses related to enjoyment, confidence, sentence-structure learning, and understanding mistakes, while more cautious or neutral responses appeared in relation to speaking clarity and teamwork.

Figure 4.7. Interpersonal Engagement in Activities



The responses presented in Figure 4.7 indicate that most students held positive attitudes toward peer collaboration during language games, particularly in relation to practice, attention, and learning from classmates. A substantial proportion of the respondents reported that language games helped them practise speaking with their friends, with 61.5% selecting “agree” and 15.4% selecting “strongly agree.” This means that more than three quarters of the students viewed the activities as useful opportunities for spoken interaction with peers. In the context of the present study, this is an important finding because it suggests that game-based speaking tasks did not isolate learners as individual performers, but instead created a collaborative environment in which speaking could be practised through shared participation.

A similarly positive trend can be seen in students’ attitudes toward working in pairs or groups. As shown in Figure 4.7, 56.4% of the students agreed and 17.9% strongly agreed that they enjoyed pair or group work during language games. This result is noteworthy because enjoyment of collaborative work is not merely a matter of classroom preference; it also has pedagogical value. When learners enjoy working with peers, they may become more willing to take part in speaking tasks, less fearful of making mistakes, and more open to

repeated oral practice. For young learners in particular, this type of social comfort can make classroom speaking more accessible and less intimidating.

The figure also shows that language games encouraged students to pay attention to one another. More than half of the respondents reported that they listened closely to their classmates during speaking games, with 51.3% selecting “agree” and 15.4% selecting “strongly agree.” This is a highly relevant result for the present thesis because the study is concerned not only with participation, but also with reflexive error detection in spoken English. Attention to classmates’ speech is an essential condition for such development. If students are listening carefully to peers during a game, they are more likely to notice pronunciation, grammar, or wording problems and to compare those forms with their own understanding. Thus, the interpersonal dimension shown in Figure 4.7 is closely connected to the thesis focus on noticing and response, not merely to general classroom sociability.

Another important result shown in Figure 4.7 is that many students felt they learned from their peers while taking part in the games. Specifically, 48.7% of the students agreed and 20.5% strongly agreed that participation in language games helped them gain knowledge from classmates. This finding suggests that peer interaction during the activity was not superficial. Students did not simply work next to one another; many of them perceived classmates as a genuine source of support, example, and learning. In the context of Listening Relay, this is particularly meaningful because the activity requires students to listen, respond, and often observe how others handle similar spoken forms. As a result, peer collaboration may have functioned as a practical mechanism through which students became more aware of correct and incorrect language use. The responses were somewhat more mixed when students were asked about their comfort with speaking in front of others. As indicated in Figure 4.7, 41.0% of the respondents selected the neutral option, while only 25.6% selected “agree” and 15.4% selected “strongly agree.” This distribution suggests that although the students generally appreciated collaborative speaking games, not all of them felt fully comfortable performing orally in front of classmates. This is an important nuance in the data. It indicates that positive attitudes toward peer collaboration do not automatically remove all speaking anxiety. Some students may still have felt shy, cautious, or afraid of making

mistakes even within a game-based environment. Therefore, the figure points to a partial but not complete reduction of affective barriers.

A comparable pattern appears in the item concerning whether language games helped students become better team members. In this case, 38.5% of the respondents selected "agree," 17.9% selected "strongly agree," and 41.0% remained neutral. These responses suggest that students did perceive some interpersonal benefit in terms of teamwork, but the effect was not as strongly or as universally felt as the benefits related to practising with friends, enjoying group work, or learning from peers. One possible explanation is that teamwork, as a broader social skill, may take longer to develop and may not be immediately recognized by all learners after a limited classroom intervention. In other words, students may readily notice that a game helps them speak with friends, but be less certain whether it has changed them more deeply as cooperative group members.

Overall, the findings in Figure 4.7 show that students' perceptions of peer collaboration during language games were largely positive, especially in relation to practising speaking with classmates, enjoying collaborative work, paying attention to peers, and learning from others during the activity. At the same time, the more neutral responses concerning comfort in speaking before others and development as team members suggest that the interpersonal value of the games was meaningful but not uniform across all dimensions. This balanced pattern is important for the interpretation of Chapter 4. It indicates that Listening Relay and similar language games were successful in creating a more interactive and supportive speaking environment, yet some aspects of oral confidence and teamwork remained developmental rather than fully resolved. In relation to the broader argument of the thesis, Figure 4.7 makes a valuable contribution because it shows that the effectiveness of Listening Relay cannot be understood only in terms of enjoyment or motivation. The figure demonstrates that the activity also created conditions for peer-supported attention, collaborative practice, and shared learning, all of which are relevant to the development of reflexive error detection in spoken English. When students listen closely to classmates, learn from peers, and participate in structured speaking exchanges, they are placed in a more favourable position to notice errors, compare language forms, and respond more actively during classroom interaction.

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4.3. Baseline classroom situation from the pre-task questionnaire

Figure 4.8. Perceived Necessity of English in School

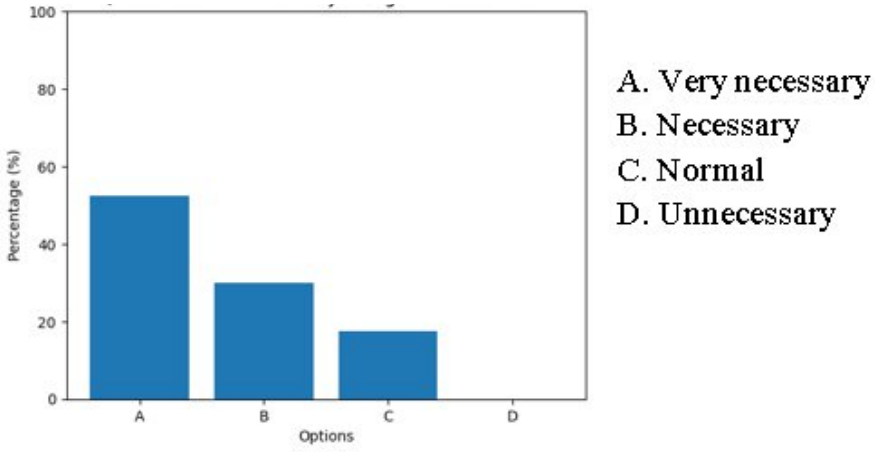


Figure 4.8 indicates generally positive attitudes toward English as a school subject. More than half of the students considered English very necessary, and another substantial proportion regarded it as necessary, while no respondents viewed English as unnecessary. This distribution suggests that the learners, at a general attitudinal level, already recognized the importance of English in their school experience. In other words, English was not perceived as a marginal or unimportant subject by the participants. Rather, the figure shows that students entered the study with a broadly favourable orientation toward the subject itself. This result is important because it helps define the real nature of the classroom issue investigated in the thesis. As shown in Figure 4.8, the main problem was not that students rejected English or failed to see its value. On the contrary, the data suggest that English already held a meaningful place in their perception of school learning. The pedagogical challenge therefore lay elsewhere. More specifically, it lay in the fact that positive attitudes toward English did not automatically lead to confident and active participation in spoken classroom tasks. This distinction is central to the study because it prevents the classroom problem from being misinterpreted as a simple matter of low subject interest. The significance of Figure 4.8 becomes even clearer when it is read together with the other baseline findings reported in Chapter 4. Although students generally regarded English as necessary, other figures show that many were still hesitant to speak, that listening was

perceived as difficult, and that fear of mistakes affected willingness to participate. Therefore, the figure contributes to a more precise diagnosis of the classroom situation. It suggests that the learners' difficulty was not rooted in a negative view of English itself, but in the conditions under which English, especially spoken English, had to be used. This is an important analytical point because it means that an effective intervention did not need to persuade students that English mattered; instead, it needed to help them participate more actively and confidently in the English classroom they already valued. From a pedagogical perspective, this finding also supports the rationale for introducing a structured activity such as Listening Relay. Since the students already acknowledged the importance of English, the purpose of the intervention was not to create basic subject recognition from nothing. Rather, it was to bridge the gap between general appreciation of English and practical ability to engage with it in real-time classroom interaction. Figure 4.8 therefore plays a foundational role in the chapter: it establishes that the study began in a context of positive subject valuation, which makes the later focus on participation, confidence, attention, and reflexive error detection more meaningful and better grounded.

Figure 4.9. Level of Interest in Learning English

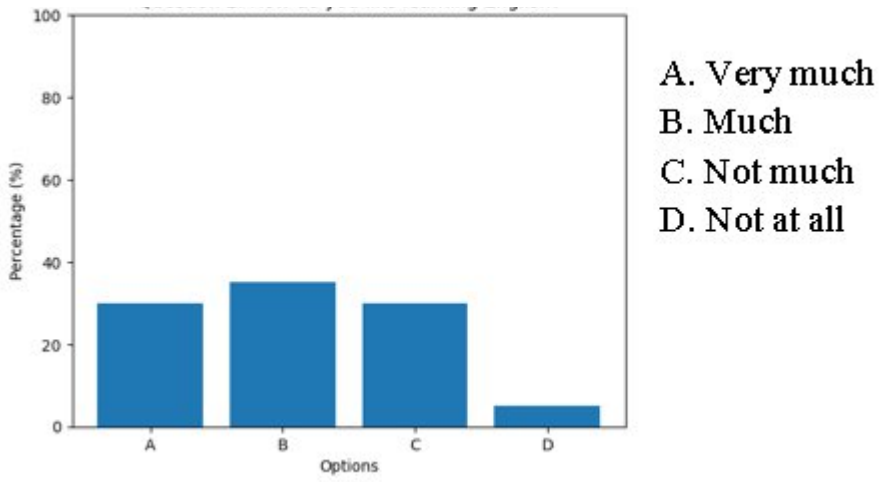


Figure 4.9 shows that students' interest in learning English was also generally favourable, although the level of enthusiasm was not equally strong across the whole class. A clear majority of the learners reported that they liked learning English either very much or much, while a smaller proportion indicated that they liked it only a little or did not show the same degree of enthusiasm. This distribution suggests that the students' overall

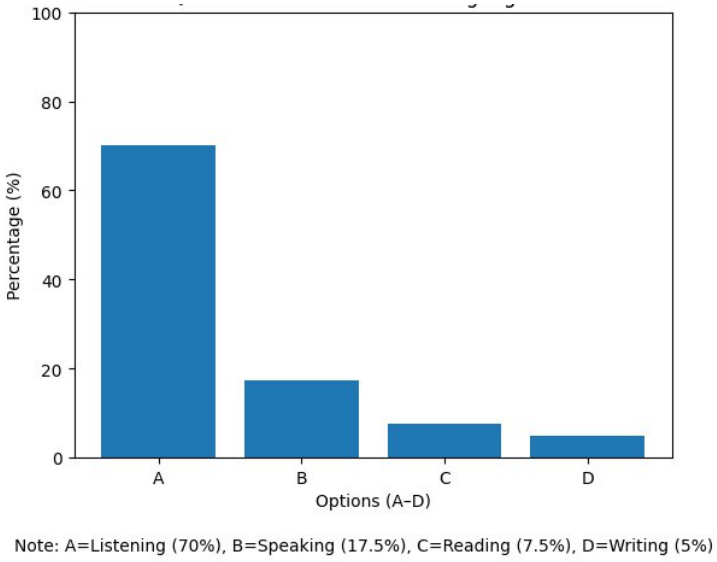
orientation toward English learning was positive, even if that positivity varied in intensity from one learner to another. In other words, the figure indicates that English was not widely experienced as an unwanted subject, but rather as one that many students already approached with at least some interest.

This finding is important because it adds another layer to the baseline classroom profile established earlier in the chapter. While Figure 4.8 showed that students generally regarded English as necessary, Figure 4.9 goes further by showing that many of them were not only aware of its necessity but also genuinely interested in learning it. This distinction matters because recognition of importance and personal interest are not always the same. A student may accept that English is useful or required without actually enjoying the process of learning it. However, Figure 4.9 suggests that for many learners in this study, English was both valued and, to a meaningful extent, liked. This strengthens the interpretation that the classroom difficulties examined in the thesis did not arise from broad negative attitudes toward the subject. The figure also shows that this positive interest was not uniform. The presence of a smaller group with only limited enthusiasm suggests that the classroom contained differing motivational levels. This is pedagogically significant because variation in interest can influence participation, persistence, and willingness to engage in challenging tasks. In a primary-school setting, even when most students like a subject, those who are less enthusiastic may still withdraw more quickly when tasks become demanding, especially in speaking activities that involve immediacy, self-exposure, and the possibility of making mistakes. Therefore, Figure 4.9 helps explain why a generally positive classroom attitude toward English could still coexist with uneven oral participation later in the findings.

When read together, Figures 4.8 and 4.9 provide a more complete picture of the learners' baseline disposition toward English. They suggest that the class was not fundamentally resistant to English learning, either at the level of necessity or at the level of interest. Most students saw English as important, and many also liked learning it. This is a valuable finding because it shifts the focus of the study away from simplistic explanations based on dislike of the subject. Instead, it directs attention toward more specific barriers affecting spoken classroom behaviour, such as listening difficulty, fear of mistakes, lack of confidence, and hesitation in front of others. In this way, Figure 4.9 helps narrow the problem

more precisely: the issue was not whether students were willing to learn English in general, but whether they could participate actively and confidently when English had to be used in spoken interaction. From the perspective of the thesis rationale, this figure also supports the introduction of Listening Relay as a targeted classroom intervention. Since the learners were already generally positive about English, the role of the activity was not to create interest in the subject from nothing. Rather, it was to make classroom speaking more manageable, more engaging, and more supportive for learners whose general interest had not yet translated into steady oral participation. Figure 4.9 therefore contributes to the argument that the intervention was designed to address a gap between favourable attitudes toward English learning and the practical realities of classroom speaking.

Figure 4.10. Perceived Difficulty Among the Four Language Skills



Note: A=Listening (70%), B=Speaking (17.5%), C=Reading (7.5%), D=Writing (5%)

As shown in Figure 4.10, listening was selected far more often than the other three skills as the most difficult aspect of English learning. This result is highly significant for the present study because it identifies a core obstacle in the learners' language experience before the intervention. Unlike reading or writing, listening requires students to process spoken input immediately, often without the opportunity to pause, review, or rely on visual support. In a primary-school context, this real-time processing demand can make listening especially challenging, particularly when learners are still developing their vocabulary base, their familiarity with pronunciation patterns, and their ability to connect spoken forms with meaning quickly enough for classroom response. The importance of Figure 4.10 becomes

even clearer when it is related to the central focus of the thesis. The study investigates the role of Listening Relay in developing reflexive error detection in spoken English, and such a task depends first on accurate listening. Before students can identify whether a spoken phrase is correct or incorrect, they must first hear it clearly, process it in real time, and compare it with the language knowledge they already possess. If learners struggle at this first stage, then their ability to notice and correct spoken errors is also likely to remain weak. In this sense, the difficulty shown in Figure 4.10 is not a peripheral background finding; it is directly tied to the very skill chain that the intervention is intended to support. This finding also helps explain why some students may know a form in theory but still fail to respond effectively during spoken classroom tasks. A learner may understand a grammar point when it is written on the board or explained by the teacher, yet still be unable to detect the same problem when it appears in fast spoken input. The challenge, therefore, is not only knowledge of English forms, but also the speed and accuracy with which those forms can be processed during listening. Figure 4.10 is important because it reveals that this initial stage of processing was already difficult for many students. Consequently, hesitation in spoken response and weakness in error detection become more understandable when viewed against this listening difficulty. From a pedagogical perspective, the result in Figure 4.10 strongly supports the rationale for using a structured activity such as Listening Relay. If listening is the most difficult skill for the learners, then an intervention that trains students to listen attentively, focus on spoken details, and respond immediately becomes highly relevant. Listening Relay does not treat listening as a passive skill. Instead, it turns listening into an active and task-bound process in which learners must pay attention because a response is required. This is an important point, because the activity does not merely provide more listening exposure; it links listening directly to noticing and oral correction, which is precisely the developmental path addressed in the thesis. In addition, Figure 4.10 contributes to the overall interpretation of the baseline classroom situation in Chapter 4. Earlier figures show that students valued English and considered speaking important, but this figure adds an important explanatory layer by showing that one of the main foundations of spoken performance, namely listening, was already perceived as the most difficult skill. This means that oral participation problems cannot be understood only in affective terms such as shyness

or fear of mistakes, although those factors are also relevant. They must also be understood in terms of skill difficulty. Students may hesitate to speak not only because they are anxious, but also because they are uncertain whether they have fully understood the spoken input to which they are expected to respond.

Figure 4.11. Perceived Importance of Speaking Skills

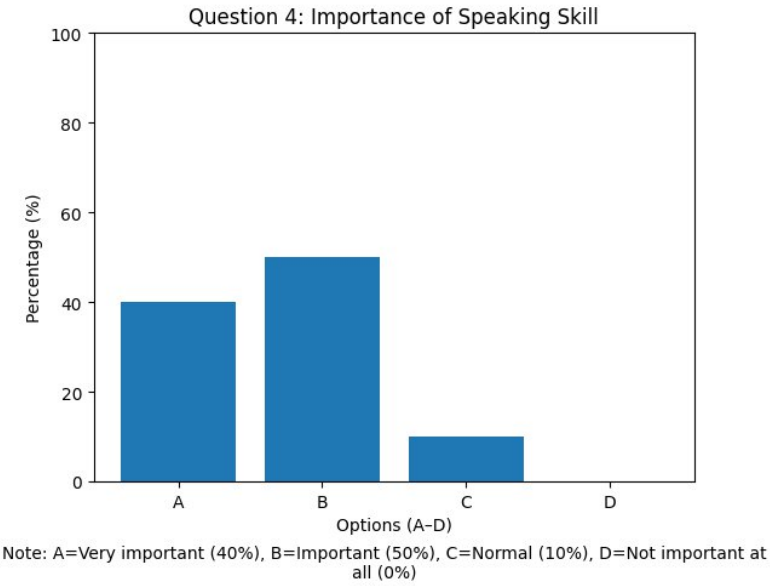
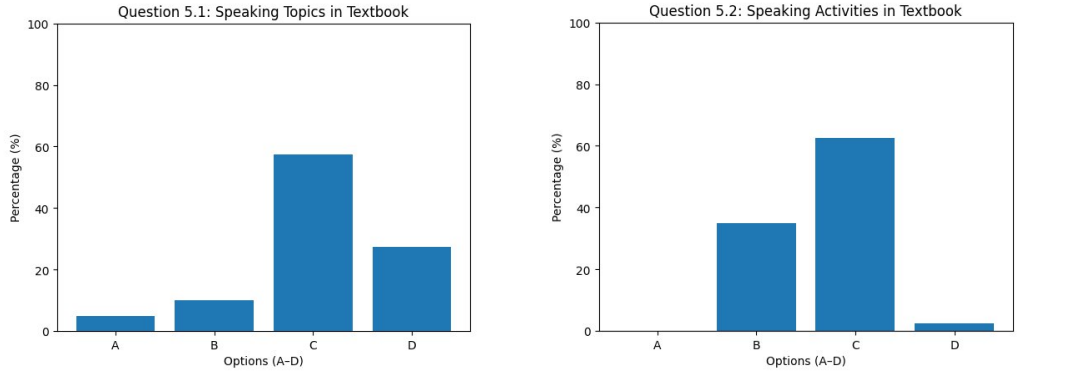


Figure 4.11 shows that speaking was widely regarded as an important aspect of English learning. A clear majority of the respondents rated speaking as either important or very important, while only a small proportion described it as merely normal, and none appeared to treat it as unimportant. This distribution suggests that the learners were fully aware of the value of speaking in their English study. In other words, speaking already occupied a central place in their understanding of what it means to learn English effectively. The figure therefore indicates that oral ability was not a marginal concern for the students, but something they recognized as significant within the school context. This finding is highly important because it clarifies that the classroom problem investigated in the thesis did not stem from students' indifference to speaking. On the contrary, Figure 4.11 shows that learners already saw speaking as a key skill. This matters analytically because it prevents the study from being reduced to a simple issue of low motivation or lack of awareness. If students had regarded speaking as unimportant, then reluctance to participate might have been explained largely in attitudinal terms. However, the figure suggests the opposite:

students valued speaking, yet later findings show that many still hesitated to participate in speaking classes. Therefore, the pedagogical challenge was not to convince students that speaking mattered, but to help them engage in speaking more actively and confidently under classroom conditions. The significance of Figure 4.11 becomes even stronger when it is read together with Figure 4.10. As shown earlier, listening was selected far more often than the other language skills as the most difficult area of English learning. When these two figures are considered together, they reveal a key tension in the classroom context: students valued spoken English, but the listening-and-response demands underlying oral performance remained difficult for them. This tension is central to the logic of the study. Speaking does not occur in isolation; in classroom interaction, it often depends on understanding spoken prompts, noticing oral forms, and responding to what has just been heard. If listening is already difficult, then speaking may be valued in theory while still remaining hard to perform in practice. This tension helps explain why oral participation later appeared uneven despite generally positive attitudes toward English and toward speaking in particular. A learner may know that speaking is important and may even want to speak well, yet still withdraw from spoken tasks because the underlying processes feel too demanding. In the present study, that difficulty is especially relevant because the thesis focuses on reflexive error detection in spoken English. To notice and correct a spoken error, learners must first process what they hear, then identify the inaccuracy, and finally produce an oral response. Thus, the difficulty of listening shown in Figure 4.10, together with the high value placed on speaking in Figure 4.11, helps explain why the gap between recognition and performance was such an important classroom problem.

Figure 4.12. Students' Perceptions of Speaking Topics and Activities in the Textbook

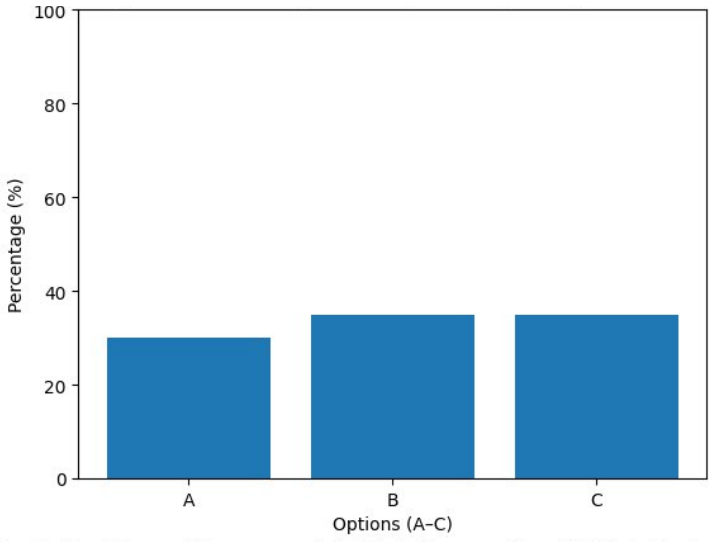


Note: A=Very interesting (5%), B=Interesting (10%), C=Normal (57.5%), D=Boring (27.5%) Note: A=Very interesting (0%), B=Interesting (35%), C=Normal (62.5%), D=Boring (2.5%)

Figure 4.12 presents students' views of the speaking topics and speaking activities in the textbook, and the overall pattern suggests a moderate rather than strongly enthusiastic response. The dominant perception was that these materials were normal, not especially engaging or highly stimulating. In addition, a notable minority of students viewed the speaking topics as boring, while only a smaller proportion described them as interesting or very interesting. This distribution indicates that the textbook materials were generally acceptable to the learners, but they did not appear to generate strong motivational energy in the classroom. In other words, the materials were not rejected outright, yet they also did not seem sufficient by themselves to create a highly active speaking environment. This finding is important because it helps refine the description of the classroom context established through the earlier baseline results. Previous figures showed that students valued English and regarded speaking as important, but also that oral participation remained uneven and that listening was widely perceived as difficult. Figure 4.12 adds another relevant piece to that picture by suggesting that the instructional materials themselves may not have provided enough stimulation to overcome student hesitation. If speaking topics and activities are perceived mainly as ordinary, then students may complete them at a basic level without becoming especially eager to participate. The presence of a group who found the topics boring further suggests that for some learners, the textbook-based speaking tasks may not have been sufficiently attractive to sustain attention or reduce reluctance. The figure should be interpreted carefully. The results do not suggest that the textbook was fundamentally inappropriate or unusable. Since the dominant response was normal, the materials can be understood as serviceable within the classroom, but limited in their motivational impact. This distinction is important. A textbook can provide suitable content and still fail to generate the level of engagement needed for young learners to participate actively in oral work. In the present study, this appears to be the more accurate interpretation. The issue was not that the textbook materials were wholly ineffective, but that they were not especially powerful in encouraging spoken interaction among learners who were already affected by fear of mistakes, uneven confidence, and listening difficulty. pedagogically, Figure 4.12 therefore helps explain why an alternative interactive technique such as Listening Relay was relevant. If the textbook speaking materials were perceived as generally acceptable but not strongly

motivating, then the classroom needed a technique that could work within the same instructional context while making participation more dynamic and more manageable. Listening Relay appears pedagogically suitable in this regard because it does not necessarily replace the textbook content; rather, it changes the way learners engage with language in class. By adding movement, immediacy, peer interaction, and a clear response demand, the activity can transform relatively ordinary material into a more active speaking-and-listening task. This result also contributes to the overall argument of Chapter 4 by showing that the learners' hesitation cannot be attributed to one single cause alone. The earlier figures suggest that oral participation was shaped by multiple factors: students valued English, yet listening was difficult; speaking was important, yet confidence remained uneven; and now Figure 4.12 shows that the speaking materials were not especially engaging. Together, these findings create a more complete account of the classroom reality. Students were not resistant to English, but the combination of difficulty, affective barriers, and only moderately stimulating materials made active speaking participation harder to achieve. In this broader context, the introduction of Listening Relay becomes more understandable as a response to an actual classroom need rather than as an arbitrary methodological choice.

Figure 4.13. Willingness to Participate in Speaking Classes



Note: A=Yes, I like speaking very much (30%), B=Yes, sometimes (35%), C=No, I am never willing to speak (35%)

Figure 4.13 shows that willingness to speak in class was mixed. Only part of the class reported strong willingness, while many students were only sometimes willing to speak and another substantial group reported that they were never willing to speak in speaking classes.

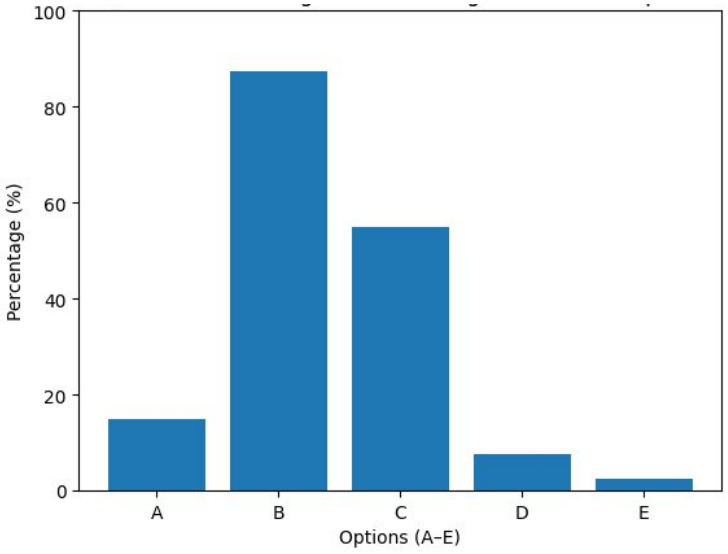
As shown in Figure 4.13, hesitation in oral participation was therefore a real baseline condition rather than a minor issue.

Question 7 was designed as an open-ended item to clarify why some students were unwilling to participate in speaking activities. The comments consistently point to fear of mistakes, embarrassment, limited vocabulary, difficulty generating ideas, and anxiety when speaking in front of others. These qualitative responses help explain the reluctance already visible in Figure 4.13.

Several comments further show that some students often knew what they wanted to say but could not produce it quickly in English. This detail is especially important because the study concerns reflexive error detection and immediate response. The classroom difficulty was therefore not only lack of linguistic knowledge in the abstract, but also limited speed of access and willingness to speak under pressure.

The comments also show that peer comparison affected participation. Some students worried that classmates might laugh at them or judge their English. These observations deepen the interpretation of Figure 4.13 and help explain why a structured, game-based format with team support could be more effective than a more exposed whole-class speaking format.

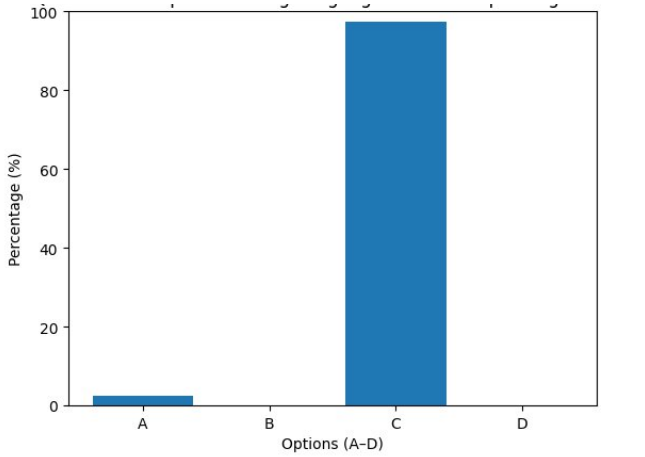
Figure 4.14. Preferred Techniques for Encouraging Participation in Speaking Activities



Note: A=Use visual aids (15%), B=Use language games (87.5%), C=Use songs (55%), D=Use group/pair work (7.5%), E=Others (2.5%)

Figure 4.14 shows that an overwhelming majority of students wanted teachers to use language games to encourage participation in speaking activities. As shown in Figure 4.14, language games were by far the most preferred encouragement strategy, well above songs, visual aids, or other options. This figure therefore provides direct baseline support for the later decision to use Listening Relay as the intervention activity.

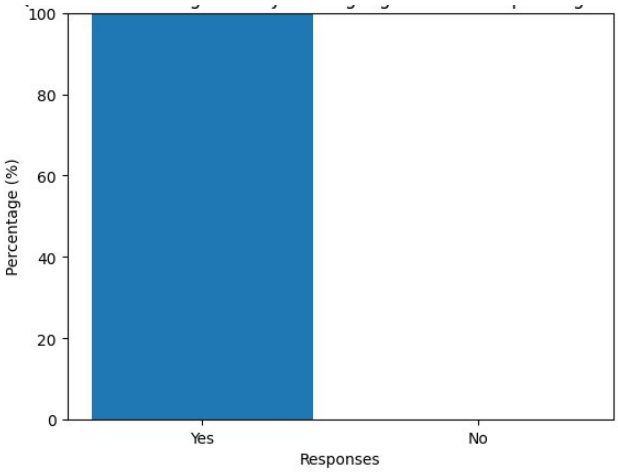
Figure 4.15. Students' Views of the Function of Language Games



Note: A=For relaxing only (2.5%), B=For teaching only (0%), C=For both relaxing and teaching (97.5%), D=Time covering (0%)

Figure 4.15 reinforces this interpretation. Nearly all students believed that language games served both relaxing and teaching purposes, while almost none reduced games to relaxation only. Figure 4.15 therefore suggests that students already understood game-based activity as a legitimate learning technique rather than as time-filling entertainment.

Figure 4.16. Willingness to Participate When Language Games Are Used



Note: Yes (100%), No (0%)

Figure 4.16 reveals unanimous willingness to participate when language games were used in speaking lessons. When Figure 4.16 is compared with Figure 4.13, the contrast is especially revealing: reluctance to speak in general speaking lessons was substantial, yet willingness became complete when the activity format changed to a game-based one. This result strongly supports the rationale for using Listening Relay.

Taken together, Figures 4.8 to 4.16 show that the students' difficulty lay less in rejecting English or speaking as such than in the conditions under which speaking was required. They valued English, recognized the importance of speaking, and wanted more engaging techniques, while Figures 4.13 to 4.16 show that game-based instruction was seen as one possible bridge between importance and participation.

The next two questions of the questionnaire (Q11 and Q12) were designed to identify the methods and techniques the teacher was applying to teach speaking skills. Table 4.1 is retained in its original format because it provides useful contextual evidence about teacher talking time and correction practices.

Table 4.1. Current methods and techniques applied to teach speaking skills

Options **Questions**		**A (%)**	**B (%)**	**C (%)**	**D (%)**
Question 11	What do you think about your teacher's talking time? A. Too much B. A little much C. All right D. Too little	5	25	57.5	12.5
Question 12	When you make mistakes in speaking, your teacher: A.Is angry and interrupts to correct B. Is not angry but interrupts to correct C. Waits until you have presented, then points out your mistakes and corrects.	2.5	10	15	72.5

	D. Wait until you have finished your presentation, points out the mistakes, and encourage you to correct them.				

As shown in Table 4.1, the largest group of students selected the response indicating that the teacher's talking time was all right (57.5%). Because the total sample was 40, the interpretation is stated here in percentage terms rather than by repeating an impossible count. A smaller group felt that the teacher talked a little too much, while only small percentages selected the extreme options. Table 4.1 therefore suggests that teacher talk was not the main barrier identified by the class.

The second item in Table 4.1 is more directly relevant to the present study. Most students reported that when they made mistakes in speaking, the teacher usually waited until they had finished and then pointed out the mistakes while encouraging them to correct themselves. Table 4.1 therefore indicates a delayed and supportive correction style rather than frequent angry interruption.

Questions 13 and 14 explored how students viewed the teacher's existing efforts to encourage speaking and how they understood the role of pair work and group work in speaking lessons. As a result, Table 4.2 provides important baseline evidence for interpreting the later results on Listening Relay. Rather than focusing on the intervention itself, this table helps clarify what kinds of encouragement students were already experiencing before the activity was examined more directly. In this sense, the table is useful because it shows both the strengths and the limitations of the classroom context in which the study was conducted.

Table 4.2. Current implementations to encourage students to speak English

Options Questions		A (%)	B (%)	C (%)	D (%)
Question 13	What does your teacher usually do to encourage you to practice speaking? A. Use communicative games B. Creates topics interesting and appropriate to your level.	25	50	10	15

	C. Supports some suggested questions D. Uses group work.				
Question 14	What do you think group work and pair work help you? A. Enable you to speak more. B. Give you opportunities to express your own ideas. C. Make you speak English more naturally and creatively. D. Give you opportunities to chat with your classmates in Vietnamese.	12.5	7.5	25	55

As shown in Table 4.2, for Question 13, the most frequently selected response was option B, with 50% of the students, equivalent to 20 out of 40 learners, indicating that their teacher usually encouraged speaking by creating topics that were interesting and appropriate to their level. This was the dominant response. The second most common answer was option A, selected by 25% of the students, or 10 learners, who reported that the teacher used communicative games to encourage speaking practice. By contrast, only 15% (6 students) chose option D, indicating the use of group work, and just 10% (4 students) selected option C, which referred to the teacher's use of suggested questions. The distribution shown in Table 4.2 therefore suggests that, before the Listening Relay intervention, students perceived encouragement to speak as coming mainly from the teacher's choice of accessible and interesting topics, while game-based techniques also occupied a meaningful, though secondary, place in the classroom.

This pattern is significant because it shows that the classroom was not entirely lacking in supportive speaking strategies. The fact that half of the learners emphasized topic appropriateness suggests that students were sensitive to whether speaking tasks matched their proficiency level and interests. In practical terms, this means that students were more likely to respond when they felt that the topic was understandable, familiar, and not beyond their linguistic reach. For primary-school learners in particular, this finding is pedagogically

important. It indicates that task accessibility was already a major condition for oral participation. Thus, the baseline issue was not merely whether students were encouraged to speak, but whether the form of encouragement successfully lowered the difficulty of speaking enough for them to take part more confidently.

At the same time, the 25% selecting communicative games in Question 13 also deserves careful attention. Although this proportion was smaller than the percentage for interesting and level-appropriate topics, it still represents a substantial group of learners. This suggests that game-based encouragement was already recognized as part of the teacher's repertoire and was already meaningful to the students even before the specific use of Listening Relay was examined. In other words, the later positive responses to Listening Relay did not emerge in a pedagogical vacuum. They developed in a classroom where some students were already familiar with communicative games as a way of making speaking more approachable. This strengthens the interpretation of the intervention because it suggests that Listening Relay was not an alien technique imposed on the class, but rather a more focused and purposeful development of a type of activity that students already valued to some extent.

The lower percentages for suggested questions and group work in Question 13 are also revealing. Since only 10% of the students selected teacher support through suggested questions, and 15% selected group work, these strategies appear to have been less visible or less memorable to learners as primary means of encouragement. This does not necessarily mean that they were absent, but it does suggest that they were not the strategies students most strongly associated with being motivated to speak. This point is relevant because it implies that not all common classroom techniques were equally effective in students' eyes. Some forms of support may have been experienced as more direct and helpful, whereas others may have seemed more routine or less engaging. Therefore, Table 4.2 helps establish that students' participation was shaped not simply by the presence of classroom activities, but by the particular qualities of those activities.

The second part of Table 4.2, namely Question 14, adds an even more nuanced perspective by showing how students understood the function of pair work and group work. Here, the most frequently selected response was option D, chosen by 55% of the students,

equivalent to 22 out of 40 learners, who believed that pair work and group work mainly gave them opportunities to chat with classmates in Vietnamese. This was by far the most dominant response in the item. In contrast, 25% (10 students) selected option C, indicating that these forms of work helped them speak English more naturally and creatively. Only 12.5% (5 students) chose option A, suggesting that pair work and group work enabled them to speak more, while a very small proportion, 7.5% (3 students), selected option B, which referred to opportunities to express their own ideas.

The distribution in Question 14 is highly important for understanding the classroom context of the study. On the one hand, pair work and group work are often assumed to promote communication and increase learner participation. On the other hand, Table 4.2 shows that, from the learners' perspective, these forms of classroom organization were more often associated with off-target interaction than with productive English speaking. Since more than half of the respondents selected the option referring to chatting in Vietnamese, the table suggests that collaborative arrangements alone were not sufficient to guarantee meaningful target-language use. This finding is particularly valuable because it prevents an overly idealized interpretation of group-based speaking activities. It indicates that when peer interaction is loosely structured, students may revert to their first language rather than sustain English communication, especially in a primary-school context where confidence and linguistic resources remain limited.

However, the table should not be read as a rejection of pair work and group work altogether. The fact that 25% of the students still selected option C suggests that a meaningful minority did see collaborative work as a way to speak English more naturally and creatively. Likewise, the students selecting options A and B indicate that for some learners, peer-based activities did create space for additional oral production and self-expression. These responses show that the potential value of pair work and group work was not absent; rather, it was unevenly realized. The problem, therefore, was not collaboration itself, but the extent to which collaborative tasks were structured clearly enough to maintain English use and a communicative objective. This distinction is important because it directly supports the rationale for using Listening Relay. Unlike more open-ended pair or group activities,

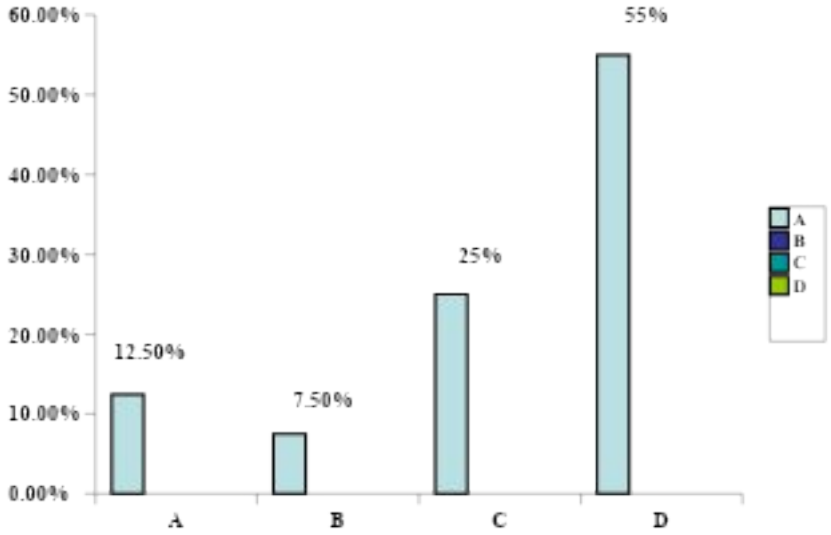
Listening Relay organizes interaction around a tightly defined listening-and-response sequence, which reduces the likelihood that peer work will drift into unrelated conversation.

Taken together, Questions 13 and 14 in Table 4.2 provide a strong baseline contribution to the chapter. Question 13 shows that students already valued encouragement through interesting, level-appropriate topics and also recognized communicative games as useful. Question 14, however, demonstrates that collaborative formats such as pair work and group work were not automatically perceived as productive for English speaking. This combination of findings is revealing. It suggests that students needed not only motivation, but also structured forms of interaction that could direct their attention and language use more effectively. In this respect, the table helps explain why a more controlled activity such as Listening Relay was pedagogically relevant in this study. It offered a way to retain the motivational and social advantages of interactive classroom work while reducing the tendency for peer interaction to become linguistically unproductive.

Analytically, Table 4.2 also supports the broader argument developed across Chapter 4. Earlier results show that students valued speaking, yet many remained hesitant to participate. The present table extends that picture by showing that existing encouragement strategies were only partly effective and that learners' experience of collaborative work was mixed. Therefore, the table does not simply describe classroom practice; it identifies a specific pedagogical gap. Students responded positively to encouragement when it was interesting, appropriate, and game-like, but peer interaction without sufficient structure could still fail to promote English speaking. For that reason, Table 4.2 contributes directly to the logic of the study by showing that the issue was not whether students should interact, but how classroom interaction should be designed so that it genuinely supports speaking participation and prepares the ground for more focused activities such as Listening Relay.

The final item (15) in shows a more complex picture. A sizeable proportion of students believed that pair work and group work mainly gave them opportunities to chat in Vietnamese, while smaller groups recognized the more constructive purposes of speaking more, expressing ideas, and speaking more naturally and creatively. Figure 4.17 therefore shows that peer interaction in itself was not automatically productive and needed clear task structure if it was to support English use.

Figure 4.17. Learners' views of group work and pair work



As shown in Figure 4.17, students' views of group work and pair work reveal a rather complex pattern rather than a uniformly positive one. The largest proportion of respondents, 55% (22 out of 40 students), selected option D, indicating that they believed group work and pair work mainly gave them opportunities to chat with classmates in Vietnamese. This was by far the dominant response. In contrast, only 25% (10 students) chose option C, suggesting that these activities helped them speak English more naturally and creatively. Even smaller proportions selected option A (12.50%, or 5 students), which referred to enabling them to speak more, and option B (7.50%, or 3 students), which referred to giving them opportunities to express their own ideas. The overall distribution shown in Figure 4.17 therefore suggests that, at the baseline stage, many students did not yet perceive pair work and group work primarily as productive opportunities for English communication. Instead, they appeared to associate such formats more strongly with informal peer talk than with structured oral language practice.

This finding is important because it adds nuance to the broader classroom picture presented in Chapter 4. On the one hand, students had already shown a desire for more engaging and less intimidating speaking activities. On the other hand, Figure 4.17 indicates that not every interactive classroom format was automatically viewed as pedagogically useful. In other words, interaction alone did not guarantee meaningful language use. The fact that more than half of the learners associated pair work and group work with chatting in

Vietnamese may reflect several underlying classroom realities: limited task structure, uneven learner confidence, weak monitoring of target-language use, or a tendency for students to retreat into their shared first language when they are uncertain how to sustain English interaction. This result therefore helps explain why simple reliance on pair work or group work, without a tightly designed communicative objective, might not be sufficient to improve oral participation or strengthen attention to spoken form.

At the same time, the figure should not be interpreted as evidence that collaborative formats were inherently ineffective. Although the percentages for options A, B, and C were lower, they still show that a meaningful minority of students recognized constructive benefits in peer-based work. In particular, the 25% who selected option C suggest that some learners were already able to see the potential of collaborative speaking tasks for more natural and creative use of English. Similarly, the students choosing option A and option B indicate that pair and group work could, for at least some members of the class, create space for increased oral production and personal expression. These responses matter because they show that the problem was not collaboration itself, but rather the form that collaboration took in practice. Thus, the figure points not to the rejection of peer interaction, but to the need for a more purposeful and better-controlled interactional design.

In relation to the present study, Figure 4.17 makes a valuable contribution because it helps justify why a structured activity such as Listening Relay was pedagogically necessary. If unstructured or loosely monitored pair/group work was often perceived as drifting into Vietnamese conversation, then an activity was needed that could preserve the advantages of peer interaction while directing attention firmly toward English listening, immediate response, and error-focused participation. Listening Relay appears relevant in this respect because it does not leave peer work open-ended. Instead, it organizes collaboration around a specific task demand: learners must listen, process, notice, and respond within a clearly defined sequence. For that reason, the evidence in Figure 4.17 does more than describe student opinion; it identifies a genuine classroom condition that the intervention needed to address. It shows that the issue was not whether students should work with peers, but how peer interaction should be structured so that it supports English use rather than displacing it.

Analytically, this figure also strengthens the internal logic of Chapter 4. Earlier results showed that students valued speaking and wanted more motivating activities, yet many still hesitated to participate. Figure 4.17 adds another layer to that picture by showing that students' understanding of collaborative work was itself limited and partly unproductive. This means that the classroom challenge involved not only individual reluctance, but also the management of interactional formats. Consequently, the figure supports a more careful interpretation of the study's later findings: when Listening Relay was viewed positively in post-task responses, this positive reaction becomes more meaningful because it emerged against a baseline in which peer work had not been universally associated with productive English speaking. In this sense, Figure 4.17 helps demonstrate that the contribution of Listening Relay may lie partly in transforming peer interaction from a potentially off-task space into a more focused environment for attentive listening and spoken response.

4.4. Positive factors and challenges of Listening Relay

4.4.1. Findings from the questionnaires and related evidence

The combined results from Figures 4.6 and 4.7, Figures 4.8 to 4.17, and Tables 4.1 and 4.2 indicate that Listening Relay was pedagogically useful in this context, but that its usefulness depended on identifiable classroom conditions. The most important positive factors were increased willingness to participate, more enjoyable lesson experience, stronger peer attention, perceived support for confidence, and greater awareness of mistakes. The main challenges concerned remaining hesitation among some students and the need to keep peer interaction focused on English.

4.4.2. Positive factors

A first positive factor was students' clear readiness to engage in game-based speaking work. Even before the intervention, Figure 4.14 and Figure 4.16 show a very strong preference for language games as an encouragement strategy in speaking lessons. These baseline results are important because they indicate that the learners were already receptive to this kind of classroom technique before Listening Relay was implemented. In other words, the activity did not enter a resistant classroom environment. Instead, it responded to a pre-existing student expectation that speaking would become easier and more attractive when

supported by game-based methods. After the intervention, Figure 4.6 further shows that learners generally viewed Listening Relay as enjoyable and supportive of participation. This continuity between the baseline preference for games and the later positive perception of Listening Relay suggests that the activity was not merely novel or entertaining, but that it matched a genuine classroom need. The importance of this point lies in its pedagogical relevance: the activity was effective partly because it aligned with what students themselves had already identified as a helpful way of entering oral participation.

A second positive aspect of this activity was that students expressed greater self-confidence in their ability to speak when Listening Relay was used; the large number of students who indicated feeling more self-confident about speaking are shown in Figure 4.6. The significance of this is amplified when considered alongside the results shown in Figure 4.13 as well as the qualitative responses collected in the baseline data collection phase, where students identified several barriers to speaking including fear of making errors (grammar or pronunciation), embarrassment in front of their peers and anxiety associated with correction in a public manner. Therefore, confidence was not simply a minor issue, but one of the major barriers to students participating in oral tasks. From reading the two figures together (4.6 and 4.13), it appears that Listening Relay has helped to alleviate at least some of the emotional anxiety associated with speaking. Although not completely eliminating all reluctance, it does seem to facilitate oral participation by shifting the focus away from individual performance towards a more interactive group-based learning activity.

A third positive factor was the important role of peer interaction. Figure 4.7 shows that students practised speaking with friends, enjoyed pair or group work, paid close attention to classmates, and learned from peers during the activity. These findings are significant because they indicate that peer interaction was not incidental or accidental. Rather, it formed a central part of how learners experienced Listening Relay. In a classroom where many students had previously felt anxious or hesitant, the possibility of working alongside classmates appears to have created a more supportive interactional environment. The figure suggests that students did not simply respond individually to the teacher; they also listened to one another, observed one another's responses, and used peer presence as part of the learning process. This is especially relevant to the thesis because reflexive error

detection in spoken English is not only an individual cognitive act. It can also be supported by social comparison, shared attention, and the opportunity to hear correct and incorrect forms emerge in peer interaction.

A fourth positive factor was the activity's connection to error awareness. As shown in Figure 4.6, many students agreed that Listening Relay helped them understand their mistakes better. This is one of the most important findings in relation to the central research focus of the thesis. The study does not examine Listening Relay only as a motivational game; it investigates whether the activity can help learners become quicker and more aware in noticing spoken inaccuracies. The responses reported in Figure 4.6 therefore provide direct perceptual support for that claim. When students say that the activity helped them understand their mistakes better, this suggests that errors became more visible, more immediate, and more discussable within the classroom process. The task structure of Listening Relay, which requires attentive listening, rapid processing, and response within a shared activity, likely contributed to this effect by making spoken forms more salient than they might be in less interactive classroom routines.

These positive factors should not be treated as isolated outcomes. Rather, the evidence suggests that they worked in combination. Students' readiness to engage with game-based speaking work made them more willing to enter the activity. Increased confidence then reduced some of the fear that had previously discouraged participation. Peer interaction provided a supportive environment in which learners could listen, compare, and respond with less isolation. At the same time, greater awareness of mistakes made the language focus of the activity more immediate and meaningful. In this sense, enjoyment, confidence, peer attention, and error awareness were not separate benefits operating independently of one another. They interacted and reinforced one another within the same classroom experience.

4.4.3. Challenges

The data also reveal several challenges. Figures 4.6 and 4.7 show that positive response was not identical across all items, since some statements attracted sizeable neutral responses. This means that Listening Relay was well received overall, but not every learner responded with the same degree of confidence or certainty.

A second challenge concerns the management of peer work. Table 4.2 shows that many learners associated pair work and group work with chatting in Vietnamese rather than with productive English use. This suggests that peer interaction could support learning only when the task was structured clearly enough to keep attention on the spoken material and the response goal.

A third challenge concerns the need to keep activities genuinely engaging. Figure 4.12 shows that existing speaking topics and activities were often rated as merely normal rather than highly interesting. This means that an intervention such as Listening Relay had to remain well paced and appropriately difficult if it was to avoid becoming just another routine classroom exercise.

A fourth challenge involves residual speaking anxiety. Figure 4.13 shows substantial baseline reluctance to speak, and Figure 4.7 shows that comfort with speaking in front of others remained more mixed than other post-task responses. The activity therefore reduced some barriers, but it did not remove all affective constraints for every learner.

Overall, Figures 4.6, 4.7, 4.12, 4.13, and Table 4.2 suggest that Listening Relay was effective not because it was simply lively, but because it combined engagement with a specific linguistic and interactional goal. The challenges identified in the dataset do not weaken that conclusion; rather, they define the conditions under which the activity worked best.

4.5. Reflexive error detection and response patterns

The performance-related evidence in Figures 4.1 to 4.5 should be interpreted cautiously, but it remains relevant when read together with the questionnaire and qualitative data. Figures 4.1, 4.4, and 4.5 show strong inter-rater agreement in the scoring of the pre-test and post-test materials, which supports the basic reliability of the retained performance evidence.

Figure 4.6 is particularly important for the present research question because it shows that many students believed the activity helped them understand their mistakes better. This item does not by itself prove score gain, but it does provide direct evidence that learners experienced Listening Relay as supportive of noticing and correction.

Figure 4.7 strengthens this interpretation by showing that students paid close attention to classmates and learned from peers during the activity. In a task built around listening and response, this kind of peer attention is highly relevant because students can observe correct and incorrect attempts, compare them, and adjust their own responses.

The baseline evidence also matters. Figure 4.10 shows that listening was the most difficult skill for the class, while Figure 4.13 shows substantial reluctance to speak in ordinary speaking lessons. These two figures help explain why a task combining attentive listening with supported oral response was pedagogically relevant in the first place.

Figures 4.14, 4.15, and 4.16 show that students already believed language games could support learning and that they were especially willing to participate when games were used. These baseline preferences help clarify why Listening Relay may have created conditions in which learners were more ready to react to spoken inaccuracies instead of withdrawing from oral participation.

Table 4.1 adds another important contextual point. Because the teacher was generally reported to correct mistakes after students had finished and to encourage self-correction, the classroom already contained a correction style compatible with the aims of reflexive error detection. Table 4.1 therefore helps explain why students could attempt responses without expecting immediate punitive interruption.

Read together, Figures 4.1 to 4.7, Figures 4.10 and 4.13 to 4.16, and Table 4.1 support a cautious conclusion: Listening Relay contributed positively to the classroom conditions needed for reflexive error detection. The retained evidence indicates stronger attention to spoken form, greater awareness of mistakes, and a more supportive context for rapid oral response.

The evidence does not justify claiming a fully measured cognitive mechanism beyond the classroom data. What it does justify is a pedagogical interpretation that repeated listening, peer-supported comparison, and immediate task response made error noticing more visible and more actionable for these learners.

Accordingly, the role of Listening Relay in this thesis is best understood as practical rather than abstract. Figures 4.6 and 4.7 show that students experienced the activity as supportive, while Figures 4.10 and 4.13 show that the class genuinely needed help with

listening difficulty and speaking hesitation. The intervention therefore matched both the needs identified at baseline and the perceptions reported after implementation.

On that basis, Chapter 4 supports the conclusion that Listening Relay helped create favourable conditions for quicker noticing, better awareness of spoken mistakes, and more confident oral response in this particular fifth-grade classroom context.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

This chapter discusses the findings presented in Chapter 4 in direct relation to the research questions and the theoretical framework. The discussion focuses on four issues: the baseline classroom situation, students' perceptions of Listening Relay, the positive factors and challenges observed during implementation, and the extent to which the activity supported reflexive error detection in spoken English. The interpretation is deliberately bounded because the study was conducted with a small sample in one primary-school context.

5.1. Discussion of the current classroom situation

The first research question concerned the existing situation of English learning and classroom participation among the fifth-grade students at Ham Cuong Primary School. Taken together, Figures 4.8 to 4.16 and Tables 4.1 and 4.2 show that this situation was neither wholly negative nor fully satisfactory. On the positive side, the students generally recognized the value of English as a school subject, expressed broadly favourable interest in learning it, and regarded speaking as an important component of English study. These findings indicate that the classroom did not suffer from a basic rejection of English or from indifference to oral ability. However, the same dataset also shows that this positive orientation did not automatically result in confident and consistent participation in speaking lessons. Many students remained hesitant, only sometimes willing to speak, or even unwilling to participate in oral activities under ordinary classroom conditions. This contrast is highly important because it shows that the central pedagogical problem was not a lack of appreciation for English, but a mismatch between what students believed was important and what they felt able to do in actual classroom practice.

A particularly significant aspect of this baseline situation is the relationship between listening difficulty and speaking importance. As shown earlier in Figure 4.10, listening was identified far more often than the other three language skills as the most difficult area of English learning. At the same time, Figure 4.11 shows that speaking was widely regarded as important or very important by most of the students. This combination helps explain why reflexive error detection was difficult for the learners at the outset of the study. In classroom

interaction, especially in a task involving spoken error detection, students cannot respond effectively unless they first process what they hear accurately and rapidly. If listening itself is already perceived as the greatest challenge, then hesitation in spoken response becomes understandable rather than surprising. The learners were therefore in a position where they valued spoken English, but the listening-and-response chain that supports spoken performance remained fragile. This tension lies at the heart of the thesis and provides a strong pedagogical rationale for an intervention centred on attentive listening and immediate oral reaction.

The baseline evidence also shows that the classroom difficulty was not only linguistic, but also affective. The open-ended comments and related questionnaire findings indicate that many students were discouraged by fear of making grammar or pronunciation mistakes, embarrassment in front of classmates, limited vocabulary, uncertainty about what to say, and anxiety when required to respond suddenly. These comments are important because they demonstrate that reluctance to speak was shaped by emotional and social pressure as well as by weakness in language processing. In other words, even when students knew that speaking mattered, they did not necessarily feel secure enough to perform it confidently in front of others. This means that the classroom problem cannot be explained solely in terms of insufficient language knowledge. It must also be understood in terms of classroom conditions, learner self-confidence, and the degree of pressure attached to oral response.

For this reason, the intervention needed to address more than the learning of English forms in isolation. It needed to create conditions under which students could listen more attentively, respond with less fear, and participate in speaking tasks without the same level of anxiety that had previously restrained them. This is precisely why a technique such as Listening Relay was relevant to the classroom context identified in Chapter 4. The baseline findings suggest that the students did not need to be persuaded that English or speaking was important; rather, they needed a classroom structure that could help them act on that recognition more confidently and more actively. In this sense, the first research question is answered by a classroom picture marked by both readiness and difficulty: the learners valued English and oral ability, but their actual participation remained constrained by the combined

effects of listening difficulty, fear of mistakes, limited confidence, and insufficiently supportive speaking conditions.

5.2. Discussion of students' perceptions of Listening Relay

The second research question concerned students' perceptions of language games, especially the Listening Relay activity. The post-task findings indicate that students generally responded positively to the activity. They reported that Listening Relay made speaking lessons more enjoyable, helped them feel more confident, supported their attention to sentence structure, and increased their awareness of spoken mistakes. These responses are consistent with the view that young learners may participate more actively when oral practice is embedded in structured, collaborative, and low-pressure classroom tasks (Lee, 1979; Lewis & Bedson, 1999; Dörnyei, 2001).

5.3. Discussion of positive factors and challenges

The positive factors identified in Chapter 4 formed a coherent pattern. Listening Relay matched students' pre-existing preference for game-based learning, reduced some of the fear associated with speaking, increased peer attention, and strengthened perceived awareness of mistakes. These benefits are theoretically plausible because the activity combined attentive listening, peer-supported interaction, turn-taking, and immediate response, all of which are emphasized in communicative and cooperative learning perspectives (Canale & Swain, 1980; Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Vandergrift, 1999). However, the activity also presented challenges. Some learners still needed teacher support, some responses depended on peer assistance, and the findings remained limited by the small sample and the short implementation period.

5.4. Discussion of Listening Relay and reflexive error detection

The fourth research question asked to what extent Listening Relay supported reflexive error detection in spoken English. The most defensible answer is that the activity supported this development by creating classroom conditions in which active listening, noticing, and immediate oral response became more frequent and more visible. The evidence does not prove a fully developed cognitive mechanism of automatic error detection. Nevertheless, the combined questionnaire, observation, and performance evidence indicates that Listening Relay helped students attend more closely to spoken forms, compare responses with peers, and attempt correction under manageable classroom pressure. This interpretation is

consistent with the view that language knowledge becomes more functional when learners are required to process and use it in interaction rather than only recognize it in delayed or written exercises (Bygate, 1997; Ellis, 1997; Vandergrift, 1999).

5.5. Answers to the research questions

The findings of the study allow each research question to be answered in a way that remains closely tied to the evidence presented in Chapter 4. Research Question 1 asked about the existing situation of English learning and classroom participation. The baseline evidence shows that students generally recognized the importance of English and speaking, but many experienced listening as difficult and were not consistently willing to speak in class. This suggests that the classroom problem was not lack of interest alone; it was a combination of listening difficulty, fear of mistakes, limited confidence, and uneven participation.

Research Question 2 asked how students perceived language games, especially Listening Relay. The post-task findings show that students perceived the activity positively. They associated Listening Relay with enjoyment, confidence, learning sentence structures, greater awareness of mistakes, and stronger peer engagement. These responses indicate that the activity was acceptable and motivating for this group of fifth-grade learners.

Research Question 3 asked what positive factors and challenges were associated with Listening Relay. The main positive factors were increased willingness to participate, peer collaboration, attention to classmates' responses, and opportunities for immediate correction. The main challenges were learners' continuing need for teacher guidance, possible dependence on stronger peers, time pressure during the activity, and the need for clear instructions and carefully selected language items.

Research Question 4 asked to what extent Listening Relay supported reflexive error detection in spoken English. The evidence supports a cautious positive conclusion. Listening Relay helped create the classroom conditions required for reflexive error detection by linking attentive listening, comparison of spoken forms, peer-supported correction, and immediate oral response. However, the findings should be interpreted as evidence of support within one classroom context, not as proof of broad generalizability or long-term automatic language development.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The final chapter summarizes the findings of the study, presents implications grounded in those findings, acknowledges the limitations of the research, and closes with brief reflections on the value of maintaining strong alignment between classroom evidence and thesis writing.

6.1. Summary of findings

This study investigated the role of Listening Relay in the English learning of fifth-grade students at Ham Cuong Primary School, with particular attention to reflexive error detection in spoken English. The findings showed that the classroom situation before the intervention contained both positive foundations and clear difficulties. Students valued English and speaking, but listening difficulty, fear of mistakes, and uneven willingness to speak limited their oral participation.

Second, the findings showed that students were receptive to the use of language games before the intervention. They believed that game-based activities could support both relaxation and learning, and many indicated stronger willingness to participate when games were used. This baseline pattern helped explain why Listening Relay was an appropriate activity for this classroom context.

Third, the post-task findings indicated that Listening Relay was perceived positively by the students. The activity made lessons more enjoyable, supported confidence, strengthened attention to classmates, and helped learners become more aware of spoken mistakes. These findings suggest that Listening Relay functioned as a practical bridge between listening, speaking, and error awareness rather than as a game used only for entertainment.

6.2. Implications

The findings of the study suggest several implications for English teaching at the primary level. First, teachers should not interpret reluctance to speak as evidence that learners do not value speaking. In this study, students clearly recognized the importance of speaking, yet many still hesitated. Teachers therefore need task formats that reduce anxiety and make oral response more manageable (Brown, 1980; Dörnyei, 2001).

Second, teachers who wish to strengthen reflexive error detection should design tasks that connect listening, attention to form, and immediate oral response. Activities such as Listening Relay are useful because they do not isolate error correction from classroom interaction. Instead, they make noticing, comparison, and response part of the same activity sequence. This implication is consistent with communicative and interaction-oriented views of language learning (Canale & Swain, 1980; Bygate, 1997; Vandergrift, 1999).

6.3. Limitations

The study has several limitations that should be acknowledged. First, it was conducted with 40 fifth-grade students at a single primary school, so the findings are context-specific. Second, the intervention period was limited, and the study did not examine long-term retention or transfer to other speaking tasks. Third, some statistical evidence was based on retained outputs rather than a fully redesigned assessment model. Fourth, the study relied partly on self-report questionnaire data, which may reflect students' perceptions rather than direct evidence of all learning processes.

These limitations do not invalidate the study, but they define its evidential boundaries. The thesis should therefore be read as a carefully bounded classroom investigation rather than as a basis for broad generalization. Its value lies in showing how one specific activity functioned in one specific fifth-grade EFL classroom and in identifying practical conditions that may support reflexive error detection.

6.4. Reflections

This study reinforces the importance of internal alignment in classroom research. A thesis becomes stronger when its rationale, theoretical framework, methodology, results, discussion, and conclusion all remain connected to the same body of evidence. In the present case, the most useful contribution was obtained by linking Listening Relay directly to the classroom need for attentive listening, supported speaking, and quicker recognition of spoken mistakes.

The study also highlights a practical pedagogical reflection. Young learners often need more than explanation and correction. They need classroom conditions that make attention, noticing, and response possible. When activities are structured so that learners can

listen carefully, respond with support, and learn from peers, oral practice becomes more accessible and more meaningful.

For the researcher, the study reinforces the importance of evidence-based writing. Claims about motivation, participation, confidence, and reflexive error detection must be supported by the actual findings rather than by theory alone. When this discipline is maintained, even a small classroom-based study can make a clear and useful contribution to local teaching practice.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

PRE-TASK QUESTIONNAIRE

Title: Pre-task questionnaire on students' English learning situation and classroom participation

This questionnaire is used before the Listening Relay activity. It aims to collect information about students' attitudes toward English, their perceived language-skill difficulties, their willingness to speak English, their experience of teacher correction, and their views of language games in English lessons.

Please tick **one** answer for each question.

Part 1. Students' attitudes toward English learning

1. How necessary do you think English is at school?

☐ Very necessary

☐ Necessary

☐ Normal

☐ Not necessary

☐ Completely unnecessary

2. How much do you like learning English?

☐ Very much

☐ Much

☐ Normal

☐ Little

☐ Not at all

3. How important do you think speaking English is?

☐ Very important

☐ Important

☐ Normal

☐ Not important

☐ Completely unimportant

Part 2. Students' difficulties in English learning

4. Which English skill is the most difficult for you?

☐ Listening

☐ Speaking

☐ Reading

☐ Writing

5. What usually makes speaking English difficult for you?

☐ I do not know enough vocabulary.

☐ I am afraid of making mistakes.

☐ I feel shy when speaking in front of classmates.

☐ I cannot listen and respond quickly.

☐ Other: _____

6. How often are you willing to speak English in class?

☐ Always

☐ Often

☐ Sometimes

☐ Rarely

☐ Never

Part 3. Classroom correction and self-correction

7. When you make a speaking mistake, when does your teacher usually correct it?

☐ Immediately when I make the mistake

☐ After I finish speaking

☐ At the end of the activity

☐ Only when the mistake is serious

☐ The teacher rarely corrects speaking mistakes

8. Does your teacher encourage you to correct your own mistakes?

☐ Always

☐ Often

☐ Sometimes

☐ Rarely

☐ Never

9. How do you usually feel when your speaking mistake is corrected?

☐ Very comfortable

☐ Comfortable

☐ Normal

☐ Nervous

☐ Very nervous

Part 4. Students' views of language games

10. Do you think language games can help you learn English better?

☐ Strongly agree

☐ Agree

☐ Neutral

☐ Disagree

☐ Strongly disagree

11. Do language games make English lessons more interesting?

☐ Strongly agree

☐ Agree

☐ Neutral

☐ Disagree

☐ Strongly disagree

12. Are you more willing to participate in English lessons when games are used?

☐ Strongly agree

☐ Agree

☐ Neutral

☐ Disagree

☐ Strongly disagree

13. Which type of classroom activity do you like most in English lessons?

☐ Listening and repeating

☐ Pair work

☐ Group work

☐ Language games

☐ Individual written exercises

14. What do you expect from a speaking game in English class?

☐ It helps me speak more confidently.

☐ It helps me listen more carefully.

☐ It helps me correct mistakes.

☐ It helps me work with classmates.

☐ It makes the lesson more enjoyable.

Thank you very much for your answers.

APPENDIX B: POST-TASK SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Title: Post-task survey questionnaire on students' perceptions of the Listening Relay activity

This questionnaire is designed for the study entitled **"The Role of the 'Listening Relay' Activity in Developing Reflexive Error Detection in English Learning of Fifth-Grade Students at Ham Cuong Primary School."** It is used after the implementation of the Listening Relay activity to collect students' perceptions of game-based learning, speaking participation, peer interaction, and awareness of spoken mistakes.

Please tick **one** option for each statement.

Scale:

1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly agree

No.	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Construct 1: Learning Perceptions through Games						
1	I enjoy learning speaking through the Listening Relay activity.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	The Listening Relay activity makes speaking lessons more interesting.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	I feel more confident when I speak English through the	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Listening Relay activity.					
4	The Listening Relay activity helps me practise speaking English more actively.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	The Listening Relay activity helps me learn English sentence structures more easily.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	The Listening Relay activity helps me understand my speaking mistakes better.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7	The Listening Relay activity helps me notice incorrect spoken English more quickly.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8	I want to continue learning speaking through game-based activities in future lessons.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Construct 2: Interpersonal Engagement in Activities						
9	I like practising speaking English with my classmates during the Listening Relay activity.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10	I enjoy working in groups or	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	teams during the Listening Relay activity.					
11	I pay close attention to my classmates when they speak during the activity.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12	I can learn English from my classmates during the Listening Relay activity.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13	I feel comfortable speaking English in front of my classmates during the activity.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14	The Listening Relay activity helps me become a better team member.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐