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CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK AND LEARNER UPTAKE IN AN EFL CLASSROOM

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Kati Surakka

Department of Languages
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Kati Surakka
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Vieraan kielen oppitunneilla oppilaat saavat opettajilta korjaavaa palautetta tekemistään suullisista virheistä. Oppilaat käyttävät palautetta edistääkseen omaa kielellistä osaamistaan, joten voidaan olettaa, että opettajien antamalla korjaavalla palautteella on merkittävä vaikutus niin luokkahuonediskurssissa kuin oppilaiden kielellisessä kehityksessäkin.

Tutkielman tarkoituksena on kartoittaa englannin kielen oppitunneilla opettajan käyttämiä erilaisia korjaavan palautteen keinoja (corrective feedback), eli tapoja, joilla opettajat reagoivat oppilaidensa suullisiin virheisiin. Lisäksi tutkielmassa käsitellään tämän korjaavan palautteen perusteella tapahtuvaa oppilaiden palautteen omaksumista (learner uptake) ja kielellistä korjaamista (learner repair). Perusta tutkimukselle on toisen kielen oppimisen alueella, tarkemmin sanottuna suullisen kielen ja luokkahuoneen prosessitutkimuksessa. Tutkielman aineisto koostuu 48 englanti vieraana kielenä -oppitunnista. Nauhoitukset kuvattiin neljän opettajan opettamalta erään luokan oppitunneilta neljän vuoden ajan, joten samaa luokkaa kuvattiin luokka-asteilla 3-6 (ikävuodet 9-12). Analyysissa tarkastellaan näiden oppituntien pohjalta tehtyjä litteraatteja, joista Panovan ja Lysterin (2002) termien mukaisesti eroteltiin korjaavan palautteen eri osa-alueita.

Tutkielman tutkimuskysymyksinä ovat: (1) Millaisia eri korjaavan palautteen keinoja opettajat käyttävät englannin oppitunneilla korjatessaan oppilaidensa suullisia virheitä? (2) Tapahtuuko oppilaiden omaksumista ja onko nähtävissä kielellistä korjaamista? (3) Millaiset korjaavan palautteen keinot johtavat omaksumiseen ja kielelliseen korjaamiseen? (4) Miten korjaavan palautteen tyyppien käyttö vaihtelevat eri luokka-asteilla?

Tutkielman tulokset osoittavat, että opettajat reagoivat oppilaidensa virheellisiin lausumiin usein implisiittisin keinoin, esimerkiksi vain uudelleen muotoilemalla virheen (eli recast, joka kattoi 34,7% kaikista 233 korjauksesta). Toisin sanoen, opettajan uudelleen muotoillessa oppilaan virheellisen vastauksen hän pelkästään antaa oikean vastauksen antamatta mitään lisätietoa virheen laadusta tai sijainnista. Aikaisemmat tutkimukset tukevat tätä löydöstä. Lisäksi tuloksista selviää, että oppilaat pystyvät omaksumaan opettajan palautteen yli puolessa korjaustapauksista (56%), ja virhe korjattiin oppilaan toimesta 52% tapauksista.

Tutkimukseen käytetty aineisto on suhteellisen suppea joiltain osilta, ja siksi olisi tarpeellista saada lisää materiaalia eri luokka-asteilta. Lisätutkimuksia tulisi tehdä muun muassa siitä, miten oppilaat oikeasti reagoivat korjaavaan palautteeseen ja onko palautteen antaminen edes tarpeellista. Tutkielma pyrkii antamaan ehdotuksia opettajakoulutuksen kehittämiseen ja opettajien tietoisuuden kasvattamiseen korjaavan palautteen antamisesta.

Asiasanat: classroom discourse, corrective feedback, learner uptake, learner repair, English as a foreign language, classroom process research, second language classrooms.

CONTENTS

1 INTRODUCTION....3

2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND....5

2.1 Key terms....5

2.1.1. Error....5

2.1.2 Corrective feedback....7

2.1.3 Uptake....9

2.2 Previous research....10

2.2.1 Previous research on corrective feedback....11

2.2.2 Previous research on learner uptake....27

3 RESEARCH DESIGN....31

3.1 Research questions....31

3.2 Data....33

3.3 Participants....34

3.4 Data processing....34

4 FINDINGS....35

4.1 Qualitative analysis....35

4.1.1 Types of error....35

4.1.2 Corrective feedback types....37

4.1.3 Learner uptake....44

4.2 Quantitative analysis....50

4.2.1 Errors and feedback types....50

4.2.2 Feedback types and learner uptake – a connection....52

4.2.3 Feedback types across grades....53

5 DISCUSSION....55

5.1 Summary of the findings....56

5.2 Implications....62

6 CONCLUSION....63

BIBLIOGRAPHY....67

APPENDIX 1....70

1 INTRODUCTION

Classroom interaction has been widely studied in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Inside that field, many different viewpoints on classroom interaction and discourse have been examined, mainly concentrating on either teachers or students, and their speech separately or collectively. When the focus is set on second language teaching and learning, and more specifically English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms, the main issue is the language itself and how it is used in the interaction between participants in the classroom. The most common interaction exchange found in the studies on classroom discourse consists of moves, which normally are divided into three as follows: (1) Initiate, (2) Response and (3) Follow-up (IRF) (Wells 1996:167). The follow-up move refers to all the moves following a student's response, whether they are corrective, negative, or affirmative in nature.

One of the areas studied inside SLA is *corrective feedback*, which occurs when a student produces an oral error, or an incorrect utterance of some sort. This erroneous response or answer usually follows a teacher's question and it results in some type of corrective feedback. Furthermore, after the feedback move from the teacher, the student may show signs of learning or understanding, which might imply that the student has reacted to the teacher's feedback. However, this *uptake* move is not always visible in the exchange, since it is a complex and difficult matter to investigate and determine.

The importance of studying and examining corrective feedback can be seen when actual classroom discourse events are looked at more closely. Most of the interaction that takes place during foreign language lessons is guided by teachers, and thus they have a significant role in how students learn and what happens in the classroom. Furthermore, if it is true that students can

learn from their own errors, then correcting those errors is a crucial part of learning. Additionally, there are many ways of correcting students' oral errors, and the present study will try to cover all of these ways, and examine how the students respond to the corrective feedback moves.

It is important to improve teachers' knowledge of their own actions, and thus teachers should be aware of the corrective feedback techniques they can use. The present study therefore aims to enlighten teachers, but it also tries to look at the students' side – how does corrective feedback enhance or hinder the learning process, and furthermore, is it even beneficial to correct errors in the first place. In other words, are there clear signs of student uptake following the different corrective feedback moves? To achieve some answers, the data for the study includes 48 EFL lessons of transcribed classroom interaction, and it will be analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively.

The outline of the present study goes as follows: Chapter 2 will lay the foundation for the theoretical background of this study, giving definitions to some of the key terms in section 2.1, as well as reviewing some of the previous studies conducted in the field in section 2.2. The research questions and motivation for this study are presented in Chapter 3. Furthermore, Chapter 3 gives clear details about the data, the participants of the study, data collecting and processing. The actual findings are discussed in Chapter 4, first focusing on qualitative analysis of the data (section 4.1), and then introducing the quantitative results (section 4.2). After the findings have been laid out, Chapter 5 compares the results of the present study with the findings of previous studies, and discusses some applied issues. The last chapter, then, sums up the entire study, assessing the strengths and weaknesses of the study, as well as giving suggestions for further research.

2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

It is important to first lay out the theoretical groundwork, and investigate the field of study that is related to the area of interest of the present study. In the following two sections (2.1 and 2.2), the theoretical background for the present study will be presented in detail. In section 2.1, the key terms that are related to *corrective feedback* will be explained and looked at from various viewpoints. In the second section (2.2), previous studies on corrective feedback and learner uptake will be reviewed, concentrating on the significant findings and various research areas (EFL, English as a Second Language (ESL), immersion classrooms). These two sections will create a theoretical basis for the rest of the study, and the following chapters will draw on the terminology defined here.

2.1 Key terms

There are many key terms and a variety of terminology in the area of corrective feedback and classroom discourse. Researchers choose their own terms to use: some of them create their own concepts, and others use the terminology of others. For the purpose of the present study, the three main terms that appear in all previous studies on corrective feedback are discussed below. These are *error*, *corrective feedback* and *uptake*.

2.1.1. Error

One of the main terms is *error*, and it can be approached from a number of different perspectives. Even though an error might seem like a simple term to define, there are various ways of looking at it, and researchers need to find the term best suitable for their research. One of the earliest definitions describes an error as "an utterance, form, or structure that a particular language teacher deems unacceptable because of its inappropriate use or its

absence in real-life discourse" (Hendrickson 1978:387). This definition seems to convey both the correct form of an utterance by native-speaker standards as well as teachers' judgement calls. Furthermore, some researchers have simply declared that "an error is a form unwanted by the teacher" (Allwright and Bailey 1991:85), which means that the teacher has expected a certain answer and when that answer is not delivered, she/he will treat the answer as an error. This, then, implies that a teacher can judge both inappropriate utterances (context or subject related errors) and grammatically incorrect forms.

There are other issues to consider when defining and examining errors. Although the terms *error* and *mistake* might appear to be synonyms, there is a significant difference between them. A *mistake* (or slip of the tongue) is an incorrect utterance a student can correct her/himself and can be referred to as "a momentary lapse", whereas an *error* implies lack of competence in a particular linguistic area, and a student will require assistance in order to correct it (as quoted in Corder, in Allwright and Bailey 1991:91). It is important to make this distinction between the two terms, since error and mistake are not to be used as synonyms.

Furthermore, when choosing a definition for error, researchers have to decide whether to use *grammaticality* or *acceptability* as the decisive factor, as was hinted above in the definitions of error. It should be noted though that grammatical errors are not easily defined, since they can be *overt* or *covert* in nature. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005:56) make a distinction between these types of error:

> "An error is said to be overt if it can be detected by inspecting the sentence/utterance in which it occurs. An error is covert if it only becomes apparent when a larger stretch of the discourse is considered."

Acceptability is somewhat more problematic to define, since it involves the subjective evaluation of a researcher. "Determining acceptability also involves attempting to identify a situational context in which the utterance in

question might fit" (Ellis and Barkhuizen 2005:56), and thus the researcher has to be skilled in the language in question, since judgement calls need to be made about the acceptability in different language contexts. Researchers have to choose their own preferences and definitions – what to focus on and what types of errors to include? Acceptability, for example, means that a researcher needs to take a closer look at the data, to get a more extensive understanding of what is going on in any particular discourse situation.

Taking all of these definitions and perspectives into account, the following definition of error, with two related points, has been chosen to be used in the present study: An error is seen as:

> (1) an objective evaluation of linguistic or content errors according to linguistic norms or evident misconstrual of facts, and (2) any additional linguistic or other behaviour that the teachers reacted to negatively or with an indication that improvement of the response was expected (Chaudron, 1986:67).

This definition covers the term *error* in full, since it not only includes the linguistic aspect and grammatical correctness, but also concentrates on the teachers' views of what is acceptable and what is not. In other words, there are errors that clearly deviate from the native language, but also errors that are tied to the lesson topic or the exercise at hand, and only the teacher can judge whether a certain answer is correct in a given situation.

2.1.2 Corrective feedback

There are numerous terms to use for the procedure where a teacher provides a student with feedback on oral errors. Terms such as error correction, error treatment, corrective feedback, negative evidence, and negative feedback have been used in the past (El Tatawy 2002). Each term is partially similar to the others, but all of them are connected to the process of giving feedback – the *follow-up* turn in the IRF-sequence (Wells 1996:167). It is useful to show

the differences in these various terms, and thus the nuances between these terms are discussed in the following.

Some of the terms convey the same meanings, but others have clear insinuations, and these need to be defined in greater detail in order to find the terms most suitable for the present study. *Negative evidence* or *negative feedback* "refers to the input that tells learners what is not possible or grammatical in the target language" (Sheen 2004:296). *Corrective feedback* is a type of negative evidence and it can be defined as "any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect" (Lightbown and Spada 1999:171, as quoted in El Tatawy 2002:1), and since it does not always provide the correct form, it will force learners to make use of their own language knowledge. Since the term *correction* would imply a 'cure', it is not suitable to use, because it cannot be argued that the teacher's comments will permanently affect students' learning (Allwright and Bailey 1991:99). In other words, *feedback* only gives information about the correctness of a learner utterance, whereas *correction* would suggest that students actually learn and improve their knowledge of the language with the help of the correction (Long 1977, as quoted in Ellis 1994:71). To sum up, the term *corrective feedback* is used in the present study since it refers to the feedback the teacher gives on a learner error, but it does not seem to suggest or include any implications for the actual learning process.

It is also important to take a closer look at *corrective feedback* and what it includes. Corrective feedback can be either *implicit* or *explicit*. Explicit feedback types are overt and they offer clear information for learners about their errors – teachers provide students with knowledge on the correct forms and indicate clearly how the utterance is erroneous. These feedback types can be, for example, grammatical explanations (e.g., *metaliguistic feedback, elicitation*). Furthermore, these informative feedback types are sometimes grouped under the term *negotiation of form (*or *negotiation of meaning*), which

refers to "the provision of corrective feedback that encourages self-repair involving accuracy and precision and not merely comprehensibility" (Lyster and Ranta 1997:42). Implicit feedback types are less obvious and they do not provide any additional information to students on the correct formulation of their utterances. If a teacher gives implicit feedback to a student, it usually does not interrupt the flow of the conversation, but simply corrects the error (Long 1996, as quoted in El Tatawy 2002). The different types of explicit and implicit corrective feedback types are discussed in more detail in Chapter 4.

2.1.3 Uptake

As with many other terms, *uptake* can be defined in many different ways, and it can be looked at from a several viewpoints. Generally speaking, uptake occurs, when a teacher's feedback move is followed by a student utterance. Some researches (Allwright 1984) have defined uptake as something that learners can claim to have learnt at the end of a lesson, or rather, what learners can report to have learnt. Asking students to report on what they have learnt is problematic, to say the least, since teachers and students might have different ideas of what the topic or the main points of a particular lesson have been (Allwright 1984). If a student lists the topics of discussion after a lesson, can it be claimed that these are the things that she/he has really learnt. Perhaps the listed items are only the product of short-term memory and no real learning has actually occurred? Since there is no valid procedure to check what students have actually learnt (other than asking them), another definition has to be applied. Lyster and Ranta (1997:49) describe uptake as:

> a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance (this overall intention is clear to the student although the teacher's specific linguistic focus may not be)

Ellis et al. (2001:286) define uptake as "a student move", and "the move is optional", since the teacher's feedback move does not require a learner

uptake move. Uptake, then, occurs after a learner has made an error, the teacher has corrected the error or provided information about the erroneous utterance, and then the learner responds to the teacher's correction by, for example, repeating the correct form. Furthermore, "uptake can be considered successful when it demonstrates that a student can use a feature correctly or has understood a feature" (Ellis et al. 2001:286). It should be noted, however, that "such success does not indicate that the feature has been acquired" (Ellis et al. 2001:286). This goes back to the problem of defining whether or not learning has taken place after a corrective feedback move. As Ellis et al. (2001:287) suggest, it is important to acknowledge the fact that "uptake may be *facilitative* of acquisition" (emphasis original), but it is cannot be treated as clear evidence for acquisition to have occurred.

The present study uses the definition of uptake proposed by Lyster and Ranta (1997, mentioned above). Additionally, learner uptake can be divided into two types: "(a) uptake that results in "repair" of the error on which the feedback focused and (b) uptake that results in an utterance that still needs repair (coded as "needs-repair")" (Lyster and Ranta 1997:49). Moreover, there might not always be an uptake move, and "if there is no uptake, then there is topic continuation" (Lyster and Ranta 1997:49). In other words, the teacher (or possibly a student) continues the lesson with the same or a different topic. These detailed definitions of uptake will be more closely examined in Chapter 4, in connection to the present data.

2.2 Previous research

Numerous studies have been conducted on classroom interaction, classroom discourse, and more specifically on teaching strategies, including the use of *corrective feedback* moves and techniques by teachers. The focus of corrective feedback studies has normally been on the teacher – what she/he has done to correct students' oral errors, what choices she/he has made, and how she/he

has corrected the learner errors. Some studies have, however, focused on the effects of corrective feedback moves. In other words, some studies have paid attention to *learner uptake*. Furthermore, many of the studies on corrective feedback have been conducted in the context of immersion classrooms and programs, as well as second language classrooms, yet the results have not varied much from one study to another. The summary of studies presented in this section offers significant empirical and observational research on corrective feedback and learner uptake.

2.2.1 Previous research on corrective feedback

In section 2.1 above, the term *corrective feedback* was defined, and its use in the present study was explained and justified. As was noted, the term differs from *error correction* and *error treatment*, which are terms used in earlier studies of this area, but for the purpose of the present overview, the terms, and their differences, are not significant as such. The terms will be regarded as referring to the same area of interest, even if their definitions are clearly dissimilar. The studies that have focused on this area of research have still had the same aim: they have all examined how teachers correct students' oral errors. To put it simply, the studies have had the same agenda, merely the terms have differed. A closer look at some of the most significant studies and their key findings is in order to establish a basis for the present study.

Early research on corrective feedback

Between the late 1970s and early 1990s, a few researchers took an interest in *error treatment* (as they called it), in the second language classroom context. Fanselow (1977), Chaudron (1988), Allwright and Bailey (1991), as well as Spada and Lightbown (1990), all concentrated on questions regarding SLA and classroom interaction. The researchers sought answers for the same basic questions that were listed in Hendrickson (1978). These five questions concerning the error correction process are still the basis of most studies

conducted. Hendrickson's (1978) simple questions, which still remain somewhat unanswered, were:

1. Should learner errors be corrected?
2. If so, when should learner errors be corrected?
3. Which learner errors should be corrected?
4. How should learner errors be corrected?
5. Who should correct learner errors?
   (Hendrickson 1978: 389)

The focus of the present study, as well as of the studies to be reviewed in this section, is on the questions: "How should learner errors be corrected?" Hendrickson (1978) himself answered this question by taking a look at studies carried out in the 1970s by researches such as Corder, Fanselow, and Chaudron. He found that most teachers provided their students with the correct form, without deeper explanation into the incorrectness of their utterance, but he went on to claim that the most effective way of correcting a learner error was to let the student *discover* the error her/himself. Most of the research that Hendrickson (1978) reviewed in his article was, however, based on written assignments, and not on spoken language, or oral errors. In the following paragraphs, the studies and ideas of some of the most well-known researchers will be shortly reviewed in order to answer the *how*-question (Fanselow 1977; Chaudron 1988), and also to present an issue of *focus-on-form* (Long 1991; Lightbown and Spada 1990). The final paragraph will include the ideas of Allwright and Bailey (1991) whose research sums up the ideas of many previous researchers, and presents problems related to corrective feedback.

Probably one of the earliest studies to answer the question mentioned above was conducted by Fanselow (1977). His main concern was to investigate *how* errors should be treated, and *which* types of errors should be treated. The participants in Fanselow's study included eleven experienced ESL teachers, who were all given the same teaching material and lesson plan, and they were asked to teach the lesson to one of their classes. The video-taped lessons

were then transcribed concentrating on both verbal and non-verbal behaviours. Fanselow found that the least likely errors to be treated were grammatical errors (only 33% chance of correction). However, if a student made an unrelated remark (not in connection to the topic or an erroneous response related to the topic), the teachers most likely corrected the error (94% chance of correction). Furthermore, regarding the different ways of correcting an error, Fanselow (1977:585) discovered that of the 943 cases of error treatment, 19% (N = 177) received what he called: "gives part of correct response or establishes a cue in a different medium". He also listed "no treatment" as one of the feedback types, resulting in 18% (N = 174) of all the corrective moves. Additionally, "gives the correct answer orally" was the type of correction preferred in 15% (N = 142) of the feedback situations. This would suggest, then, that the teachers in Fanselow's study favoured the use of explicit error treatment types by eliciting an answer from the students (giving cues or giving a partial answer). However, almost as frequently the teachers implicitly gave the correct answers without any additional information (also referred to as *recasts*). Fanselow (1977:588) suggests that when errors occur, the errors will be discussed in tasks "in order to help students establish categories (…) and help move patterns into long-term memory". In other words, the aim of tasks is to deepen the students' understanding of the errors they make, and to show that error treatment is not just about correcting errors, but also about teaching the language patterns to the students.

Chaudron (1988) answered the *how*-question as well, by examining earlier studies of error correction and by conducting research of his own. He listed several types of corrective feedback, which can be grouped under the following types: expansions, recasts (or what he called *provide*), repetitions, clarification requests, elicitation (*prompt*), and confirmation checks (Chaudron, 1988:146-147). Furthermore, Chaudron (1988:149) pointed out that the term *correction* is used rather widely and it can be used to "refer to

any teacher behaviour following an error that minimally attempts to inform the learner of the fact of error". This treatment might not lead to any further corrections, and it might not be evident to anyone else but an outside observer or the teacher giving the treatment. Error treatment and correction, according to Chaudron, are problematic and ambiguous procedures that might not be clear to the students receiving the feedback. Perhaps, then, as Fanselow (1977) suggested, it would be beneficial to emphasize the errors and their importance and connection to language patterns by using tasks after the errors have occurred.

One of the most renowned researchers in the area of corrective feedback is Long (1991) who often focuses his studies on *focus-on-form* and language teaching methodology. Focus-on-form is the investigation of "how focal attentional resources are allocated" (Long and Robinson, 1998:23). Focus-on-form basically means that, for example, during a communicative activity in a classroom, a teacher or a student might briefly shift attention from the content of the lesson to a specific linguistic feature (grammatical structure, pragmatic forms, and so on). This treatment of form is visible in activities such as "repetition drills and error correction" (Long, 1991:43). In other words, when a teacher provides students with corrective feedback, even during a communicative task, she/he attempts to focus students' attention to a particular linguistic item. This is usually a direct response to errors in producing a correct form or problems with comprehension, but it may also be used as a way of emphasizing a specific issue within the context of the lesson.

Similar to Long's field of interest, another pair of researchers to examine the field of error correction and focus-on-form is Lightbown and Spada (1990). They conducted a study investigating the effects of form-focused instruction and corrective feedback in communicative language teaching, in Quebec, Canada. Lightbown and Spada (1991:436) used observational data from four

classes, and they coded the material by looking at various classroom behaviours such as "activity type, participant organization (student-centered/ teacher-centered), modality practice (listening/speaking/ reading/writing), and content of the activities (focus-on-form/focus-on-meaning)". They discovered that interaction in all four classes was mostly focused on meaning, not form, and that teachers' actions, corrections, focus of instruction, and structures affected the learner language. In other words, how the teachers taught and used corrective feedback had an influence on how learners' language skills had developed. The researchers suggested that the best combination for improving learners' linguistic knowledge and performance is to use form-based instruction within a communicative context.

To deepen the discussion on corrective feedback and its challenges, Allwright and Bailey (1991:98-112) described the variety of error treatment and corrective feedback frameworks and models suggested by researchers (e.g., Chaudron 1987; Long 1977; Fanselow 1977). They concluded that the significant aspect of providing feedback "is the complexity of the decisions teachers must make in order to treat learners' errors appropriately" (p. 100). This "complexity of decisions" refers back to the questions proposed by Hendrickson (1978), and the decision making process that the teacher should go through before correcting a learner error. A concise model of the corrective feedback sequence is presented below in Figure 1, which shows the various processes that are involved in corrective discourse. Moreover, Allwright and Bailey (1991:100) discovered that teachers do not correct or treat all learner errors, and that teachers have "a wide variety of techniques available for the treatment of errors, but they do not typically make full use of the repertoire of behaviours from which they might choose in providing feedback". It can be claimed, then, that teachers neglect or overlook the feedback tools available for them, and that this might suggest a well-needed awareness in the area of teacher education in order to train teachers better.

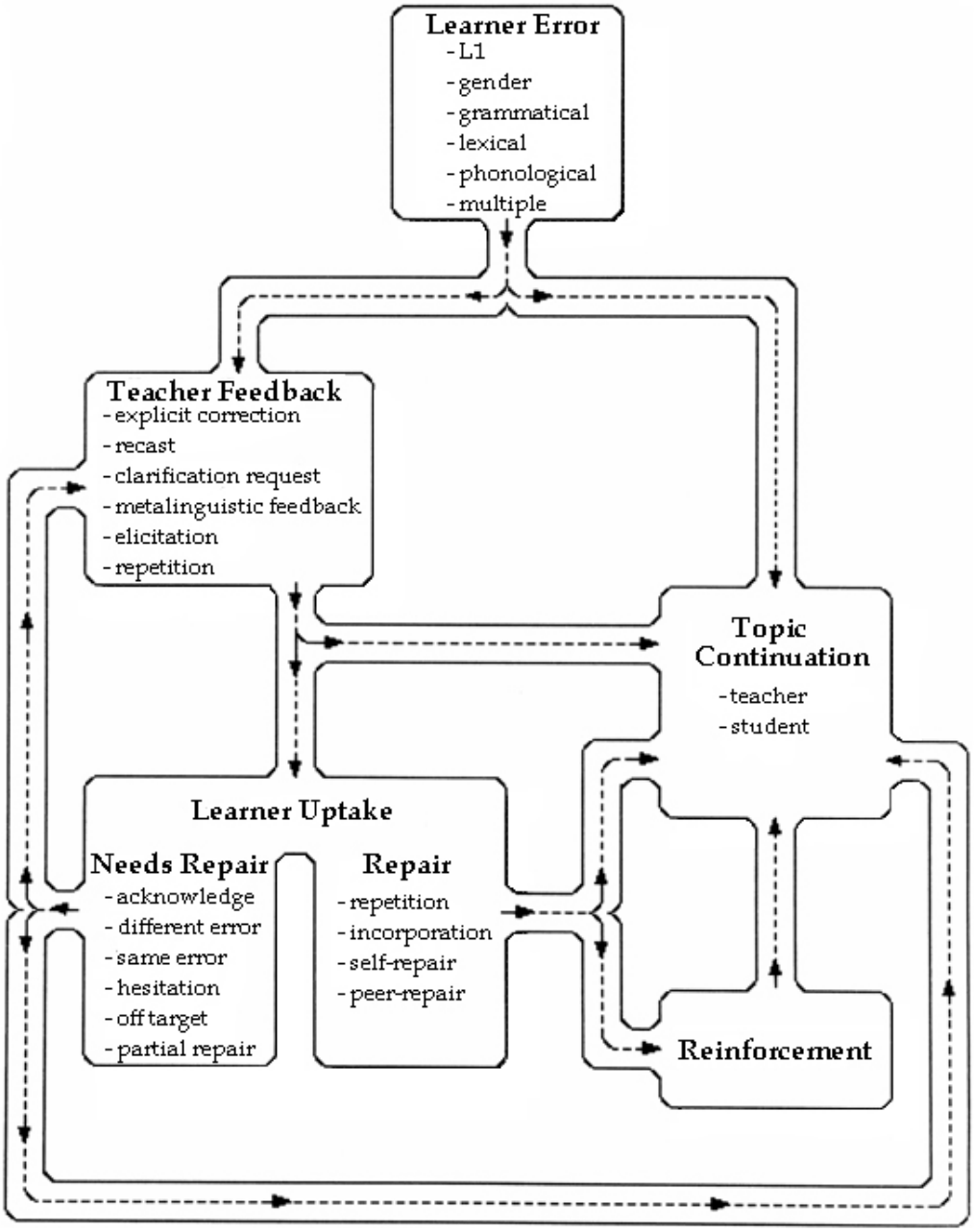

Figure 1. Lyster and Ranta's (1997:44) model of the error treatment sequence.

Moving from the past to the present, the following few paragraphs will focus on more recent research on corrective feedback. Some of the different areas of interest researchers have had during the past few years will be reviewed and shortly discussed, and then the focus will be turned towards the various corrective feedback types.

Recent research on corrective feedback – Different focuses on research

In the beginning of the 21st century, researchers have focused on different aspects of corrective feedback: Some studies have focused on researching, for instance, the different types of corrective feedback and which of the types are the most useful for teaching and learning. Other studies have sought out to prove whether or not corrective feedback is even beneficial in the first place, concentrating on its usefulness to language learning. Additionally, teachers' and students' opinions on feedback have been examined, as well as students' perceptions and interpretations of different aspects of feedback (such as *recasts*). In this section, some of the most current studies on corrective feedback will be introduced.

One of the studies to examine the usefulness of correcting oral errors was a study by Kim and Mathes (2001) which looked at implicit (recasts) and explicit (metalinguistic information) feedback. The participants in the study were ESL students from Michigan State University, and their native language was Korean. The scholars attempted to determine which feedback type was more beneficial to learners by giving two groups of students different types of feedback. Their research results showed that both implicit and explicit types were equally beneficial, but more importantly, their results seemed to stress "the need for continued feedback rather than limited feedback" (p. 66). In other words, it is important for the teachers to provide the learners with constant feedback, especially if the error occurs on several occasions. Furthermore, the results seemed to imply that both types of feedback facilitate learners' language performance.

Continuing along this debate on whether or not corrective feedback is useful, Ancker (2000) conducted a survey for teachers, teacher trainees, and students from different countries, and asked them to give reasons as to why the teacher should or should not correct learner errors when using English. Quite surprisingly, students felt more strongly (76% gave 'yes' answers) that

their errors should be corrected on every occasion, whereas teachers, and teacher trainees alike, did not seem to think corrective feedback was necessary all the time (25% and 36% of 'yes' answers, respectively). The reasoning behind the teachers' unwillingness to correct every learner error was connected to the fact that correction can be a barrier that inhibits students from speaking English. Moreover, corrective feedback was seen as a procedure that slows down interaction in the classroom, as well as confuses students. Ancker (2000) believed that in order to avoid confusion and interruptions, teachers should discuss the learning process with their students.

Some researches have gone as far as to claim that oral errors should be not corrected at all, and that the whole process of giving corrective feedback should be abandoned. A researcher to go against corrective feedback was Krashen (quoted in Ellis, 1994:73), who claimed that error treatment was detrimental to SLA and the whole learning process, because it made learners avoid difficult or complex structures. Krashen (1982:119, as quoted in Ellis 1994:73) believes that "even under the best of conditions, with the most learning-oriented students, teacher corrections will not produce results that will live up to the expectations of many instructors". This implies that learners are put on the spot by teachers, and most of the time, the teachers' high expectations will not be fulfilled.

A more recent study on the usefulness of corrective feedback was reported by Truscott (1999), who suggested that oral correction does not improve or enhance learners' ability to speak grammatically, and therefore no corrective feedback should be given to learners. He claimed that there are obstacles and problems in the correction process, such as the difficulty of defining an error, knowing how learners are truly affected by the feedback, and discovering whether or not the correction will interrupt the communication flow in the classroom. Lyster et al. (1999: page number not specific), however, disagreed

with Truscott's conclusions, saying that "corrective feedback is pragmatically feasible, potentially effective, and, in some cases, necessary". Furthermore, Truscott (1999) used the term *oral grammar correction*, while Lyster et al. (1999) preferred to use the terms *feedback on error*, *corrective feedback*, or *error treatment*. This choice of terminology could imply that Truscott (1999) was convinced that teachers should *correct* and provide a cure for errors made by learners, when in fact feedback is meant to direct learners towards the correct utterances. Perhaps, then, Truscott's view of corrective feedback was somewhat black and white – he believed it was either meant to provide a guaranteed cure, or in the case of no sign of recovery, the cure had failed, and the feedback moves should be abandoned entirely. This idea of correcting errors being useless or harmful to language learning seems to be the other extreme in research on corrective feedback. While most researchers today focus on *how* errors are corrected, or even how errors *should be* corrected, some researchers still wish to know whether or not it is even valuable to bother with the whole process of giving corrective feedback.

One of the focus points in recent research has been on learners' interpretations and awareness of corrective feedback (concentrating mainly on *recasts,* i.e. teachers giving the correct answer in response to a student's error). Later in this chapter, studies on *how* errors are corrected will be presented, and relating to the findings of some previous studies, recasts will prove to be of particular interest, thus it is important to focus on recasts for a moment. Two recent studies (Nabel and Swain 2002; Carpenter et al. 2006) on recasts will be shortly reviewed here: one of them presents a case study about learner awareness of recasts, and the other focuses on learners' perceptions and interpretations of recasts. Additionally, a study by Mackey et al. (2000) on learners' perceptions of interactional feedback will be reviewed in brief, since it is also motivated by the idea of feedback being comprehensible and recognizable to learners.

Nabel and Swain (2002) investigated an adult EFL classroom in Japan by videotaping language lessons, and then interviewing students to find out about their awareness towards the feedback they were given during the lessons. The researchers focused on the recasts that the teachers used during the lessons, and they also concentrated on one student's awareness of these feedback moves, in particular. They found that the student they observed closely was able to recognize recasts in teacher feedback, and that although the recasts did not have immediate effect on learning, it was shown that the recasts had in fact facilitated learning in the longer run. Furthermore, the researchers felt that the recasts were most effective during group interaction, and that in a teacher-fronted situation, the students had a more difficult time interpreting the recasts. Nabel and Swain (2002:59) defined recasts as "opportunities for learning", stressing the point that learning occurs differently in any given situation, and that individual students react to feedback in various ways.

Many researchers have claimed that recasts are vague and perhaps confusing to learners, and thus Carpenter et al. (2006) wanted to examine learners' interpretations of these ambiguous feedback moves. The participants (N = 34) in the study were all over 18 years old from U.S. universities, and their task was to view videotapes which included a native English speaker providing feedback to students in the form of recasts. There were two test groups: one group saw a video with only the teacher feedback turns, and the other group saw the feedback turns as well as the students' utterances. After the participants had viewed the videotapes, they filled out a questionnaire about what they had witnessed. Carpenter et al. (2006) then coded the responses they received, and noted that the group that only saw the feedback moves, only 20% (30 out of 153) of the recasts were recognized correctly. The group that saw the feedback moves as well as the student utterances was more successful in recognizing the recasts, with 33% of the recasts identified (51 out of 153). Furthermore, even though the latter group did better in

recognizing the recasts, both groups seemed to misidentify recasts as *repetitions* (teacher repeating the student error) as frequently. Carpenter et al. (2006) concluded that in order to recognize recasts, students need to be provided with ample context, immediately surrounding the erroneous utterance.

Related to the two studies mentioned above, Mackey et al. (2000) investigated interactional feedback and learner perceptions about feedback moves in an adult ESL context and in an Italian as a foreign language (IFL) context. The researchers wanted to find out whether learners can in fact recognize feedback moves and the target of the feedback moves (i.e. what feedback is being provided about). The participants included 10 ESL students and 7 IFL learners, whose task was to view video-recorded material of the feedback situations they had experienced themselves during lessons, and then think back at their thoughts during the actually lesson as it was in progress. The results showed that learners were able to perceive lexical and phonological feedback most efficiently, whereas morphosyntactic feedback was not perceived as successfully. Furthermore, the researchers found that *recasts* were the most favoured feedback type given in response to morphosyntactic errors (75%). They conclude that recasts do not require much effort or participation from the learners' side, and thus "a learner might not repeat or rephrase as a result of the recast and may not even perceive recasts as feedback" (p. 491).

The field of corrective feedback, as can be seen from the studies mentioned above, is wide and has many aspects to investigate. The studies reviewed here bring new viewpoints and ideas into the research area. The focus of the present study is mainly on the various corrective feedback types that teachers use, and thus the following paragraphs will deal with the *how*-question mentioned earlier.

Research on corrective feedback – How are errors corrected?

Recent researchers who have focused on the *how*-question have examined the various corrective feedback types in detail and they have attempted to empirically prove how these types are used. A few of these corrective feedback studies will be reviewed here, and two important studies (Lyster and Ranta 1997; Panova and Lyster 2002) will be looked at below in more detail.

One of the few, if not only, empirical studies conducted in the Finnish context on corrective feedback, was conducted by Koskinen (1986). Her study concentrated on teachers' reactions to incorrect learner responses during EFL lessons, where pupils were all native speakers of Finnish. Koskinen's (1986) goal was to describe these different reactions, or corrective feedback moves. She found that the most commonly used reaction type was "gives the correct answer" (p. 29). This type of a reaction can be understood as a *recast*. Furthermore, Koskinen (1986) concluded that teachers should not only provide information of the existence and location of an error, they should also advice learners of the identity of the errors (i.e., their form and type).

In non-Finnish settings, the same topic of study has been investigated by examining different foreign language, second language, or immersion classrooms. Three studies report on the same area of corrective feedback, focusing on the different feedback moves as well as learner uptake, and the correlation between teacher feedback and learner uptake. These studies are shortly previewed below.

Lochtman (2002) examined foreign language classrooms in Belgium where the target language was German. Her interest was in the frequency and distribution of corrective feedback types, and additionally she investigated the learner uptake types. The study concentrated on how oral corrective

feedback functions within analytic foreign language classroom interaction. From the 600 minutes of recorded German lessons, 394 corrective feedback situations were discovered. The most popular feedback types were *recasts* with 30.5%, followed by *elicitations* with 30.2%. Lochtman (2002:278) wanted to stress the fact that 55.8% of all the feedback types were in fact "initiations to self-correct", which means that the flow of discourse was interrupted rather often to give learners an opportunity to correct themselves. Furthermore, the study showed that the highest rates of no learner uptake occurred after *recasts* and *explicit corrections* (52.5% and 52%, respectively). *Metalinguistic feedback* and *elicitations* were the most effective corrective feedback types for eliciting learner uptake (98% each).

A similar study to Lochtman's (2002) yielding comparable results was conducted by Tsang (2004) who studied non-native English lessons (grades 7 to 11, different classes) in Hong Kong, also concentrating on teacher feedback and learner uptake. The aim of the study was to show the correlation between corrective feedback and learner uptake – which feedback types result in learner repair. Of the 18 lessons that were transcribed and examined, Tsang (2004) found that the most preferred corrective feedback type used by the teachers was *recast* with 48% (N = 84). *Explicit correction* and *repetition* both received 14% (N = 24) of the total amount of feedback moves (N = 174). As for the correlation between feedback types and learner uptake, *elicitation* and *repetition* resulted in the highest rates of student-generated repairs (50% each), whereas *recasts* and *explicit corrections* received no repairs from the learners.

A recent study on teacher-student interaction investigating the effects of corrective feedback moves on learner uptake was conducted by Lyster and Mori (2006). They examined two different instructional settings: French immersion for English-speaking children in Quebec, Canada, and Japanese immersion for English-speaking children in the United States. All of the

observed classrooms were at the elementary-school level (mostly 4th and 5th grades). In the French immersion (FI) classrooms, the teachers provided feedback 635 times, and 259 times in the Japanese immersion (JI) classrooms. Of these feedback moves, *recasts* were used 54% (N = 345) of the time in the FI, and 65% (N = 169) in the JI setting. The researchers found that uptake moves were most frequently present in situations where the teachers *prompted* (akin to *elicitation*) an answer from the students, resulting in 62% (N = 215) and 30% (N = 59) in FI and JI classrooms, respectively. Surprisingly enough, 61% (N = 121) of the recast moves lead to learner uptake in the JI classrooms, whereas only 32% (N = 110) of recasts received any uptake in the FI setting.

These three non-Finnish studies all seem to lead to somewhat similar results, in that they all show a preference to *recasting* of learner errors by teachers, as well as a clear correlation between learner uptake and explicit feedback moves. In other words, feedback moves that do not provide the students with the correct answer (elicitation, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, and repetition) lead to more learner uptake and self-correction than feedback types that simply move on with the lesson (recasts, explicit correction). Learner uptake and repair will be discussed in more detail in Section 2.2.2.

A closer look at two important studies on corrective feedback

The fact of the matter is that corrective feedback does exist, and as the studies (above) prove it is being used by teachers all the time across different settings. The studies that attempt to discover the different corrective feedback moves also offer some guidelines and suggestions to teachers on how they should behave in their own classrooms. What is important, though, is the actual discovery of different feedback types, and the recognition that there are many ways of providing feedback. The two most valuable articles for the purpose of the present study, and for the discovery of these different

feedback techniques, are the studies by Lyster and Ranta (1997), and Panova and Lyster (2002) on corrective feedback and learner uptake. They offer the most recent, and the most concise (i.e. to the point and short), definitions for different types of corrective feedback moves. An overview of these two studies will end the discussion on corrective feedback in this section, first focusing on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, then Panova and Lyster's (2002), and finally combining the two by examining the differences and similarities of the two studies.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) observed four French immersion classrooms in the Montreal area. The participants of the study were students from grades 4-6, and their four teachers, who all had had at least a few years of previous experience of immersion classrooms. The scholars focused on error, feedback, and uptake in their observations and analysis. Their most notable findings on corrective feedback were that the teachers used six different feedback moves, of which the most frequent one was *recast* (correction without additional information). Recasts comprised 55% (N = 375) of the total of 686 feedback types, followed by *elicitation* ('milking' the answer from the students) with 14% (N = 94), and *clarification requests* with 11% (N = 73). The other feedback types (*metalinguistic feedback*, *explicit correction*, and *repetition*) were all used during less than 10% of the feedback situations (8, 7, and 5%, respectively). Recasts were, then, the most widely used technique when giving corrective feedback. Lyster and Ranta did not, however, examine the issue of what types of errors teachers tended to correct. Furthermore, they did not look into how the teachers made decisions on what to correct and why.

Five years after this study, Panova and Lyster (2002) conducted a similar one on corrective feedback and learner uptake. They focused on an adult ESL classroom in Montreal, Canada. The participants in the study had different backgrounds (most spoke Haitian Creole as their L1), and their age ranged

from 17 to 55 years. Their teacher was a female French/English bilingual, who had 13 years of experience in teaching ESL to adults. Panova and Lyster focused on learner error, teacher feedback, and learner uptake, and they categorized corrective feedback moves under seven different terms: recasts, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, repetition, translation, clarification request, and explicit correction. Panova and Lyster's quantitative results showed that the most frequently used feedback move was *recasts* with 55% (N = 226) out of the total of 412 moves, and a good second was *translations* with 22% (N = 91). This means that recasts and translations together accounted for 77% of all the feedback moves. Panova and Lyster concluded that the low proficiency level of the students may have been the reason why the teacher used recasts so frequently. In other words, the students were incapable of correcting their own errors, and thus the teacher had to move the lesson along and give the correct answer on most occasions.

The two studies reviewed above have some obvious similarities, but also some differences that should be mentioned. Both of the studies focused on the same area: corrective feedback and learner uptake. It can be said that one was a copy of the other, since their focus was exactly the same. Furthermore, both Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Panova and Lyster (2002) reached similar quantitative results, in that the most frequently used corrective feedback type was *recasting* of learner errors. Additionally, the two studies seemed to prove that the use of recasts and translations was due to the low language skill levels of the students, and as Lyster and Ranta (1997) concluded, it is easier for the teachers to simply recast learner errors, since it was a way of preventing a break in the communication flow.

The participants in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study were children (ages 10-12), whereas the participants in Panova and Lyster's (2002) study were all adults (or above 17 years old). Furthermore, another difference between the two studies was that Lyster and Ranta conducted their study in an

immersion setting, which was different from the ESL setting of Panova and Lyster's study. Additionally, even though the results seemed to show a similar pattern in the use of recasts, the latter study included seven types of corrective feedback, compared to the six used in Lyster and Ranta's study. The reason for this dissimilarity is in the amount of data found on one particular type of feedback move, i.e. *translations* (the teacher corrects a student by translating the unsolicited use of L1). In the earlier study, Lyster and Ranta did not find many occurrences of translations, and thus chose to merge translations with recasts. Panova and Lyster (2002:583), however, argued that there is a clear difference between the two feedback types, since one (recast) focuses on an ill-formed utterance of the L2, whereas the other (translation) is "a response to a well-formed utterance in the L1".

Both of these studies, regardless of their obvious dissimilarities (i.e. participants, grade level, feedback types), still came to the same conclusions and reached the same findings. This section has mainly focused on corrective feedback only, and thus the other side of the two studies (and other studies) has been neglected. The focus of corrective feedback is mostly on the teacher's actions, and thus it is also vital to take a look at the receiving end – the learners and *learner uptake*.

2.2.2 Previous research on learner uptake

Corrective feedback moves have admittedly been the dominant area of research in classroom interaction, and occasionally the learner perspective is neglected. Teacher talk and teachers' actions have been the main focus of corrective feedback, but recently the focus has been turned towards learners as well. In this section, the actual target of corrective feedback is given attention to – do learners really benefit from corrective feedback and is *learner uptake* evident in the classroom setting.

An expert in the field of corrective feedback and learner uptake, Lyster (2001) has conducted many studies to investigate corrective feedback and its effects on learners. In a fairly recent study, Lyster (2001) examined corrective feedback and its relationship with different error types. Furthermore, he wanted to discover the immediate effects of the feedback types by examining learner repair (uptake). The setting for his study included four French immersion classrooms (27 lessons) at the elementary level. The database comprised of audio-recordings and transcripts which were then closely examined to find the different error types, feedback moves, and learner repairs. The results indicated that of the 558 corrective feedback moves found in the data, only 33% (N = 186) led to learner repair within the immediate error treatment sequence. Furthermore, as Lyster's aim was to illustrate the connections between learner errors and teacher feedback, the results showed that 46% (N = 257) of all feedback moves followed grammatical errors. Below, in Table 1, the full list of the error types connected to feedback moves is shown.

Table 1. Number and percentage of Feedback Moves (N = 558) per Error type (in Lyster 2001:281)

Grammatical	257	(46%)
Lexical	133	(24%)
Phonological	104	(19%)
L1	64	(11%)

Additionally, 60% (N = 334) of the corrective feedback moves were recasts. Lyster concluded that grammatical and phonological errors seemed to provoke recasts more than lexical errors. Moreover, the results showed that learner repair occurred in the form of repetitions (the student repeats the correct answer) after recasts, and peer- and self-repairs followed *negotiation of form* (which includes the following feedback moves: *elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests,* and *repetition*).

Lyster and Ranta's (1997) and Panova and Lyster's (2002) studies were already reviewed above in section 2.2.1. Both of these studies also attempted to discover evidence of learner uptake. Lyster and Ranta's (1997) found that 55% of all the 686 feedback moves lead to learner uptake, and 27% of these feedback moves resulted in learner repair. The least likely feedback type to result in any kind of uptake was recasts with only 31% (N = 115) of all the error treatment sequences which involved recasts (N = 375). Only 18% (N = 66) of these uptake moves following recasts actually lead to learner repair. Furthermore, the most successful feedback type to lead to learner uptake was *elicitation* with a 100% (N = 94) success rate. Table 2, below, illustrates the different uptake moves following teacher feedback. The results prove that recasts are not a good technique to use, if teachers wish to engage students during lessons and achieve learner uptake.

Table 2. Uptake moves following corrective feedback types (in Lyster and Ranta 1997:54)

	Repair	**Needs Repair**	**No Uptake**
Recast (N = 375)	66 (18%)	49 (13%)	260 (69%)
Elicitation (N = 94)	43 (46%)	51 (54%)	0 -
Clarification request (N = 73)	20 (28%)	44 (60%)	9 (12%)
Metalinguistic feedback (N = 58)	26 (45%)	24 (41%)	8 (14%)
Explicit correction (N = 50)	18 (36%)	7 (14%)	25 (50%)
Repetition (N = 36)	11 (31%)	17 (47%)	8 (22%)

Panova and Lyster's (2002) study yielded similar results showing that learner uptake was clearly visible in 192 (47%) cases of the 412 corrective feedback sequences, but only 16% of all the feedback moves actually resulted in learner repair. Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, then, gave slightly more positive results, overall. Furthermore, Panova and Lyster (2002) also examined how different types of corrective feedback moves affected learner uptake. The participants (students) had the highest uptake rates (100%) when

the teacher gave more information about the error, or when the teacher tried to get the answer by elicitation or clarification requests. In Table 3, below, the learner uptake and repair moves following different types of feedback are presented. Comparable with the earlier study, the lowest rates of learner uptake occurred when the teacher used a recast (40% of the 226 recast moves) or explicitly corrected an error (33% of the 9 moves). Moreover, explicit corrections received no learner repair. Recasts and translations also obtained low rates of learner repair (13% and 4%, respectively).

Table 3. Learner uptake moves following different corrective feedback types (in Panova and Lyster 2002:587).

Feedback type	**Uptake moves**		**Repair moves**	
	N	**% of all feedback type**	**N**	**% of all feedback type**
Recast (N = 226)	90	40	29	13
Translation (N = 91)	19	21	4	4
Clarification request (N = 44)	44	100	10	23
Metalinguistic FB (N = 21)	15	71	6	29
Elicitation (N = 15)	15	100	11	73
Explicit correction (N = 9)	3	33	0	-
Repetition (N = 6)	6	100	5	83

Overall, the studies on learner uptake seem to indicate that some types of corrective feedback (e.g., *elicitation*) are more successful in provoking learner repair than others (e.g., *recasts*). The corrective feedback types that can be listed under *negotiation of form* (which motivate students to self-correct) seem to be more beneficial to students, since they lead to uptake and repair the most frequently.

Chapter 2 has attempted to uncover the theoretical issues related to errors, corrective feedback, and learner uptake. The following chapter will concentrate on the present study by providing information about the research design and practical issues.

3 RESEARCH DESIGN

This chapter introduces the research questions, data, participants, and the collection and processing of the present data in more detail. Furthermore, this chapter discusses the ideas and motivation behind the making of the present study: why this study is important, and why it was conducted.

3.1 Research questions

The main goal of the present study is to show the different ways in which a teacher can correct a student's oral error. This answers the *how*-question Hendrickson (1978) proposes – how should learner errors be corrected? Hendrickson goes on to claim that most teachers know nothing about the types of corrective feedback they provide. He claims that "most teacher training programs fail to prepare teachers to handle the variety of errors that occur inevitably in students' speech" (p. 392). This is a gap in teacher education that should not be disregarded as something unimportant, since, as Lyster et al. (1999: page number not found) point out, students may need corrective feedback when "they are not able to discover, through exposure alone, how their interlanguage differs from the L2".

Additionally, the present study aims to provide information about the connection between corrective feedback and learner uptake. Is it possible that some corrective feedback types lead to learner uptake while some types impede the possibility of a self-correction by the student? Can teachers' actions really affect students' learning? It can be claimed that some corrective feedback types give students the opportunity to find correct answers on their own, while some types implicitly correct an error and do not provide

additional information, nor give opportunities for learner uptake. Which corrective feedback types, then, actually lead to learner uptake?

Since there are numerous studies on the different corrective feedback types and learner uptake (Lyster and Ranta 1997; Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen 2001; Panova and Lyster 2002), the present study is hardly a pioneering study in this particular area. However, most of these studies have been conducted in immersion classrooms or adult ESL settings, and not many studies have focused on Finnish classrooms (where the L1 is Finnish). Apart from Koskinen's (1986) MA thesis, the Scandinavian classrooms have been neglected entirely, and thus the present study focuses on Finnish students and their teachers.

Furthermore, the participants in the previous studies have almost always been adults (or over 16 years old), and the data has been collected from the same grade level or from the same classroom. The present study, however, includes longitudinal aspects by concentrating on more than just one grade level of the same class. The present data will show developments or changes in corrective feedback from grades 3-6 (ages 9-12). In other words, the analysis will be based on data from the same classroom during four years of English lessons.

The present study aims to answer the following questions through qualitative and quantitative research evidence:

1. What types of corrective feedback moves do teachers use in an EFL classroom when correcting students' oral errors?
2. Does learner uptake occur and are there any visible signs of learner repair?
3. What types of corrective feedback moves result in learner uptake and furthermore in learner repair?

4. How does the use of corrective feedback types vary from one grade level to the other?

3.2 Data

The data for the present study includes transcribed classroom material from 48 EFL lessons, and it was video-taped and audio-recorded by Riikka Alanen (Centre for Applied Language Studies, University of Jyväskylä, Finland) between August 2000 and April 2004. The data were originally collected for a research project: "Situated metalinguistic awareness and foreign language learning" with Riikka Alanen as its project leader. The present study is not officially connected to Alanen's project, but it utilizes the same data and focuses on researching foreign language teaching, in a sense. (The use of the data has been approved by Alanen, and all of the names in the data have been changed or omitted entirely.)

Alanen et al. (2006) carried out several studies within the project, mentioned above. Their three main areas of interest were: (1) how children and others talk about language, (2) how English is used in the classroom, and (3) how English is learnt. The articles written by Alanen et al. (2006) are mostly based on a view of language learning and teaching as a dialogical event, where the dialogue occurs during classroom activities and different language exercises. The Finnish articles were published in the book *Kielen päällä – näkökulmia kieleen ja kielenkäyttöön*, released in 2006 by the Centre for Applied Language Studies in association with the University of Jyväskylä, Finland.

The transcripts of the lessons (provided by Alanen) were the primal basis for the analysis. The material includes 6 lessons from grade 3, 14 from grade 4, 12 from grade 5, and 16 from grade 6. Furthermore, the transcribed material was chosen for the present study, because it has specific details of the classroom events (i.e. it includes spoken language as well as non-verbal

actions that were transcribed according to the video-recordings), and because the material focuses on the same participants during a long period of time (from grades 3-6).

3.3 Participants

The participants were students of the same class (some new students appeared during the years or some students left the class, but overall the participants remained the same), and they were all students at a Finnish elementary school in Jyväskylä. The students were approximately 9 years old during the first recordings and 12 years old during the last lessons. They had not studied English before the first few recorded lessons (English was their A1-language, and Finnish was their mother tongue). Each recorded lesson includes half of the class, in other words, the same lesson is held twice with a different half of the group. The sizes of the groups varied from one lesson to another. There were four female teachers, two of which were substitute teachers and they only taught a few of the lessons. The teachers were all around 40 years of age.

3.4 Data processing

The 48 hours of video-recorded data has been transcribed by members of Alanen's project (transcript conventions in Appendix 1). For the purpose of the present study, the transcribed material was examined to find the different corrective feedback types and possible cases of learner uptake. Furthermore, these types were then categorized under six different terms: recasts, explicit correction, repetition, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, and elicitation. Additionally, the error types were specified in each feedback situation, as well as the different uptake moves, following the terms and definitions of Lyster and Ranta (1997), and Panova and Lyster (2002) (see sections 4.1 for detailed definitions of the terms). The three main focus points

(error types, feedback moves, and learner uptake) were then extracted from the data and analysed separately, and in connection to each other.

4 FINDINGS

The present study consists of qualitative and quantitative analysis, which will now be presented in the following two sections. The qualitative analysis will take a closer look at the terminology used in the study. The quantitative section (4.1) gives detailed results based on the present data.

4.1 Qualitative analysis

In this section, the key terms (defined in Section 2.1) are examined in greater detail. The qualitative analysis includes examples from the present data, which are divided into three subcategories: *error, corrective feedback* and *learner uptake* (in that order). In other words, the subcategories and the different instances of each term are defined and exemplified, and dissected to provide a deeper view of the terminology used in the present study.

4.1.1 Types of error

As was already established above (in section 2.1.1), the present study uses Chaudron's (1986) definitions of error. The error types found in the present data include: *phonological*, *grammatical*, and *lexical errors*, as well as the unsolicited *use of L1* (a student answers in the L1, when the utterance should have been formulated into the target language).

Phonological errors are of course errors in pronunciation, where the student clearly does not know the correct way of pronouncing a word or a phrase. The student cannot self-correct if a correct form is not first provided by the

teacher. In other words, here, a distinction between a *mistake* and an *error* is crucial, because a student might be familiar with a word and mistakenly mispronounce it, or then she/he is new to a word and cannot pronounce it without assistance. Instances of phonological errors can be found in examples 3, 4, and 7 below.

Grammatical errors include ill-formulated sentences, phrases, or words, which can be regarded as not following or applying the "native speaker norm" (a phrase used by Allwright and Bailey 1991:84). These are often clear errors, and not slips of the tongue or performance errors. Cases of grammatical errors can be found below in examples 5 and 6.

In the present study, all cases where the student does not either know a particular word, or uses the wrong word or phrase, are defined as *lexical errors*. The lexical errors, therefore, are concerned with the lexicon – a language user's knowledge of words, phrases and idioms. An instance of a lexical error can be found below in example 8. This example, however, is a conversation conducted in Finnish, and therefore a better example is required. Here is a lexical error found in the present data:

Example 1. (5th grade)

T: what language do they speak in Denmark?
T: in Finland we speak Finnish, in England they speak English, in Denmark they spe-eak, **names a student**
S: Denmark **(lexical error)**
T: no, Denmark is the country but the language is, **names another student** **(and so on…)**

In example 1, the student (a boy) does not know the correct word for the language they speak in Denmark, so instead of saying *Danish*, he uses an incorrect word *Denmark*. The teacher provides him with metalinguistic feedback, and explains how the student's answer was incorrect.

Occasionally a language learner resorts to his/her first language (L1), when the *use of L1* is not allowed. Even if the student is capable of producing a

certain utterance in English, the teacher might consider the use of L1 an error. Lyster and Ranta (1997:45) explain that "such uses of the L1 are not errors per se", but they were still interested in examining the instances where L1 was present. These types of errors were also included in the present study, since it is interesting to see how a teacher reacts to such instances. One of the categories of error that Chaudron (as quoted in Allwright and Bailey 1991) proposed included the teacher's judgement calls. In other words, if a teacher regards the use of L1 as erroneous, it is included in the instances of errors. Example 2 presents a case of an unsolicited use of Finnish during an English classroom event:

Example 2. (5th grade)

T: **names a student** can you tell the page please
S: yks kaks neljä **(use of L1)**
T: in English please **(elicitation)**
S: one hundred and forty, two, forty-four **laughter** ei ku **(lexical error)**
T: not forty-four but, **(elicitation)**
S: twenty-four **(uptake: self-repair)**
T: yes, one hundred and twenty-four. one two four

Here, the student (a boy) reads the page numbers in Finnish (*yks kaks neljä* = *one two four*), and then is asked by the teacher to reformulate his utterance and translate it into English. The student makes another mistake by mixing up the order of the numbers, but he notices his mistake and is able to self-correct.

4.1.2 Corrective feedback types

When consulting previous studies on the different types of corrective feedback, it is easy to get puzzled by the vast number of definitions and terminology used by the researches. As mentioned in Chapter 3, the terms and definitions used by Panova and Lyster (2002) and Lyster and Ranta (1997) are the most suitable for the purpose of the present study. It is beneficial, therefore, to take a closer look at the terminology used by the researchers mentioned above. Section 4.1.2 includes, thus, the categories or

types of corrective feedback, and examples and definitions are given of each type of feedback.

Panova and Lyster (2002) divide the corrective feedback moves into seven types: recast, translation, elicitation, clarification request, repetition, metalinguistic feedback, and explicit correction. The same types can be found in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, with the exception of translations, which are regarded as recasts. The terms that Panova and Lyster (2002) use in their study cover the main points and ideas behind the corrective feedback types, and they also convey the idea of many other terms used by others. Chaudron (1988), for instance, examined the types of "corrective reactions" in teacher-student discourse. He used terms such as: *provide* for situations where a teacher gives the correct answer (similar to *recast*), *emphasis* for occasions when a teacher stresses the incorrect answer by repeating it (similar to *repetition*), *explanation* for a correction that provides more information about the error (similar to *metalinguistic feedback* or *explicit correction*), and so on. Chaudron's terms, however, are somewhat mundane and they are not clearly defined. In other words, some of Chaudron's terms (e.g. *repetition with no change* and *repetition with no change and emphasis*) are lengthy and they could be categorized under one main term (such as *repetition*). [1]

The terms that Lyster and Ranta (1997) used in their study do not differ greatly from the terminology of Panova and Lyster (2002). The definitions are basically the same, and they have not changed over time (from 1997 to 2002). Lyster and Ranta (1997:48), however, examined *multiple feedback,* which is something that their followers seemed to have neglected entirely. Multiple feedback refers to the instances where a teacher combines two or more feedback types in one follow-up turn. The seven types of corrective feedback:

[1] It should be noted, however, that conciseness does not always provide the best possible definitions, and sometimes short terms might confuse the reader. In other words, Chaudron's ideas and terms offer a significant and important basis for the studies and researchers who modified his terminology.

recast, translation, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, explicit correction and repetition (as listed by Panova and Lyster 2002, and Lyster and Ranta 1997) are explained in greater detail in the following.

1) Recast

Panova and Lyster (2002:582) define *recast* as "an implicit corrective feedback move that reformulates or expands an ill-formed or incomplete utterance in an obtrusive way". This means that a teacher provides a student with the correct answer without trying to give more information about the error, or without trying to help a student produce the correct form. An example of recast found in the present data:

Example 3. (4th grade)

S: it's about a little red [raining] hood. **(phonological error)**
T: riding hood **(recast)**
S: riding hood **(uptake: repetition)**

In example 3, the female student (S) is reading a chapter from her textbook. She pronounces *riding hood* incorrectly, and the teacher (T) corrects her immediately by a recast. The teacher does not give any additional information about the error, but as is evident, the student understands what was wrong in her utterance, and she repairs her incorrect pronunciation by repeating after the teacher.

2) Translation

Another corrective feedback type (similar to recast) that does not require the student to find the correct answer is called *translation*. According to Panova and Lyster (2002) translations occur, when a teacher hears a student use her/his L1 (first language), and if the use of L1 is not permitted, the teacher will translate the student's utterance. Lyster and Ranta (1997) treat translations as recasts, since their function and definition is mostly the same, however, as there were many translation-recasts in Panova and Lyster's (2002) study, they chose to list it as a separate category. There were no clear

examples of translation in the present data, since none of the student utterances that were in the L1 received a translation from the teacher, or the instances that did include the use of L1 were not unsolicited student responses or erroneous utterances.

3) Clarification request

There are situations, where the teacher does not understand a student's utterance, and therefore a *clarification request* is in order. Lyster and Ranta (1997:47) define a clarification request as a way to "indicate to students either that their utterance has been misunderstood by the teacher or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or a reformulation is required". In the present data, there were questions made by the teacher that seemed to seek for clarification, but they were in fact instances, where the teacher could not hear what the student said – the student did not commit an error, therefore there was no need for feedback, and the teacher's questions (such as *Come again*, or *What did you say?*) were merely meant to elicit a repetition so that the teacher could understand what the students were saying. Example 4 shows an occurrence of a clarification request found in the present data:

Example 4. (5th grade)

T: A-and, subjects. **names a student**
S: I can't stand, ehm [moter tongue]. **(phonological error)**
T: Pardon? **(clarification request)**
S: [mother tongue] **(phonological error)**
T: mother tongue. Mm. Finnish. **(recast)**

In example 4, there is a case of *multiple feedback*, which refers to "combinations of more than one type of feedback in one teacher turn" (Lyster and Ranta, 1997:48). The teacher tries to elicit a repair for the student's (a boy) phonological error, but her clarification request leads to the repetition of the same error. Finally, the teacher uses a recast and shows the student the correct way of pronouncing the word *mother*.

4) Metalinguistic feedback

Metalinguistic feedback is a feedback type that "contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance" (Lyster and Ranta, 1997:47). The difference between such feedback types as *recasts*, *translations* and *metalinguistic feedback* is that in the latter, the teacher does not explicitly provide the student with the accurate form. A metalinguistic feedback move is demonstrated in example 5:

Example 5. (5th grade)

T: entäs seuraava, mitä sanot **names a student**
S1: what you say **(grammatical error)**
T: mm, unohtu se apuverbi sieltä **names another student** **(metalinguistic feedback)**
S2: what DO you say **(uptake: peer repair)**
T: aivan. sitä do sanaa ei saa unohtaa vaikka täällä oliski kysymyssana ennen edessä. what do you say.

In example 5, the first student (a boy, S1) makes a grammatical error when trying to formulate the sentence: *what do you say*. The teacher corrects the boy by explaining what he said incorrectly. She says: *unohtu se apuveribi sieltä* ("you forgot the auxiliary verb from there"), which is a clear signal to the student that his utterance is incorrect and needs reformulation. Furthermore, since the teacher explains in more detail where (location of the error) and how the error was committed by using grammar terms, she is providing the student with metalinguistic information. The purpose of metalinguistic feedback is to help the student find the error her/himself and correct it, and ideally this type of feedback leads to a self-repair. In this case, however, the student is not able to correct himself, but instead, another male student (S2) corrects the sentence by adding the missing auxiliary verb "do". Finally, after the peer-repair, the teacher once more points out the important grammatical issues by explaining that the student should not forget the auxiliary verb (*sitä do sanaa ei saa unohtaa*) even though there is a question word in front of the sentence, and then she repeats the correct utterance once more.

5) Elicitation

An elicitation is similar to metalinguistic feedback in that it also encourages the student to self-correct. Lyster and Ranta (1997:48) found at least three types of elicitation: (1) a teacher pauses in order to let the student finish the utterance, (2) the teacher asks questions that cannot lead to a yes/no–answer, (3) the teacher clearly asks for the student to reconstruct her/his utterance. Example 6 shows a case of the first type of elicitation (pausing):

Example 6. (4th grade)

T: saatko yhdistettyä näistä. minä lasken mutta minä en lennä. **names a a student**
S: I count but I am not flying. **(grammatical error)**
T: I d- **(elicitation)**
S: I do count **(self-repair)**
T: yes, very good

In this example, the student (a boy) gives an answer that the teacher regards as erroneous, and thus receives corrective feedback. The teacher does not give the correct answer, but instead she tries to get the student to self-correct by providing the first sound of the verb that was missing. The teacher's feedback move then leads to a self-repair by the student.

The second type of elicitation, where a teacher asks questions in order to get an answer from a student, can be found in example 7:

Example 7. (5th grade)

T: vaikka pojasta. Matti on kaveri ni hänellä on kissa. siitä 'hänellä on kissa'. **names a student**
S: he have a cat **(grammatical error)**
T: he, ja sitten siinä oli se, ((pause)) mikä muoto?, **repeats the student's name** **(elicitation)**
S: has **(self-repair)**
T: has. noin.

Here, in example 7, a male student is asked to translate the Finnish sentence *hänellä on kissa* ("he has a cat") into English. The student makes a grammatical error by saying *he have* instead of the correct singular form of the verb: *he has*. The teacher, then, asks the student *mikä muoto* ("what form"),

and allows the same male student to self-correct. The second type of elicitation is thus meant to elicit an answer, but it does not permit the student to give a yes/no-answer only.

The third type of elicitation involves a teacher asking a student to reformulate her/his utterance. In example 8, there is an example of a teacher requesting a reformulation:

Example 8. (5th grade)

T: eh, what food do you like? **names a student**
S: hamburgers **(lexical error)**
T: sano koko lause. I- **(elicitation)**
S: I like hamburgers **(self-repair)**
T: hm. I like (xxx)

In this example, the teacher is asking students about their favourite food, and a female student answers: *hamburgers*. The answer is partially correct, but the teacher wants the student to reformulate her answer, since it lacks a full sentence. The teacher elicits the correct answer by asking the student to *sano koko lause* ("say the entire sentence"). The student is then able to self-correct by providing the full sentence.

6) Explicit correction

When a teacher gives the correct answer and furthermore provides the student with a clear indication that his/her utterance was incorrect, the teacher uses *explicit correction*. Below is an example of an explicit correction move from the present data:

Example 9. (4th grade)

T: who wants to continue? **names 2 students** S1 and S2, jatketaan tästä eteen päin.
S: I [knov] a good story- **(phonological error)**
T: -otetaas toi v[knov] sana. se äännetään [nou], koota ei lausuta ollenkaan I [nou] a good story **(explicit correction)**
S: I [nou] a good story **(uptake: repetition)**

In example 9, the students are again reading a chapter in their textbooks, and the teacher interrupts a student (a girl) when she mispronounces a word. The teacher not only gives the correct answer, but she also explains how the utterance was incorrect. The student then repairs herself by repeating the utterance according to the teacher's model.

7) Repetition

Another form of corrective feedback that is explicit and does not provide the student with the correct answer is *repetition.* According to Panova and Lyster (2002:584), "in a repetition, the teacher repeats the ill-formed part of the student's utterance", and in doing so, the student should understand the location and nature of the error, and be able to self-correct. Example 10 shows a repetition move:

Example 10. (6th grade)

S: karinan mielest ei ku, karina on paras luokaltaan tämä tietokoneen käyttäjä ja joshin mielestä hän on pahin, **(lexical error)**
T: pahin? **(repetition)**
S: ei, huonoin. **shakes head** **(uptake: self-repair)**
T: huonoin, joo.

In this situation, the student (a girl) is translating a part of a chapter in her textbook. She makes a mistake in translating the word *pahin* ("worst") from English to Finnish, and the error is repeated by the teacher. The student then realises where the mistake was located at, and she is able to correct herself. The teacher finally repeats the correct answer and approves of the self-correction.

4.1.3 Learner uptake

As was mentioned in Chapter 2, there are two types of uptake: "(a) uptake that results in "repair" of the error on which the feedback focused and (b) uptake that results in an utterance that still needs repair (coded as "needs-repair")" (Lyster and Ranta 1997:49). Because the present data showed many

instances of *repair* that involved a peer (the student who made the error did not self-correct), it is important to make a distinction between self- and peer-repair, as well as the different types of *needs-repair* uptake moves.

Lyster and Ranta (1997:50) listed four types of moves that are considered *repair*: repetition, incorporation, self-repair, and peer-repair. These will be coded as *repair* in the following sections. Additionally, these uptake types will be explained in more detail below (using Lyster and Ranta's definitions), and examples from the data will be given.

1) Repetition

Repetition occurs when a student repeats the correct form given by the teacher in response to an incorrect answer from the student. Below is an example from the present data:

Example 11. (5th grade)

S: **reads from the book** in the old days it was a magic night – a night, when, [vötes] **mispronounces 'witches'** **(phonological error)**
T: witches **corrects the student's pronunciation** **(recast)**
S: witches [woked]. the earth **mispronounces 'walked'** **(uptake: repetition)**

In example 11, a female student is reading a chapter from her textbook, and she mispronounces the word *witches*. The teacher recasts the incorrect pronunciation by giving the correct model which the student then repeats correctly and continues reading the chapter. *Repetition* is, thus, a way of confirming what the teacher has said and perhaps even learning from the error, even though there is no *self-repair* (discussed below).

2) Incorporation

Incorporation is very similar to a repetition in that they both include the student repeating the correct form given by the teacher. What is dissimilar, though, is that incorporation occurs, when a student repeats the correct form,

and then includes that correct form into a longer self-produced utterance. Example 12 contains a case of incorporation:

Example 12. (5th grade):

T: can I have the menu please **expects the student to repeat the sentence**
S: (ok, please) **(lexical error)**
T: sano se **(elicitation)**
S: can I have (milk) **(lexical error)**
T: the menu ensiks sä pyydät /ruokalistan/ **(explicit correction)**
S: /can I have menu/ **(uptake: incorporation)**

Here, a female student is expected to say the sentence: *Can I have the menu please?* The teacher gives the correct example, and waits for the student to repeat the sentence, but she misunderstands the teacher's meaning, and gives an incorrect answer. When asked to *sano se* ("say it") again, the student continues with yet another wrong answer, to which the teacher gives the correct answer again by explicitly pointing out where the error is located. The teacher tells the student to *ensiks sä pyydät ruokalistan* ("first ask for the menu"). Finally the student incorporates the correct word *menu* into the whole sentence.

3) Self-repair

As the term indicates, *self-repair* is the act of a student repairing her/his own error. This type of learner uptake occurs only after feedback moves that do not already provide the correct answer. Example 13 shows an instance of self-repair:

Example 13. (5th grade):

T: so can you tell the page please
S: sata kaks neljä **(Use of L1)**
T: in English please **(elicitation)**
S: one hundred and twenty-four **(uptake: self-repair)**
T: yes. one hundred and twenty-four one two four

In this example, a male student is asked to give a certain page number. He answers the teacher in Finnish by saying *sata kaks neljä* (*hundred two four*).

This wrongful use of L1, then, receives an elicitation from the teacher, to which the student responses with a repair move.

4) Peer-repair

Opposite to self-repair, *peer-repair* occurs when a student corrects another student's error after a teacher has provided feedback for the initial error. In example 14, a case of peer-repair can be observed:

Example 14. (6th grade)

T: more slowly hitaaMMIN. eli mikä on hitaasti? **names a student**
S1: slow **(grammatical error)**
T: se on hidas. hitaaSTI, eh, **names another student** **(elicitation)**
S2: slowly **(uptake: peer-repair)**
T: joo. slowly hitaasti, more slowly hitaammin.

Here, the male student (S1) answers the teacher's question incorrectly, by giving the wrong grammatical form of the word *hitaasti* ("slowly"). The teacher tries to elicit the correct answer from another student by raising her tone of voice and pausing for a moment. A female student (S2) then peer-repairs and gives the correct answer.

5) Needs-repair

Additionally, there are six types of utterances that can be seen as *needs-repair*. These uptake moves usually lead to additional feedback from the teacher, and thus the IRF-sequence goes beyond the follow-up move. The needs-repair moves are as follows: (1) a student can simply *acknowledge* her/his error by saying "yes", (2) a student can repeat the *same error,* (3) a student responses with a *different error,* (4) a student avoids the teacher's intentions and goes *off target*, (5) a student *hesitates* in response to the feedback, and (6) a student *partially repairs* the initial error (Lyster and Ranta 1997:50-51). Examples of the first, second, third, and fourth needs-repair moves are presented below. The last two types of needs-repair, *hesitation* and *partial repair*, could not be found in the present data.

An example of a student simply *acknowledging* her/his error can be seen below (names have been changed):

Example 15. (4th grade)

T: whose pencil case is this? (…) **nods at a student, lets S answer**
S: John **(grammatical error)**
T: John's **(recast)**
S: **looks at the teacher and nods** mmm. **(acknowledgement)**
T: yes. that's right. okay

In this example, the teacher wants the students to use the genitive form of people's names, and she is going around the classroom, picking up items from the desks of the students. She asks: *Whose pencil case is this*? A male student answers her incorrectly by saying *John*. The teacher then recasts this error by giving the correct answer *John's*, to which the student nods and says *mmm* as an acknowledgement.

An answer requires further repair when a student repeats the *same error* after the teacher has already once provided corrective feedback on the first error. An instance of this particular needs-repair move is show in example 16:

Example 16. (4th grade)

T: number two ((pause)) oliks tää vaikee? **names a student**
S: where **(lexical error)**
T: the whole, question please, **(elicitation)**
S: where **(same error)**
T: KOKO. KYSYMYS. **(elicitation)**
S: where are you from **(self-repair)**
T: yes

Here, in example 16, the teacher is going through an exercise that requires the students to fill in the correct question words, and she has requested the students earlier to respond with full sentences. A male student answers her by giving only a partial answer: *where*. The teacher asks the student to say the whole question, but the student repeats his initial error again. After this, the teacher switches her language from English to Finnish, and she stresses the words *koko kysymys* ("whole question"). The student finally realises what the teacher is after, and replies with the correct answer: *where are you from*.

An example of the third and fourth types of needs-repair moves can be seen above in example 12, where a female student is supposed to repeat the teacher's example sentence, but she misinterprets the teacher's intentions, and thus replies with a *different error*. Additionally, the student goes *off target* by continuing the conversation and avoiding the teacher's initial intentions. Another example of the third type of needs-repair move (different error) is presented below in example 17:

Example 17. (5th grade)

T: miten sä sanot miksi Bill nauraa? **names a student**
S1: why Bill laugh **(grammatical error)**
T: sä unohdit sen apuverbin **(metalinguistic feedback)**
S1: why do, why do Bill laugh **(different error: grammatical)**
T: do ei kelpaa täällä on nimenomaan tää Bill **names another student**
(metalinguistic feedback)
S2: why does Bill laugh **(peer-repair)**
T: very good, why does Bill laugh

In example 17, a male student is supposed to translate the Finnish sentence: *Miksi Bill nauraa?* ("Why does Bill laugh?"). He fails to translate the sentence correctly, and replies with *why Bill laugh*, which lacks the auxiliary verb *do* (and more specifically, the sentence lacks the correct form of the auxiliary verb – *does*). The teacher gives metalinguistic feedback by explaining that the student forgot the auxiliary verb. The student attempts to self-correct, but fails by replying with a different error *why do Bill laugh* instead of the correct form *why does Bill laugh*. Another male student repairs the sentence after the teacher gives metalinguistic feedback the second time.

This section has included the qualitative analysis part of the present study by going into a detailed examination of three areas: different types of error, corrective feedback techniques, and learner uptake moves. In the following section, the quantitative analysis of the present data will show evidence of the three areas mentioned above.

4.2 Quantitative analysis

Chapter 3 listed the four research questions of the present study, of which Section 4.1 already gave answers to the first two questions concerning the different feedback types and learner uptake that were found in the data. In this section, the focus is on the quantitative findings of the present study: the distribution of errors and feedback types, as well as on the connection between feedback types and learner uptake, and the distribution of feedback types throughout the grades.

4.2.1 Errors and feedback types

As was mentioned in Section 2.1 (and again in 4.1), the present study uses Chaudron's (1986) definitions of error, which include the ideas of an error being any incorrect form according to linguistic norms, and any indication from the teacher of an erroneous utterance. Following these definitions, four different types of error were found in the present data. The error types were categorized under *lexical, grammatical, phonological* or *unsolicited use of L1*. Table 4 shows the distribution of error types found in the present data:

Table 4. Distribution of error types

Error types	**Total**	**% of all**
Lexical	106	45
Grammatical	69	30
Phonological	47	20
Use of L1	11	5
Total	233	100

In the present data, there were 233 erroneous student utterances in total. Of the 233 instances, 45% (N = 106) were lexical errors, 30% (N = 69) grammatical errors, and 20% (N = 47) phonological errors. Only 5% (N = 11) of the total number of errors were unsolicited uses of L1. The majority of the

errors, then, were lexical errors that included students choosing incorrect words, or terms, words and phrases that the teachers felt were incorrect at any given time.

In Section 4.1, the different corrective feedback types were defined in detail, and examples of them were isolated from the present data. In the following, the quantitative results will be presented: first focusing on the distribution of the feedback types, and then in later sections, the feedback types are compared to the learner uptake moves, and additionally the longitudinal aspects of the present study are presented by collecting the distribution of feedback types across grade levels. Table 5 displays the distribution of the different corrective feedback types found in the data:

Table 5. Distribution of corrective feedback (CF) types

CF types	**Total**	% **of all**
Recast	81	34.7
Elicitation	54	23.2
Metaliguistic feedback	52	22.3
Explicit correction	43	18.5
Clarification request	2	0.9
Repetition	1	0.4
Total	233	100

The most frequently used corrective feedback type (in the entire data) was recast, with 34.7% (N = 81) of the total 233 feedback turns, followed by elicitation with 23.2% (N = 54), metalinguistic feedback 22.3% (N = 52), and explicit correction 18.5% (N = 43). Clarification request and repetition received only 0.9% (N = 2) and 0.4% (N = 1), respectively. It is notable that the "negotiation of form" feedback types that help the learner to self-correct (elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, and repetition) amounted to 47% (N = 109) of all of the feedback turns, whereas feedback

types that do not give opportunities for learner repair (recast, explicit correction) added up to 53% (N = 124).

4.2.2 Feedback types and learner uptake – a connection

The third research question of the present study, mentioned in section 3.1, concentrated on the connection between corrective feedback types and learner uptake. Do some feedback types bring about more learner uptake than others? This issue is discussed in the present section, showing evidence found in the data. The uptake moves are categorised as: *repair (*self-repair and peer-repair), *needs-repair* (in cases where there is no self- or peer-repair but the student still shows signs of acknowledging the error), and *no uptake* (when there are no signs of repair). Table 6 shows the connection between different corrective feedback types and learner uptake:

Table 6. Connection between CF types and learner uptake

Learner Uptake:	**Repair**		**Needs-repair**		**No uptake**		**Total**
CF types:	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**
Recast	11	14	4	5	66	81	81
Elicitation	53	98	1	2	0	-	54
Metaliguistic feedback	50	96	1	2	1	2	52
Explicit correction	7	16	0	-	36	84	43
Clarification request	0	-	2	100	0	-	2
Repetition	1	100	0	-	0	-	1
Total	122	52	8	4	103	44	233

Of all of the feedback moves (N = 233), 56% (N = 130) led to learner uptake, of which 122 were repair moves. No uptake was present in 44% (N = 103) of all the feedback instances. The least productive corrective feedback moves to generate learner uptake of any sort were recasts and explicit corrections. Of

the total of 81 recast moves, 66 (81%) led to no learner uptake of any sort, and in total 15 (19%) of the recasts resulted in repair or needs-repair. Correspondingly, 84% (N=36) of all of the explicit corrections (N=54) resulted in no learner uptake, and only 16% (N=7) led to some sort of uptake or repair.

Moreover, the most effective corrective feedback moves to contribute to learner uptake were elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, and repetition. The 54 elicitation moves found in the data all resulted in learner uptake, of which 98% (N=53) showed signs of learner repair, and 2% (N=1) led to needs-repair. Similarly, metalinguistic feedback received significant signs of learner repair with 96% (N=50) of all the 52 instances leading to repair, and 2% (N=1) resulting in needs-repair. Only 2% (N=1) of the metalinguistic feedback moves led to no uptake. Furthermore, the few instances of clarification requests (N=2) and repetition (N=1) all led to 100% learner uptake, either in the form or repair or needs-repair.

4.2.3 Feedback types across grades

Additionally to errors, corrective feedback types, and learner uptake, the present study is also interested in a longitudinal aspect of corrective feedback. Two questions will now be looked at concerning the connection between grades and different feedback types. Like in the previous studies, it will be examined if students in lower grades are less capable of correcting themselves, because of their lack of language skills, and thus will teachers use recasts and explicit corrections often. Furthermore, it will be investigated if teachers will allow the students in the upper grades to correct themselves. In other words, the students in grades 5 and 6 have studied English longer, and thus they might be able to self-correct more often than in grades 3 and 4. However, the data does not provide information about the level of language skills of the students, and thus these issues are merely to show implications

for a longitudinal study. The longitudinal aspect, then, is only an overview or an outline of the findings based on the data. The distribution of different corrective feedback types across the grade can be found in Table 7:

Table 7. Distribution of corrective feedback types across grades

Grade:	**3rd**		**4th**		**5th**		**6th**		**Total**
CF types:	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**
Recast	2	29	20	29	33	39	26	37	81
Elicitation	2	29	13	19	24	29	15	21	54
Metalinguistic Feedback	3	43	26	37	14	17	9	13	50
Explicit Correction	0	-	11	15	12	14	20	28	45
Clarification Request	0	-	0	-	2	2	0	-	2
Repetition	0	-	0	-	0	-	1	1	1
Total	7	3	70	30	84	36	71	31	233

The results reveal that the feedback types that promote self-repair and negotiation of form (elicitation and metalinguistic feedback) received high percentages in grades 3 and 4 (72% and 56%, respectively). This finding suggests that teachers were actually encouraging students to self-repair in the lower grades, despite the lack of skills. Furthermore, the preferred feedback type used in the upper grades (5th and 6th) was recast. It should be noted, though, that the feedback types that endorse self-correction amounted to 48% of all the feedback moves in the 5th grade, which is almost half of all the feedback moves. In the 6th grade, however, these 'negotiation of form' moves only comprised 35% of the entire number of feedback moves. Recasts and explicit corrections were the favoured feedback type in the 6th grade, suggesting that the teacher wished to focus on keeping the communication flow intact and simply recast the errors made by the students.

5 DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the various ways of providing corrective feedback on learners' oral errors in an EFL classroom. Additionally, the focus was on learner uptake and its connection to the corrective feedback moves. The qualitative and quantitative findings of the study permit the following responses to the research questions (discussed in more detail below):

(1) What types of corrective feedback moves do teachers use in an EFL classroom when correcting students' oral errors? The findings showed that the teachers used six different corrective feedback moves: recasts (34.7%), elicitation (23.2%), metalinguistic feedback (22.3%), explicit correction (18.5%), clarification request (0.9%), and repetition (0.4%). Recasts were the most widely used way of providing feedback, although not greatly dominant compared to elicitation and metalinguistic feedback.

(2) Does learner uptake occur and are there any visible signs of learner repair? There were clear signs of learner repair found in the data. The qualitative analysis showed examples of learner repair moves: self-repair, peer-repair, incorporation, and repetition.

(3) What types of corrective feedback moves result in learner uptake and furthermore in learner repair? Repetition moves resulted in 100% learner repair, while other feedback moves to score high were elicitation with a 98% and metalinguistic feedback with a 96% success rate. The lowest scores were for recasts with only 14% of repair, and explicit correction with 16%.

(4) How does the use of corrective feedback types vary from one grade level to the other? The most favoured feedback type in the lower grades (3 and 4) was metalinguistic feedback, whereas in the upper grades (5 and 6) recasts were the most dominant feedback technique used.

The four research questions will now be looked at in greater detail. Discussion will include findings from the present data as well as the findings from previous studies. Each research question will be set against the background of the field of corrective feedback as a whole, focusing on the significant studies conducted in this area. The first part of this chapter is divided into four parts in Section 5.1, corresponding to the list of the research questions mentioned above. In Section 5.2, some practical implications will be discussed.

5.1 Summary of the findings

1) Corrective feedback moves

The corrective feedback moves found in the present data as well as in the previous studies included: recast, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction, clarification request, and repetition. A seventh type of feedback move, translation, was present in some of the previous studies (e.g., Panova and Lyster 2002), but not in the present one. In the present study, the types of learner errors were also examined and the quantitative results showed that lexical errors were the most common error. The issues of which errors were most commonly corrected, and which feedback type was assigned to which error, have not been addressed in the present study. In this section, the different corrective feedback types will be discussed, and the results of the present study will be compared with the findings of the previous studies.

Recasts were the most frequently used feedback type across the previous studies (Fanselow 1977; Koskinen 1986; Lyster and Ranta 1997; Mackey et al. 2000; Lochtman 2002; Panova and Lyster 2002; Tsang 2004; Lyster and Mori 2006), and the present study backed those results up by showing a clear preference for the use of recasting of learner errors. In the present study, recasts were used 34.7% (N = 81) of the time, whereas in Lyster and Ranta (1997) that percentage was 55% (N = 375). Similarly, in Panova and Lyster

(2002), recasts were used 55% (N = 226) of the time. The previous studies show that teachers prefer to use recasts, and even though the findings of the present study show no strong preference for any feedback type, recasts were still the dominant feedback move.

It should be noted that in some studies, where the majority of the corrective feedback moves included recasts, the sum of the negotiation of form moves (elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, and repetition) was greater than the number of recast moves. In other words, the feedback moves that initiate self-repair were used more often than the reformulative techniques (recast, translation, and explicit correction). In the present study, the feedback moves that did not give opportunities for learner repair amounted to 53.2% of all of the corrective feedback moves, whereas the negotiation of form type of feedback moves received 46.8% of the total number of error treatment sequences. Furthermore, in Lochtman (2002), 55.8% of all feedback moves were of the type that prompted students to self-repair. However, as already mentioned above, Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Panova and Lyster (2002) found out that recasting was clearly the preferred feedback technique, and in Panova and Lyster (2002) a surprisingly high percentage of 77% of the feedback moves included recasts and translations.

The significant difference between the present study and the previous corrective feedback studies is that the earlier studies were mostly conducted in adult ESL or immersion classrooms, whereas the present study concentrated on children in an EFL setting. This difference in the ages of the participants might create dissimilarities in results, since the teachers need to adjust their teaching methods according to the students. Different language skills might influence the way teachers correct students' oral errors. Additionally, immersion programs can be more intense, and perhaps they offer more extensive learning opportunities than normal EFL classrooms that only have lessons for a few hours per week. Furthermore, in the previous

studies, the target languages as well as the L1 of the participants varied considerably. Many of the studies were conducted in French immersion classrooms, or the participants had dissimilar backgrounds – some of the adult classrooms included students from different countries and from various language backgrounds, such as in Panova and Lyster's (2002) study, where the participants came from Haitian, French, Portuguese, and Spanish backgrounds. In the present study, however, all the participants had similar language experiences and all of them were native Finnish speakers.

2) Signs of learner uptake

In the present study, there were clear signs of learner uptake, either in the form of self-repair, peer-repair, incorporation, repetition, or needs-repair. Furthermore, several types of needs-repair moves were recognized and found in the present data, including acknowledgement of error, repeating the same error, responding with a different error, and going off target. In the present section, the differences and similarities of the previous and the present learner uptake studies will be examined. The actual connection between corrective feedback moves and learner uptake will be discussed later.

It can be argued that in classrooms where students have had more language experience, learner uptake is more frequent simply because they are more skilled and more often able to self-correct. In the present study, results showed that 56% (N = 130) of all the feedback moves (N = 233) generated learner uptake, and an astonishing 52% (N = 122) resulted in student repair (either self-repair or peer-repair). Similarly, in Lyster and Mori (2006), 76% of all the feedback moves in the Japanese immersion and 55% in the French immersion setting resulted in learner uptake. Furthermore, Lyster and Ranta (1997) conducted their study in a French immersion setting, where the students were from varying backgrounds, some excelling in their French language skills, since the language they spoke at home was French as well.

The researchers found that of all the feedback moves provided by the teachers, 55% led to learner uptake of some kind, but only 27% of all the feedback turns resulted in learner repair. Additionally, in Panova and Lyster's (2002:580) study the students were rated to be at a beginner level in language skills, because of "their limited oral and written production abilities with respect to vocabulary and sentence structure". Similarly to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) findings, the results showed that 47% of all teacher feedback moves led to some sort of student uptake, but only third of the learner uptake included repair moves. These two studies yielded similar results, although their participants were from dissimilar language backgrounds and language skill levels. The present study, thus, has a high percentage of learner uptake and learner repair compared to some of the previous studies, and most of the previous studies show that learner uptake is usually present at least in half of the feedback situations.

3) Connection between corrective feedback types and learner uptake

As was mentioned in Chapter 2, feedback moves can either promote learner repair or then hinder it. In this section, the different corrective feedback types will be looked at more closely from the viewpoint of learner uptake and how well the feedback moves generate uptake. First, the focus will be on the least successful feedback types, and then on the feedback moves that usually lead to some sort of learner uptake.

In the present study, recasts and explicit corrections generated learner uptake rather unsuccessfully, with only 19% of recasts and 16% of explicit corrections leading to uptake of any kind. Furthermore, Lyster and Ranta (1997) discovered that 31% of the recast moves led to uptake, and only 18% resulted in repair. Explicit corrections were also rather ineffective in generating learner uptake, since only half of all the explicit correction moves led to uptake of some sort. Correspondingly, in Panova and Lyster (2002) repair moves followed recasts only 13% of the time, and in total, recasts

resulted in 40% of uptake of any sort. Explicit corrections showed no signs of learner repair. Moreover, Lyster and Mori (2006) examined two immersion settings, and found that recasts generated learner uptake more often in the Japanese immersion classrooms (61%) than in the French immersion setting (32%). These results suggest that in order for students to be able to self-correct, teachers should perhaps avoid using recasts and explicit corrections. However, the use of various techniques is always dependent upon the purpose of the lesson – during a communicative activity in a classroom, it might be beneficial to simply recast a learner error in order to move along with the lesson.

The negotiation of form type of feedback moves are usually rather successful in regards to generating learner uptake. As was discovered from the findings of the present study, these feedback moves resulted in learner uptake almost all the time. For example, elicitation moves led to repair 98% and metalinguistic feedback 96% of the time. In both Lyster and Ranta's (1997) and Panova and Lyster's (2002) studies, elicitation resulted in 100% learner uptake, with 46% and 73% repair rates, respectively. However, metalinguistic feedback was not as successful in these two studies as it was in the present study, resulting in repair less than 30% of the time in both studies.

4) Grades and corrective feedback

Some questions were asked and issues raised (in Section 4.2.3) about the connection between grades and the types of corrective feedback that the teachers give: does students' age or level of English knowledge affect the way teachers give feedback, and how might the feedback types be used differently from one grade level to the other? Two points were discussed: Firstly, in the lower grades (3 and 4), students are unable to self-correct. This might lead to a greater use of recasts. Secondly, older students (grades 5 and 6) have more language knowledge and they are able to self-correct.

Additionally, teachers might use recasts in the upper grades to keep the communication flow going (emphasis on spoken communication skills). It is notable, however, that the present study cannot make any significant generalizations about the grades and their connection to the use of corrective feedback moves by teachers, since no information was available on the students' the actual language skills. The participants of the present study were not closely examined, nor is there any evidence of their language competencies.

The previous studies have not investigated corrective feedback longitudinally, and thus it was interesting to see if the feedback techniques change as the students get older. The results of the present study showed that recasts were slightly more favoured in the 5th and 6th grades than during the 3rd and 4th years. Furthermore, the use of metalinguistic feedback changed somewhat significantly, from 43% in the 3rd grade to 13% of all the feedback moves in the 6th grade. Elicitation remained almost the same throughout all the grades. Furthermore, if profiles for the teachers in different grades had been made on the basis of their use of feedback techniques, some of the changes in the frequencies of the different feedback moves across grades could have been explained – perhaps some of the teachers had a style of using more recasts, or some teachers might only favour elicitation moves. Additionally, the exercises and activities during language lessons can influence the teachers' decisions in corrective feedback situations.

These results suggest that in order to make any conclusions about the students' language skills, more detailed information is needed. If a longitudinal study is to be conducted on students' skills, several tests should be given to students in order to find out about their progress in learning a language. The present study showed that years of observations and detailed accounts of students' language development are needed if similar attempts

are made in the future to discover connections between grades and corrective feedback.

5.2 Implications

The present study addressed two additional questions that did not, however, receive any empirical evidence from the data (the theoretical issues connected to these questions were discussed in Chapter 2). The two questions are of great interest, since the area of second language learning and teaching is the focus of the present study, as well as the author's area of expertise. The additional issues to consider are: (1) Is it beneficial to correct students' oral errors? (2) Should teacher trainees be taught how to give corrective feedback during teacher training programs? These questions will now be discussed in greater detail.

Firstly, going back to the review of the different focuses on recent research on corrective feedback (in Section 2.1), one of the areas of interest has been the utility of correcting students' oral errors. To briefly sum up the results from the previous studies, it can be seen that a call for continued feedback is stressed throughout the findings (Kim and Mathes 2001), but there are differing opinions on the matter: some claim that corrective feedback should be abandoned completely (Krashen 1982; Truscott 1999), while others are convinced that the feedback that teachers give is highly beneficial for students (Lyster et al. 1999). This implies that further research should be conducted in order to establish a common ground, and perhaps settle the score once and for all. Additionally, more research is needed so that concrete evidence can be found of the connection between corrective feedback and learning – does the feedback that teachers give actually facilitate learning, and is this learning temporary (immediate learner uptake) or are students able to acquire permanent language knowledge from corrective feedback?

Secondly, corrective feedback is a dominant feature in the normal workday of a teacher. The decisions teachers go through while correcting students' oral errors are often unconscious, which suggests that not a lot of thought and deliberation is applied to actual feedback situations. As was mentioned in Section 2.1, teachers do not make full use of the different corrective feedback techniques available to them (Allwright and Bailey 1991). Furthermore, because the feedback situation is often over in a matter of seconds or minutes, and because students might be unaware of the feedback they are receiving, it has been suggested that teachers should discuss the issues related to corrective feedback and the learning process with their students (Ancker 2000).

As for teacher training programs, implications can be drawn from the present data as well as the previous studies. It has been shown throughout the earlier and the present studies that teachers do in fact correct students' oral errors and they do so in various ways. Furthermore, as was shown in Chapter 4, students respond to the corrective feedback by showing signs of learner uptake. These facts imply that teachers should be guided towards self-awareness from an early stage onwards in their teacher education, since it will be easier from them to observe their own behaviour when they enter real classrooms. Additionally, teacher trainees should be taught to examine their own teaching from time to time, even when they have been practicing the profession for several years. It is always beneficial to take a look at one's own actions and perhaps adjust the teaching techniques to benefit the learning process of the students.

6 CONCLUSION

The aim of the present study was first and foremost to describe the ways in which teachers correct students' oral errors in an EFL setting. Additionally, the learners' reactions to the feedback moves were discovered by

concentrating on learner uptake. The findings of the present study show that there is a variety of feedback moves present during English lessons, and that learners are able to correct themselves (or provide help for others) if teachers use feedback types that elicit answers from the learners.

As with every empirical study, the present one is not without problems and weaknesses. It is important to acknowledge some of these issues that might be of significance when conducting similar research in the future – in order to improve the quality of future studies, it is vital to understand the problems of earlier research. The present study is by no means a pioneering study in the field of corrective feedback, since some studies have been conducted in the past, and quite recently as well.

Furthermore, it can be argued that transcripts of video-recorded material are not the best data for empirical studies. Green et al. (1997:173) discuss the issue of choosing transcripts as the main database, and they stress the fact that this choice represents "decisions about the significance of the strip of talk or the speech event, which, in return, implies that the talk or event has been interpreted from some point of view". This viewpoint they talk about can be, for example, SLA. Moreover, the researchers point out that "the act of choosing talk is also influenced by researchers' assumptions about language" (p. 173). In the present study, then, interpreting the transcripts was problematic, since the original emphasis of the learners and teachers was not always certain. In other words, what was transcribed from the videos might be the author's own interpretations of the situation, and not what actually occurred. Green et al. (1997) give an example of hearing a sound and interpreting it as 'stress' can in fact just be the listener's imagination, and not the speaker's intention. However, transcripts have been the source of information for most of the previous studies conducted in this field, and while they might have their problems, they also provide important and detailed information about the researchers' area of interest.

Additionally, the present data could have been wider and more extensive at parts, since the grade levels (3-6) did not have the same amount of recordings and lessons examined, thus comparisons made between the grades are not completely valid, but for the purpose of the present study, the data are sufficient. Furthermore, even though there was a considerable number of corrective feedback sequences found in the data, there could have been more evidence to support the conclusions that were drawn from the material. What is more, the actual sequences that were found in the transcripts were interpreted by only the author, and thus it might have increased the reliability of the findings had there been more than one person interpreting the data.

While it might seem that the present study does not fill any much needed gap in the area of corrective feedback, there are still some strengths to be noted. As most of the previous studies were conducted in Northern America, it was beneficial to take a look at Finnish classrooms. The only Finnish study reviewed in Chapter 2 was Koskinen's (1986) MA thesis, and based on the new theory and terminology from recent studies on corrective feedback, Koskinen's study required a much needed update. Additionally, the present study's participants were from the elementary school level, and the majority of the previous studies have been conducted in an adult context. It could be claimed that when students are in the midst of learning a language, during their first school years, examining the influence of corrective feedback on their early language development is of great importance. Moreover, the present study employed material from the same class, during four years of English lessons. Although the database was not extensive in its number of lessons observed, it still offered a chance for a small-scale longitudinal study. No one has attempted to study corrective feedback from a longitudinal point of view before, and in the future, it would be significant to perhaps widen

the data and collect specific material focusing on, say, a few students, in order to discover the influence of corrective feedback on language learning.

Furthermore, the present data included lessons taught by four different female teachers. However, the data were not sufficient enough to make distinctions between the teachers, because some of the teachers only taught one or two lessons (they were substitute teachers). In other words, there was no even number of lessons from each teacher, and thus any comparisons made between the teachers would have been unreliable. Perhaps in the future it would be beneficial to investigate the different teaching styles and different teachers' use of corrective feedback with additional data and systematic observations.

Several suggestions can be made for future research based on the findings of the present study. Firstly, since the present study focused on how **teachers** react to learners' errors, it would be interesting to switch the focus and concentrate on learners' reactions. Some previous studies had examined, for example, if students could recognize the instances where they have been given feedback. Similar studies should be conducted to improve the understanding of how students view corrective feedback. Secondly, as some researchers (Krashen 1982; Truscott 1999) have pointed out in the past, it is virtually impossible to discover the benefits or usefulness of corrective feedback. In the future, then, new ways of investigating and measuring the effects of corrective feedback should be constructed. Lastly, as is evident from the results of the previous studies as well as the present one, recasts are a dominant feedback technique during language lessons. It might be valuable to examine the usefulness of recasts in greater detail to see if teachers should be trained to avoid them, or continue using them as before. Whatever areas of corrective feedback future studies will concentrate on, a more practical outlook towards teacher training and the learning process should be adopted.

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APPENDIX 1

Transcript conventions

Symbol	**Meaning**
T	Teacher
S	Student
/it is/	Simultaneous speech
(where)	Unclear word or phrase
(xx)	Inaudible sequence, the length of a word
(xxx)	Inaudible sequence, longer than a word
laughs	Action
-	Cut speech
?	Utterance in the form of a question
,	Pause, steady or rising tone of voice
.	Pause, falling tone of voice
.	In the beginning of an utterance: small pause
((pause))	Pause that lasts 4-10 seconds
((long pause))	Pause that lasts 11-20 seconds
((a very long pause))	Pause that lasts over 20 seconds
THIS	Speaker emphasis/ louder voice
[guush]	Pronunciation: written as pronounced
(recast)	Additional comments/ author's notes/ terminology