

SLS 650

Final Paper

Descriptive study on corrective feedback and learner uptake during interactions
between a teacher and students: in terms of recast versus prompts

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I would like to develop this paper and the final paper for SLS 672 “Corrective feedback and learner uptake during a small group activity in an ELI context” together into my scholarly paper. If you want to review the SLS 672 final paper, I will send it to you through e-mail.

Abstract

Researchers under 'Interaction Hypothesis' have claimed that learners can benefit from participating in negotiation for meaning, and it has been supported by both descriptive and empirical research. The present descriptive study investigated corrective feedback and learner uptake during interactions between a teacher and students with advanced level English proficiency, especially in terms of recast versus prompts, in a natural classroom setting. It also examined what the students thought about their teacher's types of feedback to their erroneous utterances. Fifteen students in an ELI intermediate reading class were observed and they also completed student surveys at the end of the observation. The recorded data were analyzed based on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) 'error treatment sequence' and Lyster's (1998) coding scheme. The results indicated that the teacher used recast and repetition most frequently and the recast and multiple feedback led to student-generated repair. It was also found that there was a gap between the teacher's favorite feedback types and the students' preferred types of feedback and the students' most favorite feedback provider was their teacher. The study has pedagogical implication that the teacher's adequate selection of feedback types according to the students' preference might lead to more amount of learner uptake. And it is necessary for the teacher to let the students recognize that they will get benefit from corrective feedback from their peers during conversational interactions.

Introduction

For several decades, there has been a lot of research on corrective feedback and learner uptake in terms of L2 learning under the interaction framework. According to the “Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996),” language learners receive a lot of useful input during conversational interaction, in which they are trying to reach mutual understanding what they are talking about through meaning negotiation. While they are negotiating the incomprehensible meaning, they provide each other with negative feedback which leads to learner uptake, and language learning in eventual. Based on this theoretical background, a lot of researchers have conducted various descriptive and empirical studies from various perspectives. The studies have proven that L2 learners are able to develop their L2 through participating in conversational interaction, namely, meaning negotiation either in classroom settings or in laboratory settings. On the one hand, some researchers have conducted descriptive studies on corrective feedback and learner uptake (Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Panova and Lyster, 2002; Lyster, 1998a; Sheen, 2004). On the other hand, other researchers have examined recast and its effectiveness (Lyster, 1998b; Sheen, 2006; Doughty and Varela, 1998; Carpenter et al., 2006). Meanwhile, some others have investigated the effectiveness of recast versus prompts (Lyster, 2004; Lyster and Mori, 2006).

While there have been a lot of experimental studies on corrective feedback and learner uptake in terms of L2 learning, there has been limited number of purely descriptive studies on the same issue in natural instructional settings with learners who have advanced level English proficiency. In addition, there are few studies focusing on comparing recast and prompts in terms of distribution and subsequent learner uptake. Therefore, there is some limitation to understand what kind of corrective feedback, especially in terms of recasts and prompts, and learner uptake are taking place in natural instructional contexts in which advanced level learners are learning

their L2. That is, there is urgent need to explore the issue in actual L2 learning settings. In the following section, the literature review on the “Interaction Hypothesis,” earlier descriptive and empirical studies on corrective feedback and learner uptake during meaning negotiation will be discussed in depth.

Literature review on corrective feedback and learner uptake during a teacher and students interactions in terms of second language learning

Theoretical background: the Interaction Hypothesis

As an extension of Krashen’s (1982, 1985 cited in Mitchell & Myles, 1998) ‘Input Hypothesis,’ in which he argued that learners’ exposure to ‘comprehensible input’ was necessary and sufficient condition for second language learning, Long (1981, 1983a, 1983b cited in Mitchell & Myles, 1998) proposed that ‘Interaction Hypothesis.’ In his hypothesis, Long argued that interactions where learners participated should get far more attention for understanding the true attributes of input. Long and other interactionist researchers claimed that the interactions were not only the main headspring providing the target language input but also the right spots for meaning negotiation. In other words, when two speakers like more proficient and less proficient learners are talking to each other, they are struggling to get mutual understanding of their conversation. It is referred to as ‘meaning negotiation’ or ‘negotiation for meaning.’ The more they negotiate the meaning of the incomprehensible part, the more difficulty level of input is adjusted into the speakers’, especially the less proficient learner’s, L2 developmental level.

After about a decade, Long (1996) reformulated his previous ‘Interaction Hypothesis’ as the following:

It is proposed that environmental conditions to acquisition are mediated by selective attention and the learner's developing L2 processing capacity, and that these resources are brought together most usefully, although not exclusively, during meaning negotiation. Negative feedback obtained during negotiation work or elsewhere may be facilitative of L2 development, at least for vocabulary, morphology and language-specific syntax, and essential for learning certain specific L1-L2 contrasts. (1996, p.414)

In the reformulated hypothesis, Long emphasized the contributive roles of environmental factors like 'negative evidence' to L2 learning. He also underscored consecutive steps through which input changed into intake by introducing a new concept 'selective attention.' That is, oral interaction between two speakers provides one of the most suitable places in which L2 development takes place through feedback like 'negative evidence,' if the interlocutor who receives the 'negative evidence' is able to pay attention to it. If the interlocutor can recognize the difference between his/her interlanguage and the target language through negative feedback, he/she will try to correct his/her interlanguage and this will be conducive to L2 development.

As Long's 'Interaction Hypothesis' was suggested and revised as a theoretical background for the roles of conversational interactions, a lot of studies have explored the effects of international feedback moves on L2 learning during meaning negotiation. In the following sections, the previous descriptive studies on corrective feedback and learner uptake (Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998a; Panova and Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004), descriptive and experimental studies on recast and its effectiveness (Carpenter et al., 2006; Doughty and Varela, 1998; Lyster, 1998b; Sheen, 2006), descriptive and experimental studies on the effectiveness of recast versus prompts (Lyster, 2004; Lyster and Mori, 2006) will be reviewed.

Descriptive studies on corrective feedback and learner uptake

A considerable amount of research has investigated the relationship between teachers' corrective feedback and subsequent students' uptake in terms of L2 learning in classroom settings in the last ten years. Among these studies, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) investigation took the initiative in delving corrective feedback and concomitant learner uptake with using "an error treatment sequence," which was adopted and modified for their own data by combining previous schemes (cf. Spada & Fröhlich, 1995; Doughty, 1994a, 1994b cited in Lyster and Ranta, 1997). Based on the error treatment sequence as their primary device for data analysis, they explored types of corrective feedback and their distribution in communication-oriented classrooms, the relationship between distribution of uptake in response to the corrective feedback types, and the negotiation of form. Negotiation of form refers to providing corrective feedback promoting self-repair. Their data were collected from Grade 4 and 5 classes in French immersion schools. After collecting 18.3 hours data, they analyzed them according to the error treatment sequence. As a result, they found that the teachers' most favorite feedback type was recast (55%). Recasts are 'teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error.' This is illustrated in the following example (Lyster and Ranta, 1997, p.47):

(6) (T6-language Arts-Apr.3)

St: L'eau rable? [Error-grammatical]

T6: L'eau d' rable. [FB-recast] C'est bien.

However, recasts led to the least amount of student-generated repair, while other types of feedback such as elicitation, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback and repetition led to much more student-generated repair. In the conclusion, they called out investigating why the recast could not lead to much repair even though it was the teachers' favorite feedback type.

In the same vein with Lyster and Ranta (1997), Panova and Lyster (2002) further investigated the similar topic in a different instructional context. The research question was what kinds of feedback gave rise to the most considerable amount of learner uptake in an adult ESL communication oriented classroom. The total number of participants was 25 and they were from various L1 backgrounds. And they had beginning level English language proficiency. During 4 weeks, 18 hours of interaction in a classroom had been recorded and 10 out of 18 hours were used as database. The researchers adopted Lyster and Ranta's (1997) error treatment sequence. The total database was composed of 1,716 student turns and 1,641 teacher turns. The researchers found the similar results to those of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study. That is, recasts and translation were the most popular feedback types of the teacher, and they were used about 80% out of total feedback occurrence in actual; however, they were not able to lead to corresponding amounts of learner uptake. Instead, clarification requests, elicitation, and repetition resulted in the greatest amount of learner uptake, and metalinguistic feedback took the second place to lead to the learner uptake. The researchers explained the results by stating that the reason the teacher offered a lot of well-reformulated utterances for the students might be due to students' limited and low English proficiency. As a result, the teacher tried to provide a lot of linguistic information by giving well-formed utterances.

As an extension of Lyter and Ranta's (1997) study, Lyster (1998a) started to shed light on how the other feedback types such as elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition, which are called "prompts," were able to extract student-generate repair as well as result in much more uptake. He grouped these four corrective feedback and named them "negotiation of form" and differentiated them from recasts and explicit correction because they offered learners cues that elicited student-generated repair while recasts and explicit correction

presented correctly reformulated utterances of the learner's erroneous utterances to the learners. In addition, he tried to further investigate the following research questions that were not examined in the previous study: what kinds of learner errors give rise to what kinds of corrective feedback; and what kinds of corrective feedback result in instantaneous repair of what kinds of learner error. He drew Lyster and Ranta's (1997) database and the error treatment sequence for his study. He categorized learner errors into four types: grammatical, phonological, lexical, unsolicited L1 use and analyzed the six feedback types in response to the error type and then learner uptake or repair in response to the feedback types. He found out the following results: first of all, grammatical and phonological errors were followed by recasts while lexical errors were followed by negotiation of form; Second of all, most phonological repairs were made through repetition after recasts whereas most grammatical and lexical repairs were made through student-generated repairs after negotiation of form. Related to these findings, he also observed that grammatical errors were more rarely repaired than lexical errors and repeatedly occurred in the same class despite the corrective feedback.

While Lyster (1998a) investigated various feedback and learner uptake in relation to the distinctive error types, Sheen (2004) explored the variety of the following elements: corrective feedback, learner uptake/ repair and the relationship between various feedback and learner uptake/repair at different instructional settings. Specifically, she investigated teacher feedback types, learner uptake/repair across four distinct meaning-oriented classrooms. With respect to data collection, she obtained frequency data provided in the result parts of both Lyster and Ranta (1997)'s and Panova and Lyster (2002)'s studies. In addition, she got the transcripts of form-focused episodes from Ellis et al. (2001) study. Her last data, 12 hours of English lesson, were collected from a Korean EFL context over four weeks. She adopted Lyster and Ranta's (1997)

error treatment sequence for comparing teachers' corrective feedback moves and subsequent learner uptake/repair across four diverse instructional settings. She discovered the followings: recasts were most frequently used feedback type across in all settings, even though the proportion of recasts was significantly different across the four instructional settings; the rate of uptake occurred in Canada ESL was considerably lower than in not only New Zealand ESL but also Korean EFL settings. In addition, both in New Zealand ESL and in Korean EFL contexts, learners did repair considerably much more than the other two instructional settings. In terms of the relationship between feedback moves and learner uptake/repair, recasts generally led to the least proportion of uptake. Comparing across four different settings, Canada immersion made the least uptake (31%) while Korean EFL made by far more uptake (83%). Concerning repair in response to recasts, Korean EFL showed the highest proportion (70%) and Canada ESL showed the lowest (32%). She also found that recasts that were used in New Zealand ESL and Korean EFL had four characteristics: simplicity, only one or two elements were highlighted; reduced and partial reformulation of learner's erroneous utterance; rising intonation or emphasis with stress; and proper opportunities for uptake. In addition to the descriptive studies on corrective feedback and learner uptake, the descriptive and experimental studies on recast and its effectiveness will be reviewed in the following section.

Descriptive and experimental studies on recast and its effectiveness

In response to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) call for further exploration on recast and subsequent low rate of learner uptake, Lyster (1998b) examined what factors minimized the effects of recast as negative evidence in terms of L2 classroom discourse with the data from Lyster and Ranta's (1997) observational study. That is, he investigated the functional attribute of

the 377 recasts provided by the teachers by coding them into four types: isolated declarative recast, isolated interrogative recast, incorporated declarative recast, incorporated interrogative recast. As a result, he discovered that recasts played multiple roles. Furthermore, he also found out that the teachers had a tendency to make use of plenty of noncorrective repetitions in response to the students' well-formed utterances. To make matters worse, those noncorrective repetitions performed the identical discourse functions as recasts. Therefore, he drew the conclusion that the salience of the original function of recast was likely to be minimized due to their multiple roles in communication-oriented classrooms.

In addition to Lyster (1998b)'s careful investigation on various discourse functions of recasts in a communicative classroom setting, Sheen (2006) further examined the properties of recasts per se, especially in terms of taxonomy, and learner uptake in response to recasts with different attributes. She collected the data from two different settings and these two data were also used in her previous study (Sheen, 2004). Her first data was adopted from Ellis et al. (2001)'s study and it was collected from two intensive English as a Second Language (ESL) classrooms in New Zealand. The participants were two English NS teachers and 24 students who came from various L1 backgrounds and they had intermediate proficiency levels. On the other hand, her second data came from two English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms in Korea. The lessons were carried out through free conversations between a NS teacher and students, with focus on oral proficiency. The participants were two English NS teachers and 10 Korean students with intermediate to high-intermediate proficiency levels. They had explicit grammar education in common in the past language learning. Like the other studies (Lyster, 1998a; Lyster, 1998b; Panova and Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004), Sheen also adopted Lyster and Ranta' (1997) error treatment sequence for data analysis. With respect to coding, she largely divided recasts into two

groups: multi-move recasts consisted of corrective, repeated, and combination recasts; single-move recasts, on the other hand, had seven attributes, such as mode, scope, reduction, length, the number of changes, types of change, and linguistic focus. This is illustrated in (1) and (2), respectively (Sheen, 2006, pp 371-372):

(1) a) Corrective recasts – recasts that are preceded by repetition.

Example 1

S: I pay the cost

T: I pay? I'll pay the cost

b) Repeated recasts – recasts that teacher repeats either fully or partially.

Example 2

S: They probably like...horse or ride horse

T: Okay, a race horse? A race horse

c) Combination recasts – recasts that occur other corrective feedback types (e.g. metalinguistic information), except explicit correction.

Example 3

S: In San Francisco, I didn't need a car. I used transportations

T: Transportation. Uncountable.

(2) Single-move recasts entail only one recast move in a single teacher turn.

Example 4

S: He was an English teacher.

T: He's an English teacher

According to Sheen's findings, the recasts used in the communicative classrooms were mostly short, declarative in terms of mode, and reduced, substitution in terms of types of change, with only one change. In addition, they usually focused on grammar. Therefore, she claimed that, in order to be salient, which is closely related to language learning, recasts should be more explicitly used in classroom activities.

While Lyster (1998b) and Sheen (2006) descriptively studied various properties and functions of recast in classroom settings, other studies investigated the effectiveness of recast and learners interpretation of recast in experimental settings (Doughty and Varela, 1998; Carpenter et al., 2006). Above all, Doughty and Varela (1998) directly examined the effectiveness of recast with more salient features, so called ‘corrective recasting,’ during two science classes in content-based ESL program. The number of young participants was 34 and they were assigned into two groups: 21 participants were grouped into an experimental class and the other 13 participants were grouped into a control class. The target language features were simple and conditional past structures. The teacher consistently provided ‘corrective recasting’ for the students when they made errors related to the target features. The following is the example of the ‘corrective recasting’ (Doughty and Varela, 1998, p. 124).

(3) Corrective Recasting

Jos : I think that the worm will go under the soil.

Teacher: I *think* that the worm *will* go under the soil?

Jos : (no response)

Teacher: I *thought* that the worm *would* go under the soil.

José: I *thought* that the worm *would* go under the soil.

As shown in illustration (3), the ‘corrective recasting’ was made up of two phases: at first, the teacher repeated the learner’s erroneous utterance, using stress and rising intonation in order to draw his/her attention to the inaccurate language form; next, she provided recasts for the learner when he/she did not say anything. Interestingly, in the later laboratory activities, the students began to adopt this technique and used it before the teacher did. In addition to the oral feedback, the teacher also gave feedback on the students’ written reports by circling errors and then she

asked them to rewrite the reports based on the feedback. Doughty and Varela's (1998)'s study presented apparent advantage of using relatively explicit recasts as corrective feedback with other elements that highlighted the saliency of recast. However, this study has been also criticized for investigating mixed effects of recast and other factors rather than examining the efficiency of recast alone.

As Doughty and Varela (1998) delved into the effectiveness of 'corrective recasting' during science classes as quasi-experiment study, Carpenter et al. (2006) explored how learners interpreted recasts during interaction in a laboratory setting. And they posed two research questions: whether learners recognize recasts as corrective feedback when they are deleted from the interactional situation?; whether learners use any nonlinguistic clues when they decide whether given utterances are recasts or repetitions? They created a videotape stimulus with 26 adult learners who enrolled in an ESL program. They had high-intermediate or advanced level proficiency and came from heterogeneous L1 backgrounds. While the participants were conducting a communicative activity with a NS in dyads, they were videotaped and the camera captured the NSs' nonlinguistic behaviors. For data correction, 34 different learners participated in the experiment and they were divided into two groups: the response-only (N=17) and the utterance-response (N=17). They also enrolled in an advanced-level English class and from various L1 backgrounds. As completing learning activity which provided new vocabulary and conditionals, they watched the video stimulus. While they were watching the stimulus, they carried out a work sheet with multiple-choice questions. Besides, in order to investigate second research question, the researchers made a subgroup that consisted of 14 learners, 7 learners from each group. As they were carrying out the work sheet task, they also did think-aloud protocols and the whole session was audio-recorded. Concerning the work sheet task, the number of

correct answer was counted. On the other hand, the learners' comments obtained from the think-aloud protocols were coded whether they contained obvious statement of nonlinguistic features. The researchers found that the learners who had heard the utterances were more successful than those who did not at differentiating recasts and repetitions. In addition, they revealed that none of the 14 learners who conducted think-aloud protocols depended on non-linguistic clues in order to figure out recasts and repetitions. So far, not only the previous descriptive studies on corrective feedback and learner uptake but also the prior descriptive and experimental studies on recast and its effectiveness have been discussed. In the next section, the former descriptive and experimental studies on the effectiveness of recast versus prompts will be reviewed.

Descriptive and experimental studies on the effectiveness of recast versus prompts

As several studies have investigated the relationship between the types of feedback and learner uptake or the effectiveness of recast from different perspectives (Carpenter et al., 2006; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Lyster, 1998a; Lyster, 1998b; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004; Sheen, 2006), Lyster (2004) explored how prompts and recasts incorporated into form-focused instruction (FFI) had effects on L2 learning from both the short term and the long term perspectives. The participants were 4 francophone teachers and their eight Grade 5 classes. The total number of students was 179. In respect to grouping, one group consisted of two classes and then three groups were assigned into the treatment groups that received FFI on French grammatical gender while the remaining one group was assigned into the comparison groups without any FFI. First treatment group received FFI with prompts, second treatment group got FFI with recasts, and the third group was given only FFI without any feedback. The FFI was carried out in the six experimental groups for about 8 to 10 hours during 5 weeks.

Before getting the FFI, all the participants took the pretests and after receiving the FFI, they took the immediate post test. One month later, they also took the delayed posttest. The researcher picked out about 15 target endings as target language features. For treatment, materials that contained target features were used. In order to measure the effectiveness of FFI with or without feedback, four tests that consisted of two written tasks (a binary-choice and a text-completion) and two oral tests (an object-identification test and a picture description test) were utilized. For oral production tasks, only randomly selected 60 participants conducted the activities three times with the same tasks. He found, for written tasks, the FFI with prompts group significantly outperformed the FFI with recast group and the latter carried out the tasks very similarly to the comparison group. Only the FFI with prompts group superiorly outperformed all the other groups in written tasks. About oral tasks, all three treatment group carried out the tasks with comparably the same level.

As Lyster (2004) explored which types of FFI with different feedback types like prompts and recasts would more facilitative for the young learners to gain the ability to correctly assign French gender marker, Lyster and Mori (2006) examined instantaneous effects of three different types of corrective feedback such as explicit correction, recasts, and prompts on learner uptake and repair in two distinctive instructional settings like French immersion and Japanese immersion programs at primary schools. And then they compared the results from each instructional setting. In addition, the researchers also delved into what elements led to similar and different patterns in the distribution of different feedback types and learner uptake and repair in both settings. For data analysis, they adopted two coding systems like Lyster and Ranta's (1997) error treatment sequence model and Spada and Fröhlich's (1995) communicative orientation to language teaching (COLT) coding scheme. Based on the data analysis, the

researchers found very intriguing findings. On the one hand, in both instructional settings, teachers' most favorite feedback type was recast among three different types, which was the same result as that of the previous studies (Lyster 1998; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004). On the other hand, learners' reaction to the different types of feedback in two different settings was striking. In other words, the learners in a French immersion instructional setting did a lot of repair in response to prompts while the learners from the Japanese immersion program did more repairs in response to recasts.

In sum, it has been explored the relationship between the types of corrective feedback and learner uptake in descriptive studies and it was revealed that the teachers' most favorite feedback type was the recast but it did not lead to the most considerable amount of learner uptake (Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998a; Panova and Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004). In addition, the properties and effectiveness of recast were examined both in descriptive and experimental studies. As a result, it was found that the recast played the multiple roles and it might contribute to the ambiguousness of recast. Besides, it was discovered that only the discourse situation was not sufficient for learners to identify recasts as corrective feedback. Thus, it was suggested that the recast should be emphasized with other properties like rising intonation in order to be salient, and it should be more explicitly used in classroom activities (Carpenter et al., 2006; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Lyster, 1998b; Sheen, 2006). Finally, the effectiveness of prompts and recasts on the L2 learning was also examined in a descriptive and experimental study. From these studies, it was uncovered that FFI with prompts was the most effective, especially in the written task. In addition, even though the teachers used recasts most frequently, learners' uptake patterns were quite different across the two different settings. That is, the students in French immersion setting did more repair following prompts while the students in the

Japanese immersion setting did more repair following recasts (Lyster, 2004; Lyster and Mori, 2006).

A lot of SLA researchers have conducted descriptive and experimental studies on the relationship between corrective feedback and learner uptake in terms of L2 learning; however, to this date, investigations on the effects of corrective feedback and learner uptake have usually targeted learners with beginning or intermediate level as participants (Panova and Lyster, 2002; McDonough, 2004; Sheen, 2004, Sheen, 2006) or young learners in immersion schools (Doughty and Varela, 1998; Lyster and Ranta, 1997, Lyster 1998a; Lyster 1998b; Lyster, 2004; Lyster and Mori, 2006). For example, the participants of Panova and Lyster (2002)' study were beginning level learners and those of McDonough (2004) were assessed as intermediate level learners. This makes it possible to compare the present research findings with those of previous studies. In addition, Lyster and Ranta (1997) reported that learner's proficiency level might have effects on not only what kind of feedback teacher made use of but also the number of chances for uptake. They also found that the teacher of more advanced level class had tendency to use recasts less than the teachers of less advanced classes. In the same vein, Lin and Hedgcock (1996), Mackey and Philp (1998), and Netten (1991) have made suggestion that more advanced learners are able to recognize recasts as negative evidence while less advanced learners cannot (cited in Panova & Lyster, 2002). If this is so, an interesting question to ask in the present study is whether advanced level learners who are enrolled in university level ELI program behave in this. In addition, there are few descriptive studies which examined the relationship between distribution of prompts versus recasts and learner uptake in natural classroom settings. The present study is very similar to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study; however, it focuses on university level adult learners with advanced proficiency in terms of participants and it only examines a teacher – students

interactions during uncontrived classroom activities in terms of direction of interactions. In addition, as the researcher has believed that students' attitudes towards teacher feedback would have effects on learner uptake, she also added one more research question. Based on these research foci, the following three research questions were formulated:

- 1) What is the distribution of different kinds of feedback in teacher – students interactions during classroom activities, especially in terms of recasts and prompts?
- 2) How much do students uptake in response to the teacher feedback, especially in terms of recasts and prompts?
- 3) What do students think about their teacher feedback to in response to their erroneous utterances?

In the following section, the methodology for the present study will be discussed in detail.

Method

Participants

The total number of students who took part in the study was fifteen because fifteen out of nineteen students had agreed to participate in the formal observation in which the recording was administered. Ten out of fifteen students are from Japan (67%), three out of fifteen students are from China (20%) and two out of fifteen students are from South Korea (13%). However, all nineteen students participated in student survey which was administered at the end of the observation.

As shown in table 1. Demographics of students, six students (32%) were males and the remaining thirteen students(68%) were females. As for the student academic status, the nineteen students can be largely categorized into eighteen undergraduates and one graduate. In particular,

five students (26%) were freshmen, six students (32%) were sophomores, six students (32%) were juniors, one student (5%) was a senior, and the remaining one student (5%) was a graduate. The students came from various majors. Specifically, one from civil and environmental engineering, four from business, two from second language studies, one from theater, three from travel industry management, one from architecture, one from chemistry, one from art, and one from music. The remaining four students did not respond to the question about their majors in the survey. Their average length of studying English was various. That is, two students (11%) studied English about less than two years, three students (16%) studied it between two to four years, two students (11%) studied it between four to six years, while the majority of the students, or twelve students (63%) studied it more than six years. Ten students (53%) have studied English in English spoken countries such as UK, USA, Australia and New Zealand before taking the ELI class in UH; however, nine (47%) students have never studied in those countries before. As to the length of studying in those countries, three students (30%) stayed less than one year, four students (40%) stayed between one to three years whereas two students (20%) stayed between seven to nine years. Even though the researcher assessed that their English proficiency levels were advanced, their actual proficiency were similar to those of Mohan and Beckett (2003)'s study. That is, they got about 550 from the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). The students were assigned to an intermediate reading class by the results of the placement tests administered by the institute of the university at the beginning of the semester.

Table 1. Demographics of students

The total number of students (N=19)		Number of students (% of the total number of students)
Gender	Male	6 (32%)
	Female	13 (68%)

Grade	Freshman	5 (26%)
	Sophomore	6 (32%)
	Junior	6 (32%)
	Senior	1 (5%)
	Graduate	1 (5%)
A period of English studying	0 – 2 years	2 (11%)
	2.1 – 4 years	3 (16%)
	4.1 – 6 years	2 (11%)
	More than 6 years	12 (63%)
Experience of studying English in English speaking countries	Yes	10 (53%)
	No	9 (47%)
Major	Civil & Environmental Engineering	1 (5%)
	Business	4 (21%)
	Second Language Studies	2 (11%)
	Theater	1 (5%)
	Travel Industry Management	3 (16%)
	Architecture	1 (5%)
	Chemistry	1 (5%)
	Art	1 (5%)
	Music	1 (5%)

The teacher was a female Korean L1 graduate assistant (GA) and this is her second semester to teach English as a Second Language (ESL) to university level students in an ELI (English Language Institute) program; however, she has taught English from junior to high school students in Korean EFL contexts before coming to USA for one year. The teacher is also majoring in second language studies in the master program in UH. She voluntarily agreed to participate in the research due to her academic and professional interest. She was informed that the study would investigate interactions between a teacher- students during classroom activities;

however, she did not know the specific research questions.

Instructional Context

The purpose of English Language Institute (ELI) program is to help primarily international and immigrant students who are admitted to the university to learn necessary academic English skills for their effective studying. There are three courses: listening & speaking, reading, and writing. According to the guidelines provided by the ELI, the students taking the classes are basically those of who had not received a score of 100 or better on the internet-based Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), a score of 250 or better on the computer-based TOEFL, or a score of 600 or better on the paper-based TOEFL. Although the ELI program are composed of intermediate and advanced courses, students from both levels are highly advanced English learners. It is because students must have considerably high level of English capacity in order to be admitted to the university.

According to the course description, the purpose of the intermediate reading class is to enhance students reading ability, which is crucial for coping with difficulties that students often encounter in academic reading. And the purpose is achieved through various types of activities focusing on improving rate of reading, developing reading comprehension skills, understanding paragraph patterns, and acquiring academic vocabulary. The primary course materials are Mcwhorter, K. T., (2002). *Essential Reading Skills* (2nd Ed.). New York: Longman, and handouts made by the teacher. The class is offered twice a week on every Monday and Wednesday. On Mondays, the class is generally led by the teacher. That is, the teacher delivers lectures on the specific topic while the remaining time was spent largely on whole class activities and short small group discussion sessions. In contrary to the teacher-led class on Mondays, a class on

Wednesdays is carried out by the students. They prepare for materials for themselves and participate in small group discussion sessions. Regardless of the types of class activities, interactions between the teacher and the students take place.

Procedure

The study was carried out on Monday April 9th in the intermediate level reading class from the English Language Institute (ELI) program in University of Hawaii at Manoa in USA. The reason for doing the research on Monday was due to the research topic focusing on a teacher and students interactions and the teacher advised that much more interactions between the teacher and the students can be by far easily observed on a Monday class than a Wednesday class.

Before conducting formal investigation, the researcher did pre-observation in order to check whether the class activities were suitable for collecting data for her research topic on April 2nd, a week before the formal observation. On April 9th, the researcher attended the class with permission from both the director of the ELI and the teacher. On that day, she distributed consent forms to the 19 students before formal observation and explained the general purpose of the study at the beginning of the class. And then the formal observation was conducted while the recording was implemented during the lesson. All students took seats in a large circle and one digital audio recorder was placed in the middle of the classroom in order to capture all students' utterances clearly. Meanwhile, the teacher carried the other digital audio recorder in her clothes while she was lecturing and circulating the classroom during a small group discussion session, with helping the students. The researcher merely observed the classroom activities without any interruption. The topic for the lesson was how to keep track of idea using various methods introduced in the textbook, based on the course schedule. At the beginning the teacher started the

lesson by saying class opening statements, notifying an announcement and then she instructed the procedure of classroom activities.

At the end of the class, the researcher distributed student survey forms which consist of the three parts; demographics of students, students' attitudes toward speaking English and making errors, and students' attitudes toward error correction. There were two reasons for the researcher to use the survey forms. Above all, the researcher tried to triangulate the small scale descriptive data with qualitative information from the forms. In addition, she believes that the students' attitudes toward teacher feedback and the types of feedback will have some effects on their uptake patterns.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed by using both quantitative and qualitative methods in order to triangulate the descriptive research. However, the quantitative part, namely analyzing the transcribed data, was the main part, and the qualitative part, namely student survey, was to supplement the main part. Basically, the researcher used 'measuring research design type' which was defined by van Lier (1988, 1990 cited in Nunan, 1992) as 'those research methods involving a high degree of selection but a low degree of control.' In other words, van Lier defined 'measuring research design type' as 'One selects certain features, operationally defines them, and quantifies their occurrences, in order to establish a relationship between features or between features and other things, such as educational outcome' (van Lier, 1990: 34 cited in Nunan, 1992, pp5-6). The researcher selected this design type because she analyzed the research data according to Lyster and Ranta (1997)'s data categorization. That is, as van Lier defined, Lyster and Ranta (1997) selected certain features, operationally defines them, and quantified their

occurrences, based on their “error treatment sequence,” in order to establish relationship between features or between features and other things, such as educational outcome.

The total amount of recorded classroom activities was about 87 minutes; however, the first introduction part and the last closing part of the teacher were excluded from the data analysis because there was no significant interactional conversation between the teacher and the students during those periods. Therefore, the database analyzed for the current study was about 58 minutes. The total database for the present study was transcribed by the researcher.

The transcribed data were analyzed on the basis of turns. Ideally, the researcher planned to transcribe all utterances completely, but some utterances of the data which were unintelligible due to unexpected noise could not be transcribed and thus were not analyzed. The total number of teacher turns was 153 and that of students was 147. To be more specific, the students used 465 words and 2,305 letters while the teacher used 3,918 words and 18,293 letters. Even though there was no significant difference in number of turns between the teacher and the students, the teacher used a considerable number of words and letters than the students. It is probably because the observed lecture was a teacher-led lesson in which the teacher taught the specific topic, how to keep track of information.

The researcher adopted Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) error treatment sequence. The reasons the researcher adapted the researchers’ coding scheme for her data analysis are the following reasons: first of all, even though the coding scheme was initially designed for identifying each teacher’s feedback choice in response to the student’s ill-formed utterances, it is also able to be a tool for classifying a novice teacher’s, who is from different L1, Korean background and has less teaching experience compared to the teachers from Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) study, selection of feedback type in response to her student’s erroneous utterances during classroom activities;

second of all, it can be investigated whether the coding scheme could be applied to other learning contexts.

As it is shown in Figure 1, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) the error treatment sequence constituted the primary part of coding data and it consisted of five main parts: learner error, teacher feedback, learner uptake, topic continuation and reinforcement. The flow starts with a student's utterance with one or more errors. It could be followed by a teacher's negative feedback or topic continuation. The latter refers to the situation where the conversational interaction is still going on. Topic continuation might be initiated either the teacher or one of the students. If the corrective feedback is provided, there could be either learner uptake or topic continuation in response to the feedback. As learner uptake occurs, it means that either learner repair, which refers to the learner's correction of his/her previous erroneous utterance, or needs-repair, which refers to that learner's utterance is still problematic and it needs to be fixed, happen. If there is no learner uptake, it means that topic continuation follows the feedback, which is not accepted by the learner. If there is learner repair in response to the feedback move, it is followed by either teacher's reinforcement, which refers to a short and approving statement, or topic continuation. And if there is needs-repair, it is followed by either additional teacher feedback or topic continuation.

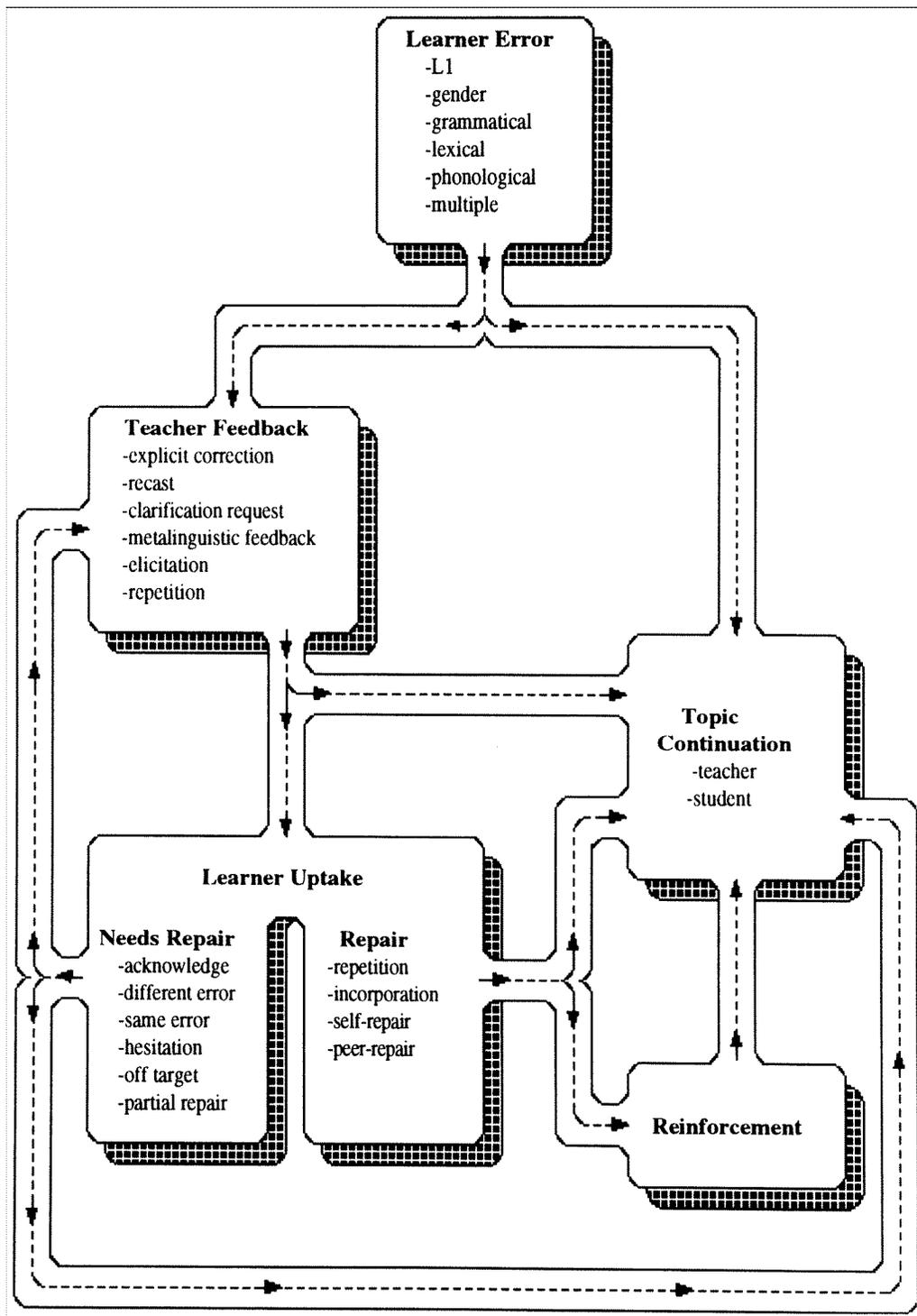


Figure 1. Error treatment sequence (Lyster and Ranta, 1997, p.44)

Data Analysis

Error

Except the first introduction part and the closing part by the teacher, all turns were transcribed and analyzed whether there were one or more errors. In counting errors, incomplete sentences were excluded because it was hard to predict whether a complete expression would be correct or incorrect. Then the errors were further classified into phonological, grammatical, lexical and multiple error types. Multiple error type refers to the case in which more than one type of errors occur together. The examples are from the current database.

1. Phonological error refers to a student's error which is related to phonology.

S: omini...(Phonological error)

/omini/

T: Omnivorous eat plants, right? (recast)

2. Grammatical error refers to a student's error which is related to grammar.

S: poor and the rich (grammatical error)

T: okay, anyone on a small income, right? (recast)

3. Lexical error refers to a student's error which is related to lexis.

S: keep drop? (lexical error)

T: short information. (recast)

Feedback types

As for the feedback types, the researcher adopted Lyster's (1998) taxonomy. There are three reasons for adopting Lyster's (1998)'s categorization of feedback types. Most of all, according to previous studies (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Lyster & Mori, 2006), the teachers less frequently used explicit correction than other type of feedback like recasts and prompts and it led to low rate of student uptake. Based on these findings, the researcher would like to investigate whether the same phenomena would take place in a class

with university level students. In addition, the researcher found that previous studies (Lin & Hedgcock, 1996; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Netten, 1991 cited in Panova & Lyster, 2002) have implied that learners with more advanced level might be able to notice the role of recasts as negative evidence, while learners with less advanced level might not. Based on these findings, the researcher also would like to examine whether it is also applicable to the students with relatively advanced levels in the current study. Lastly, there have been findings that when a teacher provided prompts with a student, they led to high rate of student uptake (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Lyster & Mori, 2006). Based on these findings, the researcher also would like to know whether the same or similar uptake pattern will occur in a given classroom.

According to Lyster's (1998) taxonomy, feedback types consist of three distinctive components such as explicit correction, recast, and prompts based on their different properties. Each of their characteristics is explained with its definition and an example. Some examples are from the current database, but the others are from Panova and Lyster's (2002) study if a proper example was not found in the current study.

1. *Explicit correction* refers to a move where a teacher provides a correct expression with an apparent indication that the student's utterance was problematic. The following example is from the Panova and Lyster's (2002, p584) study.

S: The day...tomorrow. (lexical error)

T: Yes. No, the day before yesterday. (explicit correction)

2. *Recasts* refer to a move where a teacher provides a completely or partially correctly reformulated expression with relation to the student's erroneous utterance implicitly, without any explicit indication of the student's utterance was inaccurate. The example is from the database of the current study.

S: a is stay single longer (grammatical error)

T: okay, Americans stay single longer (recast)

3. *Prompts* refer to various feedback moves where a teacher forcefully lead the student to do self-repair for himself/herself instead of providing correctly reformulated expression beforehand, unlike both explicit correction and recasts. Prompts consist of elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests, and repetition.

a) *Elicitation* refers to a move where a teacher instantly elicits a correctly reformulated expression from the student by putting questions, giving some time to accomplishing his/her utterance, or requesting the student to reproduce the utterance correctly. The example is from the current database.

S3: make plan (grammatical error)

T: make? (elicitation)

b) *Metalinguistic clues* refer to a move where a teacher offers statements or interrogations regarding the accurateness of the student's utterance. The example is from Panova and Lyster's (2002, p584) study.

S: Nouvelle Ecosse...(L1)

T: Oh, but that's in French. (metalinguistic feedback)

c) *Clarification requests* refer to a move where a teacher indicates that there are some problems in the student's utterance and there is a need to reformulate the utterance correctly. The example is from Panova and Lyster's (2002, p583) study.

S: I want practice today, today. (grammatical error)

T: I'm sorry? (clarification request)

d) *Repetition* refers to a move where a teacher repeats the student's erroneous utterance with rising intonation for highlighting the problematic part. The example is from the current database.

S: Uh, outlining is some kind uh..., clue focus on the whole article (multiple error)
/kru/

T: clue? (repetition)

Learner uptake

According to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) categorization, learner uptake in the current study refers to a student's immediate utterance in response to the teacher's feedback and it means that the student, to some extent, notices the teacher's intention to draw him/her attention to certain part of his/her previous utterance. Learner uptake consists of "repair" and "needs-repair," based on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) taxonomy. Some examples are from the current database, but the others are from Panova and Lyster's (2002) study if a proper example was not found in the current study.

1. *Repair* refers to a student's accurate reformulation of his/her previously erroneous utterance immediately in response to the feedback. Repair can be realized as the following types: repetition, incorporation, self-repair and peer-repair.

a) *Repetition* refers to a case where a student repeats a teacher's feedback which contains accurate expression. The example is from the current database.

S: high...(phonological error)

T: highlightening. (recast)

S: highlighening. (repetition)

b) *Incorporation* refers to a case where a student repeats accurate expression included in a teacher's feedback, and subsequently he/she incorporates the accurate expression into an expanded utterance. The example is from Panova and Lyster's (2002, p586) study.

T: Okay, it's good. You wanna tell us one?

S: Eh...:Kaii convention (phonological error –stress)

T: What kind of convention? (recast)

S: Kaii convention...eh...some people...(repair/ incorporation)

c) *Self-repair* refers to a case where a student correctly reformulates his/her initial erroneous utterance in response to the feedback that does not offer an accurately

reformulated form. The example is from the current database.

S: we used circled (lexical error)

T: circled? Circling the main idea? (multiple feedback =repetition + recast)

S: circle and underline(self-repair)

d) *Peer-repair* refers to a case where the other student correctly reformulates the erroneous utterance other than the student who had produced it, in response to the feedback provided a teacher. The example is from Panova and Lyster's (2002, p585) study.

S: I don't understand wine [win]. (phonological error)

T: I'm sorry...? (clarification request)

Same student: Wine [win] (needs-repair/ same error)

Different student: Wine [wain] (peer repair)

Lyster and Ranta (1997) categorize "needs-repair," which refers to a case where a student tries to correctly reformulate his/her previous erroneous utterance, but the utterance is still inaccurate and thus it needs to be precisely fixed. Needs-repair can take the following forms: acknowledgement, same error, different error, off-target, hesitation and partial repair. Some examples are from the current database, but the others are from Choi's (2005) study if a proper example was not found in the current study.

1. *Acknowledgement* refers to a student's statement "yes" in response to the feedback, without any other reaction. The example is from the current database.

S: Uh, outlining is some kind uh..., clue focus on the whole article

(Multiple error= phonological error + grammatical error)

T: clue? (repetition)

S: yeah. (acknowledgement)

2. *Same error* refers to a case where a student repeats his/her previous erroneous utterance in response to the feedback provided by a teacher. The example is from the current database.

S3: make plan (grammatical error)

T: make? (elicitation)

S: plan (same error)

3. *Different error* refers to a case where a student neither correctly reformulates his/her initial erroneous utterance nor repeats the previous erroneous utterance. The student produces another erroneous utterance. The example is from Choi's (2005, p61) study.

NNS L3: They asked first the why, why a cashier uh...don't afraid about his uh...the man. (grammatical error)

NNS interlocutor: Ah, why the cashier was not afraid of the man with the mask?
(recast)

NNS L3: or, or, why didn't a cashier think he is a thief. (different error)

4. *Off-target* refers to a case where a student response to the feedback provided by a teacher, but avoids focusing on the linguistic point, without producing other erroneous utterance.

The example is from Choi's (2005, p62) study.

NNS L3: Maybe she, he had a small, small mind to uh...yeah. (lexical error)

NNS interlocutor: He lost his patience? (recast)

NNS L3: He stole some money. (off-target)

5. *Hesitation* refers to a case where a student hesitates to response to the feedback provided by a teacher. An example of this type was not able to be found.
6. *Partial repair* refers to a case where a student produces partially corrected utterance after his/her previous erroneous utterance in response to the feedback provided by another small group member. The example is from the current database.

S: she said outline. (grammatical error)

T: a listing (recast)

S: listing? (partial repair)

As Lyster and Ranta (1997) pointed out, the "needs-repair" types can result in another feedback from a teacher and, concomitantly, it leads to error treatment sequence to continue over the third turn.

Reinforcement

After students' repair, the teacher praised the student's correctly reformulated utterance before moving on to topic continuation by saying simple remarks of agreement like "Yes", or repeating what the student said correctly. In the present study, the teacher only once used the reinforcement because there was only one repair. The following example is from the current database.

- S: high...(Phonological error)
- T: highlightening. (recast repetition)
- S: highlighening. (repair; repetition)
- T: highlightening, (reinforcement)

Results

Table 2 provides the total number of teacher and student turns, student turns with error or needs- repair, teacher turns with feedback, student turns with uptake, and student turns with repair. The whole database is demonstrated by the graph in Figure 2. About one tenth (12%) of all student turns have at least one error or need to be corrected. Among these student turns, 94% receive feedback from the teacher. It means that only 6% of students' erroneous utterances are followed by topic continuations either by the teacher or by one of the students. Of the total amount of teacher feedback in response to the students' turns with errors, 38% results in the student uptake and 13% results in the student repair. With respect to the total number of student turns with at least one error, only 12% of errors result in student repair (please see the next page, p.34).

Table 2. The total number of teacher, student turns and turns the with student error, teacher feedback, and student uptake

Total Teacher Turns	Total Student Turns	Student turns with Error or Needs-Repair (% of Total Student Turns)	Teacher Turns with Feedback (% of Total Error)	Student Turns with Uptake (% of Feedback)	Student Turns with Repair (% of Feedback)	Student Turns with Repair (% of Total Error)
153	147	17 (12%)	16 (94%)	6 (38%)	2 (13%)	2 (12%)

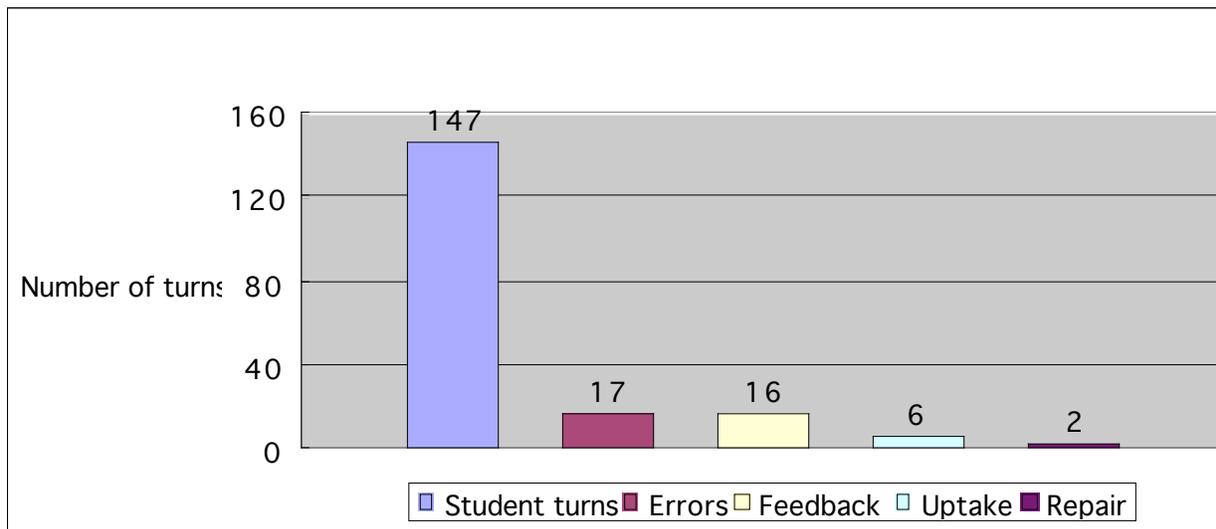


Figure 2. Total student turns, turns with error, feedback, uptake, and repair

Table 3 provides distribution of the teacher’s feedback types as well as types of feedback used by the teacher. The teacher’s most favorite feedback type among all seven feedback types including multiple feedback is the recast. That is, it accounts for 62% of all teacher feedback. She did not use explicit correction at all. With regard to prompts, her feedback types accounted for 31% of all feedback, which means she used one elicitation (6%) and four times of repetition

(25%) and clarification request and metalinguistic feedback were not used at all. She also used one multiple feedback (6%) which consisted of repetition and recast. When it comes to comparing recast and prompts, prompts(5, 31%) only accounts for half of the total number of recast (10, 62%). It means that the teacher prefer the recast to the prompts.

Table 3. Distribution of feedback types (% of total feedback)

Recast	Explicit correction	Prompts				Multiple feedback
		Elicitation	Clarification request	Metalinguistic feedback	Repetition	
10 (62%)	0 (0%)	1 (6%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	4 (25%)	1 (6%)

With respect to the uptake in response to the teacher feedback, Table 4 shows the results. The teacher feedback was not followed by the uptake a lot of times due to topic continuation. In particular, topic continuation by a teacher (8/10) accounts for 80% of all topic continuation while topic continuation by students (2/10) accounts for 20% of all topic continuation. The frequency and percentage of feedback that did not result in the uptake are presented in the “No Uptake” column in Table 4.

Table 4. Uptake in response to teacher feedback (% of each feedback type)

		Repair	Needs Repair	No Uptake
Recast (n=10)		1 (10%)	2 (20%)	7 (70%)
Explicit correction (n=0)		0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Prompts (n=5)	Elicitation (n=1)	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Clarification request (n=0)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Metalinguistic feedback (n=0)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	Repetition (n=4)	0 (0%)	1 (25%)	3 (75%)
Multiple feedback (n=1)		1 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Obviously explicit correction, clarification request, and metalinguistic feedback did not result in

uptake because they were not used at all by the teacher. As to the recast, one third (30%) of it resulted in uptake and 70% of it did not result in any uptake. On the contrary, as for the prompts, elicitation resulted in 100 % of uptake and repetition resulted in one fourth (25%) of uptake. Meanwhile, the most effective feedback type was multiple feedback which consisted of recast and repetition because it resulted in 100% of repair. The second most effective feedback type was recast which resulted in 10% of repair, and the third most effective feedback was elicitation which resulted in 100 % of needs repair while the least effective feedback was repetition because it resulted in three fourths (75%) of no uptake.

However, as Lyster and Ranta (1997) stated, not all types of repair necessarily indicated that the students paid attention to the core point of teacher feedback and recognized it. That is, the students' simple repetitions of the teacher feedback do not guarantee that they notice the intention of the teacher feedback. Thus, further analysis on the repair was carried out. In the further analysis, the recast was not included because it did not provide some chances for the students to correct the erroneous utterance for themselves, rather it offered the correctly reformulated form beforehand. As a result, of the two times of repair, only multiple feedback resulted in student-generated repair. The student-generated repair category consisted of peer-repair and the self-repair, but it included neither incorporation nor repetition. In actual, the multiple feedback resulted in self- repair. Some might be wondering how multiple feedback could result in self-repair in that it consisted of repetition and recast, in which recast provided the correct form implicitly for the student. But the student who received the multiple feedback did not repeat the recast which was included in the multiple feedback, rather she produced another correct form based on the recast as a clue. Therefore, the researcher decided that the multiple feedback resulted in student-generated repair, especially self-repair.

With regard to the students' opinions about the teacher's feedback, the student survey revealed that which types of feedback they thought most effective, effective, ineffective, and the least effective, which is illustrated in Table 5 and Figure 3 (see p.39). As for the most effective feedback type, the students responded that implicit correction (5, 26%), and confirmation check (5, 28%) were the most effective. Those two types of feedback were not included in the Lyster and Ranta's (1997)'s classification of types of corrective feedback. Implicit correction refers to the feedback move in which a teacher does not interfere with the student's utterance, instead implicitly corrects the student's erroneous utterance. Confirmation check refers to the feedback move in which a teacher makes sure what the students said by providing a correctly reformulated utterance (Kukuda, 2003a cited in McKay, 2005). The examples of these two feedback types can be found in the appendix B. And explicit correction (3, 16%), metalinguistic feedback (3, 16%) and no feedback (3, 16%) took the second place while clarification request (2, 12%), repetition (2, 11%), elicitation (2, 11%) and recast (2, 11%) took the third place. Concerning the effective feedback types, they responded that implicit correction (13, 68%) and elicitation (13, 68%) were effective. In addition, they ranked recast (12, 63%) clarification request (10, 59%), confirmation check (10, 59%), metalinguistic feedback (9, 47%), explicit correction (8, 42%), no correction (7, 37%) and repetition (5, 28%) in a decreasing order.

With respect to the ineffective feedback types, the students responded that repetition (8, 44%) and explicit correction (8, 42%) were ineffective. And they ranked no correction (6, 32%), metalinguistic feedback (6, 32%), clarification request (4, 24%), elicitation (4, 21%), recast (4, 21%), confirmation check (3, 17%) and implicit correction (1, 5%) in a decreasing order. On the other hand, as to the least effective feedback types, they responded that repetition (3, 17%) and no correction (3, 16%) were the best ineffective type of feedback. In addition, they ranked

clarification request (1, 6%), and metalinguistic feedback (1, 5%) in a decreasing order.

Lastly, as for the students' favorite feedback giver type, Table 6 and Figure 4 illustrate the students' responses. Over the half of the students (12, 63%) preferred to receive the feedback from their teacher, while four students (21%) wanted to get feedback from their classmates. The remaining three students (16%) wanted to correct their erroneous utterances by themselves.

Table 6. Students' favorite feedback giver

Teachers	Classmates	Myself
12 (63%)	4 (21%)	3 (16%)

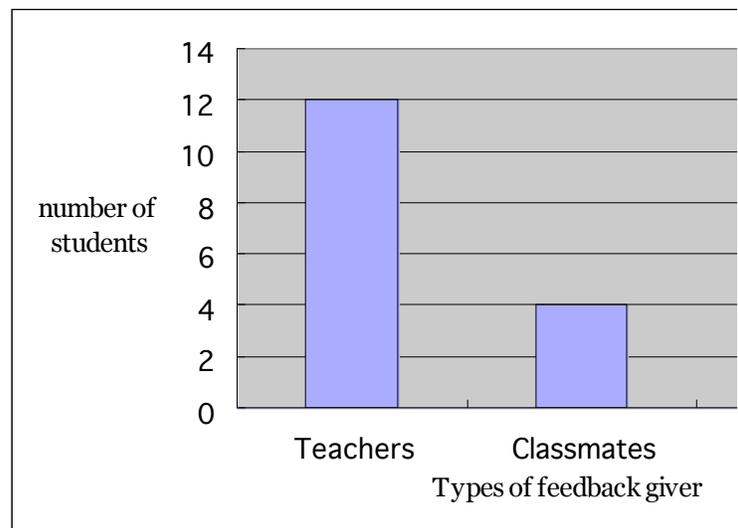


Figure 4. Students' favorite types of feedback giver

Table 5. Students opinion about the effectiveness of each type of feedback (% of the total number of students)

	Clarification Request	Repetition	Implicit correction	Explicit correction	Confirmation check	Elicitation	No correction	Metalinguistic feedback	Recast
Very Effective	2 (12%)	2 (11%)	5 (26%)	3 (16%)	5 (28%)	2 (11%)	3 (16%)	3 (16%)	2 (11%)
Effective	10 (59%)	5 (28%)	13 (68%)	8 (42%)	10 (56%)	13(68%)	7 (37%)	9 (47%)	12 (63%)
Ineffective	4 (24%)	8 (44%)	1 (5%)	8 (42%)	3 (17%)	4 (21%)	6 (32%)	6 (32%)	4 (21%)
Very ineffective	1 (6%)	3 (17%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	3 (16%)	1(5%)	0 (0%)

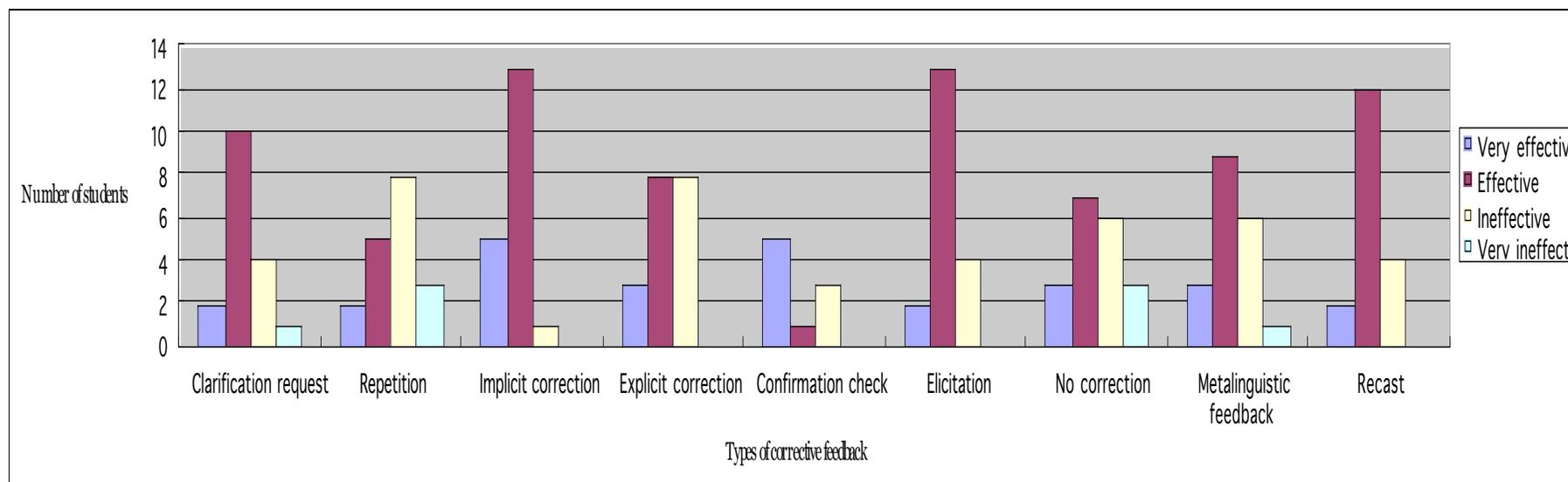


Figure 3. Students' opinion about the effectiveness of each feedback type

Discussion

The purpose of the present study is to investigate how advanced level students who are enrolled in university level ELI program respond to the teacher's corrective feedback, especially recasts and prompts in a natural classroom setting. The results provide the following answers to the three research questions:

1. What is the distribution of different kinds of feedback in teacher – students interactions during classroom activities, especially in terms of recasts and prompts? The teacher provided recasts (10, 62%), while she provided prompts (5, 31%) which consisted of elicitation (1, 6%) and repetition (4, 25%). Therefore, it might be concluded that the teacher used more recasts than prompts.
2. How much do students uptake in response to teacher feedback, especially in terms of recasts and prompts? The students took the teacher's feedback and made it uptake in response to the recast (3, 30%) while they did it in response to prompts (2, 40%). In terms of recast, the uptake consists of one repair (10%) and two needs-repairs (20%). On the contrary, in terms of prompts, it consists of two needs-repairs (40%).
3. What do students think about their teacher feedback to in response to their erroneous utterance? The students responded that they thought implicit correction (5, 26%) and confirmation check (5, 28%) were most effective types of feedback while they thought repetition (3, 17%) was the least effective type of feedback. In addition, they responded that implicit correction (13, 68%) and elicitation (68%) were effective whereas repetition (8, 44%) and explicit correction (8, 42%) were ineffective.

With respect to the distribution of feedback types used by the teacher, recast (10, 62%) was used most frequently and she used elicitation and repetition (5, 31%) less than recast. This result is identical to that of the previous studies (Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Panova and Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004). In addition, as for the student uptake in response to the teacher feedback, recast and multiple feedback which consisted of repetition and recast were the types of feedback which resulted in student-generated repair. On the other hand, prompts did not result in student-generated repair at all. This finding is somewhat interesting because it is contradictory to the previous findings. That is, recast was the least effective type of feedback while prompts were the most effective type of feedback in terms of student-generated repair in the previous studies (Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Panova and Lyster, 2002). Even though the total number of recast and student uptake in response to it is so small that any decisive conclusion cannot be drawn, the reason that recast is the most effective feedback can be explained in terms of students' advanced level of proficiency in the present study. In other words, students with high proficiency are able to recognize the negative feature of recast while students with low proficiency cannot notice the feature. As a result, high proficiency students are able to benefit from the recasts and uptake it while the others cannot take advantage of those opportunities. Therefore, it might be concluded that the student who did the student-generated repair in response to the recast had advanced English proficiency enough to recognize the role of recast as negative feedback (Lin and Hedgcock, 1996; Mackey and Philp, 1998; Netten, 1991 cited in Panova and Lyster, 2002).

In addition to the characteristic uptake pattern in response to the recast, another interesting pattern was found. That is, the teacher provided 40 times of noncorrective repetition in response to the students' well-formed utterance, which parallels to the previous findings (Allwright, 1975; Chaudron, 1988; Fanselow, 1997; Long, 1977 cited in Lyster, 1998a; Lyster

and Ranta, 1997). It is significant number when it is compared to the frequency of feedback she provided, 17 times. It is natural to wonder why she repeated her students' flawless utterances so frequently. It was suggested that teachers repeated the students' well-formed utterance constantly in order to consolidate what the student was saying and to extend a flow of conversation further on the basis of the student's saying (Lyster and Ranta, 1997). In addition, Lyster (1998a) explained the teachers' frequent use of noncorrective repetition in the following way. That is, teachers tried to keep students paying attention to the content by confirming or adding information with relation to what the student was saying, namely using noncorrective repetition. Finally, the learning context should be also considered. In the ELI intermediate reading class, the teacher usually assigns homework to the students and checks the answer together during the lesson. Thus, she might repeat the student's error-free utterances in order to confirm answers and let the other students check the answers. The bottom line is that the teacher also repeated the students' well-formed utterance in the present study, which has been found in the earlier studies as well, and the reason for that was to confirm what the students said. On the other hand, a couple of researchers have warned the frequent use of non-corrective repetition. It is because excessive use of non-corrective repetition might bring about an amount of ambiguity for students in meaning-focused classrooms. That is, the students have to distinguish whether the teacher's statement is intended to correct their erroneous utterance or to get the meaning across related to contents. Based on their findings, they drew a conclusion that the original attribute of recast, which is to provide correctly reformulated utterance for the students, might be simply invalidated by its functional attribute. Its functional attribute refers to offering or pursuing confirmation or offering or pursuing extra information (Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998b).

Lastly, the student survey revealed that students' thought about the effectiveness of each

feedback type. It seems that there is a gap between types of feedback that students thought to be effective and the actual types of feedback provided by the teacher. That is, the students responded they thought implicit correction and confirmation check were the most effective feedback but the teacher did not provide them at all. And elicitation, which the students thought to be effective, was provided only once. To make matters worse, even though the students responded that repetition and explicit correction were the least effective types, the teacher provided repetition with the second most frequency. As a result, one repetition move led to one uptake, specifically needs-repair, and the remaining three moves resulted in no uptake. And the elicitation led to needs- repair and did not result in student-generated repair, either. Even though nothing can be said with certainty because further questions were not posed to the students who received repetition as corrective feedback type and did not uptake it, it might reflect the students' preference toward the types of feedback. If the teacher provided the types of feedback that the students preferred, namely implicit correction and confirmation check, instead of repetition which the students do not prefer, there might have been a considerable amount of uptake in response to the feedback. Further research on this issue needs to be conducted in the future.

In addition to the students' favorite types of feedback and uptake pattern, it was also discovered that the students' most favorite feedback giver was their teacher has something common with the previous studies. That is, the result is very similar to the findings of the previous studies, which used the same method, student questionnaires (Mackey et al., 2001; McDonough, 2004). McDonough's (2004) study revealed that the students did not consider peer feedback as helpful leaning sources for improving their English knowledge and instead they preferred teachers' explicit instruction for learning an English grammar because they thought their peer's English proficiency was not enough to provide accurate input. The other study also

uncovered the similar results. That is, the students paid their close attention to the teacher's utterances rather than those of the peers. And even though the learners listened to their peer's utterances, they did not consider them useful sources for English input. It was revealed on the basis of the learners' reports about L2 classroom activities (Mackey et al., 2001). The present study focused only on the interactions between the teacher and the students in terms of corrective feedback and uptake, and thus nothing can be said about the interactions among students especially in terms of corrective feedback and uptake; however, the result of the present study might also reflect the students' preference for teacher feedback rather than their peer feedback.

Conclusion

The small scale descriptive study found that students with advanced English proficiency levels in an ELI intermediate reading class received recasts as corrective feedback most frequently from their teacher in response to their erroneous utterances during classroom activities. When it comes to the uptake, only in case of recast, they accepted it by doing self-repair which is included in student-generated repair category. In addition, interestingly, multiple feedback consisted of repletion and repair was provided only once, and it led to the student-generated repair. In other words, the student produced another correct form in response to the feedback and uptake it. It was also found that there was a gap between the students' favorite types of feedback and the feedback provided by the teacher. That is, the students thought that implicit correction and conformation check were very effective and elicitation was effective but the teacher did not use implicit correction and confirmation check at all and provided elicitation once. In addition, even though they responded that repetition and explicit correction were the least effective, the teacher provided repetition second mostly. As a result, there was not a considerable amount of

uptake in response to the feedback. Lastly, it was also found that the majority of the students preferred receiving feedback from their teachers rather than their classmates or by themselves, which was revealed through the student survey.

It seems that considerable amount of feedback and subsequent uptake does not occur in a natural classroom context, compared with experimental laboratory settings. There might be various reasons that contribute to the phenomenon. Among the reasons, short period of observation for research and the difference between the students' preference toward types of feedback and the teacher's favorite feedback types are probably the primary factors. If the period of observation was longer and the teacher used the feedback types that the students prefer, the amount of feedback and uptake following the feedback might have been different. In addition, teachers should persuade and let students know they are able to get informative corrective feedback from their peers because it is impossible for a teacher to provides all necessary feedback in response to each student' erroneous utterance in classroom settings in which usually just one teacher should teach at least ten students.

The present study has its meaning in that it investigated the pattern of corrective feedback and uptake during interactions between the teacher and the students with advanced English proficiency levels in a natural classroom setting, especially in terms of recast and prompts. However, the findings and pedagogical implications may be only applicable to the current instructional context where the purely descriptive study was conducted. In addition, since the study was a pilot test with limited number of students and small data, it needs to be further investigated in the future. It is hope that future investigations will examine whether students' preference toward each type of feedback has some effects on their uptake pattern. If so, it is also hope that how it affects students' uptake will be investigated.

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Appendix A: Consent Form

Date:

Dear potential participant:

I am inviting you to participate in a research study conducted by Yun Deok Choi as part of a research project for SLS 650, Second Language Acquisition, in the Department of Second Language Studies. The purpose of this project is to investigate teacher - learner interaction in classroom settings.

Your involvement in this study means you would participate in classroom activities according to your instructor's usual procedure. You would also be asked to respond to the student survey. With your permission, all the classroom activities would be recorded by the researcher.

It is hoped that this study will provide new insights about types of interaction and feedback between teachers and students. Therefore, one potential future benefit to you is that the results of this study could help your instructor (and future ELI instructors) to provide you with more effective feedback during classroom interaction, which could result in more effective learning of academic English.

Should you decide to participate in this research study, you will be asked to sign this consent form once all your questions have been answered to your satisfaction. Your participation is entirely voluntary, and you can withdraw at any time. All information collected will be confidential. At no time will any individual be identified in any reports resulting from this study.

If you have any questions about this study, please contact me at yundeok@hawaii.edu.

Thank you.

Name of Researcher: Yun Deok Choi

Consent Form for Participating in Teacher –Learner Interaction

I have read this consent form and I understand what is being requested of me as a participant in this study. I freely consent to participate. I have been given satisfactory answers to my questions. The investigator provided me with a copy of this form.

Name of participant (written):

Name of participant (signed):

Date:

Name of researcher (written):

Name of researcher (signed):

Date:

<Learner Attitudes>

Please circle obviously in the appropriate letter and make sure to only mark one.

When I am speaking in English

1. In general speaking situations, I tend to hesitate a lot.

Strongly agree	agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
A	B	C	D

2. In general speaking situations, I am not disturbed by the errors that I make.

Strongly agree	agree	disagree	Strongly disagree
A	B	C	D

3. In general speaking situations, I consider it is very important that I express my thoughts precisely.

Strongly agree	agree	disagree	Strongly disagree
A	B	C	D

4. In general speaking situations, I attempt to express my thoughts as quickly as possible even if what I say will not be absolutely precise.

Strongly agree	agree	disagree	Strongly disagree
A	B	C	D

5. In general speaking situations, I attempt to correct all the mistakes that I make.

Strongly agree	agree	disagree	Strongly disagree
A	B	C	D

<Error Correction>

Please circle obviously in the appropriate letter and make sure to only mark one.

1. I want my spoken errors to be treated.

Strongly agree	agree	disagree	Strongly disagree
A	B	C	D

2. How often do you want your teachers to treat your spoken errors?

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)
A	B	C	D	E

3. When do you want your spoken errors to be corrected?

Please circle obviously in the appropriate number among choices.

Make sure to only mark one.

- 1) As soon as errors are made eve if cutting into my speaking.
- 2) After I speak.

- 3) After communicative activities.
- 4) After that day's lesson.

4. How often do you want each of the following types of errors to be treated?
- 1) Serious spoken errors that impede a listener's understanding.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)
A	B	C	D	E

- 2) Less serious spoken errors that do not affect a listener's understanding.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)
A	B	C	D	E

- 3) Frequent spoken errors.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)
A	B	C	D	E

- 4) Infrequent spoken errors.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)
A	B	C	D	E

- 5) Individual errors by only one student.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)
A	B	C	D	E

5. How would you want your teacher to correct your error when you make the following errors? Please circle obviously in the appropriate letter and make sure to only mark one.

<Example>
 Teacher: Where did you go yesterday?
 Student: I go to the park. error

- 1) Teacher's error correction: **Could you say it again?**
 (The teacher asks the student again.)

Very effective	Effective	Ineffective	Very Ineffective
A	B	C	D

- 2) Teacher's error correction: **I go?**
 (The teacher highlights the student's grammatical errors by using intonation)

Very effective	Effective	Ineffective	Very Ineffective
A	B	C	D

- 3) Teacher's error correction: **I went there yesterday, too.**
 (The teacher does not interrupt the student but indirectly treats the student's error)

Very effective	Effective	Ineffective	Very Ineffective
A	B	C	D

- 4) Teacher's error treatment :
Go is in the present tense. You need to use the past tense went here. (The teacher gives the correct form to students with grammatical explanation.)

Very effective	Effective	Ineffective	Very Ineffective
A	B	C	D

- 5) Teacher's error correction: **You went yesterday?**
 (The teacher confirms the student's utterance by giving a correct form.)

Very effective	Effective	Ineffective	Very Ineffective
A	B	C	D

- 6) Teacher's error correction: **Yesterday, I**
 (The teacher elicits the correct form from the student.)

Very effective	Effective	Ineffective	Very Ineffective
A	B	C	D

- 7) Teacher's error correction: **Really? What did you do there?**
 (The teacher does not treat student's error.)

Very effective	Effective	Ineffective	Very Ineffective
A	B	C	D

- 8) Teacher's error correction:
How des the verb change when we talk about the past?
 (The teacher gives a hint or clue without specifically pointing out the mistakes.)

Very effective	Effective	Ineffective	Very Ineffective
A	B	C	D

- 9) Teacher's error correction: **I went to the park.**
 (The teacher reformulates all or part of student's utterance.)

Very effective	Effective	Ineffective	Very Ineffective
A	B	C	D

6. I want my spoken errors to be corrected by the following person.
Please circle obviously in the appropriate letter and make sure to only mark one.

Teachers	Classmates	Myself
A	B	C

Thank you for your cooperation. I appreciate it.

Yun Deok Choi
University of Hawaii at Manoa

