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Oral feedback and learner uptake in EFL classes in Armenia

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ABSTRACT

The current paper is a mixed-method research study which aims at investigating different types of oral corrective feedback and the resulting learner uptake of that feedback in EFL classrooms in Armenia. The purpose of the study was to identify the types of oral feedback that EFL teachers provide for correcting various types of students' oral errors, as well as find out the distribution of uptake following different types of oral corrective feedback.

The study was carried out in the Experimental English Classes (EEC) by the Department of Humanities and Social Sciences at the American University of Armenia (AUA) and in Extension Program of the American University of Armenia (EP AUA). The quantitative data was collected through questionnaire, which has been administered to 47 EEC and EP teachers, as well as second year graduate students of the AUA. The qualitative data was collected through 20 observations and interviews with 10 EEC and EP teachers.

The results of the data analysis revealed that the types of feedback which generate more repaired uptake are used less than those which generate nearly an equal percentage of needs-repair and repaired uptake. The other findings of the study suggest that the teachers' beliefs relating to oral error correction are not always consistent with the way they actually correct those errors in their classrooms.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Studies on foreign language learners' errors and different types of error feedback date back to 1967. Approaches used to explore errors in language development include contrastive analysis, error analysis and performance analysis (Fujioka- Ito, 2012), with the aim of revealing the process by which learners' transfer from their native language to the target language. As a result of this transfer, students inevitably make mistakes, resulting in situations when the teacher has to decide whether to correct learners' errors or just ignore them. Historically, the issue of error correction has been discussed by scholars in terms of negative evidence (Crain & Thornton, 2000; Gallaway & Richards, 1994), negative feedback (Carroll, 2001), corrective feedback (Lyster & Renta, 1997) and focus-on-form (Doughty & Villiams 1998).

Despite the number of studies done in this field, experienced teachers and linguists are still not capable of providing ultimate answers to questions such as:

- 1. Why do learners make errors?
- 2. Should the errors be corrected or ignored?
- 3. What type(s) of errors should be corrected?
- 4. When is the best time to correct the learners' errors?
- 5. Who should correct the error?
- 6. How should those errors be corrected?

The questions posed above still remain a very topical issue for many teachers around the world. This research has been conducted with the aim of providing teachers with an increased understanding of different approaches to correcting oral errors. This particular study set out to investigate different types of oral corrective feedback provided

in English as a Second Language (ESL) classrooms by examining information obtained through observations, interviews and questionnaires.

1.1 The Purpose of the Study

Oral feedback has been investigated intensively over the past few decades. Ellis (2010) claims that the main reasons that contribute to the number of studies on corrective feedback are its researchability (incidence of corrective feedback is easily identified) and its pedagogical and practical importance (the teaching implications inherent in corrective feedback).

This study aims to investigate the types of feedback that are more commonly used in EFL classrooms in the Armenian context and explore the factors determining teachers' selection of corrective feedback methods. In addition, this study analyses student uptake following different types of oral corrective feedback and then examines whether or not the nature of teacher feedback differs depending on the type of errors.

Consequently, the research questions that we have initially posed are:

- What kind of oral feedback do teachers provide in EFL classes in Armenia?
- What is the distribution of uptake following different types of oral corrective feedback?
- How does the teacher feedback differ for different types of errors?

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

The aim of this chapter is to discuss questions related to error correction, teachers' feedback and learner uptake. Firstly, the concept of 'error' is defined and the reasons why students make errors are explored. Secondly, oral corrective feedback is examined to outline the types of errors that should be corrected and consider who should address them. Thirdly, learner uptake is investigated. Fourthly, studies presenting positive and negative perspectives of error correction are analysed. Finally, the types of oral feedback that result in better uptake are discussed.

2.1 Definition of Errors

Speaking is one of the most important aspects of learning a second language. It indicates how much a person knows a foreign language, and how competent, fluent and proficient he or she is. However, when speaking a foreign language the learners inevitably make mistakes which, according to Corder (1971), are considered to be a necessary part of the learning process. Corder (1967, as cited in Ellis, 1994) was one of the first applied linguists who paid attention to the significance of errors. He states that errors are crucial, since they provide information about how much the learner had learnt and how language was learnt, and "they serve as devices by which the learner discovers the rules of the target language" (p. 48).

Analysis of the literature reveals that many words are used to refer to student errors, the most common of which are "slips", "mistakes", "errors", "lapses" and "attempts".

Linguists (Corder, 1971, 1967; Brown, 1994; Edge, 1989), who have tried to define the above-mentioned terms, mainly concentrated on differentiating errors from mistakes.

Brown (1994) provides a clear distinction between the two terms. He states that a "mistake" is a "performance error that is either a random guess or a slip, in that it is a failure to utilize a known system correctly" (p. 205). An "error", on the other hand is a "noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflecting the interlanguage competence of the learner" (p. 205). In other words, mistakes are divergence from the accepted forms of the target language, which are the "result of some sort of breakdown or imperfection in the process of producing speech," whereas errors are, "the result of a deficiency in competence" (p. 205).

A similar definition of errors and mistakes has been proposed by Edge (1989). He points out that the main difference between errors and mistakes is that in case of mistakes/slips students can correct their ill-formed utterances themselves. Whereas, in the case of errors, students cannot correct their ill-formed utterances, even if they are pointed out, and they need explanation from the teacher. In contrast to Brown (1994), Edge (1989) differentiates one more category which he labels as "attempt". This incorporates those mistakes which happen when students try to convey meanings, without having sufficient knowledge to do so.

Thus, taking into consideration these definitions within the context of this study, the terms errors and mistakes will be used in this paper to indicate any deviation from the target language.

Studies done in this field (Lyster and Renta, 1997; Lyster, 1998; Panova and Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004; Suzuki, 2005) suggest that students in general make mistakes in severity and frequency related to various factors, such as their age, proficiency level and their current stage of language acquisition.

Corder (1967, as cited in Brown, 1994) suggests different categorizations of errors. He states that the students' errors may be classified as errors of addition (when some extra element is present), omission (when an element is missing), substitution (when a correct element has been accidentally replaced with a wrong one), and ordering (when the order of the element is wrong). He also points out that students' errors may be classified according to whether or not they refer to phonology or orthography, lexicon, grammar and discourse.

Another classification of errors has been proposed by Lyster and Renta (1997). Their classification differs from that of Corder by concentrating mainly on students' oral errors. According to Lyster and Renta (1997), learners' oral errors may be classified as: 1) native language (L1) unsolicited errors - when students use their native language during their speech, 2) phonological errors, 3) lexical errors, 4) grammatical errors, 5) gender errors and 6) multiple errors - which are the combination of two and more errors.

In contrast to Lyster and Ranta's classification, Suzuki (2005) claims that depending on the target language and the purpose of the study, some adjustments to Lyster and Ranta's classification should be made. Suzuki (2005) states that for studies where the target language is English the category of gender should be eliminated, since it is not applicable to English. He also mentions that the category of L1 unsolicited errors can be excluded unless all the students share the same native language. With respect to multiple errors, he mentions that these types of errors may be "categorized based on the linguistic form that the subsequent corrective feedback targeted" (p. 8). Thus according to Suzuki (2005) the three types of errors which are applicable to studies where the target language is English are as follows:

- 1. *Grammatical* including "non-target like use of determiners, prepositions, pronouns, number agreement, tense, verb morphology, question formation, word order and auxiliaries" (Suzuki, 2005, p. 8).
- 2. Lexical inaccurate use of nouns, verbs, adverbs, and adjectives.
- 3. *Phonological -* inaccurate pronunciation of words.

2.2 Oral Feedback

When students make errors the main function of the teacher is to provide feedback on their production (both written and oral). However, the terms "error correction" and "feedback on error" (corrective feedback) should be distinguished, due to the fact that the teacher's feedback in the form of error correction may or may not result in correction of the error by the learner. Long (1977, as cited in Agudo, 2012) mentions that the teacher can provide information to the learner, but it is the learner who will (or will not) eventually correct the error.

Taking into consideration the observations made by Long (1977), Lyster et al. (1999) have proposed the terms "feedback on error", "corrective feedback", or "error treatment" as opposed to "error correction". One of the definitions of corrective feedback is that it is considered to be a response to errors within a learner's utterance (Lyster, Kazuya & Masatoshi, 2013; Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Additionally, Agudo (2012) says, "the term 'corrective feedback' is used as an umbrella term to refer to both implicit and explicit negative feedback in natural and instructional settings" (p. 121).

The direction of the feedback (to whom it is addressed) is important for defining the term corrective feedback.

Sheen (2010) claims that oral corrective feedback is immediate, on-time feedback; it can respond to an individual learner's mistake, while additionally being available to the rest of the class.

Although Sheen (2010) states that the corrective feedback may be available to the rest of the class, he also claims that this feedback is primarily given in response to the performance of a specific learner.

Based on the above, the term corrective feedback is used in this study to refer to moments when teacher input indicates to the learner that his/her utterance is wrong.

There are various approaches that teachers generally employ to respond to learner errors. For example, the teacher a) interrupts the learner and corrects the error immediately, b) waits until the student finishes his/her speech then corrects the error, c) ignores the error, d) ignores the error at first but in case it is repeated several times goes back to the error and corrects it.

According to Lyster and Ranta (1997), there are six main types of corrective feedback used by a language instructor to indicate a learner's erroneous utterance (their study was held in four immersion French classrooms). Those are 1) recast, 2) explicit correction, 3) repetition, 4) elicitation, 5) clarification request and 6) metalinguistic feedback. See Table 1 for the description of various types of corrective feedback.

Table 1: Six Types of Corrective Feedback Used by Teachers

Feedback Strategy	Description	Example
Recast	Teacher reformulates the learner's utterance except the error. Recasts are considered to be implicit as they are not presented by such expressions as "You mean", "Use this word", or "You should say" etc.	Students:I look for my book. Teacher: You are looking for your book.
Explicit Correction	Teacher explicitly provides the correct form, indicating what the student said was incorrect.	Teacher states: Oh, you mean You should say It is better to say
Repetition or non-corrective repetition according to Lyster (1998).	Teacher's repetition of the students' ill- formed utterance adjusting intonation in order to highlight the error.	Students: Yesterday I don't lock the door. Teacher: don't
Elicitation	 Elicitation may occur in three ways: The teacher utters the sentence without completing it and learner should "fill in the blank" The teacher uses questions, which exclude yes/no answer in order to elicit the correct forms. The teacher occasionally asks the students to reformulate their utterances 	Teacher states: No, not that. It's a How do we say in English
Clarification request	Teacher indicates that the utterance was either ill-formed and needs reformulation or has been misunderstood by the teacher	Excuse me What do you mean by?
Metalinguistic feedback	Contains questions, information or comments relating to the well-formedness of the learner's utterance without directly providing the correct form. Metalinguistic feedback may provide either some grammatical metalanguage in case of grammar errors or a word definition in the case of lexical errors.	It is Past Tense Is this Past Tense?

Note. Adapted from Lyster and Ranta 1997.

These six categories, for decoding the feedback provided by the teachers, have been adopted by numerous studies, such as those by Fujioka-Ito (2012), Maloyan (2006), Suzuki (2005), Panova and Lyster (2002), Lyster (2002) and Lyster (1998).

Lyster (1998) targeted the issue of discourse context in which recasts naturally occur and whether or not they provide opportunities for the learners to notice the gap between their initial erroneous utterance and the teacher's corrective reformulation. In so doing, Lyster subdivided recast into four subcategories according to their properties in classroom discourse.

Table 2: Four Subcategories of Recast According to their Properties in Classroom

Discourse

Recast subcategories	Description	Example		
An isolative declarative	Provides conformation of the	St: "When he will come."		
recast	learner's utterance either by	T: "When he comes."		
	reformulating all or only the part			
	of the message.			
An isolated	Seeks conformation of the	St: "He is a great		
interrogative recast	utterance correctly reformulating	specialize."		
	all or part of the utterance.	T: Specialist?		
An incorporated	Incorrect utterance is	St: "They couldn't get to their		
declarative recast	reformulated and is incorporated course of income"			
	into a longer statement.			
		couldn't get to their source of		
		income because of the rough		
		seas."		
An incorporating	Seeks additional information by	St: "They couldn't get to		
interrogative recast	incorporating the correct	their course of income"		
	reformulation of a learner's	T: "why couldn't they get		
	message into a question.	to their source of income?"		

Note. Adapted from Lyster 1998.

In his study, Lyster (1988) also examines non-corrective repetition which is very often used by the teacher. He argues that non-corrective repetition has the same subcategories

(i.e., isolated declarative repetition, isolated interrogative repetition, incorporated declarative repetition, and incorporated interrogative repetition) and performs the same pragmatic functions as recasts.

2.3 Learner Uptake

The previous chapter presented a discussion of corrective feedback as a complex phenomenon which plays an essential role in the process of second language acquisition as a means of scaffolding by the teacher. However, even if the teacher decides to provide feedback, there is still a question of how the learner would respond to it. There are different ways the learners may respond to the teachers' corrective feedback (i.e. they may nod, say "yes", repeat after the teacher, correct their mistakes themselves etc.). All these types of learners' response are generally referred to as "learner uptake" (Heift, 2004; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Lightbown, 1998). According to Lyster and Ranta (1997), uptake is the learners' immediate response to the teachers' corrective feedback and refers to what the students attempt to do with the teacher's corrective feedback. Lyster and Ranta (1997) state that the teacher's corrective feedback does not necessarily invite students' corrective uptake and uptake may be classified either as "repaired" or "needs repair".

As opposed to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) definition of uptake, Heift (2004) claims that students can only be said to be "uptaking" when, in response to feedback, "learners attempt to correct their mistake(s)" (p. 417).

Another definition of uptake similar to the previous one has been suggested by Lightbown (1998, cited in Asari, 2012), who states that, "A reformulated utterance from the

learner gives some reason to believe that the mismatch between learner utterance and target utterance has been noticed, a step at least toward acquisition" (p. 5).

One of the most comprehensive distinctions between the two types of uptake has been provided by Lyster and Ranta (1997). In their study Lyster and Ranta (1997) differentiate between, (a) uptake that results in repair of the error on which the feedback is focused, (i.e., the learner understands, accepts and tries to correct his error), and (b) uptake after which the error still needs repair and is labelled as needs-repair.

- a) The uptake of "**repair**" includes the following categories:
- 1. *Repetition* the student repeats the teacher's feedback when the latter incudes the correct form.
- 2. *Incorporation* the student not only repeats the correct form, but also incorporates it into a long utterance.
- 3. *Self-repair* the student corrects himself/herself before the teacher would be able to do so.
- 4. *Peer-correction* peers correct each other's mistakes after the teacher's feedback.

After repair, the teachers often try to reinforce the corrected form by repeating it themselves or giving short praising statements such as, "Yes!" or "Bravo!", in response to correct usage (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

- b) The uptake of "needs-repair" includes the following categories:
- 1. *Acknowledgement* the student answers "yes" to the teacher's feedback, in order to demonstrate that it was exactly what they wanted to say.
- 2. *Same error* uptake in which the student makes the same error.
- 3. **Different error** the student's uptake neither corrects nor repeats the initial error, as the student makes a different error in response to teacher's feedback.
- 4. *Off target* a response type which goes off the topic, without including any further errors.
- 5. *Hesitation* the student hesitates as a response to the teacher's feedback.
- 6. *Partial repair* the student corrects the error but partially.

Based on the purpose of this study, the term 'uptake' refers to those situations when a student indulges in uptake as an immediate response to the teachers' corrective feedback, regardless of whether or not it is repaired or needs-repair.

2.4 Debates over Oral Error Correction

A number of studies have been conducted to assess whether oral errors should be corrected or not. Based on these, researchers fall into two groups: those who believe that oral errors should be corrected (Agudo, 2012; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Lyster 2004; Panova and Lyster, 2002; Lyster and Saito, 2010; Russell and Spada, 2006; Russell 2009) and those who oppose the correction of oral errors (Truscott, 1999; Krashen, 1982; Schwartz, 1986). Some of the studies that touch upon this controversial issue will be discussed in this section.

According to Krashen (1982), negative evidence (i.e. teacher's corrective feedback that provides evidence to the learners that their utterance is unacceptable (Kim, 2005)) is not only unnecessary but also potentially harmful, since it puts the student on the defensive, interrupts the flow of discourse, and prevents the students from producing comprehensible output. Krashen (1982) points out that only positive evidence (i.e. teacher's feedback that provides evidence to the learners that their utterance is acceptable (Kim, 2005)) contributes to the students' second language development.

In a similar vein, Truscott (1999) labels oral error correction as a bad idea. He claims that:

Correction, by its nature, interrupts classroom activities, disturbing the ongoing communication process. It diverts the teacher's attention from the essential tasks involved in managing a communicative activity. It moves students' attention away from the task of communicating. It can

discourage them from freely expressing themselves, or from using the kinds of forms that might lead to correction (p. 442).

He mentions that oral error correction should take place only in cases when the benefits of error correction outweigh the problems that emerge as a result of error correction. Truscott (1999) states that his conclusions refer mainly to oral grammatical error, and can't be generalized to other types of oral errors, such as phonological and lexical. He substantiates his considerations based on the evidence that "oral correction does not improve learners' ability to speak grammatically" (p. 437). He claims that oral grammar correction is a very complicated process which may result in serious problems for both teacher and learner. Those problems include understanding of the error (i.e. if the students do not understand the source of the error, the corrective feedback provided by the teacher will confuse them more), false correction (because of unclear speech, noise or distance the teachers may treat the students' grammatical utterance as ungrammatical and provide false correction. This type of error correction may generate further problems for the learners), presenting the correction (i.e. teachers should take into consideration the individual attributes of the learners when providing oral corrective feedback) and being consistent (i.e. teachers should not fail to correct errors that they would correct in other cases). He also mentions that oral error correction causes, "embarrassment, anger, inhibition, feelings of inferiority, and a generally negative attitude toward the class (and possibly toward the language itself)" (p. 441).

However, Truscott's conclusions were greatly criticized by Lyster, Lightbown, and Spada (1999). They state that:

If Truscott had argued that it is difficult to know when, how, and what to correct in classroom L2 teaching, then we would have little to disagree

with. However, he argues instead that because it is difficult, and because its effectiveness cannot always be demonstrated, "error correction" should be abandoned (p. 457).

In responding to Truscott's "What's Wrong with Oral Grammar Correction", Lyster et al. (1999) describe it as, "impressionistic and unsubstantiated by research" (p. 457). According to Lyster et al. (1999) "a growing body of classroom research provides evidence that corrective feedback is pragmatically feasible, potentially effective, and, in some cases, necessary" (p. 457). Lyster et al. (1999) mention that Truscott (1999), in his paper, does not refer to recent studies which point out the effectiveness of oral corrective feedback. Instead, he mainly refers to the articles produced in the 1970s and 1980s, when the audio-lingual method of language teaching was widely used (i.e. the language was learned through drills, exercises, and repetition of set materials).

There are many other studies that cast doubt on Truscott's conclusions. For example, Lyster and Saito's (2010) study revealed that, regardless of instructional settings, "corrective feedback is facilitative of second language development and that its impact is sustained at least until delayed posttests" (p. 294). Russell and Spada's (2006) meta-analysis of 15 studies revealed that corrective feedback is more effective than no corrective feedback. Moreover, they found that corrective feedback in general contributes to second language grammar learning.

Thus, despite numerous studies having been conducted in this field, the question of whether or not students' oral errors should be corrected remains highly contentious among scholars.

2.5 Previous Research

A number of studies were conducted with the aim of revealing the influence of oral corrective feedback on learner uptake, the types of feedback that result in more uptake and the teachers' tendency to use one type of feedback over the other. It has been found that the types of feedback that are more effective at maximizing uptake are elicitation, clarification request and metalinguistic feedback (Lyster and Ranta, 1997, Lyster 2004; Panova and Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004). For example, the results of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study revealed that elicitation in 43% of students' erroneous utterances triggers repaired uptake, and in 54% it triggers utterances that still needs repair. It also shows that clarification request in 28% of students' ill-formed utterances invites repair, in 60% needs repair and in 12% there was no uptake. With respect to metalinguistic feedback, 45% of students' ill-formed utterances were followed by repair, 41% by needs repair and the remaining 14% showed no uptake.

These studies claim that implicit types of oral feedback (clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation) invite more uptake mainly because they induce either peer- or self-repair, whereas explicit correction, translation and recast are immediately provided by the teacher, thus, eliminating the opportunity for the student to self-repair.

However, irrespective of the fact that elicitation, clarification request and metalinguistic feedback are considered to be more effective at eliciting uptake, the studies done in this field indicate teachers' tendency to use recast, more than the other types of corrective feedback (Lyster, 1998; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Panova and Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004; Suzuki, 2005). For example, Sheen's (2004) study showed that the vast majority of the teachers' corrective actions, about 60%, were provided in the form of recast. Lyster and

Ranta's study revealed that recast accounted for half (55%) of the total corrective moves provided by the teachers, resulting in 18% repair, 13% needs repair and 69% no uptake.

In order to find out the main reasons why recasts do not trigger much uptake, a number of studies (Carpenter, Jeon, MacGregor and Mackey, 2006; Ellis and Sheen, 2006) have been done in this field. Another study, by Lyster (1998) revealed that recasts invite less uptake mainly because, "recasts of grammatical errors probably do not provide young classroom learners with negative evidence, in that they fail to convey what is unacceptable in the L2" (p. 207). He mentions that 30% of students' erroneous utterances are followed by isolated declarative recasts (67%), which provide confirmation of the learner's erroneous utterances, thus preventing them from noticing their mistakes.

However, according to the Mackey, Gass and Mcdonough (2000), Philp (2003), Suzuki (2005) et al. based on characteristics of recast, such as length (short recasts of five and fewer morphemes and long recasts of six and more morphemes) linguistic focus (grammar, phonological and lexical), mode (declarative intonation and interrogative intonation) emphasis (stressed and unstressed) and number of changes (recast with one change and recast with multiple changes) it may indeed trigger uptake.

Mackey, Gass and Mcdonough's (2000) study revealed that the learners failed to notice the corrective intention of recast when it was provided for morphosyntactic errors (remarks which refer to sentence formation, word order, subject-verb agreement and tense). They mention that oral feedback in the form of recast is more beneficial for lexical and phonological errors rather than for morphosyntactic errors, since in cases with lexical and phonological errors students are more likely to notice the corrective intention of oral corrective feedback.

Philp (2003), in her laboratory study which "focused on both the provision and the effectiveness of recasts" (p, 536), claims that lengthy recasts are more difficult to retain in a working memory than short recasts, which are easier to retain and additionally facilitate the noticing process. She also mentions that the recasts which involve fewer changes are more likely to be noticed than those which differ significantly from the learners' initial utterance.

Bigelow, Delmas, Hansen and Tarone (2006) replicated Philp's (2003) study with a population of adult second language learners with varying levels of first language literacy. Their findings revealed that the higher literacy level group recalled all recasts significantly better than did the lower literacy group. With regard to the length of recast (the number of morphemes) Bigelow, et al. (2006) mention that there is no statistical evidence that, "the participants' proportion of correct and modified recall was dependent on the length of recast" (p. 680). Bigelow, et al. (2006) also suggest that the complexity of the recast (number of changes) in relation to literacy level really matters when it refers to the learners' uptake, as the group with the higher mean literacy level produced a higher percentage of correct or modified recalls of recast with 2+ changes than did the lower literacy group.

In contrast with the above-mentioned results the study conducted by Suzuki (2005) revealed slightly different tendencies. In his study Suzuki (2005) found that almost 97% of total corrective feedback resulted in uptake. The most frequent types of feedback provided were recast (60%) and clarification request (30%). The types of the feedback that triggered most uptakes were explicit correction (100%) and recasts (66%). Suzuki (2005) also states that recasts were the only type of corrective feedback that triggered no uptake (6%).

The other results of his study suggest that the types of feedback that led to needs repair were elicitation (83%), clarification requests (63%), and repetition (60%).

The results of Suzuki's study (2005) differed significantly from that of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) mainly for two reasons:

- 1) The instructional setting Suzuki's study (2005) was conducted in English as a Second Language classrooms (where English was treated as an object that had to be studied), whereas Lyster and Ranta's study (1997) was conducted in four immersion classrooms (where language was used as a tool for acquiring general knowledge). Suzuki (2005) claims that in ESL classroom settings students tend to notice and correct their mistakes more easily, since their purpose is to improve their knowledge of English.
- 2) The age of the learners Suzuki's study (2005) was conducted with adult ESL learners (20-50 years old), whereas the subject of Lyster and Ranta's study (1997) were students in grades four to six. Suzuki (2005) claims that adult learners are more "sensitive to linguistic forms when they learn the second language" than young learners. This means that adult learners are more cautious and "notice the purpose of teacher feedback when it is targeting even a minor linguistic error, which might not impede communication" (p. 17).

Thus, from these studies we can conclude that the percentage of uptake following different types of oral corrective feedback mainly depends on the following factors: 1) the medium in which corrective feedback is provided (i.e., the corrective intention has been noticed), 2) the age of the learners, 3) types of corrective feedback, 4) students'

commitment and involvement in the task, 5) readiness to perceive corrective feedback, and 6) student perceptions of whether it relates to their performance or not (Hattie and Timperley, 2007).

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

The present study employs a mixed research method, which is a "combination of qualitative and quantitative methods within a single research project" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 44). The aim of this chapter is to elaborate on the study design, in order to investigate the following research questions:

- 1. What kind of oral feedback do teachers provide in EFL classes in Armenia?
- 2. What is the distribution of uptake following different types of oral corrective feedback?
- 3. How does teacher feedback vary for different types of errors?

3.1 Design

This mixed methods study consists of multiple classroom observations (carried out both in Experimental English Courses and in Extension Program), semi-structured interviews with 10 EEC and EP teachers and a questionnaire given to 47 EEC pre-service and in-service teachers, EP teachers and second year graduate students of the American University of Armenia. The particular research method has been chosen in order to increase the strength of the study as well as to decrease its weaknesses. Exemplar-based typology of this study is QUAL+QUAN, which is the combination of self-report (in this study represented by questionnaires and semi-structured interviews) and observational data (Dörnyei, 2007).

3.2 Sampling Procedure

The two sampling procedures selected to collect necessary data for this study were criterion sampling and census. The criterion sampling was used for qualitative data collection. According to Dörnyei (2007), criterion sampling implies that each participant chosen for the study meets some predetermined criteria set by the researcher. The three main criteria that EEC and EP teachers were expected to meet for this research were as follows:

- 1. Teaches several classes (i.e. most employed teacher)
- 2. Teaches different proficiency levels (from pre-intermediate to advance)
- 3. Are AUA MA TEFL graduates

The quantitative data for this study was collected through census method (i.e., collecting data from all members of the population without choosing a particular sample (Jupp, 2006). To achieve this, an online survey was sent to both EEC and EP teachers, as well as second year graduate students.

3.3 Participants

The participants of the present study included EEC and EP teachers as well as EEC and EP students. The total number of teachers was 47 (45 female and two male), all the teachers were either former students or second year graduate students of the American University of Armenia. The age of the teachers ranged from 21-50. Ten teachers were observed and interviewed (one pre-service second year graduate student of the AUA, five EP teachers and four EEC teachers) and 29 teachers completed the survey. There were 137 students in this study (41 Female and 96 male) with ages ranging from 16 to 50. Seventy-six students attended EFL classes through EEC and 61 through EP. The age of the students ranged from 10 to 15 (EEC) and from 16 to 35 (EP). The level of the students was determined either by a placement test or by successful completion of the previous level. All

students had different backgrounds and levels of language proficiency (high beginner and above). All these students attend EEC and EP classes intending to improve their language skills.

3.4 Data Collection

The data was collected through triangulation (i.e. "mixing of data or methods so that diverse viewpoints or standpoints cast light upon a topic" (Olsen, 2004, p 111)) in order to increase the validity of the study. The three instruments used for data collection were: observation, interviews and the online survey.

3.4.1. Observations

The first stage of data collection was accomplished through observations. Each of those ten teachers was observed twice, thus, the total number of observations was 20. The observed lessons were recorded in order for the researcher to compare and double-check the identified errors with the recording. The observation form (see Appendix 1) was developed by the researcher based on the categories identified by Lyster and Ranta's (1997) model of error treatment. This particular model provides a detailed tool for identifying the teachers' preferred approaches to error treatment during oral classroom activities. In addition, it provides a useful coding system for documenting learners' uptake of feedback. To meet the needs of the present study, the model has been slightly adapted in the following ways:

- 1. "No feedback" has been identified as a separate category.
- 2. Students' errors were classified according to three categories: grammatical, phonological and lexical.

The teachers were not informed about the precise topic of the research during observations for the purposes of the objectivity of the study.

3.4.2. Interviews

The second stage of data collection involved semi-structured interviews. The interviews were used to reinforce the data collected from the observations. The interviews consisted of 8 open-ended questions (see Appendix 2). The format of semi-structured interviews was chosen, since it enables the researcher to elaborate on the issues that are vital for the study, helps the researcher to discover new interesting facts that emerge during the interviews and provides opportunities for the interviewees to express their point of view by incorporating arguments and examples from their own experience and knowledge.

3.4.3. Online survey

An online survey (see Appendix 3) consisting of 14 multiple-choice questions was administered to all EEC and EP teachers as well as second year graduate students. The online survey was administered to 47 teachers and second year graduate students, however; only 29 of them completed it.

3.5 Data Analysis

The two methods used for analyzing the data collected for this study were:

Microsoft Excel

Identification of categories and themes

Microsoft Excel was used for analyzing the quantitative data collected through the online surveys, whereas categories and themes were used for identifying and coding the qualitative data collected through interviews and observation

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This chapter reports on the findings of the research on types of oral feedback the teachers provide in EEC and EP, the distribution of uptake following different types of oral corrective feedback and the teachers' feedback for different types of errors.

4.1 Observations

As mentioned in chapter 3, the observations were carried out with the aim of identifying the teachers' preferred modes of error treatment during oral classroom activities and their frequencies of use, the types of errors that invite more uptake and the types of oral corrective feedback that result in repair.

During 20 hours of observations in five EEC and five EP classrooms 339 cases of error correction were identified, of which 158 were in EP and 181 in EEC respectively (see Table 3). The number of errors which remained uncorrected by the teacher was 237. All of them were made during presentations, debates and discussions.

The students' errors were broken down into three groups:

- 1. Grammatical
- 2. Pronunciation
- 3. Semantic

Table 3 reports the total number of errors identified both in EEC and EP. It suggests that 40% of all corrective responses targeted grammar errors and the other 60% was equally distributed between pronunciation and semantic errors. It is clear from the results that in EEC, grammar errors received more oral corrective feedback than pronunciation

and semantic errors. Whereas, in EP all types of errors received nearly an equal amount of correction.

Table 3: The Number of Corrected Errors

Types of errors Where it was provided	Grammar	Pronunciation	Semantic	Total
EEC	80	55	46	181
EP	53	48	57	158
Total	133 (40%)	103 (30%)	103 (30%)	339

N = 339

It can be concluded from Table 4 that nearly half of the students' ill-formed utterances were followed by explicit correction (41%). The other most common feedback forms were recast (29%), elicitation (10%) and clarification request (9%). Explicit correction was predominant over the other types of feedback, both in EEC and EP. Elicitation was used significantly more in EEC than in EP. The occurrence of other feedback types does not vary significantly between EEC and EP.

Table 4: Total Number of Feedback Moves

Types of errors	EEC	EP	Total
Types of feedback			
Explicit correction	76 (42%)	61 (39%)	137 (41%)
Recast	50 (28%)	47 (30%)	97 (29%)
Clarification request	12 (7%)	17 (11%)	29 (9%)
Metalinguistic clues	5 (3%)	12 (7%)	17 (5%)
Elicitation	30 (16%)	5 (3%)	35 (10%)
Repetition	2 (1%)	4 (2%)	6 (2%)
Multiple feedback	6 (3%)	12 (8%)	18 (4%)

N=339

Table 5 presents evident that explicit correction was mainly provided in cases with pronunciation errors, whereas for grammar and semantic errors the teachers gave preference to recasts. The data show that for grammar errors the teachers use explicit correction and recast in similar amounts (28% and 34% respectively). In cases with semantic errors, the teachers use recasts more than explicit correction (46% vs. 21%). The other types of feedback were also used, but with a low frequency ranging from 4% to 13%.

Table 5: Total Number of Feedback Moves According to the Types of the Errors in EP

Types of errors	Grammar	Pronunciation	Semantic
Types of feedback			
Explicit correction	15 (28%)	34 (71%)	12 (21%)
Recast	18 (34%)	3 (6%)	26 (46%)
Clarification request	4 (7%)	6 (13%)	7 (12%)
Metalinguistic clues	6 (11%)	3 (6%)	3 (5%)
Elicitation	3 (6%)	0 (0%)	2 (4%)
Repetition	3 (6%)	1 (2%)	0 (0%)
Multiple feedback	4 (8%)	1(2%)	7 (12%)
Total	53 (100%)	48 (100%)	57 (100%)

N = 158

In Table 6 it is clear that both EEC and EP teachers correct students' pronunciation errors mainly through explicit correction (71% and 82% respectively). They also showed a similar tendency to implement recast and explicit correction in feedback on grammar errors, and with regard to semantic errors both groups were also inclined to provide more recast feedback (46% and 57%) than explicit correction (21% and 24%). However, the main difference between the groups is that in response to students' grammar errors, EEC teachers preferred elicitation to the other types of corrective feedback (35%), whereas EP teachers corrected students' grammar errors through elicitation only in 6% of cases.

Table 6: Total Number of Feedback Moves According to the Types of the Errors in EEC

Type of feedback	Grammar	Pronunciation	Semantic
Explicit correction	20 (25%)	45 (82%)	11 (24%)
Recast	21 (26%)	3 (5%)	26 (57%)
Clarification request	2 (3%)	4 (7%)	6 (13%)
Metalinguistic clues	4 (5%)	0 (0%)	1 (2%)
Elicitation	28 (35%)	1 (2%)	1 (2%)
Repetition	0 (0%)	1 (2%)	1 (2%)
Multiple feedback	5 (6%)	1 (2%)	0 (0%)
Total	80 (100%)	55 (100%)	46 (100%)

N=181

The next two Tables (see Tables 7 and 8) will discuss the students' uptake as a result of corrective feedback, and its distribution according to the types of feedback and types of errors.

It is clear from Table 7 that the frequency of teachers' responses which lead to repair is higher than those which lead to needs repair. Pronunciation errors invite most repairs among both EEC and EP teachers (75% and 84%, respectively). Based on these observations, we can conclude that the reason why pronunciation errors receive such a high percentage of repairs is mainly because the students tend to repeat their mispronounced words or incorporate the already-corrected version into their further utterances. Whereas, in nearly half of the cases with grammar and semantic errors, the

students were more likely to demonstrate acknowledgement rather than repeat, incorporate, self-correct or peer-correct their ill-formed utterances, unless the errors were corrected through elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification request and repetition. The possible explanations relating to the issue of why different types of feedback get different responses from students will be elaborated on in the next section

Table 7: Total Number of Students' Uptake Following Different Types of Errors.

Type of error	EEC			EP
	Needs repair	Repair	Needs repair	Repair
Grammar	19 (36%)	34 (64%)	24 (30%)	56 (70%)
Pronunciation	12 (25%)	36 (75%)	9 (16%)	46 (84%)
Semantic	23 (40%)	34 (60%)	20 (43%)	26 (57%)
Total	54 (34%)	104 (66%)	53 (29%)	128 (71%)

N = 339

Table 8 displays the students' responses to the teachers' oral corrective feedback. It presents all types of oral corrective feedback and how often each of them (if provided) results in repair and needs repair. The types of feedback that invite 100% repair are clarification request, metalinguistic clues, elicitation and repetition, although all of these apart from elicitation were observed with a relatively low frequency. Explicit correction which has been used in 137 corrective moves, also results in repair in most cases (34% vs. 66% (EEC) and 21% vs. 79% (EP)). The only type of feedback that triggers more cases with

needs repair than repaired is recast. Both in EEC and EP, only 40% of students' corrected utterances were repaired.

Table 8: Student Uptake According to the Types of Feedback Moves

Type of feedback	EEC		ЕР	
	Needs repair	Repair	Needs repair	Repair
Explicit correction	20 (33%)	41 (67%)	21 (28%)	55 (72%)
Recast	28 (60%)	19 (40%)	31(62%)	19 (38%)
Clarification request	0 (0%)	17 (100%)	0 (0%)	12 (100%)
Metalinguistic clues	0 (0%)	12 (100%)	0 (0%)	6 (100%)
Elicitation	0 (0%)	5 (100%)	0 (0%)	29 (100%)
Repetition	0 (0%)	4 (100%)	0 (0%)	2 (100%)
Multiple feedback	6 (50%)	6 (50%)	1 (17%)	5 (83%)
Total	54 (34%)	104 (66%)	53 (29%)	128 (71%)

N = 399

4.2 Interviews and Questionnaire

As mentioned in Chapter 3, semi-structured interviews consisting of eight open-ended questions were administered to five EP teachers, four EEC teachers and one second year graduate student. The questionnaire consisted of 14 questions (two open ended and 12 multiple choice). It was administered to 47 teachers and second year graduate students; however, only 29 responded to it. Data from the interviews and questionnaires were analyzed together since they both aimed to find out the teachers' attitudes, beliefs and

preferences regarding oral error correction, as well as the techniques that the teachers use for correcting their students oral errors. Teachers' responses were grouped into three categories: 1) the teachers' attitude towards oral error correction (interviews: questions 1, 2, 5 and 6; questionnaire: questions 3, 5, 6, 10, 13 and 14); 2) teachers' treatment of errors (interviews: questions 3 and 4; questionnaire: questions 4, 7, 8 and 9); and, 3) teachers' understanding of students' response to the oral corrective feedback (interviews: questions 7 and 8; questionnaire: questions 11 and 12).

4.2.1. The teachers attitude towards oral error correction

The results of the interviews and questionnaire reflected a tendency of most teachers to not correct all their students' errors. In the questionnaire, 72% (21 teachers) agreed that they would *sometimes* correct their students' errors, while 24% (7 teachers) mentioned that they would correct *nearly always*.

The interviewed teachers mentioned that not all the errors are corrected in their classrooms. They provided different reasons justifying their decision to correct only some of the errors. Here are some of them:

- Anna: "I try to differentiate between errors and mistakes, if it is a slip of the tongue I
 avoid correcting the mistake, since it may demotivate the student, but if it is an error
 I will always correct since it may become fossilized".
- Nellie: "I don't correct all the mistakes; I correct the ones which are connected with the topic of the lesson".
- Annie: "I almost never correct my SS errors, especially when we are focusing on fluency I think that it is useless to correct. I correct only those mistakes which seem very rude to that context".
- Mary: "I correct only those which accrue very frequently".

• Lilit: "I try to differentiate between monitored speech and free speech, e.g. during the class my students often have debates, during those debates I never correct, because here content matters, but I take notes of their mistakes and at the end of the class I put down those ill-formed sentences on the board and with the whole class we correct the mistakes".

Thus, from the responses above we can conclude that the teachers would generally provide corrective feedback when the error hinders the meaning, is made very frequently (i.e., becoming fossilized) or relates to already-covered material.

The second question seeks to determine whether it is preferable to correct the students' errors during or after speech. The analysis of the interviews revealed that in most cases (8 out of 10) the teachers prefer to correct the errors after the students' speech. Some of the responses to this question are:

- Aram: "I will not correct the error if it is in the middle of the conversation or debate, I will try to remember it and refer to it later, but if we are doing specific grammatical activities where probably we are looking for accuracy than I will correct the error immediately after the student makes it."
- Anna: "Sometimes it is not appropriate to interrupt the student and the error can be dealt with later."
- Nune: "If it is grammar that they are covering at the moment, I prefer feedback while speaking".

The results of the questionnaire did not vary much from that of the interviews. Nineteen (65%) teachers mentioned that the time of the feedback would mainly depend on the task; 12 (41%) preferred to provide oral corrective feedback at the end of the students' speech; and only 2 (6%) teachers preferred to provide while speech.

Thus, the majority of the teachers would provide oral corrective feedback at the end of the students' speech, especially if the students present something or debate different issues. However, in cases of grammar activities when the focus is on accuracy or when the students' are practicing certain grammar items, the teachers consider that the corrective feedback should immediately follow the students' ill-formed utterance.

The aim of the next question was to find out what the teachers consider when providing oral corrective feedback (e.g., age of the learners, level of proficiency and significance of the error). All of the interviewed teachers agreed that the only thing they would consider while providing oral corrective feedback is the level of their students. Mary, an EEC teacher, stated, "It mainly depends on the level; with lower levels probably explicit correction would work better, because lower level students generally do not have enough knowledge to self-correct their mistakes if you provide them any clues or hints".

The results of the questionnaire, which are presented in Table 9, show similar results to the interviews. The only difference is that the teachers also mentioned the significance of the error, while in the interviews they pointed out only the level of the students. Table 9 reports that the majority of the teachers prioritize the significance of the error (79%) and the level of the students (72%) over the age and the gender of their students'.

Table 9: What the Teachers Consider when Providing Oral Corrective Feedback.

	Response percent	Response count
Age	17%	5
Level	72%	21
Gender	10%	3
Significance of the error	79%	23

N=29

Thus, based on the data from the interviews and the questionnaire we may conclude that with lower levels the teachers would probably provide more direct and simplistic oral feedback, whereas for higher levels they would prefer more indirect types of feedback, which require the students to self-correct their errors.

The last question in this category asked the teachers whether they most prefer: 1) giving the feedback themselves; 2) letting peers provide feedback; or 3) letting students self-assess. The teachers were given an opportunity to choose as many answers as apply. The results of the questionnaire revealed that 16 (55%) teachers prefer providing the corrective feedback themselves, 11 (37%) prefer peer correction and 12 (41%) self-correction.

However, interview results slightly differ from those of the questionnaire. According to the interviews the vast majority of the teachers gave preference to self-correction and peer correction. The teachers substantiated their answers mentioning that self-correction is very effective since it raises students' consciousness, develops critical thinking, helps them notice their mistakes and, in case of repair, better understand how that particular error and similar errors should be corrected. Lilit, an EP teacher, stated, "The best method is eliciting the answer from students, this is when they really understand their mistake, notice it and correct it". It also helps the students better memorize their mistakes and dramatically decreases the possibility of making the same mistake again. Peer correction employs the same functions as self-correction; however, in cases of peer correction, as Aram mentioned, the teacher should ensure that the students accurately correct each other.

4.2.2. The teachers' treatment of errors

The next set of questions was posed to find out the most common types of feedback that are used to correct the students' grammar, pronunciation and lexical errors.

Table 10 shows the results of the questionnaire administered to 29 teachers. The teachers were asked to choose as many of the types of corrective feedback as apply.

As shown in the Table 10, the teachers have different preferences for grammar, pronunciation and lexical errors. For grammar errors 16 (55%) teachers gave preference to elicitation, 15 (51%) for repetition, and 14 (48%) for repetition. The types of error that received the least amount of feedback were explicit correction and recast (both 24%). In cases of lexical error the teachers also gave preference to elicitation (58%) and metalinguistic clues (37%), rather than other types of feedback. Whereas, for pronunciation errors the teachers mainly preferred repetition (48%), elicitation (41%) and explicit correction (41%). It should be mentioned that the results of the questionnaire were very consistent with those of the interviews, since for grammar and lexical errors the interviewed teachers also named a variety of indirect corrective techniques, whereas for pronunciation errors nine out of ten teachers mentioned only explicit correction. Only Annie expressed a different viewpoint relating to pronunciation errors. She said, "I do not explicitly correct pronunciation errors because I am not a native speaker myself, what I do I just send my students TED talks, fairytales or movie trailers and ask them to imitate, then record themselves and post to our web page".

Table 10: The Teachers' Beliefs about the Types of Corrective Feedback they Use for Correcting Grammatical, Pronunciation and Semantic Errors.

Type of feedback	Grammar	Pronunciation	Semantic
Explicit correction	7 (24%)	12 (41%)	10 (34%)
Recast	7 (24%)	9 (31%)	11 (37%)
Clarification request	10 (34%)	8 (27%)	11 (37%)
Metalinguistic clues	14 (48%)	6 (20%)	14 (48%)
Elicitation	16 (55%)	12 (41%)	17 (58%)
Repetition	15 (51%)	14 (48%)	11 (37%)

The following three Figures (see Figures 1, 2 and 3) compare the results of the observations and the teachers' beliefs about responding to grammar, pronunciation and lexical errors.

Figure 1 reports that the teachers generally prefer to correct their students' ill-formed grammar utterances through clarification request (34%), metalinguistic clues (48%), elicitation (55%) and repetition (51%). However the results of the questionnaire are not consistent with that of observations, since in practice the teachers mainly correct their students' grammar errors though explicit correction (25%) and recast (32%).

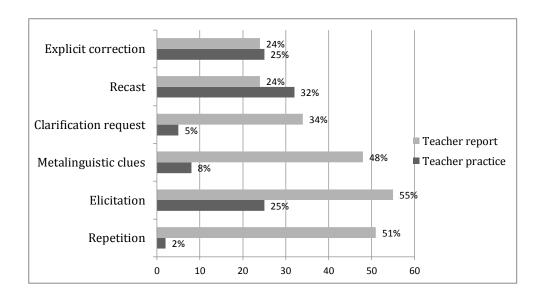


Figure 1: The teachers' belief and the results of the observations for grammar errors.

According to Figure 2 the majority of the teachers mentioned that they correct their students' pronunciation errors through repetition (48%), elicitation (41%) and explicit correction (41%). Whereas, the results of the observations show that the teachers' beliefs coincide with the way they actually correct pronunciation errors only in case of explicit correction. The two other types of error correction (i.e., elicitation and repetition) were used only in few cases.

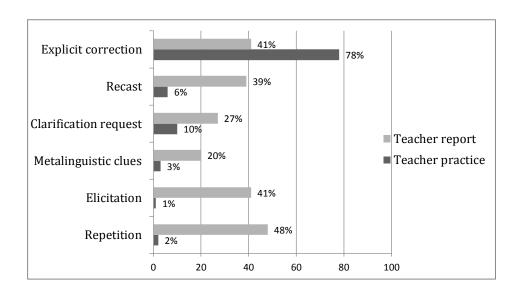


Figure 2: The teachers' belief and the results of the observations for pronunciation errors.

Figure 3 displays that the teachers prefer to correct their students' semantic errors through elicitation (58%) and metalinguistic clues (48%). However, the teachers' beliefs and the results of the observations are not consistent, since in practice the teachers generally correct their students' semantic errors through recast (54%) and explicit correction (24%).

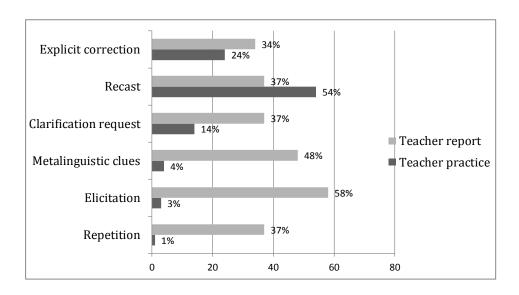


Figure 3: The teachers' belief and the results of the observations for semantic errors.

Thus, we can note that the teachers' reports about error correction and the way they corrected their students ill-formed utterances uncover some contradictions, since the teachers' beliefs about how different types of errors should be corrected did not always coincide with what actually happened in the classroom.

4.2.3. The teachers' understanding of students' response to the oral corrective feedback

The next two questions aimed to describe the teachers' understanding of the students' usual response to the teachers' corrective feedback as well as the types of the feedback which according to the teachers generate more uptakes.

All the interviewed teachers agreed that the students generally respond to their corrective feedback when they are aware of it. Thus, when the students notice the corrective intention of their teacher they either repeat, incorporate or acknowledge their error.

Regarding the types of error correction that result in the most uptake, nine out of ten interviewed teachers mentioned different types of feedback which rely on an indirect error correction method (e.g., elicitation, explicit correction,, metalinguistic clues and repetition). They substantiated their viewpoint based on the fact that indirect types of error correction require the students to self-correct their errors, which helps the students better understand and remember their mistake. Kristine, an EP teacher, stated, "Students understand and remember their mistakes better, when the teacher analyzes their ill-formed utterances, provides hints and elicits the answer from them". Only one teacher named recast as the type of feedback generating the most uptakes.

The results of the questionnaire, which are presented in Table 11, compliment the interview data. The 29 teachers who completed the questionnaire were asked to choose as many of the types of feedback as apply.

Table 11 suggests that the type of feedback that most often invites uptake is repetition (55%), being followed by metalinguistic clues (51%) and clarification requests (44%). The types of feedback that generate the least incidents of uptake are recasts and explicit correction.

In reference to the types of feedback which result in an utterance that still needs repair, the majority of the teachers named recast (41%). The second and the third most frequently selected were repetition and elicitation, respectively.

Table 11: The Teachers' Belief about the Types of Feedback that Most Often Result in Uptake and those which Result in Utterance that Still Needs Repair.

Type of feedback	Results in uptake	Utterance that still needs repair
Explicit correction	6 (20%)	6 (20%)
Recast	5 (17%)	12 (41%)
Clarification request	13 (44%)	4 (13%)
Metalinguistic clues	15 (51%)	4 (13%)
Elicitation	10 (34%)	7 (24%)
Repetition	16 (55%)	8 (27%)

It should be mentioned that the teachers' responses to the above mentioned questions were consistent with the results of the observations. Elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request and repetition, according to the results of the observations, interviews and the questionnaire, were the only ones that result in uptake in most of the cases. Whereas explicit correction and recast were the ones which may invite an utterance that still needs repair.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS

The present study aimed at discussing questions related to error correction, teachers' feedback and the learner uptake. The study revealed the types of oral feedback teachers provide in EEC and EP, identified the distribution of uptake following different types of oral corrective feedback, and showed how teacher feedback differed for different types of errors.

5.1 Summary of Findings

The findings may be summarized as responses to the original research questions.

- What kind of oral feedback do teachers provide in EEC and EP? The results of the observations suggest that the most common types of feedback among EEC and EP teachers are recast and explicit correct. The teachers preferred these two types of feedback for both grammar and semantic errors, whereas in response to pronunciation errors they generally used explicit correction. It should be mentioned that EEC teachers in contrast to EP teachers used elicitation for correcting grammar errors more than the other types of corrective feedback.
- What is the distribution of uptake following different types of oral corrective feedback? The analysis of the observations revealed that clarification request, metalinguistic clues, elicitation and repetition result in 100% repair. The other types of feedback, particularly explicit correction (30% needs repair vs. 70% repaired) and recast (61% needs repair vs. 39% repaired)

frequently resulted in a student response that still needs repair. Thus, we can conclude that the findings of this study were consistent with those of Lyster and Ranta (1997), Lyster (2004), Panova and Lyster (2002) and Sheen (2004), all of which also discovered that clarification request, metalinguistic clues and elicitation are more effective at generating student uptake than recasts and explicit correction.

How does the teacher feedback differ for different types of errors? – According to the results of the questionnaire and the interviews the teachers tended to use elicitation, clarification request, metalinguistic clues and repetition for grammar and lexical errors. They defended their decision to do so on the basis that the above mentioned types of feedback result in self-correction and remain in the students' memory for a long time. However, the teachers' reports about error correction and the way they corrected their students illformed utterances uncover some inconsistences, since the teachers' beliefs about how different types of errors should be corrected did not always coincide with what actually happened in the classroom.. Analysis of observations revealed that grammar errors were mainly corrected through recast (30%), explicitly corrected (27%) and elicitation (21%). In response to lexical errors, around half of the students' ill-formed utterances were followed by recast (52%), and many of the remainder by explicit correction (23%).

There was however no significant disparity between the teachers' beliefs and the observed classroom practices with regard to pronunciation errors. Thus, the types of feedback that the teachers used for correcting their students' pronunciation errors were explicit correction, repetition and elicitation.

Based on these findings, it can be concluded that: 1) the types of feedback which generate more repair are used less than those which generate nearly an equal percentage of needs-repair and repair, and 2) the teachers beliefs relating to oral error correction is not always consistent with the way they actually correct those errors in their classrooms.

5.2 Pedagogical Implications

Teaching implications that may be drawn from the research findings are as follows:

Firstly, analysis of the observations showed that the types of feedback which were most likely to generate more repaired uptakes were elicitation, clarification request, metalinguistic clues and repetition. Consequently, the teachers should try to employ these types of error correction strategies as much as possible.

Secondly, data analysis revealed that the use of those corrective techniques which provide the correct language (recast and explicit correction) result in an equal proportion of repaired and needs repair uptake. Therefore, the teachers should try to avoid the overuse of recast and explicit correction, since these types of feedback may result is an utterance that still needs repair.

Thirdly, according to the results of the questionnaire and the interviews it is evident that the teachers' beliefs about oral error correction and the way they implement error correction in their classrooms are not always consistent. Hence, from time to time self-

reflections and peer-observations may be conducted in order to raise the teachers' awareness about the ways they correct their students' errors.

5.3 Limitations and Delimitations of the Research

There are several limitations and delimitations which have emerged during the design and implementation of the study. The first limitation is the cross-sectional study did not provide enough time for detecting developments and changes in error treatment among EEC and EP teachers. The second limitation is that the teachers did not carry microphones, as a result of which it became nearly impossible to collect all the corrective feedback responses provided by the teacher, especially when those corrective moves were provided during different types of classroom activities, such as group work, pair share activities, group discussions, and fish bowl activities. The third limitation is that although the link of the online questionnaire was sent to 47 participants (EEC and EP teachers and second year graduate students), only 29 responded to it, thus providing a fairly limited sample.

This study has a number of delimitations. First the study was limited only to EEC and EP classes and might not be generalizable to other educational institutions and contexts. Second, the study addressed intermediate level classrooms and the results might not apply at beginner and advanced levels. Third, the questionnaire was administered to all EEC and EP teachers as well as second year graduate students, in order to collect data from all members of the population without choosing a particular sample.

5.4 Future Research

There are several areas on which the future research may focus. First, it should be longitudinal instead of cross-section in order to "describe patterns of change, and to explain causal relationship" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 79). Longitudinal research would reveal the developments and changes in teachers' attitudes towards oral error correction. Second, it would be interesting to find out students' opinions related to oral error correction (i.e., would they like to be corrected? If so, when, and how would they like to be corrected? What kind of errors they would like their teachers to correct?). For this purpose, the students may be interviewed or be administered a questionnaire. Third, in order to have more comprehensive and complete data, the teachers may wear microphones for all corrective moves to be recorded and analyzed.

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OBSERVATION SCHEME

FACTUAL INFORMATION

- Level:
- Class:
- Age of Students:
- Number of Students:
- Teacher:
- Date:

	Grammatical	Lexical	Phonological	Additional comments
1. Explicit				
correction				
2. Recast				
3. Clarification				
request				
4. Metalinguistic				
feedback				
5. Elicitation				
6. Repetition				
7. Translation				
8. Multiple				
feedback				
9. Self-				
correction				
10. Peer				
correction				
11. No feedback				

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

- **1.** Do you always correct your students' errors? Do you think that all errors should be corrected?
- 2. When do you provide oral feedback- before or during students' speaking? Why?
- **3.** Do you correct different errors differently (grammatical, pronunciation, lexical)? How do you do that?
- **4.** What types of feedback do you give most frequently (specify the types for the teacher)?
- **5.** Do you provide different types of feedback based on the age and the level of the learners?
- **6.** What do you prefer most-giving feedback yourself or letting the peers give feedback or allowing students to self-correct? Why?
- **7.** What is the students' usual response to your feedback? Does their response result in repair of the error or does it result in an utterance that still needs repair?
- **8.** What types of feedback result in repair of the error by the student (specify types of feedback and uptake for the teacher)? Which result in utterances that still need repair?

ONLINE QUESTIONNAIRE

1.	Please select one:
	□Female
	□Male
2.	Please select all that apply:
	□ I am an EEC Teacher
	□ I am an EP Teacher
	$\hfill\square$ I am a second year graduate student in the MA TEFL program
3.	How often do you correct your students' oral errors?
	□ Always
	□ Nearly always
	\square Sometimes
	□ Hardly ever
	□ Never
4.	What type(s) of feedback do you give more frequently? Select all that apply
	$\hfill\square$ Recast- teacher reformulates the learner's utterance except the error
	$\hfill\square$ Explicit Correction- teacher explicitly provides the correct form
	$\hfill\square$ Repetition- teacher repeats the students' ill formed utterance using the rising
	intonation
	\Box Elicitation- teacher tries to elicit the answer from the student (e.g. no, not that
	$\hfill\square$ Clarification request- teacher indicates that the utterance was ill-formed and
	needs reformulation (e.g. Excuse me)
	$\hfill\square$ Metalinguistic feedback- teacher provides clues so that the learner corrects
	his/her mistake

5.	What do you consider when providing oral corrective feedback? Choose all that apply
	□ Age
	□Level
	\Box Gender
	□Significance of error
	□other
6.	When do you provide oral corrective feedback?
	☐ While a student is speaking
	\square After the student has spoken
	□ Depends
7.	What type(s) of oral feedback do you use for correcting your students oral
	grammatical errors? Choose all that apply.
	$\hfill\square$ Recast- teacher reformulates the learner's utterance except the error
	$\hfill\square$ Explicit Correction- teacher explicitly provides the correct form
	$\hfill\square$ Repetition- teacher repeats the students' ill formed utterance using the rising
	intonation
	$\hfill\Box$ Elicitation- teacher tries to elicit the answer from the student (e.g. no, not that)
	$\hfill\square$ Clarification request- teacher indicates that the utterance was ill-formed and
	needs reformulation (e.g. Excuse me)
	$\hfill\square$ Metalinguistic feedback- teacher provides clues so that the learner corrects
	his/her mistake
8.	What type(s) of oral feedback do you use for correcting your students pronunciation
	errors? Choose all that apply:
	☐ Recast- teacher reformulates the learner's utterance except the error

	$\hfill\square$ Explicit Correction- teacher explicitly provides the correct form
	$\hfill\square$ Repetition- teacher repeats the students' ill formed utterance the rising intonation
	\square Elicitation- teacher tries to elicit the answer from the student (e.g. no, not that)
	$\hfill\square$ Clarification request- teacher indicates that the utterance was ill-formed and
	needs reformulation (e.g. Excuse me)
	$\hfill\square$ Metalinguistic feedback- teacher provides clues so that the learner corrects
	his/her mistake.
9.	What type(s) of oral feedback do you use for correcting your students oral lexical
	(word choice) errors? Choose all that apply:
	$\hfill\square$ Recast- teacher reformulates the learner's utterance except the error
	\square Explicit Correction- teacher explicitly provides the correct form
	$\hfill\square$ Repetition- teacher repeats the students' ill formed utterance using the rising
	intonation
	\square Elicitation- teacher tries to elicit the answer from the student (e.g. no, not that)
	$\hfill\square$ Clarification request- teacher indicates that the utterance was ill-formed and
	needs reformulation (e.g. Excuse me)
	$\hfill\square$ Metalinguistic feedback- teacher provides clues so that the learner corrects
	his/her mistake.
10	. Which approach to error correction do you prefer most?
	☐ Giving the feedback myself
	□ Letting peers provide feedback
	☐ Letting students self-correct
	□ Other
11	. What type(s) of feedback most often result in repair of the error by the student?
	Choose all that apply:
	$\hfill\square$ Recast- teacher reformulates the learner's utterance except the error
	☐ Explicit Correction- teacher explicitly provides the correct form

	☐ Repetition- teacher repeats the students' ill formed utterance using the rising
	intonation
	$\hfill\Box$ Elicitation- teacher tries to elicit the answer from the student (e.g. no, not that)
	$\hfill\square$ Clarification request- teacher indicates that the utterance was ill-formed and
	needs reformulation (e.g. Excuse me)
	$\hfill\square$ Metalinguistic feedback- teacher provides clues so that the learner corrects
	his/her mistake
12	. What type(s) of feedback result in utterance that still need repair? Choose all that apply:
	$\hfill\square$ Recast- teacher reformulates the learner's utterance except the error
	$\hfill\square$ Explicit Correction- teacher explicitly provides the correct form
	$\hfill\square$ Repetition- teacher repeats the students' ill formed utterance using the rising
	intonation
	$\hfill\Box$ Elicitation- teacher tries to elicit the answer from the student (e.g. no, not that)
	$\hfill\square$ Clarification request- teacher indicates that the utterance was ill-formed and
	needs reformulation (e.g. Excuse me)
	$\hfill\square$ Metalinguistic feedback- teacher provides clues so that the learner corrects
	his/her mistake
13	. Are there additional approaches to error correction that you employ, that were not
	included in this survey? Please share them here.
14	. Please share any final comments or questions related to oral corrective feedback
	here: