DIPLOMARBEIT

Titel der Diplomarbeit

"Corrective Feedback and Uptake in the Advanced Learner Classroom"

Verfasserin

Jenna Leiter

angestrebter akademischer Grad

Magistra der Philosophie (Mag.phil.)

Wien, November 2010

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Transcription Conventions

T	Teacher
S	Student
S2	Second Student
Ss	Students
S: [Yeah	Overlapping Speech
T: [But	
xxx	Unintelligible Speech
(...)	Teacher Talking
[...]	Comments By The Transcriber

Acknowledgements

First of all, I would like to thank my supervisor, Prof. Dalton-Puffer, for her support and encouragement throughout this exciting journey. Her advice was always appreciated and her feedback always constructive. She made this whole process seem a little less daunting!

Secondly, I would like to thank the teachers and the students of Class A, B and C at the English Department of the University of Vienna for welcoming me into their classes and allowing me to audio-record the lessons. Obviously, I could not have conducted this study without them.

The past five years have been an academic pleasure. I am grateful to have had such amazing and inspiring professors at both the English and History Department - a special thank you goes to Prof. Seidlhofer and Prof. Widdowson, for sparking my interest in linguistics, and Prof. Vries and Prof. Sauer, whose courses in history confirmed that I had chosen the right elective.

Throughout my studies I have met such wonderful people who have consistently encouraged and believed in me. I am very fortunate to have such amazing friends who have helped me in more ways than I could ever express. Thank you Harry, Lou, Rosana, Dani, Mathias, Karin, Elisa, Elias, Susie and Fiona. A special thank you goes to Anna and Xenia, who have been with me since day one and have continuously offered their support, advice and knowledge. Thank you for making the past five years that much better!

A love-filled thank you goes to my family. To my grandparents for their constant love and encouragement, to my lil' sis for screwing my head back on whenever I was about to lose it, and to my big bro for insisting I use LaTeX to make this thesis 'beautiful' - and for letting me transcribe all the audio-recordings in his flat in London.

Finally, I dedicate this paper to my parents who have made all of this possible. Not a single word could have been written without their endless love, moral and financial support. I owe them absolutely everything. Ironically, they have always known exactly when, how and which feedback to give me.

Thank you.

1 Introduction

Over the past forty years the issues of oral corrective feedback and learner uptake have been widely debated amongst researchers of second language acquisition and teachers alike. Nevertheless, there is still no definite answer as to whether, and if so, when, how and which errors should be treated during oral classroom work. This is due to the fact that the effectiveness of corrective feedback and the amount of uptake that results from it depend on a variety of factors, ranging from classroom context to feedback type to learner background. Despite it being impossible to draw uniform conclusions, the large amount of observational research has revealed some general ideas and suggestions in regard to error correction.

While the individual studies differ from each other depending on what aspect of corrective feedback and uptake they examine, they share one major similarity: these studies have analyzed beginner or low intermediate learner classrooms. As a result, research data concerning more advanced, proficient language learners is lacking. The aim of this thesis, then, is to fill this gap by presenting the findings of a study conducted on corrective feedback and uptake in three classes at the English Department of the University of Vienna. The students participating in these classes have all passed the entrance exam, a standardized language test for which the minimum language level requirement is the Council of Europe standard B2 ('Independent User'). The results will be compared to the findings of lower level classrooms to see whether corrective feedback and uptake differ depending on the proficiency level of the learners.

In order for a comparison to be made, the following four chapters of this paper will provide an overview of the findings of previous research concerning corrective feedback and uptake. Chapter 2 will define the key terms 'error' and 'error correction'. Chapter 3 will outline how the attitude towards and treatment of errors has changed over the past sixty years. Chapter 4 and 5 will discuss the major controversies surrounding corrective feedback and uptake respectively. Following this overview, Chapter 6 will then present, discuss and compare the results of the study conducted for this thesis with the findings of previous research.

2 Terms And Definitions

2.1 Definition(s) Of Error

The term 'error' derived from the Latin word 'error' and originally meant "a wandering, straying, mistake" (Random House Dictionary 1987: 659). Today, 'error' has at least eight different definitions, though "a deviation from accuracy or correctness" (ibid), seems to be the most suitable one for a discussion on error correction. However, to say what exactly a deviation from accuracy or correctness in a second language (L2) classroom context is, has proven to be difficult. Various researchers have tried to define 'error' in second language acquisition (SLA). For example, Day et al. (1984: 20) stated that an 'error' is "the use of a linguistic item or discourse structure in a way, which, according to fluent users of the language, indicates faulty or incomplete learning". Other linguists have said that an (English) error "occurs where the speaker fails to follow the pattern or manner of speech of educated people in English speaking countries today" (Liski and Puntanen 1983: 227). However, Lennon (1991) pointed out that such definitions are often ambiguous, because even educated language teachers and native speakers often believe perfectly correct sentences to contain errors (see also Hughes and Lascaratou 1982). Therefore, he proposed a more cautious definition, defining 'error' as

> A linguistic form or combination of forms which, in the same context and under similar conditions of production, would, in all likelihood, not be produced by the speakers' native speaker counterparts.

> (Lennon 1991: 182)

This definition will be the working definition of this thesis.

2.2 Definition(s) Of Error Correction

Different terms have been used by researchers to describe the act of correcting learner errors in SLA. Amongst these are the terms 'feedback', 'repair', 'treatment', 'negative evidence/feedback', 'correction' or 'corrective feedback'. According to some researchers, feedback "serves as a general cover term for information provided by listeners on the reception and comprehension of messages" (Ellis 1994: 584). Vigil and Oller (1976 paraphrased Ellis 1994: 584)

have argued that it is "useful to distinguish 'cognitive' and 'affective' feedback; the former relates to actual understanding while the latter concerns the motivational support that interlocutors provide each other with during an interaction". 'Repair' is a more restricted term, and refers to "modifications of trouble sources which have manifested themselves in the discourse" (Kasper 1985: 200; see also Ellis 1994). Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks (1977: 381) used 'repair' to refer to efforts to detect and solve communication difficulties, amongst them those that originate from linguistic errors. According to Ellis (1994) 'corrections', is an even narrower term, which refers to "attempts to deal specifically with linguistic errors" (584); it constitutes "an attempt to supply 'negative feedback' in the form of feedback that draws the learner's attention to the errors they have made" (ibid). Schachter (1991) stated that 'negative feedback' is a native speaker's utterance which informs the non-native speaker that there was something incorrect with what he or she just said.

Chaudron (1977: 31) defined 'treatment' and 'corrective reactions' more precisely in that he distinguished four different types:

1. Treatments which succeed in establishing the learner's consistent correct performance and his autonomous ability to correct himself on the item.

2. Treatments which elicit the correct response from the committer of the error or from one or more of his classmates.

3. Any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner's utterance.

4. Positive or negative reinforcement, such as words of approval or disapproval.

However, according to Chaudron (1977) only the second and third definitions listed above are useful for a study on error correction, since the other two are too restricting - the first definition is not feasible within a short period of instruction and the fourth definition confines research to words of approval and "reinforcing reactions" (Chaudron 1977: 31). Therefore, Chaudron (ibid) concluded that they are "not useful in developing an adequate description".

According to Long (1996), the input language learners receive should be thought of in terms of two different categories: 'positive evidence' and 'negative evidence'. He defined 'positive evidence' as providing the learners with models of what is "grammatical and acceptable [. . .] in the L2, but also instances of ungrammatical language use at a time when learners do not know

which is which" (413). In contrast, he defined 'negative evidence' as providing learners with "direct or indirect information about what is ungrammatical" (ibid), with the information provided either explicitly, with an explanation, or implicitly, through reformulation.

'Corrective feedback' was defined by Lightbown and Spada (1999: 172) as "[a]n indication to the learners that his or her use of the target language is incorrect". They, too, stated that corrective feedback can include a wide variety of responses, ranging from implicit to explicit, some also containing additional metalinguistic information. Ellis, Loewen and Erlam (2006: 28) defined corrective feedback as taking "the form of responses to learner utterances that contain an error". Li (2010: 309) stated that "corrective feedback in SLA refers to the responses to a learner's nontargetlike L2 production".

Schachter (1991: 89) pointed out that corrective feedback, negative evidence, and negative feedback are three terms with similar meaning, used respectively in the pedagogical field of L2 teaching/learning, in the linguistic field of language acquisition, and in the psychological field of concept learning. In all cases the terms refer to providing the learner with information that their production "was in some way anomalous, unacceptable, or deviant" (ibid). Schachter (1991: 90) further pointed out that negative data does not only mean "simple corrections of learner's speech production" but entails "phenomena as contributors, confirmation checks, clarification requests, failures to understand (such as Huh? or What?), silence, expanded and corrected repetitions" (ibid).

Due to the overlapping definitions, these different terms have often been used interchangeably. In the present research, too, error correction/treatment, correction and (corrective) feedback are used alternatively. Drawing on Chaudron (1977), Lightbown and Spada (1999) and Ellis, Loewen and Erlam (2006) the terms refer to:

1. Any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner's utterance.

2. The teacher supplying the correct target form.

3. Metalinguistic information about the nature of the error.

4. Any combination of these three.

Repair, on the other hand, is defined differently in this thesis. Its definition will be explained further on in section 5.2.

3 Historical View On Error Correction

3.1 From The Avoidance To The Acceptance Of Errors

Throughout the 1950s and 1960s language teaching practices were based on the idea that language learning occurred through imitation (Skinner 1957), and that this process could take place in the classroom through dialog memorization and pattern drills (Hendrickson 1978). Since this 'audio-lingual' method placed its emphasis on imitation, L2 teachers were trained to correct errors as soon as they occurred and to ask their students to repeat the correct form (ibid). In such teaching contexts errors were likened to sin, "[l]ike sin, error is to be avoided and its influence overcome, but its presence is to be expected" (Brooks 1960: 58). Language teaching guides suggested methods which would help minimize error production. These guides stated that

> The principal method of avoiding error in language learning is to observe and practice the right model a sufficient number of times; the principal way of overcoming it is to shorten the time lapse between the incorrect response and the presentation once more of the correct model.

> (Brooks 1960: 58)

As Holley and King (1971: 494) pointed out, foreign language teachers were trained "to correct faulty student responses quickly and consistently for grammatical or pronunciation errors assuming that correct learning will result" by having students repeat the correct form. Such methods never encouraged students to try and find and correct their error on their own. However, by the end of the 1960s studies in transformational-generative grammar, first language acquisition and cognitive psychology led to trends away from audio-lingualism and its mechanistic approach, and towards a more humanistic approach of language teaching (Hendrickson 1978). Language teachers began to stress the use of language for communication and instead of asking their students to produce error-free sentences in the foreign language, they started motivating their students to simply speak (ibid). Teachers were encouraged to create an atmosphere in which the students felt comfortable to talk, an atmosphere in which students were not constantly being corrected or urged to produce completely flawless sentences (Chastain 1971).

This new view on errors was based "partly upon analogy to the fact that children everywhere produce numerous errors while acquiring their first language - errors that their parents expect and accept as a natural and necessary part of child development" (Hendrickson 1978: 388). Language educators therefore suggested that foreign language teachers should also expect many errors from students "as a natural phenomenon integral to the process of learning a second language" (ibid). They pointed out that "[w]hen teachers tolerate some student errors, students often feel more confident about using the target language than if all their errors are corrected" (ibid). As with every new skill one acquires, teachers should expect learners to make errors at the beginning, and researchers believed that by providing "periodic, supportive feedback" (ibid) learners would profit.

Furthermore, Corder (1967: 167) argued that learner errors should not only be tolerated, but that these errors provide both the teacher and the student with evidence as to how far along the student's second language has developed. He stated that by studying students' errors one could find out more about the effectiveness of teachers' training methods and techniques. Furthermore, Corder (1967) stated that errors also provide the researcher with "evidence of how language is learned or acquired [and] what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language" (167). With his article *The Significance of Learner Errors*, Corder (1967) was one of the first researchers to suggest that an analysis of language errors could provide information on how a learner acquires a second language. That being the case, observations and studies on errors and error treatment, then, would be able to provide useful insights into teaching.

3.2   First Publications

This new view on errors which moved away from the notion of 'correction' and more towards the notion of 'learning', resulted in an increase in publications on the treatment of error. Researchers began to conduct studies to investigate how error correction was taking place in the L2 classroom and wanted to see which way(s) of dealing with errors would most benefit language learners. Furthermore, researchers argued that a closer look at error correction would also contribute to teacher effectiveness, as teachers have to react to the errors and their reaction is "a major factor in determining what learners actually learn" (Allwright 1975: 97). Therefore researchers pointed out that the teacher's way of dealing with errors is "central to that teacher's

effectiveness" (ibid: 98).

However, researchers discovered early on that the topic of error correction and a teacher's effectiveness was a complex issue. The first studies revealed that teachers were imprecise when they provided corrections, "tending to repeat the correct model rather than provide any obviously adaptive treatment, and tending to fail to explicitly locate errors for the learners (i.e. indicate precisely at which point in the utterance the error occurred)" (Fanselow 1974 paraphrased in Allwright 1975: 98). Other studies showed that teachers were not only imprecise but also inconsistent (Mehan 1974). Mehan's (1974) study revealed that a teacher might choose to apply an 'only full sentences will be accepted' rule, and nevertheless accept a partial utterance, because it is linguistically correct, failing, however, to point out to the class that it was accepted for that reason and not because it was considered a full sentence. Other times, Allwright (1975) argued a teacher might simply be inconsistent due to his or her lack of self-discipline or accept a partial utterance from a student who needs particular encouragement to participate. In that case, Allwright (1975: 99) argued that being inconsistent is actually helpful to the student, and not necessarily a 'bad thing'- "in order to provide the appropriate treatment to all learners at all times, teachers must run the risk of appearing inconsistent in their application of criteria of acceptability" (99). Allwright (1975) therefore concluded that a teacher may feel the need to adjust, in order to adapt to the individual differences among their learners.

Allwright (1975) also found that some teachers did not only treat errors by repeating the correct form, as Fanselow (1974) had stated, but use 'the silent way': such teachers, instead of giving away the correct formulation, locate the error to the nearest syllable, thereby forcing the student to re-think and re-try the utterance. This method, Allwright (1975: 98) concluded, "may actually give more precise help than is usual elsewhere". However, Allwright (1975) found that this method was not particularly popular, and that in general the teacher's attempts to correct learner errors were ambiguous and often misleading. Results of other studies in the 1970s found similar results (Chaudron 1977; Long 1977).

3.3   Complications

By the end of the 1970s and well into the 1980s, some researchers in SLA, influenced by nativist theories and the similarities between L1 and L2 acquisition, started to view error correction in its entirety as a 'mistake' (Krashen

1981, 1982; Terrell 1977). In addition to looking at how errors were being corrected, researchers began to investigate whether they should be corrected at all, and if so, when, which, how and who should correct errors. These questions were first posed by Hendrickson (1978) more than thirty years ago, yet still today there are no clear answers - the issues remain highly debated and controversial as will be illustrated in the following chapter.

4 Controversies Concerning Error Correction

4.1 Should Errors Be Corrected?

In 1977 Terrell published an article advocating a more 'natural' approach to L2 teaching which in turn would facilitate acquisition. She argued that languages should be learned through classroom activities which focused on content rather than on form without any error correction and that students should be allowed to talk in L1 or L2 or in a mixture of both. As far as error correction was concerned, she noted that:

> Much has been written on error correction (Cohen, 1975). However, there is no evidence which shows that the correction of speech errors is necessary or even helpful in language acquisition. Most agree that the correction of speech errors is negative in terms of motivation, attitude, embarrassment and so forth, even when done in the best of situations.
>
> (Terrell 1977: 330)

Similarly, Krashen (1982: 74) argued that error correction is a "serious mistake".

> Error correction has the immediate effect of putting the student on the defensive. It encourages a strategy in which the student will try to avoid mistakes, avoid difficult constructions, focus less on meaning and more on form. It may disrupt the entire communicative focus on an exchange. [... Therefore] a safe procedure is simply to eliminate error correction entirely in communicative-type activities. [...] Improvement will come without error correction, and may even come more rapidly, since the input will 'get in', the filter will be lower and students will be off the defensive.
>
> (Krashen 1982: 76)

'Getting students off the defensive' and the sufficiency of input for SLA were Krashen's (1982) main arguments against error correction. According to Krashen (1982), the more efficient way to teach a language would be through "'comprehensible input' in low anxiety situations, [... which] do not force early production [...], but allow students to produce when they are 'ready', recognizing that improvement comes from supplying communicative and comprehensible input, and not from forcing and correcting production" (Krashen 1982: 7).

Still today, some researchers argue against the effectiveness of corrective feedback (Truscott 1996, 1999, 2007).

> 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.

> (Truscott 1999: n.p.)

However, these theories have also been severely challenged by other researchers. For example, Swain (1985) argued against Krashen's input hypothesis after having observed English speaking children learning French in an immersion classroom. She noted that while the students were able to understand what the teacher was saying, their utterances were often erroneous. She stated that this was due to the fact that they rarely had the opportunity to practice French outside of class. She therefore concluded that "although comprehensible input may be essential to the acquisition of language, it is not enough to ensure that the outcome will be nativelike in performance" (Swain 1985: 236) and that, therefore, comprehensible output is just as important to acquisition as comprehensible input. Furthermore, she argued that the production of modified output is needed in order to become proficient in the L2, and this modified output "may result from ample opportunities for output and the provision of useful and consistent feedback from teachers and peers" (Swain 1985 paraphrased in Lyster 1998: 184).

Corrective feedback has also been supported by the 'noticing hypothesis' (Schmidt 1990, 2001), which claims that SLA takes place consciously, and that "one way to enhance the learner's noticing of linguistic forms is through the provision of corrective feedback" (Schmidt 1990 paraphrased in Li 2010: 311). Another theory which argues in favor of error correction is Long's (1983, updated 1996) interaction hypothesis.

> [...N]egotiation for meaning, and especially negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the NS [native speaker] or more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways.

> (Long 1996: 451-452)

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> [...I]t is proposed that environmental contributions to acquisition are mediated by selective attention to the learner's developing L2 processing capacity, and that these resources are brought together most usefully, although not exclusively, during negotiation for meaning. 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 specifiable L1-L2 contrasts.

> (Long 1996: 414)

In order to draw conclusions over the effectiveness of corrective feedback, more recently researchers (Russell and Spada 2006; Mackey and Goo 2007; Li 2010) compared the results of various empirical studies, in so called meta-analyses.[1] Russell and Spada's (2006) meta-analysis analyzed the immediate and delayed effectiveness of corrective feedback based on fifteen different studies published between 1988 and 2003. Their analysis revealed that error correction had a "very large [immediate] effect" (Russell and Spada 2006: 152), as well as a medium to large delayed effect. Therefore the researchers concluded that the effect of corrective feedback was durable and had an overall "substantial effect on L2 acquisition" (Russell and Spada 2006: 152). Similarly, Mackey and Goo's (2007) analysis also found an immediate effect for corrective feedback. The most recent and comprehensive meta-analysis on the effectiveness of corrective feedback was carried out by Li (2010). His analysis included 33 different studies from the past 20 years and revealed that overall feedback showed a medium effect and the effect was maintained over time.

However, while there is enough empirical evidence to state that error correction is, in general, effective, researchers agree that its effectiveness depends on different factors. One of these factors is the timing of the correction. This will be discussed in the following section.

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[1]The term meta-analysis was coined by Glass (1976: 3) and refers to "the analysis of analyses. [A meta-analysis is] the statistical analysis of a large collection of results from individual studies for the purpose of integrating the findings". Li (2010: 312) notes that "[a meta-analysis] provides a systematic description of "the results of each study via a numerical index of effect size" (Konstantopoulos and Hedges, 2004: 281) and combines these estimates to arrive at a summary of the findings across primary studies". Li (2010) further states that since Norris and Ortega's seminal study on the effectiveness of L2 instruction (2000), meta-analyses have been recognized in the field of SLA research.

4.2 When Should Errors Be Corrected?

This controversial question concerns two different types of 'when': a) in which context and b) at what time after the error occurred should learner errors be corrected. While more research has been conducted on the 'which context' aspect, researchers have still not come to a consensus on either.

4.2.1 *Context*

As previously pointed out, by the end of the 1960s the audio-lingual method of correcting every error as soon as it occurred had been severely challenged. Instead, linguists and teacher educators of the 1970s advised teachers to tolerate "a wide margin of deviance from so-called 'standard' forms and structures of the target language" (Hendrickson 1978: 390). Researchers found "overt correction [...] unnecessary and [...] inadvisable" (Holley and King 1971: 494) and urged teachers to "reserve error correction to when the focus of the classroom activity is on grammar" (Hendrickson 1978: 390). Also teachers believed that tolerating some errors would help motivate the students and "instill a feeling of success" (ibid) in them. A survey conducted at the time asking university students about their thoughts on corrective feedback found that students had similar feelings as well - the survey revealed that students preferred "not to be marked down for each minor speaking and writing error because this practice destroys their confidence and forces them to expend so much effort on details that they lose the overall ability to use language" (Walker 1973: 103).

More recently researchers argued that error correction should be avoided during communicative practices as the emphasis should be on speaking and communicating successfully (rather than perfectly). Krashen (1981: 117), for example, argued that errors should only be corrected when students have time and when "such diversion of attention does not interfere with communication". He therefore contended that error correction should not take place in free conversation, but can occur in grammar exercises. Truscott (1999) argued against grammar correction as well.

> [...] [R]esearch evidence points to the conclusion that oral correction does not improve learners' ability to speak grammatically. No good reasons have been advanced for maintaining the practice. For these reasons, language teachers should seriously consider the option of abandoning oral grammar correction altogether.
>
> (Truscott 1999: n.p.)

However, as Han (2001) pointed out, research (Lightbown and Spada 1990; Doughty and Varela 1998; Long, Inagaki and Ortega 1998) has revealed that it is not only possible to integrate a focus on form with a focus on meaning but that "accuracy, fluency, and overall communicative skills are probably best developed through instruction that is primarily meaning-based but in which guidance is provided through timely form-focus activities and correction in context" (Lightbown and Spada 1990 paraphrased in Han 2001: n.p.). A study by Loewen (2005: 383-384) revealed that "incidental focus on form helps learners improve their linguistic accuracy while they are engaged in meaning-focused L2 lessons".

Furthermore, other studies, such as the one by Lyster and Ranta (1997: 57) have pointed out that the feedback they studied "clearly does not break the communicative flow". A study conducted by Oliver (2000: 141) also found that "the high level of reactive focus on form that was found in teacher-centred lessons occurred within the context of ongoing meaning-focussed exchanges" (Oliver 2000 paraphrased in Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen 2001b: 426). Also a study by Seedhouse (1997) showed how a teacher can focus on meaning and form within a single turn without interrupting the "flow of the lesson"(343).

Still, studies conducted in EFL and immersion classrooms have revealed major differences in the types of errors corrected in each setting. While around 80%-90% of all errors were corrected in EFL classrooms (Lucas 1975; Yoneyama 1982), only 37% of all grammar errors were corrected in the immersion classes of a study conducted by Chaudron (1986), however 75%-100% of all content errors were corrected. Chaudron (1988: 137), therefore, concluded that the "pedagogical focus is a major determinant of when errors get treated".

4.2.2   *Timing*

Teachers are given two options in regards to when to correct the error; they can either correct the learner's error immediately after the error occurred or choose to delay the treatment. Allwright and Bailey (1991: 103) have argued against immediate correction, stating that "it often involves interrupting the learner in mid-sentence - a practice which can certainly be disruptive and could eventually inhibit the learner's willingness to speak in class at all". Also Lightbown (1998) has stated that while immediate correction is vital, it can also be "detrimental to meaning focused activities and it might be better to

correct sometime after the commission of the error by the learner" (Lightbown 1998 paraphrased in Varnosfadrani 2006: 44). Allwright and Bailey (1991) have even suggested delaying the treatment for a longer period of time. The researchers stated that "oral errors, particularly if they are patterned and are shared by a group of learners, may form the starting point for a future lesson" (Allwright and Bailey 1991: 103; see also Holley and King 1971). Also Hedge (2000) saw benefits in delayed corrections and suggested two different methods for providing delayed feedback. One of the ways to provide more effective feedback would be by recording an activity and then asking students to locate and correct their own errors later on; another way would be by writing down errors while students are carrying out an activity and going through these afterwards. Similarly, Chastain (1971: 250) suggested that teachers should "summarize and review the most common mistakes" at the end of an activity.

However, as Allwright and Bailey (1991) noted, Long (1977) pointed out that "the psychology of research literature shows that the feedback becomes less effective as the time between the performance of the skill and the feedback increases" (Long 1977 paraphrased in Allwright and Bailey 1991: 103). In a more recent study Long (1996) raised the question of whether learners would even be able to remember their initial erroneous utterance and the treatment long enough to compare them, identify them, and to modify them. Also Truscott (1999) has been skeptical of delayed corrections, stating that delayed feedback "removes the error from its context, thereby reducing the relevance of the correction" (Truscott 1999: n.p.).

In contrast to Allwright and Bailey (1991), Doughty (2001) has stated that interrupting a student immediately after the error was committed is helpful to language learning. A study conducted by Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001a) has shown that immediate corrective feedback does not necessarily disrupt fluency. Thus, Ellis (2009) claims that "one of the main arguments for delaying correction would seem to be invalid" (11).

Allwright and Bailey (1991: 103) noted that since not enough research has been conducted in regards to "the relative value of immediate, delayed, or postponed feedback [...] as teachers or classroom researchers, we must observe the results of implementing these various strategies in our own classrooms and make our own informed decisions". Nearly 20 years later Ellis (2009: 11) noted that "there is no evidence to show that immediate correction is any more effective than delayed".

4.3 Which Errors Should Be Corrected?

When Hendrickson (1978: 390) first posed the question he answered it by saying that, above all, errors "that impede the intelligibility" should be corrected. Powell (1975) and Hanzeli (1975) agreed with this statement advising teachers to focus on errors in word order, since such errors often pose "the biggest threat to fluent communication" (Powell 1975: 12) and stating that "errors interfering with meaning should be corrected more promptly and systematically than others" (Hanzeli 1975: 431).

However, the difficulty with using 'intelligibility' as a criterion, is that it is often not that clear what can and what cannot be understood. Hanzeli (1975: 431) elaborated on that, explaining that "by having been exposed to generations of students' learner's languages, teachers understand, i.e., can assign meaning, to wildly deviant sentences produced by their students". Hanzeli (1975) therefore contended that teachers can understand their students' pidgin, even if a different listener might not be able to. Therefore, native speaker teachers might neglect to correct errors which, in fact, make utterances unintelligible for others. Powell (1973) and George (1972) pointed out that non-native teachers might have the opposite problem: they stated that non-natives sometimes overestimate the errors which cannot be understood by the listeners and as a result tend to over-correct. An empirical study carried out by Olsson (1972) backed this claim up - in her study adult Swedish learners of English uttered passive voice sentences which contained errors and native English speakers were asked to judge them. It turned out that out of 1000 utterances, 70% were understood and that generally semantic and not syntactic errors were cause for misunderstandings. Also Lucas (1975) looked at the differences in the amount and kinds of error corrections between native and non-native teachers and found that native speakers were more tolerant towards errors, not correcting around 53%, while non-natives only ignored 31% of the errors. He found this to be especially true for phonological errors and less so for syntactic and lexical ones.

A study conducted by Burt and Kiparsky (1972) tried to distinguish between communicative errors and non-communicative ones. In their study they divided errors into two categories: global and local errors. Global errors were considered "those that cause a listener or reader to misunderstand a message or to consider a sentence incomprehensible" (Burt and Kiparsky 1972 paraphrased in Hendrickson 1978: 391), whereas local errors were defined as "errors that do not significantly hinder communication of a sentence's message"

(ibid). Furthermore, Burt and Kiparsky (ibid) suggested building a "local to global hierarchy of errors" depending on how errors affect the intelligibility of the whole utterance. This would help guide teachers to know which errors to correct. Since then, studies have tried to create hierarchies for different languages: English (Olsson 1972), German (Politzer 1978), Spanish (Gunter-mann 1978; Chastain 1980), and French (Piazza 1980). These revealed that global errors were mostly a result of "inadequate lexical knowledge, misuse of prepositions and pronouns, and seriously misspelled lexical items" (Hen-drickson 1978: 391) while local errors were the result of "misuse and omission of prepositions, lack of subject-verb agreement, misspelled words, and faulty lexical choice" (ibid). For example, an utterance such as "'They ate smoked worms'[, contains a global lexical error, as it] is not immediately apparent as 'They ate smoked eel' whereas 'There are long trees on each side of my street' can be easily adjusted in the mind of the listener to 'tall trees'" (Hedge 2000: 289) and is therefore a local lexical error. Other researchers have found the search for a hierarchy of errors fruitless, stating that "all errors are equally irritating [...] irritation is directly predictable from the number of errors re-gardless of the error type or other linguistic aspects" (Albrechtsen, Henriksen, and Faerch 1980: 394).

Burt (1975) argued that it is important to distinguish between global and local errors because the correction of one global error may help make the message of the utterances much clearer than the correction of many local er-rors. Furthermore, the researcher stated that by correcting only global errors the teacher will keep the students motivated and confident. Then, once the student has started to make relatively few global errors the teacher can start focusing on the correction of local errors as well, so that the students can strive for near-native fluency. However, Hendrickson (1978) pointed out that it is not always easy to locate the exact erroneous form which has caused the distortion of communication. Moreover, it might not always be possible to decide on which specific error should be corrected, if a number of errors are responsible for the lack of understanding in communication.

Other language educaters such as Johansson (1973) and Birckbichler (1977) have argued that teachers should correct those errors which have a stigmatiz-ing effect on the learners from the native speaker's point of view. Hendrickson (1978: 391) pointed out that "attitudes toward language influence human be-havior" and Richards (1973: 131) elaborated on that by saying that "deviancy from grammatical or phonological norms of a speech community elicits eval-

uational reactions that may classify a person unfavorably".

Furthermore, research has indicated that generally the attitude towards grammatical errors is less welcoming than towards phonological ones. For example, in a study conducted by Guntermann (1978) Spanish native speakers were asked to listen to 1290 utterances made by American Spanish language students and interpret their meaning. 22% of the utterances given contained errors and the Spanish native-speakers had the most difficulty understanding sentences which contained more than one error, especially if the errors were of the same sub-type. Overall, however, they found grammatical errors the most unacceptable, and within those, article errors were more acceptable than person errors, though tense errors were generally tolerated the most.

Furthermore, Hendrickson (1978: 392) noted that errors which seem to have become a "permanent rather than a transitional feature of nonnatives' speech and writing [, ...] so called 'fossilized' errors[,] should be corrected based on their degree of incomprehensibility and unacceptability as judged by native speakers". Studies (Holley and King 1971; George 1972; Allwright 1975) have pointed out that teachers should also correct errors which occur often, 'high-frequency errors', as well as errors pertaining to the material of the class. However, George (1972) has pointed out that if such errors are minor, "their correction may only serve to annoy the learners and to waste class time" (George 1972 paraphrased in Cohen 1975: 415). Varnosfadrani (2006: 58) found that "frequency alone can not be considered the main reason for correction". He pointed out that many errors are of high frequency (articles, determiners) but are not harmful to communication, and that correcting those errors "may be damaging to the learner's language learning" (ibid).

Further errors which researchers have suggested to correct are errors "relevant to a specific pedagogic focus" (Hendrickson 1978: 392) or those "involving general grammatical rules" (ibid), marked grammatical features or features that learners have problems with (Ellis 1993). SLA researchers have advised teachers to "focus attention on a few error types rather than try to address all the errors learners make" (Ellis 2009: 6; see also Harmer 1983; Ur 1996). Studies on corrective feedback have started to investigate focused as opposed to unfocused correction and have found such feedback effective (Ellis 2009; Han 2002; Lyster 2004; Bitchener, Young, Cameron 2005).

Researchers (Ellis 2009) have pointed out that in practice these proposals remain difficult to implement. "[T]he gravity of an error is to a very considerable extent a matter of personal opinion" (ibid: 6). Studies have shown

that some teachers (though in the minority) were inclined to view all errors as equally serious — "an error is an error" (Vann, Meyer, and Lorenz 1984: 433). Ellis (2009: 6) noted that "[t]here is also no widely accepted theory of grammatical complexity to help teachers (or researchers) decide which rules are simple and portable or to determine which features are marked". Furthermore, Ellis (2009: 6) pointed out that "teachers often do not have the time to ascertain which features are problematic". Additionally he noted that in the end, teachers often have to rely on their instincts and choose to correct those errors which they personally feel should be treated.

4.4   Who Should Correct Errors?

There are three possibilities as to who should correct learner errors: 1) the teacher, 2) the student or 3) a different student. The audio-lingual teaching methods believed that providing corrections was the teacher's job (Brooks 1960). However, at the end of the 1960s, when these teaching methods, in general, were starting to be questioned, some voices began to suggest that teachers "should not dominate the correction procedures" (Hendrickson 1978: 395). Language specialists began to argue that "once students are made aware of their errors, they may learn more from correcting their own errors than by having their teacher correct them" (Hendrickson 1978: 396; see also George 1972; Corder 1973). Studies conducted around that time supported the fact that self-correction is more effective than corrections by the teacher (Holley and King 1971; Vigil and Oller 1976; Fanselow 1977). These linguists argued that by withholding the correct forms and thereby pushing the learners to produce the correct form on their own, teachers would help students' interlanguage development. Later studies by Courchene (1980) and van Lier (1988) also argued that teachers should try to avoid providing feedback types that "deny the speaker the opportunity to do self-repair, probably an important learning activity" (van Lier 1988: 211).

Chaudron (1988) stated that "instruction that emphasizes self-repair in this way was more likely to improve learners' ability to monitor their own target language speech" (Chaudron 1988 paraphrased in Lyster 1998: 54). Allwright and Bailey (1991: 107) recommended that L2 classroom learners be allowed "both time and opportunity [...] for self-repair, whether it is self- or other-initiated". Some researchers (Lyster and Ranta 1997; Lyster 1998a)

have argued that 'student generated repairs' "in which the student or a peer, rather than the teacher, provided the correct form, are more useful, because they involve students in greater amounts of processing"(Lyster and Ranta 1997 paraphrased in Loewen 2004: 158). Lyster and Ranta referred to these student-generated repairs as "negotiation of form"(Lyster and Ranta 1997: 58). Researchers (Allwright and Bailey 1991) have also suggested that other students could help provide feedback in the classroom. Allwright and Bailey (1991: 108) have argued that since "in any one language class, the learners' developing interlanguage grammars may differ widely, it will be possible for many students to recognise and repair their classmates' errors".

However, researchers have also pointed out that there are often problems associated with self- and peer-corrections. As far as peer-correction is concerned, Truscott (1999: n.p.) noted that "peer correction moves students' attention further away from communicative activities, as well as producing corrections of lower quality". Additionally, Porter (1986) found that peers provided the wrong corrections one-sixth of the time. Allwright and Bailey (1991: 108), while arguing that peer feedback can be helpful, have also stated that "if peer feedback is encouraged, it will be important for the teacher to establish a tone of mutual support, so that learners are not overwhelmed by corrective input". As regards self-correction, Ellis (2009), though admitting that pushing a learner to self-correct may help language acquisition (see also Lyster 2004; Ferris 2006), stated that learner self-correction can also be problematic. According to Ellis (2009) the learners prefer the teachers to correct them. Furthermore, he stated that "learners can only self-correct if they possess the necessary linguistic knowledge [...]. Other (typically teacher) correction will be necessary to enable learners to identify forms that are not yet part of the interlanguage" (ibid: 7). Lastly, Ellis (ibid) stated that "although output-prompting corrective feedback strategies signal that there is some kind of problem with the learner's utterance, they do not make it clear that the problem is a linguistic one (as opposed to just a communicative one)". He concluded by saying that while "there are clear grounds (theoretical and practical) for encouraging self-correction, [...] this will not always be possible" (ibid). Therefore, the teachers often have to ask themselves whether they should urge self-correction or simply provide the correction themselves. Ellis (2009: 8) offered the solution of conducting corrective feedback "as a two-stage process: first encourage self-correction and then, if that fails, provide the correction", though he admitted that that might be a time consuming approach and "it would be simpler and perhaps less intrusive to simply provide an explicit correction" (ibid).

4.5 How Should Errors Be Corrected?

4.5.1 *Early Speculations*

Early studies dealing with corrective feedback concluded that teachers were interrupting their students too often to provide explicit corrections and lengthy explanations. Researchers (Corder 1967; Gorbet 1974; Valdman 1975) pointed out that providing feedback in an explicit way may be ineffective. Holley and King (1971), also argued that such feedback is unfruitful; instead they advised teachers to tolerate more errors, and when they did decide to correct, they should do so by providing cues, as students may be able to come up with the correct form on their own. Holley and King (1971) argued that the advantage of this method would be that depending on the student's response, the teacher would know "whether or not he [or she] is operating within the range of a student's grammar" (497). In addition, such feedback types give the student the possibility to succeed. The researchers argued that "[t]he student's active participation has a psychological advantage over passive repetition" (ibid). Similarly, other researchers around that time suggested that students should discover the errors themselves and teachers should only guide them by making inferences or formulating concepts about the target language (Hendrickson 1978: 393).

In addition to giving cues, teachers were told that they should also "model any incorrect student response, substituting grammatically correct forms where necessary" (Holley and King 1971: 497), without drawing attention to the correction in any other way. Such a method was also suggested by Chastain (1971: 250) who advised that teachers should "either reword the answer in an acceptable fashion, in such a manner as adults do with children [or] summarize and review the most common mistakes" at the end of an activity.

A study conducted by Fanselow (1977) observing eleven ESL teachers, distinguished between 16 different feedback types. It revealed that providing (part of) the correct form was the most common type of feedback. Also Fanselow (1977: 588) questioned how effective such feedback types were in helping "move patterns into students' long-term memories or [...] establish deep-level rules or categories". He therefore suggested that teachers "present a number of tasks after errors are made in order to help students establish categories, alter their deep rules for generating utterances, and help move patterns into long-term memory" (ibid). While Fanselow (1997) pointed out that "[t]hese tasks may not produce the right answer as quickly as the teacher's

giving the answer would [. . . the] goal is to teach rather than just correct"
(ibid). Such tasks would provide explicit information about the specific aspect of the language causing difficulty and help students set up categories in
their mind. Fanselow (1977) argued that dealing with errors in such a way
would benefit language acquisition much more than simply providing the correct answer and moving on.

A different way of dealing with errors was suggested by Stevick (1976:
143), who believed that the teacher should remain silent, if at all possible, and
only give as much help as absolutely necessary. Allwright (1975) and George
(1972) have also suggested withholding the correct form, however Chaudron
(1977) argued that this approach would be very difficult to maintain throughout the whole class. While he acknowledged the studies mentioned above, he
believed that there was a need for a more "adequate description of the options
available to the teacher/speaker of the target language at the 'crisis points'
(Allwright 1975) when errors are 'corrected'" (Chaudron 1977: 30). Such
descriptions would "aid the further study of which corrective treatments are
most likely to be motivating, reinforcing, and/or informative" (ibid).

4.5.2 *Past Models*

4.5.2.1 *Chaudron*

In order to provide a more adequate description of the different options teachers have in regard to providing feedback, Chaudron (1977) developed a flow
chart model of corrective discourse. His model, reprinted on page 25, shows
different types and features of correcting techniques available to teachers.
Chaudron (1977: 35) elaborated on the difference between 'types' and 'features' of corrective reactions when discussing his model by explaining that
'types' are "self-standing, unbound utterances" (ibid) such as repetitions or
explanations, while 'features' "are those linguistic or discursive markers which
are either "bound" to larger utterances" (ibid), such as stress, or which "exist
only by the fact that two adjacent utterances bear a relation to each other"
(ibid) as in, for example, interruption or reduction of the utterance containing an error. Furthermore, Chaudron (ibid) explained that "often certain
features serve to distinguish between certain types. For example, repeating
the student's utterance with question intonation can never be regarded as an
approbative "reinforcing" Follow-up" (ibid). Other times a certain reaction
can be seen as both a type or a feature, as is the case for negation: 'no' can be
seen as a type, while 'not ...' can be seen as a feature. "Together, the features

and types are the set of elemental "acts" of corrective discourse" (idid: 36).

Chaudron (1977) described the different paths and arrows in his model as follows:

> The dotted arrows [...] indicate options proceeding in the direction of the arrows from the emitting boxes. The separate boxes, representing acts or conglomerates of acts, constitute the major alternative pathways through the model. Within any conglomerate box the types or features separated by dotted lines can occur alone or combine optionally in a variety of indeterminate ways [...]. However, there seems to be a tendency for combinations (and for the flow through the entire model) to occur in a downward and possible clockwise movement.
>
> (Chaudron 1977: 36)

Chaudron (1977) developed this model based on his study done in French immersion classrooms. His analysis revealed that while teachers have many techniques available to them, they make use of some types and features much more than others. The results of his study revealed that different kinds of repetition were the most frequent feedback moves. However, he noted that the successfulness of these repetitions in eliciting correct performance depended on whether they were repetitions with or without change, emphasis or expansion. For example, his study revealed that repetitions with change and reduction were more successful than repetition with change and expansion. However, he stated that many more studies have to be conducted to draw definite conclusions.

Opening Move: (Elicitation)

Answering Move: Partially correct (e.g. content is correct) | or in ERROR | IGNORE

Follow-up Move: DELAY | INTERRUPT

ACCEPTANCE

ATTENTION | NEGATION

REPETITION with NO CHANGE

REPETITION with NO CHANGE and EMPHASIS

PROVIDE | REPETITION with CHANGE

REPETITION with CHANGE and EMPHASIS

REDUCTION or EXPANSION

COMPLEX EXPLANATION

EXPLANATION (possible RED. or EXP.)

Opening Move: REPEAT | PROMPT | CLUE

LOOP (REPEAT-implicit) | ORIGINAL QUESTION, ALTERED QUESTION, or QUESTION(s) (possible EMPH., RED., and/or EXP.)

TEXT

TRANSFER

Answering Move: Correct or partially correct | or ERROR

Follow-up Move: ACCEPTANCE*

REPETITION* (possible EXP. or RED.) | EXPLANATION*

Opening Move: VERIFI-CATION | RETURN

Legend: — · — · — · —▶ Optional flow

————————▶ Mandatory flow

☐|☐ Distinct exclusive types

☐¦☐ Optionally combining types and features

Figure 1: Chaudron's Flow Chart Model of Corrective Discourse (1977: 37)

4.5.2.2 *Lyster and Ranta*

Twenty years after Chaudron (1977), Lyster and Ranta (1997) developed a flow chart model (reprinted on page 27) which presented "a series of either/or options that together constitute[d] an error treatment sequence" (Lyster and Ranta: 45). In addition to distinguishing between different errors and corrective feedback types, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) model also illustrated the possible student responses which can follow teacher's feedback. Lyster and Ranta (1997) explained the error sequence of their model as follows:

> A sequence begins with a learner's utterance containing at least one error. The erroneous utterance is followed either by the teacher's corrective feedback or not; if not, then there is topic continuation. If corrective feedback is provided by the teacher, then it is either followed by uptake on the part of the student or not (no uptake entails topic continuation). If there is uptake, then the student's initially erroneous utterance is either repaired or continues to need repair in some way. If the utterance needs repair, then corrective feedback may again be provided by the teacher; if no further feedback is provided, then there is topic continuation. If and when there is repair, then it is followed either by topic continuation or by some repair-related reinforcement provided by the teacher. Following the reinforcement, there is topic continuation.

> (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 45)

In contrast to Chaudron (1977), Lyster and Ranta (1997) did not distinguish between 'types' and 'features' of reactions. The researchers only differentiated between six different feedback types, drawing on feedback types previously used by other researchers (Doughty 1994; Spada and Fröhlich 1995). Lyster and Ranta's (1997) model contained the following six types of corrective reactions to errors (1997: 46-49):

1. Explicit correction takes place when the teacher explicitly points out the error and provides the correct form. The teacher can do this by saying 'No, that is incorrect' or 'You cannot say that, you must say'.

2. Recasts "involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error". [This is similar to Chaudron's (1977) categories of 'repetition with change' and 'repetition with change and emphasis'] Recasts are generally implicit, as they do not point out the error by saying 'I think you want to say', or 'Do not say that but...' However, some recasts can become more explicit, if they only provide the correct word, or if the reformulation emphasizes the correction.
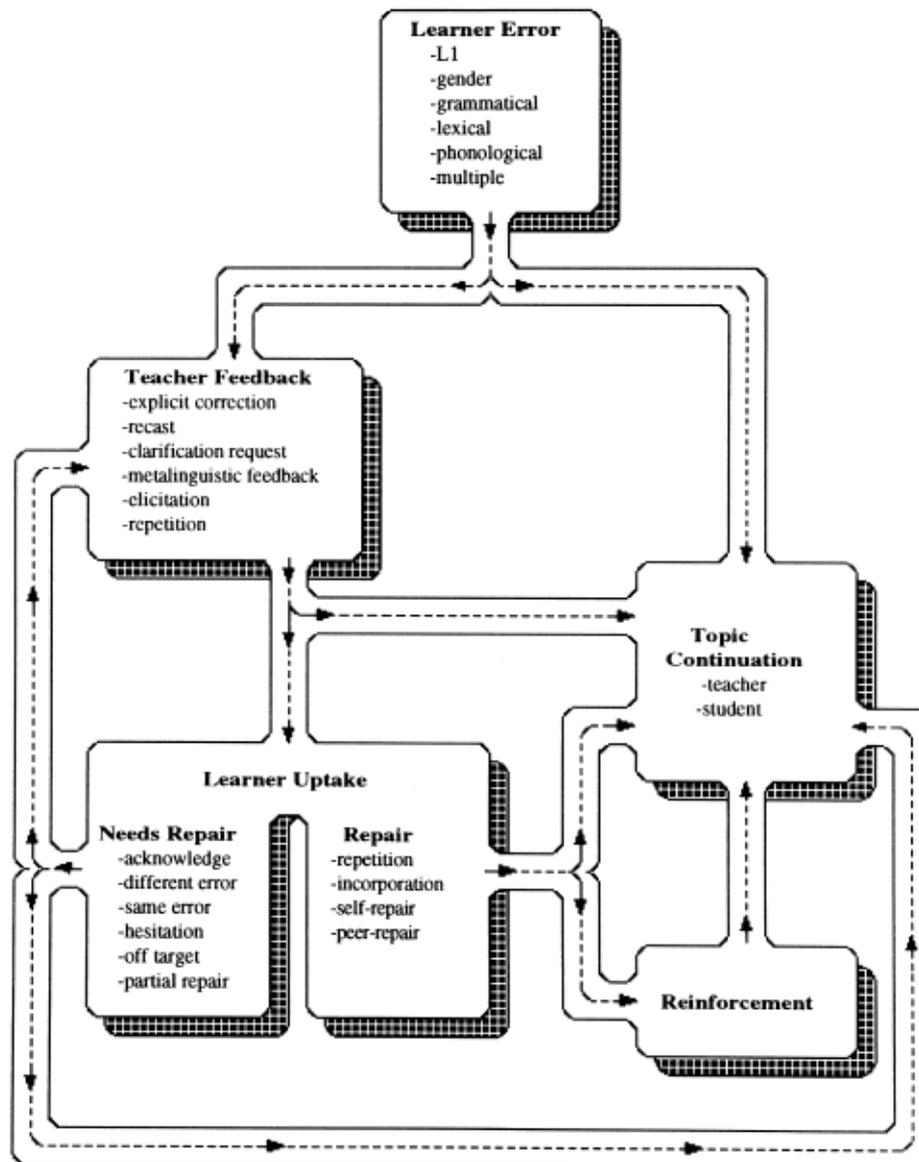
Figure 2: Lyster and Ranta's Error Treatment Sequence (1997: 44)

3. Clarification requests, "[...] indicate to students either that their utterance has been misunderstood by the teacher or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or a reformulation is required". This feedback type can refer to problems of comprehensibility or accuracy, or both. [...] A clarification request can be a 'Sorry?' as well as a 'Could you explain that?'

4. Metalinguistic feedback "contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form". Metalinguistic feedback can amount to as much as a 'no', as well as contain word definitions or comments concerning grammatical items, such as tense.

5. Elicitation can take place in three different ways. First, teachers elicit completion of their own utterance by pausing where the student had originally committed the error. Second, teachers can use questions to elicit correct forms, as in for example 'How do we say that in English?' (elicitations exclude yes or no questions). Third, teachers can ask students to reformulate their utterance.

6. Repetition "refers to the teacher's repetition, in isolation, of the student's erroneous utterance". In most cases, teachers adjust their intonation so as to highlight the error. [2]

Lyster and Ranta (1997) used these categories to analyze corrective feedback in elementary school level immersion classrooms. Similarly to Chaudron (1977) the researchers concluded that recasts ('repetitions with change') were the most common feedback type, accounting for 55% of the feedback moves. The researchers urged teachers to make use of "the whole range of techniques they have at their disposal rather than relying so extensively on recasts" (Lyster and Ranta: 56). They argued that one of the problems of recasts is that students often do not notice the corrections they incorporate, as teachers also tend to repeat correct utterances (as a kind of confirmation). As a result of recasts there is often ambiguity in the classroom - which could be avoided if other types of feedback, such as metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, clarification requests, and teacher repetition of error were used, which would allow "students themselves to either self-correct or to correct their peers" (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 57).

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[2]Lyster and Ranta (1997) grouped 3-6 as 'negotiation of form', which they defined as "the provision of corrective feedback that encourages self-repair involving accuracy and precision and not merely comprehensibility" (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 42).

4.5.3 *Present Day Discussion: Prompts Vs. Recasts*

Despite extensive research, researchers still cannot agree on the most efficient way to correct errors. One of the reasons for this is due to the "definitional fuzziness of different types of corrective feedback" (Lyster and Saito 2010: 267) and the way they are classified in different studies. Therefore most meta-analyses on the effectiveness of corrective feedback (Russell and Spada 2006; Mackey and Goo 2007) have not discussed which type of feedback is most successful because a comparison of the different 'types' is hard to make. Mackey and Goo (2007: 440) noted that even though there are many studies on corrective feedback there is still "the need for greater theoretical specificity or practical motivations in making claims about the superiority of one feedback type over another". Also Li (2010) noted that the disagreed upon categories which classify the different feedback types make it difficult to compare studies. The reasons for this are "[p]artly because of the variety of feedback types investigated by primary researchers and partly because of the different ways to operationalize the same feedback types in different studies"(Li 2010: 321). Nowadays, instead of using models like Lyster and Ranta (1997), studies analyzing the efficiency of different feedback types often categorize them in terms of how implicit or explicit they are (Ellis, Loewen and Erlam 2006; Havranek and Cesnik 2001) or in terms of whether they encourage a student response or not (Loewen and Philp 2006; Lyster and Saito 2010).

The feedback types 'elicitation', 'clarification requests', 'metalinguistic clues' and 'repetition' are often grouped together under the term 'prompts'. Prompts differ from recasts and explicit correction "in terms of whether [the correction] is directed at input [...] or learner modification of their own output" (Ellis 2006: 29). With such a distinction recasts and explicit correction are input-providing, because the feedback is provided through reformulation, whereas prompts are output pushing, because such feedback "withholds the correct reformulation and instead encourages learners to self-repair" (Yang and Lyster 2010: 237; see also Lyster 2002; Sheen 2004).

Researchers in favor of prompts have argued that by urging the learner to self-repair the students have to "reanalyze what they have already internalized at some level and may thus contribute to a destabilization of interlanguage forms" (Lyster 2002: 248). Furthermore, researchers (de Bot 1996: 549) have argued that learners gain more from being urged to "make the right connection on one's own" than from being provided the correct form in the input. Furthermore, "prompts may help learners to gain greater control over

already acquired forms and to access these forms more quickly" (Yang and Lyster 2010: 238).

Many classroom studies have revealed results in favor of prompts. For example, a study conducted in an EFL classroom by Havranek and Cesnik (2001: 99) found "[t]he most successful format of correction, both for the learners receiving the feedback and for their peers, [was] feedback successfully eliciting self-correction in practice situations". In contrast, the least successful feedback moves were "recasts without further comments or repetition by the corrected learner" (ibid). A study by Nobuyoshi and Ellis (1993: 203) found "that 'pushing' learners to produce more accurate output, by the teacher making requests for clarification, contributes to acquisition". Lyster's (2004) study focused on the effectiveness of prompts and recasts in fifth grade classes of form-focused instruction. For this study four teachers used different feedback techniques: prompts, recasts, explicit correction and no correction at all. The results revealed that form focused instruction "is more effective when combined with prompts than with recasts or no feedback, as a means of enabling L2 learners to acquire rule-based representations of grammatical gender and to proceduralize their knowledge of these emerging forms" (Lyster 2004: 399). However, his study also revealed that the group receiving recasts improved more than the group which received no feedback, and Lyster (2004) therefore concluded that the use of recasts as a feedback type is better than providing no feedback at all. Ellis, Loewen and Erlam (2006) analyzed a classroom of adult learners, to see the different effects between recasts and metalinguistic feedback on the acquisition of regular past tense in English. Results showed that metalinguistic feedback was overall more effective than recasts. In a study conducted by Loewen and Philp (2006) in an adult ESL classroom, the researchers found that on post-testing, prompts resulted in an accuracy rate of 75%, while recasts resulted in an accuracy rate of only 53%.

In one of the most recent studies to date, Lyster and Saito (2010) compared the results of 15 classroom based studies to see which feedback types were most effective. Their meta-analysis revealed that recasts, prompts and explicit correction all had significant effects, with prompts having the largest effect sizes and proving more effective than recasts, which only yielded medium effect sizes. Furthermore, the researchers found that "the relative effects of explicit correction remained indistinguishable from those of recasts and prompts" (Lyster and Saito 2010: 290). The researchers suggested that the reason for this may be due to the fact that explicit corrections entail both

negative and positive evidence, making them similar to both prompts and recasts. They provide positive evidence by providing the correct form (similar to recasts) and they provide negative evidence by pointing out that the utterance is incorrect (similar to prompts). The researchers concluded that while all three corrective feedback types have a possible effect on an L2 learner's interlanguage development, corrective feedback seems to be more effective when it is "more pedagogically oriented (i.e., prompts) than conversationally oriented (i.e., recasts)" (Lyster and Saito 2010: 290).

These results would suggest that teachers should avoid recasts because they do not help SLA. However, other studies have found that under certain circumstances and depending on the characteristics of recasts, they can be effective. For example, "the extent to which teachers' intentions and learners' perceptions overlap is known to affect recast effectiveness (Mackey et al., 2007), as is the interactional context in which recasts are provided" (Lyster and Izquierdo 2009: 454). Oliver, Mackey and Leeman (2003) found that in an elementary school ESL classroom, learners produced more modified output following recasts when the focus was on language rather than on content and communication. Studies have also revealed that recasts following phonological and lexical errors are more noticeable to students than recasts which correct grammatical errors (Lyster 1998a; Han 2008). Recasts are also more salient if they are short and hardly change the original utterance (Egi 2007; Sheen 2006). Furthermore, Lyster and Izquierdo (2009: 454) pointed out that "[r]ecasts benefit developmentally ready learners more than unready learners (Mackey and Philp 1998) and learners with high accuracy scores in their use of the target forms more than learners achieving low accuracy scores (Ammar and Spada 2006)". Sheen (2004, 2006) found that in addition to learner age and proficiency the effectiveness of recasts depends on other factors as well. These will be discussed in section 5.5.3.

4.5.4   *Future Research*

Due to the different findings concerning prompts and recasts, researchers have stated that "worthy of further pursuit in this regard would be research designed to tease apart the specific attributes of recasts, prompts, and explicit correction that contribute to their variable effectiveness in classroom settings" (Lyster and Saito 2010: 290). Similarly Ellis (2007: 360) concluded his study on the differential effects of corrective feedback on two grammatical structures by proposing that "what is needed in future research is to deter-

mine how linguistic factors may determine when different types of feedback will work for acquisition". Lyster (2007: 24) came to the conclusion that one type of feedback may never be better in every situation, therefore noting "that some of the most effective teachers may be those who are willing and able to orchestrate, in accordance with their students' language abilities and content familiarity, a wide range of feedback types befitting of the instructional context".

5 Learner Uptake

The previous chapter discussed the controversial views concerning corrective feedback in SLA. Section 4.5 noted that various researchers have stated that feedback moves which urge students to respond to the feedback provided to them may benefit language acquisition. This chapter will discuss this theory in more detail.

5.1 What Is Uptake?

Chaudron (1977: 42) was one of the first researchers to suggest that one way of measuring the effectiveness of a certain feedback move could be "a frequency count of the students' correct responses following each type". However, most of the studies on corrective feedback which followed Chaudron's (1977) publication did not study the student's reaction; furthermore, the term was often used to refer to "what learners claim to have learned from a particular lesson (Slimani, 1992; see also Allwright, 1984)" (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 49).

Lyster and Ranta's (1997) flow chart model on corrective discourse reintroduced the idea of uptake into the discussions on corrective feedback.[3] In their model they defined uptake as

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

> (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 49)

Uptake, in this sense, is simply the student's response after receiving feedback; it is "what the student attempts to do with the teacher's feedback" (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 49). The researchers noted that uptake does not always take place: sometimes feedback is immediately followed by topic continuation by either the student or a different student - "in which case the teacher's intention goes unheeded" (ibid); other times the teacher may continue with the topic, "in which case the teacher has not provided an opportunity for uptake" (ibid). However, if there is uptake, it can take on a variety of forms. These will be discussed in the following section.

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[3]There had been studies dealing with uptake before Lyster and Ranta (1997), but these researchers were the first to classify uptake into different categories and analyze in depth the different kinds.

5.2 How Does Uptake Take Place?

Lyster and Ranta (1997: 49) pointed out that two different kinds of uptake can occur: "(a) uptake that results in 'repair' of the error on which the feedback focused and (b) uptake that results in an utterance that still needs repair". Repair, in this context and dissimilar to the definition provided in section 2.2, means "the correct reformulation of an error as uttered in a single student turn" (ibid). It does not refer to "the sequence of turns resulting in the correct reformulation [... or] to self-initiated repair" (ibid). The researchers distinguished between four different types of repair and six different types of needs-repair. The definitions for each type are explained below (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 50-51):

Repair:

1. Repetition refers to a student's repetition of the teacher's feedback when the latter includes the correct form.

2. Incorporation refers to a student's repetition of the correct form provided by the teacher, which is then incorporated into a longer utterance produced by the student.

3. Self-repair refers to a self-correction, produced by the student who made the initial error, in response to the teacher's feedback when the latter does not already provide the correct form.

4. Peer-repair refers to peer-correction provided by a student, other than the one who made the initial error, in response to the teacher's feedback.

Needs-repair:

1. Acknowledgement generally refers to a simple "yes" on the part of the student in response to the teacher's feedback. [...] Acknowledgement may also include a "yes" or "no" on the part of the student in response to the teacher's metalinguistic feedback.

2. Same error refers to uptake that includes a repetition of the student's initial error.

3. Different error refers to a student's uptake that is in response to the teacher's feedback, but that neither corrects nor repeats the initial error; instead, a different error is made.

4. Off target refers to uptake that is clearly in response to the teacher's feedback turn, but that circumvents the teacher's linguistic focus altogether without including any further errors.

5. Hesitation refers to a student's hesitation in response to the teacher's feedback.

6. Partial repair refers to uptake that includes a correction of only part of the initial error.[4]

Other studies have also examined uptake (Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen 2001a, 2001b; Lyster and Panova 2002; Loewen 2004, 2005; Sheen 2004; Yoshida 2010). While the essential meaning of uptake has stayed the same, the term has been elaborated on and the categories used to classify different kinds of uptake have varied depending on the study. For example, Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001a: 286) defined uptake as an optional student move "that occurs in episodes where learners have demonstrated a gap in their knowledge" and occurs "as a reaction to some preceding move in which another participant (usually the teacher) either explicitly or implicitly provides information about a linguistic feature" (ibid). Furthermore, the researchers distinguished between 'successful' and 'unsuccessful' uptake. Successful uptake was defined as "uptake in which learners clearly demonstrated an ability to incorporate the information provided" (Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen 2001b: 424), whereas unsuccessful uptake was defined as "uptake consisting of just an acknowledgement or a simple repetition of something the teacher had said or of the incorrect use of the item" (ibid).

5.3   Is Uptake Relevant?

Though many studies have analyzed the different ways students react to corrective feedback, researchers are still not sure to what degree uptake correlates with 'acquired language'. Some researchers have argued that one cannot measure acquisition based on uptake because "uptake is merely a discourse phenomenon, which may or may not be related to the psycholinguistic processes involved in language acquisition" (Ohta 2000 paraphrased in Sheen 2004: 266). On the other hand, researchers (Brock et al. 1986) have argued that the lack of uptake does not necessarily mean that the learner did not

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[4]The researchers noted that the "needs-repair category is one that can lead to additional feedback from the teacher and thus allows for error treatment sequences to go beyond the third turn" (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 51).

benefit from the feedback. As Mackey and Philp (1998: 353) pointed out, even if feedback "may not elicit an immediate response from the learner, it may have an effect on the long term". They based this claim on their findings that recasts resulted in the acquisition of their analyzed grammatical feature (question forms) regardless of whether or not there was uptake. Lyster and Ranta (1997: 57) noted that "their analytic model was designed to capture learner uptake only in turns immediately following corrective feedback" and that, therefore, "claims related to language learning remain speculative and subject to further empirical investigation" (ibid). However, at the same time, the researchers argued that uptake could be important to SLA for two reasons:

> First, they allow opportunities for learners to automatize the retrieval of target language knowledge that already exists in some form [...]. Second, when repair is generated by students, the latter draw on their own resources and thus actively confront errors in ways that may lead to revisions of their hypotheses about the target language [...].
>
> (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 57)

Furthermore, Lightbown (1998: 193) stated 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". Also Swain (1985, 1995) argued that learners need more than input alone to acquire a language and that "'pushed output' contributes to acquisition because it obliges learners to process syntactically rather than semantically and because it can enable them to revise faulty hypotheses about the target language" (Swain paraphrased in Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen 2001a: 287). In this case, Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001a) pointed out that

> Learners' attempts to use forms that they have either previously used incorrectly or received explicit information about can be seen as one type of pushed output. Uptake, then, may create the conditions needed for language acquisition to occur, and it is for this reason that it has attracted the attention of researchers.
>
> (Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen 2001a: 287)

However, as Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001a: 286-287) further noted, in order to prove uptake's effectiveness, it is "necessary to demonstrate that the learners possess the autonomous ability to use the feature,

for example, by investigating whether they can produce the form correctly on subsequent occasions without prompting". A few such studies have been carried out more recently. For example, Loewen (2005: 365) analyzed an ESL classroom and found that corrective feedback, and "particularly if [the students] incorporate[d] the targeted linguistic items into their own production" was one of the factors that led to higher scores on post-tests in both grammar and vocabulary. Though there is still a need for more studies which look at the effect of uptake over time, these studies "provide an empirical justification for examining the relationship between corrective feedback and uptake" (Sheen 2004: 267).

5.4 How Often Do Students React?

One of the first questions that arises in a discussion on uptake is the general question of how often it occurs. Loewen (2004) pointed out that a comparison of different studies (Lyster and Ranta 1997; Mackey and Philp 1998; Oliver 1995; Pica 2002; Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen 2001a) reveals varying numbers. For example, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study conducted in four immersion classes in Canada revealed an uptake rate of 55%. Mackey and Philp (1998) found an even lower uptake rate in their study conducted in an ESL classroom. A study carried out by Oliver (1995) in a primary school also found a low amount of uptake; furthermore, she found that often the children were not given the possibility for uptake, or that it was not appropriate for them to react. Also Pica (2002) found that not that much uptake (or even the possibility for uptake) existed, upon analyzing different activities in two content based classes in a university English language classroom.

However, other studies, such as the one by Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001a) have revealed completely different results. The researchers conducted a study in two ESL classes in a private language school in New Zealand. The study revealed that 74% of all feedback moves resulted in uptake, and 74% of this uptake was successful. Similarly, a study by Loewen (2004) also carried out in different ESL classrooms in New Zealand revealed an overall uptake rate of 73%, with some classes having an uptake rate as high as 80%.

A question that arises then, is what the reasons for such large discrepancies between studies could be. The following sections will discuss these.

5.5 What Influences Uptake?

Researchers (Egi 2010; Lyster and Mori 2006; Sheen 2004) have stated that factors which influence the amount of uptake are the learning context, the instructional focus, class size and learner background. Furthermore, Nassaji (2009: 416) pointed out that "research measuring the amount of uptake varies considerably depending on the type of feedback [and] the focus of the feedback".

5.5.1 *The Learning Context*

One of the factors which influences the amount of uptake is the instructional context. Some researchers have speculated that there might be less uptake in immersion classrooms than in ESL classrooms. A reason for this could be due to the fact that "the emphasis in an immersion program is not on studying the language, but on studying the content of the curriculum in the second language" (de Courcy 2002: 5). After finding a high amount of uptake, Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001a: 314) stated that "both the level of uptake and the extent to which uptake was successful in the adult ESL classrooms investigated in this study exceeded those arising in the French immersion classrooms that Lyster [and Ranta (1997)] examined" and urged for more research to be conducted concentrating on the differences in the amount of uptake depending on the context.

Three years later, a study conducted by Sheen (2004) compared uptake in four communicative classroom settings - French Immersion, Canada ESL, New Zealand ESL and Korean EFL. The results showed similarities in the rate of learner uptake between the two classrooms in Canada (around 50% in each case) and between the NZ ESL and Korea EFL (around 80% in each case). Furthermore, learner repair was much higher in both NZ ESL and Korea EFL classrooms (69%) than in the other two settings. In the Canadian ESL setting there was a much lower rate of repair (34%) than in the New Zealand one. The results, therefore, seem to discard the claim that different contexts produce different amounts of uptake, as large discrepancies in uptake rates are also found in similar instructional contexts. Sheen (2004) therefore suggested, that other factors, besides the instructional context, must also contribute to the amount of learner uptake.

5.5.2 *Learner Background*

Sheen (2004) found that while the students in the New Zealand ESL class were adult language learners, with years of formal education, the students in the Canadian ESL class had an elementary level proficiency and were less educated, as they had not yet finished secondary education. Sheen (2004: 291) concluded that "the extent to which learners produce uptake and repair may reflect their previous experiences". Also Philp (2003) had stated that the learners' proficiency might have an influence on their ability to perceive teachers' feedback and therefore also influence the amount of uptake. Mackey and Philp (1998) had also pointed out that lower-level students may not be able to locate the errors that need to be corrected. A study by Loewen (2004: 160) suggested that "younger learners might be less likely to produce uptake".

In addition to the educational factor, Sheen (2004: 291) noted that the motivation of the learners might also influence the amount of uptake. She stated that "an educational context where learners are motivated to learn 'survival' English might not encourage the same kind of learner orientation to form as in [. . . an ESL or EFL setting], where the learners had had years of formal instruction". Sheen (2004: 292) therefore hypothesized, that due to the difference in motivation, second and foreign language learners "were more likely to attend to the teachers' feedback and thereby notice the gap between their erroneous output and the teachers' correct form". Loewen (2004) came to similar conclusions.

5.5.3 *Uptake And Feedback Type*

Besides context and learner background, another factor which researchers have found to influence uptake is the type of feedback provided. Many studies have revealed that prompts lead to much higher uptake rates than recasts and explicit correction. Lyster and Ranta (1997: 58) noted that "the feedback-uptake sequence engages students more actively when [. . .] the correct form is not provided to the students [...] and when signals are provided to the learner that assist the reformulation of the erroneous utterance". In their study they found the highest uptake rate for elicitation and clarification requests, whereas they found that recasts resulted in the lowest uptake rate. Similar results were found by Panova and Lyster (2002) who analyzed an adult ESL classroom and discovered that the highest rate of uptake (100%) took place after clarification requests, elicitation, and when the teacher repeated the error in isolation. Metalinguistic feedback also led to the high

uptake rate of 71%. On the other hand, recasts and explicit corrections only led to uptake 40% and 33% of the time, respectively. Panova and Lyster referred to studies by Doughty (1994), Lyster (1998), Lyster and Ranta (1997), Roberts (1995) and Slimani (1992) to point out similar results.

Sheen (2004) found that elicitation had the highest uptake rate (100% in each of the four classes examined), and clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback and repetition followed closely with uptake rates between 71.4%-100%. However, contrary to the findings of the previous studies mentioned, she also found very high uptake rates for recasts in Korean EFL settings (82.5%). There, also explicit corrections resulted in an uptake rate of 70%. Yoshida (2010) also found successful uptake rates after recasts 52% of the time in a second year university level Japanese as a foreign language class. Furthermore, her study revealed a very high uptake rate for explicit corrections (60%). Elicitations, on the other hand, only resulted in successful uptake 11% of the time.

The studies discussed in the previous section revealed that learner characteristics seem to influence the rate of uptake. This seems to be especially the case after recasts. While Sheen's (2004) study revealed less uptake in general in the Canadian settings, the difference in amount was especially large for recasts. While in the Canadian immersion and Canada ESL class only 31% and 40% respectively of all recasts produced uptake, in the Korean EFL class there was an uptake rate of 83% after all recasts. Sheen (2004) noted that this could be due to the fact that recasts are more noticeable to older, more proficient learners. In addition to learner characteristics, the characteristics of recasts themselves might influence the amount of uptake that follows. Sheen (2004) stated that the recasts given in the Korean classroom were much more explicit than the recasts provided in the Canadian classroom. The claim that more explicit recasts lead to higher uptake rates had already been made by Doughty (2001). She found that recasts were more effective when they consisted of 'isolated interrogative recasts' or 'corrective recasting' (see also Chaudron 1977; Doughty and Varela 1998). Sheen (2006) also found that recasts can be more or less explicit, and the more explicit they are, the more likely they are to lead to uptake.

5.5.4   *Uptake, Feedback Type And Error Type*

Researchers have noted that the type of correction and the amount of uptake may also depend on the type of error. For example, Lyster's (1998a) study revealed that grammatical and phonological errors were predominantly treated through recasts, 72% and 64% respectively, whereas lexical errors were corrected with prompts (55%). While lexical errors corrected in this manner resulted in repair 80% of the time, phonological errors were more often repaired successfully when they were treated with recasts (61%). Lyster (1998a: 266) therefore argued that recasts were an effective feedback type for eliciting uptake for phonological errors. On the other hand, he pointed out that grammatical errors were only repaired one third of the time when corrected in that manner. Lyster (1998a) therefore suggested that grammatical errors should be corrected more often through prompts. Similar findings were revealed in a study by Morris (2002). The researcher noted that lexical errors received much more repair (45%) than syntactical errors (8%), and that the former received prompts as feedback over 50% of the time, whereas the latter received recasts for over 90% of the time.

Mackey, Gass and McDonough (2000) also studied different feedback types in relationship to uptake. They found that learners relatively accurately perceived feedback regarding lexical, semantic and phonological errors, while feedback regarding grammatical errors tended not to be perceived as such. Once again, recasts were mostly provided for such errors while prompts were provided for lexical ones, thereby contributing to the theory that there is a relationship between error types and feedback types, and between feedback types and learner uptake.

5.5.5   *Future Research*

The results of these studies reveal that explanations concerning the discrepancies in the amount of uptake between studies cannot easily be found. This is due to the fact that various factors contribute to the amount of uptake which takes place. As the aforementioned studies illustrated, the same classroom setting can have very different amounts of uptake, an error type can receive much more uptake in one class than in another, a certain feedback type can be used more explicitly by one teacher than by another and therefore result in higher or lower uptake.

More recent studies have therefore shifted the focus from studying these factors to looking more closely at the students who have reacted. More specif-

ically, researchers are starting to look at what their uptake means in terms of 'noticing' the gap between their own errors and the information provided in feedback. Yoshida (2010: 249) argued that "teachers sometimes regarded the learners' responses to [corrective feedback] as their understanding of correct forms even when they had not really noticed it or had understood the true differences between their own errors and correct forms". Also Loewen (2005: 382) noted that simply the presence of uptake is not enough to suggest that the student has actually understood the difference - the results of his study suggested that it is not simply "the presence of uptake but rather the quality of uptake that is important".

6 Case Study

6.1 Research Methodology

6.1.1 *Research Aims*

As the previous chapters illustrated, numerous studies on corrective feedback and uptake have been conducted over the past forty years. These studies have analyzed a wide range of aspects, from the overall efficiency of corrective feedback, to the specific attributes of a certain feedback type, to how feedback varies in different instructional contexts, and lastly, to how a learner's background might influence uptake. However, while differing in focus, they have been similar in one aspect: these studies have analyzed beginner or low intermediate learner classrooms. As a result, research data concerning more advanced, proficient language learners is lacking.

This study aims to fill this gap by analyzing corrective feedback and uptake in three first-semester English classes at the English Department of the University of Vienna. The students participating in these classes have all passed the entrance exam, a standardized language test for which the minimum language level requirement is the Council of Europe standard B2 ('Independent User'). The aim of this study then, is to compare the findings to past research and to see whether corrective feedback and uptake differ between advanced learner classrooms and lower level classrooms. In order for comparisons to be made, the following research questions were posed:

1. What kind of errors are made?

2. How many errors are corrected?

3. What kind of feedback is given?

4. Do certain kinds of errors receive a certain kind of feedback?

5. How do students react to the feedback?

6. Is a certain kind of feedback more susceptible to uptake?

The classes will be analyzed separately, then compared to each other to see whether there are any major discrepancies and finally the results will be compared to the findings of beginner and intermediate classrooms.

6.1.2 Research Setting

Three first semester classes (subsequently referred to as Class A, B and C) at the English Department of the University of Vienna were chosen to be analyzed. All three classes dealt with the course 'Integrated Language and Study Skills', which, according to the course description focuses on "study skills, vocabulary development [and] grammar of selected areas" (Vienna University Online Course Catalog Summer 2010: n.p.). The methods used in these courses are "communicative language practice, developing skills and strategies for understanding and producing texts" (ibid). And the course aims "to upgrade students' language and study skills, thereby providing support in an English-medium teaching environment, [...] to encourage students to develop independent study habits (with regard to grammar, usage and vocabulary)" (ibid) and lastly "to identify and address deficiencies in students' language competence" (ibid).

In practice, the focus of each class was slightly different. Class A focused on the differences in future tenses, formal and informal register and graph description exercises. Class B also focused on graph descriptions, but dedicated a part of each lesson to free discussions. Class C stressed vocabulary and reading exercises and no discussions took place.

6.1.3 Participants

Students
Each class consisted of twenty-four students between the ages of 18 and 45, the average age, however, being 20. The majority of the students were female, only five students were male. Most of the students came from a German speaking background; however there were individual students (around 10%) who had a different mother tongue. All students had been learning English for at least 10 years; all of them were at least on a B2 level.

Teachers
The teacher of Class A came from Austria and her mother tongue was German. She had been teaching English for over twenty years. The teacher of Class B called herself a "near-native", having grown up in New York City with a Spanish mother and an Austrian father. She had been teaching English for ten years. The teacher of Class C came from Ireland and had been teaching English for over five years.

6.1.4   *Data-Collection*

All lessons were audio-recorded with the permission of both the teachers and the students. The audio recording device was placed in the middle of the room for optimal audio and the researcher was present during all lessons. Three lessons per class were recorded in this way, totaling an amount of 135 minutes of audio-recordings per class, with 179 student turns (1705 words) in Class A, 212 student turns (3151 words) in Class B and 251 student turns (1625 words) in Class C. Once the recording process was finished, the recordings were transcribed by the researcher using the program 'Transcriber'.

6.2   Framework For Data Analysis

The transcriptions were analyzed using the model illustrated on page 46, which is an adapted version of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) model:

A sequence begins when a student commits an error (grammatical, lexical, content or phonological). This error can either be dealt with by means of corrective feedback or can be ignored. If the error is ignored, the ongoing topic is simply continued. If the error is dealt with, the feedback can either be provided by the teacher or by a different student. If a different student corrects the error, it is classified as 'peer feedback'; if the teacher provides the feedback, the feedback is classified as either a recast, an explicit correction, an elicitation, metalinguistic feedback or as a clarification request. Upon receiving the feedback, the student who committed the error can either react to the correction (uptake), or not. If the student does not react, the ongoing topic is continued. If the student reacts, the uptake occurs with repair or needs-repair. If there is uptake with repair, the student repeats or incorporates the correct form, or is able to self-correct him or herself after receiving feedback which withholds the correct form and encourages modified output. Thereafter the topic is continued. If there is uptake with needs-repair, i.e. the student might acknowledge the error, hesitate after the feedback, commit a different/same/partial error or question the feedback, then this type of uptake might result in further feedback or topic continuation if the uptake with needs-repair is ignored. The model also shows an alternative possibility: instead of the student who committed the error responding to the feedback, a different student might respond, in which case the response can follow as 'peer-repair' (a different student correctly responds to the feedback) or as 'wrong peer-repair' (a different student incorrectly responds to the feedback).
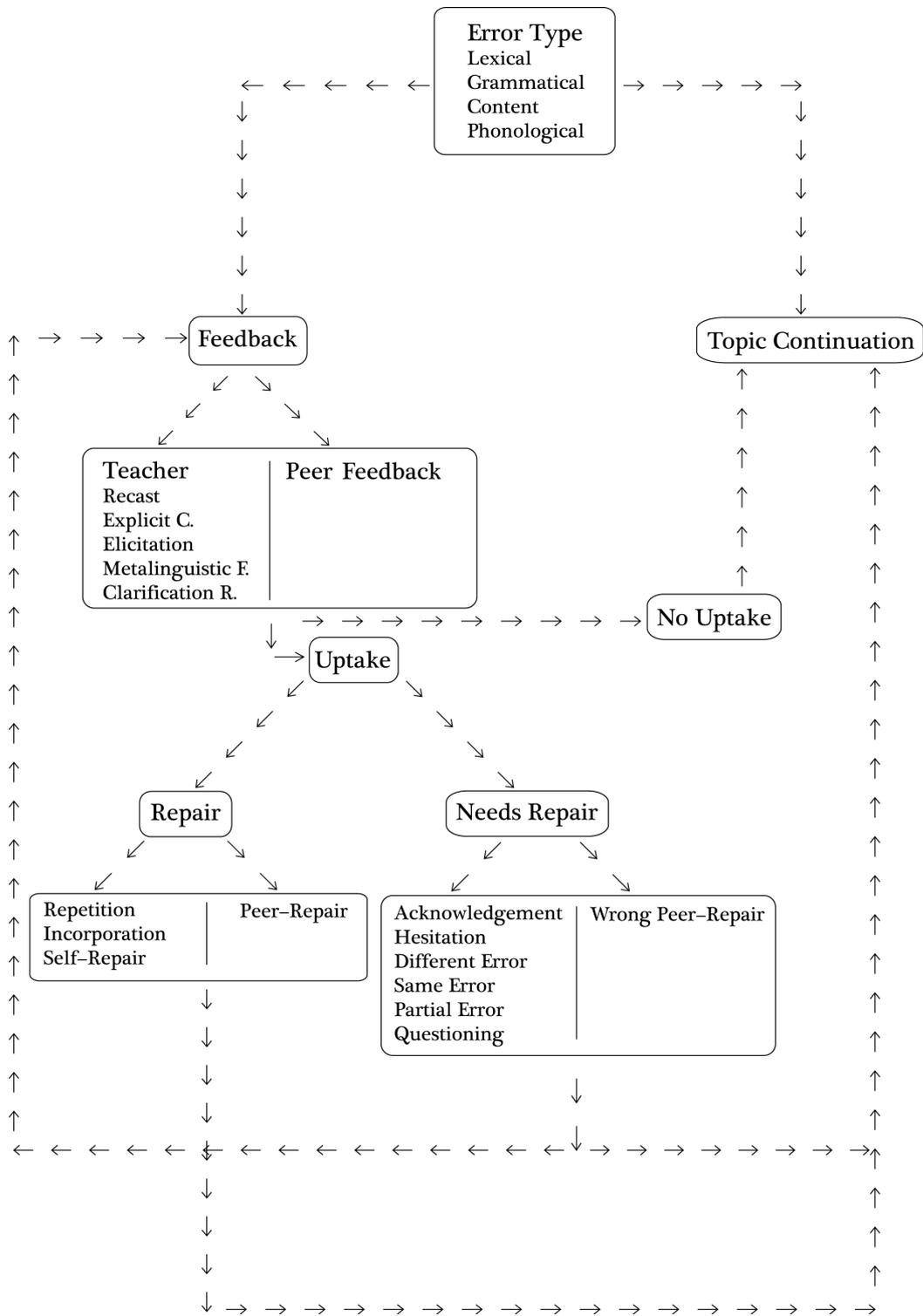
Figure 3: Model Of Present Study

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6.2.1 *Errors*

The first step in this study's analysis was to identify all the errors. As the model on page 46 shows, three of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) categories were left out and one was added. The categories of L1, gender and multiple were not used. In all nine lessons there was only one exchange in which L1 was used, and there it was used only to define a word. Lyster and Ranta (1997) analyzed French classrooms, and there the wrong gender was used so often that the researchers felt a need to make it a category of its own. This category, of course, is not applicable to the English language and was therefore left out. Lastly, if an utterance contained multiple errors, each error type was coded once.[5]

(1) S: I feel like after the test drive I would ask are you buying that car? Because the person already feeled the car, I mean touched it, and get to know it.

The above extract contains multiple grammatical errors, but was only coded once as containing a grammatical error. It was also coded once for containing lexical and content errors. The category of multiple was left out because it made more sense to point out what kind of error occurred, rather than to group different error types under the 'indistinguishable' category of multiple. One new category, content, was added. The categories used then were: grammatical, lexical, phonological and content. The definitions were taken from Jimenez's study on error correction (2006: 54-55) as follows:

Grammatical: Grammatical errors included errors in the use of determiners, prepositions and pronouns, as well as errors in subject/verb agreement, pluralization and tense and incorrect verb morphology. They also included the incorrect use of auxiliaries, errors in question formation and errors in word order. For example:

(2) S: It surprised me that in 1974 every second man is smoking.

(3) S: One other thing also, or one other reason why women maybe smoke less than men is because they bore children?

Lexical: This category included the inaccurate, imprecise, or inappropriate use of nouns, verbs, adverbs, and adjectives. When students provided the

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[5]All examples are extracts from the present transcripts.

wrong word definition it was also coded as lexical.

(4) T: What's the word for, you know, there's neither an upward trend
         nor a downward trend.
     S: Fluctuated?

(5) S: According to the graph Chinese is the most widely used language
         in the world with 1.123 millions of speakers.

'Correct' utterances were also marked as erroneous, if the teacher was not completely satisfied with the answer. For example, if the teacher was thinking of a certain lexical item, and the students provided a different one, then that was marked as incorrect.

(6) T: Yes. Since then there has been a decline. That's it. Um, again, if
          I wanted to make this more specific?
     S3: Steep fall?
     T: Okay.
     S: Downward trend.
     T: Yes.
     S4: Steady decline.
     S2: Steady fall.
     T: Good, fall or decline. I could also say [long pause, no answer]
          marked. Marked decline or fall. Both work.

Content: This included utterances regarding the topic of discussion in which the students provided incorrect, incomplete or irrelevant information. Often content errors regarded grammatical rules. For example:

(7) S: [Reading] Algebra will be important to you later in life because
         there's going to be a test 6 weeks from now.
     T: Okay, so we have two different future tenses and we'll have to
         figure out why the teacher uses these two tenses.
     S: Will be important to you later in life it's not.. we don't have a
         special time.
     T: What is the difference between these two sentences? In what
         context would you use that will future?
     S: When you ask "What will you be doing next week" maybe and
         xxx then you say you will be driving.
     T: Hmm ... any suggestions?

Phonological: This kind of error was difficult to determine, due to the fact that often the audio was very low. Therefore, only phonological errors were coded as such when the teacher corrected them. An example of a phonological error follows:

(8)　S:　It's more from French or Germanic. /gerˈmænɪk/

(9)　S:　Avoid clichés like the plague. /ˈplɑːˌgwe/

6.2.2　*Feedback*

As the model on page 46 shows, the categories Lyster and Ranta (1997) used
to classify feedback moves were slightly changed. The feedback move 'repeti-
tion' never occurred on its own, and only occurred three times with elicitation
or clarification requests as in the following example:

(10)　T:　An animal, a furry animal that lives in the forest is a bear. What
　　　　　about as a verb, what did we find?
　　　S:　To Handle?
　　　T:　Handle?? Did you find that?
　　　T:　Hmm ... any suggestions?

For this reason, it was either categorized as an elicitation or clarification
request. Secondly, the category 'peer feedback' was added, though it did not
occur frequently. It is important to note that 'peer feedback' is not the same
as 'peer-repair'.

<u>Peer feedback</u> exclusively refers to the immediate correction of a student error
by a different student, as in the following example:

(11)　S:　Um, I'm just checking, I think it's 25% of the population is de-
　　　　　scribed as developing in 1990.
　　　S2:　I said 77%.
　　　S:　Oh yeah.

(12)　T:　[Discussing comma placements] What about this one? 'The book,
　　　　　that you gave your sister, won an award'. Anyone correct this
　　　　　one. X, what did you do?
　　　S:　No comma.
　　　T:　No commas, exactly. So even though this is, even though this
　　　　　clause could be not essential, it could just be extra information,
　　　　　why do we not have any commas in there? X?
　　　S:　Because it's this special book, no...
　　　S2:　No, because for that you don't need commas.

Peer feedback does not refer to a correction of the error by a peer which
follows the teacher's feedback; if feedback is provided by the teacher and a
different student reacts to that feedback by correcting the error, then that
type of reaction is classified as 'peer-repair' (and falls under the category of

uptake, not feedback - see following section, 6.2.3, for more details).

The other categories used by Lyster and Ranta (1997) - recast, explicit correction, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests - were also used in this analysis. In the results and the discussion elicitation, metalinguistic feedback and clarification requests are often grouped under the term 'prompts' because as stated in section 4.5.4 these types of feedback encourage student responses. For more detailed definitions on the following individual feedback types see section 4.5.2. A brief definition (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 46-49) and an example of each type are given below:

Explicit correction: The teacher supplies the correct form and clearly indicates that the student's utterance contained an error. For example:

(13) T: [A word for] instead of 'at first'?
        S: Primary.
        T: Hm?
        S: Primary?
        T: Primary is an adjective. Primarily would be the adverb but no, initially, huh. Initially is maybe the adverb you're looking for.

(14) S: Don't we have the highest number of smokers? Wasn't it like that?
        T: I thought it was about the highest number of teenagers...

Recasts: The teacher implicitly reformulates all or part of the student's utterance.

(15) S: She really, really focused on the, um, very, um, I don't know how to say, um, basic information but somehow, um, put in interesting details on the way.
        T: Hmm, so she was able to field trap the most important features and illustrate this with a necessary example. Hmhm. This is definitely something admirable, yes

(16) S: The first sentence is that the decision has been already made, so he's going to buy a car and the second sentence he or she maybe already pays...
        T: Paying for the car, hmhm. So he or she might be paying for the car. Who could actually ask that question?

Elicitation: The teacher directly elicits a reformulation from students by asking questions such as 'How do we say that in English?', making comments such as 'Not quite...', by pausing to allow students to complete teacher's utterance, or by explicitly asking students to reformulate their utterance.

(17) T: Social services are things like unemployment, money, looking after the elderly...

S2: [Yeah, yeah.

T: [But civil service... Civil service is something slightly different...

S3: Like the magistrat?

T: How would you explain this in English?

(18) T: Yeah, good. Anyone disagree? So D, the topic sentence would be 'Ancient people observed and recorded lunar and solar events in different ways'. Um, why would A not be the best topic sentence? I think some people thought that A might be a possibility. What's the problem with A? The history of astronomy is interesting.

S3: It's too general.

T: It's too general but how would you develop the rest of the paragraph if that was your topic sentence? I mean it's possible...

<u>Clarification requests</u>: The teacher uses phrases such as 'Excuse me?' or 'I don't understand' or asks the student for an explanation.

(19) T: [Talking about different meanings of 'civil'] Exactly. If someone's well-mannered or polite, they are civil. What else did we find?

S: Ordinary.

T: Ordinary? In what sense?

(20) T: What's a cliché! What is a cliché?

S: Prejudice. /priːˈtʃʊsəz/

T: Can you say the word again?

<u>Metalinguistic feedback</u>: The teacher provides comments, information, such as word definitions, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance such as 'Why did you choose that tense?'

(21) T: Yes, or decline, yes. Or what else can you say?

S: A steady decrease.

T: Um, steady would be more like something that happens over a period of time.

(22) T: But why is he not saying 'Aren't you tweeting me goodnight?'

S: Because he expects her to do it.

T: Hmhm. Yes. Why is the speaker not using the present continuous?

6.2.3 *Uptake*

Every "student's utterance that immediately follow[ed] the teacher's feedback and that constitute[d] a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance" (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 49) was marked as uptake. As pointed out in section 5.2, Lyster and Ranta (1997) distinguished between 'repair' and 'needs-repair' uptake moves.

Uptake with repair was classified as uptake in which the student who had originally committed the error successfully stated the correct form after the provision of feedback. This took place in the following three ways:

Repetition: The student repeats the correct form.

> (23) T: It's an alliteration, yes. So what is an alliteration? Can you say
> that again, maybe?
> S: Two Fs. Two words in a sentence for example that have the same
> ...
> T: Start with the same ... [long pause] [sound.
> S: [Let... Sound.

> (24) S: The second one is uh, one of the main, ehm, stuff, which the graph
> is telling about the, about the peak of the graph.
> T: Right, or in other words key feature.
> S2: Key feature.

Incorporation: The student incorporates the correct form into a longer utterance.

> (25) S3: I think the same. I mean it's written very big in very big blocks...
> T: Letters.
> S3: Yeah, letters, but I think people who like to smoke, they still
> smoking it, they know that's harmful.

> (26) S4: Yes. Since 1987 there has been a significant decline in the con-
> sumption of margarine... /ˈmɑːrgɑːˌriːnə/
> T: Margarine. /ˌmɑːdʒəˈriːn/
> S4: Margarine /ˌmɑːdʒəˈriːn/ and is said to continue xxx ...

Self-repair: The student who originally committed the error is able to self-correct him or herself after receiving the teacher's feedback which did not provide the correct form.

(27)　T:　So we had capital, who's going to give us their ideas for capital? X!

S2:　Um, my city which is the center of a country or government

T:　What part of speech is that?

S2:　Noun.

T:　Noun, exactly. So the city which is the seat of government of a country. Or?

S2:　A capital letter.

T:　Yeah, it can be used to mean a capital letter, or one other main one which I was interested in.

S2:　Um..

T:　Practically the same word in German

S2:　Um, capital as money.

T:　As money, exactly. So capital can refer to a sum of money.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) also placed 'peer-repair', uptake which occurs when a different student provides the correct form after the teacher's feedback, into the category of 'uptake with repair'. However, to what extent peer-repair actually benefits the student who committed the error is disputable . In a way, it is similar to the explicit corrections provided by the teacher - in both cases the learner who originally committed the error does not produce the correct form. For this reason, peer-repair constituted a category of its own and a clear distinction was made between uptake with repair by the student who had committed the error and peer-repair. Below follow examples of peer-repair.

Peer-repair: A different student produces the correct form after the teacher's feedback is given.

(28)　T:　Do you all know what West Point is, first of all?

S:　A bank?

T:　No, it's... X?

S2:　An academy.

(29)　S:　No, I got another one for piece. It's like, um, P E A S.

T:　Aaah, how is that pronounced?

S2:　Peas. /piːz/

Uptake with needs-repair was classified as uptake in which the student reacts to the feedback but does not state the correct form. After this kind of uptake further feedback can follow. The following categories were classified as 'uptake with needs-repair'.

Acknowledgement: The student acknowledges the correct form.

    (30)   S: Um, the bar chart compares the percentage of women who can really write and men.
              T: Yes. The literacy levels we can also say.
              S: Yeah.

Hesitation: The student hesitates with a response.

    (31)   S3:   Tumoko spends as much money on rent and food as she does on everything else put together. That's not true.
              T: That's correct, what would you say?
              S3:   Um, Tumoko spends more money on [mumbles] ...
              T: Say again?
              S3:   Um, let me think about it again.

Different error: The student reacts to the feedback, however the utterance contains a different error.

    (32)   S: What do the figures at the top of the chart represent? Um, I said percentage.
              T: The percentage of...
              S: The percentage of male and female.
               T: Of the population.

Partial error: The student reacts to the feedback but only corrects the error to a certain extent.

    (33)   S3:   It is wrong to ever split an infinitive. Um, to ever split...
              T: would be splitting, yes, what do you think?
              S3:   I think I wouldn't even say that sentence in an informal context.
              T: Aha, well basically splitting the infinitive has been one of the no-nos of academic writing. Today I really feel this is not relevant anymore. This is really something one hardly ever looks at anymore. This is a perfectly correct sentence in everyday context and nowadays I would argue it is also fairly correct in any kind of formal text. Only if you have the most conservative readers.

<u>Same error:</u> The student commits the same error again.

> (34) S: Um, the country with the greatest difference in life expectancy...
>   /ɪkˌspekˈtɑːnsi/
>   T: Expectancy. /ɪkˈspektənsi/
>   S: Expectancy /ikˌspekˈtɑːnsi/ between men and women is the USA...

Lyster and Ranta (1997) also used the category 'off target', however, since such uptake never took place, that category was not used. However, two new categories were added: 'wrong peer-repair' and 'questioning'. An explanation and examples of these categories follow.

<u>Wrong peer-repair:</u> This category was added due to the high amount of peer reactions containing an error to the teacher's feedback.

> (35) T: Can I ask, what is a cliché?
>   S4: Stereotypes?
>   T: Hmhm. Stereotypical what? I mean man leaves wife for a 19 year old blonde, what is that? The first thing that comes to mind? The first thing you would say is.. What a cliché! What is a cliché?
>   S: Prejudice. /priːˈtʃʊsəz/

> (36) T: And what is the problem with a phrase that every, that thousands of lovers have written to thousands of other lovers?
>   S: It seems boring, uncreative.
>   T: Yes and?
>   S2: Not impressed, really.
>   S3: Overused.
>   T: Why are you not impressed? Because it does not do what? It does not refer to you, individually. It doesn't ring a bell, it is a cliché, that holds true for many situations. It is void of meaning because it has been used so often. I mean overused generally.

<u>Questioning:</u> Sometimes students questioned or challenged their teacher's feedback moves or asked for further information. In such cases the uptake was coded as 'questioning'.

> (37) T: (...) Bright is an adjective if we describe a person as bright?
>   S4: Intelligent.
>   T: It means they're intelligent.
>   S: Or happy.
>   T: Happy? Really?
>   S: Yes.
>   T: Did you find that?
>   S: Yeah, I did find that. I can show you.

6.3 Results

6.3.1 *Class A*

Table 1 shows the distribution of error types in all three lessons. Overall, 84 errors were made, and with the exception of phonological errors, the error types were relatively equally distributed: 29 (34.53%) were content, 25 (29.76%) were grammatical, 25 (29.76%) were lexical and 5 (5.95%) were phonological errors. [6]

Table 1: Number And Percentage Of Errors By Error Type

Error Type	Number of Errors	Percentage
Lexical	25	29.76%
Grammatical	25	29.76%
Content	29	34.53%
Phonological	5	5.95%
Total	**84**	**100%**

Table 2 illustrates the distribution of feedback moves according to error types. As one can see from the table, content and lexical errors received the highest amount of feedback moves, 33 (49.25%) and 23 (34.34%) respectively, while only 6 (8.95%) feedback moves were dedicated to the treatment of grammatical errors, and 5 (7.46%) feedback moves to the correction of phonological errors.

Table 2: Distribution Of Feedback Moves Per Error Type

Error Type	Feedback Moves	Percentage
Lexical	23	34.34%
Grammatical	6	8.95%
Content	33	49.25%
Phonological	5	7.46%
Total	**67**	**100%**

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[6]At this point it should be noted that phonological errors, unlike the other types of errors, were only counted as errors in these three classrooms if the teacher corrected the student's pronunciation. This was due to the fact that the quality of the audio recordings was sometimes very bad and it was therefore often impossible to distinguish bad pronunciation from bad audio.

Table 3 presents the rate of errors treated per error type. Overall, corrective feedback was provided for 75% of the errors made in Class A. As one can see, all phonological and all content errors were treated, some content errors even received multiple feedback moves: 33 feedback moves were used to correct 29 content errors. These extra feedback moves, however, were not calculated into the overall percentage of errors treated, as that would have skewed the results. Nearly all lexical errors were corrected as well (23 out of 25, totaling 92%). The only error type which did not receive much attention in terms of feedback moves were grammatical errors: only 24% of all grammatical errors were corrected.

Table 3: Rate Of Corrective Feedback Per Error Type

Error Type	Feedback Moves	Percentage of Errors Treated
Lexical	23/25	92%
Grammatical	6/25	24%
Content	33/29	100%
Phonological	5/5	100%
Total	**67/84**	**75%**

Table 4 shows the distribution of the different feedback types. As the table illustrates, elicitation was by far the most common feedback type - this method was used 25 times, or, in other words, 37.31% of all feedback moves were corrected through elicitations. The second most common feedback type was explicit correction: 18 instances of explicit corrections were found in the lessons (26.86% of all feedback moves were explicit corrections). Recasts and metalinguistic feedback occurred with nearly the same frequency - recasts were used 11 times, while metalinguistic feedback was provided 10 times (contributing to 16.41% and 14.95% of all feedback moves respectively). There were hardly any clarification requests (only 3 (4.47%) feedback moves were clarification requests). Peer feedback was never provided.

Table 4: Distribution Of Feedback Types

Feedback Type	Occurrences	Percentage
Recasts	11	16.41%
Explicit Correction	18	26.86%
Elicitation	25	37.31%
Metalinguistic F.	10	14.95%
Clarification R.	3	4.47%
Peer Feedback	0	0%
Total	**67**	**100%**

Table 5 presents the distribution of feedback types per error type. The table illustrates a clear correlation between error and feedback type. One can see that elicitation and explicit corrections were used to treat both lexical and content errors, while phonological and grammatical errors were never treated with such feedback types. Instead, such errors were treated mostly by recasts. Metalinguistic feedback was dedicated to all error types except for phonological errors, while clarification requests were provided after lexical and phonological errors.

Table 5: Distribution Of Feedback Types Per Error Types

Feedback/Error	Lexical	Grammatical	Content	Phonological
Recasts	3	4		4
Explicit Correction	10		8	
Elicitation	5		20	
Metalinguistic F.	3	2	5	
Clarification R.	2			1
Peer Feedback				

Table 6 shows the amount of uptake each type of feedback received. Learner uptake followed 59.70% of all feedback moves. The table illustrates that prompts (elicitation, metalinguistic feedback and clarification requests) resulted in the highest amount of uptake. In fact, metalinguistic feedback and clarification requests always resulted in uptake, while elicitation resulted in uptake over 90% of the time. Recasts and explicit corrections, on the other hand, had an extremely low uptake rate: only in 1 out of 11 (9.1%) times did uptake follow recasts; twice out of 18 times (11.11%) uptake followed explicit corrections.

Table 6: Amount Of Uptake Per Feedback Type

Feedback Type	Uptake/FT	Percentage
Recasts	1/11	9.1%
Explicit Correction	2/18	11.11%
Elicitation	23/25	92%
Metalinguistic F.	11/10	100%
Clarification R.	3/3	100%
Peer Feedback	0	0%
Total	**40/67**	59.70%

Table 7 shows the individual types of uptake with repair moves which took place after corrections. As previously stated in section 6.2.3, the student might repair the error after feedback is provided, by repeating or incorporating the correct form or by producing the correct form on his/her own (self-repair). Other times a different student might react to the feedback and correct the error. In such a case the uptake is defined as 'peer-repair'. As the table shows, altogether there were 25 repair moves. 5 (20%) repair moves were made by the student who originally committed the error (3 times the student repeated the correct form, twice the student was able to find the correct form on his/her own). More frequently, however, a different student reacted to the teacher's feedback and was able to repair the error: in 20 instances (80% of all uptake with repair moves) peer-repair followed the teacher's feedback.

Table 7: Types Of Uptake With Repair

Repair	Occurrences (N=25)	Percentage
Repetition	3	12%
Incorporation	0	0%
Self-repair	2	8%
Peer-Repair	20	80%

Table 8 shows the different types of uptake with needs-repair which occurred after the provision of feedback. Similar to the uptake with repair moves, a distinction was made between uptake that still needed repair given by the student who had originally committed the error (first six types listed in the table) and uptake in need of repair provided by a peer (wrong peer-repair). As the table shows, 15 uptake with needs-repair moves took place. 60% of all needs-repair moves were made by the students who had originally committed the error, and 40% of all needs-repair moves were made by peers. Each uptake with needs-repair move occurred at least once; however questioning the feedback, committing the same error again and wrong peer-repair were the most common needs-repair moves.

Table 8: Types Of Uptake With Needs-Repair

Needs-repair	Occurrences (N=15)	Percentage
Acknowledgement	1	6.66%
Hesitation	1	6.66%
Different Error	1	6.66%
Partial Error	1	6.66%
Same Error	3	20%
Questioning	2	13.33%
Wrong Peer Repair	6	40%

Table 9 shows which type of correction received which kind of uptake with repair. As one can see from the table, elicitations and metalinguistic feedback resulted in much more peer-repair than self-repair, while recasts and explicit corrections resulted in repetition.

Table 9: Uptake With Repair According To Feedback

Feedback Type	Repetition	Incorporation	Self-repair	Peer-repair
Recasts	1			
Explicit Correction	2			
Elicitation			1	13
Metalinguistic F.			1	6
Clarification R.				1
Peer Feedback				

Table 10 illustrates the kind of uptake with needs-repair that resulted from the different feedback types. The table shows that with the exception of two questioning moves which resulted from explicit corrections, all needs-repair moves resulted from prompts. The most common uptake with needs-repair moves were 'same error' (resulting from clarification requests) and 'wrong peer-repair' (resulting from elicitations and metalinguistic feedback).

Table 10: Uptake With Needs-Repair According To Feedback

Feedback Type	Acknowledge	Hesitation	Different Error	Partial Error
Recasts				
Explicit Correction				
Elicitation			1	1
Metalinguistic F.	1	1		
Clarification R.				
Peer Feedback				

Table 10 continued

Feedback Type	Same Error	Questioning	Wrong Peer Repair
Recasts			
Explicit Correction		2	
Elicitation			5
Metalinguistic F.			1
Clarification R.	3		
Peer Feedback			

6.3.2 *Class B*

Table 11 presents the distribution of error types in all three lessons. Altogether 84 errors were made. In contrast to Class A, Class B made more lexical and grammatical errors than content errors: 33 (39.29%) errors were lexical and 30 (35.73%) were grammatical, while only 17 (20.23%) were content and 4 (4.76%) were phonological errors.

Table 11: Number And Percentage Of Errors By Error Type

Error Type	Number of Errors	Percentage
Lexical	33	39.29%
Grammatical	30	35.73%
Content	17	20.23%
Phonological	4	4.76%
Total	**84**	**100%**

Table 12 illustrates the distribution of feedback moves across the different error types. The table shows that lexical and content errors received the most amount of feedback moves, 26 (50.98%) and 19 (37.25%) respectively, while only 5 (9.8%) feedback moves were dedicated to phonological errors. Only one single feedback move (1.97%) was provided for the treatment of a grammatical error.

Table 12: Distribution Of Feedback Moves Per Error Type

Error Type	Feedback Moves	Percentage
Lexical	26	50.98%
Grammatical	1	1.97%
Content	19	37.25%
Phonological	5	9.8%
Total	**51**	**100%**

Table 13 presents the rate of errors treated per error type. Overall, corrective feedback was provided for 57.14% of all errors made. The overall percentage of errors treated was lower than that of Class A, due to the fact that even less attention was given to grammatical errors in Class B than in the previous class: only once was a grammatical error corrected. Otherwise the percentage of error types treated was quite similar to Class A: all content and phonological errors were corrected, as well as a high percentage (nearly 80%) of all lexical errors. Content and phonological errors even received multiple feedback moves, though, as already stated for *Table 3*, multiple feedback moves were not counted into the overall percentage.

Table 13: Rate Of Corrective Feedback Per Error Type

Error Type	Feedback Moves	Percentage of Errors Treated
Lexical	26/33	78.78%
Grammatical	1/30	3.33%
Content	19/17	100%
Phonological	5/4	100%
Total	**51/84**	**57.14%**

Table 14 shows how often the different feedback moves occurred and what percentage of total feedback moves they constituted. As one can see, elicitation was by far the most frequent method of feedback: elicitations were provided 23 times, accounting for 45.1% of all feedback moves. Explicit correction and recasts followed with 13 (25.50%) and 10 (19.60%) occurrences respectively. While no peer feedback could be found in Class A, in Class B there were 2 instances (3.92%) in which peers provided feedback; the same amount of metalinguistic feedback was also given. A clarification request was only made once (1.96%).

Table 14: Distribution Of Feedback Types

Feedback Type	Occurrences	Percentage
Recasts	10	19.60%
Explicit Correction	13	25.50%
Elicitation	23	45.1%
Metalinguistic F.	2	3.92%
Clarification R.	1	1.96%
Peer Feedback	2	3.92%
Total	**51**	**100%**

Table 15 presents the distribution of feedback types per error type. As the table shows, akin to the results of Class A, prompts (elicitation, metalinguistic feedback and clarification requests) and explicit corrections were predominantly used to correct lexical and content errors - in fact only once was a prompt (elicitation) used to correct a phonological error. Recasts were used to correct all errors, including the one grammatical error, but the error type which received the most recasts were phonological errors.

Table 15: Distribution Of Feedback Types Per Error Types

Feedback/Error	Lexical	Grammatical	Content	Phonological
Recasts	3	1	2	4
Explicit Correction	8		5	
Elicitation	13		9	1
Metalinguistic F.	1		1	
Clarification R.			1	
Peer Feedback	1		1	

Table 16 illustrates the amount of uptake each type of feedback received. Overall, 78.43% of all feedback received uptake. Similar to Class A, uptake followed elicitation and metalinguistic feedback 100% of the time. In contrast to Class A, in Class B recasts also had a high uptake rate - 9 out of 10 recasts (90%) received uptake. A lower uptake rate occurred after explicit corrections: uptake only followed explicit corrections 5 out of 13 times (38.46%). The table shows that no uptake followed the one clarification request and that only one out of the two peer feedback moves received uptake.

Table 16: Amount Of Uptake Per Feedback

Feedback Type	Uptake/FT	Percentage
Recasts	9/10	90%
Explicit Correction	5/13	38.46%
Elicitation	23/23	100%
Metalinguistic F.	2/2	100%
Clarification R.	0/1	0%
Peer Feedback	1/2	50%
Total	**40/51**	**78.43%**

Table 17 shows the different types of uptake with repair moves that occurred after feedback was provided. Altogether there were 23 uptake with repair moves. The first three repair types listed in the table were provided by the students who had originally committed the error; in total there were 11 (47.83%) such moves. Out of these, the most frequent uptake with repair move consisted of the student repeating the correct form. The remaining 12 repair moves were provided by peers. Peer-repair amounted to 52.17% of all repair moves - nearly 30% less than that previously found in Class A.

Table 17: Types Of Uptake With Repair

Repair	Occurrences (N=23)	Percentage
Repetition	8	34.78%
Incorporation	2	8.69%
Self-repair	1	4.36%
Peer-repair	12	52.17%

Table 18 shows the different types of uptake with needs-repair which occurred after the provision of feedback. Similar to the uptake with repair moves, a distinction was made between uptake that still needed repair given by the student who had originally committed the error (first six types listed in the table) and uptake in need of repair provided by a peer (wrong peer-repair). As the table shows, altogether 17 uptake with needs-repair moves took place. 47.05% of all needs-repair moves were made by the students who had originally committed the error, the most common needs-repair move being acknowledgement. Uptake with a different error or questioning the feedback only occurred once, each. Hesitations and partial errors never took place after feedback moves. 52.95% of all uptake with needs-repair moves were made by peers who provided the wrong form.

Table 18: Types Of Uptake With Needs-Repair

Needs-repair	Occurrences (N=17)	Percentage
Acknowledgement	5	29.41%
Hesitation	0	0%
Different Error	1	5.88%
Partial Error	0	0%
Same Error	1	5.88%
Questioning	1	5.88%
Wrong Peer-repair	9	52.95%

Table 19 shows which type of correction received which kind of uptake with repair. As the table illustrates, recasts and explicit correction resulted in repetition; recasts also resulted in incorporation. Elicitations encouraged self-repair and, along with metalinguistic feedback, peer-repair.

Table 19: Uptake With Repair According To Feedback

Feedback	Repetition	Incorporation	Self-repair	Peer-repair
Recasts	6	2		
Explicit Correction	1			
Elicitation	1		1	11
Metalinguistic F.				1
Clarification R.				
Peer Feedback				

Table 20 presents the kinds of uptake with needs-repair that resulted from the different feedback types. The table shows that explicit corrections, elicitations and peer feedback resulted in acknowledgement; a different error was made after an elicitation and the same error occurred after a recast. One questioning move took place after an explicit correction. Eliciations and metalinguistic feedack resulted in wrong peer-repair.

Table 20: Uptake With Needs-Repair According To Feedback

Feedback	Acknowledge	Hesitation	Different Error	Partial Error
Recasts				
Explicit Correction	3			
Elicitation	1		1	
Metalinguistic F.				
Clarification R.				
Peer Feedback	1			

Table 20 continued

Feedback	Same Error	Questioning	Wrong Peer Repair
Recasts	1		
Explicit Correction		1	
Elicitation			8
Metalinguistic F.			1
Clarification R.			
Peer Feedback			

6.3.3 *Class C*

Table 21 illustrates the distribution of error types in all three lessons. Overall 42 errors were made (which is half of the amount that was found in both Class A and B): 20 (nearly 50%) were lexical, 15 (35.72%) were content errors, and 6 (14.28%) were grammatical errors. Only one (2.38%) phonological error was made.

Table 21: Number And Percentage Of Errors By Error Type

Error Type	Number of Errors	Percentage
Lexical	20	47.62%
Grammatical	6	14.28%
Content	15	35.72%
Phonological	1	2.38%
Total	**42**	**100%**

Table 22 presents the distribution of feedback moves according to error types. As was the case in the previous two classes, also in Class C, lexical and content errors received the most amount of feedback moves, 52.38% and 35.71% respectively. Only 9.52% of all feedback moves were dedicated to grammatical errors and even less feedback moves (2.38%) were dedicated to the correction of phonological errors.

Table 22: Distribution Of Feedback Moves Per Error Type

Error Type	Feedback Moves	Percentage
Lexical	22	52.38%
Grammatical	4	9.52%
Content	15	35.71%
Phonological	1	2.38%
Total	**42**	**100%**

Table 23 presents the percentage of errors treated per error type. In Class C, corrections were provided for nearly all errors resulting in an overall corrective feedback rate of 95.23%. All lexical errors were corrected (some with multiple feedback moves) as well as all content and phonological errors. The only error type which did not receive 100% treatment were grammatical errors - 4 out of 6 (66.66%) grammatical errors received feedback, which compared to the percentage found in Class A and B, is still relatively high.

Table 23: Rate Of Corrective Feedback Per Error Type

Error Type	Feedback Moves	Percentage of Errors Treated
Lexical	22/20	100%
Grammatical	4/6	66.66%
Content	15/15	100%
Phonological	1/1	100%
Total	**42/42**	**95.23%**

Table 24 shows how the different feedback types were distributed. As in the previous two classes, elicitation was once again the most common feedback type. It occurred 25 times, or in other words, nearly 60% of all errors were treated through elicitation. The second most common feedback type were explicit corrections. These occurred 9 times (21.44% of all feedback moves were explicit corrections). Recasts were used in 5 instances, amounting to 11.90% of all feedback moves. Metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests and peer corrections all occurred once (each type amounted to 2.38% of all feedback moves).

Table 24: Distribution Of Feedback Types

Feedback Type	Occurrences	Percentage
Recasts	5	11.90%
Explicit Correction	9	21.44%
Elicitation	25	59.52%
Metalinguistic F.	1	2.38%
Clarification R.	1	2.38%
Peer Feedback	1	2.38%
Total	**42**	**100%**

Table 25 presents the distribution of feedback types per error type. The distribution coincides with the results of Class A and Class B: the results show a clear preference to treat lexical and content errors through prompts (particularly through elicitation) and explicit corrections. The one phonological error that occurred was also treated with elicitation. Three out of the four grammatical errors which were treated, were corrected with recasts; one was corrected with an explicit correction.

Table 25: Distribution Of Feedback Types Per Error Types

Feedback Type	Lexical	Grammatical	Content	Phonological
Recasts	2	3		
Explicit Correction	7	1	1	
Elicitation	12		12	1
Metalinguistic F.			1	
Clarification R.	1			
Peer Feedback			1	

Table 26 shows the amount of uptake each type of feedback received. Overall 80.95% of all feedback moves received uptake; this percentage is even higher than that of Class B. Every single elicitation resulted in uptake, once even in two uptake moves (two students reacted to the same feedback). The single metalinguistic feedback move and clarification request also resulted in uptake. 3 out of 5 recasts received uptake (60%); explicit corrections had a lower uptake rate with only 3 out of 9 such feedback moves receiving uptake (33.33%). No uptake followed the single peer feedback move.

Table 26: Amount Of Uptake Per Feedback

Feedback Type	Uptake/FT	Percentage
Recasts	3/5	60%
Explicit Correction	3/9	33.33%
Elicitation	26/25	100%
Metalinguistic F.	1/1	100%
Clarification R.	1/1	100%
Peer Feedback	0/1	0%
Total	**34/42**	**80.95%**

Table 27 shows the different types of uptake with repair moves which took place after corrections. Altogether there were 20 uptake with repair moves. The first three types of repair listed in the table are repairs which were provided by the student who had originally committed the error: on two occasions the correct form was repeated, in one instance the correct form was incorporated into a longer utterance. The most common type of repair by the student who had committed the error was self-repair (30% of all repair moves were self-repairs); this percentage is much higher than that found in Class A and B. Still, the overall most frequent type of uptake with repair move was repair provided by a different student after the teacher's feedback: 55% of all uptake with repair moves were provided by peers.

Table 27: Types Of Uptake With Repair

Repair	Occurrences (N=20)	Percentage
Repetition	2	10%
Incorporation	1	5%
Self-repair	6	30%
Peer-repair	11	55%

Table 28 shows the different types of uptake with needs-repair which occurred after the provision of feedback. Altogether 14 uptake with needs-repair moves took place. The first six types listed in the table were uptake moves with needs-repair provided by the student who had originally committed the error. As the table illustrates, out of those moves, questioning the feedback was the most common type of uptake. Twice the student hesitated without being able to correct the error after receiving the feedback; in one instance the error was acknowledged or the same error was repeated. 5 times (35.71%) a different student provided uptake with needs-repair.

Table 28: Types Of Uptake With Needs-Repair

Needs-repair	Occurrences (N=14)	Percentage
Acknowledgement	1	7.14%
Hesitation	2	14.30%
Different Error	0	0%
Partial Error	0	0%
Same Error	1	7.14%
Questioning	5	35.71%
Wrong Peer-Repair	5	35.71%

Table 29 illustrates which type of feedback received which kind of uptake with repair. Similar to Class A and B, recasts and explicit corrections resulted in repetitions and an explicit correction also resulted in incorporation. Clarification requests and elicitations resulted in self-repair, the latter feedback type also resulted in 11 instances of peer-repair.

Table 29: Uptake With Repair According To Feedback Type

Feedback Type	Repetition	Incorporation	Self-repair	Peer-repair
Recasts	1			
Explicit Correction	1	1		
Elicitation			5	11
Metalinguistic F.				
Clarification R.			1	
Peer Feedback				

Table 30 illustrates the kind of uptake with needs-repair that resulted from the different feedback types. The table shows that recasts resulted in acknowledgement, and along with explicit corrections and elicitation, in questioning. Elicitations also resulted in wrong peer-repair and hesitation. Metalinguistic feedback resulted in the same error.

Table 30: Uptake With Needs-Repair According To Feedback

Feedback Type	Acknowledge	Hesitation	Different Error	Partial Error
Recasts	1			
Explicit Correction				
Elicitation	1	2		
Metalinguistic F.				
Clarification R.				
Peer Feedback				

Table 30 continued

Feedback Type	Same Error	Questioning	Wrong Peer-Repair
Recasts		1	
Explicit Correction		2	
Elicitation		2	5
Metalinguistic F.	1		
Clarification R.			
Peer Feedback			

6.3.4 *Combined Results*

Table 31 illustrates the distribution of the different error types in all nine lessons across all three classes. Overall 210 errors were made. Lexical errors were the most frequent error type, occurring 78 times (37.14% of all errors were lexical). Tied for the second most frequent error type were grammtical and content errors. Each type occurred 61 times (accounting for 29.04% of all errors respectively). The least frequent error type were phonological errors: only 10 phonological errors (4.78% of all errors) were made in all nine lessons.

Table 31: Number And Percentage Of Errors By Error Type

Error Type	Number of Errors	
Lexical	78	37.14%
Grammatical	61	29.04%
Content	61	29.04%
Phonological	10	4.78%
Total	**210**	**100%**

Table 32 presents the number and percentage of feedback moves according to error type. As the results of Tables 2, 12 and 22 have shown, in all three classes the majority of feedback moves were dedicated to lexical and content errors. These error types received nearly the same percentage of feedback moves (44.36% vs 41.88% respectively). In contrast, grammatical and phonological errors each only received 6.88% of all feedback moves.

Table 32: Distribution Of Feedback Moves Per Error Type

Error Type	Feedback Moves	Percentage
Lexical	71	44.36%
Grammatical	11	6.88%
Content	67	41.88%
Phonological	11	6.88%
Total	**160**	**100%**

Table 33 presents the percentage of errors treated per error type. Overall 160 feedback moves were used to correct 210 errors. As previously noted, some errors received multiple feedback moves, which were not calculated into the overall percentage. Therefore, the total rate of error correction was 71.90%. What stands out is that every single content error as well as all phonological errors were treated. Lexical errors also received a high amount of feedback moves (88.46%). In contrast, only 18.03% of all grammatical errors were dealt with.

Table 33: Rate Of Corrective Feedback Per Error Type

Error Type	Feedback Moves	Percentage of Errors Treated
Lexical	71/78	88.46%
Grammatical	11/61	18.03%
Content	67/61	100%
Phonological	11/10	100%
Total	**160/210**	**71.90%**

Table 34 shows how the different feedback types were distributed. One can clearly see that elicitations were by far the most frequent feedback move - nearly half (45.62%) of the errors were treated through elicitations. The second most common feedback move were explicit corrections: these accounted for 25% of all feedback moves. Recasts and metalinguistic feedback only accounted for 16.25% and 8.12% of all feedback moves respectively. Clarification requests and peer feedback occurred least frequently (3.12% and 1.87% respectively).

Table 34: Distribution Of Feedback Types

Feedback Type	Occurrences	Percentage
Recasts	26	16.25%
Explicit Correction	40	25%
Elicitation	73	45.62%
Metalinguistic F.	13	8.12%
Clarification R.	5	3.12%
Peer Feedback	3	1.87%
Total	**160**	**100%**

Table 35 presents the distribution of feedback types per error type. As one can see from the table, recasts were the only feedback type which were provided for all error types. Both grammatical and phonological errors were predominantly treated by recasts. Explicit corrections were often provided for lexical and content errors and in one instance also for a grammatical error. Elicitation, metalinguistic feedback and clarification requests were almost exclusively used to correct content and lexical errors. In fact, only twice was a grammatical error corrected through a prompt (metalinguistic feedback). On three occasions a prompt was provided after a phonological error (twice with elicitation and once with a clarification request). Peer corrections followed one lexical and two content errors.

Table 35: Distribution Of Feedback Types Per Error Types

Feedback Type	Lexical	Grammatical	Content	Phonological
Recasts	8	8	2	8
Explicit Correction	25	1	14	
Elicitation	30		41	2
Metalinguistic F.	4	2	7	
Clarification R.	3		1	1
Peer Feedback	1		2	

Table 36 shows the amount of uptake each type of feedback received. Out of the 160 feedback moves, 114 received uptake, which means that 71.25% of all feedback moves resulted in uptake. As one can see from the table, the only feedback move which always resulted in uptake was metalinguistic feedback. The uptake rates after elicitations and clarification requests were also high (98.63% and 80% respectively). Recasts received uptake exactly 50% of the time, while uptake followed explicit corrections only one quarter of the time. One out of three peer feedback moves received uptake.

Table 36: Amount Of Uptake Per Feedback

Feedback Type	Uptake/FT	Percentage
Recasts	13/26	50%
Explicit Correction	10/40	25%
Elicitation	72/73	98.63%
Metalinguistic F.	14/13	100%
Clarification R.	4/5	80%
Peer Feedback	1/3	33.33%
Total	**114/160**	**71.25%**

Tables 37 shows the different types of uptake with repair moves that occurred after feedback was provided. Altogether there were 68 uptake with repair moves. The first three repair types listed in the table were provided by the students who had originally committed the error; in total there were 25 such moves. Out of these, the most frequent uptake with repair move consisted of the student repeating the correct form - this occurred 13 times, accounting for 19.11% of all uptake with repair moves. 13.23% of the uptake with repair moves consisted of the student providing the correct form on his or her own. By far the most common uptake with repair move, however, was peer-repair. 63.23% of all uptake with repair moves were made by peers.

Table 37: Types Of Uptake With Repair

Repair	Occurrences (N=68)	Percentage
Repetition	13	19.11%
Incorporation	3	4.42%
Self-repair	9	13.23%
Peer-repair	43	63.23%

Table 38 shows the different types of uptake with needs-repair which occurred after the provision of feedback. As was the case with the uptake with repair moves, a distinction was made between uptake that still needed repair given by the student who had originally committed the error (first six types listed in the table) and uptake in need of repair provided by a peer (wrong peer-repair). As the table shows, altogether 46 uptake with needs-repair moves took place. 56.50% of all needs-repair moves were made by the students who had originally committed the error. Out of these needs-repair moves, the most common types were acknowledgement, questioning the feedback and committing the same error again. The remaining 43.50% of all needs-repair moves were made by peers, who provided the wrong form after the teacher's feedback.

Table 38: Types Of Uptake With Needs-Repair

Needs-repair	Occurrences (N=46)	Percentage
Acknowledgement	7	15.21%
Hesitation	3	6.52%
Different Error	2	4.34%
Partial Error	1	2.17%
Same Error	5	10.86%
Questioning	8	17.39%
Wrong Peer-Repair	20	43.50%

Table 39 illustrates which type of correction received which kind of uptake with repair. As one can see from the table, metalinguistic feedback and clarification requests resulted in self- and peer-repair, while recasts and explicit corrections resulted in repetition and incorporation. Elicitations resulted primarily in self- and peer-repair, though once an elicitation resulted in repetition and in another instance in incorporation.

Table 39: Uptake With Repair According To Feedback Type

Feedback Type	Repetition	Incorporation	Self-repair	Peer-repair
Recasts	8	2		
Explicit Correction	4			
Elicitation	1	1	7	35
Metalinguistic F.			1	7
Clarification R.			1	1
Peer Feedback				

Table 40 illustrates which type of correction received which kind of uptake with needs-repair. Recasts and explicit corrections resulted in acknowledgement and questioning. Elicitations resulted in every needs-repair move except for the same error, but most frequently in wrong peer-repair. Metalinguistic feedback resulted in acknowledgement, hesitation, the same error and wrong peer-repair, while clarification requests were followed by the same error. One peer feedback move was acknowledged.

Table 40: Uptake With Needs-Repair According To Feedback Type

Feedback Type	Acknowledge	Hesitation	Different Error	Partial Error
Recasts	1			
Explicit Correction	3			
Elicitation	2	2	2	1
Metalinguistic F.	1	1		
Clarification R.				
Peer Feedback	1			

Table 40 continued

Feedback Type	Same Error	Questioning	Wrong Peer-Repair
Recasts		1	
Explicit Correction		5	
Elicitation		2	18
Metalinguistic F.	1		2
Clarification R.	3		
Peer Feedback			

6.4 Discussion

6.4.1 *Error Frequency And Error Types*

Overall 210 errors were made in all three classes. 84 errors occurred in both Class A and B, while only 42 errors were made in Class C. The reason for the significantly lower number in Class C can be explained by looking at the class activities. While in Class A and B there were class discussions and questions regarding an aspect of English (tenses, specific vocabulary), which resulted in longer, freer student turns (and errors), in Class C no discussions took place. Instead, vocabulary activities revolved around looking up the definitions of different homonyms in the dictionary and then reading these out loud to the whole class. Furthermore, the reading exercises which were done in Class C called for reading out multiple choice questions and selecting one answer. As a result, the student turns were quite short and rather flawless. Below is an example of a typical student turn:

(38)   T: [. . .] We've got a couple of minutes left. Can we do four? X? Give us the topic sentence for four.
       S: Uh, maybe B?
       T: B. Give us the whole sentence.
       S: Yes, the xxx [reading]
       T: Good. Where do we carry on from that? X?
       S: The next one would be E.
       T: Obviously, it says first of all, so it's starting a sort of list. X?
       S: F. Then one of the...xxx [reading]
       T: Good, so developing the idea of plates combining or colliding. And then?
       S: C.
       T: C. And then?
       S: A.
       T: A. In time.. Well really?
       S: Yeah.
       T: Oh yeah. Causes part of it to melt, at the end of C. And then?
       S: D.
       T: D, 'It produces steam and heat'. And finally?
       S: G.
       T: G, 'When the heat and steam and pressure reaches'... Good. Okay.

With regard to error types, lexical errors were either the most common (Class B and C - 39.29% and 47.62% of all errors were lexical) or second most common (Class A - 29.76%). This is not surprising, given the fact that (new) vocabulary was one of the main focuses of the course and that many instances of classroom talk were dedicated to finding alternative lexical items. The teacher was not satisfied until the word was found that he or she had in

mind. A typical example follows:

(39) T: (...) What does revise mean in this case?
      S: Review.
      T: Review and....
      S: To work through it again.
      S3: Practice.
      T: Almost, there's one more point...
      S2: Edit.
      S: Edit.
      T: To edit or change something, exactly, revise.

Content errors also occurred frequently in all three classes, but was the most frequent error type in Class A (34.53%). This was due to the fact that over half the lesson time was dedicated to a discussion on the future tenses, and the teacher posed questions concerning these. An example follows below:

(40) T: What about this cartoon here? Why does the person use present continuous?
      S: It sounds like his decision, his expectations.
      T: Yeah, it has something to do with his expectations, yes. Aren't you going to tweet me tonight?
      S2: It's somehow like she does it every night and today, tonight, she's not doing it so he's asking...
      T: But why is he not saying 'Aren't you tweeting me goodnight?'
      S2: Because he expects her to do it.
      T: Hmhm. Yes. Why is the speaker not using the present continuous?
      S3: Because it's so impersonal, they are sleeping um next to another and...
      T: Yeah, I mean the situation as such is a bit absurd, this is what the cartoon is about. He wants attention yes. What is he actually saying? Yes.
      S: Has it anything to do with her just turning over and he seeing that she is not planning to do so?
      T: Hmhm. Yes, exactly. Aren't you planning, don't you want to tweet me goodnight?

Content errors were the second most frequent error type in Class C (35.72%). They resulted from students answering the reading exercises incorrectly or not providing an answer at all. For example:

(41) S3: Tumoko spends as much money on rent and food as she does on everything else put together. That's not true.
      T: That's correct, what would you say?
      S3: Um, Tumoko spends more money on [mumbles] ...
      T: Say again?
      S3: Um, let me think about it again.

Only in regard to grammatical errors could differences between the three classrooms be found: Class C had a much lower percentage of grammatical errors than the other two classes (14.28% vs. the average 32.75% in classes A and B). This is due to the fact that grammatical errors occurred almost exclusively during classroom discussions, and there were no free discussions in Class C.

A comparison of these results to findings of errors made in a beginner's EFL classroom (Jimenez 2006), reveals differences in the amount of error types. Jimenez's (2006) study found that the learners made more grammatical and phonological errors, 55% and 20% respectively than lexical and content errors (only 11% and 3.8% respectively).[7] These differences could be due to the fact that beginner classes do not deal much with 'content' per se and that students tend to use lexical items they are sure of. When they are not able to find the correct word, they often rely on their L1. In fact, Jimenez (2006) found that students used their L1 7.5% of the time. In contrast, the present analysis only found one exchange which contained the use of L1, and even in that exchange, the student was able to explain what the 'Magistrat' (German: urban administration) is in simple terms.

(42)	T:	Social services are things like unemployment, money, looking after the elderly (...)
	S3:	Like the Magistrat?
	T:	How would you explain this in English?
	S3:	Um I have no idea..
	T:	Anyone want to give it a go?
	S3:	An institution that takes... that gives you a passport...
	S4:	Or diver's license.
	T:	Exactly, so basically all, the civil service is how our country is governed, like ministries and councils... Civil aviation instead of military aviation...

The L1 category is frequently used in different corrective feedback studies, however, as stated in section 6.2.1, this category was not needed in this study due to its infrequent occurrence. The lack of L1 use is, of course, due to the higher proficiency levels, and can definitely be seen as a characteristic of an advanced learner classroom.

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[7]As previously noted in section 6.3.1, due to bad audio quality, phonological errors, unlike the other types of errors, were only counted as errors in these three classrooms if the teacher corrected the student's pronunciation. As it was, in all three classes phonological errors were hardly corrected - just over 4.5% of all errors were phonological ones.

6.4.2 *Feedback Moves Per Error Type*

151 out of 210 errors received feedback, which means that 71.90% of all errors were addressed. Some errors were treated with multiple feedback moves, which is why there were 160 feedback moves altogether. The majority of these feedback moves were dedicated to lexical (44.36%) and content (41.88%) errors. In contrast, only 6.88% of all feedback moves were dedicated to grammatical errors. A closer look at the three individual classes reveals that 75% of all errors were treated in Class A, 57.14% of all errors in Class B and 95.23% of all errors received treatment in Class C.

An analysis of the percentage of errors treated per error type reveals that every content error was corrected in all three classrooms, occasionally even with multiple feedback moves. These took place when the teacher was not completely satisfied with the student's uptake after the feedback move; in other words, multiple feedback moves took place when the uptake still 'needed repair'.

> (43) S3: It is wrong to ever split an infinitive. Um, to ever split...
> T: Would be splitting, yes, what do you think?
> S3: I think I wouldn't even say that sentence in an informal context.
> T: Aha, well basically splitting the infinitive has been one of the nonos of academic writing. Today I really feel this is not relevant anymore. This is really something one hardly ever looks at anymore. (...)

The above example illustrates such a multiple feedback move. The student was asked to judge the sentence 'It is wrong to ever split an infinitive' and to explain when splitting an infinitive can be more or less accepted. The student hesitates and the teacher encourages her to find an answer through elicitation. However, the teacher is not completely satisfied with the student's answer and therefore provides explicit feedback.

Lexical errors were the second most treated error type in each class (92%, 78.78% and 100% in Class A, B and C respectively). The reason lexical errors received so much treatment is attributable to the focus of the course: one of its aims was to improve vocabulary. Treatment of lexical errors then, is in line with previous research which has pointed out, that errors pertaining to the pedagogical focus should be corrected (Hendrickson 1978; Chaudron 1988). In fact, the only times lexical errors were not corrected, was when the focus was not on vocabulary, but rather on free discussions.

(44) S3: Wouldn't it actually be the other way around nowadays, because, no, not nowadays actually always, because females are stressed too, maybe even more, because they have to work more to earn the same amount of money like men, for the same work, get much more loan payments.

    T: Hmm, I like where this discussion is going. [laughs]

(45) S: The last one is the summary of the graph. It just made a summary, just made it short the whole part. I mean the graph is about this, and the key features and just yeah.

In contrast, grammatical errors were not treated as frequently, though the amount of treatment varied depending on the class (24% in Class A, 3.33% in Class B and 66.66% in Class C, though the percentage in Class C needs to be interpreted with caution, as only six grammatical errors occurred in total). Because one cannot argue that the course does not aim to improve the grammar of the students, and that errors were therefore not treated, there must be an alternative explanation for this finding. As already noted in the previous section, grammatical errors mostly took place during free discussions, in which the focus was on meaning and not on form, or during explanations concerning English knowledge, in which case the focus was on content. Therefore, the teachers probably opted not to interrupt the student by providing corrective feedback.

This is in line with previous research which has argued that more errors should be tolerated during communicative activities (Hendrickson 1978). In fact the grammatical errors that did receive treatment, were part of the pedagogical focus at the moment they occurred. The following two examples illustrate this: both extracts are from the same lesson, both student utterances contain grammatical (tense) errors, however, in one instance the errors are ignored because the teacher's focus is on content, while in the other instance they are corrected, because the tense that should be used for a graph description is relevant to the class.

(46) T: So what's... So yes well, what about the test. Say the person has tested the car and is just coming back which question would you usually ask? ['Are you buying that car?' or 'Are you going to buy that car?']

    S: I feel like after the test drive I would ask are you buying that car? Because the person already feeled the car, I mean touched it, and get to know it.

    T: Well, um, what about this, huh?

(47) S: Almost a third of the readers had smoked at that time.
      T: Tense problem here, what about the 'had smoked'? That past
          perfect tense would actually relate to something that happened
          before the past, or even earlier than a past event. So what could
          we say? Hm?

In addition, grave errors were always corrected.

(48) S: I would say Tumoko spends more on study materials than she
           spends on clothes.
      T: Good, so you could just change the two proportions around. Or
           you could say she spends...
      S2: [Fewer.
      S: [Less.
      T: No, who said fewer?!
      Ss: Less.
      T: Less, remember countable, uncountable, she spends less on clothes
           than she does on study materials.

Overall, the amount of feedback provided in all three classes is only slightly
higher than the amount found in Jimenez's (2006) study (71.90% vs 67.1%)
and much higher than in an ESL study conducted by Lyster and Panova
(2002), which found that corrective feedback only took place 48% of the
time. Furthermore, studies have pointed out that more corrections take place
in beginner classrooms. However, the reason for the high amount of feedback
in this study is due to the fact that this course's major emphasis is on form.
In regard to the the amount of treatment per error type, Jimenez (2006)
also found lexical and content errors to be treated most often. Chaudron
(1977) had also found that content and lexical errors generally receive more
treatment than grammatical and phonological ones.

6.4.3 *Feedback Types*

Out of the 160 feedback moves the teachers provided, 56.87% of all feed-
back moves were prompts (45.62% elicitation, 8.12% metalinguistic feedback,
3.12% clarification requests), 25% were explicit corrections, 16.25% recasts,
and lastly, 1.87% were peer-repair. A comparison of the three individual
classes reveals that prompts, and elicitation in particular, were by far the
most popular feedback type in all three classrooms. Elicitations accounted
for 37.31% of all feedback moves in Class A, 45.1% in Class B and 59.52%
in Class C. The second most popular feedback type was explicit correction,
which followed with 26.86%, 25.50% and 21.44% in the classes respectively.
Recasts, on the other hand, were only used to correct errors 11.90% (Class

C) to 19.60% (Class B) of the time.

These results are surprisingly different from the results of previous research. As various studies have shown, recasts are typically the most frequent type of feedback - regardless of the classroom setting. Studies in immersion classrooms in Canada (Lyster and Ranta 1997), the United States (Mori 2002) and Korea (Lee 2006), as well as high school EFL classrooms in Hong Kong (Tsang 2004), university settings (Jimenez 2006), EFL instructional settings in Austria (Havranek 2002) and adult ESL classrooms in Canada (Lyster and Panova 2002) and New Zealand (Ellis, Basturkmen, Loewen 2001a) all revealed recasts to be the most popular type of feedback.

Researchers (Lyster and Panova 2002; Ellis 2009) have stated that recasts are often used in situations where teachers are not sure whether the student possesses enough linguistic knowledge to correct his or her error by means of negotiation. Recasts, therefore, are a quick and safe way to provide corrections - they do not 'waste time' or embarrass the student, as a prompt might, if the student is not able to provide the correct form. In the classes analyzed here, this was not an issue. The fact that elicitation was used significantly more than any other feedback type cannot be seen as a 'coincidence'. The teachers clearly assumed that the students would be able to find the correct form and, therefore, encouraged them to do so. This form of correction, then, can be seen as a characteristic of an advanced learner classroom.

Explicit correction accounted for the second highest feedback move in all three classes. Past research (Lier 1988; Ellis 2009) has often advised teachers to withhold the correct form - however, in these classes the teachers mostly provided explicit corrections after prompts had failed to elicit the correct form. In other words, the teacher provided explicit corrections as a 'last resort'.

(49) T: (...) Okay, um here we have three sentences. Where would you actually hear the first sentence?! [We will be arriving in Heathrow at 6pm]
      S: In the train.
      T: Hmhm, on the Train. So you either hear this on the train or?
      S2: Plane.
      T: Uhh, landing. Yes, but same tense naturally. So on the train or? [long pause, no answer] When I'm waiting for the train to arrive on the platform. This is being reassuring. (...) What about "we are arriving in Heathrow at 6pm?"

Explicit corrections were also provided immediately, if the student's error was considered grave.

(50)   S: I would say Tumoko spends more on study materials than she spends on clothes.

          T: Good, so you could just change the two proportions around. Or you could say she spends...

          S2:   [Fewer.

          S: [Less.

          T: No, who said fewer?!

          Ss: Less.

          T: Less, remember countable, uncountable, she spends less on clothes than she does on study materials.

Lastly, as pointed out in section 4.4, some researchers have argued that peers should correct each other's errors (Allwright and Bailey 1991). Jimenez's (2006) study found that 20% of all errors made while discussing exercises were corrected by peers. However, in the present study peer feedback only amounted to 1.87% of all feedback moves. The reason for the low amount of peer feedback is most likely due to the classroom culture: while the teachers always encouraged participation and their feedback was directed at all students, the atmosphere was not one which invited students to directly correct each other's errors. The study was conducted two weeks into the course, at which point the students were only getting to know each other and were still quite distant towards one another. In such an environment, the students might not have felt comfortable enough to point out a peer's error for fear of it being perceived as both impolite and inappropriate.

6.4.4   *Feedback Type To Error Type*

Categorizing feedback types into the three main groups - recasts, explicit correction and prompts - reveals that recasts were used to treat grammatical and phonological errors (72.72% of all grammatical errors and of all phonological errors were treated by recasts), while lexical and content errors were treated by prompts (52.11% of all lexical errors and 73.13% of all content errors were treated by prompts). Explicit corrections were used to correct lexical and content errors when prompts could not elicit the correct response and to treat grave grammatical errors. This choice of feedback per error type was found in all three classrooms. Previous studies have found similar trends. Lyster (1998a) found that grammatical and phonological errors tended to be corrected via recasts, while lexical errors were corrected through prompts.

Mackey, Gass, McDonough (2000) also found that grammatical errors were treated predominantly through recasts.

There are possible reasons for such treatment preferences: As noted in section 4.5.2.2, one of the reasons teachers are told to avoid recasts is due to their ambiguous nature - students often perceive recasts as alternative, but equally correct, forms. However, Lyster (1998a) argued that recasts following phonological errors (especially those made during reading exercises) are much more salient and therefore much less likely to be perceived ambiguously. This seems to be the case in the present study as well. The following example illustrates such an 'explicit' recast after a phonological error:

> (51)   S: The chart shows the world's top languages. These include the main European and Indian languages as well as Russian and Arabic. /eɪrəbɪk/
>   T: Arabic! /ærəbɪk/

Furthermore, Lyster (1998a) pointed out that phonological errors often entail distinct features of the L1 sound system and these types of errors are much harder to correct through prompts. In fact, students often need to hear the correct model to imitate the correct pronunciation.

On the other hand Lyster (1998a) noted that recasts following lexical errors are much more likely to be viewed as alternative correct forms - as synonyms rather than corrective feedback - and for this reason teachers might try to avoid using recasts to correct lexical errors. Furthermore, due to the strong focus on vocabulary in these lessons, the teacher might have wanted to push the students in their lexical development by encouraging them to rethink their answer and come up with the correct form on their own by providing them with prompts:

> (52)   S: In America, Europe and Oceania, there is very little difference in literacy rates for men and women.
>   T: Good. Can you find another word maybe, a synonym for there is little or there is very little difference? There is...
>   S2:   Slight... can you say that?
>   T: Yes, you can say that. A slight difference, yes.
>   S3:   Hardly any.
>   T: There is hardly any difference, yes. That would also work. Hardly any difference.
>   S4:   Almost no difference.
>   T: There is almost no difference, yes.

As pointed out in section 6.4.2, grammatical errors did not receive much corrective feedback. Only grave grammatical errors and errors pertaining to

the focus of the class were corrected through explicit corrections or through prompts. All other grammatical errors were either ignored or corrected, implicitly, through longer recasts which reformulated the utterance. These were given in order to make an utterance clearer without, however, interrupting the discussion at hand to focus explicitly on form:

(53) T: (...) Okay, so a topic sentence is? We, I'm sure, all have this buried deep in our brains right now...
      S: A sentence in the beginning or end of a paragraph that tells us what the paragraph is about.
      T: Good. The sentence which gives the main idea of the paragraph usually either at the beginning or the end. And this is what we want to focus on when we do our writing.

In the above example the student used the preposition 'in' instead of 'at', however, since the focus of the utterance was on defining 'topic sentence', and the student was able to give the correct definition, the teacher accepted the utterance and only rephrased the wording and recasted the preposition without explicitly pointing out the error. The other grammatical errors which were corrected by recasts occurred in similar contexts.

6.4.5 *Uptake Per Feedback Type*

Overall 114 instances of uptake followed 160 feedback moves, which means that uptake took place 71.25% of the time. In regard to the individual classes, uptake followed 59.70%, 78.43% and 80.95% of all feedback moves in Class A, B and C respectively.[8] In regard to the amount of uptake per feedback type, similar results could be found in all three classes: uptake followed prompts 100% of the time in Class C, 96.15% of the time in Class B and 94.73% of the time in Class A. These findings are not surprising given the fact that prompts, by nature, elicit some response. Also previous studies (Sheen 2004; Lyster and Panova 2002) found high amounts of uptake following prompts. The only instances in which prompts were not followed by uptake, were instances in which the student was not given the opportunity or instances in which the feedback was directed at one student in particular, who, however, did not know the correct form. Two examples follow:

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[8]The reason for the nearly 20% difference in amount of uptake between Class A and Classes B and C is due to the discrepancy in uptake following recasts in the three classes. This will be discussed in detail further on.

(54) S: Um, I was surprised that the number went down so much. I would have thought that it goes down a bit, because you find out more about how dangerous smoking is and how harmful, but I wouldn't have thought that it's by, that half the people... it went from 50 to 25 nearly and that was quite surprising. Maybe, maybe it could go down by 10 percent or something, maybe...

T: Right, but there was quite a significant fall there. Is that what you wanted to say?

S2: I was also surprised because in the 70s women were more conservative than in [the 90s].

(55) T: So funny future, what is funny future? Can someone explain what that is? Funny... future? What rhetorical device is that? (...)

S: It's an alliteration.

T: It's an alliteration, yes. So what is an alliteration? Can you say that again, maybe?

S: Two Fs. Two words in a sentence for example that have the same...

T: Start with the same ... [long pause] sound.

In contrast, explicit corrections received much less uptake in all three classes - between 11.11% (Class A) and 38.46% (Class B) of all explicit corrections were reacted to. However, this is not surprising given the circumstances in which explicit corrections occurred. As stated above, explicit corrections were mostly provided as a 'last resort', meaning that they occurred only after the teacher had provided prompts and had tried to elicit the correct response from the students but the attempts had not been successful.

(56) T: Hmhm. Is anyone familiar with the word, to exceed? It definitely has to do with an upward trend, right, yes but it's not...

S3: It exceeded until xxx

T: Yes, exactly, good.

S4: Go over a certain point.

T: Exactly, I mean to be more precise even, it's something that goes over a certain point, so more than what you refer to. (...)

Lastly, in regard to uptake following recasts, there was a very large discrepancy between classes. In Class A 9.1% of all recasts received uptake, while in Class B 90% of all recasts received uptake. Class C had an uptake rate of 60%.[9] Such a large difference in the amount of uptake following recasts between Class A and B reflects precisely the different findings of various past studies. For example, Lyster and Panova (2002) and Egi (2010) found that uptake only followed recasts 46% and 46.59% of the time, respectively. A study conducted by Sheen (2004) revealed low amounts of uptake for an

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[9]This number needs to be interpreted with caution as only 5 feedback moves in Class C were recasts.

ESL class in Canada (55%), and high amounts of uptake in an EFL class in Korea (83%). Due to these differences, researchers (Sheen 2006) suggested that recasts amount in more or less uptake depending on specific characteristics of the recasts (explicitness, which errors they follow etc.) For this reason, recasts in Class A and B were analyzed more closely. Two examples per class follow:

Class A

(57) S: I admired that she managed to write such a short text because with these two projects I really, really had problems.

T: Hmhm, and what did she do? Did you hear that? X said that she really admires the way X managed to write a short text with these two graphs, as these two graphs contain a lot of information. How did she manage? Tell us.

S: She really, really focused on the, um, very, um, I don't know how to say, um, basic information but somehow, um, put in interesting details on the way.

T: Hmm, so she was able to field trap the most important features and illustrate this with a necessary example. Hmhm. This is definitely something admirable, yes. (...) Anything else?

(58) S: The first sentence is that the decision has been already made so he's going to buy a car and the second sentence he or she maybe already pays...

T: Paying for the car, hmhm. SO he or she might be paying for the car. Who could actually ask that question?

Class B

(59) S3: I think the same. I mean it's written very big in very big blocks...

T: Letters.

S3: Yeah, letters, but I think people who like to smoke, they still smoking it, they know that's harmful...

(60) S: There's a much lower literacy rate for women in Asia than in Oceania. /ˌoʊtʃiˈemiə/

T: Oceania. /ˌəʊʃiˈemiə/

S: Oceania. /ˌəʊʃiˈemiə/

The above examples illustrate the overall 'kind' of recasts which were provided in the two classes. As one can see, the recasts in Class A tended to be more implicit, as the teacher tended to reformulate the utterance rather than just change or provide a single word or two. Furthermore, the teacher in Class A often posed questions immediately following the reformulations, thereby not allowing the possibility for uptake to take place. In contrast,

the recasts of Class B were more explicit, as they mostly just consisted of the correct form without any further expansion or changes or were provided as feedback to phonological errors. Previous studies (Sheen 2006; Chaudron 1977; Lyster 1998a) found that such recasts tend to account for more uptake, and this study seems to confirm these results.

The overall findings in regard to the amount of uptake are much higher than findings in beginner children classroom studies (Oliver 1995; Mackey and Philp 1998) but similar to the findings of Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001a), who analyzed adults classrooms and found 74% of all feedback moves received uptake. Also studies by Sheen (2004) and Loewen (2006) found that uptake took place over 70% of the time after feedback moves. These researchers had suggested that the age and educational background of the learners influences the amount of uptake - they argued that the older and more educated the students are, the more uptake occurs. While this can be seen as a reason for more uptake, in the present study the high amount of uptake was predominantly due to the frequent use of prompts, which by nature urge the students to respond.

6.4.6 *Types Of Uptake*

Out of the 114 uptake moves, 68 resulted in repair (59.64%) and 46 (40.36%) resulted in needs-repair. This success rate is lower than those of Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001a), who analyzed adult classrooms and found that 74.1% of all uptake was successful and of Loewen (2004) who found that 66% of all uptake moves were successful.

Uptake With Repair

Though past studies did not differentiate between repair provided by the student who had made the error and peer-repair, the present study did. It found that in all three classes repair from the student who had made the error accounted for less than 50% of all repair moves that followed feedback (20% in Class A, 47.83% in Class B and 45% in Class C), and mostly took place as a repetition of the correct form (Class A and Class B). There were only few or no instances (Class A) of incorporation of the correct form into a longer utterance after feedback was provided and of instances of complete self-repair. Repair provided by a peer, then, took place over 50% of the time in each class, though it was the most frequent in Class A, with 80% of all repairs being provided by peers. The reason for the high amount of peer-repair

will be explained in the section discussing uptake according to feedback types.

<u>Uptake With Needs-Repair</u>

The present study also differentiated between needs-repair provided by the student who made the error and wrong peer-repair. It found that in classes A and C more needs-repair moves were made by the students who had initially made the error (60% and 64.29% respectively), while in class B, slightly more moves in need of repair were made by peers (52.95%). Out of the needs-repair moves made by the students who had originally committed the error, the most common moves were acknowledgement of the error followed by students questioning the feedback move.

6.4.7 *Uptake According To Feedback Type*

<u>Uptake With Repair</u>

Previous studies had found that repetitions and incorporations of the correct form occur after recasts or explicit corrections. This was also found to be the case in the present study.

(61) S: According to the graph Chinese is the most widely used language
          in the world with 1.123 millions of speakers.
      T: Hmhm... million speakers, million, not millions of, million.
      S: Million speakers.

(62) S4: Yes. Since 1987 there has been a significant decline in the con-
           sumption of margarine... /ˈmɑːrgɑːˌriːnə/
      T: Margarine. /ˌmɑːʤəˈriːn/
      S4: Margarine /ˌmɑːʤəˈriːn/ and is said to continue xxx

In fact, only once did a repetition take place after an elicitation; and even then it took place only after a recast of a phonological error had failed to result in the repetition of the correct form.

(63) S: Um, the country with the greatest difference in life expectancy...
          /ikˌspekˈtɑːnsi/
      T: Expectancy. /ɪkˈspektənsi/
      S: Expectancy /ikˌspekˈtɑːnsi/ between men and women is the USA.
      T: Try that again, one more time... expectancy. /ɪkˈspektənsi/
      S: Expectancy. /ɪkˈspektənsi/

Self- and peer-repair took place after prompts. As already noted above, peer-repair was the most common kind of repair in all three classrooms. The

reason for this is due to the fact that prompts were mostly directed at the whole class. The teachers encouraged all the students in the class to participate and find the correct form.

(64) T: (...) How would we go on to develop this then? And make a nice coherent paragraph. What would come next?
      S: F.
      T: Hmmmmm. Well F is already talking about the United States and Russia but what gives us...
      S2: E.

Uptake With Needs-Repair

Recasts hardly ever resulted in needs-repair; in fact, only two instances of uptake after recasts were in need of repair: once the recast was provided after the use of a wrong lexical item and the student questioned (and then acknowledged) the feedback; the second recast was given to correct a phonological error, and the same error was repeated again. However, after the same error was made, the teacher was finally able to elicit the correct response. Therefore, both needs-repair instances after recasts were resolved in repair after further turns. The two instances follow below:

(65) S4: Is it self explaining?
      T: It should be self-explanatory, yeah.
      S4: Self expla...
      T: Self explanatory.
      S4: I did not know that!

(66) S: Um, the country with the greatest difference in life expectancy. /ikˈspektɑːnsi/
      T: Expectancy. /ɪkˈspektənsi/
      S: Expectancy /ikˈspektɑːnsi/ between men and women is the USA.
      T: Try that again, one more time... expectancy. /ɪkˈspektənsi/
      S: Expectancy. /ɪkˈspektənsi/
      T: That's it. Good.

Uptake still in need of repair that followed explicit corrections was exclusively uptake that questioned or challenged the correction. As explained in section 6.2.3, this 'questioning' category was added to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) model for the analysis of these three classrooms - no previous studies had ever mentioned such a kind of uptake. Questioning, then, seems only to take place in advanced learner classroom - while beginner students would not challenge their teacher's corrections, advanced students sometimes do not believe what they had said to be incorrect.

(67) T: There you go. And sometimes it is used as the opposite to military. What is the civil service? Does anyone know?
      S: Okay, isn't it mostly like the civil service just taking care of homeless people and giving them shelter and providing food, clothes and everything...
      T: Hmm... not really.
      S: It's not... but it's also like in America the civil service takes care of black communities special, poor children is that the civil service?

(68) S: [In regard to looking for different homophones for 'to-too-two'] 'Tube', if you don't pronounce the last B. It's a, it's a stop.
      T: But you always pronounce the 'B'...
      S: There's, there's accents which wouldn't pronounce it xxx
      T: They would say 'tu' /tuː/ instead of 'tube'??
      S: 'Tu'.. /tuː/
      T: I find that difficult to believe.
      S2: It is like that!

Lastly, concerning needs-repair which followed prompts, only single instances were in the form of hesitations, different, or partial errors - most needs-repair moves were wrong peer-repair. Again, the reason for the high amount of wrong peer-repair is due to the fact that the teacher encouraged every student to participate and respond to the feedback.

(69) T: Well yeah, they look the same but are spelled different. What about to produce and produce? Do we know what produce is? Who can look up the noun form of produce?
      S: Vegetables?
      T: Say again?
      S: Vegetables.
      T: Vegetables. Anyone got a general definition?
      S2: Farming... Food that is grown basically to be sold.

(70) T: Alright, so there's a decline and there's a rise. Can we make that a little more specific by using adjectives?
      S: Marked decline.
      T: Sorry?
      S: A marked decrease?
      T: Yes, or decline, yes. Or what else can you say?
      S2: A steady decrease.
      T: Ummmm, steady would be more like something that happens over a period of time.
      S3: Um, a downward trend.
      T: Okay, but how can I make that even more specific?
      S4: A significant.
      T: A significant would also work. A significant decline for example. What about the rise?
      S5: A steady rise.
      T: Oh, yes, okay. Or? If you compare the two?
      S6: A rapid?

> T: Hmm, not necessarily. If you are comparing the two, then some-
> thing is happening more or less at the same time. It's a... it's a
> corresponding rise. So the consumption of butter and margarine
> has spread. That's what you're comparing. Okay, who would like
> to go on?

It is not possible to compare the amounts of specific types of repair and needs-repair found in these three classes to previous findings, due to the fact that most studies broadly distinguish between the two categories and do not look at the individual kinds of uptake which take place. As pointed out, the findings of the present study have found that self-repair rarely took place, whereas peer-repair accounted for over 50% of all repairs. However, due to the lack of research focusing on peer-repair it remains questionable as to whether peer-repair is actually beneficial to the student who had originally committed the error.

7 Conclusion

The aim of this thesis was to contribute to the research on oral corrective feedback and uptake in SLA by conducting a study on these issues in three advanced learner classrooms. In the analysis that followed, the findings were compared to those of previous theoretical and empirical research to see whether differences could be found and new conclusions could be drawn.

Two features in general seemed to be distinct characteristics of the advanced learner classroom: the lack of L1 use and the questioning of the correctness of feedback provided by teachers.

A comparison of the findings also revealed that, similar to previous classroom studies, two major factors determined whether or not an error was treated: the pedagogical focus and the graveness of the error. Furthermore, the discussion revealed that certain error types were more susceptible to certain feedback types: akin to previous research, recasts tended to be used to correct phonological and grammatical errors, while lexical and content errors were predominantly corrected through prompts.

Where the findings of the present study diverged from those of past studies was in regard to the frequency of certain feedback types used. While previous research had revealed recasts to be, by far, the most frequent feedback type, often accounting for as much as 80% of all feedback moves, in the results of the present study, recasts only amounted to 16.25% of all feedback moves. Instead, prompts, and, in particular, elicitation was found to be the most frequent feedback type. These findings seem to confirm the assumption that recasts are used in situations where teachers are not sure whether the student possesses the linguistic knowledge to correct the error on their own. The low rate of recasts, then, would be a distinctly advanced learner classroom phenomenon.

In regard to uptake, the study found that 71.25% of all feedback moves received uptake, 59.64% resulted in repair and 40.36% resulted in needs-repair. Two things stood out in this regard: firstly, that 55.26% of these uptake moves were made by peers, and, secondly, that the amounts of uptake following recasts diverged greatly between classes (9.1% vs 90%). An analysis of the specific characteristics of the recasts provided in each of the classes, confirmed what previous research had found: the amount of uptake following recasts largely depended on the explicitness of the recast. The analysis revealed that recasts which only repeated the utterance, minus the error, were more likely to receive uptake than recasts which severely changed the original

utterance.

These three major findings - low frequency rate of recasts, high peer-repair and diverging amounts of uptake following recasts - are definitely worthy of further investigation. More research should be conducted in advanced learner classrooms to see whether prompts are, in fact, used consistently more frequently; furthermore, studies should be carried out to see whether students actually benefit from the repair of their peers, and lastly more research which focuses on the specific characteristics of recasts needs to be conducted, in order to conclude how these influence the amount of learner uptake that follows.

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Appendix

Sample Transcriptions

<u>Class A:</u>

T: Okay, um, today I would like to continue with what we started before Easter which was our Future Tense Focus. Remember we had some contrastive sentences already and I would like to continue with this by showing you some more sentences and you will have to explain what the difference is between these two sentences, okay? All of the sentences you will see are correct. The question is when would I use which. [Title of overhead is 'Funny Future'] So funny future, what is funny future? Can someone explain what that is? Funny ... future? What rhetorical device is that? (...)

S: It's an alliteration.

T: It's an alliteration, yes. So what is an alliteration? Can you say that again, maybe?

S: Two Fs. Two words in a sentence for example that have the same...

T: Start with the same ... [long pause] [sound.

S: [Let... Sound.

T: So not necessary letter, but sound. Two or more words in one utterance or sentence starting with the same sound. [Having a look at examples] Can anyone explain the first sentence? [Will future sentence]

S: Um when the, the, time is not sure, there are no definite plans. Um, for example, 'I'll buy a house in the country before I'm married'.

T: Hmhm, or when I'm grown up, when I'm old, maybe. Okay, so no definite plans, but something I feel I could do, something I am musing about, you know the will future is used for a lot of things. Can somebody tell me some other instances where the will future is used? You might come across it later on in this presentation.

S2: Predictions.

T: Predictions, so give an example.

S2: It will be raining tomorrow.

T: That is 'it will be raining', that is even more that the will future, if I may say so. Can we try and stick to the will future for the time being? Will go, will do. Yes?

S3: An offer, I will do it.

T: Yes, I'll do it for you. I'll do it. (...) This is another way of saying let me do it, I'll do it. What else? Come on, will future! (...) Yes?

S4: Something spontaneous for example. xxx

T: Yes, a spontaneous decision. What else?

S5: In formal contexts, like the lecture will start.

T: Hmhm, in a formal, both written and spoken context. So if you are writing an introduction to a seminar paper you will write something like 'In this paper I will show and I will do this and later on it will be shown that.' So there will be the will future to outline the structure of the paper. Yeah.. so a promise of course. I promise I will not do that again. (...) [more explanations] Any other instances of will future? Or shall we see? I'm going to buy a house, I am buying a house. What is the difference between these two sentences?

S2: I'm buying a house right now, but I'm going to buy a house next week or something like this.

T: I mean you're totally correct in that the third sentence here could actually describe a present tense sentence situation, already, in that it looks like it. (...) Yes, but in the case of the future, remember the example we had was we are going to get married and we are getting married, what would the difference be?

S: That in the, um, 'I'm going to buy' there is the decision and the most important I mean it's, you don't have to know which house you're buying, it's just a decision that you have chosen to buy a house.

T: Great, yes, wonderful. So I've made the decision to buy a house. [explains going to future, focus on plan that has been made - picture of math student looking at teacher] What does he say? Can somebody read this out maybe?

S: [reading] Algebra will be important to you later in life because there's going to be a test 6 weeks from now.

T: Okay, so we have two different future tenses and we'll have to figure out why the teacher uses these two tenses.

S: Will be important to you later in life it's not... it's not... we don't have a special time...

T: Hmhm...

S: And then...

T: What is it, you will, you will understand this when you grow up?

S: Prediction.

T: It is a prediction, yes. A prediction. So he is predicting that algebra will be important at some point of time in life.

S: And then we have a fixed time like there's going to be a test 6 weeks from now.

T: Um, there's going to be a test, hmhm. (...) What does the going to future stress here? There's going to be a test?

S2: That it's the teacher's plan.

T: Hmmm, the teacher has decided. A decision has been made on part of the teacher. So he's basically informing the student of his plans. [explains difference, divides students into groups; students discuss differences between the two sentences] Okay, so people from this side of the room will then tell us what the difference is between 'Are you going to buy that car' and 'Are you buying that car'. Can you tell us? Have you got any suspicion?

S: The first sentence is that the decision has been already made so he's going to buy a car and the second sentence he or she maybe already pays...

T: Paying for the car, hmhm. So he or she might be paying for the car. Who could actually ask that question?

S: Both.

T: Both of them, yes.

S2: The shop assistant.

T: So the sales person. Again, the person selling the car could say 'are you going to buy that car' or.. what about... 'are you buying that car'? Somebody else would have to say that...

S: When they have the, how is it called, the test drive, I think....

T: So what's... So yes well, what about the test. Say the person has tested the car and is just coming back which question would you usually ask?

S: I feel like after the test drive I would ask 'are you buying that car'? Because the person already feeled the car, I mean touched it, and get to know it.

T: Well, um, what about this, huh?

S2: Is there a slight difference in the sense of 'are you going to buy that car', there is not yet a decision made and are you buying that car is more...

T: Well basically yes, you are totally correct. (...) So what about 'I'll drive to London next week' eh, 'I'll be driving into London next week'. What about I will drive, I will be driving. What is the difference between these two sentences? In what context would you use that will future?

S: When you ask 'What will you be doing next week' maybe and xxx then you say you will be driving.

T: Hmm ... any suggestions?

S2: The first one sounds like the answer to yeah 'I'll need to go to London, can you give me a lift'... yeah I'll do it. The second one sounds more like it's already been you know, planned.

T: Excellent, yes, good. No, um, There is a famous little word that you use after this tense. [pause, nobody answers] Anyway. Okay, um here we have three sentences. Where would you actually hear the first sentence?! [We will be arriving in Heathrow at 6pm].

S: In the train.

T: Hmhm, on the Train. So you either hear this on the train or?

S2: Plane.

T: Uhh, landing. Yes, but same tense naturally. So on the train or? When I'm waiting for the train to arrive on the platform. This is being reassuring. ... What about 'we are arriving in Heathrow at 6pm?'

S: If someone picks you up and then you say to him when we're arriving.

T: Hmhm. So this is telling somebody about your plans. What about 'we arrive at Heathrow at 6pm?' What future is that? Any suggestions?

S: You inform people about the timetable. Um, we arrive at Heathrow at 6pm, then we get in a cab and drive...

T: This is usually referred to as time table future. So you have that on a schedule or a list of events. New sentences, find the context. It's going to cost 5000 pounds, it will cost 5000 pounds. And I think I'll scream, I think I'm going to scream. Find a context! [a few minutes pass] I'm looking forward to these contexts. Okay, let's start with the 'It's going to cost 5000 pounds'.

S: Oh, uh, it's... you know already what you're going to buy and that you are planning on buying it and you know how much it costs and the next one is more like an estimate. You are thinking of buying something and how much you, like, yeah...

T: I definitely agree on the fact that the first sentence is a bit more concrete.

S: Yeah.

T: So if you had, um, let's say we're in the situation that there are two people sitting there and the other person says what? What would the other person say? What would be the likely answer?

S2: It'll cost.

T: Okay, I'm sure It'll cost, uh, a fortune. I'm sure it'll cost 5000 pounds.

S: The first sentence you only use when it's already been calculated?

T: Um, no, this is when I have some evidence. [explanation]

Class B:

T: (...) Alright people, let me ask you something, a more general question than this. Have you ever tried... how many people are smokers in here? [three students raise hand] Okay, so a minority in here. Have you ever tried to quit? Or are you passionate smokers?

S2: I've tried.

T: You've tried, okay. How many times have you tried?

S2: Um, once.

T: Once!

S2: Um, it was not for me. It was for my mom, mother and stepfather wanted me to stop smoking xxx but I didn't stop smoking I had both I had xxx the chewing gums and the cigarettes.

T: Hm, okay. Right, so that was not very successful. What about the others? Did you try to quit?

S3: Not really. I just don't think about it...

T: Okay. Alright. Um, does it, do you think it.. the little side on the package, right, does it, I mean, it's probably a silly question but I'm going to ask it anyway, um, do you think it keeps, it deters people from smoking whatever it says, you know smoking kills or something like that, that it's harmful.

S: Not really. xxx If you smoke cigarettes you take them out, take the cigarette out you don't really look on it.

T: Even though it's very, you know it's hard to miss really, right? It covers half of the package.

S2: . When they came out xxx people read all of these and now people know what's written on it and you just don't look at it anymore.

T: Okay, you ignore it.

S: Yeah.

T: Hmhm, okay.

S2: I think the pictures are useful. Those where you have the cigarette information, you have the pictures of the lungs the cancer and things like that, you kind you kind of connect every every xxx every pain you feel somewhere for whatever reason you connect this to this if you see the pictures.

T: You think that's more effective.

S2: Yes, it's much more effective.

T: Okay. X, what do you think?

S3: I think the same. I mean it's written very big, in very big blocks...

T: Letters.

S3: Yeah, letters, but I think people who like to smoke, they still smoking it, they know that's harmful...

T: Right.

S3: And they see it, but somehow they ignore it, for my, for myself I'm not a smoker, I'm an occasional smoker, one, two cigarettes maybe, some days nothing but when I drink I like to smoke one or two but I'm sure about that how harmful it is and...

T: Right, so you're aware of that...

S3: Yeah, I'm aware.

T: Um, okay, I think there was another comment.

S2: Yeah, you can buy these socks to put over these packages, and you don't see it anymore.

T: Same thing you use for the ipod?

S2: You can buy it, you can buy it so that it doesn't make any difference.

T: You don't have to look at it if you don't want to. Okay, alright. If you look at the graph, this is all about Great Britain, right, uh, if you compare this, do you think this, what about the situation, how would you regard the situation in Austria compared to the one in Great Britain? Do we have a lower number of smokers in this country, is it about the same, what's your impression?

S: Don't we have the highest number of smokers? Wasn't it like that?

T: I thought it was about the highest number of teenagers...

Ss: Yeah.

T: I think, who start smoking. Okay, let's have a look at this graph.

T: Okay, X, what do you think?

S2: Um, I think the last three points are not xxx

T: Good, the last three points have the information that is not shown on the graph. Very good. What else?

S3: The first.

T: Hmhm, the first point?

S3: Yes, because it says age 16 and over and um, in the graph you just see it divided by gender.

T: Exactly and not by age, yeah, okay. What else?

S3: And adults are age 16 and over xxx so I don't think it.

T: Aha, okay, so how do you interpret it? But to be strictly speaking um, it's not very specific information. Usually on a graph, um, it usually specifies what age group we are looking at, but you're right, we could argue about that. Okay, what else?

S: It says cigarette smoke is xxx there is no information on cigarette smokers...

T: It says percentage of adults who smoke cigarettes.

S: Okay.

T: Alright, but what else? What does the last point tell us? What is that about?

S2: xxx 68% percent of the smokers said they wanted to stop smoking and there's no information about that in the graph.

T: Right, so this is really about the, you know, smokers attitudes, but that is not given in the graph. Is there anything in the graph that surprises you?

S: Well that the male smokers start rising again.

T: Hmhm, yes, okay. Right, slightly, but yes true.

S2: And the females falling.

T: Uhuh, yes, okay. Anything else?

S3: It surprised me that in 1974 every second man is smoking.

T: The high number, the shockingly high number of males.

S2: But I don't think it's so surprising, because, I mean I haven't lived at the time but if I remember back to my youth I remember like, especially in English speaking countries there was always this cool, smoking attitude, like smoking was the coolest thing, Marlboro Man, really manly...

T: Right.

S2: I mean, I don't know how it was in the 70s but in the 80s that was the case.

T: Hmhm, so in the 70s we can say there was also more advertising still. Do you think that had any effect? The banning on the advertising?

S2: Absolutely.

S3: Um, I was surprised that the number went down so much. I would have thought that it goes down a bit, because you find out more about how dangerous smoking is and how harmful, but I wouldn't have thought that it's by, that half the people... it went from 50 to 25 nearly and that was quite surprising. Maybe, maybe it could go down by 10 percent or something, maybe...

T: Right, but there was quite a significant fall there. Is that what you wanted to say?

S2: I was also surprised because in the 70s women were more conservative than in...

T: In the 70s?

S2: Yeah than in the 90s xxx

T: Right, I see your point, yeah. Okay and why do you actually think that men generally, I think it's fair to say, correct me if you think I'm wrong, that men smoke more, more men than women smoke. Why do you think that is? Or do you agree or disagree?

S: I think one of the reasons people usually smoke is when they are under stress.

T: Hmhm.

S: And I guess men are somehow more under stress than women. And maybe it's a reason why men smoke more.

T: Okay, well some people seem to disagree or have an opinion about that. Let's hear it.

S2: Especially like thirty years ago it wasn't like at all about stress, it was just ummm, your image, like man who smoke are like cool, they are manly they are sexy to women it starts to change, again, now 'cause most people now think it's gross. But I think, that's, that's the point why. And maybe males are even more affected by what other people think, I don't know. But maybe that's...

T: I see hands going up, alright.

S: One other thing also, or one other reason why women maybe smoke less than men is because they bore children? And normally when you're pregnant you shouldn't, I mean there are some other womens still cannot quit xxx but, yeah, I think that's also one of the reasons.

T: Okay.

S3: I think many women just don't want to be that smelly, you know, women care more about how they smell, I believe xxx. And also, smoking affects the face and I think women are a bit more careful about that.

T: Okay, alright. Let me go back to the comments on men are more likely to feel stressed and that may be the reason for them smoking more.

S2: My husband is a smoker and I can never influence him to give up smoking because he says, he complains. that he is in stress always and he must take care of family of the children.

T: Hm, that's a good reason.

S2: And he compares it with my eating chocolate, he says you can never quit eating chocolate, and I can never quit smoking.

T: Yeah, okay, yes, that sounds very familiar, I've heard that many many times.

S3: Wouldn't it actually be the other way around nowadays, because, no, not nowadays actually always, because females ARE stressed too, maybe even more, because they have to work more to earn the same amount of money like men, for the same work, get much more loan payments.

T: Hmm, I like where this discussion is going. [laughs]

S: I think I, I mean hello. Uh, in which century are you talking, I have kind of the feeling I was now like switched in the 1950s in English class and we're talking about, um, that men do have xxx family, they have to be, um, I don't know they have everything on their shoulders they care for them xxx and the women are just at home, and this little bit of home stuff they do, this little bit of caring for the children, oh my God, that's no stress, I mean that's pfff..

Class C:

T: So let's hear your ideas to the answers of these. What did we say for the first one, for the first group of sentences, X.

S: A is too general, B is too specific, C is incomplete and D is the best.

T: D is the best?

Ss: Yeah.

T: Yeah, good. Anyone disagree? So D, the topic sentence would be Ancient people observed and recorded lunar and solar events in different ways. Um. Why would A not be the best topic sentence? I think some people thought that A might be a possibility. What's the problem with A? The history of astronomy is interesting.

S3: It's too general. [students laugh]

T: It's too general but how would you develop the rest of the paragraph if that was your topic sentence? I mean it's possible...

S2: You would talk about astronomy...

T: Exactly, so if that were your topic sentence the main idea of the paragraph would be the history of astronomy, so you would need to add more information about how astronomy developed, what people did in the past, etc. Which isn't really what the whole idea of this group of sentences is. It is that ancient people had specific ways of dealing with these astronomical things (...) What does lunar and solar refer to in those sentences?

S2: Lunar is the moon, solar is the sun.

T: Good, lunar is the moon and any adjectives to do with the moon and solar is the sun... is it clear why you have to do the Lateinum... Who has to do the Lateinum? (...)

S3: A is the best topic sentence, B is too specific, C is also too specific, D is incomplete and E is too general.

T: Good! So A would be the best topic sentence. It is hard to know which foods are hard to eat nowadays. explaining... What is the singular of bacteria?

Ss: Bacterium.

T: Bacterium ... Number four, X.

S2: I would say B is too general, C is too specific and D is the best.

T: Yeah, D is the best sentence. ... The last one?

S2: A is too specific, B is too specific too, C is the best, D is too general and E is incomplete.

T: Good, so C is the best topic sentence. Anyone have a different opinion? Some mentioned A, but then you had have to develop the paragraph differently... Good. Could you work then on the B exercise. Identify the best topic sentence. After you find the best topic sentence, think about how you would rearrange the other sentences to make a nice coherent paragraph. Okay? [students do exercises] Have we had a chance to do at least the topic sentences for each of them? I don't want to run out of time. We'll do together paragraph two. What do we think is the topic sentence? X?

S: C.

T: C? Which is?

S: Should I read it out?

T: Yeah.

S: The number of nations competing in the space race has grown since the old days of space exploration.

T: Good. So the main idea here is, from the topic sentence is the number of nations competing in the space race over a period of time. So this is our core idea. The main idea of the whole paragraph. How would we go on to develop this then? And make a nice coherent paragraph. What would come next?

S2: F.

T: Hmmmmm. Well F is already talking about the United States and Russia but what gives us...

S3: E.

T: E, exactly. Initially the Soviet Union launched it's etc etc. What would come after E?

Ss: A.

T: A, exactly. So 12 years later the USA launched its satellite. Then would come, X? xxx

S3: Um...

T: Your suggestion?

S3: Um, yeah. For almost 10 years the United States [xxx reading]

T: Exactly. So we've mentioned these two. And then would come the next stage of the development. So these would be together Russia and America, were the only two countries which took part. Then would come?

S2: China.

T: China joined the competition in 2003 when it launched... whatever that says. And finally?

Ss: B.

T: B, because it's talking about the Europeans joining the competition and giving the prediction into the future on what they want to do. So is it clear for everyone how we develop the paragraph from the topic sentence? (...) Could you work through the other sentences? So bear that in mind, that sort of issues and work through the last two. [students work] Could we do one more before we have to go? What about the last one? No, we'll do paragraph three, because it's more interesting. (...) First of all the topic sentence would be?

Ss: D.

T: D, the automobile revolutionized the way of life in the United States. How did we continue after D?

S3: B.

T: B? Good. The earliest significant change... so we talked first of all about the revolution in the topic sentence then the earliest change for sentence B. What about after that?

S3: [A

S1 [E

T: I'm just hearing noises. So, X, what did you say?

S3: I said E.

T: E? Um, well. As the third sentence you said E?

S3: No, because after 'the oldest significant change was with farming families' and then I say 'enabled them to drive to towns and cities' xxx

T: Yeah okay, fine. Sorry. Yes, so it's talking about this specific group of people then and developing that idea of where they could drive.

S2: Could it also be A?

T: Um, I think that comes later. Um, yeah. Because we're talking about the revolution and then we're talking about some other effect and then finally we have A. Like another important change was... You see that, X? So we have... what comes after that?

Ss: A.

T: One person answer, X.

S3: A?

T: A. Another important point was that people had their freedom to work where they

wanted. Then after A would come?

S F.

T: F. In fact this xxx given specific example xxx and finally?

S C.

T: C, which sums up the whole idea... Are we starting to see how it's important to have an internal structure in the paragraph? ... We've got a couple of minutes left. Can we do four? X? Give us the topic sentence for four.

S: Uh, maybe B?

T: B. Give us the whole sentence.

S: Yes, the xxx

T: Good. Where do we carry on from that? X?

S2: The next one would be E.

T: Obviously, it says first of all, so it's starting a sort of list. X?

S3: F. Then one of the...[reading xxx]

T: Good, so developing the idea of plates combining or colliding. And then?

Ss: C.

T: C. And then?

S3: A.

T: A. In time.. Well really?

Ss: Yeah.

T: Oh yeah. Causes part of it to melt, at the end of C. And then?

S3: D.

T: D, it produces steam and heat. And finally?

S2: G.

T: G, when the heat and steam and pressure reaches... Good. Okay. Pay attention to this sort of thing in your own writing. [end of lesson]

S: Is the final exam already scheduled? When would that be?

T: Um, not definitely scheduled. It will probably be the second from last week of the semester. So that would be middle of June.

S: Middle of June.

T: Um, I haven't put it down in ink yet, but somewhere around there. Are there any more general questions about the exam at this stage? Or about the marking?

S: Um I have another question, it's not really related to the exam but the vocab log, when do we need to give you that.

S: The vocabulary log will also be in the same sort of time as the final exam. Middle of June.

S2: So you don't want it at the end of May or something like that.

T: No. Okay. So everyone's clear on the grading system, what this means for the overall course etc? Any more general questions? Okay. Let's check the end of the reading exercises. Let's go through them quickly. We are starting with question three. X?

S: Um, novelist have fewer restrictions on their work than playwrights. Yes.

T: Yes, that's true and how do you know?

S: Um... on the first page it says... um, 'in determining the shape and content of his narrative the writer of prose fiction is constrained' xxx

T: Good, so the first page, the third column, they have no constraints apart from their own artistic criteria. (...) Number four, X.

S: False.

T: Read the sentence first.

S: Oh, sorry. Novelists must agree to the demands of their editors. It's no.

T: And how do you know?

S: Because in, um, the beginning of the second page it says, well yeah, 'but the novelist does retain absolute control over his text until it is published and seen by the audience'. And then it says 'He may be advised by his editor to revise his text, but if the writer refuses to meet this condition no one will be surprised'.

T: Good. So on the first column on the second page, lines four to eight. So even though the editor can give advice, the writer doesn't have to take it. He can do basically whatever he wants. Good. Number five. X.

S2: Playwrights xxx the simplicity of the novelists work. That is not given.

T: Good, that is not given. Did everyone get not given? Don't be afraid to use the not given option if it's possible. Sometimes people try to search and identify some strange info. But if it's not there, it's not there. Number six. X?

S3: Music is a more significant element of theater than cinema. As far as I can remember it's the other way around.

German Abstract

Diese Diplomarbeit beschäftigt sich mit Fehlern, deren Korrektur und der darauffolgenden Reaktion der Studierenden im fortgeschrittenen Fremdsprachenunterricht. Im ersten Teil der Arbeit wird die Theorie zum Thema dargestellt. Zuerst werden die Begriffe 'Fehler' und 'Korrektur' definiert (Lennon 1991, Chaudron 1977, Ellis, Loewen & Erlam 2006), danach wird ein kurzer Überblick über die Betrachtung und den Umgang mit Fehlern in den letzten 40 Jahren gegeben. Diesem Überblick folgt die Diskussion fünf kontroverser Fragen: Sollen Fehler überhaupt verbessert werden und wenn ja, welche Fehler sollen zu welchem Zeitpunkt, auf welche Art und Weise und von welcher Person korrigiert werden (Hendrickson 1978)? Anschließend wird das Thema der Reaktion der Studierenden auf diese Korrekturen behandelt. Zunächst wird der Begriff 'Reaktion' (uptake) definiert (Lyster & Ranta 1997), danach wird erklärt auf welche Weise und wie oft diese Reaktionen generell stattfinden, und welche Faktoren (Klassenzimmerkontext, Lernhintergrund der Studierenden, Art der Verbesserung) die Reaktionen der Studierenden beeinflussen können.

In der zweiten Hälfte der Arbeit wird eine empirische Studie zu diesem Thema dargestellt, die in drei Klassen am Institut für Anglistik und Amerikanistik der Universität Wien durchgeführt wurde. Für diese Studie wurden drei Unterrichtsstunden pro Klasse aufgenommen, transkribiert und anhand eines adaptierten Models nach Lyster & Ranta (1997) analysiert. Konkret wurde festgehalten 1) welche Art von Fehler gemacht wurden, 2) wie viele korrigiert wurden, 3) auf welche Weise die Fehler verbessert wurden, 4) ob bestimmte Fehler bevorzugt mit einer bestimmten Korrekturart verbessert wurden, 5) wie Studierende auf die Verbesserungen reagierten, und 6) ob eine gewisse Art der Verbesserung häufiger eine Reaktion hervorrief. Die Ergebnisse wurden mit den Resultaten vergangener Studien verglichen um festzustellen, ob es Unterschiede bezüglich Fehler, Korrekturarten und Reaktionen zwischen den Klassen für Anfänger und Fortgeschrittene gibt. Insgesamt wurden nach der hier verwendeten Definition 210 Fehler gemacht, von denen 71.90% korrigiert wurden. Auch auf fortgeschrittenem Niveau bestimmten vor allem der pädagogische Fokus und die Gravität des Fehlers ob der Fehler verbessert wurde. Weiters konnte die Tendenz erkannt werden, dass auf Wortschatz- und Inhaltsfehler mit der Aufforderung zur Selbstkorrektur reagiert wurde. Grammatik- und Aussprachefehler wurden durch korrigierende Wiederholung der ProfessorInnen ausgebessert. Im Unterschied zu Anfängerklassen

waren korrigierende Wiederholungen nicht die häufigste Verbesserungsart; nur 16.25% aller Fehler wurden auf diese Art verbessert. Stattdessen wurden Verbesserungsarten verwendet, die die Studierenden zur Korrektur aufforderten. Studierende (vor allem solche die nicht den ursprünglichen Fehler gemacht hatten) reagierten auf 71.25% aller Korrekturen; in 59.64% der Fälle wurde der Fehler ausgebessert; in 40.36% der Fälle bedarf es weiterer Verbesserung. Die Schüler reagierten vor allem nach Verbesserungsarten mit Aufforderung zur Selbstkorrektur, aber auch nach korrigierenden Wiederholungen die besonders expliziert waren.

Curriculum Vitae

PERSONAL INFORMATION	Name:	Jenna Leiter
	Date of Birth:	12.03.1986
	Place of Birth:	Newton, MA (USA)
	Citizenship:	Italy / USA dual citizen

CONTACT INFORMATION	Claudia de Medici Str. 35	Home: +39 0471979067
	39100 Bozen	mobile: +39 3200947052
	Italien	e-mail: jennaleiter@gmail.com

EDUCATION

University of Vienna, Vienna, Austria

English Major (Diplomstudium Anglistik und Amerikanistik) **October 2005 – present**

Major: English; Minors: History, Italian
Performance Scholarship for each academic school year
Allotted one of the two places available for the Erasmus Exchange Program in Dublin for 2008-2009

University College Dublin, Dublin, Ireland

Erasmus Exchange Program **September 2008 – May 2009**

Attended courses in English Literature and Global History

Realgymnasium Bozen, Bozen, Italy

Scientific Lyceum **September 2000 – June 2005**

Class Representative (1st through 5th year)

WORK EXPERIENCE

Tutoring in English, Bozen/Vienna

Private tutoring in English of elementary, middle and high school students **2004 – present**

Freelance Translations, Bozen/Vienna

Translations of various short articles **2007 – present**

English Teacher for Alpha Beta Summer Camp Program, Bozen, Italy

English teacher for children ages 7-13 **Summer 2006 – Summer 2008**

ADDITIONAL		
	Language Skills:	Fluent in English, German and Italian
	Computer Skills:	Linux, Mac, Windows, LaTeX
	Interests:	Writing (with focus on food), Traveling, Photography, IT