DÜZELTİCİ DÖNÜTLERİN İNGİLİZCE'NİN YABANCI BİR DİL

OLARAK OKUTULDUĞU SINIFLARDAKİ KULLANIMI

USE OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK
IN EFL CLASSES

Erol KILINÇ
(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)

Eskişehir, 2007

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Danışman: Yard. Doç. Dr. Mine DİKDERE

Eskişehir

Anadolu Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü

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M.A. THESIS

English Language Teaching Program

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May, 2007

Dedicated to my father Kazım Kılınç

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZ ÖZÜ

DÜZELTİCİ DÖNÜTLERİN İNGİLİZCE'NİN YABANCI BİR DİL OLARAK

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Bu çalışma, yükseköğretim düzeyinde, İngilizce yabancı dil eğitimi konuşma becerileri sınıflarında, öğrencilerin dil hataları ile öğretmenlerin bu hatalara yönelik kullandıkları sözlü düzeltici dönütler arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmayı hedeflemektedir. Hata ve düzeltici dönütlerin çeşitleri ve bunların tür ve sıklık dağılımları bu çalışmada ortaya konulmuştur. Öğretim elemanlarının, öğrenci hatalarına müteakiben yapılan düzeltici dönütlerin verilme eğilimleri iki sebepten ötürü ortaya çıkarılması hedeflenmiştir. Birincisi, öğretmenlere bu eğilimlerin kendi genel öğretim amaçlarıyla ne ölçüde örtüştüğüyle ilgili bir ayna tutmaktır. İkincisi, yapılan hata miktarı ve çeşitleriyle bunlara verilen düzeltici dönüt çeşit ve miktarı arasındaki ilişkiye bakmaktır. Mevcut veriler İngilizce okutmanlarıyla öğrencileri arasındaki 24 ders saatlik sözel etkileşimden meydana gelmektedir. Bu veri Anadolu üniversitesi Yabancı diller Yüksek Okulu hazırlık konuşma ve dinleme becerileri sınıflarına giren üç farklı öğretim elemanı ve sınıftan toplanan verilerden meydana getirilmiştir. Bu çalışmadaki sözel etkileşimlerin tümü bir kamera vasıtasıyla kaydedilmiş olup sonradan yazıya dökülmüştür, ardından Lyster ve Ranta' nın (1997) dönüt verme modeli kullanılarak söylem çözümlenmesi

tekniği ile analiz edilmiştir. Sonuçlara göre, (1) öğretim elemanının öğrencinin yanlış ifadesini tekrarlarken hatalı öğeyi düzelterek karşılığını vermesi anlamına gelen "recast" % 56,2 oranında tüm öğretim elemanları tarafından en fazla kullanılan düzeltici dönüt türü olmuştur. İkinci sıradaki dönüt türü "recast" ile benzerlik taşıyan ama düzeltmenin öğrencinin ana dilini kullanması sonucu öğretim elemanı tarafından hedef dile çevrilerek düzeltici dönüt verilmesi anlamına gelen "translation" % 26,2 oranında takip etmekte. Üçüncü sırada öğretim elemanının öğrencinin yanlış ifadesindeki öğeyi düzelterek ve yapılan hatayı vurgulayarak karşılığını vermesi anlamına gelen "explicit correction" % 9,5 sıklıkta kullanılmıştır. Lyster ve Ranta (1997) tarafından ortaya atılan "metalinguistic dönütü", "elicitation", "clarification request", "repetition" olan diğer düzeltici dönütler biçim üzerinde uzlaşma anlamına gelen 'negotiation of form' gibi dönüt verme yöntemleri olup toplamda yalnızca % 8,1 oranında kullanılmıştır. (2) Öğrenciler tarafından yapılan hata türleri ve bunları takip eden düzeltici dönüt türü arasındaki ilişkiye dayanarak dilbilgisel hatların (342 adet) en sık meydana gelen hata türü olmasına karşın orantısal olarak en az düzeltilen hata türü (%14) olduklarıdır. Buna karşın sözcük seçiminden kaynaklana hataların (lexical errror) (99 kez) en az meydana gelen hata türü olmasına rağmen orantısal olarak en fazla dönüt alan (% 43,4) hata türü olduğu saptanmıştır. Bu bulgular öğretim elemanlarının daha az dilbilgisel hataları buna karşın sözcük seçiminden kaynaklanan hatalara karşı daha fazla dönüt verme eğilimlerine sahip oldukları yönünde yorumlanabilir ki bu da konuşma becerileri öğretim elemanlarının derslerinde akıcılığa (fluency) diğer bir deyişle 'anlam' a (meaning) daha fazla önem verdikleri anlamına gelir. Bu sonuçlar doğrultusunda konuşma becerileri dersi öğretim elemanlarının genel anlamda düzeltici dönüt (%24,5)vermek konusunda çok istekli olmadıkları saptanmıştır. Verilen bu dönütler arasında da en az (prompting) türündeki dönütler diğer bir deyişle 'şekil üzerinde uzlaşıcı' (negotiation of form) dönüt verme türlerini kullandıkları söylenebilir ki bunlar öğrencinin kendi hatasını kendisi düzeltmesi anlamına

gelen "self- repair" 'e yol açabilmekte. Düzeltici dönüt verildiği durumlarda ise en fazla tercih edilen "recast" diğer bir deyişle 'anlam üzerinde uzlaşı' ya (negotiation of meaning) sebep olabilen dönüt türü benimsenmekte olup bu da konuşma becerileri derslerinin temelinde yatan akıcılığa odaklanmaktan kaynaklanmaktadır.

M.A. THESIS ABSTRACT

USE OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

IN EFL CLASSES

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This study aims to explore the correlation between students' errors and teachers' use of corrective feedback at tertiary level EFL speaking classes. The frequency and distribution of error types together with the distribution and frequency of corrective feedback types are identified in the present study. Teachers' tendency of employing the different types of corrective feedback after students' different types of errors made in speaking classes is aimed to be revealed, first, to provide a picture whether these tendencies match teachers' teaching purposes in terms of facilitating successful self repair. The subsequent concern is whether the type of error determines the type and frequency of corrective feedback teachers incorporate in speaking classes. The database consists of 24 class hours of interactions between three EFL instructors and their students in three different intermediate level speaking & listening classes at the school of foreign languages at Anadolu University, Turkey. The verbal interaction was videotaped and transcribed, and coded according to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) corrective

discourse model. The results reveal that (1) recast (56.2 %), an implicit corrective feedback move that repeats the learners utterance by correcting only the inaccurate item in an unobtrusive manner, was employed the most frequent by all the participating teachers in the present study. Followed by translation (26.2 %), similar to recast which translates students use of L1 into the target language, and explicit correction (9.5 %) which corrects the ill formed utterance obtrusively. Other corrective feedback types such as, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, clarification request, repetition, that promote 'negotiation of form', proposed by Lyster & Ranta (1997) accounted for 8.1% within all feedback provided. (2) The correlation between corrective feedback type and its preceding error type indicates that although grammatical errors (342 grammatical errors) were the most occurring error type, they were the least (14%) corrected. In contrast, lexical errors that occurred the least (99 times) were corrected as the most frequent error type (43.4%). This finding might be interpreted that the tendency of all instructors was less to correct grammatical errors but the most frequent lexical errors since fluency (i.e. meaning) is the primary focus of speaking classes. Similarly the total amount of corrective feedback (210 turns) provided to the total amount of errors (856 turns) reveals that speaking teachers are unwilling to correct students' errors in speaking classes where fluency is the primary focus. These findings attest to the assumption that speaking teachers are unwilling to employ corrective feedbacks (24.5%) in general and the least to employ prompting (i.e. negotiation of form) types of corrective feedback in speaking classes, which might lead to self repair. However when they do employ corrective feedback, they have a tendency to employ recast (i.e. negotiation of meaning) due to the orientation of fluency that is the focus of communicative classes.

x

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CHAPTER I

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Language enriches peoples life and their visions. In fact, Learning English has become one of the main priorities of any individual who wants to integrate with and to better survive in this highly competitive modern world. Language instructors and learners who have devoted themselves to serious teaching and learning want to learn the best curriculum and the teaching methodology practices to achieve proficiency in English more efficiently and effectively.

Research on the efficacy of different teaching approaches for learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) reveals that comprehensible input alone is not enough if the goal of the Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) is to enable the learners to acquire a target-like proficiency. Swain (1995) emphasizes the role of output, maintaining that the attempt to produce the target language encourages learners to notice their linguistic problems precisely, to test hypotheses, and to promote reflection that "enables them to control and internalize linguistic knowledge".

In that sense, Swain (1985) points out that modification of learner output is necessary for learning another language. For this reason, the role the teacher plays as a provider of input and feedback is essential for the learners' interlanguage development.

This role has been supported by H. Douglas Brown. In his book "Teaching by principles" (p.269, 1994), he gives many recommendations for language teachers or language teacher candidates. In one of his suggestions towards error correction he states;

> Provide appropriate feedback and correction: In most EFL situations,
>
> Students are totally dependent on the teacher for useful linguistic
>
> Feedback. (In ESL situations, they may get such feedback "out there"
>
> beyond the classroom, but even then you are in a position to be of
>
> great benefit.) It is important that you take advantage of your
>
> knowledge of English to inject the kinds of corrective feedback
>
> that are appropriate for the moment.

This suggestion within many other theories and sometimes even contradicting philosophies in the field of language teaching and learning upcoming so far has become presumably an important concern of many language teachers and researchers.

What decision should language teachers make when students make oral errors in the language classrooms? Furthermore, will this decision whether to provide corrective feedback or not lead to communicative competence?

Some researchers, with the advent of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), became more concerned with 'negotiation of meaning' rather than form. Consequently CLT favored "negotiation of meaning" which simply means 'sending the message across' became the main concern of language researchers and teachers, where form focused language teaching as well as error correction became less favored.

Researchers in English as a Second Language (ESL) settings; however, have pointed to the need to draw learners' attention to the forms by highlighting the importance of providing corrective feedback as a crucial element for students to notice erroneous forms in their output (Lyster & Ranta 1997, Doughty & Varela 1996, White & Spada 1991). And in respect to 'negotiation of meaning', Braidi (1995) argued that although 'negotiation of meaning' "facilitates comprehension, there is still little direct evidence that "the negotiation of meaning" affects second language development" (cited in Lyster 2002).

Pica (1989) argues that 'negotiation of meaning' provides primarily as a conversational function, which aims "to work toward mutual comprehension" (cited in Lyster 2002). For that reason, "teachers and students are able to negotiate meaning, with little or no linguistic knowledge in common, by drawing on higher order processes involving background and situational knowledge" (Kleifgen & Saville-Troike 1992 cited in Lyster 2002). Swain (1985) claims "mutual comprehension can easily be achieved despite grammatically inaccurate forms and that teachers, therefore, in order to benefit their students' interlanguage development, need to incorporate ways of pushing their students to produce language that is not only comprehensible but also accurate" (cited in Lyster 2002).

While many new studies had been carried out in the field of second language acquisition, pioneers were concerned with a number of discussions of corrective feedback in classroom Second Language Acquisition (SLA), researchers like Allwright & Bailey (1991), Chaudron, (1988), DeKeyser (1993) and Lyster & Ranta (1997) took the primary questions used by Hendrickson (1978) to develop a comprehensive evaluation and understanding as one of the first s of the issue of error correction; that is,

1. Should learners' errors be corrected?

2. When should learners' errors be corrected?

3. Which errors should be corrected?

4. How should errors be corrected?

5. Who should do the correcting?

Lyster (1997) states that even two decades later, researchers are still not very close to know the answers to these deceptively simple questions. It has become obvious that corrective feedback has an unavoidable importance in language pedagogy but before making a deeper investigation about the above stated questions or investigating the effectiveness of corrective feedback, the issue 'what teachers really are doing in their classrooms?' should be the primary question to be answered at first.

Without having a particular judgment about the teachers' classroom behaviors at the School of Foreign Languages at Anadolu University (AUSFL), this study aims to provide a clear picture about how these teachers deal with their students' erroneous utterances in their classroom practices in terms of oral corrective feedback.

Based on the researcher's personal observation within his speaking classes and oral achievement and proficiency examinations at AUSFL made him think that learners in this EFL setting have difficulty in producing grammatically, lexically and phonologically accurate utterances. Similarly, Eş (2003), a co-worker at the same institute, in informal talks with other colleagues mention the similar observations. He indicated that learners fail to use

grammatically accurate language in their written and oral productions at the same institute and proposed a treatment in his study.

1.2 The Role of Negative Evidence in Second Language Classrooms

Gass (2003) defines negative evidence as a type of "information that is provided to learners concerning the incorrectness of an utterance". Several studies have documented the importance of providing negative evidence for second language learners in order to make them notice erroneous forms in their output (Doughty & Varela, 1996; Lyster, 1998; White & Spada, 1991). All these studies state that providing oral corrective feedback plays an important facilitative role in students 'development. Groups whose attention has been drawn to targeted construction through form-focused activities or error correction are consistently reported to outperform those groups who receive the same amount of natural classroom exposure (Lightbown & Spada, 1990). Long (1996, p. 45) reporting on the conditions, which generate negative evidence says: "Demonstrating the existence of negative evidence involves showing that something in the learner's linguistic, conversational, or physical environment reliably provides the information necessary to alert the learner to the existence of error".

1.3. Purpose of the Study

Teachers more or less, intentionally or unintentionally employ their own styles and strategies in the classroom. The purpose of this study aims to explore teachers' use of different types of oral corrective feedback in speaking classes.

Learning a foreign language at an intensive EFL program for students at tertiary level makes the role of corrective feedback in all language classrooms inevitable. Particularly, the role of speaking courses is taking a far more important part in language learning, especially during oral 'teacher to student interactions' in the desired target language. As previously discussed, the students' oral production in the foreign language (FL), namely desired comprehensible output, is an important element in language learning. Lyster & Ranta (1997) cited that;

> Comprehensible input alone is not sufficient for successful L2 learning; comprehensible output is also required, involving, on the one hand, ample opportunities for student output and, on the other, the provision of useful and consistent feedback from teachers and peers (Allen, Swain, Harley, & Cummins, 1990; Swain, 1985, 1988).

Therefore, for corrective feedback, the Second Language Acquisition Theory (SLA) states that negative evidence is essential for second language acquisition. One form of negative evidence is oral corrective feedback that plays a crucial role in language learning. To illustrate, students exposed more frequently to such kind of feedback, outperform those groups who receive the same amount of natural classroom exposure (c.f. Lightbown & Spada, 1990).

Another aspect regarding the types of lessons reveal that, "lessons that were selected for analysis excluded formal grammar lessons because our primary research question involved a description of how teachers and students engage in error treatment during communicative interaction with a thematic focus" (Lyster & Ranta 1997). In a similar study by Panova & Lyster (2002) the analyzed lessons were not devoted only to grammar; rather, as expected,

"the teacher's focus on formal properties of the language was incorporated in the thematic structure of the lessons, some of the lesson topics were "Eating Out," "Going Shopping," and "Travel" ". Since most previous studies were conducted in communicatively oriented classes and since communication is a natural part of speaking classes, one major concern of the researcher was to find out to what extend and what type of corrective feedback the teacher employs in his or her speaking course.

Another aim of this study is to find out which linguistic errors teachers tended to correct. With the results of this study it is aimed to present the teacher participants their use of corrective feedback types which might lead to raise awareness. Also, the findings of the present study might provide implications that help to reveal the types of corrective feedback they apply in classrooms and draw conclusions about teachers' constructing or distracting manner.

1.4. Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is its contribution to error correction in terms of use of corrective feedback teachers employ after students verbal errors. The contribution is twofold. The findings that will be revealed in this study might provide a picture of the error types and it's following corrective feedback type occurrences. In this respect, literature has some implications of what corrective feedback to provide best that promotes comprehensible output, noticing the correct form at the interlanguage continuum of the learner. The second contribution is that this study aims to provide a picture of the teachers' tendencies in terms of the amount of corrective feedback they provide and different types of corrective feedback they employ in their classes. Hence it is aimed to provide these teachers a picture of their use of corrective feedbacks in their orally communicative classes. By doing so it is aimed to raise

an awareness of their classroom practices by showing the video recordings, transcriptions and results of the present study.

In addition, these video recordings would help to provide a mirror to instructors of their actual classroom behavior which can be used and adapted to further teacher development training sessions and workshops in the future by exploring the most efficient pedagogies to promote language learning. This study which provides a picture of the use of corrective feedback would help academic administrators to more effectively evaluate instruction, especially teachers' giving feedback by comparing these data with other literature implications. The results of this study could also help facilitate a teacher's self-evaluation of his/her instruction, as well as to better understand the students' learning progress.

1.5. Research Questions

Regarding the discussions made above, the main purpose of this study is to explore teachers' oral corrective feedback use after students' errors in speaking classes. The research questions below are central to this study:

1. What are the different types of corrective feedback and their distribution in speaking classes?

2. What types of learner errors lead to what types of corrective feedback?

To answer these questions, the researcher will investigate students' errors and types of oral corrective feedback in communicatively oriented speaking classes by using discourse-analytic principles. The frequency and distributions of the different types oral corrective feedback

employed by teachers following students' errors will be identified. The analysis and classification of these different types of oral corrective feedback and students' errors will be made using Lyster and Ranta's (1997) model.

1.6. Limitations

1. This study is limited to the classroom observations of English instructors and their students at Anadolu University School of Foreign Languages preparatory school.

2. This study is limited to a similar level of oral English instruction in order to minimize the differences of language proficiency

3. The video recordings were limited to the same unit and amount of hours of instruction in all three classes.

4. Although the data collection is made during an intermediate level Speaking-Listening course, devoted to both speaking and listening skills' teaching and learning, the data collection and analysis is made during oral teacher- student interactions.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Review of Theoretical Background

Theories in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) give an insight about the theories that have been proposed so far in the field of language acquisition. To start with investigating the issue of input and interaction more fully in the brief review of reception and production-based theories of language acquisition might be useful.

2.1.1. The input hypothesis

The input hypothesis is a basic theory of Krashen's Monitor Model and is one of the most well recognized reception-based theory (Krashen, 1985 cited in Bargiela) .The theory suggests that if the message received by the learner is comprehensible the language acquired would be more under the condition that acquisition takes place when learners understand input that include structures that are beyond than their existing proficiency level, also known as the 'i + 1' hypothesis, the 'i' stands for students' current level of language proficiency, and the '+ 1' stands for linguistic forms or functions that are beyond this level. This theory, which also gives importance of employing social interaction in language acquisition, gained popularity in the field of communicative approach.

2.1.2. The interaction hypothesis

This highly accepted theory proposed by Long (1983), highlights the comprehensible input in the form of conversational modifications, which is categorized in two types of adjustments, avoid and repair. These types take place in classrooms as comprehension checks, clarification requests- in which the later one is considered as a type of corrective feedback by Spada & Fröhlich (1995), Doughty (1994), Lyster and Ranta (1997), Lyster (1998). Namely, successful language learning depends on the amount of adjustments speakers are able to make in order to understand each other considered, as an attempt for 'negotiation of meaning' will create comprehensible input. Both Krashen and Long point out the importance of comprehensible input, but emphasize the interaction that takes place in two-way communication.

This has been expressed by Long (1996, pp. 451–2, cited in Gass 2003) as the Interaction hypothesis:

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

and:

> it is proposed that environmental contributions to acquisition are mediated by selective attention and the learner's developing L2 processing capacity, and that these resources are brought together most usefully, although not exclusively, during *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. (p. 414)

2.1.3. The output hypothesis

The Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985) was suggested in addition to the input/output hypotheses. Swain admits the importance of comprehensible input, but questions Krashen and claimed that even there is comprehensible input the output does not reveal the same quality in output and therefore learners need to be pushed to reach a good output. Swain (ibid, p. 248-9) attributes three roles to output (cited in Bargiela):

1. The need to produce output in the process of negotiating meaning that is precise, coherent and appropriate encourages the learner to develop the necessary grammatical resources. Swain refers to this as "pushed language use";

2. Output provides the learner with the opportunity to try out hypotheses to see if they work;

3. Production, as opposed to comprehension, may help to force the learner to move from semantic to syntactic analysis of the input it contains. Production is the trigger that forces learners to pay attention to the means of expression.

2.2. Research made in the field

SLA researchers took primary questions used by Hendrickson (1978) to develop a comprehensive evaluation and understanding as one of the first s of the issue of error correction; that is,

1. Should learners' errors be corrected?

2. When should learners' errors be corrected?

3. Which errors should be corrected?

4. How should errors be corrected?

5. Who should do the correcting?

Nevertheless in the light of these guiding questions, researchers have conducted studies about error correction namely corrective feedback. Many studies in the area of feedback have been made under different theoretical standpoints within SLA. These researches ranges from experimental to observational, classroom based, within second language settings and foreign language settings and are investigating Teacher-NNS interactions.

2.2.1. Experimental research made in the field

Almost all of the studies (DeKeyser, 1993; Spada and Lightbown, 1993; White, 1991; White, Spada et al., 1991; cited in Castañeda, 2005) were conducted with 'English as a Second Language' (ESL) learners. Two studies on how error correction aided the enhancement of input by giving corrective feedback to learners in ESL context (White, 1991; White, Spada et

al., 1991) revealed that corrective feedback may help L2 (White, 1991) and that learners who take delivery of form-focused tutoring on question formation radically do better than learners who do not get this instruction (White, Spada et al., 1991). It can be concluded from these two studies that corrective feedback can help learners with certain syntactic forms.

Another study that contributed to a growing understanding of the effects of corrective feedback was conducted by Carroll and Swain (1993) who concluded that learners who were told they were wrong and given explicit feedback on how the language worked performed considerably better than all other groups.

From the point of the researchers, the significance of the result is outstanding because both explicit and implicit types of feedback lead to learning. Besides, it is significant that the group exposed to explicit metalinguistic feedback is the one that outperformed all other groups in which this type of feedback seemed to be the most effective.

2.2.2. Observational research made in the field

Like the experimental studies observational studies examining feedback have been conducted in similar settings and with similar participants. As in the former research type the range of research was conducted in second language settings, immersion settings and foreign language settings, studies conducted with child participants and adult participants, and studies that examined teacher-student interaction. Almost all observational studies done with feedback have been carried out in an ESL setting (Fanselow, 1977; Mackey, Gass et al., 2000; Mackey and Oliver, 2003; Panova and Lyster, 2003; Oliver, 1995; cited in Castañeda, 2005) and in a

French Immersion setting (Chaudron, 1977, 1986; Lyster, 1998; Lyster and Ranta 1997; cited in Castañeda, 2005).

Only a few studies have been conducted in foreign language settings. The majority within these observational studies have been carried out with grade school children (Chaudron, 1977, 1986; Lightbown and Spada, 1990; Lyster, 1998; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Oliver, 1995, 2000).

Fewer research have been conducted with adult learners (Mackey, Gass et al., 2000; Oliver, 2000; Panova and Lyster, 2003) and even a smaller number of research about corrective feedback have been conducted with university students (Doughty, 1993; Morris, 2002). Most observational studies are about teacher-student interactions (Chaudron, 1977, 1986; Doughty, 1993; Fanselow, 1977; Kasper, 1985; Lyster, 1998; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Oliver, 2000; Panova and Lyster, 2003).

A number of the early observational studies identified errors made by students, feedback types provided by teachers, and considered the link between error, feedback, and repair (Fanselow, 1977; Chaudron, 1977). Correspondingly, Doughty (1993) studied the fine-tuning of feedback by teachers. In her study learner utterances, teacher feedback and learner responses were coded and analyzed. She found that teachers do fine-tune their feedback to language learners and it appeared that learners were able to recognize this fine-tuning.

By considering the so far findings gained in studies it can be concluded that the type of error has an impact on the type of feedback provided to learners. Recent observational studies continued to examine the topics that were aimed to explore as well. Some of these studies

investigate the use of feedback in a classroom setting and specifically look at teacher-student interactions (Lyster, 1998; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Oliver, 2000; Panova and Lyster, 2003; cited in Castañeda, 2005).

The present study; teacher-student interactions that research has looked at is significantly important (Lyster, 1998; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Oliver, 2000; Panova and Lyster, 2003). These studies look at the error treatment interactions between teachers and students by investigating the student error and the correction made by the teacher, consequently the response of the student.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) carried out a parallel study that examined teacher-student speech exchanges who observed six French immersion classrooms Canada. Their data base included 100 hours of audio-recordings of lessons in three Grade 4 classes and one Grade 4/5 class. The authors developed a coding model using the already existing COLT Part B coding scheme by Spada & Fröhlich (1995) and Doughty's analysis of fine-tuning feedback (cited in Lyster and Ranta, 1997). The researchers looked at error sequences containing an error, teacher feedback, and the reaction to the feedback. Errors in this study were defined as phonological, lexical and grammatical. The researcher investigated six different types of corrective feedback that were provided to the students: explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. The findings revealed that teachers tend to use recasts more in comparison to other corrective feedback types, however recast was found to be very ineffective at eliciting student-generated repair. In contrast even some types were not used as frequently as recast; elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition are types of feedback that lead to more student-generated repair. Using the same data, Lyster (1998) examined what types of learner errors

lead to what types of corrective feedback. As mentioned above, Lyster & Ranta (1997) identified the former stated six main types of feedback: explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. Grammatical and Phonological errors were followed by recast while lexical errors followed by 'negotiation of form more' (a new term that contains clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition) than recast. These findings are corroborated by Panova & Lyster (2003) with an adult population. One class of 25 adult students in an ESL class in Canada was examined. Classroom interaction was observed for three weeks, 18 hours were recorded, and 10 hours were used for the study. Using the COLT scheme, the data were analyzed. In this study seven types of feedback were identified: recast, repetition, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, explicit correction, and translation. Panova & Lyster explains the reason of using an additional correction type in this study called translation as follows;

"Student utterances in the L1 were also included in the analysis in order

to compare the teacher's responses to L1 use with her usual response

 to errors in the L2. Individual student turns that contained both French

and English lexical items were considered non target like and were

 included in the analysis as well" (Panova & Lyster, 2002).

In their findings among the seven types of feedback, recasting and translation of learner errors were used the most frequently. Recasts and translation together accounted for 77% of the feedback moves in the data, therefore leaving little opportunity for use of other corrective techniques (clarification request, 11%; metalinguistic feedback, 5%; elicitation, 4%; explicit correction, 2%; repetition, 1%).

2.3. Corrective Feedback types based on the model by Lyster and Ranta 1997

   and Panova & Lyster 2002

As in studies mentioned in the previous section the following model will be applied in the current study. The seven types of corrective feedback are recast, translation, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, explicit correction, and repetition.

Definitions and examples of this model are copied in the original from as it is presented in Panova & Lyster (2002) as follows;

(In the extracts, T = teacher, S = student; SmS = the same student, and DifS = a different student from the previous student turn.)

A *recast* (see Example 1) is an implicit corrective feedback move that reformulates or expands an ill-formed or incomplete utterance in an unobtrusive way, similar to the type of recasts provided by primary caregivers in child L1 acquisition (Long, 1996).

1.   S: Dangerous? (phonological error: /dange'rus/)

        T: Yeah, good. Dangerous. (recast) You remember? Safe and

           dangerous. If you walk in the streets, you . . .

Translation can be seen as a feedback move when it follows a student's unsolicited uses of the L1. Lyster and Ranta (1997) found very few of these moves in their data and so coded translations as recasts—due to their similar function of reformulating nontarget learner utterances. There is nevertheless a relevant difference between a recast (a response to an ill-

formed utterance in the L2) and a translation (a response to a well-formed utterance in the L1). Because of the high number of such translations occurring in the present data, we coded these as a separate feedback category, an example of which follows:

2.   T: All right, now, which place is near the water?

      S: Non, j'ai pas fini. (L1)

      T: You haven't finished? Okay, Bernard, have you finished?

        (translation)

The purpose of a ***clarification request*** is to elicit reformulation or repetition from the student with respect to the form of the student's ill formed utterance. Often this type of feedback seeks clarification of the meaning as well. In the data, clarification requests were used when there were problems in the form that, as a result of the students' low proficiency level, also affected the comprehensibility of the utterance. Such is the case in Example 3, in which the student utterance is ill formed to an extent that the teacher is not sure what the student means.

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

      T: I'm sorry? (clarification request)

Although phrases such as *I'm sorry* and *I don't understand* are typical of clarification requests, another type occurred in the data, illustrated in Example 4. Interestingly, this type of clarification request clearly seeks to elicit self-repair from the student as the teacher responds literally to what the student has said. Here, there is no comprehension problem. The teacher seems to be aware of what the student wants to say and focuses him on the error without

giving him the correct response but, via a clarification request, uses a clue that directs the student to the nature of the error, in this case temporal reference.

4.   T: Okay. This is the name of your city in Haiti where you grew up.

       Yes?

     S: Yeah, my city . . .

     T: Yeah, okay.

     SmS: . . . where I live. (grammatical error)

     T: Now? (clarification request)

     SmS: Yeah . . . where I was living. (repair)

According to Lyster and Ranta (1997), ***metalinguistic feedback*** (see Example 5) refers to "comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student utterance, without explicitly providing the correct answer" (p. 46).

5.   S: Nouvelle Ecosse . . . (L1)

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

Similar to the purpose of clarification requests and metalinguistic feedback, ***elicitation*** is a corrective technique that prompts the learner to self-correct. Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified three ways of eliciting the correct form from the students: (a) when the teacher pauses and lets the student complete the utterance, (b) when the teacher asks an open question, and (c) when the teacher requests a reformulation of the ill formed utterance. Example 6 shows an instance of (a), in which the teacher elicits self-repair by pausing, expecting the student to provide the right lexical item.

6.   S: New Ecosse. (L1)

        T: New Ecosse. I like that. I'm sure they'd love that. Nova . . .?

          (elicitation)

        SmS: Nova Scotia. (repair)

Example 7 represents the elicitation technique described in (b), which results in peer repair.

7.   T: In a fast food restaurant, how much do you tip?

        S: No money. (lexical error)

        T: What's the word? (elicitation)

        SmS: Five . . . four . . . (needs repair)

        T: What's the word . . . in a fast food restaurant? (elicitation)

        DifS: Nothing (repair)

        T: Nothing, yeah. Okay, what tip should you leave for the following

          . . . . (topic continuation)

Explicit correction provides explicit signals to the student that there is an error in the previous

utterance, as shown in Example 8. Unlike recasts and translation, explicit correction involves

a clear indication to the student that an utterance was ill-formed and also provides the correct

form.

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

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

In a *repetition*, the teacher repeats the ill-formed part of the student's utterance, usually with a change in intonation, as shown in Example 9.

9.   T: . . . Here, when you do a paragraph, you start here, well, let's

            see, anyway, you write . . . . write, write, write (pretends to be

            writing on the board), remember this is . . . What is this called?

        S: Comma. (lexical error)

        T: Comma? (repetition)

        DifS: Period. (repair)

2.4. Evidence of choosing the Lyster & Ranta model

Panova and Lyster reached to some general conclusions about research on feedback they reviewed, the most significants are,

1. Teachers have at their disposal a wide variety of corrective strategies

to focus on learner errors.

2. Choice of feedback type can be dependent on type of error.

3. Recasts are the most widely used type of feedback in the observed

classrooms. (Panova & Lyster, 2002)

The results of observational research on feedback gained attention by Panova & Lyster's study (2002). Of particular relevance was Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study of corrective feedback and learner, their study applies to a different instructional setting.

Lyster and Ranta's model was preferred for the study analysis because (a) it provided a tool for identifying, in detail, individual teacher styles in the treatment of error during oral classroom interaction. The major purpose of their study, was examining the error treatment patterns, involving the relationship between feedback types, in an adult EFL classroom. Its secondary aim was to find out whether Lyster and Ranta's (1997) model of corrective discourse was applicable in a different instructional context. Lyster and Ranta's study was conducted with young learners in French immersion classrooms with content-based L2 instruction. On the other hand, Panova & Lyster's study involved adult learners of English in an L2 classroom where the instruction targets the L2 within the realm of communicative language teaching Panova & Lyster's (2002).

After having determined the above stated findings and suggestions about the discussed model proposed by Lyster & Ranta (1997) the researcher in this present study, by considering also previous studies in the field, finds this model highly relevant for the purpose and scope of his study.

Lyster and Ranta's (1997) analytic model (see figure 1) provides a view of the teacher student interaction by starting with an erroneous utterance sequence of the student. The sequence is either followed by the teacher's corrective feedback or not. If the teacher gives corrective feedback the sequence continues with either student uptake or topic continuation of which this part is out of the scope of the present study. The model mentions about four types of errors,

which are grammatical, phonological, lexical and unsolicited use of first language (L1). Although L1 usage does not necessarily mean they are errors but function as non-target learner utterances and are therefore coded as another feedback category because of the high number of translations occurring in the present data. Since the focus of this study is focus-on-form, errors related to content are not analyzed. Error types are described as follows;
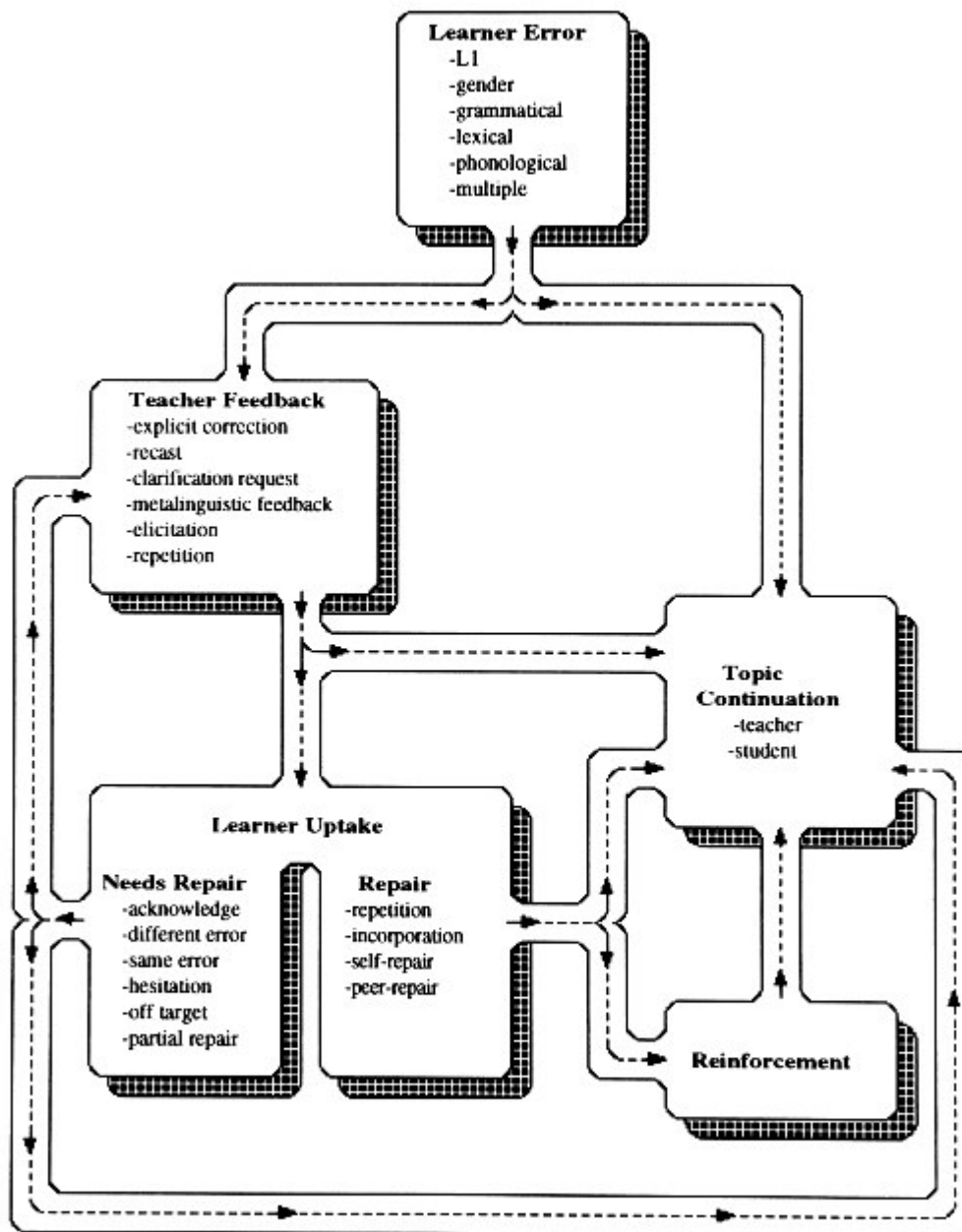
Figure 1. Error treatment sequence. by Lyster & Ranta (1997)

2.5 Coding Definitions

2.5.1 Error Types

Although a general categorization of Error types was made by Lyster and Ranta (1997) as demonstrated in Figure 1, the first 3 definitions of this model are taken from the original form as it is presented in Suzuki (2004)

1. **Grammatical errors** were non-target like use of,

Determiners

Prepositions

Pronouns

Number agreement

Tense

Verb morphology

Auxiliaries.

Additionally, errors in pluralization, negation, question formation, and word order were considered as grammatical errors.

2. **Lexical errors** included inaccurate use of

Nouns

Verbs

Adverbs

Adjectives, in the sense of open classes, or word groups whose membership is in principle indefinite or unlimited (Crystal, 1991).

3. **Phonological errors** were inaccurate pronunciation of words that often led to difficulty of comprehension of the target words. In case that mispronounced words were comprehensible to the teacher, the words were still considered to have phonological errors when the words were given corrective feedback.

Unsolicited uses of L1.

"Instances where students used" Turkish "when English would have been more appropriate and expected; we excluded from this category, of course, uses of L1 solicited by the teacher, or students' framing their use of L1 metalinguistically" (Lyster, 1998)

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter explains the method that was used in this study, including the details of video recordings. The data collection and methods of transcription are described in this chapter as well. The last section of this chapter is allocated to the different types of analysis used in this study.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the present study is to determine the corrective feedback offered by teachers to intermediate level EFL students at Anadolu University, Preparatory school, Eskişehir, Turkey. More specifically, this study investigates types of corrective feedback and their relationship with students' error types. Regarding the general purpose this study aimed at providing a picture of teachers corrective feedback use during English speaking courses. Hence this study employed a descriptive analysis technique through classroom observations. The participant teachers' speaking courses were videotaped and further analyses were made by means of transcriptions of the video recordings.

3.2. Research Design

This study was motivated by findings of observational research and error treatment in ESL and EFL settings. Of particular relevance were the studies carried out by Lyster & Ranta (1997) and Panova & Lyster (2002) regarding error types and especially corrective feedback, which provides an analytical model that is also employed in this study. Although Lyster and

his colleagues applied their study at French immersion schools in Canada this study was conducted in Turkish tertiary EFL context.

3.3 Participants

The participants of the study were three teachers and their students studying at AUSFL in the fall term of 2005- 2006. Therefore participants of this study are categorized in two groups as teacher and student participants.

3.3.1 Teacher participants

The three teacher subjects in this study were three speaking teachers who teach different speaking classes at the intermediate level. Their participation was based on their willingness. In terms of their background all three teachers were non-native speakers of English who had a five to seven years teaching experience. Moreover, all the participant teachers are TEFL graduates and have an M.A. TEFL degree or still continuing the M.A. program. The main goal of the study was to provide a general picture of teachers' classroom behaviors in their use of corrective oral feedback by showing a general distribution of feedback types and students' error types.

3.3.2 Student participants

Regarding the students variable, it is worth to mention about the students in these classes as participants of the present study as well. Taking into account their scores received in the placement test -Michigan Placement Test- which is held at AUSFL at the beginning of the fall semester, the students participated in this study were placed in Intermediate level. The reason

of choosing the Intermediate level classes is since some researchers in this field believe that this level may provide more suitable and varied data for such a study (Lyster & Ranta 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002). The rational behind this observation is that intermediate level students might interact in the FL more than lower level students. Another rational is that these students might make more mistakes during speaking in FL than more advanced level students. Hence the type of errors made by the students might vary more and presumably gives the teacher the opportunity to employ different types of corrective feedback based on the studies made by Lyster & Ranta (1997).

The class sizes at Anadolu University School of Foreign Languages (AUSFL) were generally limited to of twenty-five students per class with differing majors. However, the attendance of the students varied from day to day; therefore, the number of students in the video recordings varied also. The total course' hours during the week are 28 hours for intermediate level students. The curriculum, which is based on an intensive schedule, consists of four different courses each teaching different skills. These skills are a grammar, reading, writing and an integrated speaking & listening skills course. The Speaking /Listening course, in which the data is collected, consists of 8 class hours teaching a week. The course is carried out in two successive hours of 45 minutes, with a 15-minute break between each class hour.

3.4 Course description

The goal of the speaking & listening course is to bring up students to a certain degree of proficiency level in which students are aimed to reach the ability to comprehend and communicate the FL competently and relevantly in real life and academic situations. This determined goal by AUSFL realizes through objectives determined accordingly.

3.5. Course Material

To achieve these goals and objectives, the speaking/ listening course books for each level are chosen differently. The course book *Interactions 2* by Tanka & Baker (2002) for intermediate level includes a variety of daily life and academic content. The course book consists of 12 chapters and each chapter is designed accordingly;

1. Each chapter starts with the introductory part that "sparks students' interests" (Tanka & Baker, 2002) named as the 'did you know?' part. Here students activate their general knowledge related to the particular content.

2. After this 'Before you listen' part activates students' prior knowledge with pre-listening questions.

3. A 'vocabulary preview' section provides new lexical input for students that prepares them for the listening text. This part is generally a vocabulary - definition-matching exercise.

4. Later students 'listen' for the main idea of a listening text.

5. As a post listening activity students listen to the same text for stressed words by practicing the correct 'stress' patterns.

6. 'After you listen' part serves as a vocabulary review exercise

7. In the 'pronunciation' activities students practice new sound patterns by listening and practicing these sounds.

8. 'Pair work', 'role play', 'discussions' and 'group work' activities follow to encourage students to produce the pre-learned input.

9. 'Language tips', 'Using language', 'culture notes' and 'note taking strategies' which give tips and knowledge about English expressions,

cultural information related to the target language and academic note taking skills while listening to different types of lectures are provided.

10. A 'talk it over', 'on the spot' or other discussion parts follow these sections by aiming to make the students use and produce the newly learned language items.

The chapter exposed during the data collection in all three classes is the same. Therefore, all participants were exposed to chapter 9 'New Frontiers' (see Appendix C) during one week of videotaping. The reason of doing so is aimed to provide the same language input among all classes with the same type of practice and production activities

3.6. Rational for the Selection of the Particular Chapter

Chapter 9 'New Frontiers' in the speaking/ listening course book 'interactions 2' was chosen with its targeted language items in the present study since different factors make these items challenging to comprehend by Turkish EFL learners. Most of the topics in all chapters covered in this course book are interesting to students at AUSFL. However, some English sound patterns presented in this chapter are generally problematic to be produced by Turkish EFL learners. The /th/ sound that doesn't exist in the Turkish language sound system is mostly problematic for Turkish students to produce. The introduction of the /th/ sound in the 'pronunciation' part aims to make students produce the /th/ sound as both voiced and voiceless. By presenting how the /th/ sound can be produced, students are expected first to differentiate voiced and voiceless /th/ sound by listening to sample words. Then they are expected to repeat these words accordingly.

Another pronunciation input in this chapter was the pronunciation of –*ed* endings that is found on regular past tense and the past participle. The word endings are presented as /t/, /d/ and /id/ sound. The Turkish students might have fewer problems by producing the three different sounds in comparison to the /th/ sound. However they still can have difficulty by producing voiced consonants such as the /d/ and /id/ sound that comes at the end of a word. At the presentation of the –*ed* endings, sample words are provided with different –*ed* endings. Followed by a listening exercise in which students are expected first to differentiate voiced and voiceless –*ed* endings. Then they are expected to repeat these words accordingly.

In addition to the phonological aspect this chapter contains, lexical and grammatical input is also conveyed in this chapter. Students are exposed to vocabulary input through pre listening and were checked in vocabulary review activities. They are also given new vocabulary at the beginning of a discussion. This chapter mainly provided lexical input about geography, travel, space, planets, moon, sun, names of tools required for a survival on the moon, crime, words of aggression and human behavior, statistical expressions and quiz shows.

Another feature of input was the indirect teaching of both lexical and grammatical utterances in terms of functional expressions used in the target language. This chapter presented functions to express 'Interest or Surprise'. It also presents the expressions for 'citing evidence' to support an opinion. 'Introducing Surprising Information' after an unexpected occurrence is also provided in the course book.

The rational for the selection of these sound patterns is due to the challenging nature it may cause for students during 'teacher and student interactions'. The lexical and indirect

grammatical input might also lead to a wide 'teacher and student interaction' during the different activities in the chapter.

3.7. Data Collection Procedures

The data in the present study was collected at the School of Foreign Languages at Anadolu University, Eskişehir. The total number of observed classes was three intermediate level speaking/listening courses. The observations with video recordings took place during the third and forth week of December 2005 and the first week of January 2006. Although only one week was video recorded in each class the beginning date of the particular chapter varied among these classrooms. The video recordings were completed in the first semester of the academic year 2005- 2006.

Before conducting the research the administrator of the institute where the data of the study was going to be collected was contacted by a co-researcher personally. The administrator was responsible for providing access to the English instructors and was asked for the permission for video taping each of these three classes. The purpose of the study was explained to the administrator and the research process was described as well.

The data includes 24 lessons, totaling of 1080 minutes or 18 hours, taught by EFL teachers at the Anadolu University Preparatory School, Intermediate level. All 3 teachers who participated in this study were lecturing Speaking and Listening course at the same level each at a different class.

The lessons selected for analysis did not include formal grammar lecturing; instead, they represented a more communicative orientation. The researcher did not instruct teachers prior

their teaching to use any particular kinds of corrective feedback nor were them asked to focus on a particular type of error. Each instructor continued to use his/her usual way of teaching that were video taped. They only knew that we were interested in recording classroom interaction.

Three different classes taught were video taped by the class teacher in order to prevent any distraction of the natural course flow by another person outside the classroom.

The students were previously informed and were told that the class teacher would keep their identities and any of their behaviors confidentially. To avoid possible affective distractions of the video camera, the video was introduced one previous week before the actual research data collection to make the students getting used to the video camera in advance. A different instructor lectured each class during one week teaching the previously mentioned unit (see Appendix C). None of the subjects neither the teacher nor the students were informed specifically about what the research focus was. They were only told that this study aims to serve for better future language learning in speaking classes.

Each class was video-taped, consisting of one video camera, tripod and camera attached microphone, four times during one week since each session was consisting of two hours the total amount of video taping per class was eight hours in total. The overall video taping period was taped in three weeks in which each class was exposed to the same course book and chapter, between 12th December 2005 and 2nd January 2006. Although the Speaking& Listening course book "Interactions 2" by Mc Graw Hill was lectured in all three classes within 8 class hours in each class, three weeks were allocated to the different classes because

of the different starting times of the chapter 9 "New Frontiers". The 24 class hours of video recordings were later transcribed.

3.8. Transcriptions and Analysis

The video recordings were transcribed for the coding and analysis. All dialogues including teachers' interaction both with the whole class and with the students individually was transcribed. The transcription conventions were chosen according the object of inquiry in the present study (see appendix A).

As the analysis of the result, the recordings were transcribed and analyzed by the researcher and verified by an another co-worker, then the error and correction turns were coded according to 4 error types and 7 types of corrective feedback according to the later developed model by Panova and Lyster (2002), based on the model of Lyster and Ranta (1997), and analyzed independently to assure interrater reliability.

A second analysis was made investigating the relationship between feedback type and error type. For this, the already identified students' error types and the following 7 different corrective feedback types were imported into SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) computer program and compared via Cross tabulation analysis.

3.9. Anonymity and Confidentiality

None of the participants was identified in this study. Complete confidentiality was maintained in the transcripts.

CHAPTER IV

Results and Discussions

4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the results of the analyses emerged on the gathered data from the transcriptions of 24 lessons, totaling of 1080 minutes speaking/listening course. The methods of the categorization for different types of students' errors, general distribution of feedback moves and the relationship between error type and feedback type are explained in the following samples of transcripts from the study.

4.2. Results

The data was composed of a total of 856 ill formed, incomplete, or contained unsolicited use of the L1. Each initiated by a student turn containing at least one error coded as grammatical, lexical, phonological, or L1. Of these 856 turns with error or L1, 210 (24.5%) were followed by a teacher turn that included corrective feedback coded as recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, explicit correction, repetition or translation.

The remaining 646 (75.5%) student turns with error or L1 was immediately followed by topic continuation moves without any error correction. This means that almost only a quarter of the student turns with error or use of L1 received corrective feedback.

Although the primary focus of the present study does not aim to present the distribution of the different error types occurred in the present study, they compose the initial data required to

answer the research questions. Table 1 presents the whole distribution of error types made by the students: 342 erroneous turns (40 %) were grammatical, 220 turns (25.7 %) were in L1, 195 turns (22.8 %) were phonological, and 99 turns (11.6 %) were lexical errors.

Table 1

Number and percentage of errors (N= 856) by error type

	N	%
Grammatical	342	40%
L1	220	25.7%
Phonological	195	22.8%
Lexical	99	11.6%
Total	856	100%

Another aspect regarding the error types was the proportion of corrective feedback attempts following these errors. Table 2 presents the general distribution of corrective feedback across different error types: 30.5 % of all feedbacks followed after Phonological errors consisting of 64 teacher turns, 26.2 % by unsolicited use of L1 errors consisting of 55 turns, 22.9 % followed after grammatical errors consisting of 48 turns, and 20.5 % followed lexical errors consisting of 43 turns.

Table 2

Number and Percentage of feedback moves (N= 210) per error type

	N	%
Phonological	64	30.5%
L1	55	26.2%
Grammatical	48	22.9%
Lexical	43	20.5%
Total	210	100%

A comparison between the total distribution of error types and proportion of feedback given to error types is presented in Figure 2. Therefore as demonstrated graphically in Figure 2 the quantity of error types in the left column and the proportion of feedback given to each error is presented as follows; the most occurred error type in the present data are grammatical errors that has a rate of 40% among all error types. However, this error type received the least amount of feedback with a rate of 22.9% among all the feedback given. The second most occurring error type was the unsolicited use of L1 by the students of the present study that has a rate of 25.7%. Relatively the amount of feedback given to L1 is 26.2%. Another error type occurred were phonological errors with 22.8% among the other error types. The percentage of feedback allocated to this error type however was 30.5%. The final occurring error type was lexical errors that occurred for only 11.6%. This error type was given 20.5% within the whole amount of feedback provided.
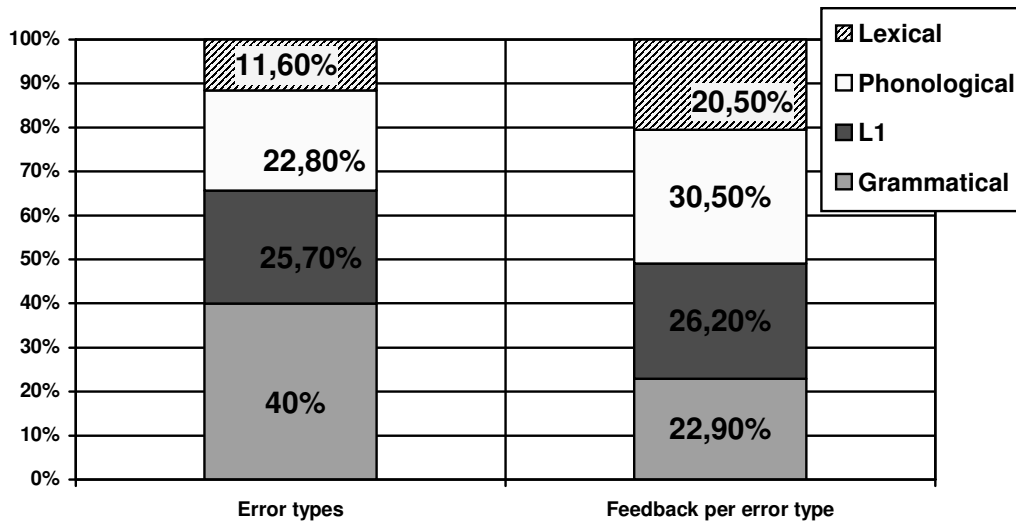
Figure 2. Percentage distribution of error types and feedback per error type

Since the amount of error types and the amount and distribution of feedback following these different error types varies, table 3 investigates this issue in greater detail.

Table 3

Rate of Feedback per Error type

	N	*%*
Lexical	43/99	43,4%
Phonological	64/195	32.8%
L1	55/220	25%
Grammatical	48/342	14%
Total	210/856	100%

Table 3 reveals the rate at which each error type received corrective feedback. According to this 43.4 % of Lexical errors, 32,8 % of phonological errors, 25% of uses of L1, and only 14

% of grammatical errors received corrective feedback. According to the findings stated in Table 3, teachers tended to give nearly 1 feedback to every 2nd lexical error with 43.4%. A lesser amount of feedback was given to Phonological errors with 1 feedback in 3 phonological errors with 32.8 %. And every fourth L1 usage received 1 Translation feedback by the teacher. However the least feedback receiving errors were grammatical with only 1,4 feedback moves in 10 erroneous occurrences. Interestingly this error type was also the most occurring error type among all the others with 342 turns.

4.3 Research Question 1: What are the different types of corrective feedback and their distribution in speaking classes?

The first research question asked what types of corrective feedback teachers' employ, and aimed to provide the general distribution of these feedback types in speaking classes.

As it can be seen in Table 4 the 210 feedback turns of the teachers consist most of 118 turns (56.2 %) as recast followed by 55 turns (26.2 %) by translation to unsolicited uses of L1 and with 20 (9.5 %) followed by Explicit correction of which all these three corrective feedback types reveal as implicit feedback types of correction previously determined by Lyster & Ranta (1997), Panova & Lyster (2002) and Lyster (1998a, 1998b). The least employed corrective feedback types among the corrective feedback types are Metalinguistic feedback with 1 turn (0.5 %), Elicitation 2 turns (0.9 %), Clarification request 4 (1.9 %) and Repetition with the highest among the latter consisting of 10 turns (4.8 %) only but are classified as 'negotiation of form' feedback types by Lyster (ibid).

Table 4

General feedback distribution

Feedback distribution	Frequency	Percentage
Recast	118	56.2 %
Translation	55	26.2 %
Explicit correction	20	9.5 %
Repetition	10	4.8 %
Clarification request	4	1.9 %
Elicitation	2	0.9 %
Metalinguistic feedback	1	0.5 %
Total	210	100 %

Some sample episodes for each of these corrective feedback types from the present data are presented as follows.

Recasts:

The most employed corrective feedback type, recasting, with 118 turns (56.2%) in the present study "is an implicit corrective feedback move that reformulates or expands an ill-formed or incomplete utterance in an unobtrusive way"(Long, 1996).

Episode 1:

179. F?: I know I know but I missed my friend and I bıkmak ne demekti ?

180. F??: fed up

181. T:ne?

182. F? : I fed up you **[grammatical error]**

183. T: I am fed up with you he said that **[recast]**

184. F?: go go go away dedi beni kovdu sonra bende XX çıktım geldim [L1] (told me to go away and so did I)

For instance, as seen in Episode 1, turns 182-183 students make a grammatical error as "I fed up you". However, the teacher repeats the same utterance by correcting the ill-formed part of the student's utterance without explicitly indicating that a mistake is made.

Translation :

The second highest feedback move with 55 turns (26.2 %) is translation that follows after an unsolicited use of the native language by students (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Different from recasts, that are a response to an ill- formed utterance in L2, translation is a response to a well- formed utterance in L1.

Episode 2:

44.   MS?: and fall into the uh large X pot

45.   T:pot uhm

46.   MS?:and before he uh çıkarmak? [L1]

47.   T:take them out [Translation]

As seen in episode 2, the student starts his utterance in L2 but replaces the unknown vocabulary with L1 vocabulary meaning "take out". The teacher translates the unsolicited lexical item into L2.

Explicit corrections:

Explicit correction, which is another implicit corrective feedback type like recasts, reformulates or expands an ill-formed or incomplete utterance in an obtrusive way. The teacher signals the presence of an ill-formed item. Unlike recasts and translation, explicit feedback involves a clear indication to the student of an ill-formed utterance and also provides the correct form.

Episode 3 :

695.   M??: they try to believe in [lexical error] someone about X

696.   T:+/. Not believe <u>convince</u> can you say [Explicit correction]

In episode 3 the student makes a wrong word choice. The teacher puts an emphasis of the mistake by saying "Not believe" and corrects the misused lexical item as "convince".

Repetition :

Repetitions that occurred in 10 (4.8 %) instances in the whole study are mainly a repetition of the learner's ill-formed utterance. In addition to this they often indicate a rising intonation to signal that the student's utterance is ill-formed.

Episode 4 :

135.   T1:oh this is human being let me run away?((laugh))…(4sec) how would you feel if you see an alien for the first time? ((to a student))

136.   F?: overwhelm **[grammatical error]**

137.   T: overwhelm? **[Repetition]**

Episode 4 illustrates one of the form focused episodes that are give feedback through repetitions. The learner's utterance in turn 136 contains a grammatical error. The teacher's response is a repetition containing a rising intonation to signal that an error is made.

Clarification request :

Clarification request are only 4 times (1.9 %) employed by the instructors in the present study. A clarification request similar to repetition contains a question tone also. However they do not repeat the non target form. Instead they aim to elicit reformulation or repetition by seeking for clarification. Phrases used as a clarification request were *I'm sorry* or *I don't understand* which are typical of clarification requests. This type of feedback clearly seeks for self repair from the student as the teacher responds literally to what the student has said. The purpose of doing this is to provide the learner a clue that directs the learner to the nature of the error.

Episode 5 :

2333. T: yes number of people poisoned increased…X

2334. MS3: show increased poisoned themselves diil mi? **[**grammatical error**]**

2335. T: sorry? [**Clarification request]**

In episode 5 the student's utterance contains more than one grammatical error. The instructor responds to the student in line 2335 with a clarification request as *sorry?* That contains a rising intonation that seeks for clarification.

Elicitation:

Elicitations were only 2 times (0.9 %) employed by the instructors. Similar to clarification request they prompt the learner to self-correct. Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified three ways of eliciting. These are (a) when the teacher pauses and let's the learner complete the utterance, (b) when the instructor asks an open ended question and (c) when the teacher requests a reformulation of the ill-formed utterance.

Episode 6 :

1231. T: no certain reason [repetition] ok wha what other things can affect you you don't know the reason but there is you are in a bad mood but you don't know why

(00:58)

1232. MS3: psychology

1233. T: our psychology

1234. FS1: need something old friends

1235. T: we need something yes old friends old friends yes our family

1236. FS2: two face…two face [grammatical error]

1237. T: two…? [elicitation]

1238. FS2: two face

In episode 6 the learner's turn 1236 makes a grammatical error and finishes when the student misuses or doesn't remember a grammatical form. The instructor focus is on the ill-formed part and therefore employs an elicitation technique in turn 1237 by asking *two...?* to elicit the ill-formed or missing grammatical form from the student.

Metalinguistic feedback:

Metalinguistic feedback, the least employed corrective feedback type with only 1 turn (0.5 %) among the 210 corrective feedback attempts. A metalinguistic feedback according to Lyster & Ranta (1997) refers to the comments, information or questions that are related to the well formedness of the student's utterance by not providing the correct utterance.

Episode 7 :

3016. T:peki number five?

3017. Some:thanked [phonological error /tenkt/]

3018. T: thanked [/tenkt/] t sesi mi? (is it a /t/ sound?) [metalinguistic feedback]

Episode 7 contains a phonological error in line 3018 related to the /θ/ sound that is problematic to most Turkish students while learning English. The instructor repeats the ill-formed item and emphasizes that there has been an error made by saying here in L1 "is it a /t/ sound?" with a rising intonation. Metalinguistic feedbacks can be in a way of saying "no", "that's wrong" or "can you see your error?" that serve as metalinguistic comments and explicitly indicate that an error has been made without explicitly providing the correct utterance.

4.4 Research Question 2: What types of learner errors lead to what types of corrective feedback?

The second research question of the present study aimed to provide a picture of each of the different error types students made and their following distribution of the different types of corrective feedback provided for these errors.

4.4.1 Feedback distribution after Grammatical errors

Grammatical errors, which occurred most frequently in the present study, were treated as follows;

Table 5

Feedback type distribution after Grammatical error

Feedback type	Frequency	Percentage
Recast	41	85.4 %
Explicit correction	3	6.3 %
Clarification request	2	4.2 %
Repetition	1	2.1 %
Elicitation	1	2.1 %
Metalinguistic feedback	0	0 %
Translation	0	0 %
Total	48	100 %

As it can be seen in Table 5 and graphically in figure 3, the distribution of feedback turns provided by the teacher after the students grammatical error reveal that among the total 210 feedback turns of the teachers 48 were allocated to grammatical errors. Furthermore the forms of feedback that were preferred by the teachers after a grammatical error are as follows; 41 turns (85.2 %) as recast followed by 3 turns (6.3 %) by Explicit correction, 2 (4.2 %) by Clarification request, 1 (2.1%) by equal value for Repetition and Elicitation. Lastly with no turns as Metalinguistic feedback and Translation.
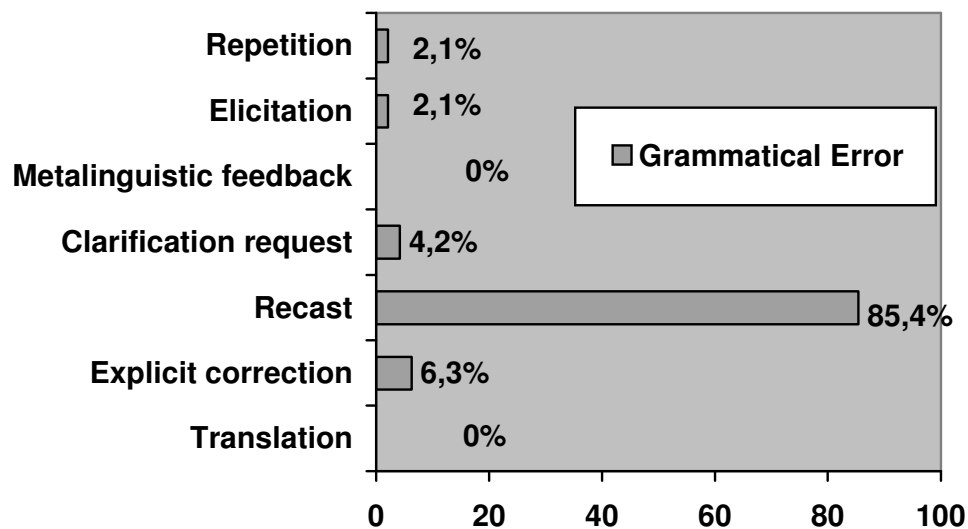
Figure 3. *Feedback type distribution after grammatical error*

To provide a clearer insight of these occurrences, an investigation of sample episodes containing grammatical errors that are followed by different corrective feedback types might be useful.

4.4.1.1 Recast after Grammatical error

Grammatical errors are the most occurring error type in this study (see table 1), with a number of 342 (40%) occurrences out of the total 856 (100%) errors. The instructors therefore encountered mostly grammatical errors in the interactions with their students. However, within the other error types, the tendency to correct a grammatical error was only 25% (see table 3) that is a total of 48 corrections (see table 5).

On the other hand, the most frequently used corrective feedback after a grammatical error was recast in 41 episodes (85.4 %) (see table 5). The number of corrections made is relatively high

when compared with other feedback moves. The amount of grammatical errors made by students though decreases the value of these corrective attempts. It might be interesting to see how recasts are employed after a grammatical error. As shown in episode 8, the teacher initiated dialogue starts with a general question in the speaking class. In line 3368, the student fails to use the correct grammatical item that is the auxiliary verb "is", but completes her sentence. The instructor in line 3369 repeats the previous sentence by sharing it with the whole class and corrects the ill- formed item in an unobtrusive way. Later in the same turn the instructor adds a further question to continue the conversation and directs it to another student.

This rather complex utterance made by the teacher is indeed loaded since it contains a form-focused message to be noticed by the previous student, but it is also conversational in which it continues the dialogue without breaking the communication. One misperception by the student might be that the instructor, without explicitly indicating that an error is made, might be perceived as to confirm the meaning of the previous student's utterance rather than linguistically be corrected.

Episode 8:

3365. T; ok so nur where would you like to go?

3366. FS; I would like to go to Istanbul+/.

3367. T; why?

3368. FS2: Because in space, moon or mars there no **[grammatical error]** shopping center therefore I want to go to istanbul

3369. T: Nur will got to istanbul or antalya because there is **[Recast]** a shopping center. Nazlı why will you go to Istanbul?

3370. FS3: of course my big love is in there **[grammar error]**

3371. T: hmm so your boyfriend is there **[recast]**

3372. FS3: no

4.4.1.2 Explicit correction after Grammatical error

Explicit corrections were employed only 3 times (6.3 %) by instructors after a grammatical error. This rate is lower in comparison to the use of explicit corrections after phonological and lexical errors. Explicit corrections, which might be one of the oldest and most traditional correction types, appear to be less favored in grammar correction within this study. One possible reason is that the data consists of a speaking- listening course with communicative orientation. Therefore the number of grammatical errors might be less preferred to be corrected by the instructors.

Different from recast, explicit correction also provides the correct form but emphasize that the learner has made an error. In line 2338 more than one grammatical error are made by the learner. The instructor provides the correct utterance with an alternative reformulation. This reformulation and the additional comments in L1 "gibi mesela" meaning "alternatively" indicate an explicit message that the learner's ill-formed utterance is corrected. The amount of such episodes however is low in their number due to the communication breakdown they might cause.

Episode 9:

2337.   T:<u>this study shows </u>(teacher prompts)

2338.   MS3:this study shows uhm increase poison themselves [grammatical error]

2339.   MS?:increasing

2340.   T:…the number of poisoning…uhm themselves increased in 1980 or in those years shows the study gibi mesela ok right e kapmışız bişeyler güzel? [explicit correction] Peki mental hospitals?

4.4.1.3 Clarification request after Grammatical error

Clarification requests are less employed feedback types in this study and were employed in 2 instances (4.2 %) after a grammatical error. Clarification requests do not repeat the non-target form or provide the correct utterance. Instead they aim to elicit reformulation or repetition by seeking for clarification. This type of feedback clearly seeks for self-repair from the student as the teacher responds literally to what the student has said. The purpose of doing this is to provide the learner a clue that directs the learner to the nature of the error.

Episode 5 :

2336. T: yes number of people poisoned increased…X

2337. MS3: show increased poisoned themselves diil mi? **[**grammatical error]

2338. T: sorry? [**Clarification request]**

In episode 5 the student's utterance contains more than one grammatical error. The instructor responds to the student in line 2335 with a clarification request as *sorry?* That contains a rising intonation that seeks for clarification.

4.4.1.4 Repetition after Grammatical error

Repetitions after a grammatical error took place only in 1 episode (2.1 %). It can be concluded that speaking teacher did not prefer repetitions after grammatical errors. In this type of feedback there is a repetition of the learners' ill-formed utterance. In addition to this they often indicate a rising intonation to signal that the student's utterance is ill formed.

Episode 4

135.   T1:oh this is human being let me run away?((laugh))…(4sec) how would you feel if you see an alien for the first time? ((to a student))

(11:31)

136.   F?: overwhelm [grammatical error]

137.   T: overwhelm? [repetition]

Episode 4 as stated earlier illustrates one of the form-focused episodes that give feedback through repetitions. The learner's utterance in turn 136 contain a grammatical error related to word formation. The teacher's response is a repetition containing a rising intonation to signal that an error is made.

4.4.1.5 Elicitation after Grammatical error

Similarly elicitations after a grammatical error took place only in 1 episode (2.1 %). It can be concluded that speaking teacher did not favor elicitations after grammatical errors either.

Episode 6 :

1231.   T: no certain reason [repetition] ok wha what other things can affect you you don't know the reason but there is you are in a bad mood but you don't know why

1232.   (00:58)

1233.   MS3: psychology

1234.   T: our psychology

1235.   FS1: need something old friends

1236.   T: we need something yes old friends old friends yes our family

1237.   FS2: two face…two face [grammatical error]

1238.   T: two…? [elicitation]

1239.   FS2: two face

As previously shown in episode 6 the learner's turn 1236 indicates a grammatical error and ends when the student misuses or doesn't remember the proper grammatical form. The instructor focus is on the ill-formed part and therefore employs an elicitation technique in turn 1237 by asking *two...?* to elicit the ill-formed or missing grammatical form from the student.

4.4.2 Feedback distribution after Phonological errors

Phonological errors, which are the second most occurring error type of the preset study, are corrected as follows;

Table 6

Feedback type distribution after Phonological error

Feedback type	Frequency	Percentage
Recast	47	73.4 %
Explicit correction	12	18.8 %
Repetition	2	3.1 %
Clarification request	2	3.1 %
Metalinguistic feedback	1	1.6 %
Elicitation	0	0 %
Translation	0	0 %
Total	64	100 %

In Table 6 the distribution of feedback turns provided by the teacher after the students

Phonological error reveal that among the total 210 feedback turns of the teachers 64 turns

were allocated to Phonological errors. More detailed, the forms of feedback that were

preferred by the teachers after a phonological error are 47 turns (73.4 %) as recast followed by

12 turns (18.8 %) by Explicit correction, 2 (3.1 %) by Repetition and also Clarification

request, 1 (1.6 %) by for Metalinguistic feedback and zero value for both Elicitation and

Translation. Here again, recast is favored as the most employed feedback move as graphically

presented in figure 3 and 4.
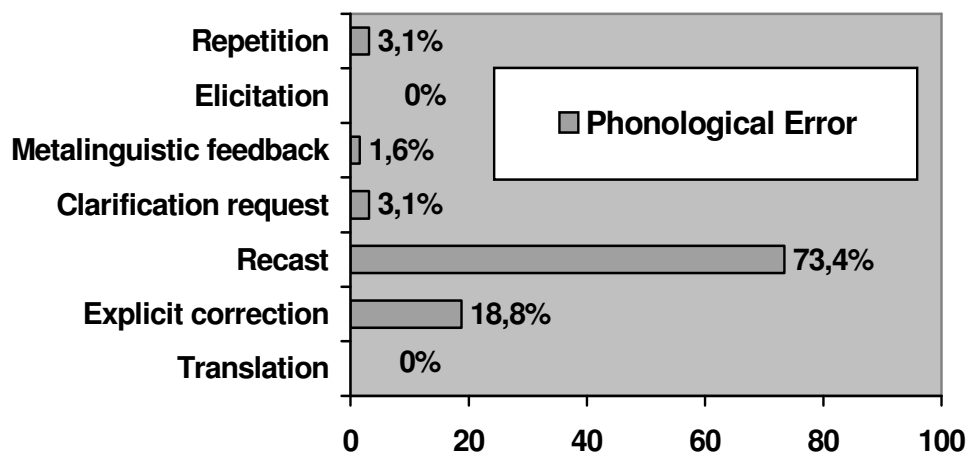
Figure 4. *Feedback type distribution after Phonological error*

To provide a clear picture of these occurrences, an investigation of sample episodes containing phonological errors which are followed by different corrective feedback types is provided as follows;

4.4.2.1 Recast after phonological error

Phonological errors are the third error occurring type in this study (see table 1), with a number of 195 (22.8%) occurrences out of the total 856 (100%) errors. However, within the other error types, the tendency to correct a phonological error was the second highest error type to be corrected with 32.5% that are 64 feedback moves to 195 phonological errors (see table 3). Therefore the willingness to correct phonological errors in speaking and listening classes is relatively higher than correcting grammatical or unsolicited uses of L1 by students in the present study (see table3).

Teachers mostly preferred to correct phonological errors with recasts in 47 (73.4%) instances (see table 6). The number of recast made after phonological errors is the highest compared to

other feedback moves. This might be because of the tendency of the teachers to immediately

correct mispronunciations of the students. In a total of 32.8% of all phonological errors (see

table 3), the instructors tended to correct these types of errors. As shown in the next episode

The teacher interferes the student's speech immediately after a phonological error in lines

3683-3684. The student later corrects her ill-formed utterance and continues to read the

extract from a written source. These types of recast following phonological errors are many.

The learner reads an extract from a written source and the teacher without hesitation interrupts

the student and corrects him/her. The teacher different from the following episode recast only

the ill-formed item in an isolated way.

Episode 10 :

3516. T; Yes a natural or

3517. FS?; artifikaler, artifical [phonological error - /ɑːrtɪfɪkəl/] ((laughs))

3518. T; artificial [recast]

3519. FS?; artificial body that travels around a planet such as the earth ((she laughs))

3520. T; Ok, so the moon … is … the earth's … satellite (6 scnds) gravity?

3683. FS1; Well, you may be surprised to know that the er (last) spends less than one percent

of its annual budget [phonological error - /bɑːgət/]

3684. T; budget [recast]

3685. FS1; budget on the space program. And besides, you have to consider the

technological and scien-ti-fic benefits of the space ex-plo-ration.

In the next episode learner the teacher provides a prompt to the student to speak. The learner

continues to speak about the given prompt, however mispronounces a word. The teacher in

line 1424 different from the previous episode restated the whole utterance of the learner by only correcting the ill- formed linguistic item(s) in an unobtrusive way.

Episode 11:

1422. T: ok the footprints are still there on the moon because

1423. Some: because no wind [phonological error - /weɪnd]

1424. T: because there is no wind [recast]

1425. MS??: there is no atmosfer [phonological error - /ʌtmɔːsfer/]

1426. T: no atmosphere [recast]

The difference between these two recasts is that they both are form focused but the later involves also a confirmation and communicates with the student whereas the first recast in line 3684 only provides the correct form such as overtly reminding that an error has been made.

4.4.2.2 Explicit correction after Phonological error

Explicit corrections after phonological errors are 18.8% (see table 6) as the second highest proportion after recasts. These 12 episodes of this type of feedback mostly occurred during the pronunciation check activities that the speaking and listening course book provided. As it can clearly be understood, the /th/ sound is practiced in the present episode by providing different examples to practice the same sound pattern. The pronunciation practice exercises might be one important reason why teachers employ explicit corrections after phonological errors. Since the focus is form in these exercises, the teacher might therefore not feel reluctant

while correcting a student's error. Moreover the instructor might feel the necessity to emphasize the incorrectness of an error to provide a model for other students as well.

Episode 12:

1752.   FS1: author [phonological error - /ʌʊtʊr/] rather[phonological error /rʌdər/

1753.   T: au<u>th</u> au<u>th</u>or au<u>th</u>or [recast] and rather dimi /rʌdər/ demiyoruz nothing other and

ahmet **[explicit] (we do say rather but not say /rʌdər/)**

1754.   MS1: hocam mouth mouth mouth mouth and father

1755.   T: and father güzel and Mustafa

(58:20)

1756.   MS2: both bre bred breath [phonological error - /bred/]

1757.   T: breath [recast] uh uh tamam both and breath ok bu böylede bunun fiil hali yani nefes almak ama tek başına breathe olursa o zaman [explicit correction]

4.4.2.3 Repetition after Phonological error

Only 2 episodes (3.1%) containing repetitions following phonological errors occurred in the data. It can be concluded that the instructors less favored repetitions in this study. The teacher repeats the learners mispronounced item in line 3269 with a change in his intonation.

Episode 13:

3268.   T; what do you want to learn about the space?

3269.   MS4; I want to live [phonological error /laɪf/] in space

3270. T; aha life in space [repetition] good eh then let me ask you another of my interesting

questions,.. eh, ok the outer space organisms are called (aliens) fist of all Sadık what does

Alien mean is it a good word or a bad word first of all?

In the next episode the teacher repeats the same ill-formed utterance in line 3286 and

continues to use the same ill-formed item when forming a question.

Episode 14:

3285. FS5, because they wonder [phonological error /wʌndər/]

3286. T; because they wander [repetition] ((laughs)) did they wander everything?

3287. FS5; yes

In both episodes the teacher might have enjoyed the student's ill-formed utterance and starts

to laugh in the later episode. The instructor might believe that this type of feedback does not

serve as effective as the previously stated feedback types and therefore favors it less.

4.4.2.4 Clarification request after Phonological error

Only in 2 (3.1%) occurrences were clarification requests employed after phonological errors.

This might reveal that the instructors less favor this corrective feedback type as well. In the

episode where a student made a phonological error in line 3921 the teacher might have found

this pronunciation incomprehensible and even might not have a guess what the student aimed

to say. Therefore the instructor without having any idea about the word might he directed a

clarification request to the student by saying "sorry?" to at least get a synonym or more comprehensible pronunciation. The student here might have understood the incomprehensibility of his own utterance and therefore chooses a synonym in line 3923 to clarify the meaning at least.

One reason of the low number of this feedback might be that the instructors do not tend to employ this type of feedback unless they are obliged to do so. The student's mispronunciation in this episode is so incomprehensible that the teacher had not the slightest idea what the student said. Therefore without having any clues and guesses the teacher had to ask for clarification as "sorry?".

Episode 15:

3917. T; Ok … er::: Bahar! One of my cuisines is an Elf.

((they laugh))

3918. Some; Elf…

3919. MS?; Elf?

3920. T; Elf …Elf ne?... Elf is Elf.

3921. FS2; Elf X … er:: ,…but it is unusual [phonological error -ʌnˈjuːəl/] .

3922. T; sorry?

3923. FS2; It is strange

3924. T; It is unbelievable … Ece! … Gökçe … was actually … a prince in her first life.

((they laugh))

4.4.2.5 Metalinguistic feedback after Phonological error

Only in 1 episode was a metalinguistic feedback provided and this followed after a phonological error. A metalinguistic feedback according to Lyster & Ranta (1997) refers to the comments, information or questions that are related to the well formedness of the student's utterance by not providing the correct utterance.

Episode 7 :

3016.   T:peki number five?

3017.   Some: thanked **[**phonological error /tenkt/]

3018.   T: thanked **[**/tenkt/] t sesi mi? (is it a /t/ sound?) [metalinguistic feedback]

In the previously stated Episode 7 there occurred a phonological error in line 3018 related to the /th/ sound that is problematic to most Turkish students while learning English. The instructor repeats the ill- formed item and emphasizes that there has been an error made by saying here in L1 "is it a /t/ sound?" with a rising intonation. Metalinguistic feedbacks can be in a way of saying "no", "that's wrong" or "can you see your error?" that serve as metalinguistic comments and explicitly indicate that an error has been made without explicitly providing the correct utterance.

This episode occurred during a pronunciation check activity. The /t/ sound is practiced in the present episode. The pronunciation practice exercises might be one reason why the instructor employed metalinguistic feedback after phonological errors. Since the focus is form in these exercises, the teacher might feel the necessity to emphasize the incorrectness of an error to provide a model for other students as well.

4.4.3 Feedback distribution after Lexical errors

Students' Lexical errors (see Table 7) are followed again mostly by Recast with 30 turns (69.8 %), followed with 7 turns (16.3 %) by Repetition, 5 turns (11.6 %) by Explicit correction, 1 (2.3 %) Elicitation, and without any Clarification request, Metalinguistic feedback and Translation attempts. Again here Recast is the highest applies feedback turn as shown in figure 5.

Table 7

Feedback type distribution after Lexical error

Feedback type	Frequency	Percentage
Recast	30	69.8 %
Repetition	7	16.3 %
Explicit correction	5	11.6 %
Elicitation	1	2.3 %
Clarification request	0	0 %
Metalinguistic feedback	0	0 %
Translation	0	0 %
Total	43	100 %
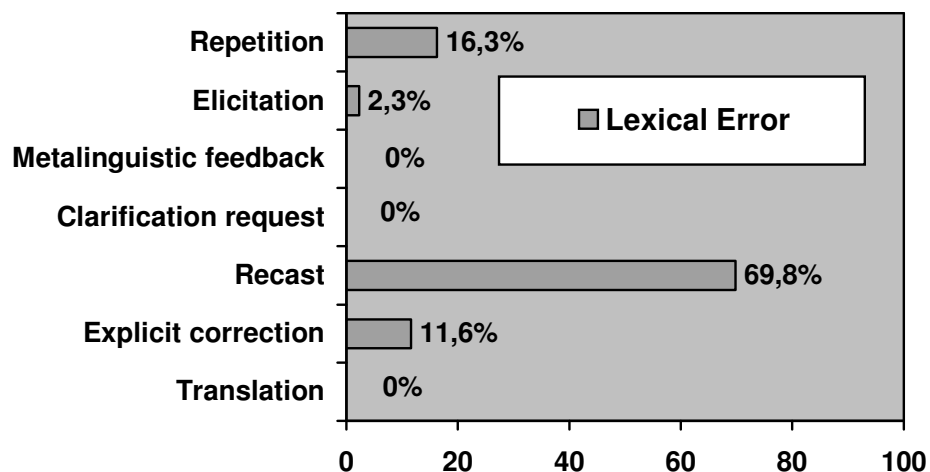
Figure 5. *Feedback type distribution after Lexical error*

4.4.3.1 Recast after lexical errors

Lexical errors, which occurred in the whole data for, only 99 times received the highest amount of feedback with 43 attempts that is a proportion of 43.4% (see table 3). This high number of feedbacks provided by the teacher might be related to the nature of the speaking and listening course. The speaking and listening course, which highly includes pronunciation and accuracy activities, has mostly received lexical feedback due to its communicative nature. Lexical accuracy especially in speaking classes is compulsory. Negotiation on form as well as meaning might be achieved in speaking classes via lexical accuracy.

Recasts received a proportion of 69.8% (N 30) among all the other feedback types. One typical lexical error correction of an ill-formed lexical item is as follows;

Episode 16:

3573.   T; Drugs, yes certain drugs are produced easier in space.

3574. FS?; search [lexical error]

3575. T; r̲esearch… [recast] what kind of research?

The teacher in line 3575 corrects the incorrect lexical item in line 3574. This is vital since the nature of the conversation directly depends on the accuracy of the meaning that is aimed to be conveyed. Therefore major lexical errors in conversations are immediately negotiated and repaired by the speakers.

4.4.3.2 Repetition after lexical errors

Repetitions occurred 7 times (16.3%) after lexical errors. The instructors employed this feedback type to promote the learner to correct his/her utterance. The learner has made in line 45 an interference of a lexical item from L1. The teacher therefore repeats the student's utterance with a rising intonation.

Episode 17:

44.   T: …as a shape you know it's like a ball there is no need to like it

45.   F?:Grand moon [lexical error]

46.   T:Grand moon? [Repetition]

47.   F?:değil mi ay dede ((they laugh))

48.   T:and these are some other pictures from full moon [recast] I don't know whether you can see or not…they are doing some exploration on the moon…ok related question what do you think about life in the on the other planets?

4.4.3.3 Explicit correction after lexical errors

Explicit correction after a lexical error was employed 5 times (11.6%). Like a recast the instructor corrects the student's error in line 759 by adding an emphasis on the wrong lexical item.

Episode 18:

757.   T: all right let's start with joshua's what did he say?full moon?…

758.   M?: protectable **[**lexical error] uh:::depression

759.   T: <u>unpredictable</u> it's not protectable right? [explicit correction] In a way what else can we say for this?

4.4.3.4 Elicitation after lexical errors

Elicitation request occurred only in 1 episode (2.3%) that seems to be less favored by the instructors. The student fails to remember the missing lexical item in line 487 and the teacher tries to elicit the accurate lexical item by prompting *"he was…?"*.

Episode 19:

487.   M?: two day **[**grammatical error] before **[lexical]** in the eskişehir **[grammatical error]** two day   before in eskişehir it snowed and for the break we went out after uh we started to play snowball while we were playing I found a X and I throw out throw out the snowball to who I don't know me **[grammatical error]** and he saw uh he was …uhm… me **[lexical error]**

488.   T: he was...? **[elicitation]**

489.   M?:far to me uzak

(06:10)

490.   T: far away from you [recast]

491.   M?:yes

4.4.4 Feedback distribution after use of L1

Since L1 is an unsolicited usage made by the learner this type of error received 55 turns of

Translation that corresponds to 100 % leaving naturally no space to other feedback moves.

Table 8

Feedback type distribution after L1

Feedback type	Frequency	Percentage
Translation	55	100 %

In addition to the results presented above it might be useful to highlight some results of this

study. The general distribution of error types and their following corrective feedback types

reveal the following findings:

❑ In general the least employed feedback types are those that function as stated by Lyster (2002) as 'negotiation of form'. These promoting feedback types are Repetition clarification request, metalinguistic feedback and Elicitation that count for a total of 8.2 % only.

❑ As a conclusion regarding the frequency of different corrective feedback after the errors it is obvious that Recast, Translation and Explicit correction are the highest employed corrective feedback types.

4.5. Discussion

The present study aimed to examine the corrective feedback patterns of error treatment in an EFL tertiary level context. In particular the analysis focused firstly on the frequency distribution of the different feedback types and later on the relationship between error type and feedback type.

The analysis of the seven different feedback types revealed that recast were the most frequently used type of feedback of a total of 56.2 % among all feedback types. These results are also similar with other studies made in observational studies like by Lyster (1998a, 1998b, and 2004), Panova & Lyster (2002), Lyster & Ranta (1997). The second most occurring feedback type is translation for 26.2% among the other feedback types. A third implicit corrective feedback type is explicit correction with 9.5 % which shows that the teachers employed mostly recast and translation as a corrective feedback tool for their learners without providing chances for self repair promoting corrective feedback types such as metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, elicitation, repetition that account more on 'focus on form' as previously stated by Lyster (2002).

The Role of Recasts:

The most employed corrective feedback type, recasting, with 118 turns (56.2%) in the present study "is an implicit corrective feedback move that reformulates or expands an ill-formed or incomplete utterance in an unobtrusive way"(Long, 1996). More than half of the total corrective feedback attempts were recasts therefore the most employed feedback type.

The reason why recasts are the most employed feedback type among all the others is that they can also serve as a confirmation of meaning rather than linguistic correction. This natural function of recast also exists in people's daily life; therefore, there might be such a high tendency to employ recasts during conversations.

For instance, as seen in Episode 1, turns 182-183 the student makes a grammatical error as "I fed up you". However, the teacher repeats the same utterance by correcting the ill-formed part of the student's utterance without explicitly indicating that a mistake is made.

Episode 1:

179. F?: I know I know but I missed my friend and I bıkmak ne demekti ?

180. F??: fed up

181. T:ne?

182. F? : I fed up you **[grammatical error]**

183. T: I am fed up with you he said that **[recast]**

184. F?: go go go away dedi beni kovdu sonra bende XX çıktım geldim [L1] (told me to go away and so did I)

In episode 1, it may appear to the student that the teacher is confirming the meaning in her utterance or clarifies the idea. In this case the student might consider this recast as a confirmation to the meaning i.e. content rather than linguistic correction. Therefore in line 184 the student continues to send the message across rather than noticing the error made.

Many episodes carrying recast as a feedback move might be perceived as a confirmation check rather than functioning as a linguistic correction by the students.

One of the reasons of employing this type of feedback might lie in the ambiguity it contains. As stated earlier recasts serve as a corrective feedback type that focuses on form accuracy in an unobtrusive manner. However recast might also be used as confirmation fillers focusing on meaning within communicative interactions of the speakers. The instructors on one hand consciously or unconsciously employ recasts as either a conversational confirmation on meaning or as a linguistic correction.

Episode 8:

3365. T; ok so nur where would you like to go?

3366. FS; I would like to go to Istanbul+/.

3367. T; why?

3368. FS2: Because in space, moon or mars there no **[grammatical error]** shopping center therefore I want to go to istanbul

3369. T: Nur will got to istanbul or antalya because there is **[Recast]** a shopping center. Nazlı why will you go to Istanbul?

3370. FS3: of course my big love is in there **[grammar error]**

3371. T: hmm so your boyfriend is there **[recast]**

3372. FS3: no

In episode 8 the instructor starts a conversation with a student and continues the dialogue with requests on form. Here the teacher corrects the student when only an error is made however the style of correction different from other recast episodes is not isolated into an isolated phrase. For example, the instructor could correct the learner also after line 3368 as "there is no shopping center" only, and could make the learner more aware of her present error. Instead, in line 3369, the teacher corrects the error in a new conversational phrase that keeps the flow of the conversation. The flow of the episode therefore seems more communicative.

A substantial aspect regarding the ambiguity of recasts is in the perceptions of the students. The students in episode 8 continue the teacher-initiated conversation without noticing the ill formedness of their own utterance. This appears to be obvious that the students do not notice their ill-formed utterances and continue to talk.

Negotiation on form promoters

Another finding of the study revealed that grammatical errors were never followed by a Metalinguistic feedback. Also Phonological errors weren't followed by Elicitation feedback as well as Lexical error that were neither followed by a clarification request nor metalinguistic feedback among all teacher- student interactions. The teachers in the present study, rarely or never used metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition and clarification request also known as 'negotiation on form' promoters. These corrective feedback types promote the students to repair their own ill-formed utterance different from the implicit error correction types, which are recasts, translation and explicit corrections. These types of corrective feedback supply the student the proper utterance, however the other feedback types promote the student to notice, discover, process and repair his /her own linguistic error (Lyster, 1998).

There might be a few reasons of the low tendency towards the use of these corrective feedback types. The first reason might be that they are not consciously employed by the instructors. That is the instructors who highly made use of recasts and explicit corrections may not be aware of the different functions of these two different groups of corrective feedbacks. Therefore, they might be unaware of the facilitative role of these less used feedback types.

A substantial reason could be that the teachers also do not find metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition and clarification requests as practical as the other feedback types. The reason for this preference might be that the teachers find recasts and explicit corrections more effective since they provide the learners the accurate form immediately without causing too much confusion in their learners. The less effort consuming and less complex feedback types might be therefore preferred by the teachers.

As a result, regarding the low number of metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition and clarification requests might be the nature of the course. The speaking and listening course is not like a typical grammar course in which accuracy is the main focus. Since the focus of the course is to promote communicative classes, meaning and fluency are the main concerns of this course. Therefore most of the erroneous turns did not receive any kind of feedback. Only one-fourth of all errors received corrective feedback including recasts, translation and explicit corrections. This might be due to the nature of speaking & Listening classes that they are less tended to be corrected in contrast to grammar classes which orientation are on form. In a similar study at AUSFL, Eskişehir, Turkey Şahin (2006) investigated the correlation between teacher's use of corrective feedback and uptake based on the same model by Lyster & Ranta

(1997) in which he has found the following results. Different from the present study Şahin's study (2006) however was conducted in grammar classes at the same level. In his general findings he revealed the general distribution of teachers' use of corrective feedback after student' errors (see table 9).

Table 9

Şahin's General feedback distribution in grammar classes

Recasts	35.78%
Elicitation	24.21%
Metalinguistic feedback	22.1%
Clarification requests	11.05%
Explicit corrections	5.26%
Repetition	1.57%

As it can be seen in table 9, according to Şahin's findings (p.52, 2006), teachers tended to employ Recasts by (35.78%), Elicitation by (24.21%), metalinguistic feedback by (22.1%), clarification requests by (11.05%), explicit corrections by (5.26%) and repetition by (1.57%). These highly controversial results in relation with the present study, show that the type of the skill taught might affect the types of corrective feedback that teachers tended to employ. Since grammar courses try to elicit the accurate form of a linguistic item, teachers generally employ different corrective feedback types to elicit the accurate form from the students. Similar to the present study, recasts are still the most favored feedback type also in grammar classes (Şahin, 2006) that promote the students to form the proper linguistic utterance. However different

from speaking& listening classes grammar classes favored the following corrective feedback types after recasts. These different corrective feedback types were elicitations, metalinguistic feedbacks, clarification requests and less employed explicit corrections and repetitions. Interestingly, 'negotiation on form' facilitators like elicitations, metalinguistic feedbacks, and clarification requests were tended to be employed more frequent after recasts in grammar classes. This quite controversial tendency of employment of corrective feedback by the grammar skill's teachers in Şahin's study (2006) might be due to the type of skill taught. Whereas the speaking classes in the present study least favored these corrective feedback types, teachers employed more translations (26.2%) and explicit correction (9.5%) after recasts (56.2%) (see table 4). In addition metalinguistic feedback that was favored for 22.1% in Şahin's grammar classes (2006) were employed for only 0.5% with in the present study. Similarly, Elicitations that were employed by 24.21% in grammar classes, were favored for only 0.9% in speaking classes. Consequently, grammar and speaking classes differed from each other in terms of teachers' employment of different corrective feedback types except for recasts.

Şahin describes the use of the more frequent corrective feedback types as follows;
Recasts in his study allowed the teacher "to provide feedback without interrupting the flow" by continuing the conversation (Şahin, 2006, p.85). Similarly to the present study, recasts seem to have a similar function in which the teacher favors recasts during most error corrections by maintaining the conversational flow with their students. Elicitations as well as clarification request and metalinguistic feedback were also highly employed by the teachers in Şahin's study (2006). These types of corrective feedback account for 57.36% of the total feedbacks in Şahin's study with grammar course students (p.85). These feedback types function as 'negotiation on form' facilitators by aiming to elicit the accurate utterance in other

words 'uptake' without providing the correct linguistic utterance. The frequent use of these types of corrective feedback according to Şahin (2006), is that the "teachers already have in mind what the learners' answers should be" and know that the communication flow was interrupted (Şahin, 2006, p.85). Different from Şahin's study, in the present study these feedback moves appeared the least. This might be because speaking& listening instructors, different from grammar instructors, have a less structured classroom setting with less Grammar oriented exercises. That is to say that in grammar classes' learners are expected to form linguistically accurate sentences by practicing these structures within the textbook, black board and notebooks by writing it constantly. Since the focus is form oriented, the teacher knows what to expect and the student therefore knows that he is expected to form accurate sentences. This mutual expectation leads the teacher to employ these feedback types since the instructor knows what he expects (Şahin, 2006, pp.85-86). In contrast the orientation of speaking classes is divergent. Teachers and students are expected at AUSFL to create a communicate classroom atmosphere. This is a setting that favors fluency within communicative activities. Therefore the orientation on form is a secondary concern of speaking classes. In respect to this orientation speaking classes favor fluency in which negotiation of meaning is aimed to be established. Consequently, it can concluded that the low tendency of employing 'negotiation on form' types of corrective feedbacks - elicitations, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback and repetitions - in the present study might because of the different orientation of speaking classes.

It is evident in the present study that teachers provided corrective feedback on 24.5% of the students' turns with errors. It is also evident that the proportion at which each error type received corrective feedback (see Table 3) are 43.4% of lexical errors, 32,8 % of phonological errors, 25% of uses of L1, and only 14 % of grammatical errors. According to the findings

stated in Table3, teachers tended to give nearly one feedback to every second lexical error with 43.4%. A bit more less amount of feedback was given to Phonological errors with 1 feedback in 3 errors with 32.8 %. And every fourth unsolicited L1 use received 1 Translation feedback by the teacher. However the least feedback receiving errors were grammatical with only 1 feedback moves in 7 occurrences which are 14%. Interestingly this error type was also the most occurring error type among all the others with 342 erroneous occasions.

In the present analysis, the issue of when these certain error types were tended to be given feedback was not addressed. A closer look to the different error types with sample episodes and explanations might provide a clearer picture regarding this issue.

Frequent correction of Lexical errors:

The least occurred error type were lexically ill-formed utterances in the present study. They occurred for 99 times; however, received the highest amount of corrective feedback according to their number. Lexical errors were corrected for 43.4% that is nearly one correction in every second error. Therefore it is likely that there might be a tendency of the instructors for employing corrective feedback the most for lexical errors. One reason for the frequency of such occasions might be the type of the skill that is taught in the present study. As stated earlier the speaking and listening course at AUSFL like many speaking and listening courses are fluency oriented. Communicative classrooms that favor fluency and try to establish meaning are an inevitable part of speaking classes. The speaking/Listening course goal & objectives, and the accordingly chosen course material at AUSFL favor communicative language learning; therefore, the instructors that participated in this study might have a tendency to focus on the meaning that is aimed to be conveyed. Meaning that is the primary

focus in conversations is obtained through lexical accuracy. Hence lexical errors made by the student highly affect the meaning; consequently, the teacher who has to assure the accuracy of the meaning tends to correct lexical errors more. A meaningful interaction can only be achieved through lexical accuracy. Even a Warm-Up interaction between the instructor and student(s) require lexical accuracy, which is a necessity for meaningful interaction. The following episode is taken from a Warm-Up excerpt.

Episode 20:

273.   T: ask this question I asked you to think about it are you ready? Would you like to say something for us?

274.   M1: I I will go to communicate a week for our then so uh:: I can I I can spend ni::vs ni:::vs on them uh:::…..ni:::vs on them uh I sp I spend **[lexical error]** S-O-S uh:::

275.   T: I spend SOS? **[repetition]**

In episode 20 the instructor asks a question to the student, however the student's response contains multiple errors. The instructor repeats the incomprehensible lexical item that might is the key expression to understand the meaning of the whole message. In episode 17 is another episode from a warm-up excerpt.

Episode 17:

(03:05)

44. T: …as a shape you know it's like a ball there is no need to like it

45. F?:Grand moon **[lexical error]**

46. T:Grand moon? **[Repetition]**

47. F?:değil mi ay dede ((they laugh))

48. T:and these are some other pictures from full moon [recast] I don't know whether you can see or not…they are doing some exploration on the moon…ok related question what do you think about life in the on the other planets?

The instructor in episode 17 introduces the new topic about planets and moon and its effect. In the third minute the student makes a lexical interference from her native language and the teacher repeats the error to the existence of a lexical error.

Episodes that were lexically not corrected might derive from the reason that the instructor didn't notice the degree of the ill formdness of the lexical item or might have not found the lexical error severe enough as long as the meaning is conveyed. As seen in episode 21, the instructor does not correct the student's lexical error.

Episode 21:

355.   T: ok now ilhan said that I know what we are going to do ok ilhan please tell us what we're gonna do?

(01:00:39)

356.   MS1: in turkish?

357.   T: in Turkish in latin in America yes ((they laugh))

358.   MS1: I think we will say **[lexical error]** a story or

359.   T: yes

360.   MS1: XX

361.   T: ok

The correct lexical word had to be "tell" instead of "say" in line 358. The instructor here does not correct the student. The reason might be two-fold: the teacher does not recognize the error since the meaning is still clear, or the teacher does not want to interfere the student's speech since the error is not severe and could result in unsolicited conversational breakdown.

Phonological errors:

The second lowest occurred error type was phonological errors. They occurred for 195 times, conversely received the second highest amount of corrective feedback according to their number of occurrences. Phonological errors were corrected for 32.8% that is nearly one-third error correction. One reason for the frequency of such occasions might be the type of the skill that is taught in the present study. As stated earlier the speaking and listening course at AUSFL like many speaking and listening courses are fluency oriented. Communicative classrooms that favor fluency try to establish phonological accuracy as an inevitable part of speaking classes. The speaking/Listening course goal & objectives, and the accordingly chosen course material at AUSFL contain phonological exercises. Therefore, the instruction contains mechanical exercises to practice some common patterns of the English sound system.

As a result, the teacher whose duty is to assure phonological accuracy tends to correct phonological errors as well. The following episode is taken from a phonological practice exercise excerpt.

Episode 12:

1752. FS!: author [phonological error - /ʌʊtʊr/] rather **[phonological error /rʌdər/]**

1753. T: au<u>th</u> au<u>th</u>or au<u>th</u>or [recast] and rather dimi /rʌdər/ demiyoruz nothing other and

ahmet [explicit] (we do say rather but not say /rʌdər/)

1754. MS!: hocam mouth mouth mouth mouth and father

1755. T: and father güzel and Mustafa

1756. (58:20)

1757. MS2: both bre bred breath **[phonological error - /bred/]**

1758. T: breath [recast] uh uh tamam both and breath ok bu böylede bunun fiil hali yani

nefes almak ama tek başına breathe olursa o zaman [explicit correction]

As it can clearly be understood, the /θ/ sound is practiced in the present episode by providing different examples to practice the same sound pattern. The pronunciation practice exercises might be one important reason why teachers employ explicit corrections after phonological errors. Since the focus is on form in these exercises, the teacher might therefore not feel reluctant while correcting a student's error. Moreover the instructor might feel the necessity to emphasize the incorrectness of an error to provide a model for other students as well.

Another concern of why phonological errors are tended to be corrected by instructors in the present study, might be phonologically incomprehensible utterances by students. Phonologically incomprehensible utterances cause not only an irrelevant or esthetically unpleasant perception but they also are not intelligible for the hearer. The instructors who might noticed such gross errors, could not recognize the meaning also. Such ill-formed utterances do affect meaning and the speaker fails to be understood. In the next episode, an excerpt regarding such phonological error and the following corrective feedback can be seen.

Episode 15:

3917. T; Ok … er::: Bahar! One of my cuisines is an Elf.

3918. ((they laugh))

3919. Some; Elf…

3920. MS?; Elf?

3921. T; Elf …Elf ne?... Elf is Elf.

3922. FS2; Elf X … er::   ,…but it is unusual **[phonological error -ʌnˈjuːəl/] .**

3923. T; sorry? **[clarification request]**

3924. FS2; It is strange

3925. T; It is unbelievable … Ece! … Gökçe … was actually … a prince in her first life.

3926. ((they laugh))

In the episode where a student made a phonological error in line 3921 the teacher might have found this pronunciation incomprehensible and even might not have a guess what the student aimed to say. Therefore the instructor without having any idea about the word might be, he directed a clarification request to the student by saying "sorry?" to at least get a synonym or

more comprehensible pronunciation. The student here might have understood the incomprehensibility of his own utterance and therefore chooses a synonym in line 3923 to clarify the meaning at least.

In contrast why instructors did not employ corrective feedback after phonological errors, might be in the tendency of the instructors that they are less willing to correct or recognize phonological errors. The amount of phonological errors that did not receive feedback was found 69.5%. This percentage reveals that teachers are less correcting phonological errors than they do lexical errors. Although phonological exercises are presented in the course book the teachers might not re-emphasize the previously taught sound pattern in the following activities. Another reason why some phonological errors are not corrected might be some common problematic sound patterns for Turkish students learning English as a foreign language. One of these sounds were the /ɵ/ and /ð / sound. The teacher practices this activity in the chapter presented, however does not emphasize the same sound to be corrected in the new activities. The causes of this tendency might be two fold. First, the teacher himself has the same phonological problem while producing the /ɵ/ and /ð / sounds and therefore is incapable to produce this sound constantly properly. The second reason might be that the teacher is unwilling to correct this sound pattern since he/ she believes that the students soon or later will mispronounce the /ɵ/ and /ð / sounds again. A sample episode is presented below:

Episode 22:

16.   M1: uh I could see my brother [phonological error /brɑːdəʳ/] and uh I could I could oversleep in my X uh I ate good meal uh yes

17.   T:meals your mother cooked?

18.   M1:no my brother cooked [phonological error /brɑːdəʳ/]

19.   T:yes so that's why you call it good meal?

20.   M1:yes

Unsolicited use of L1:

The unsolicited use of L1 is the second highest occurring error type in the present study. The amount of feedback to L1 is nearly 25%. That is, 220 unsolicited uses of L1 turns received only 55 translation feedbacks by their teachers. This resembles that 75% of all L1 uses didn't receive translation feedback

The setting in which the present study takes place is AUSFL, Eskişehir - Turkey. In this EFL context all the participants, students and teachers, native language is Turkish. The medium of instruction carried out at AUSFL is English. However, it is possible that in EFL settings there might be occasions where learners and sometimes teachers switch to L1.

There might be several reasons that might lead the students to use L1. One of the reasons might be that both learner and teacher participants who are non-native speakers of English might be the reason of a continuous L1-Translation interaction. That is, learners might found it easier to switch to Turkish when they found it difficult to speak in English with their teachers. Furthermore, this ongoing L1 use and Translation sequences might later become unnoticed by the learners as a corrective feedback. As a result the learners may not have viewed translation as a corrective move from the teacher. Lyster (1998a) reports in his study that the teacher and student participants' showed "high tolerance for uses of L1 and low

expectation that they should be repaired" (p.205). The use of L1 by the students becomes so natural that the teacher translating these unsolicited uses of L1 is likely to be perceived as having the role of a translator. In addition translations might not always be perceived as a corrective feedback type but can also be even perceived as a confirmation check during a conversational routine like recasts. In episode 23 both the teacher and the students speak in L1 while teaching new target language vocabulary. This excerpt continues even further in L1. Although the target language could easily be used, the teacher seems not to prefer the target language and so the students.

Episode 23:

(21:21)

1455. T: colony ne?

1456. Some: exploration

1457. FS?: explonation

1458. Some: explotation

1459. T: explotation uhm for colony uhm:::yes o açıdan düşünürsek öyle

1460. MS3: şey de var oraya giden orda yaşamaya çalışan insanlar

1461. T: evet peki burdaki definitionlardan hangsi koloniyi açıklıyo?

1462. FS?:a

1463. MS?:a

1464. T: a mi?

1465. A few: a

1466. T: ((teacher reads the explanation)) a settlement that people build in a new land or territory…territory?

1467. Some: yer bölge

1468. T: uhm area anlamına geliyo bölge uhm what about solar?

1469. Some: güneş

1470. Some: güneş ışığı

1471. T: güneş ışığı

1472. MS3: güneş enerjisi

1473. MS10: güneşle ilgili herşey

1474. T: güneş ile ilgli olan her şey

1475. MS9: related to sun dedim hocam

1476. T: related to sun dedin XX yerlerde syledin ya duymadık all right…

(22:19)

A limitation of this study regarding L1 use were conversations excerpts including informal talks in L1 or out of course content chats in L1 which were excluded from the present data since the focus of this study was on teachers and students classroom interactions during the actual teaching and learning sessions.

Least corrected Grammatical errors:

The most occurring error type was grammatically ill-formed utterances in the present study. They occurred for 342 times, however received the lowest amount of corrective feedback according to their number. Grammatical errors were corrected for 48 times (14%) (see table 3) that is nearly one correction in every 7th error. Therefore it is likely that there might be a tendency of the instructors for not preferring corrective feedback after grammatical errors. One reason for the low frequency of such occasions might be the type of the skill that is

taught in the present study. As stated earlier the speaking and listening course at AUSFL like many speaking and listening courses are communicatively oriented. Communicative classrooms that favor fluency might tolerate grammatically ill-formed utterances unless they do not obstruct the meaning. The instructors at AUSFL that participated in this study might have a tendency to focus on the meaning rather than form. Since the nature of speaking and listening courses requires communicative language teaching, fluency is the primary goal of such classrooms. In other words since all participant teachers had a pedagogical background towards language teaching and learning, the tendency of not correcting grammatical errors in communicative classrooms might be a reason of not correcting such errors as much as they did with the other error types.

In addition the frequent amount of grammatical errors outweighs the other error types as it can be seen in table 1. The number of grammatical errors (342) is counts for 40 % among the other error types. This certainty might lead to some different attitudes towards grammatical error correction within the classroom. As it can be seen in the following episode the instances of grammatical errors within one student turn are so frequent that an immediate feedback to this type of errors is hard to handle. Only 9 grammatical errors are occurring in turn 4083, without the other types of errors made in this turn. The instructor might possibly find an immediate error correction irrelevant since this could interfere the student's utterance. Besides providing grammatical feedback seems also highly difficult since the amount of errors makes such errors difficult to remember and the correction incomprehensible and difficult to be noticed by the student.

Episode 24:

(33:08)

4083.   T; ((he smiles)) Yes who is the next person? ((a MS raises his hand))… Yes Ufuk,

Uğur … from the stage.

4084.   Ufuk; Er:: two years ago me and er:: I and my friends, er::: we **[grammatical error]**

had a big match, football match… er::. And … it was a big competition … because er our

opposite **[lexical error]** team is **[grammatical error]** very hard. Er::: We must **[grammatical**

error] play good through… the match… Er:: my friends one of my friends make

[grammatical error] a hards faul **[lexical error]** to me. It was a hard X from behind … er::: I

was laying **[phonological error -/leɪɪŋk/]** down on the ground … and the referee shows

[grammatical error] red card, …er after the second yellow. I was very happy to er::: … I

was a **[grammatical error]** very happy for red card … cause they::: they were ten player

[grammatical error]… but I felt **[lexical error]** a terrible (back)ache **[lexical error]** … into

[grammatical error] my Arm … then I understand **[grammar error]** that the arm was

broken.

4085.   T; Hm:::

4086.   MS2; Then I went to hospital.

(34:47)

T; Yes, do you think … ((The teacher writes the student's name on the board)) Uğur … broke

his arm at a match?

Error corrections after such erroneous student turns have to be made relevantly since

immediate correction can be more harmful than facilitative in such cases. One reason why

teachers might have not corrected such episodes could be a similar concern.

There are also other variables that possibly hold back the instructors to correct grammatical errors. One of these could be the severity of the grammatical error that is made. That is to say, the grammar errors were so minor that the teachers either did not notice or didn't feel to correct these errors, since they were minor errors and didn't affect the meaning, which is the primary concern in speaking classes. Two of these episodes are as follows:

Episode 25:

411.   Süleyman: believe it or not while I was driving up to the hill as soon as I passed it I flew for [grammatical error] short time and

412.   T: flew?

In this episode the student forgets to use the article "a" in line 411. However the teacher either does not recognize or might find this error as a minor mistake and therefore does not correct it. Similarly the next episode contains a similar error where a few different inaccurate items can be found however the article "a" that is misused in "there may be a life" instead of "there may be life" in line 62 is not corrected either due to the same reasons.

Episode 26:

62.   Hande: the scien.. the scientists have found a new planet they X there may be a life [grammatical error]

63.   T:what's the name of the planet?

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.1. Introduction

The changing pedagogy in English language learning, which derives from diversity in research goals and projects, and different hypotheses and approaches, has also greatly influenced general teaching pedagogy as well. The new methodologies developed each proposing new and more efficient paths to language–learning, generally aim at making language learning more humanistic and more effective. Some were concerned with 'negotiation of meaning' rather than form, and 'sending the message across' was believed by many to be the main focus. Form-focused language teaching, as well as error correction, became less favored as the years went by. Years later, however, research done in ESL settings, mostly immersion schools, pointed to the declining number of accurate utterances by students and highlighted the importance of providing corrective feedback as a crucial element for students to notice erroneous forms in their output. (Lyster & Ranta 1997, Doughty & Varela 1996, White & Spada 1991). Indeed, with respect to 'negotiation of meaning', Braidi (1995) argued that although 'negotiation of meaning' "facilitates comprehension there is still little direct evidence that the negotiation of meaning affects second language development" (cited in Lyster 2002). Negotiation of meaning has primarily a conversational function, which aims "to work toward mutual comprehension" (Pica et al. 1989, p. 65 cited in Lyster 2002), but for that reason "teachers and students are able to negotiate meaning, with little or no linguistic knowledge in common, by drawing on higher order processes involving background and situational knowledge" (Kleifgen & Saville-Troike 1992 cited in Lyster 2002). Swain (1985) argued that "mutual comprehension can easily be achieved despite grammatically inaccurate forms and that teachers, therefore, in order to benefit their students' interlanguage

development, need to incorporate ways of pushing their students to produce language that is not only comprehensible but also accurate"(cited in Lyster 2002).

Similar concerns leading to the present study revealed the existence of similar problems at Anadolu University's School of Foreign Languages. The researcher's personal observation within his speaking classes and oral achievement and proficiency examinations made him think that learners in this EFL (English as a Foreign Language) setting failed to use grammatically, lexically and phonologically accurate utterances.

5.2. Summary of the Study

The present study aimed to explore the different oral corrective feedback types that teachers employed in speaking classes at EFL tertiary level education based on the discourse model by Lyster & Ranta (1997). Therefore, the distribution and frequency of these form-focused feedback types were analyzed through in-class video recordings and later transcriptions made from the recordings. The data was analyzed and categorized in terms of error types and following corrective feedback types. A subsequent research purpose was to explore the different form based error types. Therefore, a second data analysis was conducted to find out the distribution of these verbal error types. In addition, the study aimed to investigate the relationship of these form-focused feedback types to the student verbal errors that preceded them.

The study was conducted at Anadolu University, School of foreign Languages, English Preparatory Program. Three Intermediate level speaking classes, all taught by different teachers, were videotaped for a one week period consisting of four two-hour session classes,

leading to a total of eight hours of video recordings per class. The total amount of lessons videotaped and later transcribed in the present database accounts for 24 class hours that is equal to 1080 minutes.

Later in the data analysis process, the error types were categorized as ill-formed occurrences of English as the target language under the sub-headings of Grammatical, Phonological and Lexical errors based on the coding scheme proposed by Lyster & Ranta (1997). Another coding procedure was adopted to explore teachers' different uses of corrective feedback types following each student error; this was based on the same model by Lyster & Ranta (1997) and that of Panova & Lyster (2002), who made minor changes to the coding scheme by adding minor changes such as a Translation sequence after student L1 use.

After categorizing and analyzing the entire data, statistical evaluation took place. The frequency distribution of error types was calculated by a statistician, as was the frequency distribution of corrective feedback types used by the teachers. Later, the results were compared and the statistician and the researcher statistically analyzed the frequency distribution and relationship of the two different variables.

Regarding the results of the present study, the first research question aimed to reveal what types of corrective feedback teachers tended to employ with their distribution in speaking classes. The present study revealed similar findings with those of previous observational studies, such as Lyster (ibid). Recast was found to be the favorite method of feedback employed most by the teachers in almost all error corrections of a total of 118 turns with 56.2% among the other feedback types. Translation, which occurred as the second most used corrective feedback type, was employed 55 times, with 26.2% among all the others and

Explicit correction with 20 turns was 9.5% favored by the teachers. These three most frequently employed corrective types also known as implicit corrections are resulting in 'negotiation of meaning'. That is, they correct the student erroneous utterance in either an obtrusive or in an unobtrusive manner by providing the accurate linguistic item or form that the student failed to use. Since they provide the accurate linguistic item the teacher and student interaction is not obstructed and the meaning of the discourse is made clear. These types of corrective feedbacks were employed the most by the teachers in the present study. Remarkably, recasts, translations along with explicit corrections account for 91.9 % of the total feedback turns.

Recasts which are the most frequent employed corrective feedback type with 118 turns (56.2%) in the present study are also employed in a large series of other classroom settings which are elementary immersion classrooms (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), tertiary level foreign language classrooms (Doughty, 1994), high school EFL classrooms and adult ESL classrooms (Panova & Lyster, 2002). The frequent tendency of instructors to employ this type of feedback has different underpinning grounds. Recasts as defined earlier are implicit corrective feedback moves that reformulate or expand an ill-formed or incomplete utterance in an unobtrusive way. Recasts without interrupting the flow of communication that furthers conversations result often in the negotiation of meaning. The frequent use of recasts in the present study may be due to the nature of the skills course that is the speaking and listening classes. The communicatively designed course book that also consists of fluency activities promotes a communicative interaction between the speakers. Therefore both students and teachers interaction during these classes might lead the teachers to employ this highly preferred feedback type. Recasts occurred in this study might be perceived as conversational confirmations by the students since they are ambiguous and can e easily misinterpreted. They

even can be unnoticed due to the vague function they posses. As stated by Lyster (1998) within L2 classrooms, many recasts can be ambiguous and therefore do not help learners to notice their mistakes or perceived even as signs of approval. Recasts also do not lead to any uptake i.e. self-repair, in case when there is a repair, the learner might only repeat the teacher's reformulation.

The unsolicited use of L1 by students (220 errors) was followed by translation (55 translation feedback) made by the teacher, and happened to occur in a wide range of occurrences. Translation feedback that accounts for 25% in the present study could be unnoticed or not perceived by the students as corrective attempts. This might be because of the teacher variables that are not investigated in this study. However it is likely that tolerance towards the use of L1 by both the student and teachers during classroom interactions might cause that translations become unnoticed and not interpreted as corrective feedbacks by the students.

The less favored corrective feedback types were the negotiation of form feedback types, as defined by Lyster (ibid). This result is similar to other observational studies made in the field; however, in this study the rate of 'negotiation of forms' that could lead to self repair was remarkably low. These corrective feedback types were Repetitions, with 10 turns (4.8 %), Clarification requests, with 4 (1.9 %), Elicitations, with 2 (0.9 %) and Metalinguistic feedback, with 1 (0.5%) time favored that account for 8.1 % of the total feedback turns.

These 'Negotiation of form' promoting corrective feedback types such as repetitions, clarification requests, elicitations and metalinguistic feedback prompt students to self-repair their inaccurate linguistic item, since they do not provide the accurate linguistic item that the student fails to make, but they elicit the accurate utterance with these types of feedbacks that

prompt students' self repair. Lyster (1998) states that these prompts result in student-generated repair since, different than recasts, they withhold correct forms and provide clues instead, and lead students to retrieve correct forms on their own (i.e. self-repair). Furthermore, studies that compared recasts with prompts in different classroom environments reveal that prompts are more effective than recasts (Havranek & Cesnik, 2001; Ammar, 2003; Lyster, 2004).

Although the facilitative role of such feedback is far more outstanding, it is interesting why they are tended to be employed so limited by the instructors of the present students. One possible reason for this might be that the instructors are not aware of the role of such corrective feedback types. Another reason might be those teachers are not willing to make use of these feedback types. This preference could be twofold: teachers either find these prompting feedback types not relevant for the pedagogical purpose of speaking classes or they find such feedbacks not practical since they lead the students to elicit the accurate linguistic form (i.e. self-repair) themselves which is more time consuming than providing the correct form the teacher himself such as in recasts, translations and explicit corrections. The former argument related to the belief that there could be a mismatch between the pedagogical purposes of speaking classes and prompting feedbacks (i.e. repetitions, clarification requests, elicitations and metalinguistic feedback) might be a more salient rationalization of why teachers would have not employed such feedbacks. It is reasonable that the teachers might not propose this kind of corrective feedbacks after students' errors since fluency is the primary concern of speaking classes. Corrective feedback types that prompt self repair might lead to communication breakdown during student teacher interaction. This low tendency to employ such corrective feedback moves might be therefore a wise choice. As a result, teachers might

have not preferred to employ these corrective feedback types since they contradict the nature of communicatively oriented speaking classes.

To summarize, even though clarification request, repetition, metalinguistic feedback and elicitation are taken as negotiation of form by Lyster (2002), leading to the desired accurate production, the literature reveals the use of translation, recast and explicit correction to be beneficial, since a variety of feedback-forms can parallel the diversity in content and/or activity of the lesson (Lyster, 2002).

In answering the second research question (what types of learner errors lead to what types of corrective feedback?), the general findings of this study revealed that a total of 856 errors were made by the students in the present study. The most errors made were grammatical (342), the second most was the unsolicited use of L1 (220), the third phonological (195) and the fourth were lexical errors (99). However, the teachers proportionally gave the most corrective feedback to lexical errors (43.4%), phonological errors (32.8 %), then to L1 use (25%) and at least to grammatical errors (14 %) (see table 3).

It is likely that there might be a high tendency of the instructors to employ corrective feedback for lexical errors. The primary reason might the nature of speaking skills courses that is taught in the present study. As stated earlier the speaking and listening course at AUSFL like many speaking and listening courses are fluency oriented. Communicative classrooms that favor fluency and that try to focus on meaning are an indispensable component of speaking classes. The instructors that participated in this study might have a tendency to focus on the meaning that is aimed to be conveyed. Meaning that is the primary focus in conversations is obtained through lexical accuracy. Therefore lexical errors made by

the student highly affect the meaning; consequently, the teacher who has to assure the accuracy of the meaning tends to correct lexical errors more. A meaningful interaction can only be achieved through lexical accuracy. Therefore the frequent correction of lexical errors is a natural but also indispensable part of speaking classes.

Similarly phonological errors which were less corrected that lexical errors received 32.8% of corrective feedback. Since the speaking and listening course at AUSFL like many speaking and listening courses are fluency oriented, they try to establish phonological accuracy also. The speaking/Listening course goal & objectives, and the accordingly chosen course material at AUSFL contain phonological exercises. Relevantly, the course book provided ample opportunities to practice common patterns of the English sound system. Moreover since the instruction takes place in an EFL context the instructor might feel the necessity to emphasize the incorrectness of an error to provide a model for other students as well.

Another concern of why phonological errors are tended to be corrected by instructors in the present study, might be students' phonologically incomprehensible utterances. The instructors, who might have noticed such gross errors, might felt compulsory to correct these utterances since such ill formed utterance might hinder communication (i.e. negotiation of meaning).

Regarding episodes that were lexically and phonologically not corrected might derive from the reason that the instructor didn't notice the degree of the ill formedness of the lexical or phonological item or might have not found the lexical error severe enough as long as the meaning was conveyed.

Grammatical errors that were the least corrected occurred for the most in the present study. Students made 342 grammatical errors whereas teachers tended to give only 48 moves of corrective feedback t this error type. In other words only 14% of all grammatical errors were aimed to be corrected by the teachers. This significance might derive from the type of course taught in the present study. As stated earlier the nature of speaking courses that favor fluency might be one reason of the little number of correction to grammatical errors. Grammatical errors also appeared so frequent that each of attempts to correct these errors would cause communicational breakdown. On the other hand, most utterances that contained grammatically inaccurate items were still easily perceived by the speakers that there was no need to correct these errors. Therefore the teachers might have not felt the need to correct this error type as much as they corrected the more frequent and meaning hindering error types.

All in all, this study aimed to provide a picture of teachers' in-class behaviors regarding corrective feedback. It is hoped that the findings revealed in this study will be of help in raising awareness and will benefit foreign language teachers interested in improving themselves.

5.3. Implications of the Study

The present study aimed to reveal the distribution of student-generated error types and corrective feedback usages of teachers in EFL speaking classes. In the light of the research findings, the study aimed to provide the observed teachers with a mirror image of their own

use of corrective feedback in speaking classrooms, as well as to provide illumination for other teachers.

At first, speaking teachers have to become aware the importance of error treatments. This awareness however requires also the need to consider the context in which the error treatment sequence will take place. It is essential that teachers need to consider students use of the target language and where these errors occur. One important implication for speaking teachers is that they need to employ various corrective feedback opportunities, both for their own sake and for the benefit of their students. As Lyster (2002) argues, "given what is known at this point about the effectiveness of feedback, teachers should be encouraged to draw on a wide range of feedback types in accordance with the context and type of lesson and their students' abilities". Different types of error correction in speaking classes as well as in other classes would provide learners new and more inspiring chances to notice their erroneous utterances. Therefore a wide choice of corrective feedback moves would better facilitate different students' recognition of their errors.

Regarding this issue, teacher trainees and faculty staff could make use of the present data and video recordings. By watching what the actual classroom practices were in the present study new teacher candidates as well as experienced teacher would find the opportunity to evaluate the different uses of corrective feedback types in the present study. Self-monitoring as much as monitoring others is an ample opportunity for many teaching professionals. By watching these practices and seeing the data presented in the study, teachers and teacher candidates could expand there use of corrective feedback types by raising awareness.

A secondary opportunity regarding to this issue is that these professionals might change their misconceptions towards error correction. Indeed they may change their beliefs, attitudes and perceptions towards the use of different corrective feedback types by watching these video recordings within the view of the present data.

Lyster (1998) signals that feedback type might be affected by the student level of proficiency, type of instruction, skill and setting, and teachers have to be encouraged to employ a greater variety of corrective feedback types in view of the many variables. Teachers at this point need to become aware of this factor and therefore should rethink their classroom behaviors. According to these different variables, teacher trainees and faculty staff could make use of the present data and by watching the video recordings, they can make the necessary adjustments related to these different variables.

Another issue related to the proportion of corrective feedback would also seem to corroborate Brown's (1994) suggestion about language teachers providing "appropriate feedback and correction". In most EFL situations, as in the present study, students are to a certain extent dependent on the teacher for useful linguistic feedback. Therefore, EFL teachers should supply their students with corrective feedback since no other linguistic support is available. Related to Brown's suggestion, EFL instructors and participant instructors of the present could make use of the data in the present study to monitor the frequency of students' errors and the frequency and type of feedback when teachers corrected these errors.

Recasts that were the most employed corrective feedback type in the present study should be examined with care. Since recasts are ambiguous they can be perceived easily as conversational confirmation, hence they can become unnoticed by the learners. Teachers

should employ recasts with great care since they also function as 'negotiation of meanings' in which they might not be perceived as a corrective feedback type. They also might not lead to learner uptake (i.e. self repair) like metalinguistic feedbacks, clarification requests, elicitations as well as repetitions do.

The least corrective feedback types were metalinguistic feedbacks, clarification requests, elicitations as well as repetitions which accounted for only 8.1% of all feedbacks. Interestingly these 'negotiation of form' facilitating type of request were unwillingly employed by speaking instructors in the present study. This might be because of the nature of the speaking course which is fluency oriented. Therefore corrective feedback types that potentially could result in self repair were not employed by the speaking teachers. It might be useful that these types of corrective feedbacks need to be raised awareness although they might break the communication.

The most corrected error type in the present study was lexical errors. Lexical accuracy that is essential for meaningful interaction was therefore mostly corrected. Not only teachers attending speaking classes but also speakers taking part in daily conversations tend to correct lexical errors since the meaning has to be conveyed no matter how many grammatical mistakes one makes. Therefore grammatical errors were at least corrected although they counted for the most occurring error type in the present study. Teachers therefore have to consider on how conscious or unconscious they incorporate different corrective feedback types when entering speaking classes.

These corrective feedback moves have to be carried out with care, taking into account many other variables related to giving feedback. Such treatment through relevant corrective

feedback may help the students to evolve their linguistic skills more accurately until their communication becomes clearer.

As a result the total amount of errors occurring in the present study was 856, of which the teachers observed attempted to correct 210 erroneous sequences. The nature of speaking classes in which emphasis is placed on communicative effectiveness would seem to militate again immediate oral error corrections. However, the previously made arguments and findings in research might lead speaking teachers to reflect more on themselves and think about when and how to correct their students' errors. It is essential not to forget that, for fluency, accurate production is also necessary.

5.4. Suggestions for further research

Based on the results of the present study, a deeper investigation to clarify ideas related to students' errors and teachers' use of corrective feedback are suggested by the researcher. Initially, different applications of the present study could be made in which type of course, proficiency level, and different teacher variables could lead to various implications.

For future research, it might be useful to observe other skill classes due to their different course focuses. It might be of benefit to collect data from different skills classes to reveal if there is any significance between different courses.

Students' proficiency levels as well as their ages might lead to different types of errors made and corrected. The corrective feedback types employed accordingly might be perceived also differently by these students.

A research on teacher differences which was not investigated in the present study might lead to different results. The researcher of the present study did not investigate this issue. However he noticed that each participant teacher had its own unique tendency of the employment of different types of corrective feedbacks.

Another research project could be conducted revealing the extent and types of student uptake, noticing and/or student self repair. By collecting such data, researchers could investigate the relationships between error type, corrective feedback, uptake and self repair.

Different research concerns in this field towards how to correct errors, when to correct errors and which errors should be corrected could provide a different perspective for research in error correction. A correlation between one of these items and the actual classroom practice of these teachers could lead to empirical data.

Longitudinal research related to corrective feedback and self repair in relation to language proficiency progress would be the climax of all such studies, although such research would obviously be very challenging.

Experimental research could be carried out too to gauge improvement in students' self repair or in their proficiency level. This could involve the provision of different treatment to

different control groups, namely the use of certain corrective feedback input in interaction with the members of these particular groups.

A similar study could be carried out by asking the students whether they noticed different types of corrective feedback by watching the video recording sessions after the actual classroom interaction. Similarly teachers as well as students could watch these video recordings by explaining their ideas during error corrections and uptakes.

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Appendix A

TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

1.   **Walter ;** Speaker's names seperated from their utterances by semicolons, folllowed by a few blank spaces

2.   **?;** A question mark istead of a name or initial indicates that no good guess could be made as to the identity of the speaker.

3.   **FS1 :** first speaker istead of a name or initial indicates the identity of a female speaker.

4.   **MS1 :** first speaker istead of a name or initial indicates the identity of a male speaker.

5.   **FS ?:** OR **MS ?:** A question mark istead of a name or initial indicates that no good guess could be made as to the identity of the female or male speaker.

6.   **Some :** indicates that more than one speakers speaking at the same time

7.   **(1.5)** Numbers between paranthesis indicate length of pauses in second and the tenths of seconds.

8.   **…** Dots indicate an untimed pause

9.   **(( ))** Material between double quotes provides extralinguisticinformation, e.g. about bodily movements.

10.   **(10 :18)** Numbers between paranthesiswith a semi colon indicates the time that has passed during the class hour.

11.   **+/.** Indicates that the speaker is interrupted

12.   **X**   Incomprehensible item, one word only

13.   **XX**   Incomprehensible item, of phrase length

14.   **XXX**   Incomprehensible item,beyond the phrase length

15.   **so :::**   colons indicates the lengthening of the last sound

16.   **T :**   indicates the teacher

Appendix B   COURSE MATERIAL

Did You Know?

■ The first person to walk on the moon was Neil Armstrong (USA). His historic walk took place on July 24, 1969.

■ Alfred Nobel, the Swedish inventor who invented dynamite in 1866, created an organization to give awards each year to people who help the world. These awards are the Nobel Prizes for physics, chemistry, physiology, medicine, literature, and peace.

■ In a survey about space travel, 44% of Americans said they would want to travel in space if they had the chance. 54% of American men and 33% of American women said they believe there is intelligent life on other planets.[1]

■ The human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), which causes AIDS, was first identified in 1983.[2]

PART 1

Listening to Conversations

Before You Listen

In the following conversation Jeff, Nancy, and Anna talk about space exploration.

1 **Prelistening Questions.**   Discuss these questions with your classmates.

1. What are the advantages and disadvantages of space exploration?
2. If you had a chance to live in space, would you do it?

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[1] *USA Today,* <http://www.usatoday.com/snapshot/news/nsnap006.htm>.
[2] *Guinness Book of World Records.*

2   **Vocabulary Preview.**   The words on the left are used in the conversation. Match them with their definitions.

Words	Definitions
1. footprints	a. _____ a settlement that people build in a new land or territory
2. disease	b. _____ once each year
3. annual	c. _____ referring to the sun
4. satellite	d. _____ sickness, bad health
5. gravity	e. _____ the force that pulls everything toward the center of the earth
6. pollution	f. _____ the shapes left on the ground after a person has walked on it
7. colony	g. _____ dirt in the air or water
8. solar	h. _____ a natural or artificial body that travels around a planet such as the earth
9. pioneer	i. _____ the first person to find, do, or create something important (e.g., a new land or a new medical procedure)

Listen

3   **Listening for Main Ideas.**

1. Close your book as you listen to the conversation. Listen for the answers to these questions.

   1. What benefits of the space program did Nancy and Jeff mention?
   2. What is an advantage of living in a space colony?
   3. What is a pioneer? Can you give any examples?

2. Compare answers with a partner.

Stress

4   **Listening for Stressed Words.**

1. Now listen to part of the conversation again. Some of the stressed words are missing. During each pause, repeat the phrase or sentence; then fill in the missing stressed words.

   Jeff: Anna! Nancy! Come out to the _____! You've got to see this

   _____!

   Nancy: _____! Look how big and _____ it is!

   Anna: It looks as if you could reach out and _____ it.

Jeff: Do you _____ that it's been more than _____ years
since the first _____ walked on the moon? And would you
believe their _____ are still there?

Anna: Really? How _____?

Jeff: There's no _____ on the moon, so there's no wind to blow
them away.

Anna: That's _____. But you know, I've always _____ why
some governments spend so much _____ on space
exploration. I mean, there are so many _____ problems on
earth, like _____, hunger, disease . . .

Nancy: Well, you may be _____ to know that the _____
spends less than _____ percent of its annual budget on the
space program. And _____, you have to consider the
technological and scientific _____ of space exploration.

Anna: Like what?

Jeff: Well, to give just one example, _____ were invented only
about _____ years ago, and now they're used for
_____ prediction, _____ phones, satellite TV . . .

Nancy: Also, a lot of _____ discoveries have come out of space
research. _____ it or not, that's how soft _____
lenses were developed. Also, some _____ can be produced
more _____ and cheaply in space, where there's no
_____.

Jeff: Just _____—pretty soon we'll be able to buy _____
labeled "Made in Space" instead of "Made in Indonesia" or "Made
in the USA."

2. Compare answers and read the conversation with a partner. Pay attention to the
stressed words.

After You Listen

5 Vocabulary Review.   These questions use the vocabulary from this section. Answer the questions with a partner and see how much you know. (The answers are on page 275, but don't look now!)

1. Which of the following bodies has the strongest force of <u>gravity</u>?

    a. Earth
    b. Mars

    c. the sun
    d. the moon

2. In the United States, which of the following people has the highest <u>annual</u> salary?

    a. a professional (NBA)
       basketball star
    b. a brain surgeon

    c. the president
    d. a scientist working
       for the space program

3. Which of the following animals has the largest <u>footprint</u>?

    a. a camel
    b. a grizzly bear

    c. an elephant
    d. a walrus

4. What is the English name of a childhood <u>disease</u> in which the skin is covered with red spots?

    a. pneumonia
    b. chicken pox

    c. influenza
    d. hepatitis

5. Which of the following is a natural <u>satellite</u> of the earth?

    a. the sun
    b. the moon

    c. the stars
    d. a space colony

6. Which of the following countries was once a <u>colony</u> of Great Britain (England)?

    a. The Philippines
    b. Mozambique

    c. The United States
    d. Venezuela

7. The Wright brothers were <u>pioneers</u> in the field of _____.

    a. medicine
    b. computers

    c. biology
    d. aviation

8. Which of the following large cities has the worst air <u>pollution</u>?

    a. Tokyo, Japan
    b. Los Angeles, California, USA

    c. Frankfurt, Germany
    d. Mexico City, Mexico

9. If you can use <u>solar</u> energy to make your food, you are probably a _____.

    a. jellyfish
    b. tree

    c. bird
    d. spider

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Pronunciation

The /th/ Sound

The English language has two sounds that are written with the letters "th." The two sounds are almost the same, except that one of them is voiced, as in the word *there,* and the other is voiceless, as in the word *think.*

To pronounce both sounds, follow these steps:

1. Place the tip of your tongue between your top and bottom teeth. Keep your lips relaxed.

2. Hold your mouth in this position as you exhale air from your lungs.

3. Make your vocal cords vibrate as you exhale to produce the voiced /th/ sound.

4. Be sure to do steps 1 to 3 all at the same time.

upper teeth

tongue

lower teeth
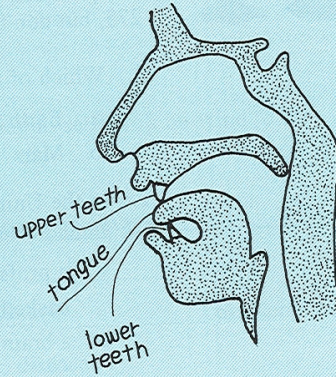
6   Pronouncing Voiced and Voiceless /th/.   Listen to two lists of words. The words in the first list have a voiceless /th/ sound. The words in the second list have the voiced sound. Repeat the words after the speaker.

voiceless /th/	voiced /th/
think	this
thought	that
thumb	those
author	rather
nothing	other
mouth	father
both	breathe
throat	smooth

7   **Distinguishing between Voiced and Voiceless** */th/.*   Now listen to the following sentences from the conversation. Repeat them after the speaker. Put a slash (/) through every voiceless */th/* you hear. Put a circle around every voiced */th/*.

Examples: (th)ere   /think

1.   Their footprints are still there.

2.   There's no weather on the moon.

3.   If the living conditions are the same as on earth, then why not?

4.   Don't you think it would be exciting to be a pioneer?

5.   What's that?

6.   You know, someone who does something first.

7.   I'm going to stay right here on earth and finish college.

Using Language

Introducing Surprising Information

Sometimes special phrases are used to introduce information that may be surprising or unexpected to the listener. The expressions below are used for introducing surprising information.

It's weird / strange / funny, but . . .

Surprisingly

Oddly enough

8   **Identifying Ways to Introduce Surprising Information.**   Read the tapescript of the conversation on pages 327 and 328 and fill in these blanks with the expressions that introduce surprising information. The answers are on page 275.

1. _____ that it's been more than 30 years since the first astronauts walked on the moon?

2. _____ their footprints are still there?

3. _____ that the United States spends less than one percent of its annual budget on the space program.

4. A lot of medical discoveries have come out of space research. _____, that's how soft contact lenses were developed.

5. The article said that, _____, life in these communities might be even nicer than on earth because they'll be smaller, without the problems we have in big cities today.

9   **Truth or Lie Game.**

1. Your teacher will hand out a card to each student in the class. The card will say "truth" or "lie." Don't show your card to anyone.

2. Prepare to tell the class something surprising or unexpected about yourself. If your card says "truth," your story must be completely true. If it says "lie," you must make something up, but it should sound true.

3. Take turns telling your stories. When it is your turn, begin with one of the expressions for introducing surprising information. After you are finished, the teacher will ask the class to vote on whether you told the truth or not. Your purpose, of course, is to fool your classmates!

Talk It Over

Solving a Science Problem.   Imagine you are a member of a space crew. Your spaceship has crash-landed on the lighted side of the moon. Another spaceship will pick you up about two hundred miles away. Because you will have to walk there, you can take only a limited number of items with you.

1. Below are 14 items your crew will have to choose from. Read the items and use your dictionary if necessary to understand their meanings.

2. Decide which items are the most important and which are the least important. Place the number "1" by the most important item, the number "2" by the second most important, and so on.

3. When you have finished, compare your rankings with those of your classmates. Explain the choices you made.

_____ box of matches

_____ dried food

_____ 50 feet of nylon rope

_____ parachute silk

_____ portable heating unit

_____ two pistols

_____ one case of dehydrated milk
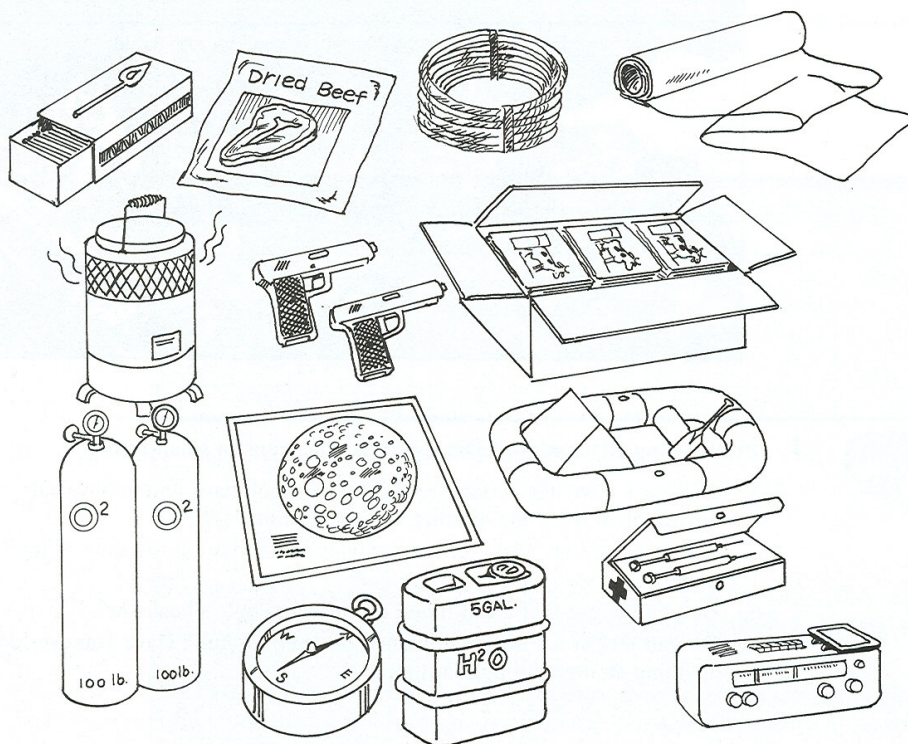
_____ two 100-pound tanks of oxygen

_____ map of the moon's surface and rock formations

_____ life raft

_____ magnetic compass

_____ five gallons of water

_____ first aid kit containing injection needles

_____ solar-powered FM receiver-transmitter

PART 2	# Listening to Lectures

Before You Listen

In this lecture two students have a debate about the effects of the moon on human behavior.

1 Prelistening Discussion.   Discuss these questions in small groups.

1. To your knowledge, what effect does the moon have on the physical environment (e.g., the weather, the tides, animals)?
2. Does your culture have special festivals or holidays at the time of the full moon?
3. Do you believe that a full moon can affect people's behavior?
4. Do you feel or act differently when the moon is full? Have you ever done anything strange during that time?

2   **Vocabulary Preview.**   The following terms appear in the lecture. With your classmates, define the words you already know. Mark the words you do not know.

_____ to regulate	_____ to commit suicide	_____ a hypothesis
_____ ocean tides	_____ poison	_____ proof
_____ unpredictable	_____ a mental hospital	_____ link
_____ loony	_____ weird	_____ a coincidence
_____ an assault	_____ to make up one's mind	

3   **Discussing Note-Taking Forms.**   You are going to hear two students debate the following question: Does the full moon cause people to behave strangely? One student will argue in favor of the question, and the other will argue against it.

With your classmates, discuss different ways of setting up your page of notes. Draw them on the board.

Listen

Supporting a Position with Evidence

A debate is a formal argument between two speakers who have different opinions about a question or issue. In a debate, each speaker states a position and then tries to *prove* it with supporting *evidence* such as facts and statistics, quotations from experts, or references to other published works. The "winner" of a debate is the person who convinces the audience that he or she is right.

Information in a debate is normally organized from general to specific. The following paragraph illustrates this type of organization:

> Americans watch too much television, and they watch too many violent programs. According to the *Los Angeles Tribune* of November 5, 1999, Americans spend an average of 2,300 hours per year watching TV. Thomas Lear, a psychiatrist at the University of Illinois, states in his book *Watching the Tube* that between 90 and 95 percent of all adult programs contain violence, "bad" language, or hostile sexual relations. Lear explains that when people see these behaviors repeated thousands of times, they start to think that such behaviors are normal and acceptable.

Here are sample notes for this paragraph. Notice that the supporting details are indented and numbered, and each piece of evidence is written on a separate line.

A.   Amer. watch too much TV & violent progs.
   1.   2300 hrs/yr. (LA Tribune)
   2.   90–95% of progs. have violence, bad lg., hostile sex (T. Lear)]

4 Taking Notes on a Position and Supporting Evidence.   Listen to one position about the full moon and three pieces of supporting evidence. Take notes as in the example.

Dr. Lieber: _____

1. 1977: _____

2. 1980 study: _____

3. in mental hospitals: _____

Compare your notes with those of a classmate.

5 Taking Draft Notes.   Listen to the lecture and take notes in the best way you can. Use your own paper. As you listen and take notes, refer to the two speakers' handouts shown here.

Joshua's handout

Is the Full Moon Associated with Violent or Self-Destructive Behavior in Humans? YES!

■ 11,613 cases of aggravated assault in a five-year period: assaults occurred more often around the full moon. (1978)

■ 34,318 crimes in a one-year period: crimes occurred more frequently during the full moon. (1976)

■ 841 cases of "self-poisonings" in a four-year period: self-poisonings did occur more often on the day of the full moon. (1980)

Dana's handout

Is the Full Moon Associated with Violent or Self-Destructive Behavior in Humans? NO!

■ 58,527 police arrests in a seven-year period: no difference in the number of arrests made during any phase of the moon. (1977)

■ 361,580 calls for police assistance in a three-year period: no relationship to the phase of the moon. (1983)

■ 1,289 aggressive "incidents" by hospitalized psychiatric patients in a 105-week period: no significant relationship between the severity or amount of violence/aggression and phase of the moon. (1998)

■ The rate of agitation in 24 nursing home residents in a three-month period: no significant relationship to moon phase. (1989)

■ 4,190 suicides in a 58-year period: suicides had no relationship to the phase of the moon. (1991)

■ 3,468 emergency room visits and hospital admissions by people who intentionally took poison; visits and admissions were not different on days with full moons. (1983)

■ 4,835 traffic accidents in a four-year period: no relationship to the phase of the moon. However, there was an increase in the number of accidents that occurred in the summer and on weekends. (1993)

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After You Listen

6   Outlining the Lecture.   Use your notes from Activities 4 and 5 to complete these outlines. Remember to use abbreviations and symbols. Listen again if necessary.

Joshua: Full moon causes unusual behavior

In English, "loony" = crazy < Latin *luna* (moon)

I.   Full moon → _____

   A.   1977 book "The Lunar Effect" said

      1.   Ex.: woman tried to kill Gerald Ford

      2.   2 research studies showed _____

         _____

      3.   _____

II.   _____ → _____

   A.   _____

      1.   9 people jump off

         Gold. Gate Bridge

   B.   People who poison themselves _____

      _____

   C.   Wkrs. in mental hosp: patients

      more diff. during full moon

Dana: Full moon does NOT cause unusual behavior

-No scientific support

-Someone's opinion ≠ proof

-20 studies show _____

_____

I.   Studies show no relat. bet. behav. & full moon

   A.   Study of 60,000 arrests:

   B.   Studies of suicide:

      1.   7 studies showed _____

         _____

      2.   Study of self-poisonings showed

         _____

   C.   Studies in mental hospitals:

      _____

   D.   People in nursing homes:

      _____

   E.   Studies of people in emerg. rooms:

      _____

III.   Many prof. say moon has weird effect.

Ex.: _____

_____

_____

IV.   Cause? _____

_____

_____

_____

II. Conclusion: _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

7   **Defining New Vocabulary.**   With a partner, look back at the words you marked as unknown in Activity 2 and discuss the meaning of each new term. Your teacher may ask you to write sentences with these new words.

8   **Discussing the Lecture.**   Discuss the following questions about the lecture. Refer to your notes as necessary. Use the new vocabulary as you talk.

1.   How does the full moon regulate the physical world?

2.   What is the first speaker's hypothesis?

3.   According to the first speaker, which behaviors may be caused by the full moon?

4.   According to the second speaker, what is the difference between scientific proof and coincidence?

5.   Which speaker "won" the debate, in your view? Why?

6.   After listening to the two speakers, has your opinion about the effects of the full moon changed?

Talk It Over

Expressions for Citing Evidence.   As you learned, one way to support a position is to give evidence from experts or scientific studies. Special verbs and phrases are used to cite (name) the *source* of the supporting evidence. These include:

According to (*Time*)

As (this study) shows

Research shows that

Dr. Baker points out / reports / states / explains

Debate.   Now that you have heard a debate in English, you are ready to plan and conduct a debate in your class.

1. Choose one of these topics for your debate, or think of one of your own.

    Topics

    1. Should smoking be illegal in restaurants?
    2. Should governments spend money on space programs?
    3. Should college entrance examinations be abolished?
    4. Should voting in government elections be mandatory or voluntary?
    5. Should army service be required for women if it is required for men?

2. Divide the class into teams. One team will argue in favor of the question. The other will argue against the question.

3. Work in pairs or small groups and make a list of arguments and facts you will use to support your position. If possible, find information and research to support your position. *Note*: Do *not* give your opinion. Remember that a debate is based on *facts*.

4. Compare your supporting statements with other students who share your position. Modify or add to your supporting statements if necessary. Together, create one "master" page of supporting evidence to be used during the debate.

5. Each side should select one person as its speaker. These two speakers should then debate the topic.

6. The teacher will decide which side has "won" the debate.

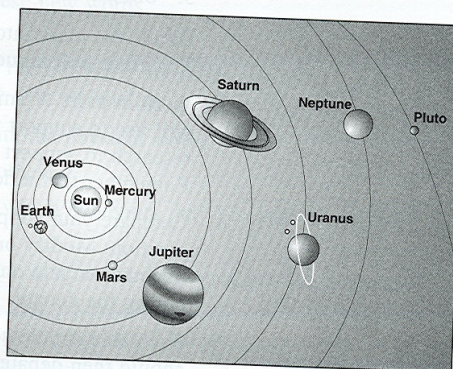7. After the debate you may discuss your *real* opinion about the topic.

PART 3 **Focused Listening and Speaking**

Getting Meaning from Context

1 **Using Context Clues.**   You are going to hear five short talks about discoveries.

1. Listen to each talk.
2. After each talk, you will hear a question. The tape or CD will pause.
3. Read the answer choices and circle the letter of the best answer.

1. a. Discoveries and inventions usually happen at the same time.
   b. An invention helped Columbus to make an important discovery.
   c. All discoveries depend on inventions.
   d. Columbus invented ships because he hoped to discover a new land.

2. a. It requires expensive technology.
   b. It is very old.
   c. It will decrease in the future.
   d. It began in ancient Rome.

3. a. Uranus was discovered almost 2,000 years ago.
   b. Telescopes were invented by the Romans.
   c. Uranus was not named after a Roman god.
   d. Sir William Herschel did not know about the discoveries of the Roman astronomers.

4. a. It was the greatest accomplishment of the ancient Chinese.
   b. It led to improvements in people's health.
   c. It was accidental.
   d. It was a big mistake.

5. a. Columbus used rubber to build his boats.
   b. Rubber comes from a tree.
   c. "Rubber" was originally a French word.
   d. Rubber was discovered in Europe.

2 **Talking about Inventions and Discoveries.** The following discoveries and inventions were discussed in Activity 1. What role, if any, do they play in your life?

1. solar energy
2. the planets

3. tea
4. rubber

Focused Listening

Pronunciation of *-ed* Endings

The *-ed* ending is found on regular past tense verbs and the past participle. For example:

- We finished the work at 8 P.M. (Past tense verb)
- We're very excited about your visit. (Participle used as adjective)
- The papers were corrected by the TA. (Passive voice)

The *-ed* ending has three different pronunciations in English.

1. In words ending with /t/ or /d/, it is pronounced as a separate syllable, /id/.

    Examples

    wait; waited   decide; decided

2. In words that end with a voiceless consonant, it is pronounced as /t/.

    Examples

    step; stepped   wish; wished
    talk; talked   watch; watched

3. In words that end with a voiced consonant or a vowel, it is pronounced as /d/.

    Examples

    live; lived   die; died
    turn; turned   use; used
    enjoy; enjoyed   call; called

3 **Practicing the Past Tense Endings.** Listen and repeat the following words after the speaker.

/t/	/d/	/id/
passed	discovered	directed
camped	jogged	wanted
crashed	agreed	started
looked	closed	
asked	breathed	

4 **Distinguishing between Past Tense Endings.**   Listen to the following past tense verbs and check the pronunciation that you hear. You'll hear each word twice.

	/t/	/d/	/id/
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			
6.			
7.			
8.			
9.			
10.			
11.			
12.			
13.			
14.			
15.			

5 **Pronouncing the Past Tense Endings.**   With a partner, decide on the *-ed* pronunciation of these words. In the blanks write /t/, /d/, or /id/. Then say the words.

1. _____ pointed

2. _____ dreamed

3. _____ traveled

4. _____ kissed

5. _____ thanked

6. _____ waited

7. _____ explored

8. _____ interested

9. _____ judged

10. _____ moved

Using Language

Expressing Interest or Surprise

In Chapter 1, page 7, you learned several ways of showing that you are interested in what someone is saying. Here are some additional expressions you can use:

That's (really) interesting.
That's an interesting / great / nice story.

If you are surprised by something you hear, you can say:

(That's) incredible!
(That's) unbelievable!
(That's) amazing!
I can't believe it.
I'm shocked.

6   Talking about Discoveries.   We discover things that are already there, just waiting for us to find them. Most discoveries are quite ordinary. For example, think of a baby discovering his or her toes.

Work in small groups and tell your classmates about discoveries that you have made in your life. It may help you to think in terms of categories. Use expressions to express surprise, as appropriate, to respond to your classmates' comments.

Discoveries

Categories	Examples
A skill you found you have	the ability to sing, to make bread perfectly
A place	a new restaurant, a vacation spot
A new form of entertainment	jazz, bungee jumping
Something you never noticed before about something familiar	Your dog has different-colored eyes.
	There is a funny noise in your house.
Something unusual about another country or its people	You cannot negotiate the prices of items in stores.

PART 4

Listening and Speaking in the Real World

In this section you are going to listen to a game show called Explorations, Inventions, and Discoveries. You will play along with the contestants on the tape.

Before You Listen

1 **Prelistening Questions.**   Discuss the following questions with your classmates.

1. Are game shows popular in your community? Do you enjoy watching them?
2. Do you enjoy watching English-language game shows? Which one(s) in particular?
3. Are game shows different in different languages?
4. Would you like to be a contestant on a game show? Which one?

Listen

2   **Listening to a Game Show.**   You are going to listen to a game show with questions about explorations, inventions, and discoveries. As you hear each question, you should circle *your* answer in the column below marked Your Answer. Then you will hear the answer given by this week's contestant, Roger Johnson. Finally, the host, Ronnie Perez, will provide the correct answer.

Question	Your answer	Roger's answer
1	a. Apple b. Microsoft c. Intel	a. Apple b. Microsoft c. Intel
2	a. Mt. Everest in Nepal b. Mt. Fuji in Japan c. Mt. Whitney in the United States	a. Mt. Everest in Nepal b. Mt. Fuji in Japan c. Mt. Whitney in the United States
3	a. Spain b. Portugal c. Italy	a. Spain b. Portugal c. Italy
4	a. Christopher Columbus b. Leif Eriksson c. Ferdinand Magellan	a. Christopher Columbus b. Leif Eriksson c. Ferdinand Magellan
5	a. Italy b. Egypt c. China	a. Italy b. Egypt c. China
6	a. penicillin b. aspirin c. ginseng	a. penicillin b. aspirin c. ginseng
7	a. the motion picture b. the telephone c. the lightbulb	a. the motion picture b. the telephone c. the lightbulb
8	a. Isaac Newton b. Galileo Galilei c. Nicolaus Copernicus	a. Isaac Newton b. Galileo Galilei c. Nicolaus Copernicus

After You Listen

**3**   **Reviewing the Listening.**

1. How many questions did you answer correctly? Which student got the most correct answers?

2. Using the answers as cues, try to reconstruct the questions. Turn to page 275 to see if you are right.

Talk It Over

Ordering Events in a Story.

The Travels of Marco Polo

Marco Polo was born in Venice in the year 1254. With his father and uncle, he traveled to Asia and eventually reached China, where he met the famous emperor Kublai Khan. Late in his life Marco Polo spent some time in prison. There he wrote a book about his travels in Asia, which became a valued source of information about the lands of the East. Marco Polo died in 1324.

The following paragraphs give information about Marco Polo's travels. This information is not in the correct order. Your task will be to put the events in the correct sequence.

1. Divide into groups of seven students each, if possible.

2. Each person in the group should choose one of the paragraphs. (If your group has only six people, one person should select two paragraphs.)

3. Read your paragraph. If necessary, use a dictionary to understand all the important information. On the map, mark the part of Marco Polo's voyage that is described in your paragraph.

4. When everyone has finished preparing,

    a. Listen to each person tell his or her part of the story. Use the map on page 197 for illustration as you speak. *Do not read your classmate's paragraphs.* If you do not understand something, ask for repetition or clarification.

    b. Decide what the correct order of the story is.

    c. Draw the missing parts of Marco Polo's voyage on your map. Using the map for illustration, explain your part of the story to the group.

5. Check the correct order on page 275.
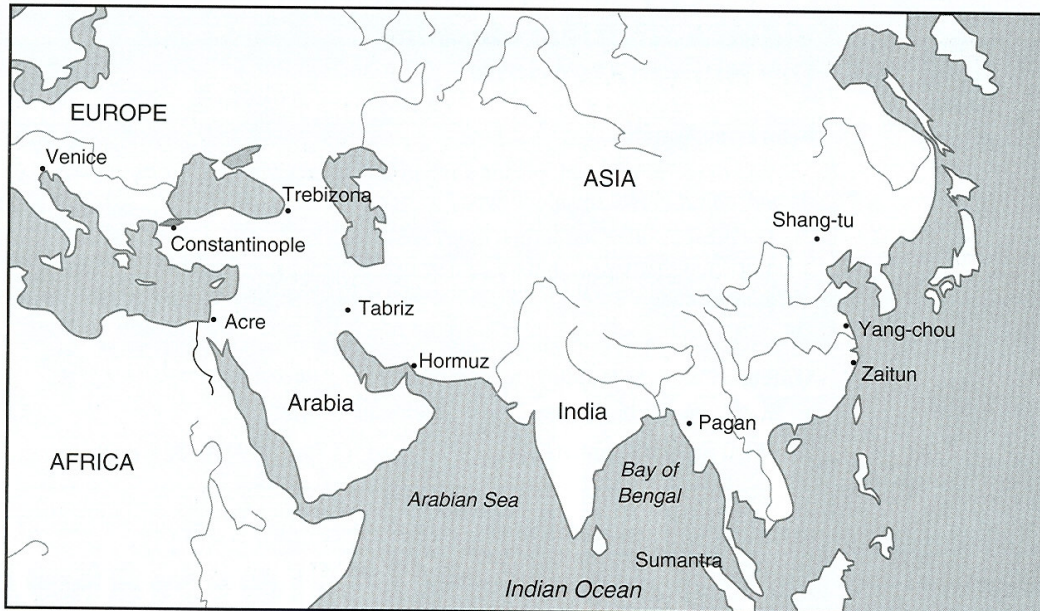
Story

A. The Polos finally left China in 1292. They sailed south from Yang-chou, through the Straits of Sumatra, and around the tip of India.

B. More than three years after leaving Venice, they finally arrived at the palace of the emperor Kublai Khan in Shang-tu, China.

C. Marco Polo, his father, and his uncle sailed on their famous voyage to the Orient in 1271. First they traveled to the port city of Acre in Palestine. From there they traveled by camel to the Persian port of Hormuz.

D. They then sailed up the western coast of India and across the Arabian Sea, returning to the port of Hormuz. After that they traveled by land to Tabriz, Trebizona, and Constantinople.

E. They arrived back in Venice in the year 1295 after traveling more than 15,000 miles.

F. The Polos stayed in China for 17 years. During that time, Marco traveled to Southeast Asia and India and back. After that, he became a government official in the Chinese city of Yang-chou.

G. They wanted to sail from Hormuz to China, but they could not find a ship. Therefore, they continued traveling by camel across the deserts and mountains of Asia.