Corrective Feedback and Learner Uptake in ESL Speaking Classes Taught by Native English and Non-Native English Teachers

Sen Zhang

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in Teaching English as an International Language Prince of Songkla University

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Classes Taught by Native English and Non-Native English
Teachers

Author   Mr. Sen Zhang

Major Program   Teaching English as an International Language

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Major Advisor :

…………………………………….
 (Dr. Panida Sukseemuang)

Co-Advisor :

………………………………..
(Assoc. Prof. Dr. Monta Chatupote)

Examining Committee :

……………………………. Chairperson
(Dr. Wararat Wanchit)

…………………………………………….
(Dr. Panida Sukseemuang)

…………………………………………….
(Assoc. Prof. Dr. Monta Chatupote)

…………………………………………….
(Asst. Prof. Dr. Chonlada Laohawiriyanon)

The Graduate School, Prince of Songkla University, has approved this
thesis as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Master of Arts Degree in
Teaching English as an International Language.

…………………………………….
(Assoc. Prof. Dr. Teerapol Srichana)
Dean of Graduate School

This is to certify that the work here submitted is the result of the candidate's own investigations. Due acknowledgement has been made of any assistance received.

………………………….Signature

(Dr. Panida Sukseemuang)

Major Advisor

………………………….Signature

(Assoc. Prof. Dr. Monta Chatupote)

Co-Advisor

………………………….Signature

(Sen Zhang)

Candidate

I hereby certify that this work has not already been accepted in substance for any degree, and is not being concurrently submitted in candidature for any degree.

…………………………Signature

(Sen Zhang)

Candidate

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ABSTRACT

Corrective feedback, teachers' comments or reformulation of students' inappropriate utterances, plays a scaffolding role in the second language acquisition process. This research aimed to study the error treatment sequences, corrective feedback and learner responses, and explore the relationships among teacher types (native and non-native) and investigate the effectiveness of feedback, in order to provide some suggestions for future teaching and research. One hundred and forty-five first year university students in four classrooms taught by two native English speaking (NST) and two non-native English speaking teachers (NNST) were investigated using classroom observation and video-recording.

Results showed that the students in NNST's classes made more utterances and errors; NNST provided fewer feedback types in response to students' errors, and hence a lower number of repairs. The rate of students' uptake and repair with regard to the teachers' feedback tended to be similar in both NST and NNST's classes. Recast was the most frequently used feedback type across the board, leading to a lower rate of learner repairs; NNST provided overwhelmingly more feedback than NST, and they tended to use more recast. Elicitation was likely to be the most effective feedback type in both native and non-native teachers' classes. The results suggested that teachers should avoid using recast and opt for elicitation for more effective learning and should give students some time to absorb the language arrangement after the error treatment.

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LIST OF PAPERS

This thesis is based on the following papers:

I. Zhang, S. & Chatopute, M. (2014a). Feedback Used in Classrooms with Native English and Non-Native English Teachers. *International Journal of English Language Education.* Vol. 2, No. 1, 2014, 241-258.

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Authors: Sen Zhang & Monta Chatupote

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Nancy Bronte

Nancy Bronte
Editor
International Journal of English Language Education
Macrothink Institute
E-mail: ijele@macrothink.org
URL: http://www.macrothink.org/ijele

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Sincerely,

Judy Lewis

Judy Lewis
Editor
Journal for the Study of English Linguistics
Macrothink Institute
E-mail: jsel@macrothink.org
URL: http://www.macrothink.org/jsel

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Nancy Bronte
Editor
International Journal of English Language Education
Macrothink Institute
E-mail: ijele@macrothink.org
URL: http://www.macrothink.org/ijele

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Journal for the Study of English Linguistics
Macrothink Institute
E-mail: jsel@macrothink.org
URL: http://www.macrothink.org/jsel

1. INTRODUCTION

In 1978, Hendrickson summarized five framing questions concerning the matter of the error treatment process in the classroom: Why correct learners' errors; When to correct their errors; Which errors to be amended; How to adjust the errors; Who alters the mistakes (Hendrickson, 1978). Surrounding these puzzles, the past few decades witnessed a number of discussions on the issues of the mistake correction process in communicative classrooms but still none of these five framing questions were answered precisely and specifically. Nevertheless, previous researchers paid close attention to corrective feedback or interactive feedback. Although they didn't answer the five framing questions, their researches were crucial and highly connected with learner errors in classroom, and even to some extent demonstrated how competent speakers corrected learners' errors and what kind of errors they tended to correct in communicative language teaching-learning process.

Corrective feedback or interactive feedback, in the form of teachers' comments, responses or reformulation of learners' incorrect or inappropriate utterances, plays a scaffolding role in the error treatment procedure happening in communicative classrooms. The importance of this classroom interaction is supported by both the output hypothesis (Swain, 1985) and the interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996). The output hypothesis (Swain, 1985) states that comprehensible input might not be enough to achieve learners' language acknowledgement; modified output is also needed and necessary for completing the whole process of language mastery. Corrective feedback is just one typical kind of means that may trigger modified output from students. In addition, the interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996) claims that interactional modification can make input comprehensible for learners, which will finally facilitate learner acquisition. Thus, corrective feedback and learner uptake, which stimulate the interaction between learners and teachers, can benefit language learning process (Long, 1996).

Gass and Varonis (1994) concluded that learners would be able to make some reformulations to the detected language discrepancies if the teachers could provide negotiable input. Gass (1997), Schmidt and Frota (1986) suggested that

corrective feedback from teachers offers an opportunity for students to perceive the mismatches between their language production and the target discourse forms, potentially to reformulate their language outcomes. De Bot (1996) also argues that students would have strong impressions on the mistakes if they could be encouraged or forced to find the discrepancies and fix them by retrieval from their own knowledge.

Based on these statements, numerous researchers studied the effectiveness and functions of corrective feedback in classroom interactions and made thriving and prosperous development on feedback functions in students' language learning process. Of particular relevance to the present study are the consecutive studies conducted by Roy Lyster (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 2001; Panova & Lyster, 2002, Lyster & Mori, 2006), which as the theory support and experiment evidence provided many instructions and suggestions on both the research conducting and the result summarizing process. These studies stemmed from the foundation of Chaudron (1977, 1986, & 1988), which developed a model of the mistake treatment process including teacher corrections and students reactions, and Doughty (1994), who defined teacher turns as feedback types, such as clarification request and recast in communicative classes. Later, Lyster and Ranta (1997) worked out a model of the error correction sequence, namely student mistakes, teacher feedback and student responses, which constituted the main unit of analysis for this current research.

By using this error treatment sequence analysis, in general, previous studies have made some development on the basic characteristics of feedback or error treatment. Lyster and Ranta (1997) compared teacher feedback with students' errors and uptake, and studied the effectiveness of types of feedback. Lyster (2001) further investigated teacher feedback and the relationship among student errors, student repairs and feedback types. Panova and Lyster (2002), using the error treatment model from previous study, corroborated the applicability of this model in a new classroom environment and compared the results with the previous studies. Lyster and Mori (2006) made a comparison study about the communicative interactions in two different instructing contexts and concluded that interactional feedback tended to be effective if it could serve as the counterbalance to the main classroom orientation.

Inspired by Lyster and Ranta (1997), Suzuki (2004) compared teacher feedback and student responses in a typical ESL context in the United States with the previous study. The results showed both similarities and some differences to those in the previous study, and possible explanations were that these diversities may account for different classroom contexts, learner-ages and their motivation in attending the class, teacher experience and the language used (Suzuki, 2004).

Li (2010) compared 33 primary studies and concluded that the effect of corrective feedback could be maintained over time. Implicit feedback could be easily preserved and a foreign language environment could facilitate experiments or researches on classroom contexts. However, despite the achievements stated above, Li (2010) also suggested that future researchers should concentrate on exploring the factors influencing feedback effectiveness. Thus, more variables, such as learner abilities, ages, cultural differences and even interlocutor types need to be investigated (Li, 2010).

Since teacher types seem to have some effect on corrective feedback in classroom, there are always some discussions about native and non-native teachers' teaching instructions. Some believe that native teachers have more advantages since their language proficiency is higher, while others would argue that non-native teachers may have the same cultural background with the students and could better understand their language difficulties (Clark & Paran, 2007). Although native-speaker and non-native-speaker teachers may have some differences in language proficiency and teaching methods (Medgyes, 1994), these do not mean that one type of teacher is more advanced than the other (Árva & Medgyes, 2000). Therefore, studying teachers' teaching methods seems to be quite important since the effectiveness of feedback can be the indicator of a teachers' teaching quality (Gibbons, 2003).

Of strong relevance and instruction to this current study was the study conducted by Noemi (2009), which made a comparison between native-speaker and non-native-speaker teachers' scaffolding strategies in young students' second language learning process (Noemi, 2009). By creating a new classification of teachers' scaffolding techniques, this study analyzed the relationship between teacher

types and instructive methods, and found that native teachers preferred to elaborate their language to students, while non-native teachers liked to elicit students' responses (Noemi, 2009).

Learning English becomes an urgent necessity for most Thai learners, which if being acquired properly may further their career during this flourishing age. However, there are quite a lot of problems and difficulties in Thai learners' language acquisition in the speaking context. Based on the above findings, there have been few researches concentrating on the effects of a diverse learning environment, such as students, either of high or low ability, learning with native-speaker and non-native-speaker teachers, factors which are inherent to the general learning situation.

Due to the fact that teacher types are a factor which influences the communicative language teaching process, studies on these will certainly contribute to the body of knowledge about the effects they have on learner outcomes and give more insights into pedagogical use. Thus, this present study focused on exploring basic teacher-student interactions occurring in the speaking classes taught by native and non-native English teachers, comparing the similarities and differences of error treatment sequences happening in these two types of classrooms, discovering the relationship among teacher types, corrective feedback and learner uptakes in classrooms, finding the most effective method of providing feedback in all these classroom environments, and finally giving some suggestions and implications for providing feedback in current or future teaching procedures.

2. OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

This study aimed to investigate corrective feedback and learner uptake in relation to native and non-native English teacher. All these will certainly contribute to a better understanding of the communicative classroom interactions and to provide more information on effective feedback for the real teaching process, which if being applied could possibly result in successful teaching and learning. Three research questions are listed below.

1. What are the communicative interactions occurring in ESL speaking classes taught by both native English and non-native English teachers?

2. What are the corrective feedback used by native English and non-native English teachers?

3. What are the student uptake and effective feedback found in those different classroom environments?

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Participants

One hundred and forty-five Thai freshmen from four different faculties (Liberal Arts, Medicine, Engineering, Management Sciences) at a university in the south of Thailand, who enrolled in the course of Fundamental English Listening and Speaking during the first semester of the academic year 2013, were selected. Based on the English O-Net score in Thailand, the proficiency levels of these four groups of students were concluded similar - intermediate level learners.

Focusing on comparing native and non-native English teachers, the researcher primarily observed three Thai English and five native English teachers' classes on the foundation of their own wills to be observed in order to select the appropriate pairs of teachers. Judging from the observation about the classroom interaction between teacher and students, and teachers' teaching strategies, the observing notes, and the focus of this research, two Thai English lecturers and two English native-speaker lecturers were finally selected. All of them taught the same course, Fundamental English Listening and Speaking.

Teacher 1 is a female Thai who has taught fundamental English courses for freshmen from different faculties at Prince of Songkla University in the south of Thailand for 10 years. Teacher 2 is also a female Thai, with 11 years' teaching experience, including two or three years at an institute and nine years at this same university. The groups she always taught were also first year students who

studied fundamental English courses, but more often Fundamental Reading. Teacher 3 and 4 are two native English speakers. Teacher 3 comes from Canada; he started his teaching position here several months ago. Likewise is the situation of Teacher 4, who is from England.

The course selected for observation is named Fundamental English Listening and Speaking. The reason for choosing this course is that the nature of this course requires the oral interaction and communication between teachers and students, which could possibly provide more data about the oral error treatment sequence. This is supported by Spada and Frohlich's (1995) statement that the students and teacher interacted with each other most of the time in oral activities and it was proved to be so in this current study during the observation process.

3.2 Classroom Observation (video-recording)

In order to make the data collected more precise, this current study used a video-recorder to record all classroom teaching-learning procedures. During the observation process, a camera was placed at the back of each classroom, and the researcher attended every class to assure the quality of the recording and to note the communicative interactions between teachers and students. Totally, 738 minutes or 12.3 hours of classroom observation formed the database for the present study.

3.3 Error Treatment Sequence

Learner Error
-grammatical
-phonological
-lexical
-content
-L1

Teacher Feedback
-recast
-explicit correction
-elicitation
-clarification request
-metalinguistic feedback
-repetition

Teacher Types
-native English teacher
-non-native English teacher

Learner Uptake
-repair
-needs-repair

No Uptake
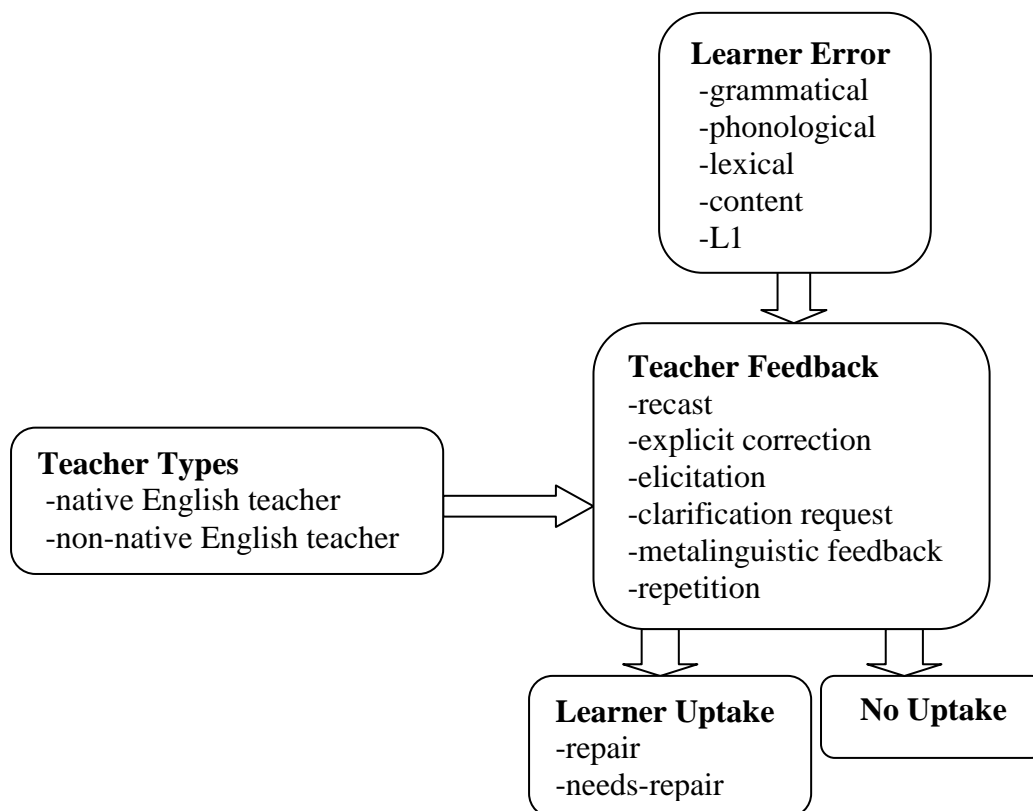
Figure 1. Error Treatment Sequences

       The error treatment sequence model devised by Lyster and Ranta (1997) was adapted for this study to collect the data and analyze the results, which are presented in Figure 1. This sequence included three essential elements, namely, learner error, teacher feedback, and learner uptake (including no uptake). However, teacher types were added as a new variable.

       This sequence is explained as follows: During the teaching-learning procedure, when students make errors, teachers may provide some feedback for students to enable them to notice the discrepancies and make some reformulations. On receiving teachers' feedback, students may generate the correct form, or initiate utterances that still include some mistakes or do not show any correction at all.

The researcher first transcribed all the utterances between teachers and students occurring in the classroom in English and sometimes in Thai. Error treatment sequences were then identified based on the definition and the examples in previous studies (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002). Thus teacher utterances not related to the error correction process were excluded. More detailed descriptions about the coding and quantification on error treatment are exhibited in the following section. 16 error treatment sequences extracted from the transcripts are shown in Appendix B.

3.4 Coding and Quantifying

3.4.1 Types of Errors

Students' utterances were coded as turns with error or without. Utterances that contained a simple confirmation, such as yes or no, or that which did not have the potential of containing errors were excluded. However, this current study did not exclude short utterances, such as students' acknowledgement or hesitation inside the error treatment sequences, which constituted the needs-repair following teacher's feedback. In short, in this study, students' utterances including errors and needs-repair were coded as errors. One example is shown below.

> (1) Ss: She visit. (error-grammatical)
>
> T: She visit??? (repetition)
>
> Ss: no (needs-acknowledgement)
>
> T: No, don't forget ed, right! So How to pronounce it?
>
> She …. (elicitation)
>
> Ss: Visited /visitid/ (repair-self)

As can be seen in example (1), students' second utterance "no" was the acknowledgement to teacher's repetition, thus was coded as needs-repair. Based on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, this current study coded ill-formed students' utterances and needs-repair as lexical error, grammatical error, phonological error, content error and students' unsolicited use of L1.

3.4.2 Types of Feedback

Teacher feedback is divided into six types based on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, namely recast, explicit correction, clarification request, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and repetition.

1. Recast refers to teachers' partial or complete reformulation of students' error utterance without pointing out what the mistake is.

(2) Ss: karaoke (error-phonological)

T: Ok, /ˌkærɪ'oʊkɪ/. (recast)

Ss: /ˌkærɪ'oʊkɪ/ (repair-repeat)

Translation in this study is also coded as recast, through which teachers translate students' L1 into English, or elicit students' oral responses in L1 by showing them the English discourse.

(3) Ss: Thai word. (error-L1)

T: To sleep for a short while. Right, yeah! Sleep for a short period of time. (translation-recast-no uptake)

(4) T: So a play in Thai is called …? (translation-recast-no uptake)

Ss: Thai word (error-L1)

2. Explicit Correction means that teachers tell the students where their error is and provide the correct form.

(5) Ss: he said My sister … (error-grammatical)

T: He said "My" No, not my, "his sister" (explicit correction)

Ss: his sister (repair-repeat)

3. Clarification Request refers to when teachers make a confirmation or recheck the students' utterance which may include at least one error

to give students opportunity to look back. Or sometimes, they may provide two choices for the students to choose by themselves.

(6) Sb: sea (error-lexical)

T: You said the sea or the beach? (clarification)

Sb: The beach. (repair-self)

4. Elicitation is the strategy that teachers use to elicit response from students or encourage the students to find out the alternative correct form retrieved from their own knowledge by using methods of pausing or asking some opening questions.

(7) Se: I dinner in a restaurant. (error-grammatical)

T: I … ? Verb, verb!! I … (elicitation)

Se: I have dinner … (needs-different)

T: I have ??? I h…? (elicitation)

Ss: I had …   (repair-self)

5. Metalinguistic Feedback is the way teachers give some comments or evaluations to the qualities and correctness of students' utterances.

(8) Sb: Oh, I had a great time. (error-phonological)

T: Really, ok, stop. "O, I had a great time" (repeat students' utterance)

Was that really great? (metalinguistic)

Ss: no (needs-acknowledgement)

6. Repetition means that teachers repeat students' wrong utterance with adjusted intonation.

(9) S: watching a music (error-lexical)

T: watching .. (repetition)

S: watching a movie (repair-self)

3.4.3 Types of Uptake

With reference to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, learner uptake was defined as learners' utterance following immediately the teacher's feedback as a reaction to the teacher's intention to remind the learners of the inappropriateness. There are mainly two types of learner uptake, repair and needs-repair. Repair means that after the teacher's error treatment, students tend to reformulate their error utterance in the correct form. Needs-repair refers to students' reformulating utterances but still including some incorrect or inappropriate parts.

Repair includes four sub types, namely repeat, incorporation, self-repair, and peer-repair. Repeat means that students simply repeat the teacher's correct utterance. Incorporation means that students use the teacher's correct form and create longer utterances. Self-repair means that students correct their own errors following the teacher's feedback without providing the correct form. Finally, peer-repair means that other students help the one who made the error correct the mistake following by the teacher's feedback without providing the correct form.

(10) Ss: don't (error-grammatical)

T: No, I don't or no, I didn't? (clarification)

Ss: I didn't. (repair-self)

Needs-repair in this study includes acknowledgement, hesitation, same error, different error, off target, and partial repair.

(11) Ss: They went to a karaoke club. (Thai accent – error-phonological)

T: (put hand on the ear to hear) A what? (clarification)

Ss: Kala ok. (needs-same)

T: Ka la ok??? Really?? (clarification)

Ss: Yeah. (needs-acknowledgement)

T: So kala ok is Thai (Ss together) accent, yes? Ok! How to pronounce it, can you guess?   (elicitation)

Ss: kala … (needs-same)

T: Ok, /kariouk/. (recast)

Ss: /kairioke/ (repair-repeat)

3.4.4 Feedback Effectiveness

This current study focuses on learner uptake as a factor indicating the effectiveness of corrective feedback. However, Ohta (2000) claimed that uptake was just a language phenomenon, thus it may not definitively lead to learners' language attainment. Mackey and Philp (1998) added that uptake was not an effective measure to check feedback effectiveness. Even Lyster and Ranta (1997), who used repair as a method of checking the learners' understanding of teacher feedback, stated that choice of teacher feedback may have an effect on learner repair, thus learner repair cannot guarantee learner knowledge acquisition. Later, Williams (2001), who designed a tailor-made test checking feedback impact, noted that language improvement took place when repair occurred. Loewen (2002) also argued that acquisition of vocabulary and grammar was greatly related to learners' successful uptake. Both of these two studies confirmed the indicator role of learner uptake and repair, and prompted the current study to concentrate on the relationship between teacher feedback and learner acquirement.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) stated from a study on corrective feedback and learner uptake that students' self-repair which required students to do deeper analysis and reformulation could be effective indicator that students acquired the language. Meanwhile, students' repair or simply repetition following recast and explicit correction did not involve students in deep processing and reanalyzing, and thus cannot indicate whether the students acquire the correct utterances in focus or not.

Similarly, both Havranek and Cesnik (2001) and McDonough (2005) stated that students' self-repair following teachers' prompts – which could trigger the interactions between teacher and students, could be an important predictor of students' language acquisition.

Thus, in this study, teacher feedback which immediately leads to student-generated repair (including self-repair and peer-repair) was defined as effective feedback. Two successful sequences are shown below.

(12) Ss: She belt. (error-lexical)

T: She what? (clarification)

Ss: belt (needs-same)

T: she belt, belt, belt, belt? She? She , the verb, verb, she …? (elicitation)

Ss: take (needs-different)

T: take? She fastened. Right, fasten, How to spell fasten? (elicitation)

Ss: F-A-S-T-E-N. (repair-self)

13) Sd: I go to the gym. (error-grammatical)

T: I go to the gym! What did you do on the weekend? So you have to say! (elicitation)

Ss: I went to. (repair-peer)

As can be seen in example 12 and 13, the feedback type – elicitation, which immediately led to student-generated repair (self or peer repair) is an effective correction strategy to deal with students' mistakes. However, the clarification following lexical error in example 12 did not immediately lead to student-generated repair, but needs-repair, thus was defined as a less effective method in this sequence.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Communicative Interactions Occurring in ESL Speaking Classes Taught by Native English and Non-Native English Teachers

4.1.1 Overall Teacher-Student Communicative Interactions

Table 1. Frequency of Turns with Student Error, Teacher Feedback and Student Uptake

Teacher	Total Student Turns	Student Turns with Error or Needs-repair (% of Total Student Turns)	Teacher Turns with Feedback (% of Total Errors)	Total Student Turns with Uptake (% of Feedback)	Student Turns with Successful Repair (% of Feedback)	Student Turns with Successful Repair (% of Total Errors)
Non-native1&2	1412	350 (25%)	288 (82%)	169 (59%)	93 (32%)	93 (27%)
Native3&4	839	122 (14%)	111 (91%)	75 (68%)	44 (40%)	44 (36%)
Total	2251	472 (21%)	399 (85%)	244 (61%)	137 (34%)	137 (29%)

Before summarizing all the data for the research questions, the current research made some comparisons with the investigation results of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study. Using the Pearson Chi-Square test, there was no significant difference between these two studies, which may suggest that the current study exhibited some similar and coherent results to the previous study.

In order to have an overall review of the research results, namely teacher-student interactions which occurred in different classrooms, Table 1, based on Lyster and Ranta (1997)'s study, is presented above. Teachers were coded into two types, namely non-native English speaking teacher (Teacher 1 and 2) and native English speaking teacher (Teacher 3 and 4). In total, five main elements were coded to show the oral interactions which happened in all four classrooms: total student's turns, namely students' self-initiated utterances, except for the simple confirmations without any potential of containing error or needs-repair; students' turns with error or needs-repair, or in L1; teacher turns with feedback to students' error utterance;

student turns with uptake following teachers' feedback; student turns with successful repair to teachers' feedback and to the total errors.

This result showed a general teacher-student interaction happening during these classes, namely, when the students produced some ill-formed utterances, teachers tended to give some treatments, which, if being received properly, would lead to students' corrections or uptake. In this sequence, 21% of students' 2251 utterances contain at least one error or needs-repair, which reflects the urgency of providing feedback. Thus, teachers gave corrective treatments to 85% of student errors, leaving 15% of mistakes alone or untreated. When receiving the treatment from teachers, students responded to 61% of teacher feedback. On the other hand, about 40% of teachers' feedback was ignored. Finally, only 34% of teacher feedback elicited students' repair, with 66% of teacher feedback leading to no uptake or needs repair. Overall, 29% of students' errors were finally corrected or reformulated, with most of the errors untreated.

As for the non-native English teachers' class, students made 1412 utterances during the classroom, of which 25% contained a variety of mistakes. Two Thai English teachers together provided varied types of feedback to 82% of the students' errors, of which 59% led to students' uptake. Finally, 32% of the teacher feedback led to students' repair, which meant that only 27% of students' utterances including errors were eventually corrected. Notably, the native English teachers' classroom interactions seemed to exhibit some similar results. But the students who learnt with both the English teacher and the Canadian teacher tended to provide fewer utterances, in particular, only 839 student turns, of which only 14% were comprised of students' mistakes. Meanwhile, 91% of all the student errors led to teachers' feedback, which prompted students' response at the rate of 68%. At last, 40% of teacher feedback led to students' correction and 36% of student errors were finally corrected.

4.1.2 Similarities and Differences in Classroom Interactions with Two Types of Teachers.

In order to see the similarities and differences between native and non-native teachers' interactions, a more detailed Pearson Chi-Square test shown in Table 2 was used to compare these two types of teachers and the teacher-student interactions.

Of the five elements being compared in Table 2, significant differences at the 0.05 level (p< .05) were found in student turns with errors, teacher turns with feedback and student turns with repair of total errors.

Table 2. Pearson Chi-Square Results of Teacher Types and Classroom Interactions

Classroom Interactions	Native and Non-native Teachers	
	x^2	Sig.(2-sided)
Student Turns with Errors or Needs-repair	33.34	0.01**
Teacher Turns with Feedback	5.24	0.05*
Student Turns with Uptake	2.66	0.103
Student Turns with Repair (of Feedback)	1.92	0.166
Student Turns with Repair (of Total Errors)	3.96	0.05*

**Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Results show that students in the non-native teachers' classes tended to make more utterances (1412 turns) and even more mistakes (25% of total student turns) than the students who learnt with native teachers. These may be due to the varied teaching methods used by different types of teachers. That is non-native teachers tended to elicit or encourage the students to speak a lot without much instruction or guidance, which may generate more students' utterances, while the native teachers tended to give more instructions and guidance for the students to follow, thus fewer ill utterances occurred. Meanwhile, since students in the non-native teachers' class were asked a lot of questions and had to provide many answers, and

they participated in the class activities without much teacher guidance, more errors tended to occur in the non-native teachers' class. By looking through the classroom observation and the teacher interviews, the results may be explained thus: two types of English teachers tended to use different teaching strategies. Noemi (2009) stated from one study which analyzed the different teaching strategies between native speaking teachers and non-native speaking teachers that native teachers tended to elaborate upon student knowledge, while non-native teachers preferred to elicit students, which just testified to the current study's result.

As for the teacher turns with feedback and the student turns with repair of total errors, both elements in the non-native teachers' class are lower than the native teachers' class. This may be due to the fact that the non-native teachers tended to teach with L1 and communicate with students using L1 during some stages of the class, thus students' unsolicited use of L1 occurred often. Even though those students' L1 was needed to be translated or recast, the Thai English teachers usually continued their class without interrupting the students or providing feedback, hence causing a relatively low rate of teacher feedback to students' errors. Also, the Thai English teachers' class pace was fast and they preferred to continue on their topic constantly, instead of giving many types of feedback and thus leaving less time for students to correct themselves, especially for recast and explicit correction. As a result, only few of the students' errors were finally repaired. Strangely, these findings are inconsistent with McNeill's (2005) study, which elaborated that non-native English speaking teachers tended to be more aware of students' problem utterances and would be more effective to repair these problems, and also Árva and Medgyes' (2000) statement that non-native English speaking teachers would be less tolerant with students' errors and would correct students' mistakes more frequently. This discrepancy may be due to the fact that Thai English teachers used some L1 during their teaching process and they kept up a rapid teaching pace, which although prompted more students' use of L1, left no chance for them to translate the students' L1 into English. This may be coherent with the explanation that non-native teachers have a similar cultural and language background with their students and could better understand their problems and be more tolerant of their difficulties (Clark & Paran, 2007).

Except for these three main differences, the two elements of student turns with uptake and student turns with repair of feedback, share a similarity across the board with no significance at the 0.05 level (p< .05). This similarity shows that all four groups of students learning with four different teachers tended to make a similar number of responses and repairs to the teachers' corrections. These results may be due to the fact that all the target groups are first-year Thai students, who just graduated from high school, thus their understanding, acquiring, and absorbing of teachers' (both native and non-native) comments, corrections, or feedback, seemed to be at the same level. Lyster and Ranta (1997) stated that teachers should take students' proficiency level into consideration when providing feedback. Students in their study (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) had different English abilities, which might be the reason why teachers in their study provided different feedback and students' acquisition rate of teacher feedback was also different. In short, students' diverse proficiency levels could cause different learning problems which lead to different treatment. Thus, in this current study, because students' proficiency levels were the same, their understanding and acquisition of teachers' feedback may not have necessarily relied on teacher types.

4.2 Corrective Feedback Used by Native English and Non-Native English Teachers

Teacher preferences of different types of feedback (recast, clarification, elicitation, explicit correction, repetition and metalinguistic feedback), as well as the frequency of each feedback used by each of the four teachers, are presented in Table 3. The results showed some similarities with Lyster & Ranta's (1997) study, which may testify to the reliability and applicability of the error treatment sequence in the current situation.

Table 3. Feedback Types Used by Native and Non-Native English Teachers

Types of Feedback	Non-native	Native	Total
Recast	150 (52.1%)	45 (40.5%)	195 (48.9%)
Clarification	54 (18.8%)	23 (20.7%)	77 (19.3%)
Elicitation	52 (18.1%)	23 (20.7%)	75 (18.8%)
Explicit Correction	19 (6.6%)	11 (9.9%)	30 (7.5%)
Repetition	10 (3.5%)	6 (5.4%)	16 (4.0%)
Metalinguistic	3 (1.0%)	3 (2.7%)	6 (1.5%)
Total	288 (100.0%)	111 (100.0%)	399 (100.0%)

Among the four teachers, recast was the most frequently used feedback type of all the teachers' turns when giving corrective feedback, and that accounted for almost half of all feedback. Clarification and elicitation were the second most frequently used categories across the board; together they both constituted approximately 19% of the total. The least frequently used feedback types were explicit correction, repetition, metalinguistic feedback, which exhibited a decreasing trend of 7.5%, 4% and 1.5% respectively. Metalinguistic was testified as one frequently used and effective feedback type in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, which was just the opposite in current study. This may due to the fact that teachers in this current situation seemed to elicit many responses from the students but only give few comments. Some changes to the definition of metalinguistic feedback were made to suit the current study which may have caused this feedback type to be the least frequently used; metalinguistic feedback co-exists with other types of feedback.

As for each type of teacher, non-native English teachers provided much feedback, totaling 288, especially the recast, which accounted for 52.1%. The remaining feedback types spread in a descending order as follows: clarification (18.8%), elicitation (18.1%), explicit correction (6.6%), repetition (3.5%), and metalinguistic feedback (1%). Of the 111 instances of feedback given by the native teachers, recast accounted for 40.5%, both clarification and elicitation accounted for 20.7%, explicit correction 9.9%, repetition 5.4%, and metalinguistic feedback 2.7%.

The reasons why non-native teachers provided overwhelmingly more feedback are probably that both of the two Thai English teachers preferred eliciting the students and their teaching pace were really fast. Thus, large amount of students' utterances occurred, which could possibly stimulate more feedback.

However, the comparison between types of teacher and their use of each type of feedback showed that there is no significant difference, which may indicate that the distributions of each feedback pattern used by both native and non-native teachers were similar; no matter native or non-native, all English teachers tend to use all types of feedback to tackle students' language difficulties.

While if looking at each type of feedback, recast used by non-native teachers (52.1%) is higher than that used by native teachers (40.5%). This may be due to the fact that Thai teachers could communicate with students in L1 and use recast to reformulate students' unsolicited use of L1. Meanwhile, it may be because the current study redefined recast, especially translation, to include teachers' elicitation of students' knowledge from English to Thai.

4.3 Student Uptake and Effective Feedback in Different Classroom Environments

In this current study, corrective feedback which immediately leads to student-generated repair is defined as successful feedback. Since error-comment-repair is the common and basic error correction process happening in almost every classroom, this current study, based on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) analytic model, focused on examining the most effective feedback type in the error treatment sequences occurred in four classrooms with the fundamental factors such as student errors, teacher feedback and student uptake.

Table 4. Basic Error Treatment Sequence in Four Classrooms

Student Errors	Teacher Feedback	Student Responses
399	399	Repair 137 (34%)
		Needs Repair 107 (27%)
		No Uptake 155 (39%)

As can be seen in Table 4, the basic error treatment sequence showed three ways of interactions occurred in all the four classrooms. Since this research aimed to study the error correction sequences, student errors which led to no teacher feedback were excluded to guarantee the results. Thus, the total 399 student errors in this Table referred to those which were followed by teacher feedback. The first sequence in Table 4 exhibited that 137 errors that followed by teacher feedback were finally repaired, which accounted for 34% of all these 399 errors. The second sequence showed that 107 errors followed by teacher feedback led to needs repair, which on the other hand meant that 27% of these errors being corrected still included something inappropriate. While, the last basic sequence was that 39% of errors followed by teacher feedback received no response from students. All these results indicate that student errors treated by teacher feedback could lead to students' responses, including repair, needs repair and no uptake, at quite even distribution in the current study.

More detailed findings about learner responses after teacher feedback are shown in Table 5. The overall results showed some similarities to Lyster & Ranta's (1997) study. Since Lyster & Ranta (1997) had already reported that repairs generated by recast and explicit correction were not student-initiated, and that repairs after clarification, elicitation, repetition, and metalinguistic feedback were all student generated, (which were also proved correct by this current research), this study focused more on the repairs followed by feedback which triggers negotiation of form.

Table 5. Student Responses after Teachers' Feedback

Student Error	Teacher Feedback	Student Uptake		No Uptake
		Repair	Needs Repair	
195	Recast (n=195)	42 (21%)	19 (10%)	134 (69%)
30	Explicit Correction (n=30)	12 (40%)	0 (0%)	18 (60%)
75	Elicitation (n=75)	44 (59%)	31 (41%)	0 (0%)
77	Clarification (n=77)	32 (42%)	43 (56%)	2 (2%)
16	Repetition (n=16)	6 (38%)	10 (62%)	0 (0%)
6	Metalinguistic (n=6)	1 (17%)	4 (66%)	1 (17%)
Total (n=399)	Total (n=399)	137 (34%)	107 (27%)	155 (39%)

The first sequence in Table 5 basically demonstrated that the errors followed by recast usually led to three subsequent results: 21% corrected, 10% needs repair, and 69% no response. Thus, even though recast was the most frequently used feedback given to resolve 195 errors out of the total 399 errors, the effectiveness of this sequence tended to be low, with nearly 70% of the errors resulting in no student uptake. All these may suggest that although recast was provided to most of the errors, the error treatment sequence including recast tended to be less successful in leading to student repairs. Even the 21% errors being corrected were not student-generated repair, but merely students' repetition to teachers' correct reformulations. Thus, to keep the effectiveness of error correction process in future pedagogical activities, lecturers or teachers are recommended to avoid producing error treatment sequence including recast.

The second sequence in Table 4 was quite similar to the first sequence though the exact error numbers were not. As can be seen, 40% of student errors (12 errors) treated by teachers' explicit correction finally led to repair, which was also students' rephrasing of teachers' correct comments. At the same time, 60% of student errors (18 errors) followed by explicit correction led to no student uptake. Thus, the sequence consisting of explicit correction tended to be less effective in correcting student mistakes too, hence, not recommended to be used.

Looking at the definitions and examples of explicit correction and recast, some similar features among these two types of teacher feedback can be seen, such as that both provide correct forms for students to follow and repeat: in other words, they were usually the teachers' reformulations of students' ill-formed utterances, instead of triggering the interactions between lecturer and learners. Thus, the corrections were usually the students' repetition or cooperation with teachers' correct modification. Therefore, for pedagogical instructions, teachers are recommended to produce error treatment sequence without recast or explicit correction, feedback types which cannot initiate the negotiation between teachers and students.

The third basic error treatment sequence including elicitation seemed to be the most effective in leading to students self-repair, with almost 60% of student errors treated by elicitation resulted in immediate students' repair. The repairs followed by elicitation were usually student-generated correction, which was testified by both previous studies (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) and the current study. The results showed that all the errors treated by elicitation led to student-generated responses, either repair or needs repair and none of them ended with no uptake. Thus, this type of corrective feedback seemed to be the most successful one which can result in a higher rate of students' repairs in all these classes. As a result, it should be employed often in the teaching process.

The sequences including clarification and repetition also shared some similarities. Quite a number of student errors -- 98% of all the errors followed by clarification and 100% of errors dealt with repetition led to students' responses. Only 2% and 0% of them respectively resulted in no uptake. Meanwhile, 42% of the errors followed by clarification were corrected by students, while 56% of them eventually generated needs repair. 38% of the errors receiving repetition resulted in students repairs, still, 62% of the errors followed by repetition led to needs repair. Apparently, however, repetition was used much less frequently (16 times) than clarification (77 times). Thus, instead of simply using elicitation to stimulate successful error treatment sequence, teachers may opt for clarification and repetition to ensure effective error corrections.

The last sequence occurred in all four classroom was the one which included metalinguistic feedback. Only 6 student errors were followed by teachers' metalinguistic feedback, with 1 of them being repaired, 4 of them resulting in needs repair and 1 of them led to no student response. This result may indicate that metalinguistic feedback was the least used feedback type used by all the teachers in this study. Overall results show that elicitation is the most effective form of feedback, of which 59% finally lead to students' self-repair. The next two effective types of feedback are clarification and repetition, 42% and 38% respectively. Only a few instances of metalinguistic feedback occurred in this study, which also led to the least of students' repair (17%).

Table 6. Student Repair after Native and Non-Native Teachers' Feedback

Native Teachers' Classes		Non-Native Teachers' Classes		Pearson Chi-Square	
Teacher Feedback	Repair	Teacher Feedback	Repair	x^2	Sig (2-sided)
Elicitation (n=23)	14 (61%)	Elicitation (n=52)	30 (58%)	0.07	0.797
Clarification (n=23)	11 (48%)	Clarification (n=54)	21 (39%)	1.24	0.538
Repetition (n=6)	2 (33%)	Repetition (n=10)	4 (40%)	0.07	0.790
Metalinguistic (n=3)	1 (33%)	Metalinguistic (n=3)	0 (0%)	2.00	0.368

Table 6 above illustrates the feedback effectiveness in two types of teachers' classes. There is no significance difference between types of teachers and their feedback effectiveness through Pearson Chi-Square test, which may indicate that learner uptake distributions to each type of corrective feedback is not dependent on types of teachers in this study. On further investigation of effective feedback used by different types of teachers, results showed that elicitation is the most successful correction type for both native and non-native teachers, which led to 61% and 58% of immediate student-generated repair respectively. The rest relatively effective feedback used by both types of teachers is clarification and repetition.

5. CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The current study investigated the teacher-student interaction process, especially the error treatment sequences occurring in both native and non-native English teachers' classrooms, and the relationship among teacher types, corrective feedback, and feedback effectiveness. Lyster and Ranta's (1997) analytic model was applied in this study and proved to be applicable and effective.

The results showed that students in the non-native English teachers' class tended to be more active and produced more utterances than students in the native English teachers' class, and eventually more errors occurred in the non-native English teachers' class. These findings may serve to remind non-native teachers that when encouraging the students to speak a lot it would be better to give more instructions or standard examples for the students to follow, which in addition, could decrease the rate of students' errors and make students' practices more effective.

In this study, the results also show that non-native English teachers provided less corrective feedback to students' mistakes, and the rate of students' final repair to their total errors regarding non-native English teachers also tended to be lower. Since students were not given enough time to respond in many turns, it is recommended that in their future teaching process, teachers should, instead of simply urging students to speak actively, be more aware of the students' mistakes, and lower their teaching pace to give students time to realize their shortages and make some reformulations.

As for types of feedback provided by different types of teachers, recast was found to be the most frequently used feedback type of all the teachers, but it simultaneously led to the lowest rate of student repair. Elicitation was found to be the most successful corrective strategy among all the teachers, except for Teacher 2, whose clarification was the more effective. But, in terms of native and non-native teachers, elicitation was still proved the most efficient strategy. This result may imply that teachers should provide the type of feedback which can generate interaction or communication between teacher and students regarding students' inappropriate utterances.

Generalization of this study might not be easily made since it was indeed conducted at only a university in southern Thailand. Despite the abundant findings, researchers are recommended to further conduct a larger scale of investigation on more variables, such as teaching approaches, teacher characteristics, background knowledge, students' proficiency levels, including the teachers' and students' perception of corrective feedback.

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Appendix A

Database

2 Thai English teachers – Teacher 1 & 2

2 Native English teachers – one from England, another from Canada – Teacher 3 & 4

1 subject matter lesson – Fundamental English Listening and Speaking

16 lessons totaling 738 minutes or 12.3 hours

Teacher 1 – 4 lessons

1.	July. 2	Topic - On the Weekend	54 min
2.	July. 4	Topic - On Vacation	32 min
3.	July. 9	Topic - Entertainment	50 min
4.	July. 11	Topic - Music	43 min

Teacher 2 – 4 lessons

1.	Aug. 7	Topic - Public Transportation	48 min
2.	Aug. 21	Topic - Cloth and Color	48 min
3.	Aug. 28	Topic - Indoor Exercise	46 min
4.	Sep. 4	Topic - Trip Preparation	47 min

Teacher 3 – 4 lessons

1.	July. 3	Topic - On the Weekend	51 min
2.	July. 4	Topic - On Vacation	43 min
3.	July. 10	Topic - Entertainment	37 min
4.	Aug. 21	Topic - Public Transportation	49 min

Teacher 4 – 4 lessons

1. July. 10   Topic - On Vacation   49 min

2. Aug. 23   Topic - Public Transportation   43 min

3. Aug. 30   Topic - Food and Vegetable   47 min

4. Sep. 6   Topic - Cloth and Color   51 min

Appendix B

Examples of Error Treatment Sequences

(Teacher 1 – July. 2)

    Ss: holiday (error-lexical)

    T: Holiday? (repetition)

    Ss: Sunday (needs-partial)

    T: Saturday and …… (elicitation)

    Ss: Sunday! (repair-self)

(1) (Teacher 1 – July. 4)

    Sb: I went to the sea. (error-lexical)

    T: I went to the sea or the beach? (clarification)

    Sb: beach (needs-hesitation)

    T: You said the sea or the beach? (clarification)

    Sb: The beach. (repair-self)

(2) (Teacher 1 – July. 9)

    Ss: what are u doing anything … (error-grammatical)

    T: Oh?? Do we still need anything? (clarification)

    Ss: no (needs-acknowledgement)

    T: No (rising). U can say what are u doing this …(elicitation)

    Ss: what are u doing this weekend? (repair-self)

(3) (Teacher 1 – July. 11)

    S: watching a music (error-lexical)

    T: watching .. (repetition)

    S: watching a movie (repair-self)

(4) (Teacher 2 – Aug. 7)

    Si: are u in ATM (error-grammatical)

    T: are u in an ATM? No, I'm not, I'm too big to be in the ATM. (explicit correction -no uptake)

(5) (Teacher 2 – Aug. 21)

    Se: Whats do u think (error-phonological)

    T: what no s, now what, (explicit correction)

    Se: what (repair-repeat)

(6) (Teacher 2 – Aug. 28)

    Sa: you, you in good shape. Bow (error-grammatical)

    T: you are in good shape. (recast)

    Sa: you are in good shape (repair-repeat)

(7) (Teacher 2 – Sep. 4)

    Sc: I would like to go Paris. (error-grammatical)

    T: I would like to go to Paris. (recast-no uptake)

(8) (Teacher 3 – July. 3)

    Ss: Did she/they visit parents? (error-grammatical)

    T: Ok, I heard some of u got it. Did she visit …(elicitation)

    Ss: …. (needs-hesitation)

    T: Ok, parents, did she visit parents? What's this word? (elicitation)

    Ss: Her. (repair-self)

(9) (Teacher 3 – July. 4)

Ss: visit museum (error-grammatical)

T: ok, how many museums u will see in the picture? (clarification)

Ss: one(needs-partial)

T: so we might say did they visit .. (elicitation)

Ss: the (needs-different)

T: the or a? museum. Ok. Did they visit a museum? (recast-no uptake)

(10)   (Teacher 3 – July. 10)

Ss: coffee (error-lexical)

T: ok, lots of drinks. Coffee, and tea, and, ok a lot of drinks. But what types of food? (clarification)

Ss: ……. (needs-hesitation)

T: What kind of food are in café? (elicitation)

Ss: cake (repair-self)

(11)   (Teacher 3 – Aug. 21)

Ss: is (error-grammatical)

T: so how much are the tickets. Do u know how much the tickets … (elicitation)

Ss: how much the tickets are (repair-self)

(12)   (Teacher 4 – July. 10)

Sj: he travelled his own (error-grammatical)

T: he travelled on his own, he travelled on his own. (recast)

Sj: on his own (repair-repeat).

(13)   (Teacher 4 – Aug. 23)

Sc: it's a bus stop. It's a bus stop. (error-lexical)

T: it's a bus (recast-no uptake)

(14)   (Teacher 4 – Aug. 30)

Ss: how many eggs are in the refrigerator? (error-phonological)

T: oh, refrigerator/'refrigirate/ (recast)

Ss: refrigerator. (needs-same)

T: not refrigerator /rifrigi'rate/, refrigerator. (explicit correction)

Ss: refrigerator (repair-repeat)

(15)   (Teacher 4 – Sep. 6)

Sp: uglier (error-phonological)

T: uglier (recast)

Ss: uglier (repair-repeat)

PAPER 1

Error Treatment Sequence in Classrooms with Native English and Non-Native English Teachers

Error Treatment Sequence in Classrooms with Native English and Non-Native English Teachers

Sen Zhang (Corresponding Author)

M.A. student, Department of Languages and Linguistics, Faculty of Liberal Arts

Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai Campus, Songkhla, Thailand

E-mail: mutation_mo@hotmail.com

Monta Chatupote

Assoc. Prof. Dr., Department of Languages and Linguistics, Faculty of Liberal Arts

Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai Campus, Songkhla, Thailand

E-mail: monta.ch@psu.ac.th

Abstract

This research aimed to study the error treatment sequences, namely, learner error and teacher feedback in 4 classrooms taught by 2 native English speaking and 2 non-native English speaking teachers respectively. 12.3 hours of classroom interactions were analyzed using the correction analytic model comprising teacher feedback, student uptake and student repair. Results showed that error treatment sequences including recast tended to lead to high rate of students' no response in both Native and Non-Native teachers' classes; while those consisting of elicitation, clarification and repetition, seemed to be more effective as could be seen in high rate of students' self-repairs in both types of classrooms; and the error treatment sequence linked by explicit correction generated more repairs in Non-Native teachers' class. All these results may suggest that both Native and Non-Native teachers should avoid producing error treatment sequences including recast and try to initiate the sequences containing elicitation, clarification or repetition in order to trigger student repairs effectively.

Keywords: Error treatment sequence, Corrective feedback, Different teacher types

1. Introduction

In 1978, Hendrickson summarized five framing questions concerning the matter of error treatment process in the classroom: why the mistakes need to be corrected, when to correct them; what to be corrected; how to correct; who do the correction (Hendrickson, 1978). Within these puzzles, the past few decades witnessed a number of discussions on the mistake correction issues in classroom process, which still seemed hardly to resolve any of these five framing questions. However, previous researchers used to pay close attention to corrective feedback or interactive feedback, which, although didn't answer the five framing questions, were always crucial and highly connected with learner errors in classroom, and even to some extent demonstrated how competent speakers corrected learners' errors and what kind of errors they tended to correct.

Corrective feedback or interactive feedback, as teachers' comments, responses or reformulation of learners' incorrect or inappropriate utterances, plays a scaffolding role in error treatment procedure happened in classrooms, which was supported by both Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985) and Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996). Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985) states that comprehensible input might not be enough to achieve learners' language acknowledgement; modified output is also needed and necessary for completing the whole process of language mastery. Corrective feedback is just one typical kind of means that may trigger modified output from students. Meanwhile, Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996) claims that interactional modification can make input comprehensible for learners, which will finally facilitate learner acquisition (Long, 1996). Thus, corrective feedback and learner uptake, which stimulate the interaction between learners and teachers, can benefit language learning process (Long, 1996).

Numerous researchers, deriving from these statements, studied the effectiveness and functions of feedback in classroom interactions and made thriving and prosperous development on feedback functions in students' language learning process. Of particular relevance to the present study are the consecutive studies conducted by Roy Lyster (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 2001; Panova & Lyster, 2002). These studies stemmed from the foundation of Chaudron (1977, 1986, & 1988), which developed a model of the mistake correction process including teacher corrections and students reactions, and Doughty (1994a), which defined teacher turns as feedback types, such as clarification request and recast (Doughty, 1994a). Later, Lyster and Ranta (1997) worked out a model of error correction sequence, namely student mistakes, teacher feedback and student responses, which constituted the main unit of analysis for this current research.

Using this error treatment sequence analysis, generally, previous studies have made some development on basic characteristics about feedback or error treatment. Lyster and Ranta (1997) compared teacher feedback with students' errors and uptake, and studied the effectiveness of types of feedback. Lyster (2001) further investigated teacher feedback and the relationship among student errors, student repairs and feedback types. Panova and Lyster (2002), using the error treatment model from previous study, corroborated the applicability of this model in a new classroom environment and compared the results with the previous

studies.

Inspired by Lyster and Ranta (1997), Suzuki (2004) compared teacher feedback and student responses in a typical U.S. ESL context with the previous study. The results showed both similarities and some differences to those in the previous study, and possible explanations were that these diversities may account for different classroom context, learners' ages and their motivation in attending the class, teacher experience and the language used (Suzuki, 2004).

Li (2010) compared 33 primary studies and concluded that the effect of corrective feedback could be maintained over time, implicit feedback can be easily preserved and foreign language environment can facilitate the experiments or researches more than other classroom contexts. However, despite the achievements stated above, Li (2010) also suggested that future researchers would be better concentrate on exploring the factors influencing feedback effectiveness. Thus, more variables, such as learner abilities, cultural differences or even interlocutor types, are needed to be investigated (Li, 2010).

Despite the suggestion, there have been merely some researches concentrating on the effects of diverse learning environments, such as students, either high ability or low ability, learning with native-speaker or non-native-speaker teachers, factors which are inherent to general learning situation. Due to the fact that teacher types are common factors influencing the teaching process, studies on these will certainly contribute to the body of knowledge about the effects they have on learner outcomes and give more insights into pedagogical use. Thus, this present study focused on comparing the similarities and differences of error treatment sequence happening in classrooms with native and non-native English speaker teachers, discovering the relationship between teacher types and teacher feedback, learner uptakes, and finally giving some suggestions and implications for feedback providing in current teaching procedures.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Basic Concept

2.1.1 Error Treatment Sequence

Making errors is an essential part of the process in SLA. Hendrickson's (1978) five framing questions and the following studies on these questions already demonstrated the importance of the error correction process. Later, both Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985) and Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996) highlighted the necessity of studying the error treatment process in classroom.

Chaudron (1977, 1986, & 1988) developed an error correction process model which compared students' errors, response and teachers' correction and formed the basic error treatment sequence. Doughy (1994a) later coded learner turns and teacher feedback in the classroom sequence, such as clarification request and recast, which brought the main content to the error treatment sequence. Deriving from these studies, Lyster and Ranta (1997) devised a more detailed and ordered error treatment model, which included student mistakes, teacher

feedback and student responses. Using this sequence, Lyster (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 2001; Panova & Lyster, 2002) conducted consecutive studies which exhibited details of error correction process in 4 classrooms, the relationships among teacher feedback and learner errors and uptakes.

Since this current study focused on comparing error correction process happening in classrooms with different types of English teachers, some developments and changes, such as teacher types with teacher feedback, were made to adapt this error treatment sequence in the present situation.

2.1.2 Teacher Feedback

In teaching procedure, feedback refers to the comments or information, given by either teachers or other learners, to students' incorrect utterances (Richards, John, & Heidi, 2000). However, as the teacher's response to students' errors, feedback has been defined differently based on varied disciplinary orientations (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) in the past few decades. This current study focuses on corrective feedback used by second language lecturers.

Definitions of corrective feedback also differ in diverse studies. Within the interaction approach, corrective feedback arguably directs learners to focus on second language form (Long, 1996). While, Adams, Nuevo and Egi (2011) stated that teacher feedback referred to the conversational partners' negative comments to students' discourses which were not similar to the target language. According to Chaudron (1977), corrective feedback refers to any teachers' reactions that urge for or convert to students' improvement of the error utterance. Li (2010) stated that corrective feedback is the responses to learners' L2 utterance (usually the students' utterance with errors). Overall, corrective feedback is teachers' responses or reactions to learners' incorrect or unsuitable discourses, which may offer the corrections or slight indications to encourage learners to make some improvements of their errors or inappropriate utterances.

2.1.3 Learner Uptake

Usually, when studying teacher feedback in classroom, learner uptake which as the following sequence or the indication of feedback, was also used to compare teacher feedback and student responses, and to make the whole error treatment sequence integrated. Previously, uptake was defined as something that learners believe to have acquired from a specific course (Slimani, 1992). While, later Lyster and Ranta (1997) gave it a different notion – learners' discourses come after teachers' correction strategies instantly and form the response to teacher's intention of reminding the student of the inappropriate address. Yoshida (2010) defined learner uptake as learner response, which shows the student's state of understanding to teacher's comments or information.

To keep the consistency of teacher feedback and learner uptake, learner uptake in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study were also applied in this current research, but with some adjustment of both teacher feedback and learner uptake due to the different classroom environment and students' characters.

2.2 Review of Related Researches

The study, carried out by Lyster and Ranta (1997), initiated an analytical model of teacher-student utterance including six types of feedback and two types of uptake, and examined this sequence in four French immersion classrooms at the elementary level, during which the researchers analyzed and discussed the frequency and relationship of types of feedback and learner responses. Following this study, Panova and Lyster (2002) checked the applicability of this analytic model in an adult ESL classroom and found some similar results with Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study. Lyster (2001), based on the results from Lyster and Ranta (1997), further discussed the connections among teacher feedback, student errors and immediate student repairs, which made a more complete and comprehensible picture of error treatment sequence in classroom.

Consecutive studies by Lyster and Ranta (1997), Lyster (2001) and Panova and Lyster (2002) not only provided an analytic model, namely types of feedback and uptakes, for this current study, but also exhibited details of how to conduct the research about feedback types, how to compare the effectiveness or incidence of corrective feedback, and how to compare the relationship among teacher feedback, learner uptake and learner repair. Some aspects of design from these studies, such as collecting data from 4 classes, concentrating on communicative lectures and using the same error treatment sequence, were also applied in this current study.

Li (2010) conducted a study on teacher feedback through comparing 33 primary studies. The results exhibited that implicit feedback was better perceived by the learner than explicit feedback, feedbacks provided during foreign language contexts are more effective than second language context, and native-speaking teacher tended to provide more successful feedback types than the other teachers or computer. He (Li, 2010) also suggested that more variables, like learners' age, ability, classroom environment and even interlocutor types, were needed to be researched.

Since teacher types seem to have some effects on the corrective feedback in classroom, there are always some discussions about native and non-native teachers' teaching instructions. Some believes that native teachers have more advantages, since their language proficiency are higher. While, others would argue that non-native teachers may have the same cultural background with the students and could better understand their language difficulties (Clark & Paran, 2007). Although native-speaker and non-native-speaker teachers may have some differences in language proficiency and teaching methods, Medgyes (1994) emphasizes that these do not mean that one type of teacher is more advanced than another. (Árva & Medgyes, 2000). Therefore, to study teachers' teaching methods seems to be quite important since the effectiveness of feedback can be the indicator of teachers' teaching quality (Gibbons, 2003).

Of strong relevance and instruction to this current study was the study conducted by Noemi (2009), which made a comparison between native-speaker and non-native-speaker teachers' scaffolding strategies in young students' second language learning process (Noemi, 2009). By creating a new classification of teachers' scaffolding techniques, this study analyzed the relationship between teacher types and instructive methods, and found that native teachers

preferred to elaborate their language to students, while non-native teachers liked to elicit students' responses (Noemi, 2009).

With the coming of The ASEAN Community, learning English becomes an urgent necessity for most Asian learners, which may further their career during this flourishing age. However, there are quite a lot of problems and difficulties in Asian learners' language acquisition process. Thus, studies on teacher-students sequence in classrooms are needed to understand the difficulties and provide some instructions for the practical learning process. The present study attempts to discover feedback used in both native English and non-native teacher classes, to explore the relationship between teacher types and feedback effectiveness, and tries to provide some insights of teachers' perceptions and students' preference of feedback. All these will certainly contribute to better understanding of classroom procedure which can lead to success in teaching and learning.

3. Research Questions

3.1 What are the overall error treatment sequences in all four classrooms?

3.2 What are the similarities and differences of error treatment sequences in classrooms taught by these two types of teachers?

4. Methodology

4.1 Participants

In order to keep the whole process consecutive and comparative, 145 Thai freshmen from 4 different faculties (Liberal Arts, Medicine, Engineering, Management Sciences) at an university in the south of Thailand, who have enrolled in the course of Fundamental English Listening and Speaking during the first semester of the school year 2013, were selected.

Two Thai English lecturers and two English Native-speaker lecturers were chosen on the foundation of their own wills to be observed. All of them teach this same course, Fundamental English listening and speaking. Teacher 1 is a female Thai English teacher who has taught English for 10 years in a southern Thailand University. She used to teach some fundamental English courses for first year university students from different faculties. Teacher 2 is also a female Thai English teacher, with 11 years' teaching experience, including 2 or 3 years at some institute in Nakhon Si Thammarat and 9 years at this University. The groups she taught were also the first year students who studied fundamental English courses, but more often on fundamental Reading and Writing. Teacher 3 and 4 are two native English speakers. Teacher 3 comes from Canada; he started his teaching job here several months ago. Thus, he didn't seem to have much experience in teaching English. So is the situation for Teacher 4, who is from England. However, from the observation of his class, Teacher 4 has a lot of skills of dealing with students.

The course selected for observation is named Fundamental English Listening and Speaking. The reason for choosing this course is that teachers and students tend to have a lot interactions and communications in this class, which is supported by Spada and Frohlich (1995), namely the students and teacher tended to interact with each other most of the time in oral activities. And these characteristics were just demonstrated in this current study during

the observation process.

4.2 Instruments

4.2.1 Classroom Observation (video-recording)

Primary researches used to make audio-record to collect data for observing the classroom consequence, which may not be so accurate for the current situation. Since what the audio-records provide are the simulative sound of the lecturers, sometimes the researchers may find it hard to catch the exact words owing to their not being personally on the scene. To resolve this problem and to make the data collected more precise, this current study used video-record, which may better offer the overall perspective of the classroom teaching-learning procedures. Meanwhile, video-record can also give researchers the chance to observe and realize the actual process of learners' language acquisition, especially students' reactions and performance and teachers' perception of the error treatment sequence in classroom. Totally, 16 lessons including 738 minutes' or 12.3 hours' classroom interactions were observed and recorded.

4.2.2 Interview

Since classroom observation is the crucial element for this current study, interview is also complementary to the research questions. To better understand teachers' perception of providing feedback, such as their preferred methods, own characters and teaching experience, a follow-up interview was conducted for each teacher after classroom recordings in the present study. Interviews with teacher were in English and each lasted around 30 minutes. The data analysis was based on the interview questions, interview notes and audio-record.

4.3 Coding and Quantifying

4.3.1 Error

In order to study teachers' diverse strategies to students' performance, students' utterances were coded as turns with error or not. Utterances that contained a simple confirmation, such as yes or no, or that didn't have the potential of containing errors, were excluded. However, this current study didn't exclude the short utterances, like students' acknowledgement or hesitation, inside the error treatment sequences. Based on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, this current study coded ill-formed students' utterances as lexical error, grammatical error, phonological error and content error. Since this study focused on comparing native and non-native English teachers, students' use of L1 was also coded as an extra error type in case of investigating the comprehensive perspective of classroom interaction process.

4.3.2 Feedback

Teacher utterances including different correction strategies were coded into six types of feedback based on their definitions from Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, namely recast, explicit correction, elicitation, clarification, repetition and metalinguistic feedback, which were also mingled with some new features according to the specific context in this study. For example, clarification here refers to that teachers ask some questions or make a confirmation

of students' ill turns in the previous utterances, while elicitation means that teachers ask open questions, or using strategies like pausing to elicit or encourage students to find out the correct form by their own efforts. Namely, clarification checks wrong utterances and find the correct form in the past, while elicitation guide students to look forward to find the alternatives.

4.3.3 Uptake

Referring to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, there are mainly 2 types of learner uptake, namely repair and needs-repair. Repair means that after teachers' error treatment, students tend to reformulate their error utterance with correct form. On the other hand, needs-repair refers to that students' reformulating utterance still include some incorrect or inappropriate parts.

4.4 Error Treatment Sequence

Error treatment sequence model devised by Lyster and Ranta (1997) were applied in this current study to collect the data and analyze the results, which was presented in the following figure. This sequence included three essential elements, namely, learner error, teacher feedback, and learner uptake. However, one more variable - teacher types and some changes inside each of these three elements were also presented in Figure 1.
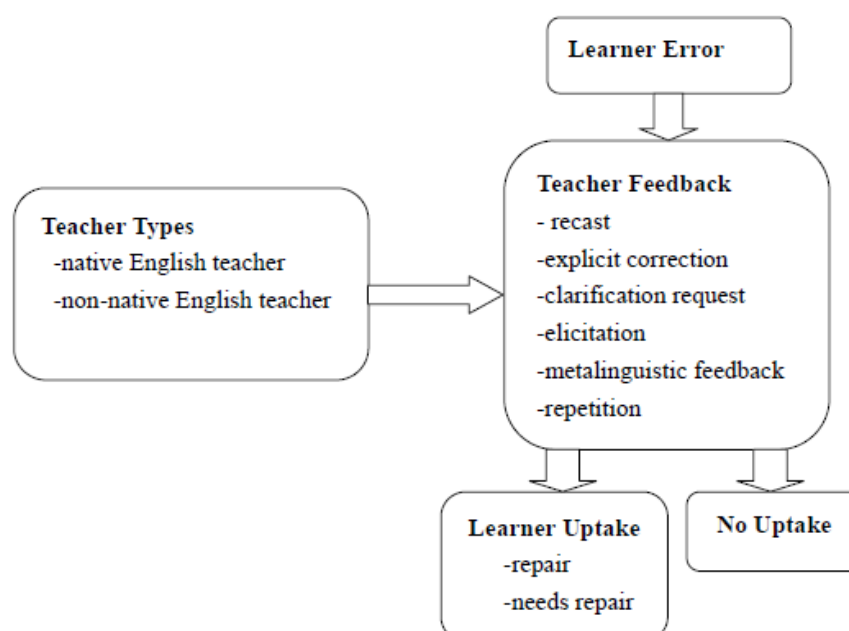

Figure 1. Error Treatment Sequences

This sequence reflects that during the teaching-learning procedure, students tend to make some errors, which teachers may provide some feedback for students to notice the discrepancy and to make some reformulations. Receiving teachers' feedback, students may either generate the correct form or initiate utterances that still include some mistakes. Since teacher types, both native and non-native English teachers, were believed to be a variable which may influence the error correction process, lecturers' types were also added in the

sequence to make the comparison among teacher types, teacher feedback, student errors and student uptakes possible.

During observations of 12.3 hours' classroom interactions happened from week 6 to week 10 of the 15-week course, video-record was introduced and students' reaction, including gestures and facial expression, and teacher's perception were recorded. All the records, 3 hours for each class were analyzed to ensure the quantity and quality of teacher-student utterances.

5. Results and Discussions

5.1 Overall Error Treatment Sequences in Four Classrooms.

Since error-comment-repair is the common and basic error correction process happening in almost every classroom, this current study, based on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) analytic model, focused on examining the error treatment sequences occurred in four classrooms with the fundamental factors such as student errors, teacher feedback and student uptake.

Table 1. Basic Error Treatment Sequence in Four Classrooms

Student Errors	Teacher Feedback	Student Responses
		Repair 137 (34%)
399	399	Needs Repair 107 (27%)
		No Uptake 155 (39%)

As can be seen in Table 1, the basic error treatment sequence showed three ways of interactions occurred in all the four classrooms. Since this research aimed to study the error correction sequences, student errors which led to no teacher feedback were excluded to guarantee the results. Thus, the total 399 student errors in this Table referred to those which were followed by teacher feedback. The first sequence in Table 1 exhibited that 137 errors that followed by teacher feedback were finally repaired, which accounted for 34% of all these 399 errors. The second sequence showed that 107 errors followed by teacher feedback led to needs repair, which on the other hand meant that 27% of these errors being corrected still included something inappropriate. While, the last basic sequence was that 39% of errors followed by teacher feedback received no response from students. All these results indicate that student errors treated by teacher feedback could lead to students' responses, including repair, needs repair and no uptake, at quite even distribution in the current study.

In order to discover more details about all the sequences occurred in four classrooms and to explore the relatively more effective sequence in all classes, more detailed sequences were presented in the following Tables.

The sequence in Table 2 basically demonstrated that the errors followed by recast usually led to three subsequent results: 21% corrected, 10% needs repair and 69% no response. Thus, even though recast was the most frequently used feedback given to resolve 195 errors out of

the total 399 errors, the effectiveness of this sequence tended to be low, with nearly 70% of the errors resulting in no student uptake.

Table 2. First Error Treatment Sequence in all Four Classrooms

Student Errors	Recast	Student Responses
195	195	Repair 42 (21%)
		Needs Repair 19 (10%)
		No Uptake 134 (69%)

All these may suggest that although recast was provided to most of the errors, the error treatment sequence including recast tended to be less successful in leading to students' repairs. Even the 21% errors being corrected were not student-generated repair, but merely students' repetition to teachers' correct reformulations. Thus, to keep the effectiveness of error correction process in future pedagogical activities, lecturers or teachers are recommended to avoid producing error treatment sequence including recast.

Table 3. Second Error Treatment Sequences in Four Classrooms

Student Errors	Explicit Correction	Student Responses
30	30	Repair 12 (40%)
		Needs Repair 0 (0%)
		No Uptake 18 (60%)

The sequence in Table 3 was quite similar to the sequence in Table 2 though the exact error numbers were not. As can be seen, 40% of student errors (12 errors) treated by teachers' explicit correction finally led to repair, which was also students' rephrasing of teachers' correct comments. At the same time, 60% of student errors (18 errors) followed by explicit correction led to no student uptake. Thus, the sequence consisting of explicit correction tended to be less effective in correcting student mistakes too, hence, not recommended to be used. Looking at the definitions and examples of explicit correction and recast, some similar features among these two types of teacher feedback can be seen as that both provide correct forms for students to follow and repeat. In other words, they were usually the teachers' reformulations of students' ill-formed utterances, instead of triggering the interactions between lecturer and learners. Thus, the corrections were usually the students' repetition or cooperation with teachers' correct modification. Therefore, for pedagogical instructions, teachers are recommended to produce error treatment sequence without recast or explicit correction, feedback types which cannot initiate the negotiation between teachers and

students.

Table 4. Third Error Treatment Sequence in Four Classrooms

Student Errors	Elicitation	Student Responses
		Repair 44 (59%)
75	75	Needs Repair 31 (41%)
		No Uptake 0 (0%)

Table 4 exhibited the basic error treatment sequence that included teachers' elicitation, which seemed to be more effective in resulting to students self-repair, since almost 60% of student errors treated by elicitation resulted in student repairs. The repairs followed by elicitation were usually student-generated correction, which was testified by both previous studies (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) and the current study. However, there were still 41% of students errors dealt with elicitation finally resulting in needs repair as the second sequence. The results showed that all the errors treated by elicitation led to student-generated responses, either repair or needs repair and none of them ended with no uptake. Thus, this sequence seemed to be the successful one which can result in high rate of students' repairs. As a result, it should be employed often in the teaching process.

Table 5. Fourth Error Treatment Sequence in Four Classrooms

Student Errors	Clarification	Student Responses
		Repair 32 (42%)
77	77	Needs Repair 43 (56%)
		No Uptake 2 (2%)

Table 6. Fifth Error Treatment Sequence in Four Classrooms

Student Errors	Repetition	Student Responses
		Repair 6 (38%)
16	16	Needs Repair 10 (62%)
		No Uptake 0 (0%)

The sequences in Table 5 and 6 which included clarification and repetition also shared some similarities with the sequences shown in Table 4. Quite a number of student errors -- 98% of all the errors followed by clarification and 100% of errors dealt with repetition led to students' responses. Only 2% and 0% of them respectively resulted in no uptake. The relatively effective sequence in Table 5 was that 42% of the errors followed by clarification were corrected by students, while 56% of them eventually generated needs repair. Meanwhile, in Table 6, 38% of the errors receiving repetition resulted in students repairs, which was also relatively effective. Still, 62% of the errors followed by repetition led to needs repair. Apparently, however, repetition was used much less frequently (16 times) than clarification (77 times). Thus, instead of simply using elicitation to stimulate successful error treatment sequence, teachers may opt for clarification and repetition to ensure effective error corrections.

Table 7. Sixth Error Treatment Sequence in Four Classrooms

Student Errors	Metalinguistic Feedback	Student Responses
		Repair 1 (17%)
6	6	Needs Repair 4 (66%)
		No Uptake 1 (17%)

The last sequence occurred in all four classroom was the one which included metalinguistic feedback, as shown in Table 7. Only 6 students errors were followed by teachers' metalinguistic feedback, with 1 of them being repaired, 4 of them resulting in needs repair and 1 of them led to no student response. This result may indicate that the sequence with metalinguistic feedback was the least occurred error treatment sequence triggered by all the teachers in this study.

Overall, error treatment sequences including elicitation, clarification and repetition which can generate negotiation between teacher and students, seemed to be more successful in correcting student errors, and the repairs inside these sequences were always student-generated. Meanwhile, the error correction sequences which consisted of recast, explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback were demonstrated to be less effective in leading to student uptake in the current study.

5.2 Similarities and Differences of the Error Treatment Sequences inside both Native and Non-Native English Teachers' Classes

The following two Tables (Table 8 and Table 9) exhibited the error treatment sequences happening inside both Native English Speaker teachers and Non-Native English Speaker teachers' classes. Since this study focused on six main feedback types used by both types of teachers, there were six basic error treatment sequences followed by these six types of teacher feedback.

Table 8 and Table 9 show that Non-Native English teachers provided feedback to 288 student errors, while Native English teachers only gave feedback to 111 student mistakes. However, student errors treated by Native teachers' feedback seemed to result in a bit more successful student repairs, with the rate of 40% in Native teachers' class compared with 33% in Non-Native teachers' class. Meanwhile, 26% of student errors followed by Non-Native teachers' feedback finally turned into needs repair and 41% of the errors led to no student response in Non-Native teachers' classes. On the other hand, in Native teachers' classes, 28% students' mistakes treated by teacher feedback resulted in needs repair, while 32% of them finally received no response from students.

Table 8. Error Treatment Sequences inside Non-Native Teachers' Classes

Student Error	Teacher Feedback	Student Uptake		
		Repair	Needs Repair	No Uptake
150	Recast (n=150)	28 (19%)	15 (10%)	107 (71%)
19	Explicit Correction (n=19)	10 (53%)	0 (0%)	9 (47%)
52	Elicitation (n=52)	30 (58%)	22 (42%)	0 (0%)
54	Clarification (n=54)	21 (39%)	31 (57%)	2 (4%)
10	Repetition (n=10)	4 (40%)	6 (60%)	0 (0%)
3	Metalinguistic (n=3)	0 (0%)	2 (67%)	1 (33%)
Total (n=288)	Total (n=288)	93 (33%)	76 (26%)	119 (41%)

Table 9. Error Treatment Sequences inside Native Teachers' Classes

Student Error	Teacher Feedback	Student Uptake		
		Repair	Needs Repair	No Uptake
45	Recast (n=45)	14 (31%)	4 (9%)	27 (60%)
11	Explicit Correction (n=11)	2 (18%)	0 (0%)	9 (82%)
23	Elicitation (n=23)	14 (61%)	9 (39%)	0 (0%)
23	Clarification (n=23)	11 (48%)	12 (52%)	0 (0%)
6	Repetition (n=6)	2 (33%)	4 (67%)	0 (0%)
3	Metalinguistic (n=3)	1 (33%)	2 (67%)	0 (0%)
Total (n=111)	Total (n=111)	44 (40%)	31 (28%)	36 (32%)

Even though Non-Native English teachers seemed to provide more recast, error treatment

sequence including teachers' using of recast in both Native and Non-Native teachers' classes, tended to have some similar features. For example, students mistakes dealt with by teachers' recast in both two types of classes resulted in a high rate of no student response, 71% in Non-Native teachers' classes and 60% in Native teachers' classes. Meanwhile, the rate of student repair in both classrooms were 19% and 31%, and the rate of student needs repair in these two classrooms were 10% and 9% respectively. All these may indicate that error treatment sequences including recast produced by either Native or Non-Native teachers, seemed to be ineffective in leading to students' responses.

However, the second error treatment sequence which included explicit correction tended to be quite different when used by Native and Non-native teachers. The error treatment sequence in Non-native English teachers' class tended to be more effective in leading to student repairs. For example, 53% of the student mistakes treated by explicit correction in Non-Native teachers' class resulted in student repair, and 47% of them led to no response. Nevertheless, in Native teachers' classes, 82% of student errors dealt with explicit correction finally received no uptake from students. Only 18% of student errors were eventually corrected following explicit correction. This may illustrate that error treatment sequence produced by different types of teachers could also lead to diverse levels of effectiveness.

The third sequence in both Native and Non-Native teachers' classes were proved to be the most effective error treatment sequence that led to high rate of students' repairs, 61% and 58% respectively. Only 42% of student errors in Non-Native teachers' class and 39% of student errors in Native teachers' class turned into needs repair. All students' errors in both classrooms receiving elicitation led to student responses; either repair or needs repair. The following 3 error treatment sequences in both types of classrooms also shared some similarities. Student errors followed by clarification, repetition and metalinguistic feedback seldom led to no student uptake, and most student mistakes dealt by these three types of feedback resulted in needs repair. All these may suggest that error treatment sequences containing elicitation, clarification and repetition seem to be effective of resulting in students' responses no matter who uses them. Teachers or researchers in their future practices may take these results into consideration and make some arrangements to apply these findings in actual and specific situations.

6. Discussion and Conclusion

Based on the consecutive studies conducted by Lyster and Ranta (1997), Lyster (2001) and Panova and Lyster (2002) which unveiled the error treatment sequence in classroom and an analytic model, the current study made some similar investigation on teacher and students' interaction process, especially the error treatment sequences occurred in both Native and Non-Native English teachers' classrooms. The settings of this study were unique in the following aspects: a) a new variable, namely teacher types (native and non-native English teachers) was introduced in this study; b) exploration on the relationship between teacher types and error treatment sequences; c) the students being studied came from southern Thailand, which could to some extent be a representative of Asian students. Despite these differences, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) analytic model was applied in this study and proved to

be applicable and effective. Error treatment sequences happened in different classroom environments were especially investigated in this study to show the effects of this new variable, namely teacher types (native and non-native English teachers) on the error correction process.

Totally, in all four classrooms, error treatment sequences, leading to student repair, needs repair or no uptake, seemed to distribute at similar proportion. Error treatment sequence which included recast seemed to be the most common sequence generated by all the four teachers. However, most of student mistakes treated by recast resulted in no uptake and the repairs after recast were simply students' repetition of teachers' correct addresses. This may suggest that this error treatment sequence tends to be less effective in inducing the correction of students' errors. This was also true with the error treatment sequences that consisted of explicit correction. Thus, in future pedagogical activities, teachers should avoid producing the error treatment sequences including recast and explicit correction to ensure the effectiveness of mistake correction process. On the other hand, the error treatment sequences which contained elicitation, clarification and repetition, tended to generate high rate of students' repairs, and these repairs were usually student self-initiated. Even though the frequency of elicitation was not the highest, the error treatment sequence carried on by elicitation tended to be the successful one that effectively alters students' mistakes to student-generated repairs. Thus, teachers may take this finding into consideration and apply this sequence in their own teaching process with some adjustments. Meanwhile, teachers, who favor providing varied effective mistake correction processes, may select clarification and repetition to stimulate successful error treatment sequences. Nonetheless, the sequence including metalinguistic feedback was the least generated error treatment sequence which also led to low rate of students' repairs in this study, thus would not be recommended for effective teaching. All these may suggest that teachers should avoid the error treatment sequences which results in high rate of no student uptake, and try to initiate more error treatment sequences which can be effective in leading to student-generated repairs. Since this study focused on the first year university students, teachers in future pedagogical practices should also take their students' proficiency level into consideration when generating the error treatment sequences.

Furthermore, there were both similarities and differences in terms of the error treatment sequences in Native and Non-Native English teachers' classes. For example, the error treatment sequence including recast in both classes tended to lead to high rate of no response from students. This result may implicate that no matter generated by what types of teachers, error treatment sequences with recast, seemed to be ineffective in leading to students' responses, especially the repair. Thus, teachers in the real teaching practices had better choose alternative strategies that can stimulate effective error treatment sequence. Those sequences with elicitation seemed to be the most effective process that resulted in high rate of students' repairs and should be recommended for further teaching or researching. Meanwhile, seldom error treatment sequences inside both Native and Non-Native teachers' classes, which consisted of clarification, repetition and metalinguistic feedback, resulted in no student response, which suggests that these sequences seemed to trigger high rate of students' responses, both repair and needs repair. Therefore, teachers may opt for these feedback

strategies to stimulate varied effective error treatment sequences. However, those sequences which comprise explicit correction led to different results in Native and Non-Native teachers' classes; the sequences in Non-Native Teachers' class seemed more successful in leading to students' repair than in Native Teachers' class. Thus, this result may indicate that same error treatment sequence produced by different types of teachers could be different in the effectiveness of leading to students' repairs. However, due to the low frequency of this sequence including explicit correction and the small scale of research, future studies may apply and examine this result in other situations considering their own features.

All these results might indicate that no matter what types of teacher they are, the error treatment sequences including recast and explicit correction tend to be less effective than those with elicitation, clarification, repetition and metalinguistic feedback, in leading to students' repairs; teachers, whether Native or Non-native, should generate error treatment sequences, which includes elicitation or clarification instead of recast, in order to make the teaching and learning process more effective; lecturers or researchers should also take their own situation and the limitation of current study into consideration when applying these findings in the real teaching process or experiments. Since this study was conducted only in one university in southern Thailand and the target group were quite small (only four classes), large scale of investigations, concerning more variables such as teachers' teaching approaches, background knowledge and students' proficiency levels are needed to generalize the findings in this study. Future studies which are interested in the error treatment sequence, may also take more feedback strategies into consideration or make different classifications about feedback types such as explicit feedback and implicit feedback, oral feedback and writing feedback to examine and expand the results of this current study.

Acknowledgement

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PAPER 2

Feedback Used in Classrooms with Native English and Non-Native English Teachers

Feedback Used in Classrooms with Native English and Non-Native English Teachers

Sen Zhang (Corresponding Author)

M.A. student, Department of Languages and Linguistics, Faculty of Liberal Arts

Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai Campus, Songkhla, Thailand

E-mail: mutation_mo@hotmail.com

Monta Chatupote

Assoc. Prof. Dr., Department of Languages and Linguistics, Faculty of Liberal Arts

Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai Campus, Songkhla, Thailand

E-mail: monta.ch@psu.ac.th

Abstract

Based on Lyster and Ranta (1997), this current study made a comparison between native and non-native English speaking teachers' corrective feedback to students' errors, and also between different teachers' feedback types and students' uptake. The database consisted of 738 minutes' or 12.3 hours' classroom observation, including two types of teachers, six types of corrective feedback and two types of student uptake. Results showed that recast was the most frequently used feedback type across all the teachers, which simultaneously led to low rate of learner repairs; non-native English speaking teachers provided overwhelmingly more feedback than native teachers, and they tended to use more recast; both native and non-native teachers preferred to use varied kind of feedback at similar distribution which might suggest that corrective feedback did not necessarily rely on teacher types with students of the same proficiency level; elicitation tended to be the most effective feedback type in both native and non-native teachers' class, which might indicate that feedback types which can trigger negotiation of form were effective no matter what types of teachers use them. The results suggested that teachers should avoid using recast and opt for elicitation for more effective learning.

Keywords: Native and Non-native English Teachers, Corrective Feedback, Feedback Effectiveness

1. Introduction

Corrective feedback, which plays a scaffolding role in classroom interaction process, has been the focus and prominence of many SLA researchers for the past few decades (Chaudron, 1977, 1986, & 1988; Doughty, 1994a; Long, 1996; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Suzuki, 2004; Li, 2010). Numerous studies, investigating feedback features and effectiveness, derived from Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996) which stated that implicit negative feedback, triggering interactional modification, could facilitate learners' comprehension, and Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985), which asserted that corrective feedback, eliciting modified output, could complete the whole language mastery process. Gass and Varonis (1994) concluded that learners would be able to make some reformulations to the detected language discrepancies if the teachers can provide negotiable input. Gass (1997), Schmidt and Frota (1986) suggested that corrective feedback provided by teachers offers an opportunity for students to perceive the mismatches between their language production and the target discourse forms, potentially to reformulate their language outcomes.

Based on these theories, previous researches explored the relationships between learner error and teacher feedback, corrective feedback and learner uptake, corrective feedback and learner repair, teacher feedback and classroom context types (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004; Suzuki, 2004). Flourishing and prosperous findings were presented during different phases. For example, recast was testified as the most frequently used corrective feedback by different studies (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Ellis et al, 2001; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Suzuki, 2004); teachers tended to use varied types of teaching strategies (Lyster & Ranta, 1997); there were both similarities and differences between feedback types observed in different studying contexts (Heift, 2004; Sheen, 2004; Suzuki, 2004; Li, 2010); teachers would better take learners' proficiency level into consideration when providing feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Sara, 2010; Parviz, 2012).

However, review of early studies, few set foot in the effects of one variable - teacher types, on corrective feedback, learner error and uptake. Thus, this present study focused on comparing the relationship between types of teacher (native and non-native English teachers) and corrective feedback, exploring the teacher type effects on learner error and uptake, attempting to find the effective feedback used by different types of teacher, and finally providing some practical instructions for future teaching and researching.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Observational Classroom Studies

In this part, review of previous studies presented how observational classroom researches examined corrective feedback and learner uptake in different contexts or with varied target groups, and how they defined and demonstrated the successful feedback types. Some common features about corrective feedback and learner uptake were summarized based on those studies. Corrective feedback refers to teachers' responses, comments or reactions to learners' inappropriate utterances, which may include correct forms to elicit learners to make

some reformulations of their mistakes. Learner uptake, as Lyster and Ranta (1997) defined, was learners' discourse following instantly the lecturer's correction strategies which forms the response to teacher's intention of reminding the student of the inappropriate address. Yoshida (2010) added that learner uptake showed the student's understanding of teacher's comments or suggestions.

In 1997, based on Chaudron's (1977, 1986, & 1988) intricate model of error correction process and Doughty's (1994a) coding of learner error and teacher feedback, Lyster and Ranta (1997) devised an error treatment sequence which included learner error, teacher feedback and learner uptake. Using this sequence in the observation of 4 French immersion classrooms, Lyster and Ranta (1997) studied the frequency and distribution of each feedback type and learner uptake following each type of feedback. Results demonstrated that recast was the most frequently used feedback type among all the four teachers, while leading to the least learner repair; feedback types which initiated the negotiation or interaction between teacher and students (elicitation, clarification request, repetition and metalinguistic feedback) tended to be more successful in eliciting learner-generated repair; teachers might better take learner's proficiency level into consideration when providing correction to different learners.

Reviewing several observational classroom studies on feedback and uptake, Panova and Lyster (2002) made a comprehensive summary of feedback type and effectiveness, teacher and students' understanding of feedback, and factors affecting choices of feedback. Motivated by Lyster and Ranta (1997), Panova and Lyster (2002) examined the error treatment sequence in an adult ESL classroom, tested and verified the applicability of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) corrective discourse model in another instructional context, and found some similar results, such as that recast was also the most often used corrective feedback in this study. Meanwhile, results indicated that learners gave few responses and made even fewer repairs in current situation, which might be supported by the hypothesis that learners would benefit more from retrieving their own knowledge and comprehension than merely hearing the correct target forms.

Inspired by Lyster and Ranta (1997), Suzuki (2004), using the same error correction sequence, conducted a study within the adult ESL students and made a comparison of the results with Lyster and Ranta's (1997) findings. Observational results showed both similarities, such as the distributions of teacher feedback followed by learners' errors which was the same to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) results, and differences, such as rate of learner uptake to some special types of feedback which was different from theirs (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). These were explained by the different classroom contexts, students' ages and motivation, teacher experience and the target language in this study.

Based on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) clarification of teacher correction moves and student responses, Sheen (2004) compared the error treatment sequence happening in four classrooms, namely, French Immersion, Canada ESL, New Zealand ESL and Korean EFL, and found that recast was the most frequently used feedback type among all the four classrooms. Results suggested that when the teaching focus was more on form and the function of recast was prominent, recast could lead to more learner responses and repairs; meanwhile the

distributions of corrective feedback and learner uptake didn't necessarily depend on classroom contexts.

Li (2010), conducting a meta-analysis to 33 primary studies, testified the effectiveness of corrective feedback. Through setting comprehensive variables, the results demonstrated that learners perceived implicit feedback better than explicit feedback; feedbacks given during foreign language contexts were more effective than second language context; native teachers tended to provide more effective feedback than other teachers or computers. However, there were still some factors suggested by Li (2010) that needed to be studied, such as learners' age, proficiency, classroom context and even interlocutor types.

Seldom previous studies on corrective feedback and learner uptake focused on the relationship between lecturer types and corrective feedback, or even learner uptake. Motivated by these studies, especially Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Panova and Lyster (2002), the current study aimed at exploring the effect of a new variable, teacher types (native and non-native English teachers), on their choices of corrective feedback to learner errors, and on students' response of teacher feedback. The present study also intended to find the most effective feedback type in each classroom settings or with each type of teachers, thus providing some actual instructions for both future studies and teaching experience.

2.2 Basic Concepts

2.2.1 Types of Feedback

According to different criteria and characteristics, feedback can be categorized in various ways. Some typical classifications used in various studies are presented as follows.

Doughty (1994a) conducted a pilot study about classroom interaction between teachers and students, of which, she coded teachers' turns to students' errors as type of feedback, namely, clarification request, repetition, recast, expansion, or translation. Later, based on the functions of different teacher instructions, Lyster and Ranta (1997) improved the categories of feedback and devised a new taxonomy of feedback, that was explicit correction, recasts, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition, which integrally reflected teachers' instructive moves in classroom and thus was cited by many researchers as a criteria. Ohta (2001), however in a following study, added two categories into Lyster and Ranta's (1997) six types of feedback, namely, re-asks and delayed recast.

In his consecutive research, Lyster (2001) further classified and integrated those six types of feedback into three types, namely recast, explicit correction and negotiation of form. These three types of feedback were different in the extent of providing corrective forms to the incorrect utterance. Providing negotiation of form, teachers encourage the students to retrieve from their own knowledge and the context, process peer- and self-repair rather than merely rephrase the corrective answer. Meanwhile, the author distinguished recast from explicit correction due to their extent of giving correct form. Explicit correction referred to just providing accurate form, while recast showed the correction inside the context.

Gurzynski-Weiss and Révész (2012), in their classroom interaction study, used 9 types of

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feedback, which were recasts, confirmation checks, clarification requests, repetitions, negotiations, elaborations, elicitations, overt corrections and metalinguistic information. Nonetheless, Long (1996) divided them into implicit feedback, which includes recasts, confirmation checks, clarification requests, repetitions, negotiations, elaborations, and elicitations, and explicit feedback, which consists of overt corrections and metalinguistic information.

Overall, Lyster and Ranta (1997), which devised an error treatment model to discuss the relationship between teacher feedback and learner uptake, presents the way of counting and comparing feedback and uptake in different classroom environments for this current study.

2.2.2 Learner Uptake

Usually, when studying teacher feedback in classroom, learner uptake, as the following sequence or the indication of feedback, was also used to compare the relationship between teacher feedback and learner responses, and to make the whole error treatment sequence integrated.

When come to types of learner uptake, according to different proficiency level, students may tend to give different kinds of responses. Two types of student uptake (repair and needs repair) were used in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study. Repair meant that students' errors were finally corrected; while needs repair referred to that students' responses followed by teacher feedback still included some mistakes. In order to clearly present students' responses and reaction of teacher feedback, four sub-types of repair (repetition, incorporation, self-repair and peer-repair) and six sub-types of needs repair (acknowledgement, same error, different error, off target, hesitation and partial repair) were also used and analyzed to complete the error treatment sequence. In Yoshida's (2010) study, learner response was coded with different clarification, namely successful uptake, unsuccessful uptake, acknowledgement, enquiry, no response and no chance.

To keep the consistency of teacher feedback and learner uptake, and to compare the relationship between feedback and uptake, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) types of learner uptake were also applied into this current study. But, due to the different classroom environment and students' characters, the current study made some adjustment of both teacher feedback and learner uptake to suit the content.

2.2.3 Feedback Effectiveness

Inspired especially by Lyster and Ranta (1997), the current study chose learner uptake and repair as the indication of successful teacher feedback. However, Ohta (2000) claimed that uptake was just a language phenomenon, thus may not surely lead to learners' language obtainment. Mackey and Philp (1998) added that uptake was not an effective measure to check feedback effectiveness. Even Lyster and Ranta (1997), who used repair as a method of learner understanding of teacher feedback, stated that choice of teacher feedback may have an effect on learner repair, thus learner repair cannot guarantee learner knowledge acquisition.

Later, Williams (2001), who designed a tailor-made test checking feedback impact, noted that

language improvement took place when repair occurred. Loewen (2002), using tailor-made post-tests or delayed post-tests, argued that acquisition of vocabulary and grammar was greatly related to learners' successful uptake. Both these two studies confirmed the indicator role of learner uptake and repair, and prompted the current study to concentrate on the relationship between teacher feedback and learner acquirement. Thus, in this study, learners' self-generated repair was defined as the indication of effective teacher feedback.

3. Research Questions

3.1 What are the differences and similarities of feedback found in classes taught by native English speaker and non-native English speaker teachers?

3.2 What are the most effective ways of providing feedback in those different classroom environments?

4. Methodology

4.1 Database

This current study chose similar target groups to Lyster and Ranta (1997), namely four English listening and speaking classes within EFL contexts. Together, two native English-speaking teachers and two Thai English teachers were selected on their willingness of being observed. All of them taught the same course named Fundamental English listening and speaking, which based on Spada and Frohlich's (1995) believes that there were the interactions between lecturers and learners most of time in oral activities, which was just the theme and content of this course. Teacher 1 and 2 are two Thai English teachers who share some similar background: Thai female English teachers, 9 to 10 years' experience in teaching first year university students at a southern Thailand University, and teach fundamental English courses. Teacher 3 and 4 come from English-speaking countries, one from England and the other from Canada. Both of them seem to start their teaching career at this University less than one year ago. However, during the observation, Teacher 4 tended to have more teaching skills in dealing with students.

The students chosen were first year students from four different faculties in the University located at the south of Thailand. They enrolled in the Fundamental English Listening and Speaking course during the first semester of the academic year 2013 with one of the four different teachers above.

During the observation process, a camera was placed at the back of each classroom, and one researcher attended every class to assure the quality of the video and also note the interactions happening between the students and teacher in the classroom. The reasons of conducting a video survey are that video recording can offer the overall perspective of teaching-learning procedures in classroom, making the data more precise, and also provide an overview of actual learner acquisition process, especially teachers' perception of students' errors and the whole error treatment sequence in class. Totally 738 minutes' or 12.3 hours' classroom observation formed the database for the present study.

4.2 Data Analysis

4.2.1 Error

Based on Lyster and Ranta (1997) and concentrating on the current situation and focus, this present study coded student utterances which had the potential of containing errors, except short utterances like simple acknowledgement, as student turns. Student turns, which included as least one mistake, are defined as student error. According to the different definitions, errors in this study are classified as lexical error, grammatical error, phonological error, content error and students' unconscious use of L1.

4.2.2 Types of Feedback

Teacher feedback is coded into six types based on their definitions, namely recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, explicit correction and repetition.

1. Recast refers to teachers' partial or complete reformulation of students' error utterance without pointing out what the mistake is.

(1) Ss: karaoke (phonological error)

T: Ok, /ˌkærˈoʊkɪ/. (recast-PE)

Ss: /ˌkærˈoʊkɪ/ (repeat-repair-Rec-PE)

Translation in this study is also coded in recast, through which teachers translate students' L1 into English, or elicit students to speak out the L1 by showing them the English address.

(2) Ss: Thai word. (L1 error)

T: To sleep for a short while. Right, yeah! Sleep for a short period of time. (translation-recast-L1-no uptake)

(3) T: So a play in Thai is called …? (translation-recast-L1-no uptake)

Ss: Thai word (L1)

2. Explicit Correction means that teachers tell the students where their error is and provide the correct form.

(4) Ss: he said My sister … (grammatical error)

T: He said "My" No, not my, "his sister" (explicit correction-GE)

Ss: his sister (repeat-repair-EC-GE)

3. Clarification Request refers to that teachers usually make a confirmation or recheck the students' utterance which may include at least one error to give students opportunity to look back. Or sometimes, they may provide 2 choices for the students to choose by themselves.

(5) Sb: sea (lexical error)

T: You said the sea or the beach? (clarification-LE)

Sb: The beach. (self-repair-C-LE)

4. Elicitation is the strategy that teachers encourage or elicit students to find out the alternative correct form retrieving from their own knowledge forwardly by using methods of pausing or asking some opening questions.

(6) Se: I dinner in a restaurant. (grammatical error)

    T: I … ? Verb, verb!! I …   (elicitation-GE)

    Se: I have dinner …   (de-NR-GE-E)

    T: I have ??? I h…? (elicitation-GE)

    Ss: I had …   (self-repair-E-GE)

5. Metalinguistic Feedback is the way teacher give some comments or questions to the correctness of students' utterances.

(7) Sb: Oh, I had a great time.(phonological error)

    T: Really, ok, stop.(point to Girls)"O, I had a great time" (T speaks just same to the boys, without intonation.) Was that really great? (metalinguistic-PE)

    Ss: no (acknowledgement-needs-repair)

6. Repetition means that teachers repeat students' wrong utterance with rising intonation.

(8) S: watching a music (lexical error)

    T: watching .. (repetition-LE)

    S: watching a movie (self-repair-R-LE)

4.2.3 Types of Uptake

Referring to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, there are mainly 2 types of learner uptake, repair and needs-repair. Repair means that after teachers' error treatment, students tend to reformulate their error utterance with correct form. While, needs-repair refers to that students' reformulated utterance still include some incorrect or inappropriate parts.

Repair

Repair includes 4 sub types, namely incorporation, repetition, self-repair and peer-repair. Repetition means that students simply repeat teachers' correct utterance. While, incorporation means that students use or repeat teachers' correct form and create long utterance. Self-repair means that students correct their own errors followed by teachers' feedback without providing the correct form. And peer-repair means that the other students help the one who made error correct the mistake followed by teachers' feedback without providing the correct form.

(9) Ss: don't   (grammatical error)

T: No, I don't or no, I didn't?   (clarification-GE)

Ss: I didn't.   (self-repair-C-GE)

Needs-repair

Needs-repair in this study includes acknowledgement, hesitation, same error, different error, off target and partial repair.

(10) Ss: They went to a karaoke club. (Thai accent - phonological error)

   T: (put hand on the ear to hear) A what?   (clarification-PE)

   Ss: Kala ok. (same error-needs-repair-PE-C)

   T: Ka la ok??? Really??   (clarification-PE)

   Ss: Yeah. (same error-needs-repair-PE-C)

   T: So kala ok is Thai (Ss together) accent, yes? Ok! How to pronounce it, can u guess? (elicitation-PE)

   Ss: kala … (same error-needs-repair-PE-E)

   T: Ok, /kariouk/. (recast-PE)

   Ss: /kairioke/ (repeat-repair-Rec-PE)

5. Results

Some facts need to be stated again that only those that had the potential of containing ill-formed address were coded as student turns; student errors were no salient in this current study, but were still believed an important factor that influence teachers' choice of feedback. The following results will focus on answering the two research questions set before respectively.

5.1 Feedback types in classrooms with native English speaker and non-native English speaker teachers

Teacher preferences of different types of feedback (recast, clarification, elicitation, explicit correction, repetition and metalinguistic feedback), as well as frequency of each feedback used by each of the four teachers, are presented in Table 1. Total results showed some similarities with Lyster & Ranta's (1997) study, which may testify the reliability and applicability of the error treatment sequence in the current situation. Among all the four teachers, recast was the most frequently used feedback type of all the teachers' turns containing corrective feedback, accounting for almost half of all feedback. Clarification and elicitation were the second most frequently used categories across four teachers, both about 19% of total. The least frequently used feedback types were explicit correction, repetition, metalinguistic feedback, which exhibited a decreasing trend, 7.5%, 4% and 1.5% respectively. Metalinguistic feedback, which accounted for a large proportion in previous studies, in this study seemed to have little influence on the results. This may due to the fact that teachers in

this current situation seemed to elicit responses from the students a lot and only give few comments; some changes to the definition of metalinguistic feedback was made to suit the current study which may also lead to the least frequency of using this feedback type; metalinguistic feedback co-existed with other types of feedback.

Table 1. Types of feedback used by all the teachers.

		Teachers				Total
		1	2	3	4	
Recast	Count	30	120	12	33	195
	% within T_TYPE	25.4%	70.6%	32.4%	44.6%	48.9%
Clarification	Count	33	21	6	17	77
	% within T_TYPE	28.0%	12.4%	16.2%	23.0%	19.3%
Elicitation	Count	34	18	11	12	75
	% within T_TYPE	28.8%	10.6%	29.7%	16.2%	18.8%
Explicit Correction	Count	9	10	6	5	30
	% within T_TYPE	7.6%	5.9%	16.2%	6.8%	7.5%
Repetition	Count	9	1	0	6	16
	% within T_TYPE	7.6%	0.6%	0%	8.1%	4.0%
Metalinguistic	Count	3	0	2	1	6
	% within T_TYPE	2.5%	0%	5.4%	1.4%	1.5%
Total	Count	118	170	37	74	399
	% within T_TYPE	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Pearson Chi-Square (x^2)		81.50		Sig (2-sided)	0.01**	

Overall, there are huge differences between four teachers and six types of feedback, as the Pearson Chi-Square results show in 0.01 at the significance level of 0.05. Teacher 2 was the one who used recast the most, 70.6% of total feedback, which left no chance of providing other types of feedback. This may be as a result of too many frequently L1 used in her classroom. Even teacher 2 used a lot of L1 to communicate with the students. Thus, recast accounts for the higher proportion of her feedback. Another clear difference is the explicit correction used by teacher 3, which accounts for 16.2% of his total feedback. This may be in virtue of his teaching style, namely teacher-centered approach, through which he explained

more on instructions or gave more guidance for the students to follow, or that the students' passive participation 'forcing' teacher 3 to provide correct form to students' mistakes. The remaining types of feedback, clarification, elicitation, repetition and metalinguistic feedback, which constituted the negotiation of form in Lyster's (2001) study, seem well-distributed among all the four teachers. This scattering may suggest that both native and non-native teachers prefer to use the feedback which might elicit student-teacher negotiations, seemingly at the similar proportion of all their feedback types.

The comparison of each type of teachers showed that some differences existed between two Thai teachers and between two native English teachers. As can be seen in Table 1, teacher 1's use of each type of corrective feedback seemed to be well-distributed, while teacher 2 seemed to prefer recast, which accounted for more than 70 percent of her correction strategies and also left few opportunities of other feedback types. The differences between these two Thai English teachers may be owing to their diverse teaching strategies and students' various proficiency levels. For example, based on the classroom observation record and interview on teachers, possible explanation for the differences between the two Thai teachers is that due to the students' relatively lower English ability, teacher 2 preferred to communicate with students using L1, which triggered more translation (recast); on the other hand, teacher 1 vouched for her students' English level and taught in English, which allowed her to provide each feedback type well-proportionally. As for two native English teachers, teacher 3 and 4 were different in their total utility of corrective feedback, such as that feedback used by teacher 4 was double the amount of teacher 3's. This may be due to the fact that teacher 3's class was more teacher-centered, which allowed fewer chances for students to speak out; students' characters in his class tended to be constrained, thus they were not as active as those in teacher 4's class; teacher 4 seemed to be good at eliciting responses from students and would like to give comments to students' mistakes. This result may suggest that even for the same group of teachers, there are some differences existing such as their teaching strategies and own characteristics and hence, different types of feedback and level of effectiveness.

A more detailed table (Table 2) concerning native and non-native teachers and their applications of each type of feedback is shown as below. As for each type of teachers, Non-Native English teachers provided many feedbacks, totaling 288, especially the recast, which accounted for 52.1%. The remaining feedback types spread in a descending order as follows: clarification (18.8%), elicitation (18.1%), explicit correction (6.6%), repetition (3.5%) and metalinguistic feedback (1%). Of the 111 feedbacks provided by Native teachers, recast accounted for 40.5%, both clarification and elicitation accounted for 20.7%, explicit correction 9.9%, repetition 5.4% and metalinguistic feedback 2.7%. The reasons why non-native teachers provided overwhelmingly more feedback are probably that both of the two Thai English teachers preferred eliciting and their teaching pace were really fast. On the basis of large amount of students' utterances, they could possibly provide more feedback.

However, the comparison between types of teacher and their use of each type of feedback showed that there is no big difference as the result shows 0.303 at the significance level of 0.05, which may indicate that the distributions of each feedback pattern used by both native and non-native teachers are similar. No matter native or non-native English teachers, they all

tend to use all types of feedback to tackle students' language difficulties. While if looking at each type of feedback, recast used by non-native teachers (52.1%) is higher that native teachers (40.5%). This may due to Thai teachers' background advantages that they could communicate with students with L1 and using recast to reformulate students' unsolicited use of L1. Meanwhile, it may be owing to that the current study redefined recast, especially translation, which included teachers' elicitation of students' knowledge from English to Thai.

Table 2. Feedback types used by Native teachers and Non-native teachers

		Non-native	Native	Total
Recast	Count	150	45	195
	% within T_TYPE	52.1%	40.5%	48.9%
Clarification	Count	54	23	77
	% within T_TYPE	18.8%	20.7%	19.3%
Elicitation	Count	52	23	75
	% within T_TYPE	18.1%	20.7%	18.8%
Explicit Correction	Count	19	11	30
	% within T_TYPE	6.6%	9.9%	7.5%
Repetition	Count	10	6	16
	% within T_TYPE	3.5%	5.4%	4.0%
Metalinguistic	Count	3	3	6
	% within T_TYPE	1.0%	2.7%	1.5%
Total	Count	288	111	399
	% within T_TYPE	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Pearson Chi-Square (x^2)		6.03	Sig (2-sided)	0.303

5.2 Effective feedback in Different Classroom Environment

In this current study, students' self-repair is the indication of successful feedback. Thus, feedback, which can lead to higher students' self-repair, is defined as effective feedback. Students' uptakes, namely repair, needs repair and no uptake, were introduced to demonstrate the effectiveness of feedback. Overall results showed some similarities to Lyster & Ranta's (1997) study. Since Lyster & Ranta (1997) had already testified that repairs generated by recast and explicit correction were not students-initiated, and repairs after clarification, elicitation, repetition and metalinguistic feedback were all students generated, which were

also proved correct by this current research, this study focused more on the repairs followed by feedback which triggers negotiation of form. Results show that elicitation is the most effective feedback, of which 59% finally leads to students' self-repair. The next two effective feedbacks are clarification and repetition, 42% and 38% respectively. Only few metalinguistic feedbacks occurred in this study, which also led to least students' repair (17%).

Table 3. Students' responses to Non-Native and Native teachers' feedback

Type of Feedback	Non-Native			Native			Pearson Chi-Square	
	Repair	Needs Repair	No Uptake	Repair	Needs Repair	No Uptake	x^2	Sig (2-sided)
Recast	28	15	107	14	4	27	3.18	0.204
Clarification	21	31	2	11	12	0	1.24	0.538
Elicitation	30	22	0	14	9	0	0.07	0.797
Explicit Correction	10	0	9	2	0	9	3.45	0.063
Repetition	4	6	0	2	4	0	0.07	0.790
Metalinguistic Feedback	0	2	1	1	2	0	2.00	0.368
Total	93	76	119	44	31	36	2.96	0.228

When further investigating the effective feedback used by different teachers, results show that elicitation is the most successful correction type for both native and non-native teachers. However, elicitation is the most successful feedback type for three teachers, except for teacher 2, whose clarification tends to be the most effective feedback type. Since this study focuses on native English speaking and non-native English speaking teachers, a more detailed table including types of teacher, feedback and learner uptake is shown in Table 3. However, as can be seen in the table, there is no significant difference between native and non-native teachers' use of every type of feedback or total provision of feedback at the significance level of 0.05, which may indicate that the uptake distributions to each type of feedback do not rely on types of teachers in this study.

6. Discussion and Conclusion

Numerous studies in the past few decades focused on investigating the relationship between learner error and corrective feedback, and between corrective feedback and learner uptake. However, after reviewing of previous research results, it was found that one more variable, lecturer types, needed to be studied to seek the effect of teacher types on corrective feedback. Taking teacher types into consideration, this current study conducted a detailed research on

teacher types and corrective feedback, including the relationship between two types of teachers and their use of feedback, and the feedback effectiveness.

As for types of feedback provided by different types of teachers, recast was found the most frequently used feedback type across all the teachers, but it simultaneously led to low rate of student repairs, which was coherent with previous studies (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Suzuki, 2004). However, there was no big difference when comparing types of teacher and types of feedback, except that non-native English teachers tended to provide overwhelmingly more feedback, especially more recast than native English teachers. This might be because non-native teachers would sometimes interact with students using L1 which may possible lead to translation, while native teachers tended to use all types of feedback equally. Clark and Paran (2007) state that non-native English speaking teachers share similar cultural background and language understanding, so it may be more convenient for them to interact with students using L1. Also, according to Noemi's (2009) finding that non-native teachers rely on eliciting students, two Thai English teachers in this study indeed preferred to encourage the students to speak a lot, which led to more student utterances. When looking into details, some differences existed when comparing two non-native teachers and those two native English teachers. Teacher 2 provided more recast while teacher 1 use varied corrective strategies at well-distributed proportion, which may be owing to their diverse teaching strategies and students' various proficiency level (Sara, 2010; Parviz, 2012). Another difference was that feedback used by teacher 4 was double the amount of teacher 3's. This may be due to the fact that teacher 3's class was more teacher-centered, in which the teacher elaborated details to students and allowed less chance for students to speak out (Noemi, 2009). These findings might indicate that teachers, no matter native or non-native, should select alternative feedback strategies instead of using recast to make the error correction process more effective.

Meanwhile, the similarities among types of teacher and feedback may suggest that corrective feedback did not necessarily rely on teacher types in the current situation. Thus, whether native or non-native teacher, they seemed to share some similar understanding of students' mistakes, correction strategies, and expectations of students' reactions. At the same time, since all four groups of students in this current study were first year Thai university students, they may still have the same background knowledge reservations from high school, which may make them produce same errors or ill utterances. This could also affect teachers' choice of feedback. Their similar understanding of teacher corrections may also be the reason why there was no big difference between the repairs generated by students in both native and non-native English teachers' classes. Saerideh (2011) studied EFL teachers' corrective feedback moves to the learners with three levels of proficiency and concluded that learner proficiency level indeed affected teachers' choice of corrective strategies. Sara (2010) investigated the relationship between two groups of students with different proficiency levels and teachers' choice of feedback. Result demonstrated that different ability students tended to make diverse types of errors which lead to different types of teacher feedback. Lyster and Ranta (1997) were the first ones who suggested that teachers should take learners' proficiency level into consideration when giving feedback. In their study on corrective feedback, except

for one group of students which seemed to have higher proficiency level in their study, all the other three groups had similar abilities, which could prove why the research results in these three classrooms were the same. This was also true with the current study. Overall, the students in current study who seemed to share similar proficiency level and background knowledge could possibly explain why corrective feedback in this study did not necessarily rely on teacher types. Thus, future studies or teachings which may be related to the classroom interaction should take students' proficiency level into consideration.

With regard to effective feedback, student self-generated repairs represented the effectiveness of each types of feedback in this study. Elicitation was found the most successful corrective strategy among all the teachers, except for teacher 2, whose clarification was more effective. But, in terms of native and non-native teachers, elicitation was still proved the most efficient strategy. As Lyster and Ranta (1997) stated that feedback, which could elicit negotiation of form, may encourage students to correct their mistakes by themselves using their own knowledge. De Bot (1996) also argues that students would have strong impressions on the mistakes if they could be encouraged or forced to find the discrepancies and fix them by retrieving from their own knowledge. All these may implicate that teachers would better provide the type of feedback which can generate the interaction or communication between teacher and students on students' inappropriate utterances. Moreover, no significant difference was found between native and non-native teachers' use of every type of feedback or total provision of feedback, which may indicate that the uptake distributions to each type of feedback did not rely on types of teachers in this study. This might also due to the same proficiency level of all the participants which may trigger similar errors, teacher feedback and learner uptake (Saerideh, 2011; Sara, 2010; Parviz, 2012).

All in all, this research made an audacious attempt to study the relationship between teacher types (native and non-native English teachers) and corrective feedback, teacher types and learner uptake, and teacher feedback and learner uptake, which produced abundant findings that might be applied into future studies or even teaching process. Results indicated that recast was the most frequently used feedback types in this study, especially for non-native English teachers; however, when coming to the effective feedback, elicitation was the most successful feedback that led to high rate of students' repair. Thus, in the practical situation, teachers may be better to use strategies that can trigger the negotiation or interaction between teachers and students, which could consequently lead to high rate of students-generated repairs to their mistakes, and also take students' proficiency levels into consideration whenever to provide comments or to conduct some experiences. However, since this current study was conducted only in a small scope at a University in Thailand, the time and techniques were also limited, future studies could focus on more variables, such as the effect of students' background knowledge on teachers' choice of feedback, learner proficiency with teacher feedback and teacher types to a large extent.

Acknowledgement

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VITAE

Name	Sen Zhang
Student ID	5511120018

Educational Attainment

Degree	Name of Institution	Year of Graduation
Bachelor of Arts In English Language	Jiangxi University of Science and Technology	2012

List of Publication and Proceedings

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