Corrective feedback and learner uptake in a Chinese as a foreign language class: Do perceptions and the reality match?

by

Tingfeng Fu
M.A, University of Victoria, 2012
B.A, Soochow University, 2009

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Supervisory Committee

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Supervisory Committee

Hossein Nassaji (Department of Linguistics)
Supervisor

Dr. Hua Lin (Department of Linguistics)
Departmental Member

Abstract

Supervisory Committee
Dr. Hossein Nassaji (Department of Linguistics)
Supervisor
Dr. Hua Lin (Department of Linguistics)
Departmental Member

The goal of this study is to examine teacher feedback, learner uptake, and feedback perceptions in an adult Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) context. A 200-level Chinese reading course was observed for data collection. Participants included 13 students and one teacher. Thirteen class sessions (10 hours) were video-taped. A short survey, given at the end of each of the last six class sessions, was designed to elicit the teacher's and the students' perceptions of feedback frequency. The participants were not informed of the focus of this research at the beginning of data collection. Video-recorded data was fully transcribed and coded using Panova and Lyster's (2002) feedback categorization. The teacher's response to the survey was compared to that of the students' regarding perceptions of feedback frequency.

The results showed that the teacher provided feedback to 68.1% of all students' errors. On average there was one feedback move every 2.4 minutes. All feedback types in Panova and Lyster's model were present, and there were a few new moves, namely "asking a direct question," "directing question to other students," and "using L1-English." A total of 245 teacher feedback moves occurred during the observation. Recasts accounted for 56.7% of all feedback moves, followed by metalinguistic feedback which accounted for 10.6%. Elicitation moves achieved the highest uptake rate (94.1%). Next, explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback had 88.9% and 53.8% uptake rate

respectively. Concerning perceptions of feedback, the teacher was more accurate in perceiving four types of feedback while the students were accurate about three. It was concluded that recast was the predominant type of feedback in this study. Other explicit types of feedback were more successful in leading to learner uptake. The teacher and the students were generally not accurate in perceiving the frequency of each feedback type, due to the challenge of remembering the feedback move after the lesson had finished. The pedagogical implication is that teachers should consider a wide range of feedback techniques, especially more explicit types, to better engage students in a reading class.

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Dedication

To Mom and Dad.

Chapter 1 – Introduction

1.1 Background

Corrective feedback has been at the centre of research in Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Since Long (1991) brought focus on form into the discussion of classroom teaching, much research has been devoted to determining what kind of teaching technique has superiority in assisting language learning. In either communicative or grammar-focused classrooms, the instructors have options of when and how to emphasize a certain target linguistic structure. Concerning error treatment, there has been an array of choices regarding what technique to use such as, when is the right moment to correct, how to offer correction, and how much time should be spent in order not to interrupt meaningful communication. Thus, correcting an error could be similar to performing a tricky cognitive operation. However, there is a consensus among researchers that the teachers should treat learners' errors. Otherwise, there would not be much difference between classroom learning and learning occurring in natural settings.

Error treatment leads to another important concept of how explicit or implicit the instructors should be when correcting students' errors. Here is an example of an implicit way of correcting an error (data from Nassaji, 2009). In the interaction below, the teacher simply provided the student with the correct form without offering any grammatical explanations.

Student: She saw young woman.

Teacher: Oh, she saw the young woman.

Student: Yeah.

Conversely, the teacher could correct an error overtly, explicitly drawing the student's attention to how to improve on a certain language aspect. As shown in the example below (data from Nassaji, 2007), the teacher emphasized the erroneous part of the student's utterance and asked about the correctness of the sentence.

Student: A man who are walking with the woman.

Teacher: A man who ARE walking? Is that correct?

Implicit and explicit correction is a broad way of describing types of teacher feedback. Researchers gradually began to look into different learning contexts, aiming at building models that would reflect the repertoire of the teachers' corrective techniques. Researchers began to adopt each other's models that they deemed applicable, at the same time adding new and relevant categories as they appeared. Till today, there have been several descriptive and authoritative models (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002) that have been adopted many times in different feedback studies (Jimenez, 2006; Oskoz & Liskin-Gasparro, 2001; Yoshida, 2010). But that is not the end of the story for corrective feedback studies. From a pedagogical perspective, one might ask what types of feedback found in these models would prove to be the most effective for learning? Naturally, the term of "learner uptake" which referred to the students' verbal production immediately after the teacher's correction was adopted as a measure for learning (Ellis, et al, 2001; Loewen, 2004; Nassaji, 2007; Sheen, 2006). Correlation between feedback types and learner uptake soon became the centre of investigation of classroom research.

Since teachers and students are the true "actors" of teaching and learning activities, researchers have also spent much effort to reveal their perceptions of classroom

teaching and learning. Teaching journals, questionnaires, and surveys were designed to find out what motivated teachers in using different types of feedback and what feedback would promote learner response. Thus, saliency of implicit and explicit feedback moves came to the centre stage of research and was scrutinized in relation with learner cognition and psychology (Ellis, 2011; Nassaji, 2009).

Despite the unending effort of pursuing a right way to provide corrective feedback and to advance development in both theory and practice, research has seen more varying results than unified ones. This is not discouraging but rather natural when one comes to realize how many uncontrollable variables there could be in just a single classroom. Learner proficiency levels, first language backgrounds, previous education and exposure to the target language, age, and so on, are all interwoven aspects that would make each and every learner group unique. The current study, therefore, set out on a journey to bring more research evidence related to these issues, using a descriptive approach to analyse corrective feedback, learner uptake, and feedback perceptions.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The study was designed to answer questions about classroom feedback types, learner uptake, and the teacher's and the students' perceptions of the corrective feedback. By observing an adult Chinese language course, the study examined different types of teacher feedback and the subsequent learner uptake. Using a survey, the study also investigated the teacher's and the students' perceptions of the frequency of each feedback type.

1.3 Significance of the Research Problem

The study was first motivated by examining a Chinese learning context. SLA studies have mainly been focusing on English as a Second Language (ESL) context. Less research has been aimed at lesser studied target languages. Therefore, this study can contribute to the SLA field by providing information on corrective feedback in a Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) classroom. The results can be compared to those that are conducted in ESL domains.

Another significance of the study lies in its focus on the teachers' and the students' perceptions of feedback frequencies. Many previous researchers investigated the teachers' and the learners' perceptions of feedback targets, whether morphological, syntactical, or phonological in nature. This study set out to compare perceptions about the general frequency of teacher feedback, and the frequencies of specific types of feedback. This is important if we want to know whether the students noticed that they were being corrected. What is more, the perception data can indicate the level of the teacher's awareness of her own corrective moves. I would like to argue that awareness of the existence of corrective feedback should be studied before examining whether participants notice the targets of corrective feedback. If students misinterpret the teachers' intention as being corrective, they are likely to be less accurate when interpreting the feedback targets. Additionally, the study contains pedagogical value in the way that it examined the teacher's assessment of feedback frequency. It looked at how accurate the teacher was when she reflected on her interaction with the students.

1.4 Organization of the Thesis

The thesis consists of five chapters. Chapter 1 is the introduction. The introduction provides a background of corrective feedback research and states the purpose and significance of the study. Chapter 2 is devoted to reviewing the related literature on descriptive studies on corrective feedback, learner uptake, and perceptions of feedback in the field of SLA. This chapter also presents the current issues and contradictory results of the previous research. Chapter 3 presents the methodology of the research by describing the teaching context, the participants and the instruments of the study. Chapter 4 describes how the data was transcribed and what schemes were used for coding feedback types and student uptake. Chapter 5 presents the results of the study in the order of answering the research questions. Finally, Chapter 6 is devoted to the discussion and conclusion of the study. Limitations of the study and future direction are also included in this chapter, along with a summary of the main findings.

Chapter 2 – Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This part of the thesis reviews related literature on four main areas of SLA – focus on form, classroom corrective feedback, uptake studies, and perceptions of corrective feedback. Since corrective feedback branched out from form-focused instructions in second language teaching and learning, it is therefore important to review the theoretical background of focus on form. Section 2.2 briefly discusses several terms and types of form-focused instruction. Following the theoretical review, section 2.3 looks at classroom corrective feedback studies and introduces previous descriptive studies that are similar to the current one. Different taxonomies are presented and opposing results are discussed. Descriptive studies are often criticized by using only the uptake amount observed to indicate learning. Thus, section 2.4 introduces uptake studies and their rationale for reflecting the effectiveness of different feedback types. Section 2.5 is dedicated to presenting varied teacher and learner perceptions of corrective feedback. It includes studies that have taken into account a series of variables related to perceptions: student level, individual learner differences, and cultural awareness. Moreover, interpretation of recast, the most frequently observed corrective feedback technique, is also highlighted in the review. Section 2.6 summarizes the literature review by presenting the unresolved issues in each topic discussed in 2.2 to 2.5. Purpose of the study is explained in section 2.7, and finally, section 2.8 introduces the research questions.

2.2 Focus-on-form and classroom teaching

In Long and Robinson's (1998) work of introducing focus on form and focus on forms, focus on form was described as such: "… during an otherwise meaning-focused classroom lesson, focus on form often consists of an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features" (p. 23). The primary feature of focus on form is that the class is meaning-focused. On the other hand, focus on forms entails focusing on individual linguistic items in language classes. Thus, "the syllabus consists of inductively or deductively presented information about the L2" (p. 16). The authors also suggested that it would be somehow more beneficial for focus on form to be accompanied by attending to linguistic forms at the same time, rather than doing strictly either one of them. This view has also been echoed by grammar textbook and curriculum researchers that linguistic forms should be linked to present meaningful communication (Millard, 2000; Nunan, 2004).

One benefit of identifying focus on form techniques in the classroom is that it promotes meaning negotiation (Ellis, 1999). A lot of researchers recognize that incomprehensibility between interlocutors brings forward negotiations, and as the negotiations progress, speakers make an effort to modify their speech, or try to convey the message in other possible ways within the limit of their language abilities (Mackey, 1999; Williams, 2005).

As negotiation becomes regular in the classroom, pedagogically, the teachers begin to face a choice of providing "reactive" or "proactive" focus on form (p. 199,

Doughty & Williams, 1998). "Teachers can plan in advance to ensure that a focus on form will occur, or they can wait for a pressing learner need to arise and develop an 'on-the-spot' focus on form lesson in response (p. 205)." This naturally brought two options for the teachers in terms of when and how to correct learners' errors in the classroom. However, there has been no decisive conclusion or recommendation about which kind of focus on form to use, "rather, it seems that both approaches are effective, depending upon the classroom circumstances" (p. 211). If the context of teaching is a grammar-focused drill, it would be efficient for teachers to adopt planned focus on form. On the other hand, if the purpose at hand is for students to practice conversational language use, it would be helpful for teachers to react to students' specific errors as they arise. Moreover, Nassaji's (2010) work has also shown that students' proficiency level could also be strongly correlated with both reactive and pre-emptive[1] focus on form.

Methodologically, Ellis (2001) presented two major divides for investigating form-focused instructions: "confirmatory" and "interpretive" (p 26). Interpretive research methods could be further divided into "descriptive" and "introspective" methods (p. 31). Although descriptive feedback studies are often criticized for being limited by their individually developed feedback categorizations, lacking indicative power and generalizability, there is no doubt that SLA field has benefited greatly from real-time classrooms observations provided by descriptive research. In this line of thought, the current study tries to present new findings of corrective feedback types as well as comparing the results with that of previous observational studies.

[1] Pre-emptive focus on form, term used in Nassaji (2010), is similar to proactive focus on form discussed in Doughty and Williams (1998). Teachers in both situations ensure a planned focus on form episode will occur to draw learners' attention to anticipated problematic forms.

2.3 Classroom Corrective Feedback

2.3.1 Implicit and Explicit Corrective Feedback

When correcting students' errors, a teacher is usually faced with several options before making a corrective move. He or she could simply provide the student with the correct form without interrupting the expression of ideas, or the teacher could provide a brief analysis of the error, especially when the student is interested in learning the target form. Indeed, classroom feedback studies have developed categorizations of teacher feedback over the past two decades, rendering a division of implicit and explicit teacher feedback.

The purpose of making this distinction between implicit and explicit feedback is both theoretical and pedagogical. In theory development of SLA, implicit and explicit learning involves different levels of cognitive processing (Ellis, 2011). Ellis explained how implicit L2 learning was different from and influenced by implicit L1 learning. "L1 transfer, learned attention, and automatization all contribute to the more limited achievements of exclusive implicit learning in SLA than in L1A (p. 40)." In a practical view, "Pedagogical responses to these shortcomings involve explicit instruction, recruiting consciousness to overcome the implicit routines that are non-optimal for L2" (p. 40). His view of favoring explicit instruction has been demonstrated by the results of many classroom studies (Lyster & Saito, 2010). Both observational studies (Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001; Loewen, 2004; Lyster, 1998; Oskoz & Liskin-Gasparro, 2001) and experimental studies (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Nassaji, 2007) have shown the advantage of more explicit feedback over the more implicit feedback, due to

the salience of their corrective force which stands a better chance of promoting learner noticing. It seems that in adult SLA, teachers and researchers both agree that giving explicit explanations and corrections is more facilitative of learning (Nassaji, 2007, 2009).

To further look into implicit and explicit feedback, one type of feedback could in fact possess different degrees of explicitness. Recast and elicitation are known to be representative of implicit and explicit types of corrective feedback respectively (more on feedback taxonomy in section 2.3.2). Nassaji (2009) examined these two feedback types in different implicit and explicit forms. In other words, recasts can be provided in either an "implicit" or a "more explicit" way. Similarly, elicitation can take either an "implicit" or a "more explicit" form. Moreover, different degrees of explicitness within each feedback type were proven to be evident (Egi, 2007; Nassaji, 2009).

2.3.2 Corrective Feedback Taxonomy

Descriptive research of classroom feedback has laid a foundation of feedback taxonomies for studies like the current one. Definitions of each observed feedback type, especially the ones that are included in the current study are presented in the methodology chapter with the coding scheme. This part of the literature review is devoted to a presentation of different feedback models found in previous descriptive studies. I now begin by introducing two prominent studies in this area by Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Panova and Lyster (2002).

Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study set out with a two-fold purpose. One was to investigate four communicative French immersion classes of Grade 4 and 5 students and

to provide a categorization of different feedback types. The other purpose was to examine the uptake amount associated with different feedback types. From a total of 18.3 hours of classroom observation, six feedback types were identified: explicit correction, recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. Recast made up 55% of all six feedback techniques. It was by far the most frequently used type for correcting young learners' errors. The second-most used feedback type was elicitation, which accounted for 14%. Following elicitation, clarification request made up 11% of all feedback instances. The three other types of feedback—metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction, and repetition—each achieved less than 10% of frequency. The author concluded that recast was therefore the method of choice for correcting students' errors. However, surprisingly, recasts did not achieve the highest percentage of learner uptake, despite its high frequency of occurrence. Only 18% of recast led to repair. This indicates that the most frequently used feedback move was not necessarily the most effective one in leading to learner uptake and repair.

Panova and Lyster's (2002) study is very similar to the one discussed above in both design and research purpose. Their study looked at older learners but found similar results. Recast took up 55% of all feedback instances, which was the same proportion found in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study. Also, they found the same percentage for clarification request which accounted for 11%. One difference from the previous study was that elicitation only accounted for 4%, compared to 14%. Metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction, and repetition were similarly low in frequency. What was new in their study though, was that they established a new category of corrective feedback of translation. The authors explained that translation, taking up 22% of all feedback types,

was frequent enough to stand as its own category. Whereas in the earlier study, translation occurred only a few times and therefore was grouped together with recast.

Suzuki (2004) also adopted Lyster and Ranta's (1997) feedback model for her study which looked at ESL classes including three teachers and intermediate-level adult learners. Twenty-one hours of interaction were transcribed and analyzed. Recast made up an even higher percentage (60%) compared to the two studies above. The second-most used feedback type was clarification request, which was the same in ranking with the two previous studies. However, the percentage of clarification request of 30% was much higher than the other two studies (11%). The rest of the feedback types in the model – metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, explicit correction, and repetition – were no more than 5% each. What is significant in this study is the uptake rate; students tended to respond to teacher feedback almost all the time (97%), and recasts led to much more repair (66%) than those in Lyster and Ranta (18%). The successful repair rate (54%) was much higher than those that were still in need of repair (43%). This study therefore can serve as counter-evidence to the ineffectiveness of recasts. The picture of classroom feedback has now begun to gain more layers and colours. Some seemingly surprising results can be teased apart and attributed to varying contextual factors.

Another study that employed Lyster and Ranta's (1997) feedback model is Jimenez's (2006) study. This study found differing results regarding feedback frequencies in two different levels of learner groups. Group A consisted of beginner level learners, and Group B consisted of pre-intermediate level learners. Situated in an Italian EFL classroom that demonstrated a high level of peer interaction, the author found recasts to be the type of corrective feedback that was the most frequently used (Group A,

37.8%; Group B, 38.3%). These rates for recast were relatively low compared to previous studies. It is interesting to note that the two groups received largely different frequencies for metalinguistic feedback (Group A, 2.5%; Group B, 0%), elicitation (Group A, 20.1%; Group B, 6.7%), explicit correction (Group A, 5.7%; Group B, 1.7%), clarification request (Group A, 6.3%; Group B, 3.3%). Both groups showed similar percentages for repetition (Group A 3.1% and Group B 3.3%). Additionally, multiple feedback (Group A, 10.7%; Group B, 8.3%) and self-correction (Group A, 2.5%; Group B, 15%) are two new additions to this model. Multiple feedback referred to feedback episodes which involve more than one type of feedback move, whereas self-correction was a unique feature in this study which could be a result of highly interactive classroom dynamic.

Yoshida's (2010) study is innovative in that she developed three new categories of feedback types: incidental recast, delayed recast, and re-asks. These three contingent types were added to the model by Lyster and Ranta (1997). Her model is of special importance to the current study because it provided definitions of the three new categories which were also found in the current database. Yoshida used a second-year university level Japanese language course and collected 30 hours of recordings from seven students and two teachers. Results showed that recast was the number one feedback move by the teacher, which occurred 47 times and accounted for 51% of all moves. This rate was comparable to that of Lyster and Ranta (55%) and Panova and Lyster (55%), but lower than Suzuki (58%) and lower than Jimenez (38%). Metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction accounted for 11% each, making the highest rates for these two categories among the previous studies mentioned above. Incidental recast and delayed

recast accounted for 11% and 1% of feedback moves respectively. Re-asks occurred two times and accounted for 2% of the feedback data. What should be noted in these results, however, is that the total number of feedback moves was 92. Thus, a percentage of 11% only represents an occurrence of 10 times (e.g. incidental recast). Longitudinal studies of larger sample sizes are needed to provide more representative patterns of the frequencies of these new feedback types.

As mentioned in section 2.2, one drawback of descriptive studies is that they often develop their own taxonomies, making the results difficult to compare (Ellis, 2001). However, it is beneficial to explore all possible types of corrective feedback to better equip researches and teachers with the awareness of new feedback techniques. Below, Table 1 gives an abridged overview of the results of feedback types and their frequencies from the five studies above. What needs to be kept in mind is that contextualized factors, such as age, L1 background, and teaching contexts, all play an important role in explaining different learning outcomes; these will be discussed in the summary section below.

Table 1 Feedback types and frequencies in five studies

	Lyster & Ranta (1997)	Panova & Lyster (2002)	Suzuki (2004)	Jimenez (2006)[a]	Yoshida (2010)
Recast	55%	55%	60%	38%	51%
Delayed recast	--	--	--	--	1%
Incidental recast	--	--	--	--	11%
Translation	--	22%	--	--	--
Clarification request	11%	11%	30%	4.8%	2%
Metalinguistic feedback	8%	5%	1%	1.3%	11%
Elicitation	14%	4%	5%	13.4%	10%
Explicit correction	7%	2%	2%	3.7%	11%
Re-asks	--	--	--	--	2%
Repetition	5%	1%	2%	3.2%	1%

[a]Data for Jimenez (2006) is the averaged frequencies for Group A and Group B.

2.3.3 Recast

We have learned from the discussion in the previous sections that recast has been the most popular feedback technique among teachers across different classroom settings. Indeed, "…in both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies, recasts have been shown to exist in relatively high frequencies in all classroom and noninstructional settings observed so far" (p. 93, Long, 2007). Recast is considered by many studies to possess a dual quality of rendering both negative and positive evidence (Egi, 2007a; Egi, 2007b; Leeman, 2003). Leeman's (2003) study is significant in that she investigated the utility of recast by teasing apart the enhanced salience of the positive evidence and the implicit

negative evidence of recast. Her results showed that the former played a more important role in learners' post treatment performances. She then concluded that "… enhancing the salience of certain forms led learners to attend to those forms" (p. 57). Another interesting aspect of providing recasts, especially in a classroom setting, is its interaction with the students' and their peers' private speech (Ohta, 2000). "Questions and prompts addressed by the teacher to the class provided fertile ground for learners to take private turns, resulting in opportunities for students to experience incidental corrective feedback (p. 66)." This may provide explanations for why in some classes researchers found a high level of learner uptake, but not in some other classes; why in some classes the effect of recasts was seen in the performances of the peers rather than the student whose errors were directly addressed.

2.3.4 Summary

Descriptive classroom feedback studies have come a long way since Lyster and Ranta (1997) first established their categorization of six feedback types. Panova and Lyster (2002) separated translation from recast and presented a seven-type feedback model. Yoshida (2010) further included incidental recast and delayed recast that were distinct from basic recast. Differences of categorizations are natural and expected due to many contextualized factors in the classrooms, such as the age of the learners, their L1 background, their proficiency levels, whether it is an ESL or an EFL setting, or whether it is an immersion program or a private language school.

To demonstrate how variables play a significant role in SLA, I would like to conclude this subsection with a meta-analysis by Lyster and Saito (2010). Fifteen studies, published since 1980 and that reported Cohen's *d* index, were selected for analysis. These studies were compared according to four instructional factors (types of corrective feedback, instructional setting, length of treatment, and learners' age) and two methodological factors (durability and types of outcome measures). In a word, corrective feedback proved to be facilitative of learning. The authors found that the effectiveness of corrective feedback varied according to different variables; prompt groups made significantly more progress than the recast groups between pretests and posttests. Younger learners were more sensitive to corrective feedback and they benefited more than older learners. However, no conclusive results were found for treatment length. In a way, experimental studies and descriptive studies complement each other by providing both general quantitative patterns and contextualized qualitative accounts to depict a complete picture of classroom feedback.

2.4 Uptake studies

2.4.1 Uptake as a Measure of Learning

Learner uptake was defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997) as "a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the students' initial utterance" (p. 49). There has been ongoing debate about the sensibility of using uptake as

the measure of learning since the very beginning of classroom feedback research. The concern is understandable. As Schmidt (1995) has put it "…not all learning is deliberate or intentional, but all learning does require attention" (p. 1). A student may be well aware of the teacher's corrective intention, but may not be able or willing to verbalize the learning. In order to produce uptake, the student has to pay attention to the correction. But even with the concept of "attention," there have been different interpretations about what exactly it entails. As Schmidt has argued, "attention is not a unitary phenomenon, but refers to a variety of mechanisms. These include alertness, orientation, preconscious registration, selection, facilitation, and inhibition" (2001, p.3). How learners allocate their attention resources plays a crucial role in determining the amount and quality of uptake, and subsequently, learning.

There are more than one factor that could determine learner uptake in the field of SLA. Researchers and practitioners should always keep in mind differences in socio-cultural background among students. Gardener's socio-educational model of second language acquisition (1993) highlighted antecedent factors (age, gender, and learning history), individual learner variables (intelligence, language aptitude, etc), language acquisition context (formal and informal), and learning outcomes (linguistic and non-linguistic). Piasecka's (2011) examination of L2 learners' reading motivation further demonstrated how learners could be discouraged by complex academic reading assignments, but might prefer searching the internet to read more career-related texts. In the context of a CFL classroom, I expect to see different levels of learner motivation associated with career ambitions and higher education opportunities. On the other hand, as discussed in detail in Ellis's (1986) book, not only personal factors, but also group

dynamics, attitudes toward the teacher and course materials, individual learning techniques, students' cognitive style, learning motivation, or even personality, play a role in learning a second language (pp. 99-126).

To summarize, learning requires attention, although attention might not indicate learning. Uptake, as a form of learner output, can be adopted as a measure of learner attention toward teacher feedback. However, we should keep in mind that uptake does not guarantee learning. More importantly, an absence of uptake might be attributed to contextualized factors and individual differences, such as age, gender, socio-educational and motivational factors.

2.4.2 Classroom Feedback and Uptake

Ellis, Basturkman, and Loewen's (2001) study set out with the goal of examining the relationship between the features of focus on form and learner uptake. This study was situated in two classes with two teachers and 120 students from intermediate and pre-intermediate level. Fourteen hours of communicative ESL lessons were audio-recorded and coded using identified characteristics of focus on form episodes (FFEs). These characteristics included source (student-initiated or teacher-initiated), complexity (one change or multiple changes), directness (indirect or direct), and linguistic focus (phonological, lexical, or grammar). In addition, students' uptake moves were coded according to different levels of successfulness: acknowledge, repair, and needs repair. The results showed that uptake occurred in 73.9% of FFEs, and was largely successful (74.1%). There was more successful uptake in student-initiated FFEs than teacher-

initiated FFEs. From the patterns of uptake observed, the authors concluded that the following characteristics of FFEs were more likely to lead to learner uptake: student-initiated FFEs, meaning oriented FFEs, complex episodes with single change, and more direct FFEs. Also, FFEs that focused on student pronunciation were more successful than those focused on lexical items. From this study we can see that uptake was by no means an entity in vacuum. It needs to be correlated and examined with affecting factors, more specifically, the characteristics of FFEs in this study.

Now I will introduce another study that looked at incidental focus on form in ESL lessons. Loewen (2004) characterized FFEs according to their type (reactive, student-initiated), linguistic focus (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation), source (code, message), complexity (simple, complex), directness (indirect, direct), emphasis (light, heavy), timing (immediate, deferred), responses (provide, elicit), uptake (uptake, no uptake, no opportunity), and successful uptake (successful uptake, unsuccessful uptake). Twelve teachers and 118 students participated in this study. Students came from varied L1 backgrounds and their proficiency levels ranged from low to upper-intermediate. Results showed that uptake occurred at an overall rate of 73%, which was very close to Ellis et al.'s (2001) rate of 73.9%. The high uptake rate was explained by the makeup of the participants. Loewen attributed the effectiveness of corrective feedback to the high motivation of the fee-paying adult learners in a private language school. Regarding characteristics of incidental focus on form, the regression analysis showed that complexity, timing and response were the most predictive for uptake results. More specifically, complex FFEs involving multiple turns, immediate treatment of the trigger, and eliciting moves were more likely to result in uptake. In respect to feedback types in

relation to learner uptake, elicits ("elicitation" in most other studies) proved to be more likely to produce uptake than provides ("recast" in most other studies). Therefore, the author concluded with a pedagogical implication that the teachers should engage students in longer negotiations instead of merely providing the correct forms.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) termed learner repair to be "the correct reformulation of an error as uttered in a single student turn and not the sequence of turns resulting in the correct reformulation; nor does it refer to self-initiated repair" (p. 49). While uptake essentially means any utterance that a student produces following a correction, repair indicates a successful outcome of uptake. Therefore, many studies, including the current one, use the term "successful uptake" to refer to repair. Now I will introduce some research on learner repair and its relationship with corrective feedback. Oskoz and Liskin-Gasparro (2001) worked with 17 students and one teacher in a college Spanish course in the United States. Three class hours were audio-recorded for this pilot study. The study adopted the six-type feedback categorization from Lyster and Ranta (1997) and once more, recast was found to be the most commonly employed feedback technique which accounted for 66% of all feedback moves. In answering the research question, "does the amount of learner uptake and repair vary according to the type of corrective feedback," 77% of the teacher's correction led to learner uptake. Additionally, over 41% of teacher feedback resulted in repair. Thus, generally speaking, the students displayed a high level of noticing which led to a high rate of uptake and repair. In relation to feedback types, "more explicit" types of feedback (clarification request, elicitation, and metalinguistic feedback) resulted in significantly more uptake than the "more implicit" types of feedback (recast and repetition). Remembering Ellis's (2011) argument for

encouraging a more explicit way of teaching and also Nassaji's (2009) research on different degrees of explicitness of certain feedback types, it is once again proved by empirical evidence that correcting students' errors in a more explicit way is more likely to promote a higher level of cognitive engagement, which subsequently leads to greater amounts of and perhaps more successful output. Another study by Yang and Lyster (2010) also found that prompts (feedback types that tend to draw students' attention explicitly to the erroneous utterances) had a larger effect in increasing learners' accuracy in producing a certain linguistic item than recast.

Nassaji (2010) investigated the relationship between learner repair during interaction and the learning measured after interaction. Forty-two adult ESL learners and two teachers worked in dyads and the teachers provided recasts or elicitations toward students' errors. The new feature in the methodology was that the researcher provided the students with typed versions of their original uncorrected scenario descriptions. Students were asked to identify and correct their own errors both immediately and two weeks after the interaction. The results showed that the students' performance immediately after the interaction containing elicitation and recasts did not differ by a great amount, however, delayed post-interaction measure showed difference in students' correction for self-generated repair and teacher-generated repair. It was concluded that self-generated repair was more likely to retain its effectiveness over time. Although this study is experimental in nature, it certainly can shed light on how interaction can impact learning and learning overtime. It can be inferred that, corrective feedback, particularly elicitation and recasts, might engage students on different levels of cognitive processing and working memory

that are proven to correlate with students' modified output during interaction (Mackey et al., 2010).

It is not surprising how much research effort has been devoted to examining recast due to its high frequency of usage in second and foreign language classrooms. The relationship between this most frequently used feedback technique and learner uptake has also been the centre of investigation for many studies. Recast characteristics have been identified and studied in relation to the successfulness of learner uptake. Sheen (2006) observed one ESL and one EFL class with 22 students and four teachers. Twenty-four hours of audio-recording were collected and analyzed for characteristics of recasts. Nine types of recasts were identified: multi-move recasts (corrective recasts, repeated recasts, combination recasts), single-move recasts, mode (declarative, interrogative), scope (isolated, incorporated), reduction (reduction, non-reduction), length (word/short phrase, long phrase, clause), number of changes (one change, multiple changes), type of change (addition, deletion, substitution, reordering, combination), and linguistic focus (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar). The results revealed that students produced uptake after 90% of substitution. Recasts provided to phonological errors were related to a higher rate of uptake (92%) than grammatical errors. The intonation with which recasts were provided also had a differential effect. Interrogative recasts had a slightly higher uptake rate (84%) than declarative (79%). As for the repair rate, the author did not find any significant results. Nonetheless, declarative, short-phrase, reduced, substitution, and pronunciation recasts were associated with higher rates of repair. When recasts were reduced and focused on a single error, the student's attention was directed toward the focus with ease. On the contrary, if recasts were provided to multiple errors, student's

attention resources met greater challenge. It is possible that some high-achieving individuals might enjoy the challenge. However, speaking for the majority of the learner population, corrective feedback has had a better effect on reducing the attention load by focusing on one target at a time.

Loewen and Philp (2006) arrived at a similar conclusion with their study which recruited over 100 participants. They used the same database from Loewen (2004) but asked different questions. In the earlier study, the aim was to find out if incidental focus on form would predict learner uptake, thus, features of FFEs were analyzed and compared. In the later study, however, one of the questions was to investigate whether particular characteristics of recasts were associated with successful uptake. Their results confirmed that recasts issued with stress, in a declarative tone, and within extended FFEs with single change were most predictive of successful uptake. Regarding feedback moves, "elicit" achieved a much higher uptake rate (83%) than recasts (60%).

What can be concluded, from the uptake studies reviewed so far, is that due to limited attention resource and cognitive involvement, corrective feedback types that are more effective of leading to learner uptake are those towards the explicit end of the continuum. Elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and explicit correction might not occur as often as recast and repetition, since many teachers strive to avoid interrupting students' speech flow, yet these types have yielded more promising effects on learning measured by learner output and test scores. One might ask, are teachers and students aware of the differences between implicit and explicit feedback and their effectiveness in the classroom? What are the students' perceptions of teacher feedback and learner uptake? The following section will investigate these questions.

2.5 Perceptions of Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback has been receiving tremendous attention and research interest in SLA for the past two decades. Teacher feedback toward learner errors in the classroom is believed to play a crucial role in learners' second language development (Slimani, 1989; 1994). Teacher and learner perception of corrective feedback has also become the focus of investigation as a more contextualized aspect of corrective feedback research. Through observations and interviews, it was found that teachers and students often hardly reach a consensus of what should happen, and what has happened in classroom teaching and learning (Schulz, 2001; Kim & Han, 2007). Discrepancies among intentions revealed that research is on a long journey to bridge the gap between teachers' and learners' ideas and goals. I will now present the recent development of teacher and learner perception of corrective feedback, as well as discuss and evaluate several representative studies in this field.

Since Long's interaction hypothesis (1996) which directed attention to comprehensible input and negative evidence, teachers and researchers have been making every effort to measure error treatment in second language classrooms. So far, through research conducted in the past two decades, we have begun to grasp the impact and potential benefit of teachers' feedback through oberservational, experimental, and quasi-experimental studies. However, while a great number of studies directly test and measure feedback types and their immediate effects on learners' test performance, studies that look at teachers' intentions and learners' perceptions are relatively few. I will summarize

and synthesize a number of studies that were conducted in different contexts with the common goal of investigating participants' perceptions.

Perceptions of feedback can be examined from a number of different angles. Instruments for eliciting teacher and learner opinions vary across contexts as well. Some prefer teaching journals (Gebhard, 1999), while some administer mass surveys (Schulz, 2001). Subsequently, data collected and findings summarized vary greatly in terms of perceptions of feedback types, students' proficiency levels, and cultural contexts.

2.5.1 Perceptions of Feedback Types

Yoshida's (2010) study not only explored teachers' and learners' preferences of feedback types, but also included the relationship between error types and feedback types as part of the investigation scope. She recruited two teachers and seven learners of Japanese and audio-taped 30 hours of classroom activities, followed by a stimulated recall interview with each participant. In answering the first research question, "how do teachers choose the type of corrective feedback in relation to the errors of particular learners," the results showed that morphosyntactic errors (64%) received corrective feedback most frequently, and that recast (51%) was the most frequently used feedback type due to the teachers' awareness of the learners' cognitive styles and also due to the limited class time. This finding of recast is in line with some previous feedback studies (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Suzuki, 2004). The teachers also used elicitation (10%) and metalinguistic feedback (11%) frequently when they thought that the learners could work out the correct forms on their own. The second research question

asked whether learners preferred receiving recasts over the other types of corrective feedback. The results suggested that most of the learners preferred being provided with an opportunity to think about their errors before receiving feedback containing the correct form.

Yoshida's study is significant in that it examined the relationship between learners' error types and the teachers' feedback types, and found that morphosyntactic error attracted the most amount of feedback. Also, due to the small number of participants, the teachers were reported to be aware of each student's cognitive characteristics (e.g., some of them preferred being given explicit grammar rules and explanation while some did not). Some would argue that this is the advantage of teaching a small class—the teacher can afford time to care for individual differences. Additionally, this study further confirmed that recast remained the most frequently used type of corrective feedback due to both time constraint and the teachers' awareness of the students' levels. Since recast has been a predominant type in teacher feedback, and abundant research has been devoted to investigate its efficacy, I will now discuss the related literature on the perceptions of recast.

2.5.2 Perceptions of Recast

Recast, the most frequently used type of feedback in second language classrooms (Jimenez, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Suzuki, 2004; Yoshida, 2010), has also been the subject of investigation in perception research. Recast can be further divided into different subcategories according to several characteristics, such as,

length (partial or full), intonation (declarative or interrogative), number of changes (one change or multiple changes), and linguistic focus (pronunciation, vocabulary, or grammar) (Loewen & Philp, 2006; Sheen, 2006). Furthermore, the positive and/or negative evidence that recast entails, or in other words, the juxtaposition recast imposes, is also under current debate regarding a possible facilitative role recast plays in L2 development.

Egi's (2007a) study specifically looked at different linguistic evidence of recast and the subsequent effect of learners' perceptions. According to the coding scheme, learners perceived recasts as one of the following four options: (a) responses to content, which was meaning-oriented, (b) negative evidence, which indicated there was an error in learners' utterance, (c) positive evidence, which simply provided the correct form without indicating the occurrence of an error, and (d) a combination of negative evidence and positive evidence. Learners noticed 60% of morphosyntactic recasts and 57% of the lexical recasts. This indicated that learners were fairly accurate in perceiving recasts. It was unexpected, however, to see that learners perceived as much morphosyntactic recasts as lexical recasts, while previous research found that recasts targeting lexical errors were more easily noticed (Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000). The author attributed the high rate of noticing of morphosyntactic recasts to the intensity of recasts in this study – in fact, recasts focused on only two morphosyntactic items. The other research question asked whether the length of recasts and number of changes were indicative of learners' perceptions. The study revealed that learners were more successful in noticing shorter recasts with fewer changes. The author attributed this finding, which was similar to that of the previous findings, to learners' limited attention capacity. It was concluded that

different degrees of saliency of recast can challenge learners on different cognitive levels, leading to different learner perceptions.

With the same participants and a similar methodology, Egi (2007b) examined learners' L2 development in relationship with their perceptions of recast. A tailor-made post-test was implemented for analysis in answering the research question: Is there a relationship between learners' perception of recasts (as responses to content, negative evidence, and/or positive evidence) and their L2 development? The performance in L2 development was measured by tailor-made tests that specifically targeted learners' errors during the treatment. Both immediate and delayed post-tests showed that learners obtained most gains when they perceived recasts as a combination of positive and negative evidence. It is interesting to note that learners achieved far better scores when they perceived recasts as positive evidence for lexical items. And this was especially evident in the immediate post-tests. This might indicate that the positive evidence of recasts for lexical errors may cause interlanguage changes more effectively than those for morphosyntactic errors. Lexical learning, again, proved to be better facilitated via corrective feedback. It should be noted that the characteristics of recasts were not analyzed in this study[2]. It was indicated that recasts might have different "markedness" but it was not within this study's scope of investigation.

Carpenter et al. (2006) set out to examine whether learners could perceive recasts accurately – to be able to recognize recasts from repetitions. The methodology included recording video clips of task-based dyadic activities when either recast or repetition was provided to advanced ESL learners. These clips were then played to another group of

[2] Characteristics of recast were investigated in Egi (2007a).

learners who were asked to identify whether students in the video were receiving recast or repetition. The viewer group was further divided into two groups: one group watched the complete clips with both the student's erroneous utterance and the teacher's feedback while the other group only watched the provision of recast and repetition. The results showed that learners with access to the initiating of erroneous utterances were more successful in identifying recasts, but they showed no advantage in distinguishing recast from repetition. This suggested that the utterance-response context might have enhanced the salience of a recast but recasts remained ambiguous in the corrective nature and therefore they were frequently perceived as mere repetition.

Kim and Han (2007) considered many aspects of classroom teaching, such as teachers' intention, learners' perceptions, learners' accuracy of perceiving recasts as corrective or communicative, self-directed or other-directed feedback, different linguistic targets, and forms of recasts. The study was situated in a Korean EFL school where four intermediate classes (n=37) were video- and audio-taped. A subset of 20 learners and the two teachers participated in stimulated recall interviews. Recasts was categorized according to complexity (one change or multiple changes), linguistic content (morphological, syntactic, lexical, or phonological), and form and meaning (isolated declarative, isolated interrogative, incorporated declarative, or incorporated interrogative). Results demonstrated a high level of recast awareness. This was explained by the consistency of providing recast as the only kind of corrective feedback during observation. However, whether recasts were self-directed or other-directed did not have any effect on the learners' perceptions. Regarding linguistic targets, phonological recasts were better perceived than lexical and morphological recasts. This finding was attributed

to the argument that morphological errors did not require negotiation of meaning or learner involvement. However, Mackey et al. (2007) found an opposite result to this – more explicitly presented grammar points on morphosyntactic items might have a greater potential in drawing learner attention. It was also found that isolated declarative recasts were the most noticeable of all recast forms. This is in agreeance with Lyster's (1998) study where the result was explained by learners' limited phonological storage ability and working memory capacity. With a relatively small sample size, the author recognized the limitations of making generalizations. Nonetheless, what we can learn from this study and other studies discussed above is that aspects such as feedback intensity, feedback characteristics, the context in which corrective feedback is provided, and learner attention and working memory should all be considered for conducting feedback and perceptions research.

2.5.3 Student Level and Cultural Differences

Brandl (1995) used a standardized test and students' course assignments to differentiate between "strong" and "weak" students in his study, with the goal of examining students' preferences of different feedback options. In a computerized active-passive transformation grammar exercise, students were given four feedback options: judgment of answer (right or wrong), error location, grammatical description of correct responses, and the correct answer. He found that students of higher proficiency level tended to use judgment of answer more often than the students of the lower proficiency level. Brandl argued that the students of lower proficiency level might not be as engaged

in cognitive and motivational processing as higher level students were. However, the findings from the computerized context should be considered carefully before we make broader generalizations. Whether students would make similar choices of feedback options during face-to-face interactions should be examined by future investigations.

A more recent study, Kennedy (2010), also took student proficiency level as an important variable. Kennedy's work focused on a teacher's choice of feedback type provided to child ESL learners who were divided into two proficiency groups (low level and mid/high level). The study found that the low level group received more feedback that contained the correct form, whereas the mid/high level group received more feedback without the correct form. The findings suggested that the teacher's perception of learners' proficiency level affected her choice of corrective feedback, especially when considering providing the correct forms or not. These results showed that the teacher modified her corrective feedback techniques which required different degrees of cognitive processing, and that the teacher's perceptions of the students' proficiency level played a crucial role in how the errors were treated.

In respect to comparing cultural differences in providing corrective feedback, Schulz (2001) investigated the perceptions of the students and the teachers in USA and Columbia. The study adopted two questionnaires that asked teachers and students about their perceptions of grammar instruction and error correction. Results showed that both Columbian teachers and students favoured more explicit and traditional grammar teaching and error correction compared to their American counterparts. The author then argued that it should be the teacher's responsibility to examine his or her students' perceptions regarding effective language teaching in order to avoid conflicting ideas

between the two parties. However, I stand by the opinion that both teachers and students should make an effort to bridge the gap between their expectations. Reaching from both ends seems to be a more reasonable approach. As we will see in the current study, expectations might have played an important role in student participation and classroom dynamics. The teacher's feedback choice could be influenced by the expectations of the course goal as well as student reaction in the classroom.

There are three to four students in the current study whose background is closely related to the target language – Chinese. Ron's first language is Cantonese, and Alex's parents are from Taiwan (students are referred to by pseudonyms). Greta was born in Taiwan and was raised speaking Mandarin and English. It would be interesting to see whether there is any difference between the students who are familiar with the target language and students who are from an English-speaking-only background. As Gass and Lewis (2007) termed it, "In general, heritage speakers are individuals who are living in a second language environment, but who were raised in a home where a language other than the second language is spoken" (p. 80). For Greta and Alex especially, their first language ever learned is Mandarin Chinese (Taiwan), but they began to speak English from a very early age in school and at home. English, therefore, could be regarded as their second first language. By the definition provided by Gass and Lewis, they would be heritage speakers of Mandarin who were raised in English mostly. Gass and Lewis found that in terms of feedback target, both heritage language learners and non-heritage language learners were able to perceive lexical and phonological feedback more accurately than morphosyntactic feedback. There were, however, distinct differences between these two groups of speakers on semantics. This might indicate that heritage

speakers might have an advantage in interpreting and absorbing the subtle cultural nuances due to an adequate amount of language exposure in their upbringing.

2.6 Unresolved Debates

Debates that are related to the rationale of this study can be organized into the following themes: classroom orientation (focus on form, focus on meaning, or focus on forms), reactive focus on form or pre-emptive focus on form, whether uptake should be indicative of learning (experimental studies have presented different lasting effect of different feedback types), and how great the discrepancies are between teacher and learner perception of learning behaviour in the classroom. Some debates have reached a conclusion while others have not. Uptake has been more and more relied upon for measuring immediate learning outcome. As far as perception studies are concerned, we need to collect opinions from more teachers and students, and find out their needs and expectations before we can bridge the gap between their ideologies. With these unresolved issues in mind, this study set out on a mission to provide more evidence in an adult CFL classroom.

2.7 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was two-fold. First, it aimed at examining the feedback types that the teacher provided to learner errors, and determining what types led to the most amount of learner uptake. The other aim of the study was to investigate the

teacher's and the students' perceptions about feedback frequency and feedback types. To this end, this study set out to compare the participants' perceptions of feedback frequency and feedback types, and to bring forth any discrepancies between their perceptions and reality.

2.8 Research Questions

The study addresses the following research questions:

For feedback frequencies and types – In an adult CFL classroom,

1. How often does the teacher provide feedback?
2. What types of feedback does the teacher provide?
3. What type(s) of feedback lead to the most amount of learner uptake?

For perceptions of feedback frequencies and types – In an adult CFL classroom,

4. What are the students' and the teacher's perceptions of the general frequency of teacher feedback?
5. Are there any differences between their perceptions and the actual frequency?
6. What are the students' and the teacher's perceptions of the frequency of each feedback type provided?
7. Are there any differences between their perceptions and the actual frequency of each feedback type provided?

Chapter 3 – Methodology

3.1 Teaching Context

A 200-level Chinese language course was chosen for observation. Consideration was taken when choosing an appropriate level for observation. It was anticipated that in a beginner-level course (100-level), the teacher would spend much time lecturing, which would be mostly one-way, and teaching would largely be done in English due to students' limited knowledge of the target language. At the time of the study, the intermediate-level course (300-level) was not considered for data collection because the small class size (only two students registered) would not have qualified as "classroom interaction." Therefore, the 200-level early-intermediate course was selected for this study, with the expectation to yield an adequate amount of interaction and feedback exchanges.

The course focused on reading, including text comprehension and character recognition. Three kinds of class activities were identified: before-reading, during-reading, and after-reading. Before-reading refers to the period of class time which was devoted to vocabulary introduction and analysis. The vocabulary was the list of new words included at the beginning of each chapter in the textbook. The teacher used this time to give examples of how each new word could be used in sentences, to introduce its frequency of use, or to explain the level of formality that it was associated with. When the actual reading activity began, the teacher would usually start reading the text sentence by sentence, followed by students' repetition of her reading of each sentence. This was to familiarize students with the new text. The teacher sometimes paused and read the

sentence again if the students did not read it fluently the first time. The during-reading activity also included the teacher's explanations of phrase or sentence structures in order to achieve meaning comprehension. The teacher moved rather slowly during this activity, perhaps due to her consideration that the English-speaking learners might find it difficult to keep up with reading Chinese characters only. She also did frequent meaning-checks on individual students, making sure that they understood a certain structure as the class moved along. She also took some time to elaborate, giving multiple examples if students were having difficulty understanding a grammatical structure, especially when there were no equivalent structures in English. Therefore, during-reading made up the biggest portion of class time. After-reading refers to a small amount of time after the reading activity finished and before the class ended. This was usually five minutes or so when the class wound down and the teacher reiterated the homework assignment and some deadlines. Feedback episodes were few during after-reading, but there were some.

The course lasted from mid-January to the beginning of April, with three quizzes, a mid-term exam, and a final exam throughout the course span. Classes were 50 minute-long each, and were held three times a week on Tuesdays, Wednesdays, and Fridays. The present research avoided all the exams and only used 13 normal teaching lessons for data collection.

3.2 Participants

The participants for this study consisted of the entire class, including the teacher and 13 students, in the Pacific and Asian Studies Department at the University of Victoria. The students came from varied L1 backgrounds and lengths of studying Mandarin Chinese. The students' age range was from 19 to 24 years old, with a mean of 20.5. Students were largely females, and the gender ratio was 10 (female) to 3 (male). Not all students showed up for every lesson. The average number of students present at each lesson was around eight. Data, both video-taping and surveys, were collected from those who were present at each observed lesson. Table 2 shows a brief summary of the students' bio data. To ensure anonymity, I adopted pseudonyms for each student, and referred to the teacher as "the teacher." The teacher was a female native-speaker of Mandarin with eight years of Mandarin-teaching experience. She had also taught other courses beside Chinese language, including Chinese Linguistics and SLA Teaching Methodology.

At the beginning of the course, the teacher and the students were not informed of the research focus being teacher feedback and learner uptake, although they might have begun to obtain a sense of the focus when the survey started. More descriptions on survey will be found in the Instruments and Procedures section.

Table 2 Participants' bio data

No.	Pseudonym	Age	Gender	First Language	Other language(s)	Length of studying Mandarin
1	Melanie	20	Female	English	None	3 years
2	Penelope	21	Female	English	French	1 year 8 months
3	Emma	21	Female	French/English	French	1 year 4 months
4	Ron	20	Female	Cantonese/English	None	3 years
5	Raymond	19	Female	English	None	2 years
6	Eveline	20	Female	English	French	2.5 years
7	Pinky	22	Female	Thai	English	2 years
8	Winston	21	Male	English	None	7 years
9	Pepper	21	Female	English	None	2 years
10	Alexander	19	Male	English	French	5 years
11	Greta	18	Female	Mandarin	Japanese, French, English	Since birth
12	Naomi	21	Female	Japanese	English	1.5 years
13	Elliot	24	Male	English	French	1.5 years

3.3 Instruments and Procedures

3.3.1 Video-taping and Audio-taping

The researcher informed the teacher and the students of the video-taping during the recruitment announcement, which was made in person prior to the first observed lesson. Shortly before each lesson started, the researcher set up the video camera in the

front corner area of the classroom. For the very first few lessons, the camera was placed at the front right corner of the classroom near the front door, to capture all of the students. The teacher generally moved between the camera and the first row of student seats. Due to the classroom layout, the camera could not capture all of the teacher's movement or gestures. This was made up for by the excellent sound quality of the camera, which indicated when the teacher was writing on the blackboard and when she was facing the students. After the first few recordings, the camera was set up at the front left corner of the classroom, on top of a small lecture stand, due to the previous limited footage range and possible blocking when the teacher moved in front of the camera. During the recording, the researcher was in a research room located in the same building. The video camera was reliable throughout the period of data collection. Thus, no urgent fixing or stopping was needed during the recording sessions. Two minutes before each observed class ended, the researcher returned to the classroom and stopped the recording. In order to minimize the intrusiveness, the researcher was not present in the classroom, and no field notes were taken. This was made up by the video-taping images from which the reading activities could be easily identified. It should be noted that one limitation of the researcher not being present in the classroom is that the camera angle could not be adjusted to capture some classroom activities, including one class skit when three students went to the front to act out a small play based on the text. But again, the high audio quality of the camera managed to capture the distinctions between different voices and made it easy to identify the roles.

A small Olympus digital voice recorder was used for audio-taping. The audio-taping procedure was similar to that of the video-recording. Participants were informed

during recruitment announcement that they would be both audio-taped and video-taped. At the beginning of each of the 13 recorded lessons, the voice recorder was started and placed at one of the empty student seats at the rear of the classroom. This was to capture all of the students' utterances while complementing the video-recording which was located in the front of the classroom. It was then stopped at the same time as the video-camera was stopped at the end of each observed lesson. The students and the teacher were all comfortable of having both devices at their presence, and they did not act unnatural because of the recording. Although the voice recorder has functioned as a reliable back-up technology, it was seldom consulted for transcribing since the video clips are of excellent sound and image quality.

3.3.2 Survey

The survey was designed to collect the participants' perception data. The survey contained 10 questions and took about two minutes to complete. The surveys were administered using the last two minutes of class time, and were collected before the students left the classroom. Surveys were given at the end of each of the last six lessons (from lesson 8 to lesson 13). The first seven lessons were only video-taped without surveys. The survey was not given at the beginning of the course was due to the consideration that the participants might be aware of the focus of the study. Although the effect of the survey was not within the scope of the study, it would be interesting to observe any difference that might arise during the classes before and after the survey administration regarding feedback provision.

The surveys for the students and for the teacher were the same. The wording of the questions was adjusted accordingly. For the students, I asked about their perceptions of feedback they had received, and for the teacher the perceptions about feedback that she had given. Surveys for the students and for the teacher are attached in Appendix D and Appendix E. Except question 2 – the general frequency question – was answered by ticking one of the four option boxes (100%, 75%, 50%, or 0%). A long line was provided below each question for the students to write about their perceptions. The line was later replaced by option boxes after the students suggested so. The revised questions became more tangible by offering four options so the students could choose whichever they thought would represent their perceptions: Yes, often; Yes, sometimes; Maybe I can't remember clearly; No. Only the last four surveys, which were revised, were used for data analysis.

Chapter 4 – Data Analysis

Transcribing of the video data started as soon as the first observed lesson was recorded. The results were entered into SPSS (17.0) and descriptive statistical analysis was carried out after video recordings were transcribed, coded, and the survey answers collected.

4.1 Transcribing Video Data

The researcher transcribed 100% of the video recording. Transcribing was done using simply the video clips and Microsoft Word. The beginning of each recorded lesson was usually casual conversations between students while waiting for other students to come. This part was not transcribed because the content was not related to teaching and learning activities. The transcribing began as soon as the teacher started addressing the class and introducing the lesson plan. The total length of 13 transcribed video-recordings is 597 minutes (10 hours). Effort was made to record, in the written form, as much non-verbal content as possible. Therefore, the transcription included students' laughter, the teacher's hand gestures (within video footage), when the teacher wrote on the blackboard, and when she turned to a certain student. Transcribing conventions are attached in Appendix A.

The teacher used both English and Chinese for teaching. When she was analyzing grammatical structures or making comparisons between L1 and L2, she used English to make the explanation more accessible for the students. When she was providing sample

sentence, or relating the current content to some previous learning, she would use Chinese to "push" the students to process the target language before she explained further. Thus, the transcription was completed in both English and Chinese. There was a small proportion of transcription that was written in Chinese alphabet "pinyin." This was done to record students' phonological errors as well as the teacher's corrections. Since Chinese characters do not have any indication of how they are pronounced, the pinyin of the corresponding erroneous utterance is necessary for presenting the pronunciation. For mispronounced words, I wrote the word in Chinese character first, and then in round brackets, I provided the erroneous pronunciation using pinyin. An example of a phonological feedback episode is shown below:

Episode #149

Utterance	Translation
Elliot: Uh, 办了, 很多, 培训(pēi shūn)班	Elliot: Uh, opened, many, training courses
T: 培训(péi xùn)班	T: Training courses *RECAST*
Elliot: 班	Elliot: Course

Sometimes when a student's pronunciation of a word was correct but the tone which was associated to the word was incorrect. It was still counted as a phonological error. Chinese is a tonal language; tones are an integral part of every Chinese word. Assigning a wrong tone to a word is highly likely to cause misinterpretation of the meaning. Tone is a subtle but crucial aspect and it is especially challenging for English speakers to acquire. Below is an example when the student made a tonal error.

Episode #158

Utterance	Translation
T: Hotel, hotel 是什么？	T: Hotel, hotel is what?
Elliot: Oh, uh, 饭店(fàn diǎn)	Elliot: Oh, uh, restaurant.
T: 饭店(fàn diàn).	Elliot: Restaurant.

4.2 Coding Feedback Types

To code the feedback types, the study used Panova and Lyster's (2002) model of seven feedback types, which includes recast, clarification request, translation, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, explicit correction, and repetition. This model took on a few types that were established in some other studies, namely delayed recast and re-asks from Yoshida (2010). Moreover, there were some new categories that emerged from the current data set. In the end, 12 feedback types were identified, and below is a list of all feedback types with their corresponding examples. In what follows, I will provide a brief definition and also an example of each feedback type identified in the study.

1. Recast.

A recast was defined as "an implicit corrective feedback move that reformulates or expands an ill-formed or incomplete utterance in an unobtrusive way, similar to the type of recasts provided by primary caregivers in child L1 acquisition" (Panova & Lyster, 2002, p. 582).

Example: feedback episode #145

Interaction	Translation
Pepper: 假装 (jià zhuāng)	Pepper: To pretend (jià zhuāng)
Teacher: 假装 (jiǎ zhuāng)	Teacher: To pretend (jiǎ zhuāng)

2. Delayed recast.

In Yoshida (2010), a delayed recast referred to a teacher's utterance that functioned as a recast, and that occurred a short while after a learner's erroneous utterance (p. 84).

Example: feedback episode #104

Interaction	Translation
Pepper: 才找到一个比较，**tíng**, 不错的公司。	Pepper: (Until quite late he) found a quite **(tíng)** good company.
T: Yeah! 很好。这一次好不容易，好不容易 is a fixed structure to indicate it's very difficult. Same as 不容易. 才找到一家挺**(tǐng)**不错的公司。	T: Yeah! Very good. This time, quite not easy, quite not easy is a fixed structure to indicate it's very difficult. Same as not easy. (Until quite late he) found a quite **(tǐng)** good company.

3. Clarification request.

According to Lyster and Ranta, a clarification request was issued when the teacher sought meaning or form related clarification after a student made an error (p. 583).

Example: feedback episode # 92

Interaction	Translation
Emma: 桌(zhuō)着？	Emma: (zhuō) zhe?
T: 坐(zuò). Is that what you want to say?	T: (zuò). Is that what you want to say?
Emma: Uh, zhuō …	Emma: Uh, zhuō …

4. Translation.

The teacher could translate a student's well-formed L1 use into the target language (Panova & Lyster, 2002). Here is an example of this feedback technique to draw the student's attention to use the target language:

Feedback episode # 12

Interaction	Translation
Emma: No I did half of it.	Emma: No I did half of it.
T: Did half, yeah, 做了一半儿。	T: Did half, yeah, did half.
Emma: 做了一半儿。	Emma: Did half.

5. Metalinguistic feedback.

The teacher could also offer comments or brief analyses toward a student's erroneous utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Example: feedback episode # 36

Interaction	Translation
Alex: 丈夫(zhàng fū)	Alex: Husband (zhàng fū)
T: Yeah, 丈夫(zhàng fu)。Neutral tone for the second one. 丈夫(zhàng fu).	T: Yeah, husband (zhàng fu). Neutral tone for the second one. Husband (zhàng fu).

6. Elicitation.

Elicitation was used when the teacher intended to give a chance for the student to self-correct his/her error (Panova & Lyster, 2002). In Lyster and Ranta (1997), there were three techniques of elicitation. Firstly, the teacher would pause and let the student to "fill in the blank" for the part that the student made an error. Secondly, the teacher would ask a direct question, for example "How do you say that in English?" Thirdly, the teacher would ask the students to re-try.

In the current study, "elicitation" only referred to the first technique of "filling in the blank." For the second and the third technique, I developed a new category called "asking a direct question" to include the two. The reason behind this is that, compared to merely filling in the blank, the last two kinds of eliciting techniques are more direct and more salient, making it more obvious to the students that an error has occurred. And due to the salience of their corrective nature, it would be better to establish a separate category for the two, and call the category "asking a direct question." This is also supported by theoretical considerations that the explicitness of feedback is one of the most important features in feedback analysis, thus, having this distinction will help advance research on the differences of salience of feedback types. From this point on, I propose that, "elicitation" is close to the implicit end on the explicitness continuum while "asking a direct question" is closer to the explicit end of the continuum. Grouping them together as one feedback type would not be able to capture this difference in explicitness. Again, future research should test the validity with larger-scale studies.

Below is an example of "elicitation" feedback episode:

Example: feedback episode # 3

Interaction	Translation
Ron: 对不起 (duì bù chǐ)	Ron: Sorry (duì bù chǐ)
T: 对不———	T: Duì bù ———
Ron: 起(qǐ)	Ron: (qǐ)

7. Explicit correction.

The teacher might use explicit correction method to explicitly signal to the student that he/she had made an error (Panova & Lyster, 2002). The example below shows that student Emma made a Chinese character recognition error. The teacher then explicitly pointed out that the character that she perceived to be was missing a radical.

Example: feedback episode # 17

Interaction	Translation
T: 然后第四个是———	T: Then the forth one is ———
Emma: 米饭	Emma: Rice
T: 啊？米饭。Not this one. "米饭" is without this radical.	T: Ah? Rice. Not this one. “Rice” is without this radical.

8. Asking a direct question.

As mentioned above, in “elicitation,” this is a category of a combination of asking a direct question (e.g. “How do you say that in French?”) to elicit the correct form and requesting the students to re-try. I include two examples here, one for each subcategory:

Example: feedback episode # 164

Interaction	Translation
T: Oh, you want to travel all over the world.	T: Oh, you want to travel all over the world.
Eveline: And help other people.	Eveline: And help other people.
T: 或者帮助别人，或者说，how to say “travel all over the world”?	T: Or help other people, or to say, how to say “travel all over the world?”
Eveline: 去…	Eveline: Go …

Feedback episode #117

Interaction	Translation
Greta: 成(céng)功	Greta: Success (céng)
T: One more time?	T: One more time?
Ss: 成功(chéng gōng)。	Ss: Success (chéng gōng).

9. Repetition.

The teacher could repeat the student’s erroneous utterance with a different intonation to raise the student’s awareness of the error (Panova & Lyster, 2002). Below is an example of repetition. When student Elliot had difficulty recognizing a Chinese character, he substituted it by saying “something.” The teacher then repeated his utterance in a raising intonation.

Example: feedback episode # 25

Interaction	Translation
Elliot: 他爱自己的国家，uh, something.	Elliot: He loves his country, uh, something.
T: Something?	T: Something?

10. Directing question to other students.

When a student made an error, the teacher sometimes chose to ask other students to try to provide the correct form. This was possible in a classroom setting, and it shows the level of peer engagement.

Example: feedback episode # 30

Interaction	Translation
Emma: Actually I want to say, old man would be “老伙子”?	Emma: Actually I want to say, old man would be “old fellow”?
T: How do you say “old man”? (looking toward Elliot)	T: How do you say “old man”? (looking toward Elliot)
Elliot: (Instantly)老人。	Elliot: (Instantly) Old person.

11. Re-asks.

According to Yoshida (2010), “a re-ask occurs when a question that triggered the learner’s erroneous response is repeated” (p. 84). Re-asks was different from asking a direct question in that it was a repetition of the teacher’s question, not an elicitation of the correct form using a direct question. The purpose of a re-ask was to emphasize the original question as sometimes the students might miss the point of a question while they were in fact capable of answering the question.

Example: feedback episode # 4

Interaction	Translation
T: How would you say the, "three times a year"?	T: How would you say the, "three times a year"?
Ss: 三年…	Ss: Three years…
T: “Three times a year!”	T: “Three times a year!”
Elliot: Oh, 一年三次.	Elliot: Oh, a year three times.

12. Using L1 – English.

Although there were not many instances of this type, it was different from “translation.” These two types can be seen as reversed counterparts. Using L1-English was used when the teacher felt that it would be easier for the students to understand a certain structure if it was explained in English. When students were tired, or overwhelmed by the information in a lesson, the teacher used English to lighten up the cognitive load. Although there was only one episode which contained Using L1-English, I still have established a category due to its uniqueness of its correcting nature. In the episode below, student Pinky mispronounced the name of a temple. The teacher corrected her pronunciation and at the same time provided the translation of the word “temple” in English to facilitate the understanding of the meaning.

Example: feedback episode # 44

Interaction	Translation
Pinky: uh, jīn chán?	Pinky: uh, jīn chán?
T: Yeah, 金山 temple, yeah 金山寺.	T: Yeah, Golden Mountain temple, yeah Golden Mountain Temple.
Pinky: 金山寺。	Pinky: Golden Mountain Temple.

Very often, the teacher used more than one feedback moves to target the same student error. To present this phenomenon, I call feedback episodes that contained more than one feedback moves "multiple feedback." Here is one example of multiple feedback.

Feedback episode # 58

Interaction	Translation
T: hotel…hotel 是什么?	T: hotel…hotel is what?
Elliot: 哦，uh, 饭店(fàn diǎn)	Elliot: Oh, uh, (fàn diǎn)
T: 饭店(fàn diàn)。饭店(fàn diàn)，sometimes you can also say "酒店 jiǔ diàn", yeah, 饭店或者酒店.	T: (fàn diàn) *RECAST.* (fàn diàn), sometimes you can say "jiǔ diàn", yeah, fàn diàn or jiǔ diàn. *METALINGUISTIC FEEDBACK*

Jimenez (2006) discovered abundant cases of multiple feedback in his study of an EFL classroom in Italy. When two types of feedback moves occurred closely together, for instance, "elicitation + recast," he did not code them as one feedback move "explicit correction," but instead he coded them as "multiple feedback." Eventually, multiple feedback accounted for 10.7% and 8.3% of all feedback types for the beginner group and the intermediate group respectively. In this study, I preserved different feedback types occurred in multiple feedback episodes. For instance, in the episode above, the teacher used both recast and metalinguistic feedback toward the erroneous utterance. Therefore, I coded them as two separate feedback types. Meanwhile, this whole episode was marked as a "multiple feedback" episode. Preserving different types of feedback moves in a multiple feedback episode was to maintain and present all corrective techniques; marking these episodes as "multiple feedback" episodes was to analyse the percentage of multiple feedback in the complete data set. If the feedback moves in multiple feedback episodes

were not preserved and were coded as one, it would be impossible to find out what was the most common combinations that the teacher employed while giving multiple feedback.

4.3 Coding Uptake

The study adopted Lyster and Ranta's (1997) definition of uptake, which was also used in Panova and Lyster's (2002) study. Uptake was defined as "a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance" (p.49). Therefore, uptake has to be in a verbal form. Non-verbal responses, for instance nodding, were not considered to be learner uptake.

Learner uptake was further divided into successful uptake and unsuccessful uptake. Successful uptake refers to a student's successful correction of the error after teacher feedback. Unsuccessful uptake refers to a student's partial or off-target correction of an error after receiving teacher feedback.

The episode below gives an example of successful uptake.

Episode #12

Interaction	Translation
Emma: No I did half of it.	Emma: No I did half of it.
T: Did half, yeah, 做了一半儿。	T: Did half, yeah, did half. *RECAST*
Emma: 做了一半儿。	Emma: Did half. *SUCCESSFUL UPTAKE*

As shown in this episode, Emma made an L1 error. The teacher provided the correct phrase in the target language, and Emma then successfully repeated the teacher's utterance. Feedback # 130 below is an example of unsuccessful uptake.

Episode # 130

Interaction	Translation
T: 在维多利亚还是在温哥华?	T: Is it in Victoria or in Vancouver?
Alex: 温哥华 easier.	Alex: Vancouver is easier.
T: 温哥华容易一些。	T: Vancouver is easier.
Alex: 对。	Alex: Right. *UNSUCCESSFUL UPTAKE*

No uptake refers to the instances when the students did not produce any verbal response to the teacher's feedback.

Feedback episode # 9

Interaction	Translation
Alex: 像只大蛇(sé)。	Alex: Like a big snake.
T: 像只大蛇(shé)。	T: Like a big snake. *RECAST*, *NO UPTAKE*

4.4 Inter-rater reliability

Forty randomly selected feedback episodes (20% of all feedback episodes) were coded by another coder. The independent coder was a graduate student in the Linguistics department who was pursuing a Doctorate degree in Applied Linguistics at the time of the study. She and the researcher met for a brief discussion of the coding scheme –

including feedback types (a complete list of 12 types), uptake, and uptake types – to be sure that both of us were in agreement regarding terms and definitions before the coding began. We achieved 97.5% agreement on feedback types, 100% on uptake, and 100% on uptake types.

4.5 Coding Survey Answers

Question 1 of the survey asked whether the teacher provided feedback during today's lesson. It was a yes/no question and the answer was therefore analyzed qualitatively. Question 2 asked how often the teacher provided feedback, and the students and the teacher were asked to choose from 0%, 25%, 50%, 75%, and 100% of the errors. The results were analyzed quantitatively. For question 3 to 9, that each asked about whether the teacher provided a specific type of feedback and its frequency, there were four options for the students and the teacher to choose from, and each of the options was assigned a number for analysis. For example, "Yes, often" was assigned "4," "Yes, sometimes" was assigned "3," "Maybe, I can't remember clearly" was assigned "2," and "No" was assigned "1." The results of question 3 to 9 were then numeralized and compared in terms of students' mean and the teacher's mean.

Chapter 5 Results

5.1 General Frequencies of Feedback

The first research question investigated the frequency of teacher feedback. A total of 192 feedback episodes were observed. There were 245 feedback moves that were identified to have occurred during the 10 hours of classroom interaction. Therefore, there was on average one feedback move occurrence every 2.4 minutes.

The feedback frequency can also be presented by comparing the number of errors that received feedback and the numbers of errors that did not receive any feedback. The results are presented in Table 3 (see also Figure 1).

Table 3 Numbers of errors that received/did not receive feedback

	Errors		Total number of errors
	Errors received feedback	Errors did not receive feedback	
Total	194 68.1%	91 31.9%	285 100%

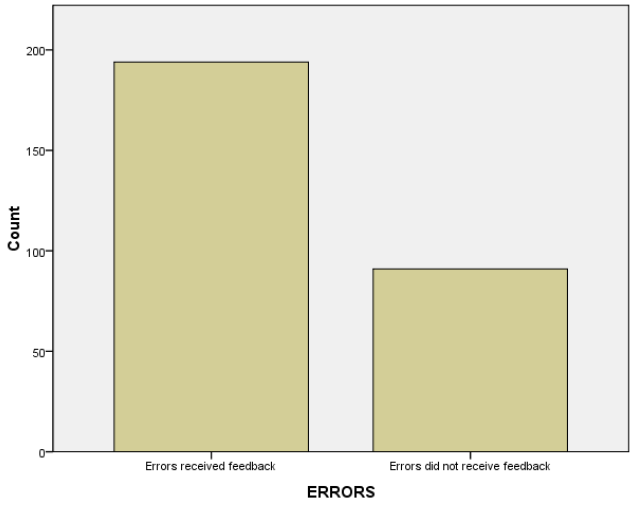

Figure 1 Numbers of errors that received/did not receive feedback

As can be seen from Table 3, students made a total of 285 errors in the observed 10 hours of classroom interaction. Of these 285 errors, 194 received teacher feedback whereas 94 of them did not receive any corrective feedback. In other words, the teacher provided corrective feedback to 68.1% of the students' erroneous utterance.

5.2 General Feedback Types

The second research question examined what types of feedback the teacher provided to the students' errors. Table 4 shows the 12 feedback types and their percentages (see also Figure 2). The three new types that emerged from the current dataset – asking a direct question, directing question to other students, and using L1-English had only very limited occurrences. However, they were still treated as independent categories because of their uniqueness in the correcting technique.

Table 4 Frequency of each feedback type

Feedback types	Numbers	Percentages
1. Recast	139	56.7%
2. Delayed recast	5	2.0%
3. Clarification request	3	1.2%
4. Translation	18	7.3%
5. Metalinguistic feedback	26	10.6%
6. Elicitation	17	6.9%
7. Explicit correction	18	7.3%
8. Asking a direct question	8	3.3%
9. Repetition	5	2.0%
10. Directing question to other students	3	1.2%
11. Re-asks	2	1.0%
12. Using L1-English	1	0.4%
Total	245	100%

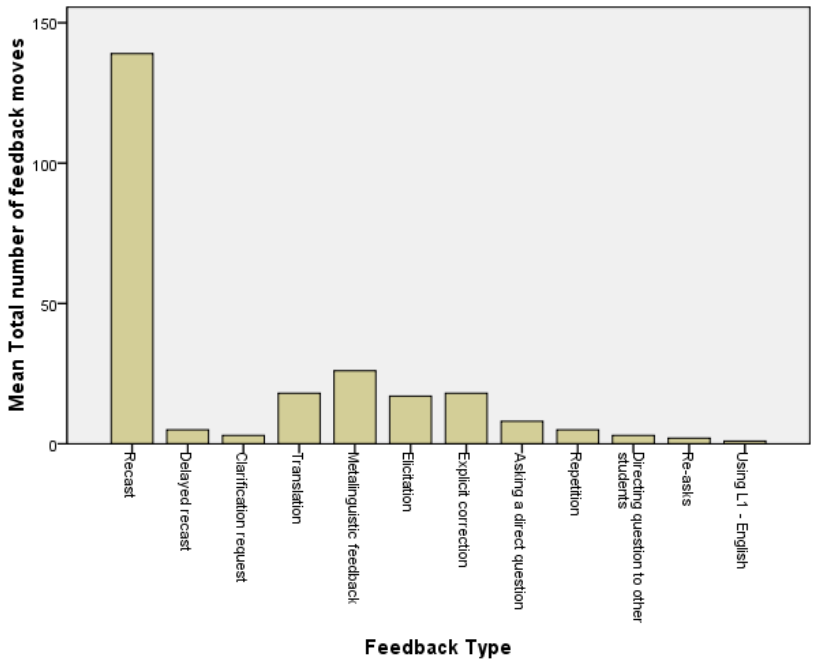

Figure 2 Visual contrast of twelve feedback types

As can be seen from both Table 4 and Figure 2, recast was the predominant feedback type of choice. There were a total of 139 occurrence of recast, accounting for 56.7% of all feedback moves. The second most commonly used feedback type in the current study was metalinguistic feedback, which occurred 26 times and took up 10.6% of all the feedback moves. This percentage was higher than that of Panova and Lyster's study (5%). Following metalinguistic feedback, translation and explicit correction had an equal amount of occurrence of 18 times and both accounted for 7.3% of all feedback moves. This is quite different from Panova and Lyster's result where translation had a high percentage of 22% whereas explicit correction only took up 2%. Elicitation, which occurred 17 times and accounted for 6.9% of all feedback moves, was the next most

frequently used feedback technique. The remaining seven types – delayed recast, clarification request, asking a direct question, repetition, directing question to other students, re-asks, and using L1-English – ranged from 0.4% to 3.3%, and all together, they accounted for 11.1% of all feedback moves.

Although multiple feedback is not the focus of the current study, it is worth pointing out that there were 22 feedback episodes that contained multiple feedback. The most common combination, as shown in Table 5, was recast + metalinguistic feedback, which accounted for 32% of all multiple feedback instances. Therefore, when the teacher provided multiple feedback moves for the same student error, she preferred to provide the correct form first, followed by an explicit grammatical explanation. The other types of combinations only made up a small percentage of all combinations, with occurrences ranging from one to three times.

Of all twelve feedback types, recast was the type of choice, taking up 56.7% of all feedback types. Out of the other types of feedback, metalinguistic feedback accounted for 10.6% and was the second most common type, followed by translation and explicit correction, which both took up 7.3%. Except elicitation which took up 6.9%, the rest of the types only accounted for a very small amount of all feedback moves. Thus, we can conclude that recast was the predominant feedback type in this study.

Table 5 Feedback combinations

Recast + metalinguistic feedback	7
Metalinguistic feedback + explicit correction	3
Recast + elicitation	2
Recast + explicit correction	2
Recast + Using L1-English	1
Metalinguistic feedback + asking a direct question	1
Delayed recast + metalinguistic feedback	1
Metalinguistic feedback + re-ask	1
Delayed recast + asking a direct question	1
elicitation + explicit correction	1
Recast + elicitation + explicit correction	1
Translation + asking a direct question	1
Total	22

5.3 Feedback Frequencies and Feedback Types before and after the Survey

5.3.1 Frequency before and after the Survey

As mentioned before, the impact the survey might have, if any, on feedback provision was not the focus of this study. However, it is interesting to present the results according to the divide of before and after the survey. One reason is that it could provide insights for future research with a focus of investigating awareness and its effect on

corrective feedback. Before the survey refers to the period of time from lesson 1 to lesson 8, and after the survey refers to lesson 9 to lesson 13.

Table 6 shows that during the 362 minutes of classroom interaction before the survey, 118 feedback moves occurred, which accounted for 48.2% of the total feedback moves. On average, there was one feedback move every 3.1 minutes. In contrast, 127 feedback moves, which accounted for 51.8% of all feedback moves, occurred during 235 minutes of classroom interaction after the survey, averaging one feedback move every 1.9 minutes. In other words, more feedback moves were occurred more frequently after the survey began.

Table 6 Frequency of feedback moves in a time-wise manner

	Before the survey	After the survey	Total
Time	362 min	235 min	597 min
Numbers and percentages of feedback moves	118 (48.2%)	127 (51.8%)	245 (100%)
Frequency	Every 3.1 min	Every 1.9 min	Every 2.4 min

From the angle of errors being treated or not, Table 7 presents the numbers and percentages of errors that received feedback and those that did not receive feedback for both before and after the survey was conducted. From Table 7, we can see that an equal amount of errors (97) received teacher feedback both before and after the survey administration. However, the percentages of these errors differed slightly. Before the survey, 68.8% of the students' errors received teacher feedback, and 67.4% of the students' errors received feedback after the survey.

Table 7 Numbers of errors that received/did not receive feedback before and after the survey

	Errors		Total number of errors
	Errors received feedback	Errors did not receive feedback	
Before the survey	97 (68.8%)	44 (31.2%)	141 (100%)
After the survey	97 (67.4%)	47 (32.6%)	144 (100%)
Total	194 (68.1%)	91 (31.9%)	285 (100%)

5.3.2 Feedback Types before and after the Survey

The frequency counts of each feedback type are presented in Table 8, and a visual comparison is presented in Figure 3. From the table we can see that there was not much difference in frequency for recast, which occurred 66 (47.5%) and 73 (52.5%) times before and after the survey was administered. The biggest difference of frequency was seen in elicitation and asking a direct question. For elicitation which occurred 17 times, 13 occurrences were observed after the survey had been given. Percentage-wise, 76.5% of elicitation moves happened after the survey administration. As for asking a direction question which occurred eight times in total, all of its occurrences happened after the survey was given, thus, none of this feedback move occurred before the survey. Some other frequency changes were seen in translation, which increased from 7 occurrences (38.9%) to 11 occurrences (61.1%). And metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction decreased by 30% respectively after the survey. Due to small numbers of occurrence, frequencies of the rest of the feedback moves, including delayed recast, clarification request, repetition, directing question to other students, re-asks, and using L1-English,

cannot make generalizable conclusions. In sum, we can see that the survey did not have a unified effect on all feedback frequencies.

In sum, when reviewing the frequency changes from before and after the survey was conducted, only elicitation and asking a direct question showed obvious differences in occurrences. Recast, as well as the rest of feedback types, did not react much in frequency to the survey administration. Some of them had only a few occurrences throughout the dataset, making it difficult to generate conclusions.

Table 8 Frequency of each feedback type before and after the survey

Feedback types	Before survey (lesson 1-8)	After survey (lesson 9-13)	Total
1. Recast	66 (47.5%)	73 (52.5%)	139 (100%)
2. Delayed recast	3 (60%)	2 (40%)	5 (100%)
3. Clarification request	2 (66.7%)	1 (33.3%)	3 (100%)
4. Translation	7 (38.9%)	11 (61.1%)	18 (100%)
5. Metalinguistic feedback	17 (65.4%)	9 (34.6%)	26 (100%)
6. Elicitation	4 (23.5%)	13 (76.5%)	17 (100%)
7. Explicit correction	12 (66.7%)	6 (33.3%)	18 (100%)
8. Asking a direct question	0 (0%)	8 (100%)	8 (100%)
9. Repetition	3 (60%)	2 (40%)	5 (100%)
10. Directing question to other students	2 (66.7%)	1 (33.3%)	3 (100%)
11. Re-asks	1 (50%)	1 (50%)	2 (100%)
12. Using L1-English	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	1 (100%)
Total	118 (48.2%)	127 (51.8%)	245 (100%)

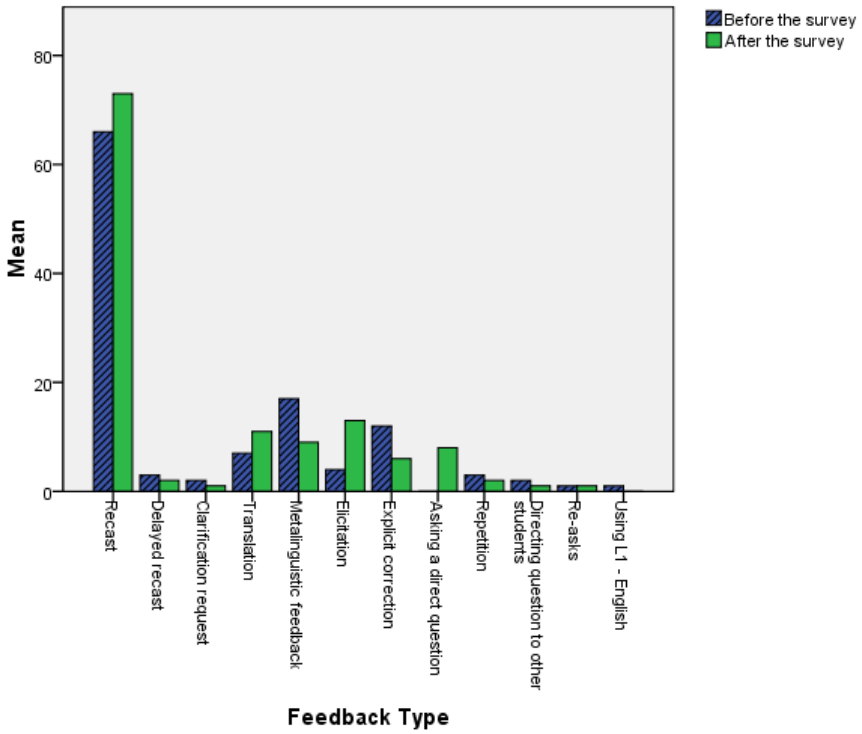

Figure 3 Frequency of each feedback type before and after the survey

5.4 Results of Student Uptake

5.4.1 General Student Uptake

This section presents results related to the third research question. In Table 9, the numbers in the "Uptake" column indicate the sum of "Successful uptake" and "Unsuccessful uptake." From the last two rows of the table we can see that, in general, 59.2% of all of the feedback moves led to student uptake, and 45.3% of teacher feedback led to successful repair. The uptake rate and the repair rate were much higher compared

to that of Panova and Lyster's study which only 47% of feedback resulted in student uptake, and only 16% of feedback resulted in learner repair.

Due to the great number of recasts, it is not surprising that recasts resulted in the greatest number of learner uptake and repair. However, if we look at the percentage of learner uptake and repair resulting from recasts, it was not the highest. 49.6% of all recasts led to learner uptake, whereas 45.3% of all recasts led to successful uptake. Elicitation achieved the highest percentage of learner uptake (94.1%). Of all 17 elicitation moves, 16 of them resulted in student uptake, and 64.7% (11 out of 17) led to successful uptake. Following elicitation, explicit correction ranked second in facilitating student uptake. 88.9% (16 out of 18) resulted in student uptake, and 61.1% (11 out of 18) led to successful uptake. Metalinguistic feedback was the next best technique. A percentage of 53.8% (14 out of 26) metalinguistic feedback moves resulted in student uptake, but only 19.2% (5 out of 26) led to successful uptake. Translation had a 50% (9 out of 18) uptake rate, and 33.3% (6 out of 18) resulted in successful uptake. Due to small numbers of occurrence (1 time to 8 times) of the remaining feedback types, their uptake and repair rates were not as informative as the other types in generating a decisive conclusion.

Table 9 General student uptake following each feedback type

Uptake following each feedback type							
		Types of uptake					Total
			Successful uptake	Unsuccessful uptake	Uptake	No uptake	
Feedback type	Recast	Count	63	6	69	70	139
		%	45.3%	4.3%	49.6%	50.4%	100.0%
	Delayed recast	Count	3	0	3	2	5
		%	60.0%	0.0%	60.0%	40.0%	100.0%
	Clarification request	Count	2	1	3	0	3
		%	66.7%	33.3%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	Translation	Count	6	3	9	9	18
		%	33.3%	16.7%	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
	Metalinguistic feedback	Count	5	9	14	12	26
		%	19.2%	34.6%	53.8%	46.2%	100.0%
	Elicitation	Count	11	5	16	1	17
		%	64.7%	29.4%	94.1%	5.9%	100.0%
	Explicit correction	Count	11	5	16	2	18
		%	61.1%	27.8%	88.9%	11.1%	100.0%
	Asking a direct question	Count	3	3	6	2	8
		%	37.5%	37.5%	75.0%	25.0%	100.0%
	Repetition	Count	2	1	3	2	5
		%	40.0%	20.0%	60.0%	40.0%	100.0%
	Directing question to other students	Count	3	0	3	0	3
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	Re-asks	Count	1	1	2	0	2
		%	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	Using L1-English	Count	1	0	1	0	1
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	111	34	145	100	245
		%	45.3%	13.8%	59.15%	40.8%	100.0%

In sum, 59.2% of all feedback moves resulted in student uptake, and 45.3% of all feedback moves led to successful uptake. The uptake rate and especially the successful uptake rate were higher than what Panova and Lyster have found in their study, which was 47% for uptake rate and 16% for repair rate. Elicitation had a rate of uptake of 94.1%, followed by explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, and translation. Directing question to other students and using L1-English had a 100% of successful uptake rate, However, the actual number of uptake moves was very small, Therefore their results are not very revealing. Recasts yielded a percentage of 49.6% of learner uptake, and 45.3% of all recasts led to successful uptake. Being the dominant feedback technique employed by the teacher, recast did not achieve the highest level of learner uptake.

5.4.2 Student Uptake before and after the Survey

As can be seen from Table 10 and Table 11, the general rates for student uptake were very similar (59.5% and 58.8%). However, the rate for successful uptake before the survey was 49.6%, which was higher than the rate of 41.1% for after the survey. In other words, students produced less successful uptake after the survey was given.

Before the survey, recasts were uptaken 52.3% of the time, but the rate went down to 47.3% after the survey began. In terms of successful uptake rate, students were more successful repairing their errors before the survey (49.3%) than after the survey (41.7%). Now let us compare the uptake rates for elicitation, which achieved the highest percentage of uptake rate throughout the data. Before the survey, elicitation was uptaken 100% of the time, however, this percentage was calculated from only four elicitation

occurrences. After the survey, the uptake rate for elicitation decreased to 92.3%, however, this rate was taken from 12 uptaken instances out of 13 occurrences. Therefore, from a holistic point of view, elicitation resulted in a similar amount of high learner uptake rate both before and after the survey. When we look at the successful uptake rate, we can see a big difference: 100% (4 out of 4) of elicitation moves led to successful uptake before the survey whereas only 53.8% (7 out of 13) was successfully uptaken after the survey. Beside elicitation, explicit correction had a high level of the general uptake rate. Before the survey was conducted, 90.9% (10 out of 11) of elicitation resulted in learner uptake. This rate was comparable to the rate of 85.8% (6 out of 7) after the survey started. Therefore, we can say that explicit correction also achieved high uptake rates both before and after the survey. It is interesting to see that, similar to the decreasing trend of successful uptake rate of elicitation, explicit correction led to much less successful uptake after the survey (42.9%) than before the survey (72.7%).

The next feedback type which resulted in a fair amount of learner uptake was metalinguistic feedback. Again, we see a similar pattern of uptake rates. 52.7% (10 out of 19) and 57.2% (4 out of 7) of metalinguistic feedback moves resulted in learner uptake before and after the survey respectively. In the respect of successful uptake, students did better before the survey (21.1%) than after the survey (14.3%). Translation also had similar rates for uptake for before (42.9%) and after the survey (54.6%). The successful uptake rate for translation decreased as well. The uptaken instances were all successful before the survey, but only half of the uptaken utterances were successful after the survey. Due to the small numbers of the occurrences of the remaining types of feedback, delayed recast, clarification request, asking a direct question, repetition, directing question to

other students, re-asks, and using L1-English generally resulted in very little student uptake and repair. Thus, even if their percentages varied greatly before and after the survey, they are not indicative of any impact from the survey. Little could be generated at this point without further investigation.

Table 10 Student uptake following each feedback type before the survey

	Uptake following each feedback type - Before survey (Lesson 1 - 8)						
		Types of uptake					Total
			Successful uptake	Unsuccessful uptake	Uptake	No uptake	
Feedback Type	Recast	Count	33	2	35	32	67
		%	49.3%	3.0%	52.3%	47.8%	100.0%
	Delayed recast	Count	2	0	2	1	3
		%	66.7%	0.0%	66.7%	33.3%	100.0%
	Clarification request	Count	1	1	2	0	2
		%	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	Translation	Count	3	0	3	4	7
		%	42.9%	0.0%	42.9%	57.1%	100.0%
	Metalinguistic feedback	Count	4	6	10	9	19
		%	21.1%	31.6%	52.7%	47.4%	100.0%
	Elicitation	Count	4	0	4	0	4
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	Explicit correction	Count	8	2	10	1	11
		%	72.7%	18.2%	90.9%	9.1%	100.0%
	Asking a direct question	Count	0	0	0	1	1
		%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	Repetition	Count	1	1	2	1	3
		%	33.3%	33.3%	66.6%	33.3%	100.0%
	Directing question to other students	Count	2	0	2	0	2
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	Re-asks	Count	1	0	1	0	1
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	Using L1 - English	Count	1	0	1	0	1
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	60	12	72	49	121
		%	49.6%	9.9%	59.5%	40.5%	100.0%

Table 11 Student uptake following each feedback type after the survey

	Uptake following each feedback type - After survey (Lesson 9 - 13)						
		Types of uptake					Total
			Successful uptake	Unsuccessful uptake	Uptake	No uptake	
Feedback Type	Recast	Count	30	4	34	38	72
		%	41.7%	5.6%	47.3%	52.8%	100.0%
	Delayed recast	Count	1	0	1	1	2
		%	50.0%	0.0%	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
	Clarification request	Count	1	0	1	0	1
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	Translation	Count	3	3	6	5	11
		%	27.3%	27.3%	54.6%	45.5%	100.0%
	Metalinguistic feedback	Count	1	3	4	3	7
		%	14.3%	42.9%	57.2%	42.9%	100.0%
	Elicitation	Count	7	5	12	1	13
		%	53.8%	38.5%	92.3%	7.8%	100.0%
	Explicit correction	Count	3	3	6	1	7
		%	42.9%	42.9%	85.8%	14.3%	100.0%
	Asking a direct question	Count	3	3	6	1	7
		%	42.9%	42.9%	85.8%	14.3%	100.0%
	Repetition	Count	1	0	1	1	2
		%	50.0%	0.0%	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
	Directing question to other students	Count	1	0	1	0	1
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	Re-asks	Count	0	1	1	0	1
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	Using L1 - English	Count	0	0	0	0	0
		%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Total		Count	51	22	73	51	124
		%	41.1%	17.7%	58.8%	41.1%	100.0%

5.4.3 Summary

The survey administration did not seem to have a facilitating effect on learner uptake. The rates of learner uptake were very similar, both being close to that of the

general uptake rate. More interestingly, however, the rate for students' successful uptake before the survey began was 8% higher than that of after the survey.

5.5 Results of Perceptions of Feedback

5.5.1 Students' and Teacher's Perceptions of Feedback Frequency

The fourth research question asked about the teacher's and the students' general perception of feedback frequency. The fifth research question asked whether there were any differences between their perceptions and the actual frequency. The results to these questions were obtained from question second question of the survey.

The second survey question asked the teacher and the students about how often they thought the teacher had provided feedback to the students' errors. While answering this question, students were given five percentage options to choose from. Each option was then assigned a number for calculating students' mean. The options with their corresponding numbers are listed in Table 12 below.

Table 12 Options for rating feedback frequency

5	100%
4	75%
3	50%
2	25%
1	0%

Table 13 The actual feedback frequency, and the students' and the teacher's perceptions of feedback frequency

	Student	Teacher	Actual feedback frequency
Mean	4.7	4	64.9%

The results of students' mean, the teacher's mean, as well as the actual feedback frequency for lesson 10 to lesson 13 are presented in Table 13. From the table we can see that feedback was provided to 64.9% of students' errors. The average of the teacher's perception rating of feedback frequency was 4. In other words, the teacher perceived that she had given feedback to 75% of students' errors. The students' mean was 4.7, which corresponded to roughly 92.5%. The students perceived that the teacher had given them feedback on a very frequent basis. In comparison, the teacher's perception of feedback frequency was much closer to the reality than the students'.

5.5.2 Students' and Teacher's Perceptions of Feedback Types

The sixth research question asked about the perception of the frequency of each feedback type used in the classroom. The seventh research question asked whether there were any differences between their perceptions and the actual frequency of each feedback type provided. The results were obtained from question 3 to question 9 of the survey. It should be noted that the survey was designed to collect perceptions on seven feedback types, which were established in Panova and Lyster's (2002) study. Therefore, new types of feedback were not investigated here. Table 14 gives an overview of the actual frequency of seven feedback types, the students' mean, and the teacher's mean of

perceived feedback frequency. The actual frequency rank of each feedback type, together with the students' and the teacher's perception rank, are presented in Table 15.

Table 14 The students' and the teacher's perceptions, and the actual frequency of seven feedback types

Lesson 10 – lesson 13	# of moves	Actual frequency	Mean of students' rating	Teacher's rating
1. Recast	65	64.4%	3.9	3.3
2. Clarification request	0	0.0%	3.4	2.5
3. Translation	11	10.9%	3.2	1.8
4. Metalinguistic feedback	5	5.0%	3.8	2.8
5. Elicitation	13	12.9%	2.8	3
6. Explicit correction	5	5.0%	3.4	3.5
7. Repetition	2	2.0%	3	3
Total	101	100%	--	--

Table 15 Ranks of the seven feedback types

The actual frequency rank of the seven feedback types
Recast＞Elicitation＞Translation＞Metalinguistic feedback & Explicit correction＞Repetition＞Clarification request
Teacher's perception
Explicit correction＞Recast＞Elicitation & Repetition ＞Metalinguistic feedback＞Clarification request＞Translation
Students' perception
Recast＞Metalinguistic feedback＞Clarification request & Explicit correction＞Translation＞Repetition＞Elicitation

From the rankings, we can see that explicit correction was perceived by the teacher to be the most frequently used type. In reality, explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback ranked fourth with a small percentage of 5%. Following explicit correction, the teacher perceived recast to be the second mostly used type. This was quite accurate. The teacher then perceived elicitation and repetition to be equally frequent. This was only partially accurate. In reality, elicitation ranked second with a percentage of 12.9%, but repetition only occurred two times, making it the second last in the ranking. The next one on the teacher's ranking after elicitation and repetition was metalinguistic feedback. This was accurate since metalinguistic feedback ranked fourth in reality. The fifth position on the teacher' ranking was clarification request, which had a zero occurrence in reality. The least frequently used type the teacher perceived to be was translation. However, translation in reality ranked third with a percentage of 10.9%. In sum, we can say that the teacher was quite accurate in perceiving recast, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and clarification request, but not so accurate in perceiving explicit correction, repetition, and translation.

Now let us see how the students perceived these feedback types. The students perceived recast to be the most common type of feedback. Following recast, metalinguistic feedback was perceived to be the second most popular. However, in reality, metalinguistic feedback ranked fourth. Following metalinguistic feedback, clarification request and explicit correction both ranked third on the students' perception. This was only partially accurate. As mentioned before, clarification request was not at all used by the teacher. Explicit correction, on the other hand, was the fourth most commonly used type in reality. The next type on the students' ranking was translation, but this perception

was not accurate. Following translation, students perceived repetition to be the second least frequent type, which was accurate. However, students thought elicitation to be the least frequent feedback type, while in fact it was the second most used type. In sum, students were quite accurate in perceiving recast, explicit correction, and repetition, but not so accurate in perceiving metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, translation, and elicitation.

5.5.3 Summary

The teacher was more accurate in perceiving the general frequency of feedback, and the students perceived the frequency to be much higher than the reality. For each one of the seven feedback types, the teacher was accurate in perceiving the frequency of recast, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and clarification request, but not so accurate with translation, explicit correction, and repetition. The students were more accurate in perceiving recast, explicit correction, and repetition, but not accurate in perceiving clarification request, translation, metalinguistic feedback, and elicitation.

Chapter 6 – Discussion and Conclusion

6.1 Discussion of Results

The study set out to investigate the frequency of teacher feedback in a CFL classroom, learner uptake following different types of feedback, as well as teacher and learner perceptions of feedback frequency and feedback types. Therefore, the study tried to answer its research questions from these three aspects of inquiry. The findings will be discussed in relation to each of the research questions.

Research question 1: In an adult CFL classroom, how often does the teacher provide feedback?

The results showed that throughout the 10 hours of recorded classroom interaction the teacher made a feedback move every two and half minutes. Considering the focus of the course was on reading instead of speaking, this feedback frequency was quite high. Usually in a reading class, the chances for students to initiate a dialogue with the teacher or their peers are very few since the time will be devoted to analyzing syntactic structures and language use. The other way of describing feedback frequency was to count how many errors received teacher feedback against those that did not. Results revealed that 68.1% of students' errors received teacher feedback. Comparing this rate with Panova and Lyster's (2002) result of 48%, this percentage of correction was 20% higher. This is surprising since Panova and Lyster looked at a communicative language class, rather than a grammar/reading class. One would expect more interaction between the teacher and the learners in a communicative class. However, as Panova and Lyster mentioned, although

the school system had put the students in a “level 2” course, the students’ were in fact at the beginner level due to their limited competence of producing oral and written tasks. Therefore, the lower level of proficiency might have caused less frequent interaction between the teacher and the students. The teacher might have found it difficult to elicit students’ answers simply because the students had not been introduced to many language structures of the target language. In the 200-level class in the current study, students had already possessed adequate speaking and reading skills. Plus, the teacher frequently called on certain students to either do a quick understanding check or to ask them to read a paragraph out loud. In this way the teacher had successfully generated more opportunities for the students to produce errors and therefore more chances of correcting them.

In sum, we can see that the students’ level might have played a role in classroom dynamics and subsequently, teacher-learner interaction. The comparison between Panova and Lyster’s study and the current one can serve as an example of how proficiency level can interact with the amount of treatment students can receive in a classroom.

Research question 2: In an adult CFL classroom, what types of feedback does the teacher provide?

Table 16 Comparison of frequencies of feedback types between Panova & Lyster (2002) and the current study

Ranking of frequency	Panova & Lyster, 2002		Current study	
	Type	Number and percentage	Type	Number and percentage
1	Recast	226, 55%	Recast	139, 56.7%
2	Translation	91, 22%	Metalinguistic feedback	26, 10.6%
3	Clarification request	44, 11%	Translation & explicit correction	18, 7.3%
4	Metalinguistic feedback	21, 5%	Elicitation	17, 6.9%
5	Elicitation	15, 4%	Repetition	5, 2%
6	Explicit correction	9, 2%	Clarification request	3, 1.2%
7	Repetition	6, 1%		
	Total	412, 100%	Total	245, 100%

As shown in Table 16, in the current study, out of 245 feedback moves that occurred in 10 hours of recorded interaction, recasts occurred 139 times, accounting for 56.7% of all moves. No other types of feedback occurred as near to this high percentage in the dataset. As mentioned in the results chapter, this was comparable to Panova and Lyster's recast rate of 55%. In both adult language classes in these two studies, recast seemed to be the most convenient and unobtrusive way to correct students' errors.

Following recast, metalinguistic feedback accounted for 10.6% of all feedback moves. This percentage was twice that in Panova and Lyster's results (5%). When looking at the multiple feedback episodes (see Table 5), the most common combination for multiple feedback was recast + metalinguistic feedback. That is to say, accompanying the provision of the correct form, the teacher often offered some explanations which could function like mini grammar lessons. This also reflects that the teacher might have thought that the student could benefit from such frequent but brief analysis, either to refresh their learned knowledge or to help students remember new knowledge.

Translation and explicit correction each occurred 18 times, ranking third with the frequency of 7.3%. In the earlier study, translation ranked second, and explicit correction ranked second last at only 2% frequency. Explicit correction was much more favored in the current study. Looking at the feedback combinations in multiple feedback episodes, the second most common was metalinguistic feedback + explicit correction which occurred three times. Single explicit correction occurred 18 times. From this we can see that the teacher tended to use a more explicit style in teaching. This might be attributed to the dynamics in a reading class. In a grammar-focused reading class, the underlying agreement between the teacher and the students was that class time would be spent in learning discrete linguistic items. Meaning-focused dialogues were not planned or encouraged for the purpose of the course. The textbook chapters served as a guideline for everyone to follow through and students would be eventually tested on the grammar points learned from the content. Therefore, the teacher could feel obligated to devote class time and energy to analyze morphosyntactic structures as well as to overtly correct students' non-targetlike utterances. Whereas in Panova and Lyster's study, the course was not only designed for grammar drills, but also listening practice and discussions of prepared topics.

Closely following explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback, elicitation was next on the frequency ranking. It occurred 17 times which is 6.9% of all feedback moves, more frequent than the elicitation moves observed in the earlier study (15 times and 4%). This higher rate is quite understandable because a great majority of feedback episodes were teacher-initiated. There were only a few errors that aroused from student-initiated exchanges. The teacher seemed to be painting a base story so that the students could

follow and contribute to the topic. For example, the teacher frequently asked follow-up questions about the main storyline in the textbook, and the students could participate in continuing the story which created an opportunity to make mistakes. Specifically, the teacher would often repeat a student's utterance up to the point where the initial error was made, to elicit response from other students who would potentially make new errors. Thus, elicitation in this context could be seen as a teaching technique to involve more peer interaction when an error occurred. Repetition occurred only 5 times (2%) in the current study and 6 times (1%) in the earlier study. In both contexts, the teachers did not rely on this implicit kind of feedback technique as much as other more explicit moves.

The least used feedback type in the current study was clarification request which occurred only 3 times. In the earlier study, clarification request ranked third with a percentage of 11% (44 times). This is the biggest difference between my study and the earlier study regarding feedback frequencies. Clarification request was often used when the teacher intended to give the student a second try, or when the teacher did not understand the meaning that the student tried to convey (Lyster & Mori, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002). Therefore, clarification request seemed to be more helpful for the teacher who was teaching a beginner-level class, such as the one in Panova and Lyster's study. For early-intermediate to intermediate-level students, the chances for the teacher not to understand the students' meaning were much lower. Moreover, there was not as much student-initiated meaning-focused discussion, which would perhaps generate more communication breakdowns. We can see from the class orientation of the current study that the teacher was still positioned in a dominant role in the class, which

led to few clarification request moves. The few instances where the teacher used clarification request were when the teacher did not hear the student's utterance clearly.

Research question 3: In an adult CFL classroom, what type(s) of feedback lead to the most amount of learner uptake?

As presented in Table 9 in Chapter 5, the feedback type that led to the highest uptake rate was elicitation (94.1%). Out of 17 occurrences, 16 resulted in uptake. Explicit correction was the next most successful move with 88.9% of uptake rate. Following explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback led to a percentage of 53.8% of student uptake, and translation had a similar rate of 50%. However, despite a high frequency of occurrence of 56.7%, only 49.6% of recasts led to learner uptake. The rest of the feedback types, including delayed recast, clarification request, asking a direct question, repetition, directing question to other students, re-asks, and using L1-English, all achieved little in occurrence (1 – 8 times). Therefore, even if their uptake rate was 100%, it is not worthy to generate any conclusions.

I will now discuss the results of uptake rates in comparison with Panova and Lyster's (2002) results. The numbers and percentages of student uptake following each feedback type are presented in Table 17 below.

Table 17 Comparison of uptake numbers and rates between Panova & Lyster (2002) and the current study

	Panova and Lyster (2002)		Current study	
	Uptake moves		Uptake moves	
	#	% of feedback type	#	% of feedback type
Recast	90	40%	69	49.6%
Translation	19	21%	9	50%
Clarification	44	100%	3	100%
Metalinguistic feedback	15	71%	14	53.8%
Elicitation	15	100%	16	94.1%
Explicit correction	3	33%	16	88.9%
Repetition	6	100%	3	60%

From Table 17 we can see that elicitation was the most successful in eliciting student uptake in this study. The numbers and percentages of uptake following elicitation were both comparable to that of Panova and Lyster's (2002). In the current study, the teacher was quite successful at drawing students' attention to the erroneous utterance by repeating the utterance and pausing when the original error was made. From the video recordings it was also found that the teacher not only paused when she waited for response, but she also repeated several times, and every time she managed to get the attention of a few more students. Very often the students were tired and were not engaged in classroom interaction, or their attention drifted away to side conversations, the teacher then would use this method to attract the students to "return" to the topic.

The second most successful feedback type was explicit correction which achieved an uptake rate of 88.9% in this study. However, in Panova and Lyster's study, only 33% of explicit correction led to learner uptake. This could be attributed to their communicative orientation of classroom teaching. In their French immersion programs, the goal was to improve the students' communicative skills. Explicit correction was not

frequently used compared to other implicit ways of error correction. The students might not notice the corrective intention of explicit correction in communicative tasks, and subsequently produced less uptake to this feedback technique. Whereas in this study, the teacher relied more on explicit correction to offer grammar analyses whenever possible.

The uptake rates for metalinguistic feedback were different by almost 20% in the two studies, with it being more effective in the earlier study. This is somewhat surprising, since in this study more explicit ways of error correction were generally more effective due to the low level of student participation. However, going back to the data and examining the episodes containing metalinguistic feedback, we can see that the teacher usually took her time to explain a structure in detail and she also provided multiple sample sentences. An error could lead to a mini grammar drill which was totally in the teacher's control. As a result, the students would then take the "back seat" and only had to listen to the explanation while they were taking notes. It had become a pattern that the students would expect a rather elaborate grammatical explanation following an error. Consequently, student uptake was not expected during these episodes. Metalinguistic feedback was still explicit, but it was not always leading to student uptake or repair due to the uniqueness of the classroom dynamics in this study.

There were more translation moves that led to learner uptake in Panova and Lyster's study (19 vs. 9) but their rate of uptake was not half as much as that in the current study (21% vs. 50%). In both studies, translations were provided to well-formed L1 use rather than erroneous L2 utterances. The purpose of translation was to elicit students' production in the target language. However, in the earlier study, translations were very implicit. They were provided in meaning-based communication even when the

students were performing certain grammar-related tasks. In the current study, the teacher's purpose was expressed clearly by taking the time to form a sentence in the target language.

Recast achieved less than 50% of uptake rate in both studies. However, despite its low level in the current study (49.6%), recast still had a higher percentage than the earlier study (40%). The authors of the earlier study attributed the low uptake rate associated with recast to the low level of L2 proficiency. Students who were not proficient in the target language might not be able to notice the negative evidence inferred in recasts (p. 589). In the current study, the students were at a higher level of early-intermediate to intermediate proficiency. This might have contributed to the higher uptake rate. The student might notice the negative evidence of recasts, especially when the teacher enhanced the saliency by combining recast with other feedback techniques (see Table 5 for feedback combinations).

In Panova and Lyster's study, repetition achieved 100% uptake rate, much higher than the current study (60%). When the teacher in the current study repeated the students' erroneous utterances, she used a soft voice and did not overtly draw the students' attention to the repetition. Therefore, the corrective intention was not as often perceived by the students as it was in Panova and Lyster's study. Also, the students in the current study might not have acquired the correct forms, thus, even if they did notice the teacher's corrective intention, they might have been hesitant in attempting for a reformulation. The last feedback type in comparison was clarification request. Although clarification request achieved 100% in both studies, the sheer numbers of occurrence was by no means comparable (44 in Panova & Lyster; 3 in the current study).

To summarise, the only comparable uptake rate between the two studies was elicitation, which achieved high rates in both studies. The big differences were seen with explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, translation, and repetition. There were more different results of uptake rate than similar ones. In the current study, the most effective types of feedback of eliciting student uptake were elicitation, explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, and translation. It showed that the more explicit types of feedback were more successful. This provided more evidence for the claim that explicit learning has advantage over implicit learning (Ellis, 2011). It is also of interest to see whether the low uptake rate was somehow due to students' low motivation. Referring to the students' background questionnaire, when answering "what do you expect the most when you registered for this course? (To improve speaking, grammar, listening, or writing, or communication skills, etc)," 8 out of 13 students responded that they hoped to improve their Chinese speaking/communication skills. Three mentioned that they would like to improve on every aspect. Only two of them wanted to improve their writing skills. Therefore, the majority of the students registered for this course with an expectation to practice communication skills and hopefully to improve their Mandarin fluency. Therefore, we can conclude that there was a big discrepancy between the students' expectation and the focus of the course. When the students realized that the reading and writing of Chinese would be the object of learning, it might have been hugely discouraging for them. A low level of classroom participation was then understandable. Further still, when the teacher was correcting the students' errors, she had to make an extra effort to maintain the students' attention, hence a more explicit style of teaching.

The survey was administered to the last six class sessions. The results showed that, before the survey was administered, there was one feedback move every 3.1 minutes. In contrast, there was one feedback move every 1.9 minutes after the survey had begun. In other words, feedback moves became more frequent after the survey started, and more specifically, by almost 40%. This is interesting because the survey may have had an awareness-raising effect on the teacher about classroom feedback. Answering the survey questions which described different types of feedback might have "prompted" the teacher to reflect on her own error correction techniques. She might have realized that there were certain correction methods that she had never tried before. Therefore, she might have decided to use some alternative ways of correcting the students' errors. This could be reflected by her increased frequency of feedback moves for the period of time after the first survey was given.

Comparing the error percentages, the results have shown that the numbers of errors that received feedback for before and after the survey were the same (97), and the percentage of total number of errors were very similar (68.8% and 67.4%). However, this could still indicate that the frequency was higher for the period after the survey since the total class time was shorter by 127 minutes.

The results for the frequency of each feedback type before and after the survey showed that the biggest difference in frequency change was seen in elicitation and asking a direct question. Elicitation occurred 4 times and 13 times before and after the survey respectively, increasing from 23.5% to 76.5%. Asking a direct question had a bigger increase from 0% to 100% (0 to 8 times) – all of its moves occurred after the survey began. This might be due to the consideration mentioned above that the teacher had

started to pay more attention to her error correction strategies. She began to ask students directly about the correctness of their sentence, pushing the students to repair their utterances.

What is interesting to note is that, delayed recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction, repetition, directing question to other students, and using L1-English, had all decreased in frequency after the survey began. Although this result might be doubtful since some feedback types only occurred a few times, metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction were the two kinds that both decreased by 30%. Both types were explicit and, as mentioned before, both types might have created opportunities for the teacher to elaborate on certain grammar points. It could be true that the teacher, since the first survey, had begun to realize that she should leave more time for the students to speak and answer the questions, in order to improve class participation that would hopefully lead to more erroneous output. She then cut back feedback moves that would lead to teacher-centred grammar explanations, instead, she called on students to elicit more student-centred discussions.

The results for uptake numbers and rates before and after the survey showed only slight differences. In other words, the survey did not have an impact on how frequent the students repeated the teacher's corrections or repaired their own errors. The "awareness-raising" effect was not present within this student population. Indeed, the teacher, rather than the students, was the one who was responsible for correcting errors. The students were situated at the recipient end of error correction, not worrying about what corrective method to choose. However, the results also showed that the students' successful uptake before the survey was in fact 8% higher than after the survey. That is to say, the students

repaired fewer errors after the survey. This trend might not be relevant to anything since the survey did not ask the students to reflect on giving feedback. And the survey was definitely not designed for the students to reflect on how they should respond to teacher correction. Therefore, this decrease might just be a random trend.

Research question 4: In an adult CFL classroom, what are the students' and the teacher's perceptions of the general frequency of teacher feedback? Research question 5: Are there any differences between their perceptions and the actual frequency?

The teacher had a much more accurate perception about feedback frequency than the students. In reality, the teacher provided corrective feedback to the students' errors 64.9% of the time. While the teacher perceived the frequency to be 75%, the students thought it to be much more frequent (92.5%). This might be due to the great saliency of the more explicit types of feedback that the teacher had employed. Also, the teacher often called on individual students, leaving unforgettable impressions for the students when a mistake was made while trying to answer the question. Similarly, other students might be watching and engaging in a similar way while their peer was struggling with a certain question.

Even though the teacher's perception of feedback frequency was more accurate than that of the students, her perceived frequency was still higher than the actual frequency. From the video recordings and transcriptions we can see that, there were many errors that the teacher did not correct to maintain the flow of speech. This was especially evident when the student Greta was doing a presentation on a Chinese idiom in Lesson 2. Greta was assigned a task in the previous lesson to research the traditional story of the idiom and then tell the story to the class. She spent five minutes telling the story without

being interrupted. However, during the five minutes she made 11 phonological errors. These errors did not interfere with the meaning, and she delivered the story quite fluently. The teacher was very satisfied by her performance and said she would post the story on a shared class website for other students to read. She then told the story again to the class to make sure that everyone caught the gist of the story. This was one of the few student-fronted presentation in the whole course observed, thus, the teacher did not detract the students at all. In this case, not being able to pronounce certain words correctly became less important, and the teacher might have not noticed the errors. This situation was similar to another group skit done by Alex, Emma, and Greta. Therefore, it is understandable that the teacher might not remember the errors that she did not attend to.

Research question 6: In an adult CFL classroom, what are the students' and the teacher's perceptions of the frequency of each feedback provided? Research question 7: Are there any differences between their perceptions and the actual frequency of each feedback type provided?

The results showed that the teacher was relatively accurate in perceiving the frequency of recast, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and clarification request, but not as accurate with translation, explicit correction, and repetition. The students were more accurate in perceiving the frequency of recast, explicit correction, and repetition, but not in perceiving clarification request, translation, metalinguistic feedback, and elicitation. The teacher was more accurate in perceiving four kinds of corrective feedback while the students were more accurate with three. Both the teacher and the students were quite accurate in perceiving recast, which accounted for more than half of the teacher's

feedback moves. However, the teacher perceived explicit correction to be the most used feedback type, which in fact only accounted for 5% of all feedback moves.

The cognitive demand that the survey imposed on both the students and the teacher might explain the general inaccuracy in perceiving frequencies of feedback types. Student Penelope once commented on the survey questions as she was answering them: "I don't know, I never think about these questions when you're teaching." The teacher responded to her comment: "Me too." The online attention might be focused on the errors and the content, not on analyzing whether it was a provision of the correct form or an elicitation with a raising intonation.

As mentioned in the literature review, individual differences, including motivation, exposure to the target language (heritage speaker), cognitive style, and even personality might contribute to the outcome of learning (Ellis, 1986; Gardener, 1993; Piasecka, 2011). In the current context, each individual student differed greatly in terms of level of classroom engagement and the amount of uptake. Some students produced zero or only a few utterances during the entire course. Therefore, instead of comparing their uptake counts, I now give a brief summary of how much each student participated in feedback episodes by presenting the student turns. A student turn refers to a turn of a student to produce an utterance in a feedback episode.

From Table 18, we can see that student turns differed greatly among individuals. Elliot was the most ambitious student who was planning for a funded study trip in a university in Shanghai. He asked the most questions and participated in 82 turns. The second most student turns were taken up by his desk mate Emma. She was Elliot's friend as well as partner in all small discussions in class. She had a keen interest in the language,

and according to her answer on the background questionnaire, she hoped to improve all four skills of speaking, writing, reading, and listening. Also motivated by her program requirement, Emma paid great attention in every class she attended. The identified heritage speakers, on the other hand, had varying levels of participation. Among these four students – Ron, Ramond, Alex, and Greta, Greta was the most active and outgoing student. Ron and Ramond, on the contrary, participated very little. Therefore, students' motivation and personality might have played a role in this context.

Table 18 Numbers of individual student turns

Name	# of turns
Melanie	15
Penelope	8
Emma	57
Ron	4
Ramond	0
Eveline	20
Pinky	51
Winston	18
Pepper	15
Alex	21
Greta	44
Naomi	16
Elliot	82
Total	351

6.2 Conclusions

The teacher provided corrective feedback to 68.1% of students' errors in the class observed. This was much higher than Panova and Lyster's (2002) 48% feedback rate. The context of reading and grammar learning played a role in determining the amount of explicit types of teacher feedback in the classroom. There were plenty of focus on forms incidences which centred on sentential and phrasal structures. Pronunciation errors also received a great amount of feedback. Students' proficiency level could be another contributing factor for a high rate of feedback. More proficient students were more capable of producing output and reacting to teacher feedback, which was encouraging for the teacher in terms of feedback provision. It needs to be noted that there was a discrepancy between the students' expectation and the real focus of this course. This might have contributed to the low level of participation. But for this drawback of expectation mismatch, there might have been more interactions, more feedback, and more uptake.

Recast was the predominant type of corrective feedback in this classroom, accounting for over half of all feedback moves. All seven feedback types in Panova and Lyster (2002) as well as two types from Yoshida (2010) (delayed recast and re-asks) were present in the current study. Additionally, this study observed and identified three new types of feedback – asking a direct question, directing question to other students, and using L1-English. Longitudinal studies are needed in order to find more instances of these new types and their distribution in different classrooms.

In this particular classroom, more explicit feedback types led to the highest amount of learner uptake. Elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and explicit correction

were often used accompanying recast to draw students' attention to an error, especially when the level of classroom participation was low. Overall, the students produced uptake following 59.1% of teacher correction. We can conclude that the corrective nature of teacher feedback was frequently noticed by the students.

In perceiving the frequency of providing feedback, the teacher was more accurate than the students. However, the actual frequency was lower than both what the teacher and the students had perceived to be. This was due to a fair amount of errors that passed without being noticed or noticed but not corrected. The teacher tended to overlook the errors when the student was delivering a meaningful story to the class. In perceiving the frequency of each of the seven feedback types, the teacher was relatively accurate in perceiving four types of feedback while the students were quite accurate about three. However, neither the teacher nor the students were accurate in perceiving the frequency of each type of feedback. This was partially explained by the cognitive demand that the survey had imposed on the teacher and the students. It might have been difficult for them to recall how the correction was made while they were concentrating on correcting the errors.

Individual differences might have also been a contributing factor in the study. Some students excelled in classroom participation. Heritage speakers did not display any advantage in terms of learner uptake or repair. Motivation and personality seemed to be playing a more important role than the familiarity of the target language. The survey administration did not have any profound impact on how the teacher and the students perceived feedback. However, notably, the frequency of general feedback provision increased by 40% after the survey began.

6.3 Pedagogical Implications

First, the relatively high uptake rate following explicit types of feedback agreed with previous studies (Ellis, 2011; Lyster & Saito, 2010). This suggests that the teachers could consider more explicit techniques when correcting students' errors, especially when the purpose is to raise the level of participation and learner attention. Secondly, the mismatch between the students' expectation and the actual focus of a language course could be discouraging for the students. The students might feel frustrated that they were not learning what they were planning to learn. This indicates that a more clearly stated course description should be provided before the course begins. Finally, the three new types of corrective feedback identified in this study: asking a direct question, directing question to other students, and using L1-English are all explicit types of feedback. Although the new types occurred only a few times, the uptake rate was promising. This indicates that the explicitness of feedback types might be related with certain classroom dynamics – quieter classrooms might need more overt corrective techniques. Teachers should consider these techniques or develop new explicit forms of feedback in their future practice.

6.4 Limitations and Implications for Future Research

The first limitation is the small sample size of this study. The class consisted of 13 students and one teacher, and not all students were present in each lesson. The results

might not be representative for all foreign language contexts. And the conclusions might not be applicable to a different learner population. In a communicative class, for example, one might find error corrections are done in a more implicit way with less obtrusiveness.

The other shortcoming of this study is that it did not include a stimulated recall session in the research design. It is speculated that the teacher or the students might offer interesting opinions on teacher feedback or on the survey questions. Stimulated recall sessions could have provided a triangulation with the video and survey to give a better account for the results of perceptions. Students' answers on the survey were sometimes not very detailed about their reflections of teacher feedback. Asking them about what they have written and perhaps viewing a playback of a feedback episode would have provided more fruitful data on the students' perceptions.

Another area that needs improving is the coding procedure. In this study, the students' uptake was coded to be either successful uptake, unsuccessful uptake, or no uptake. Loewen (2004) further divided "no uptake" into "no uptake" and "no opportunity." As observed in the current dataset, there were some instances when the students were not given enough time after teacher feedback. Very often the teacher corrected several errors in one teacher turn, making it difficult for the students to identify and repair each error. Adding "no opportunity" might have led to a slightly different result for uptake rate. Therefore, future research should employ Loewen's coding scheme, or a similar one, to gain a more detailed picture of learner uptake.

Since this is a descriptive study, the goal was to describe and discuss feedback types and frequencies. Three new types of feedback are one of the most important findings. The study needs to be replicated in order to find out if the new types also exist

in other classroom contexts. Furthermore, experimental studies with a design of immediate and delayed posttests are needed to test the effect of these new types on learning outcomes.

Future studies should also improve the survey questions. First of all, the three newly-added types of feedback should be integrated into the survey. And secondly, there could be more multiple choice options for students and teachers to choose from. The current study used 0%, 25%, 50%, 75%, and 100% to indicate different levels of frequency, and this could be replaced by a 1 to 9 point scale.

In conclusion, the study revealed new types of corrective feedback which need more evidence to investigate their context of provision in different classrooms. The teachers' and the students' perceptions about classroom feedback were not always accurate. There are a lot of areas pending future research to find out more about new feedback techniques and to compare the teachers' and the students' perceptions.

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Appendix A

Transcription Conventions

T	teacher
Ss	students
[Italicized]	none-verbal movement description in between utterances Example: *[Emma puts up her hand]*
( )	in-text non-verbal movement description Example: (writing on the board) pinyin transcription Example: (páng biān)
…	incomplete utterance Example: Alex: Lives at … unintelligible private speech Example: Emma: So it is … omitted content for a certain structure Example: T: Not only … but also …

Appendix B

Background Questionnaire for the Students

This questionnaire is anonymous and all answers will be kept confidential.

1. What's your age?

   _____

2. What's your gender?

   _____

3. What's your first language?

   _____

4. Do you speak a second language other than Chinese? If you do, where did you study this language (or is it one of your first languages)?

   _____

5. Where did you go to school before you enrolled in UVic?

   _____

6. How long have you been studying Chinese? (Please be as specific as possible.)

   _____

7. Where did you receive your Chinese language education? Was your teacher(s) a native Chinese speaker?

   _____

8. What's your primary purpose of taking this course? (For example, to obtain credit, or because of personal interest, etc.)

   _____

9. What do you expect the most when you registered for this course? (To improve speaking? Grammar? Listening? Or writing? Or communication skills, etc.?)

   _____

10. Do you expect your Chinese level to be greatly improved by the end of this course?

    _____

11. Have you been in one-on-one tutoring lessons before? If yes, which one do you prefer, one-on-one tutoring or attending a class with other classmates? Why?

    _____

Appendix C

Background Questionnaire for the Teacher

This questionnaire is anonymous and all answers will be kept confidential.

1. What's your age?

   _____

2. What's your gender?

   _____

3. What's your first language?

   _____

4. Where did you receive your formal education before teaching at PAAS?

   _____

   _____

5. How long have you been teaching Chinese?

   _____

6. Beside Chinese language courses, have you taught other subjects (Chinese culture, etc.)?

   _____

7. In your opinion, what is the greatest advantage of learning with a teacher's help over learning on one's own?

   _____

8. Have you tutored one-on-one lessons? If yes, what do you think some of the biggest differences are between classroom teaching and one-on-one tutoring?

   _____

   _____

Appendix D

Survey for the Students

Date: _____th (Feb / Mar) **Pseudonym: _____**

1. Do you think that the teacher provided any feedback on your errors during **today's lesson**? ☐Yes. Comment: _____ ☐No. Comment: _____

   - **If the first question doesn't apply (e.g., you didn't speak much during today's lesson, hence little feedback from the teacher), *please tick here*** ☐
   - **You can answer the following questions, based on your observation of other teacher-student interaction in class (e.g., how the teacher corrected your peers' error).**

2. How **often** do you think the teacher provided feedback on *your/peer's* errors?

☐0% of the error	☐25% of the error	☐50% of the error	☐75% of the error	☐100% of the error

3. Did the teacher say the **correct form** after *you/your peer* made an error?

   ☐Yes, often. ☐Yes, sometimes. ☐Maybe, I can't remember clearly. ☐No.

4. Did the teacher ask *you/your peer* to **clarify**, or to provide more information when you have made an error?

   ☐Yes, often. ☐Yes, sometimes. ☐Maybe, I can't remember clearly. ☐No.

5. When *you/your peer* made an error, did the teacher **translate** *your/your peer's* intended meaning into English?

   ☐Yes, often. ☐Yes, sometimes. ☐Maybe, I can't remember clearly. ☐No.

6. When the teacher corrected your/your peer's error, did she briefly provide some **grammar explanation**?

   ☐Yes, often. ☐Yes, sometimes. ☐Maybe, I can't remember clearly. ☐No.

7. Did the teacher try to let *you/your peer* **"fill in the blank"** to self-correct an error?

   (*For example:*
   Student: There are three apple.
   Teacher: There are three …… ?)

   ☐Yes, often. ☐Yes, sometimes. ☐Maybe, I can't remember clearly. ☐No.

8. When *you/your peer* made an error, did the teacher specifically point out that there's an **error in the sentence/phrase**?

   ☐Yes, often. ☐Yes, sometimes. ☐Maybe, I can't remember clearly. ☐No.

9. Did the teacher **repeat** *your/your peer's* original sentence/phrase to let *you/your peer* notice the error?

☐Yes, often. ☐Yes, sometimes. ☐Maybe, I can't remember clearly. ☐No.

10. Additional comment concerning Question # ___:

_____

Appendix E

Survey for the Teacher

Date: _____th (Feb / Mar)

1. Do you think that you provided feedback on students' errors during **today's lesson**?

_____

2. How often do you think you provided feedback on students' errors?

☐0% of the students' error	☐25% of the students' error	☐50% of the students' error	☐75% of the students' error	☐100% of the students' error

3. Did you provide the correct form after the student(s) made an error?

   ☐Yes, often. ☐Yes, sometimes. ☐Maybe, I can't remember clearly. ☐No.

4. Did you ask the student to clarify, or to provide more information when he/she has made an error?

   ☐Yes, often. ☐Yes, sometimes. ☐Maybe, I can't remember clearly. ☐No.

5. When a student made an error, did you translate his/her intended meaning into English?

   ☐Yes, often. ☐Yes, sometimes. ☐Maybe, I can't remember clearly. ☐No.

6. When you corrected a student's error, did you briefly provide some grammar explanation?

   ☐Yes, often. ☐Yes, sometimes. ☐Maybe, I can't remember clearly. ☐No.

7. Did you let the student *fill in the blank* when you tried to let him/her to self-correct?

   (*For example:*
   Student: There are three apple.
   Teacher: There are three …… ?)

   ☐Yes, often. ☐Yes, sometimes. ☐Maybe, I can't remember clearly. ☐No.

8. When a student made an error, did you specifically point out that there's an error in the sentence/phrase?

   ☐Yes, often. ☐Yes, sometimes. ☐Maybe, I can't remember clearly. ☐No.

9. Did you repeat a student's original sentence/phrase to let him/her notice the error?

   ☐Yes, often. ☐Yes, sometimes. ☐Maybe, I can't remember clearly. ☐No.

10. Additional comment concerning Question # ___:

_____