The Effects of Native English Teacher's Corrective Feedback on EFL Learners' Responses in a Korean Elementary English Classroom

한국 초등 영어 교실에서의 **EFL** 학습자의 반응에 대한 원어민 영어 교사의 교정 피드백의 효과

2015년 8월

서울대학교 대학원

외국어교육과 영어전공

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The Effects of Native English Teacher's Corrective Feedback on EFL Learners' Responses in a Korean Elementary English Classroom

by

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A Thesis Submitted to

the Department of Foreign Language Education

in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

for the Degree of Master of Arts in Education

At the

Graduate School of Seoul National University

August 2015

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지도교수　김 진 완

이 논문을 교육학 석사 학위논문으로 제출함
2015년 4월

서울대학교 대학원
외국어교육과 영어전공
김 민 성

김민성의 석사학위논문을 인준함
2015년 6월

위 원 장 ＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

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ABSTRACT

This study intends to examine the effectiveness of corrective feedback depending on task types based on the theoretical framework of Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1983) and Swain's Output Hypothesis (1985). It has been believed that learners can acquire second language through interaction which consists of negotiation of meaning and feedback from negotiation of meaning allows learners to pay attention to linguistic forms and that interactional feedback prompts learners to modify their output. On the ground of those theories, this study seeks to examine the nature of corrective feedback, the differences of corrective feedback across communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks and students' overall perception about corrective feedback.

The effect of corrective feedback and the role of task have been the important subjects in second language acquisition (SLA) studies. Nevertheless not many studies have investigated the interaction between corrective feedback and tasks. This study places emphasis on the benefits of corrective feedback in carrying out communicative tasks. Corrective feedback offers learners opportunities to interact with their interlocutors as well as to repair their errors. The present study examines the nature of corrective feedback by a native English teacher and 34 students' responses observing a Korean elementary English classroom taught by a native English teacher. The participants, 4th, 5th and 6th graders, carried out the tasks in which communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks were composed of for 2 months.

Results revealed that corrective feedback had significant effect on students' responses to it and the interaction between teacher and students. The effects were larger for communicative tasks than non-communicative tasks.

The analysis of corrective feedback demonstrated that recast was the most

frequently used, but it produced the least uptake and repair rate. On the other hand, prompts were the least used corrective feedback, but it produced the highest rate of uptake. Finally, explicit correction was frequently used corrective feedback type and it also lead to high uptake rate.

Results from analysis of perception on corrective feedback showed that students believe corrective feedback to be beneficial and they have a preference for explicit correction even though they have experiences that they felt inhibited by teacher's corrective feedback.

Given that the findings, it is expected that the effectiveness of corrective feedback can be increased when communicative tasks are provided and that teachers need to make effort to give plenty of corrective feedbacks since it helps students to modify their non-target-like utterances and it gives opportunities for students to interact with their interlocutors.

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CHAPTER 1.

INTRODUCTION

This chapter begins with the purpose of the current study along with a few theoretical frameworks which this study is based on (Section 1.1). In the following section, research questions are addressed (Section 1.2). And the last section guides the overall organization of this thesis (Section 1.3).

1.1. The Purpose of the Study

Based on Long's (1983) interaction hypothesis, second language acquisition researchers have investigated the effects of participating in communicative interaction on second language development. Interaction is believed to work to bring about positive development effects. Interaction may be beneficial because it provides learners with exposure to negative feedback in response to their non-target-like utterances (Gass, 2003; Long, 1996; Mackey & Goo, 2007). That is to say, interactional modifications by corrective feedback facilitate second language learning.

In the history of SLA, research about corrective feedback has been often dealt with. Although there are still controversies about it, consensus that corrective feedback is facilitative has been developed (Doughty, 2001; Long & Robinson 1998). In fact, for the past few decades the role of teacher feedback has received considerable attention from second language researchers and a number of studies which include both experimental (e.g., Ayoun, 2004; Han, 2002; Leeman, 2003; Lyster, 2004) and descriptive research (e.g., Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004) have explored the types of feedback (e.g., Ranta & Lyster, 2007; Ellis, 2006), effectiveness of feedback (e.g.,

Norris & Ortega, 2000; Russel & Spada, 2006), age factors (e.g., Mackey & Oliver, 2002), level of proficiency (e.g., Lin & Hedgcock, 1996; Macky & Philp, 1998) and task factors (e.g., Robinson, 2001a, 2001b; Nuevo, 2006; Révész, 2011) etc. It is one of the most difficult and discouraging experiences to L2 teachers to provide corrective feedback for the errors made by their students. L2 teachers may doubt whether the feedback by them is effective or it may interrupt the flow of conversation or it may lower students' motivation. Therefore it is necessary to consider the nature of feedback by teachers and students' perception of feedback.

Feedback provides opportunities for conversational interaction, which facilitates second language acquisition. A number of experimental studies (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998; Ammar, 2003; Lyster, 2004a) have supported this claim, connecting interactional feedback with L2 acquisition. Teachers interact with students by using a range of questioning techniques and feedback types to draw attention to form. By paying attention to corrective feedback they receive on non-target-like utterance they produce during interaction, learners can not only notice the mismatches between their current interlanguage and target language but also have opportunities to interact with interlocutors.

The majority of these studies have been carried out with adults and adolescents. Little observational research exists that has looked at corrective feedback provided by teachers and learners' responses to it in a Korean elementary English classroom. Korean elementary schools hire native English teachers from English speaking countries such as USA, Canada, UK, Australia and South Africa etc. The knowledge of education is not included in their qualifications to be English teachers in Korean elementary schools. It means that the native English teachers may not have background knowledge about English education and specifically about corrective feedback. In reality, it was found that corrective feedbacks provided from teachers were not effectively taken advantage

of by students during the research. For instance, students failed to notice teacher's corrective feedbacks repeatedly and they kept on making same errors. In addition, it was detected that students showed different responses for teacher's corrective feedback depending on task types. Therefore, it is worthwhile to examine a native English teacher's corrective feedbacks and students' responses to them and it is expected that this research will be able to give helpful information about corrective feedback to native English teachers working in Korean elementary schools.

This is a descriptive analysis of teacher-student interaction increased by corrective feedback in a Korean elementary English class taught by a native English teacher. Corrective feedbacks are given to students randomly and sporadically on students' negative interlanguage forms by a native English teacher. Three classes of students (N=34) are involved. 34 children aged 10 to 12 (4th, 5th, and 6th graders) took part in the study and their English proficiency is low and they are familiar with each other from their classes. And the teacher is from South Africa and she leads her classes only in English. It was noticed that the use of communicative tasks is essential in order to identify the effects of teacher's corrective feedbacks on students' uptake and repair since students gave much more output and responses in performing communicative tasks during the 2 month observation. Corrective feedback refers to implicit and explicit negative feedback for students' non-target-like utterances and the types of corrective feedback are classified as recast, prompts and explicit correction in this study. And students' responses are analyzed in terms of uptake and repair. Uptake is defined as a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's corrective feedback and repair refers to uptake that leads to a correction of the error that the teacher has treated.

This study is designed to examine how different feedback types influence L2 learning differently depending on task types. In addition to the statistical and descriptive study about corrective feedback, this research is concerned with how L2 learners

perceive L2 teacher's corrective feedback. It reveals that teachers might benefit from the knowledge of corrective feedback since corrective feedback is facilitative to increase interaction between students and teachers. Moreover, teachers and students are likely to work collaboratively to develop mutual understanding with the help of corrective feedback. Therefore, it is advisable for teachers to consider corrective feedback as one of the factors which are important in the design of language teaching materials.

In summary, this study examines 1) nature of corrective feedback provided by the teacher and students' uptake and repair according to teacher's corrective feedback, 2) differences of teacher's corrective feedback and learners' uptake and repair in performing communicative tasks vs. non-communicative tasks and 3) students' overall perception about corrective feedback. That is to say, it investigates the immediate effects of explicit correction, recasts and prompts and learner's uptake followed by the corrective feedback. Recast is provided predominantly over prompts and explicit correction and learner's uptake vary in relation to feedback types. Naturally occurring teacher and student interaction is observed in a classroom setting and teacher's feedback and uptake and repair by student vary depending on the task which they deal with. The aim is to find out what kinds of corrective feedback occur in elementary English classes taught by native English teacher and to examine how beneficial the corrective feedback is to interaction between teacher and learners. In order to increase interaction between teacher and learners in English class, communicative tasks play a crucial role in a Korean elementary school. Hopefully this research will provide useful pedagogical implications to native English teachers working in Korean elementary schools.

1.2. Research Questions

In light of the considerations which have been outlined, the current study

addresses three research questions. The research questions are formulated to investigate teacher's corrective feedback and students' uptake and repair and differences of corrective feedback, uptake and repair depending on task types and students' overall perception about corrective feedback.

(1) How do teacher's different corrective feedback types impact learners' uptake and repair differently?
(2) How do teacher's corrective feedback, students' uptake and repair vary across communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks?
(3) How do EFL learners perceive the native English teacher's corrective feedback?

1.3. Organization of the Thesis

The present study is organized as follows. The first chapter identifies the purpose of the study and research questions. The second chapter reviews the literature which the current study about corrective feedback depending on task types are based on. The third chapter introduces methodology for this study, which includes description of participants, tasks, coding, procedures and analysis. In the fourth chapter the results of the study are reported and discussion on the basis of the results is accompanied with reference to the three research questions. Finally in chapter 6, conclusion drawn from this research is presented along with pedagogical implications and limitations of this study.

CHAPTER 2.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, five important constructs for this research and the previous research are explained. Section 2.1 gives an explanation of corrective feedback and L2 acquisition. Section 2.2 describes corrective feedback types. Section 2.3 illustrates the effectiveness of corrective feedback. In section 2.4 definitions of learner's uptake and repair are explained and research about them is introduced. Finally, section 2.5 identifies the nature of task and introduces some studies about tasks which this study is related to.

2.1. Corrective Feedback and L2 Acquisition

In the history of SLA, research on corrective feedback has been often treated. A number of SLA studies (Doughty, 2001, Long & Robinson, 1998) have shown that corrective feedback plays a crucial role in L2 learners' interlanguage development. 'Corrective feedback' is a term to refer to implicit and explicit negative feedback occurring in both natural conversational and instructional settings. Corrective feedback differs in terms of how implicit or explicit it is. In implicit feedback there is no overt indicator that an error has been committed and it often takes the form of recast whereas there is overt indicator in explicit feedback and it indicates clearly that what the learner said was incorrect.

While the effectiveness of corrective feedback has been supported by many theorists (Gass, 1997; Long 1996; Dekeyser 2008), there are also negative views about corrective feedback (Willis, 2004). Trustcott (1996) claimed that corrective feedback is

thought to be more or less effective or even to have harmful effects, such as to increase anxiety and to foster less favorable attitude towards learning.   In addition Krashen (1982) argued against corrective feedback claiming that positive evidence alone is sufficient for learners to acquire a second language and negative evidence is useless and may be harmful in interlanguage development. However advocates of corrective feedback maintain that negative evidence plays a facilitative and even important role in acquisition (Li, 2010).

This study about corrective feedback (CF) has mainly stemmed from the Interaction Hypothesis (Gass, 1997; Long, 1996; Pica,1994). According to Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis, learners can acquire second language through interaction which is composed of negotiation of meaning and implicit negative feedback from negotiation of meaning provides opportunities for learners to pay attention to linguistic forms. Ellis (1996) said that interaction provides learners with opportunities to cope with input, to practice L2 and to accept target languages and their culture.   Another theory in support of negative feedback is Schmidt's (1990) Noticing Hypothesis. It suggests that negative feedback helps learners to notice the gap between interlanguage forms and target forms and 'noticing the gap' has been believed to assist interlanguage development. In addition Swain(1985) claimed through 'Output Hypothesis' that interactional feedback prompts learners to modify their output and thereby promote hypothesis testing, automatization of existing knowledge, as well as syntactic processing. And Swain (1995) suggested three functions of output. Firstly output fulfills conscious-raising function by arousing noticing. Secondly, learners test their hypothesis about their second language by producing output. Finally, output makes learner pay attention to L2 language form consciously.

2.2. Corrective Feedback Types

Much variation in operating the constructs of feedback types has been noted. A distinction can be drawn between implicit feedback and explicit feedback. According to Long(1996), recasts, confirmation checks, clarification requests, repetitions, negotiations, elaborations were coded as implicit feedback in which there is no overt indicator that an error has been committed. On the other hand, overt corrections and metalinguistic information were categorized as explicit feedback in which the response clearly indicates that what the learner said was incorrect. Lyster and Ranta (1997) classified corrective feedback as recasts, explicit correction and prompts. They defined recasts as "the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error". And they argued that explicit correction provides the correct form but, unlike recasts, "clearly indicates that what the student had said was incorrect". They added that prompts include elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests, and repetition and they withhold correct form and instead provide clues to prompt students to retrieve correct forms from their existing knowledge.   The growing body of research about CF is based on the comparison of three types of CF: recasts, explicit correction and prompts.

Ellis (2006) suggested differentiating corrective feedback types from implicit and explicit feedback is legitimate for the studies of CF effectiveness because there is ambiguity in types of feedback. For example prompts can be included in implicit and explicit CF moves and also recasts can be implicit and explicit. Ranta and Lyster (2007) distinguished between reformulation and prompts. According to them, reformulation "includes recasts, explicit correction because both their moves supply learners with target reformulations of their non-target output" and prompts "include a variety of signals, other than alternative reformulations, that push learners to self-repair".

2.3. Effectiveness of Corrective Feedback

Numerous researchers have made effort to identify the effectiveness of feedback for the last two decades. However some SLA scholars have argued that corrective feedback is harmful since it can reduce learners' motivation and interrupt interactional processes. (Truscott, 1996) Although there are still plenty of controversies about corrective feedback, consensus that corrective feedback is facilitative has been developed. (Doughty, 2001, Long and Robinson, 1998). In order to prove the effectiveness of corrective feedback, researchers have conducted experimental research in classroom setting as well as laboratory setting.

A number of studies compared the effects of implicit and explicit corrective feedback on L2 acquisition. In general, the recast studies demonstrated that implicit feedback can have beneficial influence on L2 acquisition. Long (1996) argued that recasts work precisely since they are implicit and connect linguistic form to meaning promoting noticing. Also Doughty (2001) asserted that recasts constitute the ideal means of achieving an "immediately contingent focus on form" and provide a "cognitive window" in which learners can practice what they have heard and access material from their interlanguage.

In contrast, many researchers paid attention to the effect of explicit feedback. Carroll &Swain (1993) studied the effects of different types of corrective feedback by teaching dative verbs to 100 Spanish adult ESL learners and explicit correction group outperformed implicit group. Nagata (1993) came to the conclusion that metalinguistic explanation with feedback performed better than implicit feedback and that learners expressed preferences for metalinguistic feedback in an experimental research with 32 second-year university learners of L2 Japanese. Ellis et al. (2006) demonstrated that explicit feedback in the form of metalinguistic information is mostly more effective than

implicit feedback (in the form of recasts). They claimed that explicit feedback seems more likely to promote the cognitive comparison which leads to learning. Even, Havranek & Cesnik (2003) reached a conclusion that effectiveness of corrective feedback techniques was in order: (1) elicited self-correction, (2) explicit rejection with recast, (3) recast alone after investigating a variety of English phonological, lexical and grammatical features of 207 university students.

And some researchers did not find any significant differences in effectiveness of explicit feedback and implicit feedback. Kim & Mathes (2001) studied the effectiveness of explicit metalinguistic feedback and recasts with 20 Korean adult ESL and the results revealed no significant differences between explicit feedback group and recasts, but learners expressed preference for explicit feedback. On the other hand, Carroll (2001) suggested that all types of feedback facilitate learners to learn the items targeted by the feedback but it reported that only explicit metalinguistic information and indirect prompting enabled learners to form a generalization and that recasts did not generate generalization. Rosa & Leow (2004) examined 100 adult university learners of L2 Spanish enrolled in advanced courses and the results presented that there was no significant difference between explicit feedback group and implicit feedback group and both groups outperformed the group without feedback.

The studies on effectiveness of corrective feedback have been carried out in many different terms with various variables. DeKeyser (1993) carried out an experimental research to find out difference of effectiveness between extensive explicit corrective feedback and limited explicit corrective feedback during normal class activity. Three oral communication tasks (interview, picture description and story-telling) were performed for this study, but no statistically significant differences were evident between extensive explicit CF group and limited explicit CF group. And it suggested that learners with high previous achievement, high language aptitude, high extrinsic

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motivation and low anxiety benefited the most from error correction. Doughty and Varela (1998) examined two multilevel (from sixth to eighth grade) content-based ESL classrooms. In the experimental classroom, students received feedback on simple past and conditional past tense forms during science activities. The study revealed short- and long-term benefits for feedback in comparison to no feedback at all. Mackey and Philp (1998) suggested that the proficiency of the learners affects the extent to which CF is usable and actually used and found that more advanced learners benefited more from intensive recasts in English question formation development. Lyster and Saito (2010) investigated the pedagogical effectiveness of oral corrective feedback on target language development and conducted a meta-analysis of 15 classroom-based studies (N=827). According to Lyster and Saito (2010) CF's effectiveness varied according to (1) types of CF, (2) types and timing of outcome measures, (3) instructional setting (second vs. foreign language classroom), (4) treatment length, and (5) learners' age. Results revealed that corrective feedback had significant and durable effects on target language development and that the effects were larger for prompts than recasts.

A number of studies investigated the potential benefits of two corrective feedback techniques (recasts and prompts). Some L2 researchers posit that recasts are beneficial for SLA. Because recasts are implicit, unobtrusive, and perform the dual function of providing a correct model while maintaining a focus on meaning, many L2 researchers consider them to be the ideal CF technique (Doughty & Varela,1998; Long, 1996). However, recasts are not without their problems. Ammar (2003) investigated the differential effects of prompts and recasts in form-focused instruction in three sixth-grade intensive ESL classrooms over a 4 week period. And Ammar found that prompts were particularly effective for lower proficiency learners, whereas higher proficiency learners appeared to benefit similarly from both recasts and prompts. Nicolas et al. (2001) argued that effectiveness of recasts depends on the overall communicative

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orientation of a given instructional setting, with effectiveness increasing in more form-focused classrooms and decreasing in more meaning-focused classrooms. According to Leeman (2003), in his research with 74 first-year university learners of Spanish who learn Spanish noun-adjective agreement, recast group and the group of enhanced salience with no feedback outperformed the control group where no treatment was given on picture description tasks, but no difference was shown between recast group and the group of enhanced salience with no feedback. Lyster (2004) examined the differential effects of prompts and recasts with a pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest design. A form-focused instructional unit on grammatical gender in French was implemented by three fifth-grade immersion teachers in different settings, and it permitted comparisons of three oral feedback option; prompts, recasts, and no feedback. The recast group significantly performed better than the comparison group on five of the eight measures. It suggests that recasts were more effective than no feedback. It was proved that prompts were especially instrumental in improving students' performance over time on the written tasks. Lyster &Mori (2006) analyzed teacher-student interaction in two different instructional settings at the elementary-school level (18.3 hour in French immersion and 14.8 hour Japanese immersion). They investigated the immediate effects of explicit correction, recasts, and prompts on learner uptake and repair. The results showed a predominant provision of recasts over prompts and explicit correction, regardless of instructional setting.

SLA researchers who have investigated the effects of interaction on L2 development assumed that corrective feedback has interactional features, which promotes linguistic development (Carroll & Swain, 1993; Gass, 1997; Long, 1996). Experimental studies have shown that interactional feedback can lead learners to modify their output, which often promotes students' output (DeKeyser, 1998; Swain, 1985 and Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Mackey et al. (2003) investigated the effects of interlocutor type

on the provision and incorporation of feedback in task-based interaction. They analyzed effect of interlocutor on (1) amount of feedback, (2) opportunities for modified output, and (3) immediate incorporation of feedback and they found that feedback provided in adult dyads afforded learners more opportunities for modified output, but learners in child dyads took advantage of the opportunity to produce modified output.

2.4. Learner Uptake and Repair in Communicative Classrooms

Uptake was defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997) as a student's immediate response to the teacher's feedback and they maintained that "uptake constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterances". Lyster and Ranta classified learner uptake as utterances still in need of repair or utterances with repair.

The concepts of learner uptake and learner repair have been used as measures to investigate the effectiveness of corrective feedback on SLA (e.g., Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Panava and Lyster, 2002; Ellis et al., 2001). A number of researchers raised objection to the use of 'uptake' as a measure of acquisition arguing that uptake is simply a discourse phenomenon and it may or may not be related to the psycholinguistic processes involved in language acquisition. Mackey and Philip (1998) in their study of NS-NNS negotiated interaction, found that recast caused the acquisition of question forms regardless of whether there was uptake and they reached a conclusion that uptake is not a valid tool to measure the effectiveness of corrective feedback in learning. Lyster and Ranta (1997) also admitted that learner uptake and repair do not guarantee acquisition although they have used uptake as a measure of potential acquisition. Panova and Lyster (2002) suggested that uptake that is composed of a repetition might

not have much contribute to L2 development due to its redundancy in an error treatment sequence in which the repair is both initiated and completed by the teacher within a single move.

None the less, learner uptake and repair have been used as effective tools to identify patterns in teacher-learner interaction which include a wide range of learner responses following corrective feedback from teacher. Chaudron (1997) reported that uptake is an indicator to show the effectiveness of corrective feedback. Mackey et al (2000) claimed that learner uptake serves as evidence that learners have grasped the interlocutor's intention and nature of corrective feedback and that uptake may play a role in noticing the gap between the target form and an interlanguage form. Williams (2001) investigated the relationship between uptake and L2 acquisition. She examined incidental focus-on-form practices in intensive communicative English classes and explored the relationship between the roles of participants in Language Related Episodes (LRE) and the immediate use of the forms in focus (i.e., uptake and repair) and subsequent retention. She found that language develops where repair happens. Loewen (2002) investigated the effectiveness of focus-on-form on subsequent learning in 12 communicative ESL classrooms in New Zealand and concluded that 'successful uptake' which follows corrective feedback was significantly related to gains in scores of vocabulary and grammar. It showed that learner uptake and repair are facilitative in examining the relationship between corrective feedback and L2 development.

A number of researchers conducted their research with the measures of uptake and repair. Lyster and Ranta (1997) examined an immersion environment and provided a taxonomy of the types of CF and the effect of error treatment types on learner uptake. After observing four French immersion classroom (grades 4 and 5) taught by four teachers, they found that the most common feedback was recasts, which accounts for 55% of all feedback. However, recasts produced the least amount of the

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uptake (31%) and successful repair (18%). In contrast, elicitation resulted in a much higher rate of repair (45%). Oliver (1995) suggested that the rates of uptake following recasts can differ considerably depending on whether learners do or do not have a chance to uptake. Ellis et al. (2001) investigated focus-on-form practices where teachers' provision of CF was included, leaner uptake and subsequent repair (i.e., successful uptake) in intensive adult ESL classrooms in New Zealand. They demonstrated that recasts were the most common types of feedback (75%) which leads to the highest amount of uptake (75%). This result is different from those of Lyster and Ranta and Ellis et al suggested that they might be due to learners' concern for form in their communicative lessons and also partially primed by the form-focused grammar instruction that they received prior to the communicative lessons. In contrast, Panova and Lyster (2002) showed sharply different results after observing an adult ESL classroom in Canada. They produced similar results to Lyster and Ranta (1997). That is to say, a rate of uptake and repair following recasts was low and a rate of uptake and repair following negotiation of form such as elicitations and clarification requests was high. And they concluded that in comparison with other feedback types, recasts do not promote immediate learner repair, which, in the case of recasts, involves repetition. Sheen (2004) reported similarities and differences in teachers' corrective feedback and learner's uptake across instructional settings: French immersion, Canada ESL, New Zealand ESL and Korean EFL. The results indicated that recasts were the most frequent feedback type in all four contexts but were much more frequent in the Korean EFL and New Zealand ESL classrooms (83% and 68%, respectively). She suggested that the extent to which recasts lead to learner uptake and repair may be greater in contexts where the focus of the recasts is more salient, as with reduced/partial recasts and where students are oriented to attending to linguistic form rather than meaning.

Therefore it seems worthwhile to investigate corrective feedback by using

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measure of learner uptake and repair since they provide useful information about learners' responses to corrective feedback.

2.5.   Tasks

The construct of task has also received considerable attention as a variable affecting the incidence and use of interactional feedback. Researchers have claimed that task factors have an influence on feedback on L2 development. According to Ellis (2003), tasks have six criteria properties: a task (1) is a work plan, in other words, a planned activity; (2) involves primary attention to meaning; (3) entails real-world processes of language use; (4) requires the use of any of four skills; (5) engages cognitive processes such as "selecting, classifying, ordering, reasoning, and evaluating information"; and (6) has a nonlinguistic outcome.

Besides, Ellis (2003) coined the terms focused and unfocused tasks and they are distinguished from whether or not a task is designed to elicit a specific linguistic feature. Unfocused tasks do not have a predetermined language focus whereas focused tasks are intended to induce the use of particular constructions. Mackey and Goo (2007) suggested that interactional feedback by focused tasks lead to L2 development. Gurzynski-Weiss and Re've'sz (2012) investigated feedback and task factors together during naturally occurring teacher-student interaction in classroom setting. The study revealed that task factors affected the amount and type of teacher feedback as well as the number of opportunities for and incidence of learner modified output. Li (2010) stated that tasks which involve meaningful communication are coded as "communicative task". Tasks such as information gap, jigsaw, decision making and so on are included and the focus of the task is not so much learning linguistic forms as fulfilling a task. Kim (2012) examined the effects of task complexity on the occurrence

of interaction-driven learning opportunities and question development in Korean university English classrooms. Results indicated that more complex tasks increased a greater number of LREs (language related episode) and led to question development.

A number of research about tasks have been used the distinction of focused and unfocused tasks by Ellis (2003), but the taxonomy does not explain at full length for this research since teacher's feedback and student's uptake and repair are subject to great variation according to the task they undertake. It shows that students had more opportunities to interact with interlocutors by producing more uptakes when communicative tasks were provided. That is the reason that patterns of teacher's feedback and students' uptake and repair are considered depending on the taxonomy of communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks.

As seen in this literature review section, the effect of feedback has been much debated and so has the role of task in the history of SLA. However not many studies have investigated the interaction between corrective feedback and tasks, which this study seeks to examine. Gurzynski-Weiss and Re've'sz (2012) investigated the interaction of corrective feedback and task factors in terms of task types and task phase with adult participant who enrolled in intermediate Spanish class in a research university in the United States. And Lee (2010) investigated the effects of the types of tasks and feedback on Korean adult EFL learners' fluency, accuracy, and complexity. Both of them did the research with adult students and not many studies have observed elementary students in the feedback and task interaction research. This research seeks to identify the effects of corrective feedback in performing communicative tasks with the participants of elementary students and to apply the previous research to Korean EFL elementary students. With the respect to research question 1, the nature of corrective feedback is investigated by examining uptake and repair and interactive features. And the second question is identified by comparing the effect of corrective feedback between

communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks. With the respect to research question 3, students' perception on corrective feedback is described by analyzing a questionnaire.

CHAPTER 3.
METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents methodology which is adopted for this study. Section 3.1 describes participants. Section 3.2 introduces 10 different tasks which are used for this study. Section 3.3 clarifies coding about how this analysis proceeds. Section 3.4 displays procedures of this study and finally section 3.5 gives an account of data analysis.

3.1. Participants

Three classes of students (N=34) from three different grades (4th, 5th and 6th) are involved. 34 children aged 10 to 12 took part in the study. English proficiency of the students is low and they are familiar with one another from their classes. Information obtained from a background questionnaire shows that they started to learn English from kindergarten through extra activity English classes run by the public elementary school. They have hardly learned English from other private sources of English education. Learners receive English instruction three times a week. Two classes which are regular classes are led by a Korean English teacher and a native English teacher plays an assistant role in the classes. One class which is a kind of extra activity class, but every student is expected to attend is taught by only NS English teacher. Only the class taught by NS teacher belongs to this research since the class only fits for purpose of this study. This observation lasted 2 months and 24 classes were observed in total. Each class was coded in real time by the researcher sitting at the back of the classroom. The setting is a small elementary school in a rural area of Anseongsi.

The teacher for this research is NS English teacher. She is from South Africa and English is her first language and she is not able to speak Korean. She has 12 year teaching experience. She taught in England as well as in South Africa before she came to Korea. It is her second year of teaching in Korea. She places emphasis on developing communicative skills in English. She tries to encourage every student to speak English in her class. She places great emphasis on fluency through activities which primarily focused on listening and speaking. She was asked to provide the students when their interlanguage forms are erroneous with the types of corrective feedback such as recast, prompts, explicit correction and zero feedback and the way she provides feedbacks to her students during the research consists with her own natural feedback styles.

3.2. Tasks

Total 20 tasks are given and 1 or 2 tasks are used for one class.   10 tasks are considered as communicative tasks and 10 tasks as non-communicative. The level of difficulty varies depending on grade level. Communicative task is the activities which are designed to encourage students to communicate and interact with their interlocutors and in which speakers necessarily take turns. That is to say, tasks which involve meaningful communication are coded as "communicative task". On the other hand, non-communicative task is meant to learn grammar, vocabulary and structures through the lesson and it requires learners to engage in mechanical practice which is seen in "drill" or "rote learning". The primary goal of non-communicative task is learning linguistic forms. There is no specific time limit in performing the tasks, but each task requires approximately between 10-20 minutes to be completed. All of the activities took place in a classroom during the students' extra activity class time. The intact classes were observed and they were video-recorded. The obvious presence of a camcorder did not

affect the students. Students were occasionally expected to work in pairs although the tasks went on mostly the way that students replied to the questions the teacher asked and all the students carried out the same tasks.

3.2.1. Communicative Tasks

In this section six communicative tasks which were carried out for this study are introduced. The six tasks were devised considering students' proficiency by both the teacher and the researcher. They aim to increase communication between teacher and students. Each task was used once or several times depending on the needs of the teacher and students.

3.2.1.1. Narrative Story Retelling Task

Learners are divided to 3 groups. Each group is given the same picture sequences which depict short stories. The written account of the story is provided after that. The teacher asks the students to read aloud the story individually so that they can retell the story as much as possible. The story text is taken back and then vocabulary list is handed out, which is necessary for the student whose English proficiency is not good enough to complete the retelling task (e.g. go, farmer, meet, cow, chicken, pig). Finally the learners are asked to retell the narrative story by taking advantage of the pictures and the word list.

3.2.1.2. Retelling a Story about a Person's Life

Learners are assigned to three groups. Each group is given a picture sequence

which shows a person's day of his/her life. Different pictures about one character out of three are provided to each group. And then the written text which describes the character's story of life is presented. Students are expected to read aloud the text. After that written account is removed, word lists which are important to retell the story are given. Lastly the students are asked to retell the story about a character's life.

3.2.1.3. Picture Description (Possessive Pronoun & Third Person-s & Progressive Tense)

A few pictures which are familiar to students are shown to the learners. The teacher gives instruction about the situation and context of the pictures as well as vocabulary. They are asked to describe the picture.

3.2.1.4. Retelling of a Video-Clip

After watching a video twice, the teacher tells them what happened in the video clip first and makes sure that the students understand the video clip. The words which are necessary to retell the story are taught and the students are asked to retell the video-clips.

3.2.1.5. Retelling of Stories

After reading fairy tales (e.g. Snow White, Hansel and Gretel, and Sleeping Beauty) which are very well-known to students, the teacher retells the whole stories giving instructions about words from beginning to end. After that, the students retell the stories as much as they can one by one. They all take turns.

3.2.1.6. Interview with Teacher

The teacher asks about a few topics such as what they did last weekend, what their dream jobs are and how they will decide when they are in a certain situation. Learners are expected to answer to the teacher's questions.

3.2.2. Non-communicative Tasks

In this section four non-communicative tasks used for this study are explained. Non-communicative tasks are similar to mechanical drills in that they both focus on linguistic forms and that feedback is provided on an item-by-item basis. The tasks which cannot create communicative atmosphere are divided into non-communicative tasks.

3.2.2.1. Vocabulary Learning

The teacher teaches vocabulary according to themes such as occupation, country, fruits and vegetables and feelings etc. The teacher shows them pictures about each theme and asks them what they are and the students give answers to the questions.

3.2.2.2. Grammar Learning

The teacher intends to teach possessive pronoun "his/her". She shows the pictures in which a man or a woman is doing something. The teacher starts to describe each

picture and ask questions to the students who are supposed to answer the questions by employing "his" or "her".

3.2.2.3. Learning Prepositions

The teacher explains what each preposition means by showing demonstration using chair and materials in a classroom. And the students are asked to describe pictures by using the prepositions they learned.

3.2.2.4. Introducing Myself

The teacher asks the students to introduce themselves by using the structures such as "My name is ~.", "My phone number is ~." and "I want to be a ~." one by one. The only mission of this task is to fill the slots properly with their personal information like name and phone number.

3.3. Coding

First of all, the students' utterances which involve non-target-like utterances are classified according to whether the teacher provides corrective feedback or not. The teacher may respond with corrective feedback for students' non-target-like utterances. Otherwise, the teacher may give no response or ignore for the erroneous utterances. How many corrective feedbacks are given for the non-target-like utterances is calculated. In this phase, the sources of errors which the students produce are identified. They can be pronunciation, word, grammar and sentence errors. Also the types of feedback which the teacher provides are identified and classified as one of the following corrective

feedback types: recast, prompts and explicit correction. Recasts refer to the reformulation of all or part of learners' immediate and previous non-target-like utterances. There is no overt indicator showing what errors have been committed. Prompts are also implicit feedback techniques that induce the learners to self-correct. Clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition belong to prompts. Lastly, explicit correction is to provide learners with overt indicator showing what the learner said is incorrect. Brief descriptions of each type of CF and examples are provided, which is excerpted from Sheen (2004).

TABLE 3.1

Types of corrective feedback (excerpted from Sheen(2004))

Explicit correction provides learners with a correct form with a clear indication of what is being corrected.
    Example 1(NZ ESL)
      S: and three pear. (sounds like beer)
      S2: three beer
      T: not beer. Pear

Recasts refer to the reformulation of the whole or part of learner's erroneous utterance without changing its meaning.
    Example 2(Canada ESL)
      T: Okay, it's good. You wanna tell us one?
      S: Eh…. Kaii convention.
      T: what kind of convention? (recast)
      S: Kaii convention …eh…. Some people…
    Example 3 (Korea EFL)
      S: Any person who is very great poet, I would be.
      T: Oh, okay. All right. A great? You would be a great poet? (recast)

Clarification requests are feedback moves that signal to learners that their utterances were either not understood or were ill formed.
    Example 4(Canada ESL)
      S: I want practice today, today.
      T: I'm sorry? (clarification request)

Metalinguistic feedback contains technical information regarding the student's erroneous utterance without explicitly providing the correct answer.
    Example 5(Korean EFL)
      S: There are influence person who-
      T: Influential is an adjective. (metalinguistic feedback)
      S: Influential person-(unintelligible)- because of his power.

Elicitation involves at least three techniques for eliciting the correct form from the students: a) 'elicit completion' moves such as 'It is a …'; b) elicitative questions, such as 'How do we say X in French?; c) reformulation requests, such as 'Can you say it another way?

Example 6(Canada ESL)
T: In a fast food restaurant, how much do you tip?
S: No money
T: What is the word? (elicitation)
S: Five… four…
Repetition occurs when the teacher repeats learners' ill-formed utterances without any change.
Example 7(NZ ESL)
S: Oh my God, it is too expensive, I pay only 10 dollars.
T: I pay? (repetition)
S2: okay, let's go.
Multiple feedback refers to the combination of more than one type of feedback. Rather than treating. Rather than treating multiple feedback as a separate category, L&R recode it as one of the six types.

Figure 3.1

Coding Categories
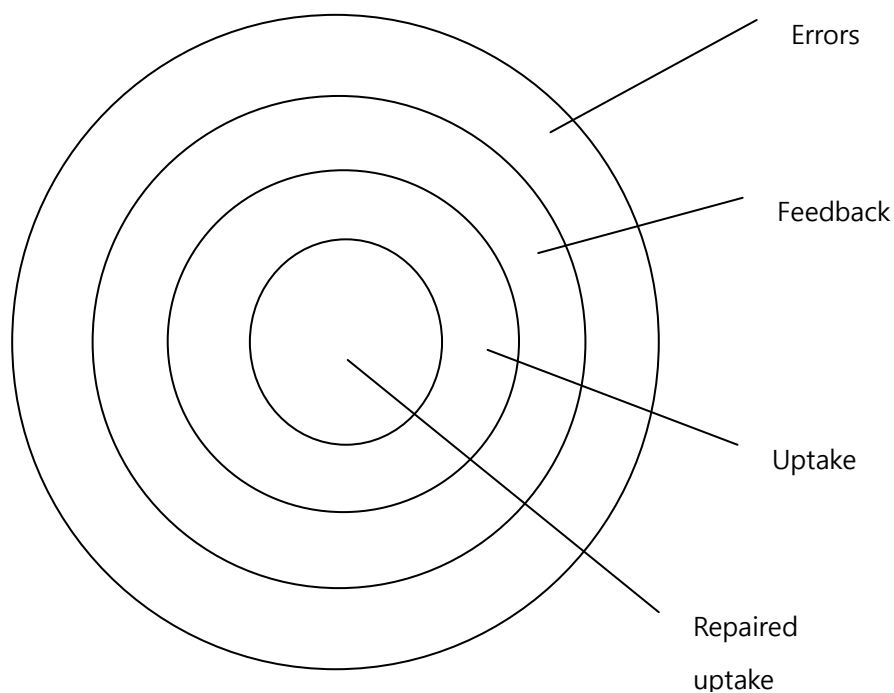
      It is followed to examine and analyze uptake. Uptake is defined as 'a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's

initial utterance' (Lyster and Ranta, 1997). Therefore, the students' uptake moves reveal their attempts to respond to the teacher's feedback. The amount of the students' uptake varies according to the feedback types and task types. Considering the students' English proficiency, the unit of analysis for uptake is the number of words in their speech.

At the next step, it is distinguished whether the uptake is 'repair' or 'needs repair'. According to Lyster and Ranta, 'repair' refers to uptake that leads to a correction of the error that the teacher has treated, while 'need repair' is composed of uptake where the error is not corrected. In this study, it is calculated how many errors in their uptakes are repaired. Besides, it is identified how many times multiple feedback techniques for one error are used and also it is considered how much providing feedback is effective in giving opportunities to speak by counting students' extra turns generated by feedback.

Next it is analyzed how the nature of feedback and uptake differ in communicative tasks vs. non-communicative tasks. Figure 3.1 indicates an overall coding scheme and it is also used to analyze this study. In addition, to examine the differences of uptake between communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks deeply, the number of words in uptakes was counted since the students hardly produce long sentences and they arrange the words in their mind to make the teacher understood. That is the reason why other common units such as AS-units (analysis of speech units), clauses and MLU (mean length of unit) cannot be used for this study. Lastly, to examine interactive feature of corrective feedback, the extra turns generated by corrective feedback are counted. An additional research proceeds with questionnaire in order to understand how students perceive feedback. The result of the questionnaire is calculated and analyzed.

Table 3.2 shows processes about how the real data were analyzed with examples.

TABLE 3.2

Examples from real data in analysis process

Error with corrective feedback vs. Error without corrective feedback

Example 1

  T: What does a nurse do?

  S: A nurse <u>help doctor.</u>   ←error

  T: A nurse <u>helps a doctor</u>.   ←corrective feedback

Example 2

  T: (pointing to a picture of a mail man) What is his job?

  S: message man   ←error

  T: no response   ←no corrective feedback

Uptake after corrective feedback vs. No uptake after corrective feedback

Example 3

  T: What day was yesterday?

  S: Yesterday is Wednesday.   ←error

  T: Yesterday was Wednesday. ←corrective feedback(recast)

  S: Yesterday was Wednesday. ←uptake

  T: Very good.

Example 4

  T: What is this?

  S: a hospital

  T: Who is in the hospital?

  S: fee sick   ←error

  T: sick people   ←corrective feedback

  S: (no response)   ←no uptake

Repaired uptake   vs. Needs repair

Example 5

  T: How do you come to school?

  S: I come to school school bus.   ←error

  T: I come to school by school bus. ←corrective feedback(recast)

  S: I come to school by school bus. ← repaired uptake

Example 6

  T: How can I get to department store from art gallery?

  S: Go left   ←error

  T: Go left?   ←corrective feedback(prompts)

  S: Go left   ←needs repair

Multiple feedback

Example 7

  T: How were Hansel and Gretel?

  S: Very hungry.   ←error

  T: Who were very hungry? ←corrective feedback(prompts)

  S: Hansel and Gretel very hungry. ←uptake & error

  T: Hansel and Gretel were very hungry. ←corrective feedback (recast)

  S: Hansel and Gretel were very hungry. ← repaired uptake

3.4. Procedures

This study employed a background questionnaire and 2 month classroom observation and a questionnaire on students' perception of corrective feedback. The main research of this study is to observe a Korean elementary English class taught by a native English teacher. This observation lasts for 2 months. The NS English teacher was in charge of conducting the tasks and lessons. A researcher observed the class sitting in the classroom during each class and recording on paper manually instances of the use of target structure, corrective feedback and learner's responses. Moreover the researcher was involved in devising the tasks with the teacher for the classes. The class was video-taped. It was mentioned that the recordings are confidential and they are just for research and the survey have nothing to do with tests. Students continued their regular lessons during this research with the tasks designed by both the teacher and the researcher. 24 English lessons were recorded over 8 week period. Before this research started, background questionnaire was conducted to collect information about the participants. After the 8 week session was done, the learners were asked to fill in a final questionnaire which revealed student's satisfaction and preference about feedback. The background questionnaire form and students' feedback perception questionnaire are appended at the end.

3.5. Data Analysis

The study results are analyzed in three parts, which tunes to the three research questions.   A number of quantitative analyses are conducted. The first and second parts

are quantitative and descriptive statistics for feedback types and task types are calculated.

In the first result section, the nature of corrective feedback by the native English teacher and the students' responses are examined and analyzed. The number of errors and feedback are counted and the sources of errors are identified. The frequencies of each corrective feedback which the teacher used in her classes are identified. To address the research questions, a series of Pearson's chi-square tests of independence was carried out, since feedback variables are categorical in nature. When data consist of frequency counts for categorical variables, chi-square tests are appropriate. The chi-square test of independence assesses the hypothesis that two categorical variables are associated. An alpha level of $p < .05$ was set for all tests, which means that their corresponding confidence intervals set at the 95% confidence level.

In the second section, comparison of communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks is presented in the aspects of feedback types, uptakes and interaction. This will be followed by Pearson's chi-square (x^2) tests and it is performed to ascertain whether the similarities and differences in the frequency of feedback types, learner uptake, repair and amount of interaction across communicative task and non-communicative task are statistically significant.

The final section is qualitative analysis in which it is revealed how the students perceive the teacher's corrective feedback. A questionnaire about feedback perception was used for this study. Questions were asked in Korean because their English proficiency is not good enough to understand questions in English. Most students do not know the conception of feedback and explicit and implicit feedback and the explanation about them is given in advance before starting with the questionnaire.

CHAPTER 4.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results and corresponding discussion are presented divided into three different sections according to the research questions. Section 4.1 reports overall description and calculation about teacher's corrective feedback, students' uptake and repair in a Korean elementary school and it is followed by results that assess how its effectiveness varies according to task types (Section 4.2). Finally results through questionnaire about perception of feedback are presented in Section 4.3.

4.1. Descriptive Analysis of Teacher's Corrective Feedback and Students' Uptake and Repair

The first research question aims to look into teacher's corrective feedback and students' uptake and repair responding to the corrective feedback. In order to deal with this research question deeply and systematically, the results are analyzed and discussed divided into 3 different sections. Section 4.1.1 examines the overall frequency of corrective feedback and frequency of each corrective feedback type (recast, prompts and explicit correction). Section 4.1.2 identifies the students' uptake and repair on each corrective feedback type. Section 4.1.3 investigates interactive feature of corrective feedback.

4.1.1. Frequency of Corrective Feedback

In this section there are two considerations. First the general frequency of

corrective feedback is reported and subsequently the frequencies of each corrective feedback type are followed.

First in order to analyze frequency of corrective feedback, students' errors are classified into errors with corrective feedback and errors without corrective feedback. Table 4.1 provides the summative information about errors and feedback.

TABLE 4.1

Overall Frequency of Error and Feedback

Errors With feedback		Errors Without feedback		Total errors	
N	%	N	%	N	%
243	70.6	101	29.4	344	100

In total, 344 errors occurred in teacher and student interaction and 243 errors were addressed with feedback (70.6%) and 101 errors were ignored without receiving corrective feedback (29.4%). This result indicates that corrective feedback occurred frequently at the rate of 70% and corrective feedback occupies a significant proportion of L2 learners' performance. It means that the teacher fully understands that corrective feedback effective and she made effort to correct errors as long as it did not interfere to the communicative flow of the lessons. Considering the sources of errors, the most errors made by the students resulted from their lack of knowledge in grammar (38.2%), vocabulary (32.8%) and pronunciation (24.1%). It is not surprising that students made the least errors in sentence (4.9%) given that the students' English proficiency is not high enough to bring about semantic and pragmatic problems. That is to say, students made the most errors in word (32.8%) and grammar (38.2%) and considerably many errors were made in pronunciation (24.1%).

Not all errors can be corrected. L2 teachers may decide not to provide any feedback either consciously or unconsciously. And it is found that the teacher often

corrected word and grammar errors while she provided rare corrections in pronunciation and sentence. Namely, pronunciation errors (12.7%) and sentence errors (2.2%) are the least corrected by the teacher while word errors (41.1%) and grammar errors (44.0%) are often corrected. It reveals that the teacher tends to ignore trivial mistakes resulted from pronunciation errors and to mind allotting a lot of class time in correcting sentence errors.

Secondly frequencies of recast, prompts and explicit correction are analyzed. As seen in Figure 4.1, recasts are the most frequently used corrective feedback in the classroom accounting for 45% of the instances and is followed by explicit correction and prompts. 1 x 3 Chi-square revealed that the teacher significantly differed in the extent to which the feedback types are preferable $X^2 = 22.58$, $df = 2(5.99), p < .05$.

FIGURE 4.1

Frequencies of Recast, Prompts and Explicit Correction
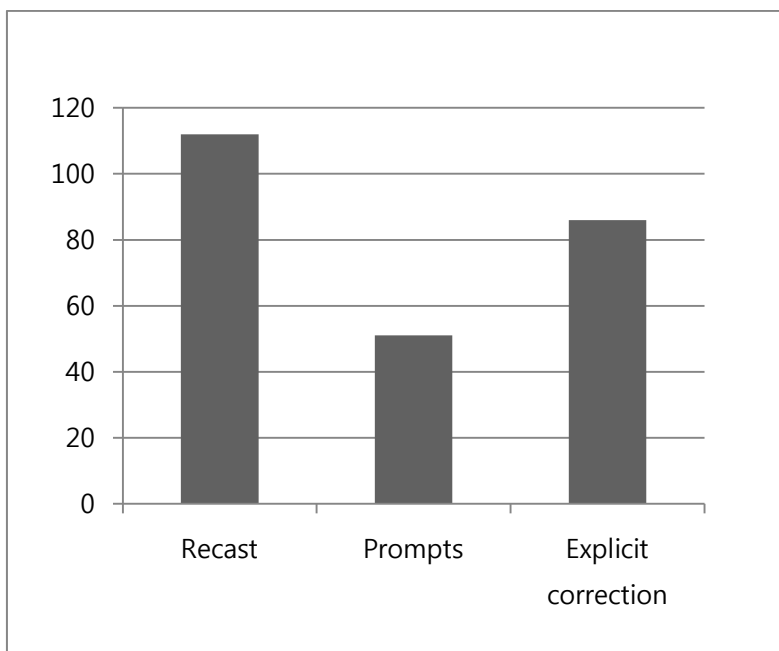
4.1.2. Students' Uptake and Repair on Corrective Feedback Types

In this section, effects of corrective feedback are examined focused on students' uptake and repair. This section answers the first research question about the effects of corrective feedback in eliciting students' responses.

TABLE 4. 2

Frequency of Feedback, Uptake and Repair

Feedback type	Uptake N	% a)	Repaired uptake N	% b)	Total N	%
Recast	64	57.1	42	37.5	112	45.0
Prompts	43	84.3	33	64.7	51	20.5
Explicit Correction	63	73.3	53	61.6	86	34.5
Total	170	68.2c)	128	51.4d)	249	100

Note   a) represents the ratio of uptake amount per the frequency of each feedback type.
b) represents the ratio of repaired uptake per frequency of each feedback type.
c) represents the ratio of uptake per the total feedback.
d) represents the ratio of repaired uptake per the total feedback.

Table 4.2 presents the descriptive statistics for the rate of uptake and repaired uptake in three feedback types along with the total number of recasts, prompts and explicit correction. It is evident that the majority of corrective feedback (68.2%) did offer opportunities for the students to produce uptake regardless of feedback type. It clearly indicates that the rate of uptake in prompts and explicit correction (both approximately 80%) is much higher than in recast (57%).   Regarding no- uptake rate, recast is much higher than prompts and explicit correction. A Chi-square test of independence was applied to apprehend the relation of feedback types and amount of uptake and the significance level was set at ≤ 0.05. However it revealed that the differences of uptake among three corrective feedback types were not statistically significant, $X^2 = 4.95$, df = 2 (5.99), p >0.05.

As for the relationship between feedback types and repair, recasts also yielded the least repair rate (37.5%), which is much lower than the rates of prompts and explicit corrections (both approximately 65%). Interestingly, the rate of repair following prompts was greatest.

Discussed on the basis of the results, the analysis of differential effects of recast, prompts and explicit correction in L2 classrooms revealed three things: (a) Recasts are the most frequently used; (b) prompts and explicit correction are more effective in yielding students' uptake and repair than recast; and (c) corrective feedback plays an important role in interaction between teacher and students. It was found that the teacher made wide use of implicit recasts since they are not relatively obstructive to communication flow. With the help of recasts, the teacher was able to maintain the flow of communication. However recasts are not the most effective technique in leading to uptake and repair. Students whose English proficiency is low leveled are not able to locate the errors to be attended to. In other words, students often cannot notice the gap between their erroneous output and the teacher's correct form. As previous research has already pointed out, recasts do not lead to a large amount of uptake and even repaired uptake (Doughty, 1994; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Oliver, 1995; Braidi, 2002). Because of the nature of recast which is indirect and implicit, recasts are the most preferable to the teacher, but it failed to produce much students' uptake and to have the students' error corrected. It was assumed that recasts are not effective because students might mistake them for non-corrective repetitions and the ambiguous nature of recasts may make them non-salient to learners (Lyster, 1998; Mackey et al., 2000). On the other hand, explicit correction technique was fairly frequently used and was prominent in inducing more uptakes and letting them revise their errors. Prompts were the least frequent corrective feedback, but lead to the highest rate of uptake and repair. Prompts signal the presence of an error explicitly and push the learners to modify their own output so that they might

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be more noticeable and more effective.

A number of students were not able to notice their errors after receiving recast feedback from the teacher. The students did not recognize differences between teacher's correction and their output and that is the reason they was not able to make uptake. It is noted that recasts are preferable to the teacher, but challenging to the students and recasts are not able to grab the students' attention. Moreover it does not push the students to self-correct whereas prompts are excellent at leading to students' self correct and making extra speaking turns through negotiation. It is also noticeable that explicit correction elicited a high rate of uptake and it had the students' errors repaired the most. It indicates that explicit correction is the most effective feedback strategy in a Korean elementary school English classroom taught by a native teacher as long as the bond between a teacher and students is strong and feedback by a teacher is not face-threatening as the background questionnaire reported that all of the 34 students like the English class taught by a native English teacher.

It seems that uptake is an important factor in successful L2 acquisition as well as a good measure to evaluate successful corrective feedback use. However since it is not enough to calculate the frequency of uptake to grasp the students' responses to teacher's corrective, the average number of words per one uptake move was counted to understand it deeply. It turn out approximately 4 words, which represents that students did a partial uptake after a corrective feedback on many occasions rather than made effort to make a whole sentence. Students are reluctant to repeat the whole context and they just repeat particular words or phrases after they receive corrective feedback from their teacher quite often. Therefore it can be assumed that teachers need to encourage students to make full sentences after their errors are corrected.

4.1.3. Interactive Feature of Corrective Feedback

This section looks over interactive feature of corrective feedback. When students make errors and corrective feedback is not provided by teachers, students lose opportunities to interact with their interlocutors. On the other hand, students are able to continue their conversation by receiving corrective feedbacks. The interactive feature of corrective feedback is analyzed in terms of multiple feedbacks and extra turns generated by corrective feedback.

The teacher occasionally provided multiple feedbacks when students failed in noticing the first corrective feedback by the teacher. Mostly it happened when the students did not recognize recasts or prompts and they did not produce any uptake. Then the teacher attempted to give a different feedback type which she did not try before. This multiple feedback occurred 18 times during 2 months. The salient occasion of the multiple feedbacks resulted from the failure in noticing recast or prompts and in that case the breakdowns were overcome by providing explicit correction, which covers 10 times out of the whole 18 times. Even though the extended output came from not noticing teacher's corrective feedback, it also increased opportunities to interact between students and teacher. Additionally to assess whether corrective feedback offered opportunities for students to interact with their teacher, the number of extra turns generated by corrective feedback was counted. 52 (30.6%) out of 170 overall uptakes were followed by extra talking turns, which means that corrective feedback contributed to topic continuation by giving students opportunities to have extra turns to talk.

4.2. Feedback and Responses during Communicative Task vs. Non-communicative Task

The second research question is whether task types affect the efficacy of each

corrective feedback type. To answer the question of the study, 10 communicative tasks and 10 non-communicative tasks were identified and analyzed in the 24 lessons on the whole. In section 4.2.1 the differences in corrective feedback between communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks are analyzed and compared. Section 4.2.2 examines the difference of effects across communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks in terms of students' uptake and repair. Section 4.2.3 shows the difference of interactive feature of corrective feedback between communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks. For convenience' sake, CT is short for communicative task and NCT refers to non-communicative tasks.

4.2.1. Differences in Corrective Feedback between CT and NCT

First of all, the general differences in corrective feedback between CT and NCT are analyzed and then specifically the differences depending of feedback types are revealed and discussed. As shown in Table 4.3, teacher's corrective feedback was more frequently provided in response to errors during communicative tasks than during non-communicative tasks. A Chi-square test of independence proved that this association was significant, $X^2 = 8.87, df = 1(3.84)$, $p < 0.05$. It indicates that the teacher tended to provide more corrective feedback when the students carried out communicative tasks.

TABLE 4.3

Number of Errors and Feedbacks across CT and NCT

	Communicative Task (N=10)	Non-Communicative Task (N=10)	Total (N=20)
Number of errors	197	147	344
Number of feedback	148	101	249
Ratio of feedback to errors	75.1%	68.7%	72.3%

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Table 4.3 shows that both errors by students and feedbacks by a teacher occurred more frequently in communicative task than in non-communicative task. Interestingly, the ratio of feedback to error in communicative tasks (75.1%) is higher than in non-communicative, which means that students received more corrective feedback in communicative tasks. This association was found significant by a Chi-Square test of independence, X^2=8.87, df = 1 (3.84), p < 0.05. The result of Chi-square suggests that the teacher supplied more feedbacks when they performed communicative tasks than non-communicative tasks.

Next the differences between CT and NCT are closely and specifically demonstrated and analyzed according to corrective feedback types (recast, prompts and explicit correction) as seen in Table 4.4.

TABLE 4.4

Frequency of Feedback Types across CT and NCT

Feedback type	CT		NCT		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Recast	57	39	55	54	112	45
Prompts	39	26	12	12	51	20
Explicit correction	52	35	34	34	86	35
Total	148	100	101	100	249	100

Table 4.4 demonstrates the distribution of corrective feedback by the teacher during communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks. The teacher provided more recasts during both non-communicative and communicative tasks. A Chi-square test of independence showed that the distribution of the feedback types was significantly related to whether students received feedback throughout communicative tasks vs. non-communicative tasks, $X^2 = 9.76$, df = 2 (5.99), p < 0.05. Table 4.4 shows that in the non-communicative tasks where the teacher's focus on language forms, recasts (54%)

and explicit correction (34%) were primarily used and prompts (only 12%) which are the technique to encourage students' self-correction were rarely used. Namely, it is striking that prompts were rarely used in performing non-communicative tasks because prompts do not correspond with nature of non-communicative tasks.

4.2.2. Differences in Uptake and Repair between CT and NCT

In this section, general differences in students' responses to teacher's corrective feedback are investigated and students' responses are analyzed in terms of uptake and repaired uptake. First the differences in overall amount of uptake and repair between communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks are described and then the differences of uptake and repair depending on each feedback type are revealed.

TABLE 4.5

Amount of Uptake and Repair across CT and NCT

	CT	NCT	Total
Frequency of uptake	103	67	170
Number of words in uptakes	445	263	708
Average number of words per one uptake	4.32	3.93	4.16
Repaired uptake	72(48.6%b))	56(55.4%c))	128(51.4%a))

Note   a) represents the ratio of repaired uptake per total feedback.
      b) represents the ratio of repaired uptake per feedback in CT.
      c) represents the ratio of repaired uptake per feedback in NCT.

Table 4.5 gives the descriptive statistics for frequency of overall uptake across communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks. It shows that uptake took place much more in communicative tasks (103 times) than in non-communicative tasks (67 times). 1 x 2 Chi-Square revealed that the rate of uptakes significantly differed in communicative tasks and in non-communicative tasks, $x^2 = 7.62$, $df = 1(3.84)$, $p < 0.05$. In addition, to gain further insight into the differences of uptake between

communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks, the number of words in uptakes was counted.

Naturally greater number of words appeared in the uptakes in performing communicative tasks (445 words) than non-communicative tasks (263 words). However Table 4.5 displays there was just slim differences in the average number of words in one uptake move between communicative tasks and non-communicative task. And a Chi-square test of independence confirmed no statistically significant interaction between task type and the average number of words in one uptake move, $X^2 = 0.02, \text{df} = 1\,(3.84), p > 0.05$. From the result, it is inferred that the students were reluctant to respond to the teacher's corrective feedback with full sentences. Instead of making partial correction, students need to try to make whole sentences as well as to have errors corrected. Besides, teachers need to encourage students to spare no effort in responding to teacher's corrective feedback with full sentences.

Lastly, the rate of repaired uptake shows that non-communicative tasks (55.4%) produced higher frequency of repaired uptake than communicative tasks (48.6%). It seems that the result comes from the feature of non-communicative tasks in which only a few slots made by teacher are filled by students.

TABLE 4.6

Amount of Uptake according to Feedback Types across CT and NCT

Uptake(170)	CT		NCT		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
After recast	31	48	33	52	64	100
After prompts	33	77	10	23	43	100
After explicit correction	39	62	24	38	63	100

The descriptive statistics for the amount of uptake after each feedback type across the two task types appear in Table 4.6. In order to answer the research question 2, it is necessary to compare the extent of uptake after recast, prompts and explicit

correction across communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks. The amount of uptake after recast appears similar in communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks (approximately 50 % both), but the rates of uptake after prompts and explicit correction are much higher in communicative tasks than non-communicative tasks. Pearson's Chi-square test was performed in order to test whether the similarities and differences in the frequency of uptakes after prompts and explicit correction across the task types were statistically significant. Results of Chi-square suggested that there were significant relationships between prompts and explicit correction and the task types, $X^2 = 13.93, df = 2\ (5.99), p < 0.05$.

The second research question was investigated by examining the extent to which teacher's corrective feedback and students' uptake and repair varied across communicative task and non-communicative task. That is to say, it paid attention to the benefits of communicative tasks, which give students more opportunities to receive corrective feedbacks from teachers and to produce more uptakes as well as to have errors repaired. It is noteworthy that a teacher provides more corrective feedback to the errors made by students in communicative tasks than non-communicative tasks. Besides striking differences across communicative task and non-communicative tasks were found in the rates of both uptake and student repair. Both uptake and repair were much more frequent in the communicative tasks. It indicates that the extent to which student benefit from corrective feedback by producing uptake and repair may reflect the task type that they work on. In other words, the effects of corrective feedback could be influenced by how communicative the task is. What is more, it is noticeable that the rates of uptake after prompts (77%) and after explicit correction (62%) are substantially high in communicative tasks. It pinpoints that prompts and explicit correction are effective in leading to uptake when they carry out communicative tasks.

One interesting and unexpected results are seen in the average number of

words in one uptake move. No significant difference was found between communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks in the average number of words. It might be due to lack of English knowledge to make complete sentences considering their L2 proficiency. Or it is likely that students tend to repeat the partially corrected parts by their teacher instead of striving to make full sentences. Therefore, it is suggested that students need to attempt to yield complete sentences after receiving corrective feedbacks without doing partial repetition in order to take great advantage of the effect of corrective feedback.

In the non-communicative tasks where the teacher's focus on language forms, recasts and explicit correction were primarily used and prompts which are the technique to encourage students' self-correction were rarely used. It is remarkable that in non-communicative tasks, students mostly engaged in form-focused discrete-item practice and they were not motivated to speak openly and to interact with their interlocutor. The only purpose of the tasks is to complete their mission by filling up the slots made by their teacher in advance. They might be useful to practice structures and vocabulary they learn, but it hardly forms communicative atmosphere. Thus it is difficult to benefit from corrective feedback in carrying out non-communicative tasks.

4.2.3. Differences in Interactive Features of Corrective Feedback between CT and NCT

As analyzed about interactive feature of corrective feedback in section 4.1.3, the differences in interactive features of corrective feedback between communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks are considered in terms of multiple feedbacks and extra turns generated from corrective feedback.

First multiple feedbacks took place 17 times (94.4%) in communicative tasks whereas they happened only 1 times (5.56%) in non-communicative tasks during the 2

43

month lessons. Namely most multiple feedbacks occurred in performing communicative tasks. Next the number of extra turns generated from corrective feedback in each task type was calculated. Among the whole 52 extra turns generated from corrective feedback, 45 extra turns took place in carrying out communicative tasks and only 7 extra turns occurred in non-communicative tasks. That is to say communicative tasks produced substantially higher rate of extra turns (86.4%) than non-communicative tasks (13.1%).

In fact, these results reveal that task factors affect the number of opportunities for learners' output through interaction with teacher. In communicative tasks, it is likely that students continued their conversation with their interlocutor by getting corrective feedbacks when they confront communication breakdown. Considering that students have much more opportunities to have their turns to talk in communicative tasks than non-communicative tasks, it might be natural that communicative tasks make an important role in making great use of corrective feedback by bringing about abundant interaction between students and a teacher.

In summary, it might be argued that task factor (communicative or non-communicative) affects the amount and type of teacher's corrective feedback as well as the number of opportunities for learners' interaction.

4.3. **Students' Overall Perception of Corrective Feedback**

The first research question and the second research question are concerned with actual phenomena which happen in real English classrooms. Meanwhile the third research question is related to students' general opinions and feelings about corrective feedback. All 34 students took part in this qualitative research by answering questions about effectiveness of corrective feedback, their feelings when their speech was

corrected, interactive feature of corrective feedback and their feedback preference. Table 4.7 shows students' overall perception about corrective feedback.

TABLE 4.7

Students' Overall Perception of Corrective Feedback

Students' opinion	Frequency
1. Effectiveness of feedback in learning	Yes: 32 (94.1%) No: 2 (5.9%)
2. Do feedbacks by a teacher decrease students' motivation?	Yes: 13 (38.2%) No: 21 (61.8%)
3. Is feedback facilitative in continuation of conversation?	Yes: 31 (91.1%) No: 3 (8.9%)
4. Preference of the feedback type	Explicit: 28 (82.4%) Implicit: 6 (17.6%)
5. Suggestions	
I wish that the teacher would not correct the same errors constantly.	4
I wish that the teacher could give more time to let me correct my errors myself.	3
I wish that the feedback would be more explicit to understand it easily.	3

The questionnaire informed students' general conception of feedback and the students considered corrective feedback as useful information that supports their learning. Table 4.7 displays that majority of the students (94.1%) admitted that corrective feedback is effective. Quite a number of students (approximately 40%) have experiences to feel inhibited by teachers' corrective feedback even though they (94.1%) believe that corrective feedback is effective and necessary for their English learning. In spite of the negative influence of corrective feedback, the students (91%) believe that corrective feedback is facilitative to continue their conversation with their teacher as shown Table 4.7. Also it revealed that most students (82%) prefer explicit correction to implicit correction. It is noteworthy that the students dislike that their teacher corrects the same errors constantly and that they would like teacher to spend more time in giving corrective feedback.

The third research question of this study is on student's perception about corrective feedback. Perception of corrective feedback is the combination of perceived usefulness of corrective feedback and preference for a particular type of corrective feedback. Table 4.7 showed that majority of the students admitted that corrective feedback is effective and they like to receive corrective feedback from their teacher although they feel inhibited by the feedback from time to time. As shown in the background questionnaire, the students do not mind speaking with their native English teacher and they hardly think that the feedback provided from the teacher threatens their face and shakes their self-esteem. It might correspond to the assumption that learners in foreign language contexts have a more positive attitude toward error correction than learners in second language contexts (Loewen et at., 2009). Besides it should be noted that explicit correction is preferred by the students. Explicit correction conveys positive evidence by providing the correct form like recasts and also conveys negative evidence by indicating that the student's utterance was incorrect like prompts (Lyster and Saito, 2010). It should be noted that teachers should be careful when they correct students' errors in front of the whole class. Even though most students agree on the effect of corrective feedback, they preferred not to be corrected constantly. It does not mean that they do not wish to be corrected. But they want their teacher to deal with their errors tactfully without giving pressure too much.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

This chapter concludes the current study by describing a summary of major findings (Section 5.1) and pedagogical implications (Section 5.2). Lastly this thesis is completed with possible limitations and suggestions for further study in Section 5.3.

5.1. Summary of Major Findings

The current study provides evidence of the benefits of corrective feedback and communicative tasks in L2 classroom. The purpose of the study is to explore a) how teacher's corrective feedback affects students' uptake and repair, b) how teacher's corrective feedback and students' uptake and repair vary across communicative task and non-communicative task and c) how students perceive corrective feedback.

In regard to the first research question, it was found that students' uptake and repair are affected by teacher's corrective feedback. Recasts are the most frequently used corrective feedback type, which accounts for 45% of all the corrective feedback provided by the teacher, but it fails to produce abundant uptake. In the meantime, the rate of uptake in prompts and explicit correction (both approximately 80%) is much higher than in recast (only 57%). When it comes to the rate of repaired uptake in three different feedback types, recasts also yielded the least repair rate (37.5%) while both prompts and explicit correction turn out the high rate of repaired uptake (approximately 65%). Finally, the interactive feature of corrective feedback was investigated by analyzing multiple corrective feedbacks and extra turns created with the help of corrective feedback. The multiple feedbacks occurred 18 times during the observation

period of 2 months. Though the extended output mostly resulted from the failure in noticing teacher's first corrective feedback, it is inferred that multiple corrective feedbacks increased opportunities to interact between students and teacher. Also 52 (30.6%) out of the whole 170 uptakes were followed by extra speech moves, which explains that corrective feedback contributed to topic continuation.

With respect to the second research question, it was revealed that teacher's corrective feedback and students' uptake and repair vary across communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks. The teacher offered more corrective feedbacks when students carried out communicative tasks (75.1%) than non-communicative tasks (68.7%) and also students produced much more uptake in communicative tasks (103 times) than in non-communicative tasks (67 times) and students' errors were more repaired in communicative tasks (72 times) than in non-communicative tasks (56 times). In addition the rates of uptake after prompts and explicit correction turn out much higher in communicative tasks than in non-communicative tasks. Considering the differences in interactive features between communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks, multiple feedbacks occurred 17 times in communicative tasks (94.4%) while they happened only once in non-communicative tasks (5.56%). Moreover communicative tasks produced substantially higher rate of extra turns (86.4%) than non-communicative tasks (13.1%). Thus it is assumed that communicative tasks are more effective in bringing about teacher's corrective feedback, students' uptake and interaction.

In terms of the third research question, the qualitative analysis of students' perception about corrective feedback showed students' opinions and feelings. It was discovered that students perceive corrective feedback effective and that they prefer explicit feedback to implicit feedback although they have felt inhibited from teacher's corrective feedbacks. Therefore it is claimed that teachers need to make effort to

provide a lot of corrective feedbacks to their students especially with explicit correction.

In conclusion, using communicative tasks and non-communicative tasks, the present study revealed that recasts are the most frequently used corrective feedback and that prompts and explicit correction may be more effective in leading to producing more uptakes and repairs. Communicative tasks led to more uptake than non-communicative tasks and it is remarkable that especially the most copious uptake were generated when the teacher provided prompts and explicit in performing communicative tasks. And students perceive that corrective feedback is effective and they prefer explicit correction to implicit feedback. In general, the results of the study clearly revealed that corrective feedback is useful and explicit feedback is preferable to implicit feedback.

5.2. Pedagogical Implications

On the basis of the major findings emanated from this present study, it is possible to infer and suggest the followings. First, the study reports that the corrective feedbacks provided by a teacher offer more opportunities for students to their output and to interact with their teacher continuing their conversation through feedbacks and different kinds of corrective feedback appear to produce different kinds of students' responses in uptake, repair and interaction. In order to improve the teaching quality by native English teachers working in Korean elementary school, teachers need to know how to provide corrective feedback effectively. Even though recasts are the most dominant corrective feedback in the English classroom, students have difficulties in noticing and correcting their errors. The results of this study suggest that explicit correction is the most effective corrective feedback types because students are able to recognize their errors and to lead to getting their error fixed more easily compared to recast. Besides it also helps students to produce more output. This study revealed that

conversational moves were triggered by teacher's corrective feedbacks and students' responses to them. Even though corrective feedback is effective in bringing about students' responses, it was found that students tend to respond to teacher's corrective feedback by only repeating corrected parts. Therefore teachers need to encourage students to make effort to make full sentences without repeating partial sentences to maximize the effects of corrective feedback.

Second, this study demonstrated that teacher feedback and student response patterns differed according to whether the feedback is provided in a communicative task or in a non-communicative task. Corrective feedback occurred actively and effectively in the context of learners performing communicative tasks. That is to say, communicative tasks have great influence on the amount of feedback by teachers and students' responses. Communicative tasks create more opportunities of teacher's feedback, students' output and the interaction between a teacher and students. The results illustrated that non-communicative tasks do not promote the amount of teachers' feedback and students' responses to the high degree. In the tasks students try to fill the slot to give answers for the teacher's question and they only focus on linguistic forms. Therefore it is asserted that the benefits of corrective feedback become more evident in communicative tasks. Especially in carrying out communicative tasks, prompts and explicit correction of feedback types produced copious uptakes. Therefore teachers need to keep in mind that in order to provide effective corrective feedback to their students, they need to try to provide prompts and explicit correction performing communicative tasks.

Lastly, the results of this study confirm that students perceived corrective feedback effective and that teachers need to make effort to give more feedback and interact with students by using feedbacks. Given that students preferred explicit feedback in their questionnaire and in fact explicit correction lead to more uptakes and

repairs than recasts, it is likely to benefit more from explicit correction. On many occasions, the lack of linguistic knowledge hindered the student from detecting their errors even though their teacher provided corrective feedback for their errors. Thus, teachers need to be aware that a high proportion of their students do not notice errors and they want corrective feedback to be explicit and they need to provide corrective feedback tactfully and effectively.

On the ground of the results, it is claimed that teachers can benefit from the knowledge of corrective feedback because it increases interaction between students and teacher. Students and teachers are likely to work collaboratively to develop mutual understanding with the help of corrective feedback. That is the reason that teachers need to consider corrective feedback as one of the important factors when they design language teaching materials.

5.3.   Limitations and Suggestions for Further Study

Most of the corrective feedback studies recruited adult L2 learners and only very small number of studies investigated child learners. It should be noted that this current study was conducted in a Korean elementary English classroom taught by a native English teacher in a rural setting in which class size is really small (only 10 to 12 students in one class). In spite of the rarity of the study, there are several limitations to this study that need to be acknowledged and addressed in future research.

This current study has limitations in that it was short-term in nature and only 34 students were observed, which makes it hard to generalize the results to all of Korean elementary English classrooms. In addition, this study tended to deal with oral tasks such as interview, picture description and it is not enough to measure students' overall English proficiency. To become complete research, it needs to include written tasks as

well as oral tasks even though it is somewhat difficult to obtain oral data from written tasks. Third, corrective feedback was provided from teacher to students in this study and feedback from students to students was not considered in this study. Thus it is advisable that further studies will try to examine corrective feedback between students. It would be interesting to examine the interactional patterns of dyads and small groups composed of students only rather than teacher-fronted interaction. Finally this study performed a questionnaire to investigate students' perception about corrective feedback. For more profound qualitative research, interview like stimulated recall is necessary to reveal how students felt about teacher's corrective feedback on their language production.

This thesis will be concluded with some suggestions for further research and for practitioners in L2 classrooms. First, this study investigated the effects of corrective feedback on immediate output, uptake and repair, but further studies need to take into account how corrective feedback affects L2 development in the long terms as well as immediate effects of corrective feedback. Second, learners may respond differently depending on interlocutor type (i.e. NNS vs. NS). That is to say, Korean elementary students may show different responses to non native Korean English teachers. So it will be interesting and also useful to compare student's responses to corrective feedbacks by non-native speaker English teachers and by native speaker English teachers. Third, overall impact of corrective feedback in classroom setting might be greater for younger learners than for older learners as Lyster and Saito (2010) pointed out. Thus, it will be worth conducting further studies to observe middle school English classrooms and high school English classrooms with the same purpose and methods. Finally, further studies need to examine the interaction between corrective feedback and tasks. Both corrective feedback and task based learning have received great attention from second language researchers and practitioners, but not many studies have looked into interaction between corrective feedback and tasks. This current study revealed that a task factor

(communicative task vs. non-communicative task) is a significant moderator variable of corrective feedback. Therefore, future research could examine other task related variable. Namely it remains to be seen how other task characteristics (e.g. familiarity, complexity, accuracy) interact with corrective feedback in Korean elementary English classroom.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Background Questionnaire

- The Title of the Research : The Effects of Native English Teacher's Corrective Feedback on EFL Learners' Responses in a Korean Elementary English Classroom
- Name of the Researcher : Minsung Kim
- The Purpose of the Study: This study is designed to examine the effects of corrective feedback provided by a native English teacher in Korean elementary school.
- The period of the study: 2013.5 ~ 2013.7
- I will observe your class room for my research for about 2 months and the observation, survey and video-recording are just for my research and the research has nothing to do with your school curriculum and grade.

1. When did you start learning English?

2. Have you ever learned English except from learning in school?

                    Yes   No

If you learn English out of school, from what sources do you learn English? (multiple choices are possible)

    a. Learning center

    b. English Learning workbooks

    c. Watching English TV programs

    d. reading English story books

    e. anything else (   )

3. How much do you like learning English?

        1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

      ← don't like   →like so much

4. What is your favorite part in learning English?

      a. speaking   b. writing   c. listening   d. reading   e. learning vocabulary

5. What is the most difficult part in learning English?

      a. speaking   b. writing   c. listening   d. reading   e. learning vocabulary

6.How much do you like learning English with a native English teacher?

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

    ← don't like   →like so much

7. Do you think that it is helpful for your English learning to learn English from a native English teacher?

    Yes   No

8. What do you think that is the most useful in learning English from a native English teacher?

      a. Opportunities to speak in the class are increased.

      b. I can learn more exact English pronunciation from a native English teacher.

      c. I can enjoy more exciting and fun class with a native English teacher.

      d. I can learn foreign culture from a native English teacher.

      e. Anything else (   )

9. If you have experienced that English classes with native English teachers are not helpful, what is the reason?

      a. I cannot understand what a native teacher said in English.

      b. I cannot ask questions when I want to know what I didn't understand.

      c. I cannot concentrate on the class because it is too difficult for me.

      d. It is so embarrassing to speak in English because I am so shy.

      e. Anything else (   )

Appendix 2

Questionnaire about Perception of Corrective Feedback

The researcher is in the master's program of English Education in Seoul National University. This questionnaire is designed to examine students' perception about corrective feedback and I inform that this survey has nothing to do with students' grade or the school curriculum.

1.Do you think that corrective feedback from a native English teacher is helpful in learning English?

                    Yes   No

2. To what degree do you think corrective feedback is helpful

          1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

    ←Not helpful at all   →very helpful

3. Have you ever experienced you feel inhibited and your motivation gets decreased when you receive corrective feedback from your English teacher?

                    Yes   No

4. When you have a conversation with other students or with your English teacher in English and your errors are corrected by your teacher, do you think the corrective feedback help you to continue your conversation? Or do you think that the corrective feedback by your teacher disturbs the communication flow?

       a. Corrective feedback helps the conversation to continue.

       b. Corrective feedback interrupts the flow of conversation.

5. When your English teacher gives you corrective feedback, what do you prefer in explicit and direct way or in implicit and indirect way?

            explicit   implicit

4. Would you write down your view about corrective feedback?

Appendix 3.

Communicative Task

Oral Picture Description Task

Appendix 4.

Non-communicative Task

Learning Opposites

Flash Cards

Try another opposite

long | full | under | cold | wet | on | short | dry | low | hard

up | fast | deep | inside | big | short | slow | apart | little | off

soft | outside | together | hot | high | down | empty | shallow | over | tall

back | top | far | light | shut | front | dark | bottom | open | near

T: (showing the "long" card) What is opposite of <u>long</u>?

S: (giving the "short" card to teacher) It is <u>short</u>.

T: What is opposite of <u>top</u>?

S: It is <u>bottom</u>.

국 문 초 록

본 연구는 Long의 상호작용 가설(1983)과 Swain의 출력 가설(1985)의 이론적인 틀에 기초하여 과업 유형에 따른 교정 피드백의 효과를 고찰하고자 한다. 학습자는 의미의 협력으로 구성된 상호작용을 통해서 언어를 배우고, 의미의 협력 과정에서 받은 교정 피드백으로 인해 학습자는 언어 형태에 주의를 기울이고, 상호작용하는 피드백이 학습자가 자신의 출력을 수정하는 것을 촉진시킨다고 여겨져 왔다. 이러한 이론들을 기초로 이 연구는 교정 피드백의 효과와 의사소통 과업과 비의사소통 과업을 수행할 때 나타나는 교정피드백의 차이점들과 교정 피드백에 대한 학생들의 전반적인 인식에 대해 살펴보려 한다.

교정 피드백의 효과와 과업의 역할은 제2언어습득 연구에서 중요한 주제로 다뤄져 왔다. 그럼에도 불구하고, 교정 피드백과 과업의 상호작용에 관한 연구는 그다지 많지 않다. 이 연구는 바로 의사소통 과업을 수행할 때의 교정피드백의 이점을 살펴보고자 한다. 교정 피드백은 학습자들에게 그들의 오류를 수정할 수 있는 기회뿐만 아니라 학습자가 교사와 상호 작용을 할 수 있는 기회 또한 제공한다. 본 연구는 한 원어민 영어 교사가 가르치는 한국의 초등학교 영어 교실을 관찰하면서 발생하는 원어민 교사의 교정 피드백의 성향과 학생들의 반응들을 알아본다. 참가자들인 초등학교 4학년, 5학년 그리고 6학년 학생들은 두 달 동안 의사소통과 과업과 비의사소통 과업을 수행한다.

본 연구의 결과는 다음과 같다. 우선 교정 피드백은 학생들의 반응과

교사와 학생의 상호작용에 유의미한 영향을 끼쳤고, 그 영향은 비의사소통 과업보다 의사소통 과업에서 더 두드러지게 나타났다. 또한 교정 피드백의 본질에 관해 살펴보면, recast가 가장 많이 사용되는 피드백 유형이지만 가장 적은 반응과 오류 수정률을 보였고, 반면 prompts는 가장 적게 사용된 피드백 유형이지만 가장 높은 반응 비율을 보였다. 마지막으로 explicit correction은 자주 사용되는 피드백 유형으로 높은 반응 비율을 보였다. 이 연구의 마지막 부분인 교정피드백에 관한 학생들의 인식을 살펴보면, 학생들은 교정 피드백이 학습에 도움이 된다고 믿고 있고, 비록 교사의 교정 피드백에 의해 학습 의욕과 동기가 떨어진 것을 경험한 적이 있지만, explicit correction을 간접적인 피드백보다 선호한다고 드러났다.

이 연구 결과들을 고려해 볼 때, 교정 피드백의 효과는 의사소통 과업에 제공될 때 더 높아지고, 교정 피드백의 학생들의 오류를 수정할 기회를 줄 뿐만 아니라 학생들이 교사와 상호작용을 할 수 있는 기회를 제공해 주기 때문에 교사들은 학생들에게 많은 교정 피드백을 주도록 노력해야 한다.