

GAZI UNIVERSITY
THE INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING DEPARTMENT

**A Comparative study of native speaker and non-native speaker teachers concerning
their feedback giving patterns**

MASTER OF ARTS

Amirollah Dilmaghani

SUPERVISOR: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hacer Hande Uysal

Ankara

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ÖZET

İngilizceyi anadili olarak konuşan ve anadili olarak konuşmayan öğretmenlerin geribildirim verme modellerine ilişkin karşılaştırmalı bir çalışma

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Ocak, 2014

Araştırmalar İngilizceyi anadili olarak konuşan ve İngilizceyi anadili olarak konuşmayan öğretmenlerin farklı öğretim yöntemleri geliştirdiklerini göstermiştir (Árva&Medgyes, 2000; & Braine 1999). Bu nedenle, bu iki grubun farklı geribildirim alışkanlıklarının olması da olasıdır. Fakat günümüze kadar bu bağlamda bir çalışma yapılmamıştır. Bu çalışma Ankara'daki İngilizce sınıflarında yapılan doksan saatlik ses kayıtlarına dayanarak anadil konuşucusu olan ve olmayan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin geribildirim şekillerini karşılaştırmıştır. Ses kayıtları geribildirim şekilleri (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) bağlamında incelenip Mann-Whitney U Testi ile analiz edilmiştir. Analiz sonuçları İngilizceyi anadili olarak konuşmayan öğretmenlerin daha fazla geribildirim verdiğini ortaya koymuştur. Fakat İngilizceyi anadili olarak konuşan öğretmenler daha fazla açık düzeltme (explicit correction), ve dilbilgisi ipuçlarına dayalı dönüt (metalinguistic feedback) kullandıkları ortaya konmuştur. Ayrıca bu araştırma açıklama isteği, değişiklik ve çıkartım bağlamında anadil konuşucusu olmayan öğretmenlerin İngilizceyi anadili olarak konuşan öğretmenlerden oranla daha fazla geribildirim sağladıklarını ortaya çıkarmıştır. Bu araştırma sonuçları öğretmen yetiştirenlere İngilizceyi anadili olarak konuşan ve İngilizceyi anadili olarak konuşmayan öğretmen adaylarını geribildirim şekilleri konusunda da eğitmelerini öngörüyor. Detaya incek olursak bu araştırma sonuçları ışığında İngilizceyi anadili olarak konuşmayan öğretmenler değişiklikleri (recast) fazla kullanmalarının zararları konusuna dikkatleri çekilmeli; anadil konuşucusu olan öğretmenler ise açıklama isteklerinin ve çıkartımın yararları konusunda bilgilendirilmelidirler.

Anahtar sözcükler: clarification request, elicitation, explicit correction, metalinguistic feedbacks, and recasts

ABSTRACT

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF NATIVE SPEAKER AND NON-NATIVE SPEAKER
TEACHERS CONCERNING THEIR FEEDBACK GIVING PATTERNS

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January, 2014

Research has shown that Native speaker teachers (NS) and Non-native speaker teachers (NNS) develop different ways of teaching (Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Braine 1999). Therefore, they may have varying habits for providing feedback for their students. However, no study has dealt with the issue of feedback giving patterns of NS and NNS teachers so far. Based on ninety-hour length audio-recordings of EFL classes in Ankara, the present study compared the feedback giving patterns of NS and NNS teachers. The audio-recordings were analyzed in terms of feedback types (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) and after quantification were analyzed using Mann-Whitney U Test. The results showed that the totally NNS used higher amounts of feedback than NS teachers. However, NS teachers used higher amounts of explicit correction, metalinguistic feedbacks than NNS. By contrast, in terms of clarification request, recasts, and elicitation, NNS teachers used higher amounts of feedback than NS teachers. Our findings have implications for teacher educators to familiarize their NS and NNS teacher students with feedback types. More particularly, it demands teacher educators to make their NNS teachers realize the demerits of using recasts excessively and inform NS teachers about the benefits of clarification request and elicitation

Keywords: clarification request, elicitation, explicit correction, metalinguistic feedbacks, and recasts

Jüri Üyelerinin İmza Sayfası

Amirollah Dilmaghani'nin A Comparative Study of Native Speaker and Non-Native Speaker Teachers Concerning their Feedback Giving Patterns başlıklı tezi 30.01.2014 tarihindeYabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim DalındaYüksek Lisans tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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Acknowledgements

Words are not enough to convey my profound gratitude to my supervisor, Dr Hacer Hande Uysal whose continual inspiration, enlightening instructions, and thoughtful guidance rendered the completion of this thesis possible. Special thanks go to all of the instructors who taught me during the two years of my study in Gazi University. I also appreciate the support and kindness of coordinator of Active English.

I would like to express my deepest gratefulness and true love to my parents whose unflagging support has sustained me through the years of my graduate study.

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CHAPTER ONE:

INTRODUCTION

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Overview

The central purpose of this chapter is to establish the principal focus of the study. Therefore, it starts by providing a foundation for the notions of teacher feedback, error correction, and the differences between native speaker (NS) and non-native speaker (NNS) teachers. Then, the chapter continues with explaining why these issues are significant elements within Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research. In the second half, the chapter moves forward to present the statement of the problem. The two sections following the statement of the problem introduce the research questions and research hypotheses. The last section of the chapter is devoted to defining some principal terminologies regarding feedback types, such as, explicit correction, recast, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, repetition, elicitation, and native speaker teacher, and non- native speaker teacher.

1.2 Background

Promoting learning opportunities for learners has always been an unaltered and overarching purpose in English language teaching (ELT). Researchers working in different areas have been trying to identify instances of learning opportunities and find ways for adapting them to classroom contexts. Such attempts; however, have not been free from controversies. Looking backwards to the history of language teaching, one can notice instances of radical shifts in views and abandonment of certain principles which once used to be considered unchallengeable. There have also been ongoing controversies about issues not resolved thus far. One of these controversies

is the issue of providing feedback to learners' target language productions in second/foreign language (L2) teaching environments.

Recent research in the realm of language teaching has been replete with contradictory arguments for and against the provision of feedback to learners in second language (L2) classes. Scholars on either side of this ongoing debate have looked at the issue from their own perspective, putting forth their claims originating from different theories of language teaching (Duomont, 2002; Ellis, 2009; Long, 1969; Naidu, 2007; Richards 1996). That is to say, along with the shifts of interest to different teaching theories in each era, ideas for and against provision of feedback to learners' productions have also been subjected to changes.

1.2.1. The conceptualization of feedback and error correction within different eras

Environmentalists ruled the language learning and teaching profession till the last days of the 1960s. The main feature of environmentalist scholars (Bloomfield, 1933; Skinner, 1957, 1987) was that they all ignored the potential power of brain. They simply focused on observable behaviors of people that's why it is also called behavioristic approach. Since any type of learning was considered to be a behavior, learning new behaviors demanded frequent practicing and modeling of the right behaviors. Within the environmentalist tradition, scholars believed that learning is a form of 'habit formation'. (Usó-Juan & Martínez-Flor, 2006, p. 262). They were extremely intolerant of learners' errors because it was believed to lead to wrong habit. Therefore, corrective feedback, which was then referred to as reinforcement, played a crucial role in determining which habits were to be truncated and which were to be strengthened. In other words, the behavioristic approach claims that human behavior is the

mechanistically established outcome of a complicated biogenic, socioeconomic activity. Thus, wrong mechanical habits prolong forever.

Advocates of Nativist theory, on the other hand, believed that Universal Grammar (UG) is the essential component of learning. Universal grammar (UG) is a famous linguistics theory offered by Noam Chomsky, UG claims that the capability to acquire a language is hard-wired into the brain (Baker, 2003). UG is common property of all languages therefore it does not need to be taught. Also, regardless of the nature of language all human beings learn the language in similar pace and speed. Nativists had a different view of language learning. In their opinion, it was UG that made language learning possible. Therefore, feedback does not accelerate learning on the grounds that it cannot change the structure of UG; it only temporarily changes language behavior (Carroll, 1996; Cook, 1991; Schwartz, 1993). In addition, Krashen (1982, 1985) argued that language learning is the consequence of the reception of comprehensible input. Based on this view, he maintained that negative feedback can only influence the conscious learning process rather than the acquisition process of a foreign language. From the perspective of Krashen's input hypothesis, it is the subconscious acquisition that is crucial in using the language, and that learning cannot be transformed into acquisition. As it was the case with nativists, Krashen also regarded negative feedback as not beneficial for language learning.

In subsequent years, Gass (1988, 1990 & 1991) argued against such negative convictions towards negative feedback. She claimed that "nothing in the target language is available for intake into a language learners existing system unless it is consciously noticed" (1991, p. 136). Gass believed that corrective feedback acts as an attention getting instrument. She also debated that the teachers' corrective feedback on students' received input would help them notice gaps between their internal linguistic system and the structures of the target language. Therefore, if teacher avoids providing corrective feedback, fossilization may happen. This

finding has also been reflected in Schmidt's noticing theory (1994). Schmidt (1994, p. 17) claimed "noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input to intake for learning." However, he relegated his belief and debated that the more noticing the more learning" (Schmidt, 1994, p. 18). Therefore, Schmidt believed in the positive contribution of corrective feedback. Swain (1995) also supported corrective feedback in her famous proposition. Swain's output hypothesis is one of the theories which believes in efficiency of corrective feedback. Swain proposes three further functions for learner output (p. 128):

- the 'noticing/triggering' function, or what might be referred to as the consciousness-raising role
- the hypothesis-testing function
- the metalinguistic function, or what might be referred to as its 'reflective' role.

That is, Swain claimed that the mere action of articulating the target language have the potential to let students become informed of gaps in their interlanguage system. It also gives them opportunities to think about their problems explicitly. Further, it helps students to test new structures of the target language.

Cognitive approach to SLA considered language learning as a process of decoding and encoding the input learners receive. Therefore, corrective feedback plays a significant role in the learning process in this framework (Bley-Vroman, 1986, 1989). Cognitivists believe that EFL students construct a set of rules and hypotheses concerning the structures of the target language and test them against the structures of the target language. As a supplementary aid, corrective feedback helps learners to build up more target-like hypotheses since they notice the discrepancies. Chaudron (1988) posed that the information embedded in feedback helps the students to verify, reject, and change the hypotheses and rules of their interlanguage structures.

Sociocultural approach considers learning as a process in which humans think and regulate their own manners and cognitive activities (Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000). At first, novice learners regulate their actions with the help from an expert. Later, they obtain the capability to act properly and internalize the appropriate procedures needed to perform the task and get independent in regulating their own behaviors. It is at this stage that cognitive development occurs mainly through interactive dialogue with an expert within the zone of proximal development of learner. Considering the significance of interactive dialogue, corrective feedback is prominent in such interactive dialogue in novice-expert interaction.

Nowadays, there exists a copious body of research for and against feedback. Despite these controversies, recently, there has been a general consensus that feedback facilitates the learning process in one way or another (Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Doughty and Williams, 1998; Lyster, 2001, 2004). That is, many recent scholars believe that regardless of the ‘how’ of the mechanism, corrective feedback leads to improvement in communicative competence (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster 2001, 2004; Mackey & Oliver 2002; Truscott, 1999). Therefore, the application of corrective feedback has to be encouraged by specialists in the field. However, teachers may have their own feedback giving habits. Also, some of these habits might be more pedagogical than others.

Another controversial issue that has recently been the focus of interest is the differences between Native Speaker (NS) and Nonnative speaker (NNS) language teachers and their practices. NS and NNS teachers have been repeatedly told to have very different characteristics, beliefs, tastes, ways of teaching, personality, teaching expectations, and the like (Brown, 2004). Feedback as one major pedagogical teacher move may be of different nature in NS and NNS teachers’ classes. Such differences may be beneficial or detrimental. That is, one group may have detrimental feedback giving habits while, another group may have quite educational feedback giving habits

which supports learning opportunities. Therefore, the very purpose of the researcher in this piece of project will be to explore if NS and NNS teachers have different feedback giving habits.

1.3 Statement of the problem

Feedback and error correction has absorbed different array of research in the history of second language acquisition (SLA). However, the attitudes towards feedback varied considerably from one paradigm to another. Within reception–transmission model of language teaching and learning, feedback was characterized as a reward from the teacher to the student. The teacher was then regarded as specialist in a specific content and feedback was one-way contact, from teacher to learner, to make available information to facilitate the learners' learning process. The information was most usually for the purpose of evaluation and attempted to designate the space between existing performance and the target product (Seltzer & Bentley, 1999).

Within the constructivist paradigm of learning, knowledge is formed significantly by students. However, such learning may entail a wide array of activities like participatory learning, arguments and debates, discussions, and discovery learning. Another aspect of constructivist paradigm of learning is that knowledge is connected to the students' personal life and experiences. Therefore, teaching should in fact help students construct their own understanding from different entities and phenomenon (Costa, 1991; Worsham 1988). By the same token, feedback in this paradigm is a way of helping students make associations and discover different aspects in order to develop personal understandings.

Feedback within co-constructivist paradigm is not a reward or a help for construction of relationships. Feedback within co-constructivist paradigm is a fundamental

element of the learning and is considered more in the form of dialogue. Senge (1990) maintains that “in systems thinking, feedback is a broader concept. It means any reciprocal flow of influence. In systems thinking it is an axiom that every influence is both cause and effect. Nothing is ever influenced in just one direction” (p. 75). The concept of feedback within co-constructivist paradigm is no longer one where the specialist informs the novice concerning the reality of some facts, instead the roles of students and tutor and other participants are respected. And each party has something to contribute and has something to learn, let it be teacher or learner.

Though the positive effects of feedback on learning was looked upon from different standpoints in these three eras, there was an apparent consensus on the benefits feedback could offer for learning occasions. Each presented their understanding of the nature and educational potential of feedback. However, they did not appreciate the views of opposing paradigm with regard to feedback and its benefits. Amongst all these controversies, one thing remains undeniable. And that would be that feedback does indeed present benefits to learning processes (Alghazo, Bani Abdelrahman, and Abu Qbeitah, 2009; Bitchener, Young, and Cameron, 2005; Doughty and Williams, 1998; Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, 2008; Ferris, 1999, and 2007; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Greene, 2003; Guenette, 2007; Hyland, 1998; Lee & Schallert, 2007; Lyster, 2001, 2004; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Polio, Fleck & Leder, 1998). No matter what these benefits are composed of, they facilitate the learning process in certain ways.

As for the SLA research regarding corrective feedback (CF), the study of ESL learner errors and feedback goes back to 1990s, the research evidence so far has been inconclusive regarding the appropriacy of feedback. Truscott's (1996) article was the springboard for the debate over the issue of appropriacy of feedback in the area of language acquisition. There have been a lot of debates regarding this issue, but the

hottest and the most popular of which is the debate between Truscott (1996); Truscott (1998); Truscott (1999); and Ferris (1999).

According to Truscott (1996), CF which indicates to the learners the existence of error in their linguistic output is seen as not only ineffective but also potentially harmful. Truscott (1996) reviewed the previous studies on the effect of written CF and concluded that (1) existing research evidence shows that grammar correction is ineffective; (2) this lack of effectiveness is exactly what should be expected, given the nature of the correction process and the nature of language learning; (3) grammar correction has significant harmful effects; and (4) the various arguments offered for continuing it all lack merit (p.189). In an attempt to back up his thesis against the effect of CF, he argued that in case syntactic, morphological, and lexical knowledge are acquired in different manners, as is maintained by naturalistic L2 learning researchers, and no single form of correction can fit all three. He also mentioned the side effects of grammar correction such as its negative impact on learners' attitudes, as well as the way it absorbs time and energy in writing classes as other barriers to its implementation. Therefore, what teachers should do in writing classes? Arguing that teachers can help learners' accuracy at least as much by doing nothing as by correcting their grammar, Truscott suggests, anything except grammar correction.

In his (2007) review article Truscott once more argued against the effect of CF on helping student writers write accurately. Reviewing existing literature on the issue and combining qualitative analysis of the studies with quantitative meta-analysis of their findings, Truscott once again, found that error correction has a small negative effect on learners' ability to write accurately. He remarked that one can be 95% confident that if error correction has any benefits, they are too small. In his article he further discussed the factors that have probably biased the findings in favor of error correction. He also concluded that research has found correction to be a clear and dramatic failure" (p. 271). Therefore, Truscott (1996) strongly

argued for the abandonment of error correction in language classrooms. In his (2007) article Truscott, once more, announced error correction as not only unhelpful to the accuracy improvement of student writings but also harmful. However, unlike his (1996) article, he avoided any generalizations and strong claims, on the grounds that it is unwise to make pedagogical decisions probably based on scant evidence.

Comparing the differential effects of the three approaches to feedback with that of mere writing practice, Sheen, Wright and Moldawa (2009) also failed to provide definitive evidence that CF (even of the focused kind) was more effective in promoting accuracy than just allowing students to practice writing. The findings of their research illustrated that despite the fact that both focused and unfocused CF considerably enhanced the accuracy of using English articles, solely the results of students in focused CF group was higher than the Control group. That is, they could not provide evidence to show the advantages of unfocused CF.

Some other researchers, however, have recently fought against the claims about ineffectiveness of CF and Truscott's (1996) and (2007) claims, and instead, have argued that CF is of value in promoting greater grammatical accuracy. For example, Ferris (1999), reviewing the existing literature, announced Truscott's (1996) thesis as hasty and lacking a critical examination of existing studies. She detected three major flaws in the research review section of Truscott's paper as well: (a) The subjects in the various studies are not comparable; (b) The research paradigms and teaching strategies vary widely across the studies; and (c) Truscott, as any reviewer, overstates negative evidence while disregarding research results that contradict his thesis (P. 189). Ferris commented that it is virtually impossible to support any generalization, and thus, further research is necessary.

Ferris (1999) considered feedback essential as she assumed many teachers' preoccupations regarding the consequences of the act of discarding feedback: that the absence of any form of

grammar feedback could interfere with student motivation in the writing class, particularly when grading rubrics and writing proficiency examination results tell them that their language errors could prevent them from achieving their educational and professional goals. In addition, studies of university subject-matter instructors suggest that at least some English-speaking university faculties are less tolerant of typical ESL errors than of typical native speaker errors and that they think of students' linguistic errors as bothersome and believe it affects their overall evaluation of student performance (Ferris, 1999). Furthermore, surveys of student opinion about teacher feedback have consistently affirmed the importance that L2 students place on receiving grammar correction from their teachers (Ferris, 1999).

Ferris (1999) further argues that, regardless of inconclusive results about the effect of feedback, the fact that some students do not benefit in accuracy after following teacher feedback is not a sufficient reason for doing away with such correction altogether. Instead she argues that until error correction is proved to be harmful, teachers should keep their own experiences and intuitions in mind, listen to their students, and consider their needs in deciding if, when, and how to provide error feedback, and thus devote themselves to making their corrections even more effective. Ferris went on to suggest that the answer to most of the difficulties teachers and students face in the practice of feedback lies in teachers' preparation, practice, and prioritizing in their feedback practices.

Many studies have been performed in an effort to disclose the secret of the effectiveness of CF, to name just a few: Alghazo, Bani Abdelrahman, and Abu Qbeitah (2009); Bitchener, Young, and Cameron (2005). However, no conclusive comments have been attained so far. Concerning the inconclusiveness of the attained results, Hyland and Hyland (2006) commented that it is difficult to draw conclusions and generalizations from the literature as a result of varied populations, treatments, and research designs of the research conducted. Sheen (2007) also noted that SLA

research investigating CF has suffered from a number of methodological limitations (e.g. lack of a control group as in Lalande, 1982; Rob, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986) which renders any generalizations impossible. Although, there has been a good deal of recent research on the benefits of feedback including Lyster and Ranta (1997); Doughty and Williams (1998), Lyster (2001, 2004), it seems that there are still so many virgin research areas within feedback.

Considering all possible gaps within feedback and error correction research, numerous arrays of studies are encouraged to take the floor to carry out some large-scale investigations. One such interesting study concerning feedback would be investigation of feedback giving habits of NS and NNS teachers, which is the objective of the present research. The present study deals with error correction patterns of the teachers as well. No study, so far, has addressed the feedback giving habits of NS and NNS teachers. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, the present study is the first study on this issue.

1.4. Significance of the Study

By and large, Levelt's (1989) model of speech production might be the most prominent theory within the area of language production. Levelt's (1989) model of speech production was mainly devised to examine the production of speech in the case of native speakers. Some years later, Bot (1992) offered a revised version of the model which was able to account for bilingual speech production.

Levelt's (1989) model is composed of three stages of autonomous processing. These stages are: (a) conceptualizing the message, (b) formulating the language representation, and (c) articulating the message (p. 557) The first stage is further divided into three levels: (a) the interactant specifies the communicative goal. (b) The

interactant turns the communicative goal into several smaller units of goals and devotes a speech act for any of these smaller units of goals. (c) The interactant assembles the needed information to actualize any of these smaller units of goals and systematizes it through explicating the information perspective of utterance, its focus, its topic, and the way it would absorb the attention of partner (Levelt 1989, p116). The second stage assembles lexical items from the speaker's cognition and establishes the language representations of the preverbal messages. The process of retrieving lexical items and encoding them in a phonological process leads to internal speech. The third stage collects chunks of internal speech which are momentarily saved in an articulatory buffer and then executes them in a succession of neuromuscular instructions. This leads, ultimately, to the production of overt speech.

Taking for granted the significance of these three phases, one might wonder what may facilitate the implementation of these language production stages. Any dynamic teacher move synchronic to implementation of these stages is of considerable contribution to the complicate processes underway. Among all such teachers' contributions, feedback can play an undeniable role in the way the learner will move forward in any of the three stages. That is, one teacher feedback may orient the students to the best possible way, producing a piece of target language form.

To make the case concerning the significance of feedback even far stronger, the type of connection between teaching and learning can rationalize the argument. Taking the interactive and dynamic relationship between the practice of teaching and learning into account, the significance of all dynamic teacher moves is revealed to be prominent. Despite the unilateral transmission of knowledge from teacher to students, the dynamic processing view of teaching and learning demand much more interactive

decision-making actions on teachers' part (Askew & Carnell 1998; Biggs & Moore 1993; Watkins, Carnell, Lodge, & Whalley, 1996). That is to say, numerous interactive strategies and processes may promote language learning. Needless to say, feedback can be regarded as one such interactive teacher move which can support the language acquisition process. Gipps and Stobart (1997) consider feedback as a fundamental characteristic of learning and teaching processes which has a great potential to pave the way for the realization of complex learning processes.

Teachers' feedback can considerably support the conceptualization, formulation, and articulation stages. Improving each of these stages means a better output production on learners' part. The present study, hopes to contribute to the current understanding of the relevance of feedback and Levelt's model.

NS and NNS teachers develop different ways of teaching. Therefore, they may have varying habits for providing feedback for their students (Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Braine 1999). They might even have different understanding of students' interlanguage development (Edge, 1988; Kramsch, 1995; 1997; Medgyes, 1994). All such differences may bias them while they take feedback moves. The purpose of the study is to compare the feedback giving habits of NS and NNS teachers in the case of the five types of feedback.

In addition to all these theoretical contributions, the results of the study may also be of help for the following groups of people and institutions in terms of its practical suggestions:

1. For curriculum specialists and/or syllabus designers: They would consider how to design tasks and activities which demands NS and NNS teachers to provide feedback for students in different stages of the tasks. This will improve the learning rate of the EFL students.

2. For language testers and/or teachers: They would know how to use feedback to elicit relevant and target-like discourse for the dynamic assessment purposes of the foreign language learners. That is when learning and teaching are synchronized in dynamic assessment curricula feedback can be significantly helpful.

3. For language teachers and language teaching specialists: They may be aware of their feedback preferences and make conscious choices in the amount and types of feedback they use in their future teaching practices.

4. For the foreign language learners themselves: Foreign language students will find that provision of feedback in their learning environment not only facilitates their learning event but also helps them to produce much accurate stretch of discourse. Therefore, they may demand their NS and NNS teachers to offer them far more feedback than usual

5. For the textbook publishing companies: They may intend to add teacher notes in their textbooks to remind NS and NNS teachers of the significance of feedback considering their specific preferences and characteristics.

1.4.2 Research questions

The present study is going to be conducted to answer the following research questions:

Research question 1:

Is there a statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using explicit correction?

Research question 2:

Is there a statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using recasts?

Research question 3:

Is there a statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using metalinguistic feedback?

Research question 4:

Is there a statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using clarification request?

Research question 5:

Is there a statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using elicitation?

1.4.3 Final research hypotheses

Hypothesis (H0) 1:

There is no statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using explicit correction.

Hypothesis (H0) 2:

There is no statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using recast.

Hypothesis (H0) 3:

There is no statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using Metalinguistic feedback.

Hypothesis (H0) 4:

There is no statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using clarification request.

Hypothesis (H0) 5:

There is no statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using elicitation.

1.5. Limitations and Delimitations

The following limitations are considered in advance for the present study:

1. In each class, there is only one video camera which is directed to the teacher so it fails to capture the student participants in the classroom events.
2. This study is only interested in feedback and error correction habits of NS and NNS teachers. That is to say, other fundamentals of teaching and learning will not be included in the present study.
3. This study will be mainly dealing with numerical data; thus, most descriptive qualities of the classroom events will get lost.

The following items will be regarded as the delimitations of the study:

4. The study will be delimited to comparison of NS and NNS teachers of Active English School in Ankara.
5. The study will be delimited to the examination of feedback and error correction applied by these two groups of teachers.

1.6. Definitions of key terms

Feedback:

Feedback is a teacher act which is produced in order to make a student aware of the well-formedness or ill-formedness of his target language production (Nunan, 1991).

Explicit correction:

Explicit correction refers to the explicit provision of the correct form. As the teacher provides the correct form, he or she clearly indicates that what the student had said was incorrect (e.g., “Oh, you mean,” “You should say”) (Leeman, 2003).

Recast:

‘Recasts’ or ‘reformulations’ are rewording a learners’ non-target-like utterance in a target-like way (Braid,2002; Carpenteretal, 2006; Carroll & Swain, 1993; Farrar, 1992; Fukuya & Zhang, 2002; Hauser, 2005; Kim & Han, 2007; Leeman, 2003; Long et al., 1988; Long, 2007;Lyster, 2007b; Mackey &Philp, 1998; Nicholas et al., 2001; Loewen &Philp, 2006; Oliver, 1995; Sheen, 2006). However, different researchers referred to this phenomenon by varying titles. For instance, Spada and Frohlich (1995) in their COLT scheme, call such reformulations as "paraphrase"; Chaudron (1977) placed such events in the groups of "repetition with change" and "repetition with change and emphasis."

Metalinguistic feedback:

Metalinguistic feedback is one of the most commonly used types of feedback. Metalinguistic feedback is an utterance which indicates that there is an something wrong in students resonse (e.g. “Do we say it like that?”, “That’s not how you say it in French”). Metalinguistic feedback is realized in different forms. It may provide information regarding the nature of the error (e.g., “It’s masculine”) or it may define a word. Normally, the teachers do one of the three alternative in providing metalinguistic feedback:

- i) poses questions,
- ii) provides comments or

iii) gives information aiming at the accuracy of a student utterance.

Example

S: my foots are very cold.

T: Do we add plural-s to irregular nouns?

Clarification request:

i. a problem of comprehensibility in meaning (that is, the teacher has misunderstood their utterance)

ii. a deviant linguistic production (that is, the utterance is ill-formed in some way)

These forms consist of a question or a statement under the forms of clarification requests' with rising intonation asking for further clarification of a previous learner utterance (Doughty, 1994).

Repetition:

This category refers to the teacher's repetition in isolation of the student's erroneous utterance designed for correction. Teachers adjust their intonation in order to highlight an error and to draw the student's attention to it (Lyster, 2007b).

Elicitation:

Elicitation is some teacher strategies and techniques that are used to directly elicit the correct form from the student. There are three main techniques that teachers use to elicit the correct form directly from the student (Ellis, 1998; Nassaji, 2007; Lyster & Ranta, 1997): i) elicit completion, ii) elicit question and iii) repeat

Native speaker teacher:

Native speaker teacher of English refers to all English teachers whose mother tongue is English and whom have learned English as a child as a way of way of communication (Medgyes, 1992).

Non- Native speaker teacher:

Non-Native speaker teacher of English refers to all English teachers whose mother tongue is not English and those who have learned English in their adulthood as a second or foreign language (Medgyes, 1992).

1.7. Chapter summary

This chapter offered the very opening discussion of the scenery of feedback, error correction, and the differences between NS and NNS teachers, and showed why these issues are significant elements within Second Language Acquisition (SLA). In the second part of the chapter the statement of the problem was presented. The two sections following the statement of the problem presented the research questions and research hypotheses. The last section of the chapter defined some principal terminologies of the chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Overview

The central purpose of this chapter is to review some related literature concerning classroom discourse analysis, feedback and error correction, and NS and NNS teachers. Therefore, this chapter provides a foundation for the discussion of these four issues under four main subsections. The initial section examines the classroom discourse analysis and the second section reviews the literature on feedback and error correction. The principal objective of the first section is to present a general idea of the related research and theory on the nature and meaning of classroom discourse analysis. The second part considers issues which links feedback and error correction to each other. And finally, the differences and features of NS and NNS teachers are touched upon in the last part of the chapter.

2.2. Introduction

The field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) has experienced important changes while trying to find its way among the abundance of varying and sometimes conflicting theories. Throughout its history, copious numbers of theories on learning, teaching, language, teaching methodologies, and approaches have been offered. Some of these theories were sharply rejected, some were changed, some were not welcomed, and some others were advocated strongly. Regardless of how they were treated, the very common purpose behind all those theories was to elevate the field and by the same token to improve the quality of teaching and learning events.

Classroom discourse analysis, feedback and error correction, and issues concerning NS and NNS teachers are among the discussions which awarded a good amount of contribution both to the theory and the practice of language teaching. However, the issues regarding SLA research with relation to NS/NNS dichotomy has not been reflected in the literature which encouraged the present research. In the following section, some studies on classroom discourse analysis, feedback and error correction and issues concerning NS and NNS will be reviewed.

2.3. Classroom Discourse Analysis

In the early days of the development of the field of second language learning and teaching (during the 1910-1940s), most scholars had concentrated on language teaching methods for a long time. In that era, researchers were mostly interested in the issue of finding the most efficient methods to teach and learn a second language. Later, scholars noticed that explicating language learning without being concerned with how language learning is actualized was insufficient. The reason was due to the fact that when teachers were teaching a second language to learners; they noticed that there existed a significant difference in the types of discourses used to convey the same concept. Also, these different types of discourses created different degrees of student success. From that time on, some researchers shifted their focus from the examination of language teaching methods to the examination of interaction within the classroom and its impacts on second language learning.

That's why some scholars believe that research in classroom discourse can be traced back to the 1940s (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). In those times, for a long time, classroom discourse analysis was a principal subject in much linguistic, applied linguistic, and educational research.

In the last edge of 1940, the examination of the discourse of classroom context was a locus of attention for heated debate among SLA researchers. And day after day, scholars attempted to make some of the intricacies of classroom discourse known with overpowering interest. However, those trends of investigations were virtually different in terms of their convictions with educational values. Those researchers constructed their analytical categories in connection with linguistic data they obtained from the classes based on their particular beliefs. Gallagher and Ashner (1963) and Taba, Levine, and Elzey (1964), as pioneering scholars of classroom interaction, focused on thinking, defining it as an “active transaction between the individual and the demands of his environment, which is neither fully controlled by his environmental stimulation, nor wholly independent of some mediating interaction”(p. 167). For instance, although their belief was an endeavor to analyze interaction within classroom, it was quite limited. That is to pose that, it only addressed one of the purposes of the interaction. In addition, “several stages removed from the linguistic data and cannot be directly related to it” (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975, p.17). In the forthcoming years, after receiving such enormous attention, research into classroom interaction was globalized and scholars from all over the world started to study it in their classes. During the 1960s and early 1970s, many interested researchers started examining different areas of discourse, including classroom discourse.

This progress of the period was in line with the increase in scholarly interest in linguistics and applied linguistics. And later, the invention of the tape recorder and the emergence of video recording instruments awarded far better contributions to the whole field of recording classroom discourse and analyzing it. Since interest in classroom discourse emerged, a wide variety of the frameworks for classroom

discourse analysis have also been developed. Some examples of early interest in these approaches and frameworks will be introduced in the following section. However, some scholars do not accept the fact that there were so many approaches. For instance, according to Levinson (1983, p. 286), there are only two main approaches to examine the naturally occurring interaction; “Discourse analysis and conversation analysis.”

Among the classroom discourse analysis approaches which emerged, a number of the models of classroom discourse analysis were rooted in some linguistics traditions, some others were rooted in ethnographic frameworks and others on different psychological traditions. Besides all these inflexible approaches, some other classroom discourse analysis procedures have shown to be eclectic in their methodologies. That is to say, they exercised the instruments which appeared proper for their purposes.

The following section reviews some approaches which have been developed through the last forty years to investigate L2 classroom discourse. The first approach reviewed is discourse analysis, which has been the basis for numerous coding schemes in language teaching. The second section reviews the conversation analysis framework. Later, the perspective of the communicative approach on classroom interaction will be explored. Next, it will be shown that there has been extensive recent research interest in employing dynamic and flexible approaches to classroom discourse.

2.3.1. Discourse analysis.

Apparently, discourse analysis (DA) is one of the most widely used classroom discourse analysis approaches. The bulk of preceding procedures to L2 classroom

interaction have employed the principles of discourse analysis in one way or another (Walsh, 2006). Any existing effort at analysis of L2 classroom interaction is very much built on the foundations of what has been achieved through the DA approach. Discourse analysis applies the principles and methodologies of structural-functional linguistics to investigate the classroom discourse (Chaudron, 1988). For example, “May I ask you to help me find my notebook?” is considered as a request in discourse analysis. The procedure of discourse analysis is that when sequences of speech acts and moves have been located, a cluster of pre-established principles will be applied to determine how different sections and the units are connected to construct a coherent discourse (Seedhouse, 2004, p143). Operating in this way, a hierarchical system that illustrates the whole structure of classroom discourse can be organized. Walsh (2006) suggests that “the earliest and most well-known proponents of a DA approach to classroom interaction are Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) who followed a structural-functional linguistic tradition to classroom discourse analysis.

According to Walsh they “compiled a list of 22 speech acts representing the verbal behaviors of both teachers and students participating in primary classroom communication. The outcome is the development of a descriptive system incorporating a discourse hierarchy.” The discourse hierarchy proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) includes:

LESSON

TRANSACTION

EXCHANGE

MOVE

ACT

Walsh (2006) believes that act is the smallest discourse unit, while lesson is the largest; acts are described in terms of their discourse functions. Exchange is the central unit of interaction which consists of a question, an answer and a comment, and so it is a three-part entity. Each of the parts is given the name 'move' by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). The following extract shows (Sinclair and Coulthard's conception of classroom interaction:

T = teacher, P = any pupil who speaks)

T: Now then . . .I've got some things here, too. Hands up. What's that, what is it?

P: Saw.

T: It's a saw, yes this is a saw. What do we do with a saw?

P: Cut wood.

T: Yes. You're shouting out though. What do we do with a saw?

Marvelette.

P: Cut wood.

T: We cut wood. And, erm, what do we do with a hacksaw, this
hacksaw?

P: Cut trees.

T: Do we cut trees with this?

P: No. No.

T: Hands up. What do we do with this?

P: Cut wood.

T: Do we cut wood with this?

P: No.

T: What do we do with that then?

P: Cut wood.

T: We cut wood with that. What do we do with that?

P: Sir.

T: Cleveland.

P: Metal.

T: We cut metal. Yes we cut metal. And, er, I've got this here.

What's that? Trevor.

P: An axe.

T: It's an axe yes. What do I cut with the axe?

P: Wood, wood.

T: Yes I cut wood with the axe. Right . . . Now then, I've got some more things here .

. . (etc.)

(Sinclair and Coulthard 1975: 93-94)

This short extract illustrates the pattern which exists in a classroom context. This extract is a fragment of a larger discourse (a 'lesson'), that is, lesson refers to the whole portion of interaction which happens in a classroom session. Another thing we notice is that this extract also seems to be a thorough interaction. This extract is composed of several transactions which start by transactional markers like 'Now then . . .', and ends with the teacher saying 'Right. . . Now then'.

In fact the teacher in his planning of the lesson gives his pupils a clear indication of the beginning and the end of this mini-phase of the lesson by using the words 'now then' and 'right' in a particular way (with falling intonation and a short pause afterwards) that makes them into a sort of 'frame' on either side of the sequence of questions and answers.

The two framing moves, together with the question and answer sequence that falls between them, can be called a transaction, which again captures the feeling of what is being done with language here, rather in the way that we talk of a 'transaction' in a shop between a shopkeeper and a customer, which will similarly be a completed whole, with a recognizable start and finish. Below is another example of exchange, with three moves:

A: What is the name of the square?

B: Ambassador square.

A: Thanks.

Each of these exchanges consists of three moves. The first move (What is the name of the square?) seems to be functioning as a question. The move in (2) is heard as

giving information, and the move in (3) as thanking (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975, p. 71).

The following example elucidates the nature of act.

Act	Function	manifestation
Evaluation	evaluates	well excellent it's located in that country, but where exactly?
Cue	encourages bid	no it's a bit distant from that place, tell me where it is?

The DA system of analyzing classroom interaction has proved highly appealing to the language-teaching profession (particularly as it uses a linguistic approach) to the extent that the majority of studies of classroom interaction have been based more or less explicitly on it. This includes the many coding schemes which have been developed specifically for the L2 classroom. All coding schemes for L2 classroom interaction are implicitly based on a DA paradigm and embody “the assumption that those features of the interaction of teacher and taught (sic) which are relevant to the researcher's purposes are evident ‘beneath’ or ‘within’ the words exchanged” (Edwards & Westgate, 1994, p. 61).

The basis of the DA approach and of classroom coding schemes is that a participant makes one move on one level at a time. The move the teacher makes can be specified and coded as a pedagogic move, for example, initiates or replies. This one-pedagogic-move-on-one-level-at-a-time coding approach is the basis of the following coding systems developed especially for the L2 classroom: the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) instrument (Froehlich, Spada, & Allen,

1985), Target Language Observation Scheme (TALOS; Ullman & Geva, 1984), and Foreign Language Interaction (FLINT; Moskowitz, 1976); a list of observation instruments is available in Chaudron (1988, p. 18).

The DA approach has attracted substantial criticism on its underlying theories. One of these critics was Levinson (1983, p. 289), who believes that there are strong reasons to believe that DA models are basically improper to the subject matter and thus irremediably insufficient. The following is a paraphrased summary of Levinson's (1983, pp. 287–294) discussion of the main troubles intrinsic in a DA approach:

- * A single utterance can perform multiple speech acts at a time, but DA translates a single utterance into a single speech act.
- * Responses can be addressed not only to the illocutionary force of utterances, but also to their perlocutionary force; perlocutions are in principle unlimited in kind and number.
- * It is impossible to specify in advance what kinds of behavioral units will carry out interactional acts; laughter and silence can function as responses, for example.
- * There is no straightforward correlation between form and function.
- * Sequential context and extralinguistic context can play a role in determining utterance function.
- * It is not possible to specify a set of rules which show how the units fit together to form coherent discourse, as it is in syntax; cases of impossible or ill-formed discourses are hard, if not impossible, to find.

* The textual analyses produced by a DA approach are quite superficial and disappointing, involving an intuitive mapping of unmotivated categories onto a restricted range of data.

However, it needs to be stated that such theoretical problems do not entail that the DA approach is necessarily and practically inappropriate for the analysis of L2 classroom interaction. Thus, despite all such shortcomings, the DA approach has been shown to be an accepted framework within second language teaching field (Edwards and Westgate, 1994; Jarvis and Robinson, 1997; Riley, 1985; Seedhouse, 1997).

2.3.2. Conversation analysis.

Conversation analysis (CA) is a tool for analyzing sequential development of classroom interaction generally for the purpose of carrying out micro-analysis of classroom discourse (Marzban, Yaqubi, & Qalandari, 2010). Its principal originator was Harvey Sacks who was a sociologist. His innovation is seemingly attributed to three different factors: First and the most important one is his familiarity with Harold Garfinkel, an eminent ethnomethodologist. Second factor was Sacks's interest in investigating the organization and systematics of social interaction through analyzing naturally occurring, casual and mundane conversation between friends, relatives, co-workers, and acquaintances. And finally the third was the technology of modern life and audio-recording devices among them which enabled this task of analyzing possible (Seedhouse, 2004, p. 2).

Sacks had a strong conviction that there is "order in all points" in interaction; therefore, he believed the interaction to be systematically organized and deeply ordered and methodic (Seedhouse, 2004, p. 2). Therefore, using conversation

analysis, he attempted to examine how talk-in-interaction takes place and to characterize the organization of interaction from participants' perspective. Doing such an analysis, he claimed that two classes of principles would apply. The first class of principles are those basic and generic principles underlying ethnomethodology, which are: a) indexicality (i.e. participants of conversation do not merely verbalize all aspects of their intended meaning but rather they rely on their shared knowledge and context), (b) the Documentary Method of interpretation (i.e. individuals treat any real world action as a pattern which has happened before), (c) the reciprocity of perspectives (i.e. participants orient to the same norms in order to reduce misunderstandings and improve the intersubjectivity), (d) normative accountability (i.e. norms build up the setting in which action are performed and interpreted by the parties of conversation), (e) reflexivity (i.e. the same set of methods and principles are responsible for both production and interpretation of actions) (Heritage 1984, p. 239).

The second class of principles includes those typical of conversation analysis and is specific to the analysis of those human actions which are manifested through talk (Marzban, Yaqubi, & Qalandari, 2013). According to Hutchby and Wooffitt (1998), the first principle of CA is that there is order at all points in interaction. This can be traced back to Garfinkel's view of people as rational actors who make active decisions rather than being passive “dopes.” As already noted, this was an extremely radical idea in the 1960s, as the dominant linguistic view was that conversation was too disordered to be studied. This idea leads to the concept of rational design in interaction, which is that talk in interaction is systematically organized, deeply ordered, and methodic.

The second principle of CA is that contributions to interaction are context-shaped and context-renewing. Contributions are context-shaped (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005) in that they cannot be adequately understood except by reference to the sequential environment in which they occur and in which the participants design them to occur. Contributions are context-renewing in that they inevitably form part of the sequential environment in which a next contribution will occur.

The third principle is that no order of the details can be ignored *priori* as disorderly, accidental, or irrelevant (Heritage 1984, p. 241). This principle follows the first two and can be seen to underlie the development of the highly detailed CA transcription system, its minute analysis of the detail of naturally occurring data, and its highly empirical orientation.

The fourth principle of CA is that analysis is bottom-up and data driven; we should not approach the data with any prior theoretical assumptions or assume that any background or contextual details are relevant (Cullen, 1998). So in CA it is not relevant to invoke power, gender, race, or any other contextual factor unless and until there is evidence in the details of the interaction that the participants themselves are orienting to it.

CA's focal interest is the study of all ranges of interactions unfolding in different contexts "including both ordinary conversation and institutional interaction" (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 201) or more appropriately the organization of "talk-in-interaction" in Schegloff's term (as cited in Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 201). Mori (2002) and Mori and Zuengler (2008) maintain that CA considers that any speaker's talk at any moment should be viewed as a demonstration of the speaker's understanding of prior talk by the coparticipants, and simultaneously its delivery and

design should be viewed as a reflection of the speaker's orientation and sensitivity toward the particular coparticipants. Furthermore, the recipients' conduct during the current talk or in the next turn is likewise considered to reflect their understanding of the current talk. Thus, CA's aim, which reflects its ethnomethodological origin, has been to uncover how the participants themselves undertake the analysis of ongoing talk and engage in the sense-making process in interaction.

To investigate all the delicacies and complexities of talk-in-interaction in language classrooms, SLA researchers, using CA approach, have made use of recording devices such as sound and video recorder to capture L2 classroom interaction (Qalandari, 2012). The video tapes and sound records of classroom interaction were then transcribed and used as tangible data for analysis. In order to transcribe the interactional data, Jefferson's model was applied. It is notable to say that Jefferson's model is the most commonly used transcription model in SLA research (Ten Have, 2007).

2.3.3. The communicative approach to second language classroom discourse.

The communicative approach can be regarded as an example of a pedagogical approach to L2 classroom interaction. Although one might have expected the communicative approach to have adopted a complex and sophisticated perspective on communication in the L2 classroom, the communicative approach has, most surprisingly, adopted a monolithic, static, and invariant perspective on classroom interaction (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Johnson, 2004). Moreover, the communicative perspective on L2 classroom interaction is not based on any communication or sociolinguistic theory, but rather on a single, invariant pedagogical concept (Kramsch, 1981). However, it should be pointed out at that there is no intended

criticism of the value of the communicative approach to language teaching as such, but rather of its perspective on classroom interaction and the analyses produced. Here the purpose is to examine the elements which constitute the communicative position on L2 classroom interaction and then to review communicative analyses of L2 classroom interaction.

In the late 1980s, a communicative tradition developed which saw much traditional L2 classroom communication as undesirable in comparison to "genuine" or "natural" communication. Nunan (1987), for example, studied five exemplary communicative language lessons and found that they resembled traditional patterns of classroom interaction rather than genuine interaction. Nunan reported the results of the research in this way: "There is a growing body of classroom-based research which supports the conclusion drawn here, that there are comparatively few opportunities for genuine communicative language use in second-language classrooms.....a disconfirming study is yet to be documented" (p. 141).

Kumaravadivelu (1993) believes that communicative approach was still prevalent in the 1990s: "Research studies..... show that even teachers who are committed to communicative language teaching can fail to create opportunities for genuine interaction in the language classroom" (p. 12). The major underlying assumptions of this tradition can be summarized as follows:

1. There is such a thing as genuine or natural communication (Kramsch, 1981, p. 8; Kumaravadivelu, 1993, p. 12; Nunan, 1987, p. 137).
2. It is possible for L2 teachers to replicate genuine or natural communication in the classroom, but most teachers fail to do so (Kramsch, 1981, p. 18; Kumaravadivelu, 1993, p. 12; Legutke & Thomas, 1991, p. 8; Nunan, 1987, p. 144).

3. Most teachers instead produce interaction which features display questions and examples of the IRF/IRE cycle, which are typical of traditional classroom interaction and rarely occur in genuine interaction (Dinsmore, 1985, pp. 226-227; Long & Sato, 1983, p. 284; Nunan, 1987, p. 141; 1988, p. 139).
4. Teachers can be trained to replicate genuine or natural communication in the classroom (Kumaravadivelu, 1993, p. 18; Nunan, 1987, p. 144).

2.3.4. Dynamic and variable approaches to classroom interaction.

Most previous traditional interaction analysis approaches were acontextual. That is, they regarded discourse as being secluded from its context. By contrast to these approaches, some researchers in both L1 and L2 classrooms have been recently developing dynamic and variable approaches to classroom interaction which recognize different varieties of classroom interaction. A dynamic and variable approach to context is typical of contemporary sociolinguistics (Heritage, 1984) and of the ethnography of communication (Gumperz & Hymes, 1986; Saville-Troike, 1989). Research by Judith Green and associates (e.g., Green & Wallat, 1981) has shown that the concept of variable context is applicable to language classrooms.

In second language classrooms, for example, L2 classroom interaction is best understood as divisible into several distinct varieties such as less topic orientation, less activity orientation, more topic orientation, less activity orientation, more topic orientation, more activity orientation, less topic orientation, more activity orientation, as introduced by Van Lier (1988). This may be seen as a movement toward a variable and contextual perspective on L2 classroom interaction. Van Lier (1982, 1988) is concerned with establishing a variable and contextual approach, and the overall goal of his studies is an understanding of what goes on in L2 classrooms (van Lier, 1988,

p. 14). Van Lier asserts that different varieties of interaction occur in the L2 classroom and that these are a result of a different focus on activity or topic, and he identifies four different types of L2 classroom interaction as follows (p. 156):

Interaction type 1. Less topic orientation, less activity orientation

Interaction type 2 . More topic orientation, less activity orientation

Interaction type 3. More topic orientation, more activity orientation

Interaction type 4. Less topic orientation, more activity orientation

Van Lier classified four types of L2 classroom interaction. The very first interaction type, which is referred to as 'less topic-orientation, less activity-orientation,' is a quite normal mode of interaction in everyday classroom conversation. And thus the least structured, letting the most freedom for self-expression. Type 2, 'more topic-orientation, less activity-orientation' is characteristic of the type of interaction that occurs when information is provided in instructions or a lecture. The interaction is one-sided and does not encourage any form of exchange of ideas or opinions. 'More topic-orientation, more activity orientation,' category occurs when information has to be exchanged following specific and pre-determined lines, as in an interview, joke or story. The last category, Type 4, 'less topic-orientation, more activity-orientation' is characterised by pair work, substitution drills, and activities that have very pre-determined patterns.

Abdesslem (1993) identifies four frames in L2 classroom discourse:

Frame 1) Saying the linguistic form of the Foreign Language:"Both teachers and students focus on form. They talk about linguistic rules and/or make sure that particular rules are followed."

Frame 2) Talking in the Foreign Language: "The focus on form is not very pronounced and the messages exchanged tend to be transparent and easy to retrieve."

Frame 3) Transacting in the Foreign Language: "A message oriented discourse."

Frame 4) Interacting in the Foreign Language: "Discourse is person-oriented." (p. 116)

Tsui (1987, p. 345) distinguishes three different types of L2 classroom interaction:

1. Negotiating: "In exchanges where the value of the utterance depends on here-and-now interpretation of the hearer and the negotiation between the speaker and the hearer, the interaction is 'negotiating'."

2. Nonnegotiating: "Matching those in which the student's response is matched against what the teacher considers to be appropriate can be labelled 'matching' exchanges."

3. Nonnegotiating: Direct verbal "those which solicit verbal production from the student can be labelled 'direct-verbal' exchanges."

Hasan (1988, p. 136) identifies five types of interaction in and beyond the English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom:

Type 1. Formal interview

Type 2. Formal classroom interaction

Type 3. Informal classroom interaction

Type 4. Informal classroom discussion

Type 5. Informal conversation

Ellis (1984) identifies five different types of L2 classroom interaction:

- 1) Interaction with medium-centered goals: "Goals where the teacher's primary target is the teaching of the TL" (p. 102).
- 2) Interaction with message-centered goals: "Goals where the teacher's primary target is the teaching of some subject content that is part of the school curriculum" (p. 102).
- 3) Interaction with activity-centered goals: "Goals where the teacher's primary target is to achieve specific pupil behaviors that result in some non-verbal product" (p. 102).
- 4) Interaction involving framework goals: "An efficient teacher is normally thought of as one who can get the pupils to respond instantly (and probably silently) to the organizational requirements of the lesson. Organizational language is only a 'framework' for achieving the pedagogic goals." (p. 126)
- 5) Interaction involving social goals: "Classrooms are places where people socialize as well as learn. In classrooms where all the learners share their mother tongue or a lingua franca, socializing is unlikely to take place in the TL. But in classrooms where there is no common language in which all the pupils are fluent, the TL may be used for purely social matters"(p. 126).

Within the field, there is a common belief that different diversity of communication happens in the second language classroom. Nonetheless, it should be mentioned that five different scholars have looked at the same type of data, i.e. L2 classroom interaction, and have produced five different descriptive systems. This is not to suggest that there are no points of convergence; there clearly are many similarities among the five systems. However, if one focuses on the differences, it seems clear

that the names of the varieties are different in every case, the glosses (not reproduced here) are different, and the writers do not agree on how many varieties there are. It was the case that the five writers used slightly different terms to denote the different varieties: types of interaction (Hasan, 1988), interaction types (van Lier, 1988), frames (Abdesslem, 1993), types of interaction (Tsui, 1987), and interactions (Ellis, 1984).

2.3.5. A general look at the approaches to classroom discourse analysis.

In the same way, the approaches and methodologies in classroom language analysis have been various, so many justifications have been offered for doing research in these areas. Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975, p.6) study made clear that their interest was primarily to take an identified field of discourse and subject it to study in order to understand more about the nature of discourse. In other words, theirs was not a piece of educational research, in that there was no intention to improve the nature of educational practices, for their focus, as linguists, was rather different. In addition, Sinclair and Brazil in 1982, wrote a book exploring Teacher Talk in some detail. The work of Flanders (1970) and that of Bellack (Bellack, Kliebard, Hyman, & Smith, 1966) predated by a few years that of Sinclair and Coulthard, and it was quite deliberately focused on the nature of classroom activity with a view to understanding and ultimately improving classroom work. Barnes (Barnes, Britton, & Torbe, 1971; Barnes & Todd, 1977) was also concerned to understand the nature of classroom talk, as well as the possibilities of small group talk in class settings, and his studies were intended to lead to improvements in practice. Mehan (1979), as influential in his way as all the other researchers just mentioned, developed an important ethnographic study, in which he explored how classroom teaching and learning were structured. From the 1970s onward many other studies, linguistic, applied linguistic,

ethnographic, ethnomethodological have proliferated. Very useful reviews of research into classroom discourse have been offered, among others, by Cazden (1988), Edwards and Westgate (1994), Hicks (1995) and Lemke (1998). Each of these researchers introduced their own model of classroom interaction analysis models.

Through the years, what constitutes the concerns of discourse analysis generally, and those of classroom discourse in particular, have changed. Partly, this has been because of changed beliefs about what the purposes should be of such analysis. Partly, it has also been because new methods of discourse analysis, more generally, have been forged to meet the challenges of articulating what might be seen as an adequate account of language in the social construction of experience. For instance, Gee (1999) offers such an account of discourse analysis, stating that, if asked to propose a primary function of human language, he would offer not one, but two: “to scaffold the performance of social activities (whether play or work or both) and to scaffold human affiliation within cultures and social groups and institutions” (Gee, 1999, p. 1). Basing his discussion on this general position, he goes on to develop an account of discourse analysis whose major preoccupation is with discourse as an instrument for the social construction of experience - a general principle that applies no matter if the researcher is examining classroom discourse or any other kind of discourse. In other words, Gee believes that unless we are willing to engage seriously with the discourse patterns particular to the institution, then we fail genuinely to understand it. It is in language, after all, that all the events within the institution are still primarily accomplished, whether that be spoken or written and, even though language is necessarily to be understood.

Two of the aforementioned models were used in the present thesis. One of them was discourse analysis and the second was conversation analysis. Applying the rules of DA all the classroom interaction was examined in terms of DA classifications. That is to say, extracts were coded as statements, questions, commands, and so on. Later these different discourse transaction fragments were examined in terms of their interaction patterns. In that stage, the researcher found that almost all the interaction networks were realized through “initiation, response, and follow up moves” suggested by Sinclair and Coulthard. Later, these sequences were analyzed and then the feedback types in these exchanges were counted. In addition to DA, CA was applied in the thesis. One of the significant tools of CA which was used was Transcription patterns of Jefferson. That is, some sections of the interactions which needed to be considered meticulously were transcribed based on a simplified version of Jefferson's model cited in Ten Have (2007). Jefferson's model evolved side by side with, and informed by the results of, interaction analysis in 1983. It highlights features of the delivery of talk (overlap, delay, emphasis, volume and so on) that have been found to be live in interaction. That is, they are features of talk treated as relevant in one way or another by the parties to the interaction. Jefferson's model includes around 31 major symbols observed in any forms of talk-in-interaction (see appendix A).

2.4. Error Correction and Corrective feedback

Error occurs when a language learner has inadequate competency in a specific area. That is, no matter how much the students try, the error is unavoidable because they lack the required knowledge. However, mistake takes place when learners do not succeed in performing their existent competence (Brown, 2007). In other words,

mistake is the result of processing shortcomings which learners fail to retrieve the needed objects from their underlying knowledge repertoire (Corder, 1967).

Error correction is believed to play a significant role in developing L2 competence (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Lee, 2004; Brown, 2007). However, arguments concerning the efficiency of error correction have received interest in recent years (Truscott, 1996; Ferris, 1999; Chandler, 2003). Some research findings have shown that (Kepner, 199) error correction is potentially harmful to L2 development. Truscott (1996) debated that error correction in language classes needs to be quitted particularly in grammatical instruction. Such proposition has also been reflected in Pienemann (1984). Pienemann posed his “teachability hypothesis” to highlight the significance of natural setting in the acquisition of the structure of the language. To put it another way, error correction on teachers’ part violates the natural setting norm; therefore, is not valued. Kepner (1991) concluded that those students who did not receive error correction were roughly similar in terms of their achievement compared to the students whose teacher frequently gave them error correction. More recently, Truscott and Hsu (2008) added another report on negative impact of error correction on learning.

On the other hand, some other research findings (Bitchener, 2008) show that error correction is efficient and useful in learners’ language development. Ferris (1999) disputed Truscott’s argument concerning the inefficiency of grammar correction. Ferris examined the research studies referenced by Truscott. She believed that Truscott has exaggerated the findings of earlier researches in order to gain more support for his own proposition. Chandler (2003) also uncovered that the students who were given error correction had more accurate L2 productions as compared to those whom were given no correction.

A similar finding was reported by Bitchener (2008). Bitchener conducted a study through quasi-experimental design and concluded that error correction improved the performance of students in the experimental group. He also reported that their achievement maintained in the same level even after two months. Another scholar who advocated the efficiency of correction in English classes was Guénette (2007). Guénette claimed that the studies which criticized error correction were similar in terms of their research design. However examination of a complex construct as correction demanded many different types of research design. Therefore, these studies might have failed to examine the positive effects of correction. Therefore, it is now believed that error correction have to be considered as an efficient teaching tool unless comprehensive research studies establish its ineffectiveness through strong evidence. Aligning with such assertion in the field, the present research assumes teachers' error correction as an effective educational instrument which supports L2 development. Another important issue which follows error correction is feedback.

Although feedback has been conceptualized differently in the history of second language acquisition (SLA), it has always been an intriguing issue within SLA and is viewed as a means of fostering learner motivation and ensuring linguistic accuracy (Qalandari, 2012). In behaviorist, cognitive, and socio-cultural theories of second language learning, and also in both structural and communicative approaches to language teaching, feedback is regarded to play a facilitative role to language learning (e.g. Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Ellis, 2009; Morris, 2002; Panova & Lyster, 2002).

All possible forms of feedback which might occur in a language classroom include; Explicit Positive Feedback (EPF), Implicit Positive Feedback (IPF), Explicit Negative Feedback (ENF), Implicit Negative Feedback (INF), or Absence of any

type of Feedback (AF) (Qalandari, 2012). These types of assessments or feedback have been studied in the literature before, but they were examined from different perspectives in each of those studies (Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994) Many researchers considered the provision of feedback as crucial to language teaching and learning. Schachter (1984, 1986) has speculated that various other forms of feedback (both explicit and implicit) are potentially helpful to adult second language. As an addition to that body of knowledge, the study underway would attempt to investigate the differences in feedback giving habits of NS and NNS teachers.

2.4.1. Positive feedback.

Positive feedback or assessment refers to all types of teacher strategies that are intended to inform L2 learner of the correctness of their utterances. Positive feedback can be projected for a number of reasons. According to Nunan (1991, p. 195), positive feedback has two main functions; " To let students know that they have performed correctly, and to increase motivation through praise." Positive feedback moves of the teacher in IRF sequence might be realized implicitly or explicitly. It should be noted that positive feedback is not an equivalent to 'positive evidence' (Long, 1996) that supplies learners with models of what is correct in the L2 or makes input more comprehensible in the cognitive sense.

2.4.2.1. Explicit positive feedback (EPF).

Explicit positive feedback generally refers to teacher statements which teachers apply to appraise and elevate student's correct replies. Explicit positive feedback is realized through teacher expressions such as 'bravo, great answer, good, very good, excellent, perfect,' and the like. Vicente-Rasoamalala (1988) classified explicit positive feedback into four different types. These four types have been presented in Table 2.1

Table 2.1.*Types of explicit Positive Feedback by Vicente-Rasoamalala (1998, p. 164)*

Types of explicit Positive Feedback	Definition
Positive Statement	Teacher's 'approval of a learner correct utterance' that includes 'acknowledgments' and 'praise markers'.
Non-corrective Repetitions	Echo after learner correct responses to reinforce them and confirm correctness
Isolated Declarative Repetition	Exact repetition
Incorporated Declarative Repetition	Incorporation of the totality or part of a learner utterance into a longer statement to provide additional information.

2.4.1.2. Implicit positive feedback (IPF).

Implicit positive feedback could be realized through different types of events. Seedhouse (2004) maintained that lack of repair work and teacher's moving to the following item and also prompt for another student is understood by all parties as signifying that the learner has correctly produced the targeted string of linguistic forms. He provided the extract 2.1 below to illustrate how a lack of a verbally expressed positive evaluation of the learner utterance in Line 2 is comprehended by all the students as positive evaluation:

(2.1)

- 1 T: I have. fine. I've got a trumpet. >have you got a trumpet Anna?<
- 2 L15: ah ererm yes I have
- 3 T: I've got a radio. have you got a radio e:r (.) e:r Alvin?
- 4 L16: yes I have.

(Seedhouse, 1996, p. 473)

Implicit positive feedback could also be actualized via Prosody. Hellermann (2003) illustrated how prosody functions as a cue for implicit positive feedback. He noted that the prosody carries out different interactive work in classroom discourse that is implied as the projection of implicit positive feedback. These four prosodic indicators of implicit positive feedback are as follows:

- (a) Rhythmical placement in synch with student response
- (b) Falling pitch contour
- (c) Mid level pitch
- (d) Longer duration than student responses (p. 88)

Implicit positive feedback can also be realized naturally through repetition. Vicente-Rasoamalala (1998) presented an illustration of implicit positive feedback which was manifested through two types of repetition.

Table2.2

Types of Implicit Positive Feedback by Vicente-Rasoamalala (1998, p. 165)

Types of Implicit Positive Feedback	Definition
Isolated InterrogativeRepetition	Exact repetition of all or part of the learner utterance in a rising tone with no additional meaning seeking learner confirmation of the utterance.
Incorporated InterrogativeRepetition	Incorporation of the student utterance in a question by which the teacher looks for additional information.

4.4.4. Negative feedback.

Negative feedback or as it is mainly known as corrective feedback in second language acquisition, refers to any teacher behavior or utterance which is intended to inform the learners of the incorrectness of their response (Qalandari, 2012). Chaudron (1977) defines corrective feedback as “any reaction of the teacher which

clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance” (p. 31). Negative feedback moves of the teacher in IRF sequence might be realized either implicitly or explicitly.

2.4.4.1. Explicit negative feedback.

Explicit negative feedback refers to any type of teacher statements which are intended to overtly signify that a second language learner's output is not considered to be correct or appropriate according to the rules of the target language. These types of feedback could be verbalized in different ways and researchers studying feedback attempted to develop their own categorizations of different realizations of explicit feedback. Though, in most cases, some researchers might refer differently to the same event i.e. they make use of different labels to describe the same occurrence of feedback (Ellis, 2008; Leeman, 2003; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Varonis and Gass, 1985, Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1988). In Table 2.2 Vicente-Rasoamalala's categorization of different manifestations of explicit negative feedback have been provided.

Table 2.3.

Types of Explicit Negative Feedback by Vicente-Rasoamalala's (1988, p. 169)

Categories	Definitions	Examples
Provide	“The teacher provides the correct answer or linguistic item when the student has been unable to say it or when no response is offered”.	S: Je déteste les calves T: Chauveestcalvo [writing 'chauve' and 'chauves' on the BB]. Alors, tudétestes les chauves.
Adjustment	“The teacher alters part of the student's utterance to achieve accuracy or to make it more complete”.	S: It's a fruit what the gorilla eat? T: It's a fruit that the gorilla eats↑
Explanation	“The teacher provides information as to the cause or type of learner error', facts from the FL or further information about the adjusted utterance in an explicit way”.	S: J'aime les animalesparce qu'ilssontjolis. T: Le pluriel d'animaletanimaux.

Other classifications also exist in SLA literature of which most differ slightly in what they are referring to, as mentioned above (Ellis, 2008; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1988). An example of such classification of different manifestations of explicit negative feedback was presented by Rod Ellis (2008, p. 228). His classification was composed of three types of explicit negative feedback; meta-linguistic feedback, elicitation, and explicit correction.

Meta-linguistic feedback is a statement which attempts to make learners aware of the correctness of their utterances through comments, information, and questions. Meta-linguistic feedback could be roughly equated with Vicente-Rasoamalala's explanation category. Elicitation refers to any type of question that is intended to elicit or extract a target like form of an utterance which was previously produced erroneously. Lyster and Ranta (1997, p. 48) claim that elicitation is a type of technique that makes the student find the correct form in three possible ways. These three ways are:

- i) The teacher starts a sentence making a strategic pause and invites the learner to complete it filling the blank with the correct form
- ii) The teacher attempts to solicit the correct form by means of questions
- iii) The teacher asks the student to reformulate his/her utterance

And finally, explicit correction refers to explicit provision of target like form of previous erroneous utterances. Explicit correction could also be roughly equated with Vicente-Rasoamalala's provide category.

2.4.4.2. *Implicit negative feedback.*

Implicit negative feedback refers to all covert corrections which entice language learners to infer from the comprehension problems of their interlocutor that their utterance was incorrect (Qalandari, 2012). These types of corrections embrace all implicit statements like clarification request, confirmation checks, failures to understand, and requests for elaboration (Carroll and Swain, 1993, p. 361). Ellis (2008, p. 227) distinguished between four different realizations of negative implicit feedback which he extracted from previous studies. These four realizations are request for clarification, confirmation check, recast, and repetition. Clarification requests are types of feedback which notify the students that their output was not well-formed and their interlocutor couldn't successfully make sense of his utterances because of a problem in either comprehensibility or accuracy, or both. That is to say they are required to exert some modification to their output. Clarification requests can be introduced by phrases like "would you please repeat that," "pardon" or "What do you mean exactly by the word X."

Confirmation checks are utterances which immediately follow the previous participants' statements and it is projected to confirm the comprehensibility of the utterance. Recast is a statement by teacher which reformulates, rephrases or alters a learner's utterance in its totality or only a fraction of it and excludes erroneous parts of utterances. Since recasts are realized implicitly, they could not foreshadowed by any verbalized phrases. Lyster and Ranta (1997, p. 47) maintained that "some recasts are more salient than others in that they may focus on one word only, whereas others incorporate the grammatical or lexical modification into a sustained piece of discourse. They also consider translation as one type of recast if it is directed at translating a student's utterance in L1 into target language. Lyster and Ranta(1995)

regarded translation as a separate type of feedback but later in 1997 they merged recasts and translation as single category relying on two motives. "First, translation occurred infrequently, and second, when it did occur, translation clearly served the same function as a recast" (p. 47).

Repetitions are teacher statements in which teacher repeats students' ill-formed utterances in a way that underlines the error. It's notable to say that repetition occurs less frequently in isolation and as a mere act of repetition itself. In most cases they happen within other types of feedbacks such as clarification requests, meta-linguistic feedback, elicitation, and explicit correction. Lyster & Ranta (1997, p. 48) illustrated this embeddedness of repetition within other types of feedback through some simple examples. These examples are: "What do you mean by X?" in which repetition occurs within clarification requests, "No, not X. We don't say X in French." in which repetition occurs within a meta-linguistic feedback, "How do we say X in French?" in which repetition occurs within elicitation, and "We don't say X in French; we say Y." in which repetition occurs within an explicit correction.

2.4.5. Implicit vs. explicit as a continuum, not as a dichotomous concept.

Although we tried to differentiate between implicit negative feedback and explicit negative feedback through their different manifestations mentioned above, most of the time it's not possible to make a clear-cut distinction between them. In most cases the cutting edge between them becomes too blurry to categorize a specific type of feedback as being implicit or explicit. Moreover, it is believed that the implicit/explicit distinction is not a matter of dichotomy, rather they could be readily located on a continuum, at the one end of this continuum feedback types are supposed to be more explicit and at the other end they are believed to be more implicit. SLA

research has previously witnessed studies which located implicit/explicit distinction on a continuum. Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994, p. 471) presented a "regulatory scale" to classify the degree of implicitness/explicitness of teachers' feedback to students' erroneous utterances. Their scale had thirteen levels descending from more implicit levels (level 0) to more explicit levels (level 12). Their regulatory scale has been provided in Table 2.4 below.

Table 2.4

Regulatory Scale-Implicit (strategic) to Explicit (Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994, p. 471)

Level	Characteristics
Level 0	Tutor asks the learner to read, find the errors, and correct them independently, prior to the tutorial.
Level 1	Construction of a "collaborative frame" prompted by the presence of the tutor as a potential dialogic partner.
Level 2	Prompted or focused reading of the sentence that contains the error by the learner or the tutor.
Level 3	Tutor indicates that something may be wrong in a segment (e.g., sentence, clause, line)- "Is there anything wrong in this sentence?"
Level 4	Tutor rejects unsuccessful attempts at recognizing the error
Level 5	Tutor narrows down the location of the error (e.g., tutor repeats or points to the specific segment which contains the error).
Level 6	Tutor indicates the nature of the error, but does not identify the error (e.g., "There is something wrong with the tense marking here").
Level 7	Tutor identifies the error ("You can't use an auxiliary here").
Level 8	Tutor rejects learner's unsuccessful attempts at correcting the error
Level 9	Tutor provides clues to help the learner arrive at the correct form (e.g., "It is not really past but something that is still going on").
Level 10	Tutor provides the correct form.
Level 11	Tutor provides some explanation for use of the correct form.
Level 12	Tutor provides examples of the correct pattern when other forms of help fail to produce an appropriate responsive action.

This regulatory scale is one of the most comprehensive models developed on the implicit/explicit continuum. The present project would benefit considerably from this model on making distinctions between implicit/explicit types of teacher's negative feedback in the third turn of IRF sequences. However, demonstrating a detailed and in-depth analysis of this model and its underlying systems are beyond the scope of the present project.

2.4.6. Categories of feedback by Lyster and Ranta (1997).

Lyster and Ranta (1997) distinguished six different types of feedback used by the teachers in their study.

2.4.6.1. Explicit correction.

Lyster and Ranta used explicit correction to refer to the explicit provision of the correct response. When the teacher offers the correct response, he or she explicitly shows that what the learner had produced was improper (e.g., "Oh, you mean," "this have to said in this way").

(4) (T4-Science-Mar. 17)

St: *Demarche: Nous coupons les pailles en six ditferent« grosseursetattache les pailles avec le mbangomnu'. [Error-multiple]*

T4: *Euh, David, excuse-moi. Je veuxquetute serves du mot "longueur." Vousavez coupe les pailles en ditferenteslongueurs. Pas grosseurs. [FB-explicit]*

(5) (T6-Science-Apr. 27)

St: *La note pour le shot. [Error-LI]*

T6: *Oh, pour la, oh, pour ca. Tuveux dire pour la piquire. Piquire. Oui? [FB-explicit]*

(example from Lyster&Ranta, 1997, p. 46)

2.4.6.2. Recasts.

‘Recasts’ or ‘reformulations’ are rewording a learners’ non-target-like utterance in a target-like way (Braid,2002;Carpenteretal.,2006; Carroll & Swain, 1993; Farrar, 1992; Fukuya& Zhang, 2002; Hauser, 2005; Kim & Han, 2007; Leeman, 2003; Long et al., 1988; Long, 2007;Lyster, 2007b; Mackey &Philp, 1998; Nicholas et al., 2001; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Oliver, 1995; Sheen, 2006). However, different researchers referred to this phenomenon by varying titles. For instance, Spada and Frohlich

(1995) call such reformulations as "paraphrase" in their COLT scheme; Chaudron (1977), on the other hand, places such events in the groups of "repetition with change" and "repetition with change and emphasis."

Examples:

NNS: What doctor say?

NS: What is the doctor saying?

(6) (T6-Language Arts-Apr. 3)

St: *L'eau erable?* [Error-grammatical] T6: *L 'eau d'erobk:* [FB-recast] *C'est bien.* (7)

(T 4-5science-Mar. 1 7)

St: *Parceque it veutjustelui pour etre chaud.* [Error-grammatical]

T4: *Oh. Quelqu'un qui veutjusteavoir la chaleur pour lui-meme.* [FB-recast]

2.4.6.3. Clarification requests

Clarification requests' implicitly indicate to learners either that there is (Lyster&Ranta, 1997):

i. a problem of comprehensibility in meaning (that is, the teacher has misunderstood their utterance) or

ii. a deviant linguistic production (that is, the utterance is ill-formed in some way)

These forms consist of a question or a statement under the forms of 'clarification requests' with rising intonation, asking for further clarification of a previous learner utterance (Doughty, 1994).

Examples

S: Est-ce que, est-ce que je peux faire une carte sur le [“Can, can I make a card on the... for my...]... pour mon petit frère sur le computer? (Multiple errors) [“Little brother on the computer?”]

T: Pardon? [“Pardon?”] (The teacher repeats the student’s error to highlight it and adjusts intonation to draw the student’s attention to it).

S: Le... le girafe? (gender error) [“The... the giraffe?”]

T: Le girafe? [“The giraffe?”]

(Lyster & Ranta, 1997)

2.4.6.4. Repetition

This category refers to the teacher’s repetition of the student’s erroneous utterance designed for correction in isolation. Teachers adjust their intonation in order to highlight an error and to draw the student’s attention to it

Examples:

S: When does start the film?

T: When does ([writing ‘when does’ on the BB] start the film?... Al revès [Cat].

When does start the film?’ is not correct.

S: When does the film start?

(Vicente-Rasoamalala, 1998)

2.4.6.5. Metalinguistic Feedback.

Metalinguistic feedback is one of the most commonly used types of feedback. Metalinguistic feedback is an utterance which indicates that there is something wrong in students response (e.g. “Do we say it like that?”, “That’s not how you say it in French”). Metalinguistic feedback is realized in different forms. It may provide information regarding the nature of the error (e.g., “It’s masculine”) or it may define a word. Normally, the teachers do one of the three alternative in providing metalinguistic feedback:

- i) poses questions,
- ii) provides comments or
- iii) gives information aiming at the accuracy of a student utterance.

Example

S: my feet are very cold.

T: Do we add plural-s to irregular nouns?

2.4.6.6. Elicitation

Elicitations are some teacher strategies and techniques that are used to directly elicit the correct form from the student. There are three main techniques that teachers use to elicit the correct form directly from the student (Ellis, 1998; Nassaji, 2007; Lyster & Ranta, 1997): i) elicit completion, ii) elicit question, and iii) repeat.

Table 2.5
Types of Elicitation

Categories	Definitions	Examples
Elicitcompletion	Teachers may ‘elicit completion’ of their Own utterance by strategically pausing to allow students to fill in the blank	S: It’sthe/kaing/ofrock. T: →It’snot /kaing/.→It’s... (Vicente-Rasoamalala,1998)
Elicitquestion	Teachers use questions to elicit correct forms from the student.	T: <i>Lepluriel</i> ’ <i>hôpital</i> ’est? S: <i>Hôpitals</i> . T: <i>Non.</i> → <i>Commentc’estalors</i> ? S: <i>Hôpitaux</i> . (Vicente-Rasoamalala,1998)
Repeat	The teacher explicitly requests the student to repeat the utterance/-s, with the intent to have the student self-correct.	S: Japan is one of the most adaptable / nations/. T: /nei/tion.→Repeat. (Vicente-Rasoamalala,1998)

2.4.7. Studies on the efficiency of different feedback types

Research findings have been frequently obtaining mixed results on the degree of the effectiveness of feedback types. Ting (2010) classified feedbacks into two groups, namely, recast and prompt. In his view, recast is the feedback type that provides learners with correct reformulation. On the other hand, prompts are those feedbacks that withhold correct forms and encourage learners to self-correct (including clarification requests, metalinguistic clues, repetition and elicitation of the correct form. Ting (2010) claims that prompts inspire students to make more accurate and target-like output, and thus are good learning opportunities. Lyster (2001) believes that recasts and prompts can be equally effective because they have different cognitive functions. Lyster argues that recasts facilitate the internalisation of new knowledge and the prompts improve the control over previously internalized knowledge. Nassaji (2009) argued that Recasts and prompts can be both equally

useful in communicative language classrooms. On the other hand, Doughty and Varela (1998, p. 114) debated that recasts are “potentially effective, since the aim is to add attention to form to a primarily communicative task rather than to depart from an already communicative goal in order to discuss a linguistic feature.” Loewen and Philp (2006, p. 537) also regarded recasts as “pedagogically expeditious” and “time-saving” since they have the potential to let the learners both focus on meaning and maintain control over the grammatical accuracy.

Other scholars also advocated recasts as an effective CF technique. Doughty (2001) and Doughty and Varela (1998) claimed that recasts are implicit, unobtrusive, and contingent on the learner’s intended meaning. Such finding has been repeatedly reported in the literature (Leeman, 2003; Long, 1996; Ohta, 2000; Oliver, 1995). Ellis and Sheen (2006) strongly advocated recasts as a beneficial teaching strategy to improve the acquisition of new language forms. They argued that “recasts will prove more effective in promoting acquisition of new linguistic features, although this remains to be demonstrated empirically, as the majority of existing studies examined features of which learners already have partial knowledge” (p.417).

Lyster and Mori (2006) found that when recasts are accompanied with choral and other types of repetition they are easily noticed by the students. Therefore, they notice the gap between their erroneous utterance and the recast provided by their teacher and move to project their repair turn. Lyster and Mori (2006) reported that recasts play two distinct parts, one corrective and the other pragmatic role. Recasts unambiguously help teachers to both focus on form and justify the relevance of students’ statement to ongoing discussion. Carpenter, Jeon, MacGregor and Mackey (2006) found that learners recognized recasts more easily when they heard the learners’ original utterances before receiving the recasts. Their finding was similar to

Saxton's (1997) report. Saxton (1997) in her contrast theory of negative evidence argued that the immediate context of the interaction not any nonverbal cues show whether recasts has occurred or not. Among these for and against studies some scholars believe that both feedback types should be used (e.g., Ammar & Spada, 2006; Lyster, 2002).

Loewen and Philp (2006, p. 537), on the other hand, claimed that prompts swerve learners' focus from interaction to the accuracy of the linguistic form and forces them to correct their errors. Yang and Lyster (2010) studied the effects of recasts and prompts in a EFL class and concluded that prompts were more effective in teaching the use of regular past tense. Some other researchers also argued that these feedback types have to be applied in accordance with learner characteristics. Ammar and Spada (2006), for example, compared the effectiveness of recasts and prompts among three experimental groups and in immediate and delayed post-test. They found that, the prompt group outperformed the recast group on the immediate posttest and the gap between the two groups continued to grow at the time of the delayed posttest. The difference between the two groups was statistically significant on both posttests. However, they concluded that while prompts and recasts were equally effective for high-level students, only prompts were effective for low-level students. Thus they suggest the application of both types of feedbacks in classroom. Their conclusion was well aligning with Lyster's finding (2002, p.251) who claimed that teachers should use these feedback types "in accordance with their students' language abilities and content knowledge."

Rezaie and Derakhshan (2011) compared metalinguistic feedback and recasts. They found that metalinguistic feedback was more effective than recast in task-based instruction of conditionals and wish statements. This result aligns well with previous

literature (Dabaghi, 2008). Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam (2006) investigated the differential effects of explicit feedback (i.e. metalinguistic feedback) and implicit feedback (i.e. recast) and concluded that metalinguistic feedback is considerably more beneficial over recast as a CF in task-based grammar instruction.

Rezaie and Derakhshan also claimed that implicit CFs are usually left unnoticed (e.g. recasts) and hence their corrective effect is less successful when compared with more explicit types of feedbacks. They further claimed that in the case of recasts, usually the teachers' intent and the learners' interpretation do not match and students judge teacher recasts as mere teachers' repetition of their utterances (p. 661). Panova and Lyster (2002) also arrived at similar findings in their research in Canadian ESL context. They found that prompts lead to more learning than recasts. Also, Lyster and Ranta (1997) found that recasts create ambiguity because the students do not know whether their teacher has provided comment or content. Lyster and Ranta (1997) also believed that metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, clarification requests, and teacher repetition invite learners to either self-correct or to correct their peers and thus removes this ambiguity. Lyster (2004) conducted a quasi-experimental research to compare and contrast the impacts of recasts and prompts on learners' rule-based systems. He concluded that prompts were efficient than recasts particularly on the written assignments since they lead to much improvements in learners' interlanguage. He also found that students' learners who received prompts were more successful in remembering than those who received recasts.

2.7. NS/Non-NS Teacher Dichotomy

The meanings of "native speaker" (NS) and "non-native speaker" (NNS) are not straightforward concepts to define. Some portion of the reason can be observed in the

fact that language varieties are themselves considerably wide. However, the complete extent of NS variation is not completely relevant to language teaching profession. Amongst numerous characterizations of who a native speaker is, Cook's (1999) definition seems to be one of the most standard. Cook defines a native speaker as the one who obtains his/her first language in their childhood. Once Medgyes (1992, p. 343) maintained that NNS teachers have to be compared with NS teachers, not "Scottish shepherds or twelve-year-old Australian schoolchildren." That is, the absence of correspondence between Standard English and native English particularly disorients the concept of native English speaker.

Nowadays, in more than 80 different parts of the world, English is applied extensively or is the official language of communication (Crystal, 2003). Among all these territories, the major controversy is that which of the world's Englishes are in fact native varieties. Foley (2006) mentions Singaporean English as an example which can be considered as both a home language and a second language. Therefore, Singaporean teachers could be considered by some scholars as NS and by some other scholars as NNS teachers.

Another issue is that in most monolingual or "inner circle" countries such as England as described in Kachru (1985), immigration has increased the numbers of multilingual speakers. Therefore, the present linguistic and ethnic classifications cannot appropriately picture the complexity of a person's or a community's use of language. Also, the individual's native language is likely to be less strong feature through which the person is recognized with (Leung, Harris, & Rampton, 1997).

While the native/non-native speaker argument appears to have diminished, a research interest on the crucial role played by NS and NNS teachers in the teaching/learning

equation has considerably increased. Nonetheless, despite all those extended number of research papers, merely Medgyes (1994), has written a full-length book on the subject, entitled the 'non-native teacher'. Medgyes maintains that NS and NNS teachers belong to "two different species" (p. 27). His assertion is rooted on four hypotheses:

1. NS and NNS teachers differ in terms of their language proficiency;
2. They differ in terms of their teaching behaviour;
3. The discrepancy in language proficiency accounts for most of the differences found in their teaching behaviour;
4. They can be equally good teachers in their own terms.

Table 2.6

Differences between NS/Non-NS teachers (Medgyes, 1994, pp. 58-59)

NS-teachers	Non-NS-teachers
Own use of English	
Speak better English	Speak poorer English
Use real language	Use 'bookish' language
Use English more confidently	Use English less confidently
General attitude	
Adopt a more flexibal approach	Adopt a more guided approach
Are more innovative	Are more cautious
Are less empathetic	Are more empathetic
Attend to perceived needs	Attend to real needs
Have far-fetched expectations	Have realistic expectations
Are more casual	Are more strict
Are less committed	Are more committed
Attitude to teaching the language	
Are less insightful	Are more insightful
Focus on	Focus on
Fluency	Accuracy
Meaning	Form
Language in use	Grammar rules
Oral skills	Printed word
Colloquial registers	Formal registers
Teach items in context	Teach items in isolation
Prefer free activities	Prefer controlled activities
Favour groupwork/pairwork	Favour frontal work

Use a variety of materials	Use a single textbook
Tolerate errors	Correct/punish for errors
Set fewer tests	Set more tests
Use no/less L1	Use more L1
Resort to no /less translation	Resort to more translation
Assign less homework	Assign more homework
Attitude to teaching culture	
Supply more cultural information	Supply less cultural information

The table 2.6. above has been taken from Medgyes' (1994). Medgyes conducted a survey research using about 330 participants from 11 different countries. The table 2.6. provides a brief synopsis of the results of his research on the differences between NS/NNS teachers. As is shown in Table 2.6., there are some noteworthy differences in teaching practices between the two groups of teachers. It is notable to say that the differences do not entail any sense of priority for one or another group (Medgyes, 1994).

However, the differences explicated by Medgyes (1994) have some underlying problems. Since Medgyes' sample was moderately outsized, the interpretation of the results might be faulty in some respects. Also, all the findings of the research were extracted from questionnaires filled by the participants. Therefore, the self-reported responses might mirror a teacher's expected practice instead of his or her actual practice and sometimes there may exist an extensive breach between the two ends (Kennedy and Kennedy, 1996). In addition, Clark and Peterson (1986, pp. 291-292) claimed that "the correspondence between teachers' espoused beliefs and classroom behavior is not always high and is moderated by circumstances that are beyond the teacher's control." Marton (1981) believes that such gap resembles the distinction made between first- and second-order research studies where the first signifies what people actually do and the second orients to what they believe.

2.7.1. Research studies indicating that native teachers are more beneficial for classroom.

In a comprehensive study, Medgyes (1992) found that nonnative teachers (NNTs) usually have the feeling of unsafety as they teach in a foreign language. Because of such feeling, they become more doubtful and pessimistic and therefore, they devote less time for pronunciation and vocabulary than they do for grammar. Although some researchers believe that NNTs are far efficient teachers in some cases. For example, Samimy and Brutt-Griffler (1999) dispute that native teachers (NTs) are more conscious potentially more proficient users of English. Further, they pose that NTs make authentic usage of oral language and offer learners more information on cultural, social, historical, educational, and political aspects. Reassuringly, Modiano (1999) argues that particularly young learners feel positively towards their NTs since they exhibit a perfect model of the foreign language. Likewise, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) have uncovered that learners have positive feelings for their NTs since in their apprenticeship they can improve language skills such as speaking, writing, and reading. Similarly, Falk (1978) have a conception for the most successful learners. He highlights the idea that foreign language learners, who appreciate the culture, admire the people who speak the foreign language, wish to familiarize themselves with their culture or even in some cases are enthusiastic to assimilate themselves into the community in which the language is spoken, are the most successful learners. Furthermore, Rubrecht (2006) debate that for most cases learners prefer NTs, believing that learners are enthusiastic to acquire from native speaker in such a way that they wish to integrate into the foreign language and participate with the native speakers.

NTs are also found to be more self-confident than NNTs which affected their students' belief toward them (Mahboob, 2004). Butler (2007) reported that NTs are more self-confident than NNTs because of their accent which attracts students. However, such findings concerning the superiority of NTs cannot be absolute and they might have numerous disadvantages (Barratt and Contra, 2000). However, Clark and Paran (2007) believe that ignoring these disadvantages, Native speaker Teachers are still regarded to be more popular and preferable in the English language teaching profession. Some new studies show that language learners have very optimistic views of native speakers and favor to acquire a language under their training to grasp their own objectives. Though, it is proposed that non-native speakers, commonly, have the similar characteristics that native speakers do have (Cook, 1999). That is, except from the notion of nativeness, numerous other characteristics of native speakers are also common in non-native speakers (Adamson & Regan, 1991).

2.7.2. Research studies indicating that non-native teachers are more beneficial for classroom.

The efficiency of non-native speaker teachers in language teaching has been valued in numerous writings. Statement on Non-Native Speakers of English in the 1991 and Hiring Practices and the constitution of The Non-Native English Speakers in TESOL (NNEST) Caucus in 1998 were two initiatives who advocated non-native speaker teachers. Lewier and Bilmona (2010) dispute that while numerous students favor NTs as the best teacher, NNTs might also possess some advantages over the NTs, and learners may benefit from NNTs more than NTs in some cases. Encouragingly, when faced with possible problems with the language, (s)he can talk to students in their first language, (s)he can teach language learning strategies more successfully since

(s)he can be a better and more realistic learner model of English. (S)he can be more sensitive to students.

Other researchers like Medgyes' (1994) and Braine (1999) have taken great steps to build up interest in non-native speaker language teachers' constructive part in the teaching of a second or foreign language. As English is increasingly raised to be regarded as the world lingua franca, non-native speaker language teachers will be in ideal choices to guide their learners into the area of English as an international language (EIL). EIL teachers have to integrate instructional resources and activities deep-seated in local and international backgrounds which are known and pertinent to language students' personal lives (Alptekin 2002). Furthermore, Kramsch (1997) has mentioned that nonnative-speaker teachers are gifted with the advantage of possessing at least two languages (bilingualism). Therefore, when teaching a foreign language they know, they are easily able to switch back and forth from their mother tongue to the foreign language. Such commutation between the two languages improves their understanding of the requisites of the language teaching and learning situations. In other words, Non-native speaker language teachers have experienced the processes of learning the foreign language, voicing themselves in another language and becoming bilingual. The principal goal for English students is to finally become users of EIL. That is, they will use EIL to voice their own selves in a multilingual globe whose lingua franca, the instrument of expression, and the mediating artifact for unifying the peoples of different cultures is English. Non-native-speaker teachers are the best options for such occasions since they have themselves inherently experienced these processes and thus possess better capability in orchestrating these learning processes.

Non-native-speaker teachers have been described to possess some other benefits over native speakers, particularly over those teachers who speak only one language. Kramsch (1999, p. 34) claimed that, “it is the teaching of ESL within an assimilationist ideology that has canonized (or beatified) the native speaker around the world”. Non-native-speaker teachers, in both ESL and EFL settings, own a satisfactory level of language ability to accomplish their duty. Though, some non-native speaker teachers in EFL contexts do not appear to be very flexible to the novel viewpoints that they encounter in their educational career. Thus, in such circumstances native speakers are regarded to be the perfect teachers.

Another advantage of NNS over NS teachers is as Medgyes (1994) points out their amplified empathy for learners. Nemtchinova (2005) also suggested that such empathy is ‘a distinctive attribute that the NNS (NNS teachers) brought to their classrooms’. She also believed that NNS teachers had some other qualities as their ability to act as a model of ‘successful language learning’, because of being nonnative speakers.

Such empathy becomes principally appreciated in the teachers’ native countries where they have the learners’ linguistic, social, political, and cultural experiences. A critical benefit of NNSs in such countries is their capability to be competent in their learners’ first language in the classroom, which might be regarded as a foundation of teacher confidence (Seidlhofer, 1999). Besides to the point, research has shown that there are cognitive (Canagarajah, 1999) and pedagogical (Cook, 2001) benefits to use students’ L1 in second language classes. Conversely, A’rva and Medgyes (2000) found that it is a positive feature if the teacher does not know students’ first language. Some learners may even favor to practice their conversation with the teacher who does not speak their language, since there will be more motivation to speak the L2

with a teacher who does not know the L1. Similarly, Barratt and Contra (2000), noticed that native teachers were unsuccessful in some point in their teaching because they had no understanding of students' native language. Therefore, they couldn't compare and contrast some ideas with students' native tongue and so discouraged any further talk on that issue.

The most of these investigations concerning NS and NNS teachers have contained surveys and questionnaires for teachers (e.g. Camiciottoli, 2004; Llurda & Huguet, 2003; Medgyes, 1994, 2001; Reves & Medgyes, 1994) and has emphasized the possible strengths of NS and NNS teachers though still admitting questionability of the results. However, by integrating the research fragments, one may find that SLA research both values NNS/NS teacher and denounces NNS/NS teachers. That is, the overall research finding in current theoretical writings, therefore, is that neither NNS teachers nor NS teachers are essentially superior. To the best of the researchers' knowledge no exploration has been projected so far to investigate the feedback giving habits of NNS/NS teachers in language classrooms which is the principal objective behind the present study.

CHAPTER THREE:

METHODOLOGY

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Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the methodology executed in the present study. Through several sections in this chapter, a succinct overview will be provided to present information about the participants, instruments, data collection procedure, and the data analysis.

3.2 Participants

The source of data for the present study came from a total of 60 one-hour and a half adult English as a foreign language classes in Ankara which the researcher recorded in the winter of 2013. The researcher gathered the data from ‘Active English Language School’ which was a private institution. The students attending to this language school receive no financial aid from the government and they pay their expenses themselves by their own income. Therefore, the institution needs to improve its service quality to their customers i.e. language learners. One way they try to achieve this is by employing native speaker teachers. Another way is by offering in-service education on language teaching methods and techniques from time to time to their teachers. Therefore, a private language school seemed to be a good choice for the present study.

All the classes recorded were intermediate level based on the classification of the given institutes. In order to investigate the hypotheses behind the study, the researcher kept the structure and number of students in each classroom and the level

of the classes intact. Since all the classes were intermediate-level classes and follow the same text book, they were roughly similar in terms of the content of the teaching. The topics of the teachings were sports, transportation, and free-time activities.

From among forty-five language teachers who were asked for permission, thirty-five teachers warmly agreed to participate in the study. Fifteen out of these teachers were native teachers of English and twenty were non-native teachers. In order to equalize the number of the teachers in NS and NNS group, five teachers were eliminated from the NNS group. Finally, fifteen NS and fifteen NNS teachers remained in the study (Please see appendix B for information about teachers). All these teachers warmly welcomed the researcher's recording devices to their classes and cooperated with the researcher at all stages of the study.

The researcher's criterion for nativeness vs. nonnativeness was the teachers' speaking English as a mother tongue. That is to say that, only those teachers whose mother tongue was English was considered as native teacher. It's notable to say that, these teachers were from different English speaking countries such as United States of America, England, Canada, New Zealand, and Australia.

Almost all the sessions were recorded by the researcher. The researcher was behind the camera and filmed the class sitting next to the teacher and an audio-recording device which was placed on teacher's desk to capture the sound. All of these classes were taught by different teachers. However, all the classes were homogenous in terms of their level of proficiency.

3.3 Data Collection Instruments and Sources

Video-tapes, audio-recordings, and transcriptions were the major data sources. In addition, one data collection source i.e. field-notes was considered as the secondary source of data. These four types of data will be explicated below.

3.3.1. Video-tape recordings.

Since video-taping has potential to capture a much fuller view of any context, they were used as the major source of data for the present research. The classroom events, therefore, needed to be video-taped considerably and with a great deal of care and attention. As it seems to be far reasonable, the researcher himself took on the responsibility of filming the classes.

As it is the case with most studies using interaction transcripts of the classroom, the most crucial instrument to the present research was a high quality video camera. Since this instrument was supposed to enter one of the most complex and most dynamic social settings—the classroom setting, some compulsory pre-requisites for this tool were needed to be met. Because the camera has the potential to distract the students or at least it may have some impact on the student's performance in the class, it shouldn't have been flashy, colorful, or big in size. It is notable to say that these qualities are capable of highlighting the presence of the recording tool in a classroom setting. Taking the compulsory requisites into account, the video camera chosen for this study was an easy handling and manageable one which facilitated the researcher's duty to easily capture the different angles of the classroom interaction.

3.3.2. Audio-recordings.

Unexceptionally, in all of the recorded classes the video camera was filming the classroom events from the angle which faces the teacher. Therefore, in addition to the video camera, a well-quality voice recorder branded as N50 manufactured by

Sony Company was used to haunt the students' oral discourse. The voice recorder was placed in a direction to which most of the students' voices were directed.

3.3.3. Transcriptions.

The audio-recorded and video-taped data were transcribed attentively line-by-line based on a simplified version of Jefferson's model developed by Ten Have (2007). Jefferson's model evolved side by side with, and informed by the results of, interaction analysis in 1983. It highlights features of the delivery of talk (overlap, delay, emphasis, volume and so on) that have been found to be live in interaction. That is, they are features of talk treated as relevant in one way or another by the parties to the interaction. Jefferson's model includes around 31 major symbols observed in any forms of talk-in-interaction.

3.3.4. Field-notes

While recording the classes, the researcher also prepared some field-notes concerning the classroom events like activities, discussions, challenges, and specific points which happened. Field-notes refer to various notes recorded by researcher during or after their observation of a specific phenomenon they are studying. Field-notes are particularly valued in descriptive sciences such as ethnography, biology, geology, and archaeology, each of which have long traditions in this area.

Emerson (1995) defines field-notes in ethnography (a term referring generally to descriptive writing in anthropology, and also to subfield of sociology) as “accounts describing experiences and observations the researcher has made while participating in an intense and involved manner” (p. 95). Field-notes are one means employed by qualitative researchers whose main objective is to try to understand the

true perspectives of the subject being studied. Field-notes allow the researcher to access the subject and record what they observe in an unobtrusive manner.

3.5. Data Collection Procedure

In order to examine the differences between NS/NNS teachers with regard to the way they use five types of feedback, three phases of research was thought of in advance. In the very first phase of the research a list of native and non-native speaker teachers was collected from Active English language school in Ankara. Later, a formal invitation letter was sent to all these teachers to understand which ones are willing to cooperate with the project. After the teachers replied to the invitation letters, the researcher planned a personal meeting with each teacher who had shown his/her willingness for cooperation. In the personal meeting the researcher clarified all aspect of the research such as the procedures and length. It is notable that the teachers were not informed about the central focus of the study. In the personal meeting session teachers were asked to think over the final decision concerning their participation. Those teachers, who agreed to cooperate, were asked to inscribe a consent form and sign it.

The second phase was the longest and the most demanding phase of the research. The researcher scheduled a plan to video record the participants' classes. In order to have a fuller view of the classroom events, the researcher entered the class before the teacher and took a seat beside the teacher and filmed the class till the class time is over. About two sessions of each teacher was filmed for the project at hand. In all the sessions, the researcher entered the classroom before the teacher. After greeting the students, the researcher discussed his recording procedure with them and

placed a tiny sound recording device on teacher's table. Subsequently he took a seat next to the teacher and turned on the camera and started recording and turned it off when the class was over. Therefore, the video-tapes of the class were captured from the very moment the teacher entered the class to the moment the class was over. During the class the researcher also prepared field notes concerning some special events happened in the class room.

The third phase was actually the analysis phase of the research. After the data collection, the researcher started examining the video data and classroom field notes. The researcher browsed the videos for dozen of times and later started classifying the types of feedback used by the participant teachers. The located feedback were coded as belonging to five category of explicit correction, recasts, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, and elicitation (Lyster and Ranta, 1997). Here is one example for each type of feedback from the researcher's data.

Example 1.

Explicit correction

T: = ok maybe = I'm not sure= what about ... Jenifer?

Weather and clothes ... You

S: uh he say uh you can bring a coat or a sweater it maybe uh be cold in at evening

T: he said... ha?

Example 2.

Recast

S: well, yesterday I visited a teeth doctor and

T: so you visited dentist, what did he say?

Example 3.

Meta-linguistic feedback

S: because I didn't have may informations

T: information is not countable, so you cannot add plural s.

instead you can say some pieces of information

Example 4.

Clarification request

S: I love Macha Pichu

T: Pardon, what?

S: It's a famous and beautiful place in ...

Example 5.

Elicitation

S: my foots were injured

T: your FOOTs↑↑?

S: yes aha um my feet

These categories were then quantified and coded and entered into SPSS for descriptive and inferential analyses. The analyses were conducted using Mann–

Whitney *U* test. Also some other sections of the videos were transcribed to be used as the example of how teachers practice was exercised in practice.

3.6 Data analysis procedure

The final analysis was conducted based on the video tape recordings as well as transcripts. Though, in different stages of the analysis, video-tapes, audio recordings, and sometimes field notes were resorted to arrive at a better understanding. After all the raw data of the study was collected, the first phase of the analysis started. In the first stage, all the feedback types within the data were examined accurately. To categorize these feedback types, the researcher worked in conjunction with two other specialist raters within the field of SLA research. That is, in order to assess the reliability of coded feedback types, the researcher asked for the help of two other researchers to code feedback types independently. One of the raters was a PhD. Candidate of TEFL from Tabriz University. His main research interest was classroom interaction, pragmatics and language teaching methods. The other rater was an MA graduate student of TEFL from University of Mazandaran whose main research interest was socio-cultural theory, conversation analysis, feedback, and learning theories. The purpose of this was to investigate the level of agreement between the three raters regarding the number and feedback types found. At this phase, the two raters carefully went through all transcripts and highlighted the parts that they judged as one of the different forms of feedback types under study. They were mainly concerned with locating examples of feedback types and categorizing them based on the classification of Lyster and Ranta (1997). That is, they first spotted all feedback

types within the whole data. Later, they assigned these feedback types to the categories of clarification request, recast, meta-linguistic feedback, explicit correction, elicitation. After classifying the feedback types which lasted for around two months, the raters and the researcher started to work together and shared their classifications. First, they tried to find how many feedback types were categorized identically by three raters. Later, they counted the feedback types which were categorized differently. There were some instances in which the second and the third rater either added some new feedback types or edited some feedback types found by the chief researcher. The total numbers of potential feedback types that were agreed-upon based on the coded scripts of the raters were used in the final analysis of the project. However, the number of the feedbacks which were categorized differently were virtually ignored against those categorized alike. The level of agreement between the raters for all found feedback types was 88%. The Inter-rater reliability estimates will be examined in the following section through the tables 3.1. to tables 3.10.

3.6.1. Inter-rater reliability estimates.

The internal consistency reliability of the categorization of feedback types was also estimated through calculating the statistical methods. Among all possible options, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the inter-rater reliability of feedback categories among three raters. As Dornyei (2003, p. 112) puts “this is a figure ranging between zero and +1,” and in language teaching research “we should aim at reliability coefficients in excess of 0.70.” Tables 3.1 to table 3.10 shows the calculation of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient as a measure of the inter-rater reliability of feedback categories among three raters, which was done by the SPSS software.

Table 3.1.

*Inter-Rater Reliability of Clarification Request in NNS Group***Correlations**

		Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3
Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.873**	.879**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	15	15	15
Rater 2	Pearson Correlation	.873**	1	.866**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	15	15	15
Rater 3	Pearson Correlation	.879**	.866**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	15	15	15

** .Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to the table the internal consistency reliability of this feedback category exceeds 0.70, and hence is acceptable

Table 3.2.

*Inter-Rater Reliability of Elicitation in NNS Group***Correlations**

		Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3
Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.848**	.887**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	15	15	15
Rater 2	Pearson Correlation	.848**	1	.835**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	15	15	15
Rater 3	Pearson Correlation	.887**	.835**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	15	15	15

** .Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to the table the internal consistency reliability of this feedback category exceeds 0.70, and hence is acceptable

Table 3.3.

Inter-Rater Reliability of Explicit Correction in NNS Group

Correlations

		Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3
Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.857**	.825**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	15	15	15
Rater 2	Pearson Correlation	.857**	1	.810**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	15	15	15
Rater 3	Pearson Correlation	.825**	.810**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	15	15	15

** .Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to the table the internal consistency reliability of this feedback category exceeds 0.70, and hence is acceptable

Table 3.4.

Inter-Rater Reliability of Meta-linguistic Feedback Correction in NNS Group

Correlations

		Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3
Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.788**	.835**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	15	15	15
Rater 2	Pearson Correlation	.788**	1	.799**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	15	15	15
Rater 3	Pearson Correlation	.835**	.799**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	15	15	15

** .Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to the table the internal consistency reliability of this feedback category exceeds 0.70, and hence is acceptable

Table 3.5.

Inter-Rater Reliability of Recast in NNS Group

Correlations

		Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3
Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.838**	.875**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	15	15	15
Rater 2	Pearson Correlation	.838**	1	.814**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	15	15	15
Rater 3	Pearson Correlation	.875**	.814**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	15	15	15

** .Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to the table the internal consistency reliability of this feedback category exceeds 0.70, and hence is acceptable

Table 3.6.

Inter-Rater Reliability of Clarification Request in NS Group

Correlations

		Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3
Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.852**	.836**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	15	15	15
Rater 2	Pearson Correlation	.852**	1	.841**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	15	15	15
Rater 3	Pearson Correlation	.836**	.841**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	

N	15	15	15
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** .Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to the table the internal consistency reliability of this feedback category exceeds 0.70, and hence is acceptable

Table 3.7.

*Inter-Rater Reliability of Elicitation in NS Group***Correlations**

		Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3
Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.837**	.820**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	15	15	15
Rater 2	Pearson Correlation	.837**	1	.816**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	15	15	15
Rater 3	Pearson Correlation	.820**	.816**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	15	15	15

** .Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to the table the internal consistency reliability of this feedback category exceeds 0.70, and hence is acceptable

Table 3.8.

*Inter-Rater Reliability of Explicit Correction in NS Group***Correlations**

		Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3
Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.849**	.867**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	15	15	15
Rater 2	Pearson Correlation	.849**	1	.855**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000

	N	15	15	15
Rater 3	Pearson Correlation	.867**	.855**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	15	15	15

** .Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to the table the internal consistency reliability of this feedback category exceeds 0.70, and hence is acceptable

Table 3.9.

Inter-Rater Reliability of Meta-linguistic Feedback Correction in NS Group

Correlations

		Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3
Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.852**	.842**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	15	15	15
Rater 2	Pearson Correlation	.852**	1	.830**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	15	15	15
Rater 3	Pearson Correlation	.842**	.830**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	15	15	15

** .Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to the table the internal consistency reliability of this feedback category exceeds 0.70, and hence is acceptable

Table 3.10.

Inter-Rater Reliability of Recast in NS Group

Correlations

		Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3
Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.813**	.839**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	15	15	15
Rater 2	Pearson Correlation	.813**	1	.798**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000

Rater 3	N	15	15	15
	Pearson Correlation	.839**	.798*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	15	15	15

** .Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to the table the internal consistency reliability of this feedback category exceeds 0.70, and hence is acceptable.

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the inter-rater reliability of feedback categories among three raters. The reliability estimates show that there was a positive correlation among the raters in terms of their coding system. The average Pearson correlation coefficient for all feedback types in both NS and NNS group is = 0.852, $n = 15$, $p = 0.000$. This shows a higher consistency in the coding orientations of the three raters.

As was mentioned before, the study was conducted by comparing feedback and error correction patterns of NS/ NNS teachers. In the present study, the researcher also accounted for qualitative data besides the quantitative data. For the qualitative phase of the analysis, the error correction behaviors of the NS/ NNS teachers were compared using direct interaction scraps from the corresponding teachers.

These numerical data were analyzed using SPSS (version 17) both descriptively and inferentially. The purpose of descriptive statistics was to summarize and give an overview of the data. And inferential statistics was used to illustrate the relationship between two sets of data.

To start the analysis of the data, the researcher transcribed the oral data from these two groups of the teachers which were collected for two sessions. The collected oral data were analyzed for different categories of feedbacks. The categories of feedbacks were first quantified and later were coded and entered into SPSS software, and then were analyzed using Mann–Whitney U test.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND FINDINGS

Chapter Four

Results and Findings

4. Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the present study conducted on 30 English language teachers in Ankara. The chapter will first reiterate the research questions of the study and will subsequently move to present the results of the study for these research questions and research hypotheses. The results will be presented here at two separate sections. The first section of the chapter will introduce the descriptive results of the study. That is to say, the first section will deal with the tabulation of the frequency of the usage of different categories of feedback between the NS/NNS groups. The second section will present the inferential analysis of comparison of application of different types of feedback by the two NS vs. NNS groups using Mann–Whitney *U* test.

4.1. Research questions

Our study attempted to answer the following research questions:

Research question 1:

Is there a statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using explicit correction?

Research question 2:

Is there a statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using recasts?

Research question 3:

Is there a statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using Metalinguistic feedback?

Research question 4:

Is there a statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using clarification request?

Research question 5:

Is there a statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using elicitation?

4.2. Research hypotheses

Hypothesis (H0) 1:

There is no statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using explicit correction.

Hypothesis (H0) 2:

There is no statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using recast.

Hypothesis (H0) 3:

There is no statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using Metalinguistic feedback.

Hypothesis (H0) 4:

There is no statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using clarification request.

Hypothesis (H0) 5:

There is no statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using elicitation.

4.3. Descriptive results

As it is illustrated in Table 4.1, totally 472 examples of explicit correction were recognized within interaction transcripts of these classes. Out of 472 examples of explicit correction, 87 examples belonged to Non-native speaker teachers and 385 examples belonged to native speaker teachers. A total number of 419 examples of recast were recognized out of which, 265 examples belonged to Non-native speaker teachers and 154 examples belonged to native speaker teachers. The amount of metalinguistic feedback was 614. Out of 614 examples of metalinguistic feedback 243 examples belonged to Non-native speaker teachers and 371 examples belonged to native speaker teachers. In addition, table totally 346 examples of clarification request were recognized. Out of 346 examples of clarification request 273 examples

belonged to Non-native speaker teachers and 73 examples belonged to native speaker teachers. Finally, the findings of the study showed 368 examples of elicitation. Out of 368 examples of elicitation 261 examples belonged to non-native speaker teachers and 107 examples belonged to native speaker teachers. Also, Figure 4.1 gives a fuller understanding of the amount of feedbacks used by teachers. As it is shown in the figure Out of 2219 examples of feedbacks 1129 examples belonged to Non-native speaker teachers and 1090 examples belonged to native speaker teachers. The following section is intended to describe the amount of feedback types used by two groups separately.

Table 4.1.

Total number of Feedback types used by two groups of teachers

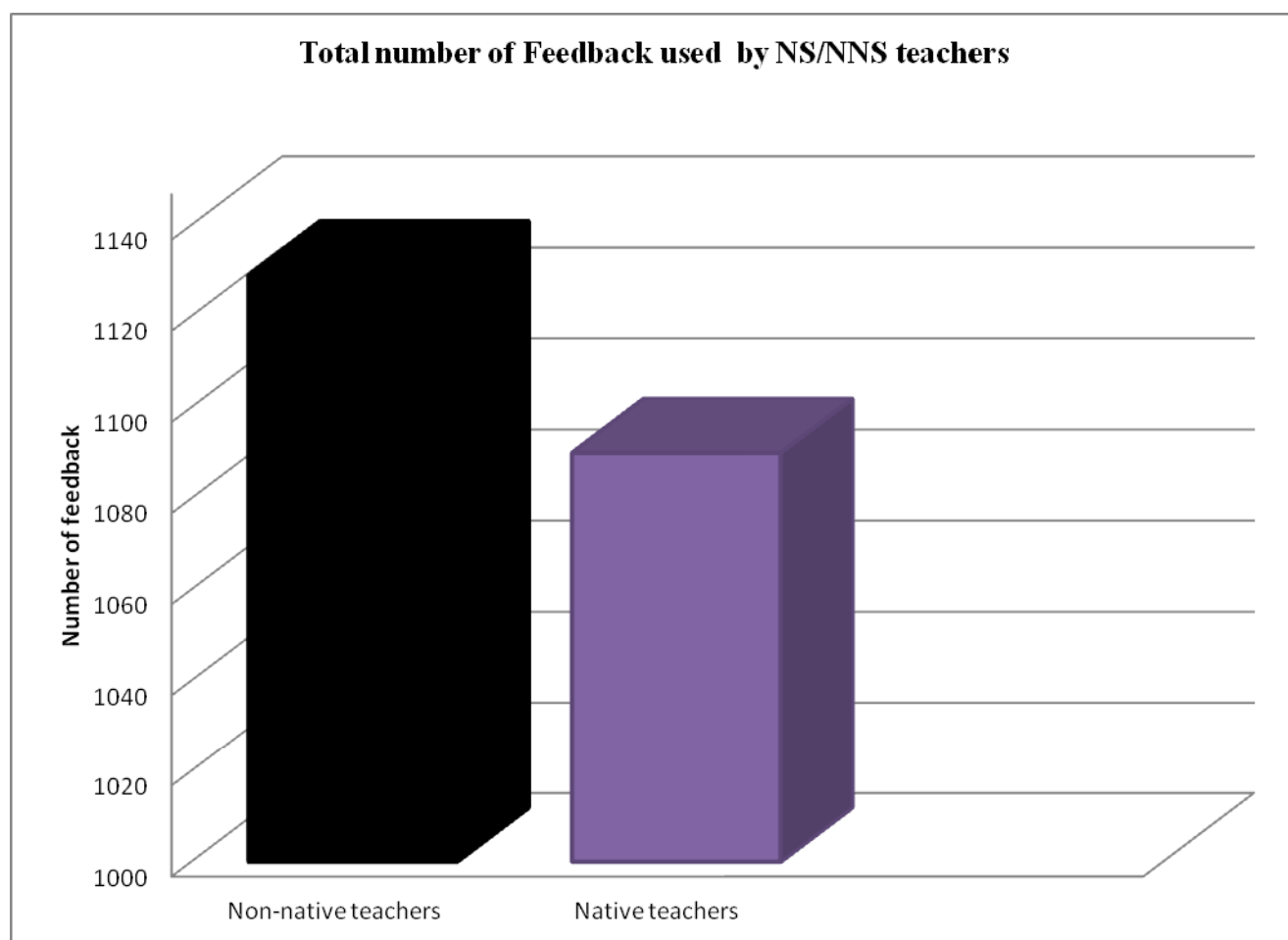
Total number of Feedback types used by two groups of teachers										
Feedback types	Explicit Correction		Recast		Metalinguistic Feedback		Clarification request		Elicitation	
Teachers	NNS	NS	NNS	NS	NNS	NS	NNS	NS	NNS	NS
Amount	87	385	265	154	243	371	273	73	261	107
Sum	472		419		614		346		368	
Total Sum	2219									

* Non-native Speaker Teachers

** Native Speaker Teachers

Figure 4.1.

Total number of Feedback types used by two groups of teachers



4.3.1. The frequency of the usage of explicit correction between the two groups

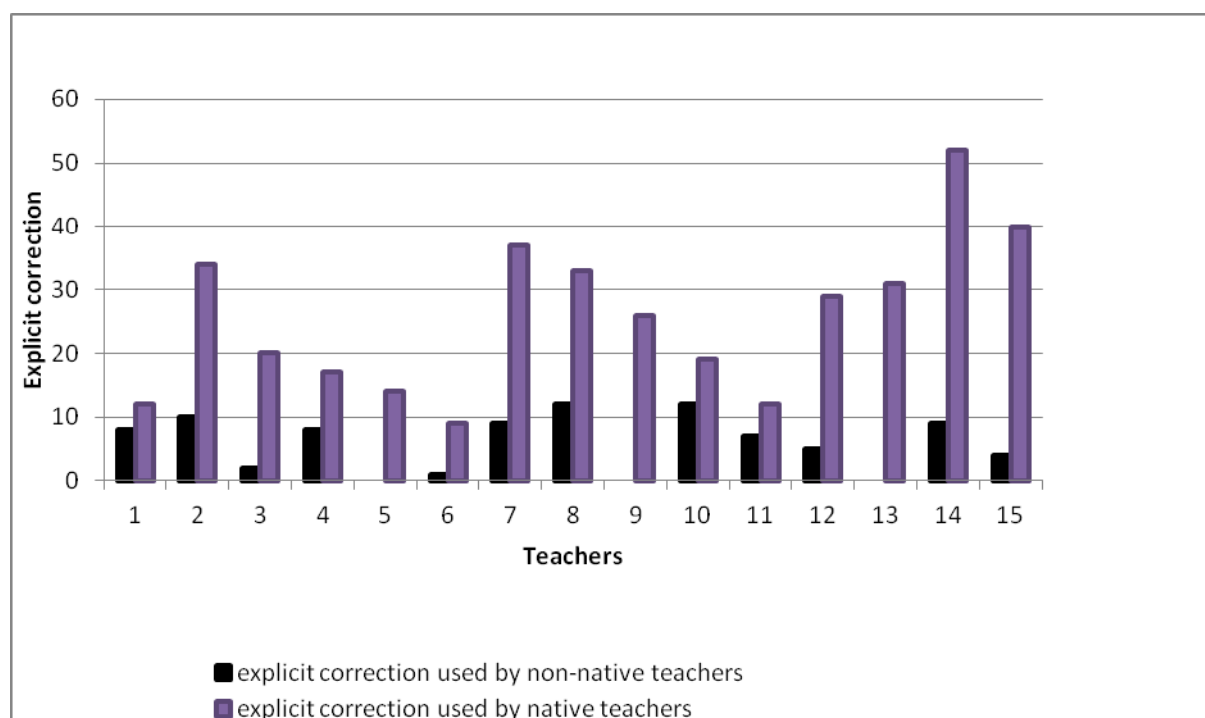
The table 4.2, figure 4.2 illustrate the frequency of the usage of explicit correction between the NS/NNS teachers. As it is shown in the table totally 472 examples of explicit correction were recognized within interaction transcripts of these classes. Out of 472 examples of explicit correction, 87 examples belonged to Non-native speaker teachers and 385 examples belonged to native speaker teachers. Based on these descriptive analyses, it seems quite clear that the NS/NNS teachers have made use of explicit feedback to a different degree. However, inferential statistics will be conducted below to show whether such differences reaches statistically significant level.

Table 4.2.

<i>The frequency of the usage of explicit correction between the NS/NNS teachers</i>			
groups	Frequency	Percent	Missing
Non-native speaker teachers	87	18.4	0
Native speaker teachers	385	81.6	0
Total	472	100.0	0

Figure 4.2.

the frequency of the usage of explicit correction between the NS/NNS teachers (teachers individually)



4.3.2. The frequency of the usage of recasts between the two groups.

The table 4.3, figure 4.3, and figure illustrate the frequency of the usage of recast between the NS/NNS teachers. As it is shown in the table totally 419 examples of recast were recognized within interaction transcripts of these classes. Out of 419 examples of recasts, 265 examples belonged to Non-native speaker teachers and 154 examples belonged to native speaker teachers. Based on these descriptive analyses, it seems quite clear that the NS/NNS teachers have made use of recast to a different degree. However, inferential statistics will be conducted below to show whether such differences reaches statistically significant level.

Table 4.3.

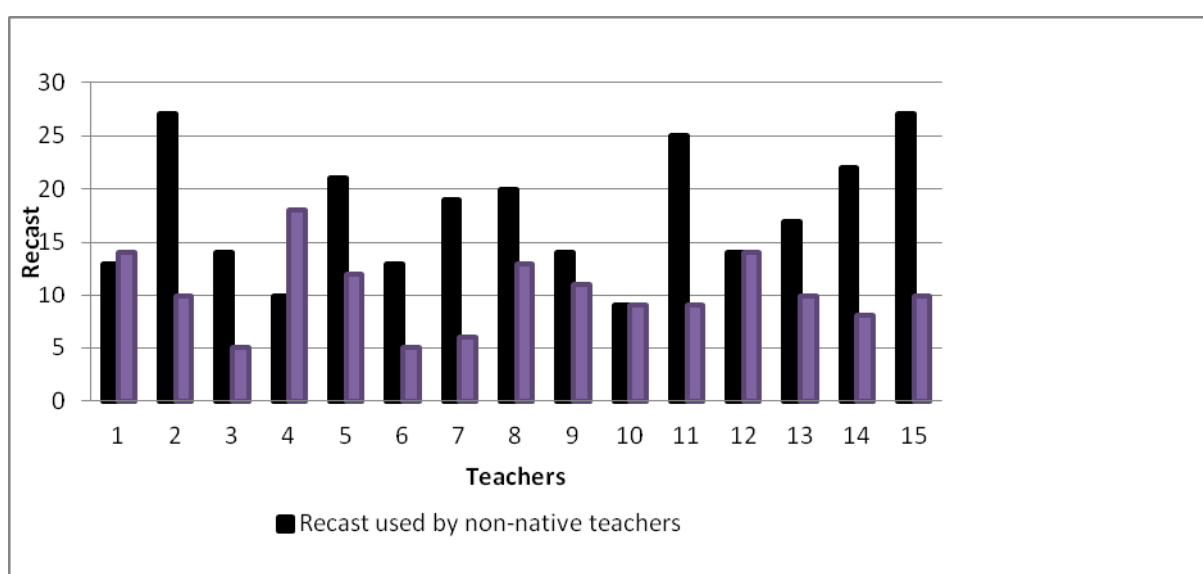
The frequency of the usage of recast between the NS/NNS teachers

groups	Frequency	Percent	Missing
Non-native speaker teachers	265	63.2	0

Native speaker teachers	154	36.8	0
Total	419	100.0	0

Figure 4.3.

the frequency of the usage of recast between the NS/NNS teachers (teachers individually)



4.3.3. The frequency of the usage of metalinguistic feedback within the two groups

The table 4.4, and figure 3.4, illustrate the frequency of the usage of metalinguistic feedback within the NS/NNS teachers. As it is shown in the table totally 614 examples of metalinguistic feedback were recognized within interaction transcripts of these classes. Out of 614 examples of metalinguistic feedback 243 examples belonged to Non-native speaker teachers and 371 examples belonged to native speaker teachers. Based on these descriptive analyses, it seems quite clear that the NS/NNS teachers have made use of metalinguistic feedback to a different degree.

However, inferential statistics will be conducted below to show whether such differences reaches statistically significant level.

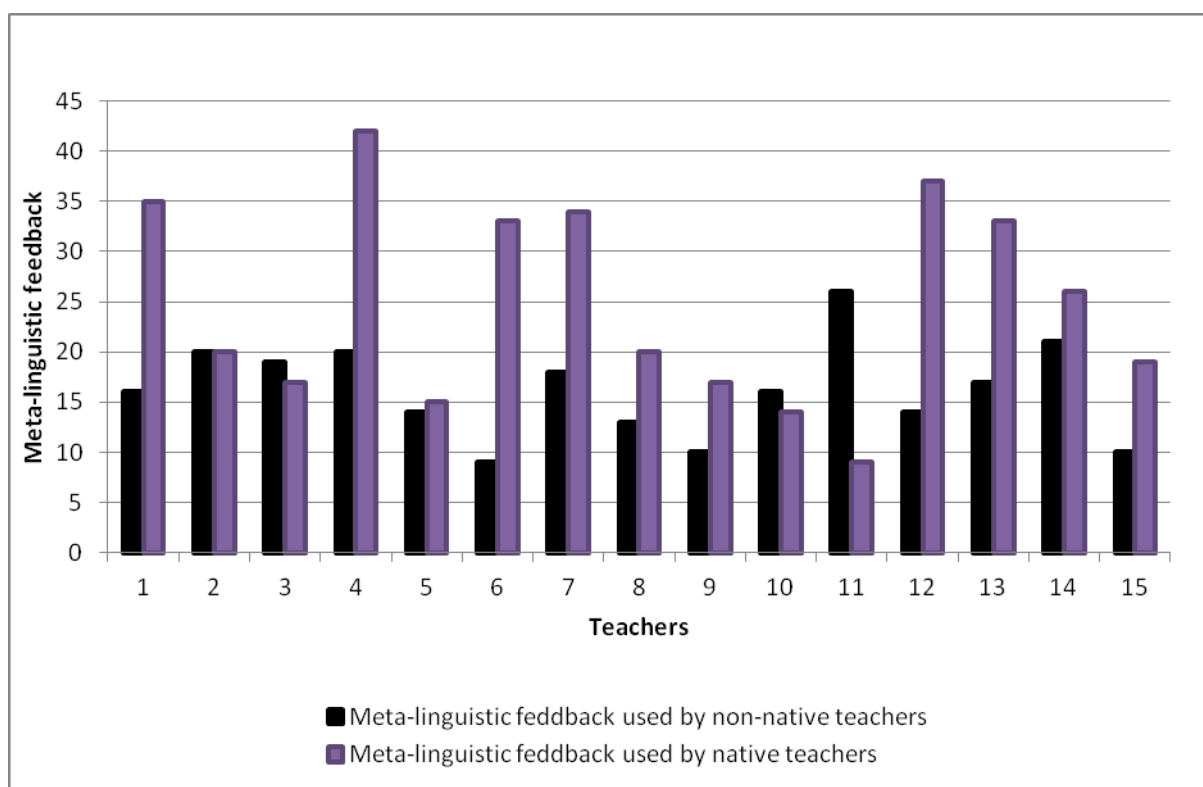
Table 4.4.

The frequency of the usage of metalinguistic feedback between the NS/NNS teachers

groups	Frequency	Percent	Missing
Non-native speaker teachers	243	39.6	0
Native speaker teachers	371	60.4	0
Total	614	100.0	0

Figure 4.4.

The frequency of the usage of metalinguistic feedback within the NS/NNS teachers (teachers individually)



4.3.4. The frequency of the usage of clarification request within the two groups.

The table 4.5 and figure 4.5, illustrate the frequency of the usage of clarification request within the NS/NNS teachers. As it is shown in the table totally 346 examples of clarification request were recognized within interaction transcripts of these classes. Out of 346 examples of clarification request 273 examples belonged to Non-native speaker teachers and 73 examples belonged to native speaker teachers. Based on these descriptive analyses, it seems quite clear that the NS/NNS teachers have made use of clarification request to a different degree. However, inferential statistics will be conducted below to show whether such differences reaches statistically significant level.

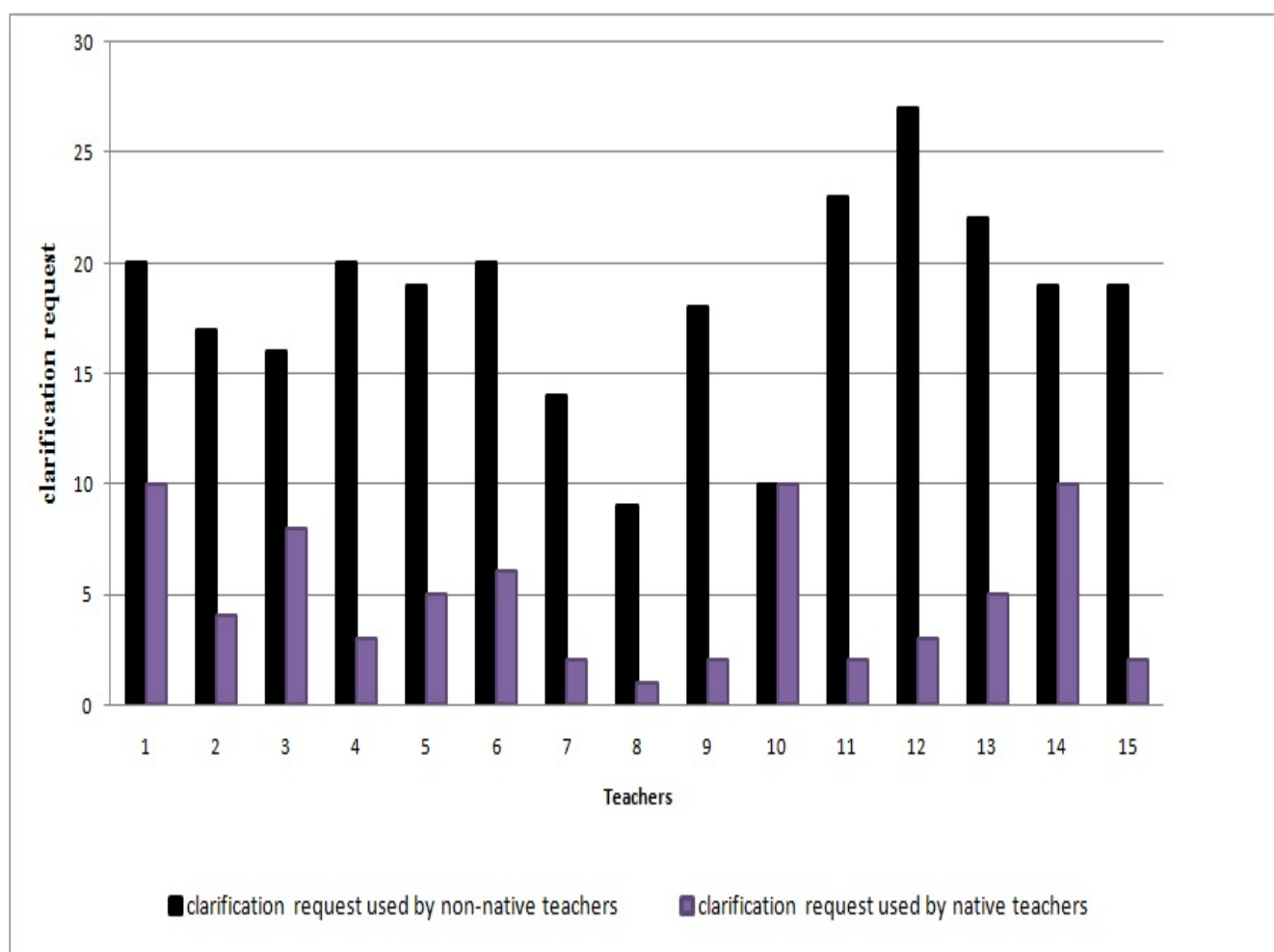
Table 4.5.

The frequency of the usage of clarification request between the NS/NNS teachers

groups	Frequency	Percent	Missing
Non-native speaker teachers	273	78.9	0
Native speaker teachers	73	21.1	0
Total	346	100.0	0

Figure 4.5.

The frequency of the usage of clarification request within the NS/NNS teachers (teachers individually)



4.3.5. The frequency of the usage of elicitation within the two groups.

The table 4.6 and figure 4.6, illustrate the frequency of the usage of elicitation within the NS/NNS teachers. As it is shown in the table totally 368 examples of elicitation were recognized within interaction transcripts of these classes. Out of 368 examples of elicitation 261 examples belonged to non-native speaker teachers and 107 examples belonged to native speaker teachers. Based on these descriptive analyses, it seems quite clear that the NS/NNS teachers have made use of elicitation to a different degree. However, inferential statistics will be conducted below to show whether such differences reaches statistically significant level.

Table 4.6.
The frequency of the usage of elicitation between the NS/NNS teachers

groups	Frequency	Percent	Missing
Non-native speaker teachers	261	70.9	0
Native speaker teachers	107	29.1	0
Total	368	100.0	0

Figure 4.6.

The frequency of the usage of elicitation within the NS/NNS teachers (teachers individually)

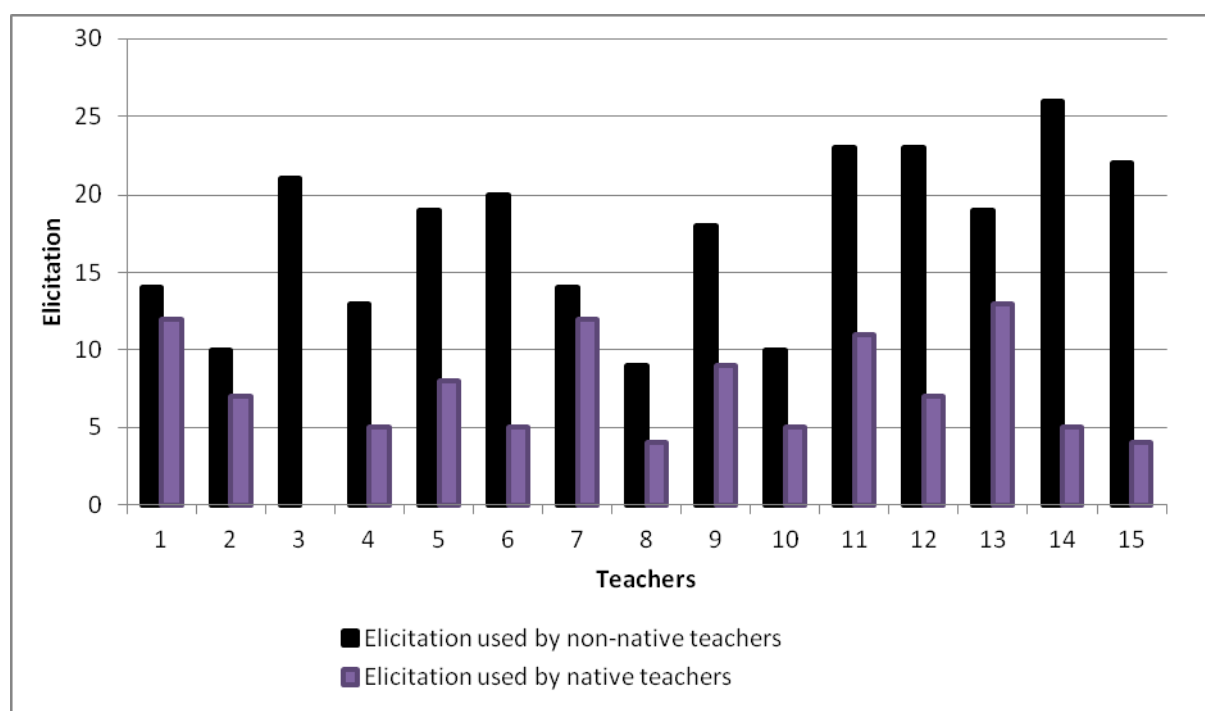
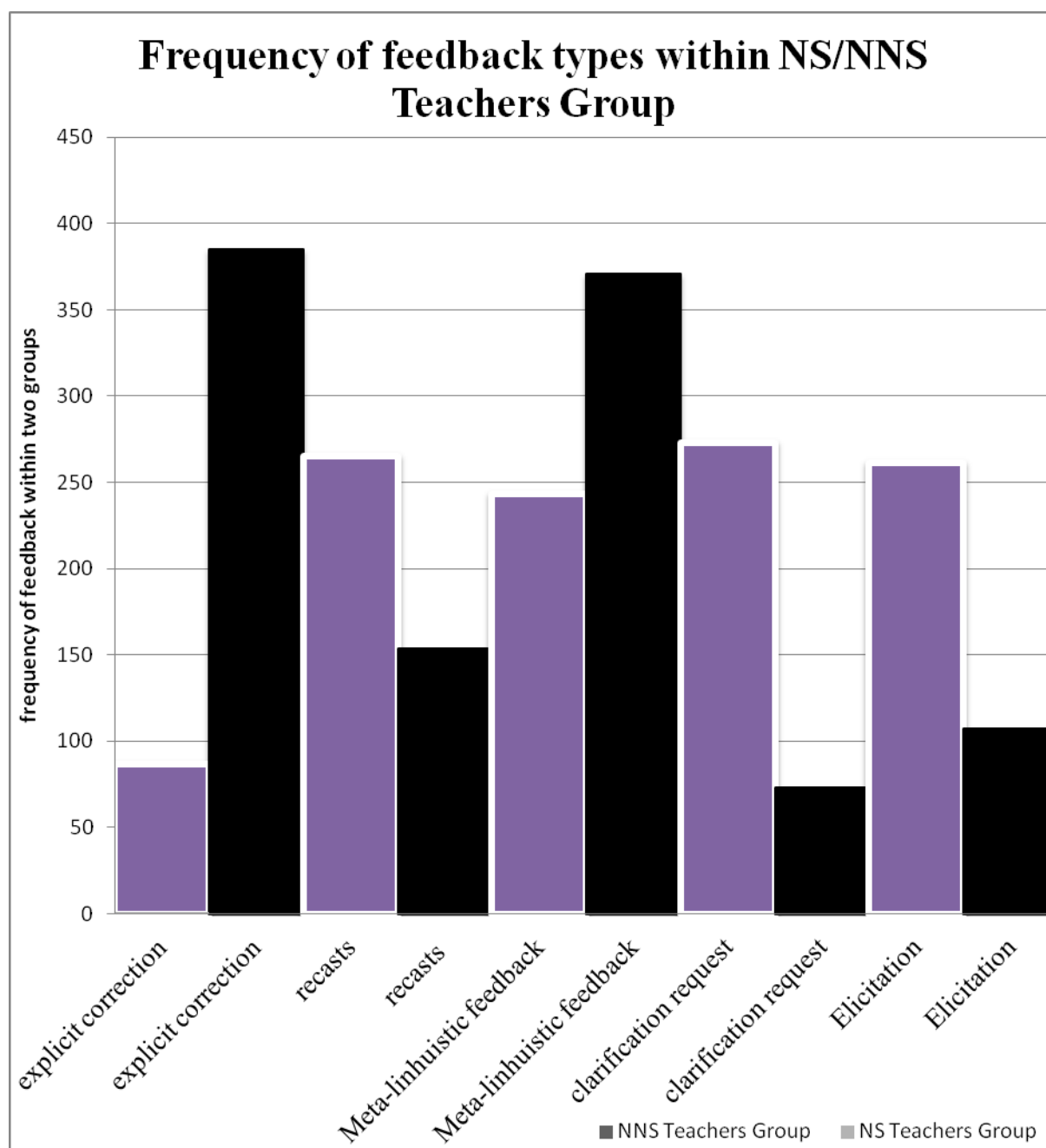


Figure 4.7.

The frequency of the usage of elicitation within the NS/NNS teachers (teachers as whole)



4.4. Inferential results of the study

So far, the frequency counts of each of the identified categories and subcategories of feedbacks were separately organized for each of the two groups. Furthermore, to uncover the differences between the frequencies of the occurrence of the feedback in each group Mann-Whitney Tests were applied. The results of the Mann-Whitney U Test will be presented in the following section.

4.4.1. Reliability Estimates

The internal consistency reliability of the data was estimated through calculating the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient for them. As Dornyei (2003, p. 112) puts “this is a figure ranging between zero and +1,” and in language teaching research “we should aim at reliability coefficients in excess of 0.70.” Table 4.6 shows the calculation of Cronbach Alpha Coefficient for the data used in this research, which was done by the SPSS software.

Table 4.7.

Cronbach Alpha Coefficient of the feedback types

variable	N	Cronbach's Alpha ^a
	5	.860

According to the table the internal consistency reliability exceeds 0.70, and hence is acceptable.

4.4.2. Test of the First Hypothesis

Hypothesis (H0) 1:

There is no statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using explicit correction.

Table 4.8.

The results of Mann-Whitney U test between the NS/NNS teachers concerning explicit correction

Groups	N	Mean	Sum of	Mann-	Asymp. Sig.
--------	---	------	--------	-------	-------------

		Rank	Ranks	Whitney U	(2-tailed)
Non-native speaker teachers	261	132.78	34654.50	463.500	.000
Native speaker teachers	107	310.67	33241.50		
Total	368				

A Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to evaluate the hypothesis to see if the difference in the use of explicit correction is statistically significant between the two groups of NS/NNS teachers. From this data, it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of the use of explicit correction ($U = 463.5$, $p = 0.00$). It can be further concluded that the NS teachers used statistically significant higher explicit correction than the NNS teachers ($p = 0.000$). Overall, the null hypothesis behind this research question is rejected.

4.4.3. Test of the Second Hypothesis

Hypothesis (H0) 2:

There is no statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using recast.

Table 4.9

The results of Mann-Whitney U test between the NS/NNS teachers concerning recast

Groups	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Non-native speaker teachers	261	225.02	58729.00	3389.000	.000
Native speaker teachers	107	85.67	9167.00		
Total	368				

A Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to evaluate the hypothesis to see if the difference in the use of recasts is statistically significant between the two groups of NS/NNS teachers. From this data, it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of the use of recasts ($U = 3389$, $p = 0.00$). It can be further concluded that the NS teachers used statistically significant lower recasts than the NNS teachers ($p = 0.000$). Overall, the null hypothesis behind this research question is rejected.

4.4.4. Test of the third hypothesis.

Hypothesis (H0) 3:

There is no statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using Metalinguistic feedback.

Table 4.10

The results of Mann-Whitney U test between the NS/NNS teachers concerning Metalinguistic feedback

Groups	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Non-native speaker teachers	261	157.50	41108.50	6917.500	.000
Native speaker teachers	107	250.35	26787.50		
Total	368				

A Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to evaluate the hypothesis to see if the difference in the use of Metalinguistic feedback is statistically significant between the two groups of NS/NNS teachers. From this data, it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of the use of Metalinguistic feedback ($U = 6917$, $p = 0.000$). It can be further concluded that the NS teachers used statistically significant higher metalinguistic feedback than the NNS teachers ($p = 0.000$). Overall, the null hypothesis behind this research question is rejected.

4.4.5. Test of the forth hypothesis.

Hypothesis (H0) 4:

There is no statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using clarification request.

Table 4.11

The results of Mann-Whitney U test between the NS/NNS teachers concerning clarification request

Groups	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Non-native speaker teachers	261	236.82	61810.00	308.000	.000
Native speaker teachers	107	56.88	6086.00		
Total	368				

A Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to evaluate the hypothesis to see if the difference in the use of clarification request is statistically significant between the two groups of NS/NNS teachers. From this data, it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of the use of clarification request ($U = 308$, $p = 0.00$). It can be further concluded that the NS teachers used statistically significant lower clarification request than the NNS teachers ($p = 0.000$). Overall, the null hypothesis behind this research question is rejected.

4.4.6. Test of the fifth hypothesis.

Hypothesis (H0) 5:

There is no statistically significant difference between the NS and NNS teachers in terms of the amount of using elicitation.

Table 4.12.

The results of Mann-Whitney U test between the NS/NNS teachers concerning elicitation

groups	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Non-native speaker teachers	261	232.19	60601.00	1517.000	.000
Native speaker teachers	107	68.18	7295.00		
Total	368				

A Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to evaluate the hypothesis to see if the difference in the use of elicitation is statistically significant between the two groups of NS/NNS teachers. From this data, it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of the use of elicitation ($U = 1517$, $p = 0.00$). It can be further concluded that the NS teachers used statistically significant lower elicitation than the NNS teachers ($p = 0.000$). Overall, the null hypothesis behind this research question is rejected.

CHAPTER 5:

Conclusion and discussion

Chapter 5:

Conclusion and Discussion

5.1 Introduction

The central purpose of the chapter is to briefly recapitulate the main results of this thesis and to provide readers with a general understanding of how feedback types can be applied differently by NS/NNS teachers. In addition, the pedagogical implications of the finding will be discussed. And finally, some new research areas will be suggested for researchers interested in investigating the feedback providing habits of NS/NNS teachers.

5.2 Conclusion

This study attempted to investigate the differences between NS/NNS teachers with regard to the way they use feedback. The first finding was that there was statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of the use of explicit correction. NS teachers used considerably higher amount of explicit correction than NNS teachers. As it is the case that any teacher move in classroom is regarded either as negative or positive attempt, explicit correction is regarded as positive (Lyster, 2004; Ting, 2010). Teacher's explicit correction provides the target form; therefore, students know that the correct form of their utterance is what teacher said. However, explicit correction may have also potential to push students' learning to the minimum level leaving no opportunity for the students to do mental work.

Second, it was found that there was statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of the use of recasts. NS teachers used considerably lower

amount of recasts than NNS teachers. There are two distinct body of research on efficiency of recasts. Some researchers consider recasts as a beneficial teaching move. On the grounds that recast does not directly focus on the ill-formed domain (Doughty, 2001; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Leeman, 2003; Long, 1996; Ohta, 2000; Oliver, 1995) and let the students find the point of concern, it can be regarded as a positive teaching move. Doughty (2001, p.252) claimed that recasts make up the optimal context for achieving an “immediately contingent focus on form” and provide them with a “cognitive window.” Also, Long (1996) believed that recasts provide good opportunities for acquisition precisely since they are implicit in nature and connect linguistic form to meaning. Such connection may also help students to do micro-processing and notice the linguistic gap and do rehearsing in their short-term memory which in the long run leads to implicit language learning. Practically, NS teachers failed to use recasts to an appropriate level. However, there is another body of research which has negative perceptions towards recasts. Nicholas, Lightbown, and Spada (2001) argued that students have no idea when a recast is provided. That is they don’t know whether recasts give them negative evidence, or put it another way students may have no conscious awareness that the recast is meant to be corrective. Lyster (1998), for example, concluded that the levels of repair in uptake following recasts were remarkably lower than those following more explicit types of feedback.

Third, it was found that there was statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of the use of metalinguistic feedback. NS teachers used considerably higher amount of metalinguistic feedback than NNS teachers. Rezaie and Derakhshan (2011) and Dabaghi (2008) found that metalinguistic feedback was more effective than recasts. Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam (2006) concluded that metalinguistic feedback

is considerably beneficial in task-based grammar instruction. However, teacher's metalinguistic feedback swerves the attention from content and provides the information on target form thus interrupts the stream of interaction. That is students may forget what they were trying to say because of the interruption (Long, 1996).

Fourth, it was found that there was statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of the use of clarification request. NS teachers used considerably lower amount of clarification request than NNS teachers. On the grounds that clarification request does not directly focus on the ill-formed domain and let the students find the point of concern, it can be regarded as a positive teaching move (Ammar and Spada, 2006). Practically, NS teachers failed to use clarification request to an appropriate level.

Finally, it was found that there was statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of the use of elicitation. NS teachers used considerably lower amount of elicitation than NNS teachers. On the grounds that elicitation does not directly focus on the ill-formed domain and let the students find the point of concern, it can be regarded as a positive teaching move (Ting, 2010). Moreover, elicitation encourages students to take action in order to take the responsibility for their own leaning. Practically, NS teachers failed to use elicitation to an appropriate level.

5.3. Discussion

From the viewpoint of Vygotskian psychology, classroom context is flexible and dynamic in essence. Every move the teacher undertakes in the classroom needs to be an interactive decision-making practice which regards the current pedagogical concerns of the classroom (Askew & Carnell 1998; Biggs & Moore 1993; Watkins, Carnell, Lodge, & Whalley, 1996). Feedback as one such interactive teacher move

has great potential to support the language acquisition process. As Gipps and Stobart (1997) consider feedback as a fundamental characteristic of learning and teaching processes ameliorates the realization of complex learning processes. In addition, teachers' feedback plays a significant role in learning from the perspective of Levelt's model (1989). Levelt's (1989) model has three stages as: (a) conceptualizing the message, (b) formulating the language representation, and (c) articulating the message (p. 57). Among all teachers' contributions, feedback can play an undeniable role in the way the learners move forward in any of the three stages. That is, choice of teachers' feedback type may or may not orient the students to the best possible way of producing a piece of target language form. From the perspective of Levelt's model (1989) the second and third stage is the most important stages which benefit from feedback (Levelt 1989, p116). The responsibility of the second stage is to assemble lexical items from the learners' cognition and establish the language representations of the preverbal messages which lead to internal speech. A significant role that feedback plays in this stage is to remind students of the gaps between their interlanguage and the target language and help them produce better language representations (Ellis, 2004). Feedback also leads to production of more target-like preliminary representations of language. The third stage collects chunks of internal speech which are momentarily saved in an articulatory buffer and then executes them which ultimately lead to the production of overt speech. Also teachers' feedback can considerably support this stage in the sense that it provides it with sufficient information on how to shape and build the final form of the utterance. Besides, if there are some errors even in the final production version, feedback can easily demand for reassessment of these three stages i. e. conceptualization, formulation, and articulation stages and lead to the expected outcome. Therefore, feedback can

considerably support the conceptualization, formulation, and articulation stages. Improving each of these stages means a better output production on learners' part. Applying Levelt's model (1989) we can conclude that the good application of feedback can lead to good language achievement in the long run.

The present study also dealt with the issue of NS/NNS teachers and found that they may have developed different ways of teaching and feedback habits as suggested by previous literature (Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Braine 1999). They might even have different understanding of students' interlanguage development (Edge, 1988; Kramsch, 1995; 1997; Medgyes, 1994). All such differences may bias them while they take feedback moves.

Medgyes (1994) made a sound distinction between NS/NNS teachers in terms of their teaching practices. She asserted that NNS are more strict, more committed, they focus on accuracy rather than fluency, they correct/punish for errors. Therefore, by their very nature they attempt to take immediate actions on students' errors. On the other hand, NS tolerate errors and focus on the fluency of their learners. Our findings here are to some extent in line with Medgyes' proposition. That is the amount of feedback types by NNS is higher than the amount used by NS teachers.

However, in the present study, the number of uses of some feedback types used by NS teacher are higher than those used by NNS in the case of metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction. NS in the study actually correct their students which show that they do concern about their students' errors. Even NS use two types of feedback far more than NNS, i. e. explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback. But some research findings have shown that these two types of feedback are not beneficial to language learners. (Doughty, 2001; Long, 1996; Long & Robinson, 1998). Explicit correction directly focus on the ill-formed domain and present the

students the correct form. Therefore, they do not let the students to reflect upon the error deeply and find the response themselves. Thus the less deeply the students think on specific error, the less likely they are to uptake the feedback (Long, 1996).

Also, we found that NNS teachers used considerably higher amount of recasts than NS teachers. However, the research perspective to such finding is both negative and positive. Lyster (2004) believes that recasts facilitate the internalization of new knowledge and the prompts (Explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, and elicitation improve the control over previously internalized knowledge. In addition, Doughty and Varela (1998, p. 114) argued that recasts are “potentially effective, since the aim is to add attention to form to a primarily communicative task rather than to depart from an already communicative goal in order to discuss a linguistic feature.” Loewen and Philp (2006, p. 537) also regarded recasts as “pedagogically expeditious” and “time-saving” since they have the potential to let the learners both focus on meaning and maintain control over the grammatical accuracy. Loewen and Philp (2006, p. 537) claimed that prompts swerve learners’ focus from interaction to the accuracy of the linguistic form and forces them to correct their errors. Some researchers also claim that argued that Recasts and prompts can be both equally useful in communicative language classrooms (Nassaji, 2009).

However, there are also strong body of positive findings about metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction and negative findings towards recasts. Ting (2010) claimed that prompts (metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction) encourage students to make more accurate and target-like output. Yang and Lyster (2010) concluded that prompts were effective in teaching the use of regular past tense. Ammar and Spada (2006) compared the effectiveness of recasts and prompts among

three experimental groups and concluded that only prompts were effective for low-level students. Rezaie and Derakhshan (2011) found that metalinguistic feedback was more effective than recast in task-based instruction of conditionals and wish statements. They also claimed that recasts are usually left unnoticed and hence their corrective effects are less successful when compared with more explicit types of feedbacks. Similar result has been reported by Dabaghi (2008). Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam (2006) concluded that metalinguistic feedback is considerably more beneficial over recast as a CF in task-based grammar instruction. Panova and Lyster (2002) arrived at similar findings in their research in Canadian ESL context. They found that prompts lead to more learning than recasts.

NNS made use of recasts, clarification request, and elicitation far more than NS. Clarification request, and elicitation enjoy a positive fame within research body. On the grounds that these feedback types does not directly focus on the ill-formed domain and let the students find the point of concern, it can be regarded as a positive teaching move. In addition, some researchers hypothesize that these types of feedback help learners to notice the gap between interlanguage forms and target forms, thus serving as “negative evidence” (Doughty, 2001; Long, 1996; Long & Robinson, 1998). Also, according to Long (1996) these feedback types create an optimal learning chance to let students notice errors in their internal language system. He observes the reason in the fact that clarification request, and elicitation keep the learners’ meaning, thus, let students focus on other aspects of their productions.

Therefore, it can be concluded that NNS used clarification request, and elicitation types far more than NS. On the other hand, NS used explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback types of feedbacks far more than NNS. Research has also

shown that these feedback types help students to do mental activity on their problem spots and learn well.

5.4. Pedagogical implications

The implications offered by the findings of the present research to the realm of real world language teaching practice are twofold. First and foremost, there seems to be an urgent need to make some modifications in the way native teachers are trained in the private language institutes. This of course itself requires an attempt to reshape institute principals' preoccupations with the idea that the mere act of recruiting native teachers is the best way to teach a second language. As some institute principals suggest, they mostly have financial reasons for adhering to native-teachers policy. In other words, institute principals attract more clients when they employ native teachers.

Even if the institute principals cannot abandon the idea of hiring native teachers, they have to design systematic training programs to prepare them for remarkably complex processes of teaching. The only asset the native teachers are equipped with is the procedural knowledge of their native language. However, such property per se does not warrant the efficiency of the native teachers in teaching the language in dynamic framework of the classroom. Such efficiency of teaching practice requires much more than what native teachers are capable of. Efficient teaching demands practical experiences as well as a fuller understanding of learning teaching theories. Feedback as one such aspect of learning theories was shown to be used ineffectively by native teachers (Long, 1996; Long & Robinson, 1998). And it is the fact that they overuse some feedback type which according to literature is not beneficial (Doughty, 2001; Long, 1996; Long & Robinson, 1998; Lyster, 2002). On

the other hand, they rarely use some feedback types which according to literature is considerably beneficial (Ammar, 2003; Doughty, 2001; Long, 1996; Long & Robinson, 1998). Therefore, the results will imply for language teacher educators to have careful attention to issue of feedback in TTCs for native teachers.

The second implication of the research is that NNS teachers need to be trained to acquire sufficient knowledge on feedback types. The findings showed that NNS teachers mostly used Recasts in their classes. However, research has shown that recasts have the potential to be left unnoticed by the students. Or students mistake the purpose of recasts. Therefore, the findings demands teacher educators to work with their NNS teachers on recasts and their potential demerits in error correction.

Third implication of the study addresses the students themselves. As it is the case that the students are the parties within which the learning happens, an awareness-raising attempt can be much leading to the efficiency of their learning attempt. Feedback as one significant learning tool determines the gap between students' current competence and the standard forms of the language. Through through awareness-raising, students can be kept more alert for the times they receive feedback from teacher or dyads. As feedback carries wealthy pedagogical scaffolding, students can benefit considerably if they attend to its referent and objective. Therefore, students as intelligent participants in learning activity can be made fully aware of the purpose of feedback and the way it supports learning. Such awareness is a way to overcome the shortcomings in the students' inter-language system.

5.5 Further research

As for any other research, it is necessary to consider the issues which failed to be considered during the present study. Despite all attempts to conduct the study in the best possible way, there have been a couple of issues which need further considerations. Future research is also encouraged to cater for the following shortcomings:

1. The present study was descriptive in nature. That is, the differences in the use of feedback were investigated without any attempts to explore the roots of their actions. Therefore, further research is required to identify the reasons and origins of their practice.
2. The data for the purpose of the present research was only collected from a private language institute (Active Language School) in Ankara. However, it will be interesting to find out about the very general picture of this difference. That is to say, the study was limited in geographical scope to just one of the cities in Turkey. Therefore, in order to achieve a more comprehensive view of the conditions, it is a good idea to replicate the research in other cities and provinces and of course over larger populations. There were only two institute teachers in this study. Thus, to claim for any generalizability of the findings, data is required to be collected from more participants in these two groups in later studies.
3. Teachers' attitudes about their use of feedback can be investigated using closed ended questionnaires. Later, their questionnaire results can be examined against their real-time practices in their classes.

4. Also, in order to delve deeper into their attitudes in-depth interviews with teachers could be more illuminating. It would also be a nice idea to observe their classes to see whether their stated beliefs match their practice.
5. The data collection process for this research was cross-sectional in nature. However, longitudinal accounts of the possible alterations in teachers' attitudes and assumptions about feedback use, as well as the amount of their compliance with students' expectations and pedagogical norms as they gain more experience concerning the essence of feedback, may yield more interesting results in this regard.
6. Little is known about the attitudes of language learners concerning teachers' feedback giving habits. Some studies are encouraged to investigate how students perceive teacher feedback. And whether or not they inspire their teachers with regard to their feedback expectations.
7. The last but not the least, some studies are also needed to investigate the difference between the use of other types of feedback in the given groups other than those considered in the project.

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Appendix A Transcription Convention

(.)	untimed perceptible pause within a turn
<u>Underline</u>	stress
CAPS	very emphatic stress
↑	high pitch on word
↓	low pitch on word
.	sentence-final falling intonation
?	yes/no question rising intonation
,	phrase-final intonation (more to come)
-	a glottal stop, or abrupt cutting off of sound
:	lengthened vowel sound (extra colons indicate greater lengthening)
=	latch
→	highlights point of analysis
[]	overlapped talk
°soft°	spoken softly/decreased volume
> <	increased speed
() (empty parenthesis)	transcription impossible
(syll)	count of unclear syllables
(Words)	uncertain transcription
.hhh	inbreath
(Whole class)	all the students of the class
LL	all the students of the class
L:	unknown speaker
(Unknown speaker)	unknown speaker
(Sentence)	translation from first language

Appendix B Informaation about the teachers

Native Teachers

1. Lara is a an American Teacher. She was born into a teachers family. She indicates that she has not had much work experience. She attended teacher traing course in the US which lasted for only two weeks. Her major is international studies international studies. She claims to have no knowlegde
2. Maria was born to a mexixan American family and learnt English as a child however, she was also exposed to sopanish and learnt it in childhood as well. She claimed that she had only taken a two weak long course befor embarking on the job of teaching English.
3. Terri was a female native speaker teacher who was born in the US and graduated Concordia university . Her field of study was secondary education. Besides, she had worked as a volunteer in Africa and hungary.
4. Steve is a British teacher who has lived in New York for twenty years. He has worked as an engineer. He has been teacheing English for fifteen years. He also owns a Tesol.
5. Leah possesses a Bachelor's in the field of secondary education and graduated Wisconsin. She has worked as a volunteer in Africa and taught English in Hungary.
6. Heidi is American aged 25 and has taught English for two years in Taiwan. Her field of study is music . She has enrolled in Turkish language program and is in Pre-intermediate level. She has attended teacher training course for two weeks in America and is currently attending in-service training.
7. George, who is 65, has taught English for five years in Turkey. He holds a BS in business adminstration. Before teaching English he worked as a corporate instructor.
8. Margaret, aged 26, has taught English for two years. Before coming to Turkey she lived and worked in poland. Her feild of study is music. She has taught English for 2 years. She has also taught music.
9. Jack is African American who lived and worked in Israel before coming to Turkey. He taught Enlish at many governmental institutions. He has taught English for five years. His field of study is inernational relations. He has never joined a teacher training course.
10. Peter aged 32 has worked as a teachers for seven years. He possesses a TESOL certificate which allows him to teach at private universities and language schools in Ankara. Before coming to Turkey he worked as a marketing representative.

11. Thomas, aged 23, is a foreign student at Middle East Technical university. He is a novice and teaches English in his leisure time. He has never participated in any training programs and owns no qualifications.
12. Twenty year old Amanda is a graduate of political Science from a university in Belgium. He is originally from Ireland and has just started to teach in Turkey. He has no qualification in English.
13. Kalop is 50 years old. He has worked at Active for three years. Before that he used to work as a coordinator and teacher trainer for numerous language schools in Ankara.
14. Slaine, aged 27 is teacher from Scotland. She has a degree in linguistics. She has taught English in different countries like (Philippines, Thailand, Japan and Turkey). She has taken in-service training courses at Active English school which last two weeks (totally 20 hours)
15. Beatrice aged 26 comes from England and studies architecture at Middle East Technical university.

Non-Native Teachers

16. Şehnaz (27) was born in Istanbul. She holds a BA in ELT and has taught English since she graduated from university when she was 22.
17. Başak was born in Konya and graduated from Hacettepe university. Her field of study was American culture and literature. She has participated in some training programs held by Active language school.
18. Esra (23) is a graduate of Gazi university. She has taken part in teacher training courses held both by Active English and Gazi University.
19. Nilufer (25) was born in Aydın and went to Anadolu university to study English. She has taught English since she graduated university.
20. Nazlı (22) underwent teacher training education both at university where she studied and workplace. She has also lived in England for six months.
21. Other Non-Native teachers graduated from either state or private universities. They hold a BA in English and joined training courses at Active language school and also their universities.
22. Reza (30) is an Iranian student who has enrolled in Gazi university ELT program. Before coming to Turkey he was a lecturer at Islamic Azad University in west-Azerbaijan province of Iran. He has taught English as a foreign language for five years.

23. Turgay (31) was born in Azerbaijan. He studied English at the state university of Baku and got his BA. He has taught English in several language schools in Ankara. He has taken teacher training courses for 80 hours.

24. Ben (30) was born in Nigeria and learnt English as a second language. He possesses a TEFEL certificate. He has taught English in Ankara for almost five years. He participated in the in-service training courses organized by Active English School.

25. Birben(28) learnt English as a foreign language. She has been working at the preparatory school of English since she graduated Middle East Technical university. She is also a part-time teacher at Active Language School.

26. Neslihan(27)has been working at Active English School since she graduated Başkent university in 2009. Before that she worked in a law firm as a secretary. She has taken a two-week long course at Active language school. Besides, she has undergone intensive teacher training course at Başkent University.

27. Asli is a 28 year-old teacher teaching for over five years. He has done her education in English language and literature. From then she has started teaching conversation classes in different schools in Ankara. At the time the project was going she was teaching full time in Active language school.

28. Ali is a 35 years old English teacher. He has not received any education in English. He has only worked with foreigners for some years and after learning English he has taken part in TTC and shortly after the courses has started teaching.

29. Jeylan is a 25 years old teacher. She had a B.A. in English linguistics and a master' degree in TEFL. As a professional teacher, she seemed to be one of the most popular language teachers in the school. She was also teaching in a private university as an instructor.

30. Mustafa is a 46 years old business manager. Since he had studied in the united states of the America and is fully competent in English, he teaches English in his free time. Before starting teaching, he has started a TTC in two different schools. He has also taught business English in some schools of Ankara.