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TARGET LANGUAGE CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK AND LANGUAGE USE BY KOREAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL EFL TEACHERS

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ABSTRACT

TARGET LANGUAGE CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK AND LANGUAGE USE BY KOREAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL EFL TEACHERS

By

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While there has been a plethora of studies conducted on corrective feedback in ESL contexts, little work has been done on the same phenomenon in EFL classroom contexts. Korea's recently articulated policy of instituting the target language in the classroom has made it necessary to pay attention to the kinds of TL interaction teachers are using. In order to broaden the understanding of EFL classroom discourse on one hand (e.g., TL feedback), and to identify problems in meeting the stated goals of EFL teaching in Korea on the other hand, this observational study was undertaken. The main research objective was to investigate the amount and type of TL feedback as it occurred in elementary school EFL classrooms during teacher-fronted activities. The data came from class observations of 5 female EFL teachers' classes, and stimulated recall with each teacher after the last lesson was observed. The results showed that the amount of TL feedback was high in the classes where the teacher implemented meaning-based activities as well as maintained TL use. The two major factors affecting the occurrence of TL feedback were the teachers' language of instruction and their teaching methodology. Specific to methodology were the related issues of whether or not the teachers implemented TL activities and how they elicit students' knowledge. In addition, the teachers' tendency of filling-in and over-correction were identified as other factors affecting the occurrence of TL feedback.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

INTRODUCTION

The effort to improve English education has been an on-going struggle in Korea, as is probably the case in many English as a Foreign Language (EFL) countries. In Korea's case specifically, vigorous debates as to why the typical Korean student (after 10 years of studying English) still cannot speak the language well have led to several attempts by educational policy makers aimed at remedying the situation. The first initiative, in 1997, was to implement early English education in elementary schools (starting in the 3rd grade), emphasizing the development of oral/aural skills. The hope was that the early introduction of English would help students acquire better oral communication skills (Lee & Park, 2001, p.54).

The government also put great effort into developing materials and improving classroom conditions. Most English classrooms across the country were equipped with TV/VCRs and computers, and teachers began to use multi-media learning materials such as CD-ROMs and internet-based resources during class time. The new textbooks were much improved too, containing various colorful materials including picture cards, which saves teachers from having to develop their own. However, since students were still suffering from a lack of opportunities to interact in Target Language (TL), another reform was proposed by the Ministry of Education in 2000: to teach English with *English* as the medium of instruction in elementary and middle schools for at least one hour each week. The initiative began in 2001, and English classes were to be taught in English by 2004, at least officially (Fouser & Park, 2003). The motivation and hope was that this measure would promote more TL input and interaction, which educators in EFL setting were now

aware of as necessities in developing L2 proficiency (Kim, 2002).

However, despite such efforts at the policy level in Korea, little is known about how much input and interaction in the TL is going on at the ground level - in the actual classroom. In a thorough overview of issues in curriculum change and management, Markee (1997) points out that language education programs have placed too much emphasis on curriculum development, at the expense of curriculum implementation in the classroom. Supporting Markee's points, Carless (1999), in his study of task-based curriculum implementation in Hong Kong, claimed that many innovations are adopted "*in name*" but never actually tried at the classroom level (p. 374). These warnings about the discrepancies between theoretical policy on one side, and actual classroom practice on the other, suggest the need for research into EFL classroom contexts.

Although the government push for maximal TL use in Korea has had some positive effects, stimulating discussion about teacher's language use (Fouser & Park, 2003), I have located no research that investigates directly how EFL teachers try, or do not try, to promote TL input and interaction in *actual* classrooms in this particular EFL context.[1]

A few survey-based studies were done inquiring about teachers' perceptions of the policy, essentially to confirm the difficulties limiting its implementation: low proficiency of students and teachers, large class sizes, lack of time to prepare the lessons, and little on-going in-service training (Kim, 2002; Fouser & Park, 2003). For example, Kim (2002) surveyed 53 in-service English teachers (elementary to high school); Fouser and Park

[1] There was one study located on teachers' language use – an error analysis study by Lee (1999). However, the data of his study was not from the teachers' actual use, but drawn from 122 lesson plans written by in-service and pre-service teachers. The result showed the grammatical errors most frequently made by the teachers, exceeding other areas such as lexical and orthographical errors.

(2003) gathered information from 200 middle school English teachers in Japan and Korea. Both studies recommended increasing the number of teacher education programs in order to implement TL use more successfully in the classroom.

There is no doubt that the information gathered through these surveys is helpful in understanding the situation of EFL teachers. However, to be able to support the teachers in a more practical way (e.g., as to what types of in-service training they need), their use of language must be studied.[2] In the words of Van Lier (1988), we should not make "rash recommendations about methods of teaching and ways of learning" without really knowing what transpires in the classroom (p. 7). Polio and Duff's (1994) comment about the lack of research into domestic foreign language classrooms also neatly sums up the case for investigating EFL classrooms:

> "Many researchers have described linguistic input and interaction in ESL classrooms, yet relatively few have characterized FL classes, an area which deserves much more attention than it has received until now. Despite their advertised objectives of targeting oral/aural as well as literacy skills, *many foreign language programs may privilege grammar, literacy, and translation skills, and this imbalance could be addressed through classroom research* [italics added] (p. 313)."

With this in mind, the current study is intended to contribute to an understanding of EFL classroom interaction by identifying difficulties and problems that are being experienced in meeting the stated goals of EFL teaching in Korea. The particular focus of this study is one aspect of input and interaction: teacher-student TL corrective feedback exchanges. It is hoped that this study can identify some of the areas of concern as a first step towards addressing them. Specifically, the research questions are as follows.

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[2] Some of the classroom-based studies on teachers' language use found that the teachers' actual classroom practice may not equate with their perceived use of the language (e.g., Duff & Polio, 1990; Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004). Therefore, the findings of survey-based studies on teacher behavior may be questionable.

1) What amount of TL corrective feedback is found in Korean elementary EFL classrooms, and what type is it?

2) What are the identifiable factors affecting the occurrence of TL feedback?

In addition to answering these two questions, this study will also present the results of a preliminary study of the teachers' language use, both in terms of amount and function, drawn from the same data. The discussion will start with a review of the research on corrective feedback.

CHAPTER 1

LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Research Motivations

1.1. Studies on Corrective Feedback: Importance, research areas investigated

A substantial body of research has been accumulated on the role of corrective feedback in second language acquisition (SLA). Corrective feedback refers to an implicit (e.g., recast) or explicit (e.g., metalinguistic information) indication of learner errors. It is now widely supported as a benefit to L2 learners (in meaning-based contexts), in that it helps them notice the difference between the TL and their utterance.

Along with discrete language point presentation, feedback on errors is one of two features common to all L2 classrooms (Nicolas, Lightbown, & Spada, 2001). Therefore it is not surprising to find that studies of classroom language learning have a very wide scope in the area of feedback (Chaudron, 1988). Within this body of work, feedback goes by a variety of names - error treatment, negative evidence, negative feedback, focus on form (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), or (more recently) reactive focus on form (this term defined by Ellis, 2001).[3] (Hereafter the terms, corrective feedback and feedback, are used interchangeably.)

Research objectives in the literature on feedback range from exploring the effect

[3] Citing Schachter (1991), Lyster and Ranta stated that the terms, *negative evidence, negative feedback*, and *focus on form*, have been used in the field of psycholinguitics, linguistics, and L2 pedagogy respectively. Based on Ellis' (2001) framework of form-focused instruction (FFI), corrective feedback can also be labeled as *reactive focus on form*, which refers to the teacher's (or sometimes another student's) reaction to an error made by an individual student (e.g., in Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001).

of different types of feedback in experimental settings (e.g., Carroll & Swain, 1993; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Long, Inagaki & Ortega, 1998) and content-based ESL classroom settings (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998), to investigating the distribution of feedback and learner modification in immersion or ESL classrooms (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998a, 1998b, 2001; Panova & Lyster, 2002). Expanding the area of study on feedback to learners' perspectives, a study by Mackey, Gass, & McDonough (2000) considered the question of how adult L2 learners perceive different types of feedback that occurred during dyad tasks: Did adult learners perceive feedback as such, and did they recognize the linguistic target of the feedback? Using stimulated recall methods to gather information about learner's perceptions, their study found that the learners' perception of feedback differed depending on the types of error made, as well as the type of feedback given (i.e., recasts, negotiation, or a combination of the two).[4]

Other studies address the important role of contextual variables that affect the provision of teacher feedback in classroom settings[5] – factors such as classroom interactional context (Oliver & Mackey, 2003), learner age (Oliver, 2000), teacher experience and teacher education (Mackey, Polio, and McDonough, 2004), teacher beliefs (Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004), and types of pedagogical setting (e.g., content-based) (Pica, 2002). Oliver and Mackey (2003) looked at the provision of feedback under four different contexts of teacher-student exchanges (i.e., content, management, communication, and explicit language-focus) in five elementary school

[4] For example, the study found that the learners perceived more accurately the feedback on vocabulary and phonological errors than that on morphosyntactic errors. Negotiation, which was given most frequently in reaction to phonological errors, was consequently perceived as such. Recasts, which occurred mostly on morphosyntactic errors, were least likely to be perceived as feedback.

[5] Contextual variables referred to in this study include both *macro*-level (e.g., socio-cultural context, pedagogical settings, background of participants) and *macro*-level (e.g., discourse, interactive context) (Van Lier, 1988).

ESL classes. Their results demonstrated that the amount of feedback differed significantly depending on the focus of the exchanges that took place in each lesson period. Among the 4 interactional contexts, the percentage of teacher feedback was higher in explicit language focus and content exchanges than it was in communication and management exchanges.

Oliver (2000) examined the role of learner age (i.e., adult vs. children) in two different interactional settings (i.e., teacher-fronted lessons vs. NS-NNS dyads). Significant differences were found between adults and children during teacher-fronted lessons, especially in the following two areas: i) the number of errors, and ii) the types of feedback. That is, the proportion of correct utterances by children was significantly higher than that of adults. As a result, adults received more feedback than children. In terms of the feedback types used, teachers of adults employed more negotiation-type feedback than the teachers of children. Oliver detailed the differences further by observing that the different results were, in part, due to the different degrees of control over the interactions by the teachers. That is, teachers of children tended to exert a tighter control over their learners than teachers of adults, thus "reducing the opportunity for producing erroneous utterances by the young learners" (p. 138).

Mackey, Polio and McDonough's study (2004) highlights the importance of teacher education, as well as teacher experience through its investigation of a distribution of incidental focus on form seen in adult ESL teachers at two different levels of experience.[6] Their results showed that experienced teachers used the focus on form techniques significantly more than inexperienced ones. The most interesting and

[6] Incidental focus on form (Ellis, 2001) refers to incidentally arisen classroom activities (i.e., either preemptively or reactively) which draw learners for attention to linguistic form. Mackey, Polio, and McDonough's (2004) study looked at *both* preemptive and reactive focus on form.

important implication of their study is the follow-up they did; the researchers conducted a teacher development session about focus on form techniques with the inexperienced teachers to look at how such training would help the novice teachers' use of those techniques. Although the use of those techniques did not increase significantly after the short workshop, they learned from the reflections provided by the pre-service teachers that the workshop had raised the teachers' awareness of focus on form techniques.

Although there are complex issues and variables to take into account when considering the effects of corrective feedback (e.g., learner's readiness and attention to form), the overarching finding of previous studies is that corrective feedback is facilitative in L2 learning. Therefore it is important for language teachers to be capable of implementing L2 feedback in their classrooms.

1.2. Adaptability of Findings: Lack of research on EFL classrooms

What is probably most amazing in SL research on feedback is how diverse the field is; the range of topics is daunting. However, questions arise when one considers the matter of applying the findings of the studies in EFL classroom settings in Asia, a context where the teachers are typically nonnative TL speakers and where the typical class sizes are 40 or more. Most of the studies done (only some of which were mentioned above) are based on either ESL or French immersion settings, where average class size does not exceed 20, a number half of what is found in EFL classrooms. The participating teachers are usually native or near-native speakers of the TL.[7]

[7] A few studies were conducted in European EFL classrooms. For example, Havranek and Cesnik (2001) and Havranek (2003) looked at the types and the effect of feedback in German EFL classrooms. The situations do not seem to be much different from that of ESL settings: small class sizes and native/near-native speaking teachers. There were 2 studies conducted in EFL classrooms with nonnative speaking

It is certainly understandable that previous studies usually involved native or near-native teachers of the TL. The underlying objectives of most studies were to some degree related to finding out the effect of feedback from the learner development point of view. To measure the (immediate/short term) effects, the studies need to focus on learners' performance, allowing as few variables as possible of the participating teachers. Therefore, it is not surprising to find that the studies on feedback provide only minimal information about the teachers (e.g., their gender or years of teaching experience), unless the purpose of the research was specifically to target teacher variables, such as in the Basturkmen, et al. (2004) study about teachers' beliefs and their actual use of focus on form, or in the Mackey et al. (2004) study described earlier.[8]

However, questions remain as to how EFL learners can profit from corrective feedback, or whether they are even amenable to such type of input. To take one definition of corrective feedback as an example, one of the pre-requisites for it to occur is that *an individual student* has to make an error, or there needs to be communication breakdown between the teacher and *a student*.[9] Obviously, such one-to-one interactions may take place frequently in ESL classrooms, but probably not in EFL classrooms with 40 students. In that case, because of the lack of opportunity, one might question whether corrective

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teachers of English: One study was by Lucas (1975) in German and the other was by Yoneyama (1982) in Japan. I was not able to locate the original studies. According to Chaudron (1988), who cited the studies, the studies suggested the non-native speaking teachers put high priorities on correcting grammar errors.

[8] Looked at from another angle, the above reason also explains why the area of nonnative TL teachers' feedback patterns in L2 has been underdeveloped; unless the participating teachers have enough TL proficiency, it may involve more complex variables making it hard to come up with generalizations, a difficulty this study also encountered.

[9] Ellis (2001) states that focus on form occurs between the teacher and *an individual student* and the teacher's technique is directed at *the individual learners* but can benefit other classmates who listen to the correction: when the teachers react to an error made by *an individual student* or when *an individual student* asks a question about the meaning of a word (p.37). Havranek (2003) also writes the same: corrective feedback occurs as a response to *a particular learner's incorrect utterance* and is addressed to that learner, but in the school context her/his classmates are also expected to learn from the correction.

feedback (or focus on form), a method encouraged in ESL settings, is, in fact, the best way to teach EFL. Taking a closer look at a specific type of feedback, recasts (i.e., reformulation of learners' incorrect utterances), one might doubt whether the effects of this heavily-researched feedback type (see Nicolas et al., 2001 for a comprehensive review) have much relevance in EFL settings with non-native speaking teachers.

Several studies have indeed expressed concerns about the adaptability to EFL of methodologies developed in ESL contexts. Some have focused on the argument that SLA theories and teaching methodologies developed in ESL settings are not necessarily applicable to EFL, especially in Asia, because of cultural and socioeconomic differences (e.g., Liu, 1999 in Braine, 1999). Others have taken a more constructive approach by addressing the difficulties/problems that exist in the adaptation of current methodologies in EFL countries (e.g., Li, 1998; Fotos, 1998). For example, Li (1998) carried out a study investigating the conflicts Korean teachers had about implementing Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). After thoughtfully outlining the difficulties EFL teachers faced,[10] Li provided recommendations relating to very general factors such as educational values and attitudes in society, and the development of local teaching methodology. She also proposed work that could be done on specific skills, such as reading and grammar. The justification/motivation of Li's study, as well as the findings, are inspiring. In her conclusion, she writes:

> "In any attempt to improve education, teachers are central to long-lasting changes. How teachers as the end users of an innovation perceive its feasibility is a crucial factor in the ultimate success or failure of that innovation" (p. 698).

[10] Factors related to teachers and students (e.g., low language proficiency, lack of opportunity to use English outside, students' reluctance to participate in class, misconceptions about CLT, little time to prepare), educational system (e.g., lack of training programs, large class size, grammar-based examination), and the problems of CLT itself (e.g., issues regarding assessment).

In summary, I believe the issues and concerns discussed so far regarding the adaptation of current methodologies in EFL countries can be achieved through more active research in EFL. The lack of research into EFL classrooms means that there will probably be some kind of resistance to new methods before we can even try to see what will work. Furthermore, Li's point that the teacher is the one who chooses to adopt or not to adopt any curricular changes is enough justification for research attentions on EFL teachers.

The purpose of the current study, as mentioned earlier, was to look at one aspect of classroom input and interaction (i.e., TL feedback) during teacher-fronted lessons. By finding out how frequently teacher TL feedback occurs, and what identifiable factors play a role in the occurrence of TL feedback, this study will be able to identify some of the areas in need of improvement in order to develop English education in one EFL context – Korea. The following section discusses the model of TL feedback adopted in this study and the implications of using TL feedback for EFL teachers.

2. Feedback Types and Implications in EFL Classrooms

2.1. Types of Feedback

Different research studies have proposed different sets of categories for feedback types (Chaudron, 1988), probably because of their own research interests. For example, in an observational study of immersion school teachers' feedback and learner uptake, Lyster and Ranta (1997) categorized teacher feedback 6 different ways (i.e., recasts, repetition, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, explicit correction) in order to capture more accurately what type of feedback was leading learners to modify

their utterances. In an earlier study, Chaudron (1977) developed the models of 31 features and types of corrective feedback, to provide a descriptive, quite detailed model of a classroom discourse (cited in Chaudron, 1988).

This study follows the low-inference categories that Ellis (2001) classified as *reactive focus on form* techniques: recasts, negotiation, and explicit feedback. The reason behind this choice was the potential benefit of being consistent with terminology used in other recent studies of form-focused instruction (e.g., Mackey et al. 2004).

The following is a definition of each technique, with examples taken from the data in this study.

***A. Recasts*:** A type of implicit feedback, recast refers to the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's erroneous utterance (Example 1). Recast has been of particular interest in L2 research because of its particular nature: it is unobtrusive, keeping the flow of communication while serving as feedback input at the same time.[11] [The teachers' feedback appears in bold.]

(Ex 1) Recasts	T 1 (5/27)
T: How much is it? Please guess, Team A.	"Guessing the price"
S 1: Ten dollar!	
T: Ten dollars! Oh, it's too expensive!	
S 2: Five dollar!	
T: It's five dollars! Too expensive.	

[11] Whether recasts serve as negative evidence in SLA is rather controversial. After reviewing literature on the effect of recasts in L1 and L2, Nicolas et al. (2001) suggest that learner development stages, pedagogical settings (e.g., content-based or form-based), researching contexts (e.g., laboratory or classroom observation) are important considerations in discussing the effect of recasts.

B. Negotiation: Negotiation, another type of implicit feedback, includes clarification requests (Example 2) and repetition with rising intonation (Example 3); these are used to indicate that there is some sort of problem with the utterance (i.e., form) or that it has not been understood (i.e., meaning). Gass (1997) notes that negotiation includes both negotiation of form and negotiation of meaning, and that the two are often inseparable. The importance of negotiation has been emphasized by many SL researchers. For example, Gass (1997) posited that, "because it can require more learner involvement [than recasts] and hence ensure that some processing has taken place on the part of the learner," negotiation "might result in a greater likelihood that learners' attention is focused on the language of the negotiation" (cited in Mackey et al. 2000, p.491). In fact, it is negotiation that some of the classroom-based SL researchers argue in favor of, over other types of feedback such as recasts or explicit correction (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998a, 1988b).

(Ex 2) Clarification requests	T 2 (6/12)
T: What does he want? What does he want? S 1: He XXX. **T: Huh? Beg your pardon?** S 1: He wants some water- waTer.	Checking the answer to listening comprehension questions on CD

(Ex 3) Repetition	T 5 (5/30)
T: ((posting flash cards on the board)) 오늘은 선생님이 쉬운 것부터 같이 해보자 [*Let's start with an easy one first.*] S: /diz/=	Vocabulary

T: =diz?

SS: 아[*Ah*], This//dis

C. Explicit feedback in TL: As the term "explicit" indicates, explicit feedback refers to any overt correction in response to an error (Mackey et al., 2004). This type of feedback includes explicit statements or questions pointing out an error and may or may not include metalinguistic terminology.

(Ex 4) **Explicit feedback: explicit statement**	T 2 (6/5)
S: I /wən-teu/, some, spaghetti.	Review
T: Don't say 'wən-TEU.' Say /wən/. /wən/	[* This episode is from the first
S: /wən/	lesson observed – not included
T: /wən/	in data analysis of the TL
S: /wən/	feedback]

(Ex 5) **Explicit feedback: overt question type**	T 2 (6/12)
S 1: /sirsty/	Review
T: Sirsty? **Is there that kind of word?**	
/sirsty/라는 단어가 영어가 있습니까? [*Is 'sirsty' an English word?]*	
Say properly. THirsty. THirsty. Repeat after me. THirsty.	
S 1: Thirsty	

2-2. TL Feedback: Implications for EFL teachers

To turn to the most fundamental question, what impact would it have if EFL

teachers employed current practices regarding corrective feedback in the TL? The answers can be seen looking at the role of feedback from two broad perspectives. First there is the way the function of feedback in learning theory has changed. Second, it is important to understand how the priorities of form-focused instruction, if it is going to be used in EFL, will be different from the form-focused approach in ESL, since EFL has a built-in emphasis on form already.

Chaudron (1988) noted that, in a traditional audio-lingual approach, the concept of feedback was equivalent to reinforcement of behavior. That is, feedback was provided in one of two following ways:

- positive reinforcement by praising or repeating the student's correct response, or
- negative reinforcement by explaining grammar points (i.e., direct correction) or modeling the correct response (i.e., indirect correction). (p. 133)

The underlying assumption was that the learner errors would be cured through this mechanical, in Ellis' (1990) words, "manipulative process" (p.74). In the more current L2 learning theories, largely influenced by interactive and cognitive theories of learning (Nassaji, 2000), feedback is a part of the "*process of negotiation*" (p.74), a means by which the students and teacher work together to manage interactional tasks in the class (Ellis, 1990). Thus, the function of feedback is not limited to providing reinforcement; it also provides information that learners can utilize to modify their output (Chaudron, 1988), which Swain (1985) argues is important for learners to develop their L2. From the perspective of learners' development of linguistic forms, work done by Gass (1997) and others (e.g., Schmidt, 1990) further suggests that corrective feedback is a necessary device, helping learners develop (or internalize) linguistic information

(Boulima, 1999). As it is commonly believed that teachers teach the way they learned, one can assume that teachers who learned TL under traditional teaching methods (e.g., grammar-translation, audio-lingual) rely heavily on such reinforcing treatments. It is important that teachers be equipped with different techniques for giving feedback that go beyond the simplistic and explicit "you-are-right-or-wrong" type of reinforcement.

Considering corrective feedback within the framework of form-focused instruction, the function of feedback reflect the shift in teaching practices from traditional approaches to their more communicatively-oriented equivalents. From the point of view of EFL teachers and their teaching methods, being able to use different techniques of corrective feedback does not just mean that they know several ways of providing feedback in the TL. It also means that they are able to implement communicative activities in which students can use the TL in more meaningful ways. In a thorough review of FFI in SLA, Spada (1997) concludes that FFI has an advantage in L 2 development. She cited the findings of N. Ellis's (1995) study: "...a blend of explicit instruction and implicit learning can be superior to either just explicit instruction or implicit learning alone" (p. 82). EFL countries like Korea cannot afford to exclude explicit grammar instruction from their English curriculum, since grammatical knowledge becomes important at the secondary school level and in higher education. However, at the same time they would like to produce learners who have fluency in the L2. Fotos (1998) argues for focus on form in EFL settings. She maintains that EFL has never left grammar instruction completely behind. The major problem in EFL situations is not a lack of grammar instruction, but the absence of opportunities for contextualized TL use. Fotos asserts that focus on form provides a strong rationale for incorporating

communicative language activities into EFL grammar classrooms, and that it is "exactly" what EFL classrooms need to adapt (p. 301).

From the standpoint of enhancing TL input and interaction in the classroom, utilizing TL feedback techniques would benefit EFL teachers in Korea. Explicit feedback, especially of the metalinguistic type, may not necessarily be given in the TL in the classes observed, but this study restricts its consideration to feedback that is given in the TL; the feedback given in the NL is coded separately, to be discussed at a later point.

Given the reasons above, this study takes a position in favor of higher TL feedback in the classroom during teacher-fronted activities.[12] Many factors play a role in the occurrence of TL feedback. Identifying some of the important factors is another key element that this study attempts to address. Therefore, no predetermined hypothesis was set. However, a logical prediction could be made: the more a teacher uses TL, the higher the frequency of TL feedback that will occur. Indeed, during the observation, it became evident that the teachers' TL/NL use was a primary issue and needed to be addressed before looking at the TL feedback. The teachers' medifum of the instruction was an overarching factor that affected not just the frequencies of TL feedback but also overall class interaction affecting the TL use by the students. Therefore, this study conducted a preliminary study looking into the teachers' TL/NL; the results of this preliminary study will be discussed after the section on research methods.

[12] Of course, one might need to be cautious when making such argument; the higher quantity of the TL feedback itself may not be the direct reflection of the quality of the class in EFL classroom, especially if the class' focus is already on the form. One also needs to consider the matter of the appropriateness of feedback – learner's level and affective aspect, for example. In addition, in a large classroom, teacher-to-one feedback may mean that the rest of 39 students are being left out. In his study of variation in the frequency and characteristics of incidental focus on form in ESL classrooms, Loewen (2003) expressed the concern that there has not been much guidance for teachers regarding the optimal number of focus-on-form interventions in the classroom.

RESEARCH METHODS

3. Research paradigm

The current study adopted a non-ethnographic, non-experimental research approach, in Polio's (1996) definition of the term.[13] That is, it aims to describe what goes on in the classroom without experimental manipulation, but also has a more specific focus (i.e., TL feedback exchanges) than other types of qualitative research such as ethnographic study.

An underlying principle has guided the choice of the research paradigm of this classroom study. Discussing the issues and the difficulties in reporting classroom research, Polio (1996) notes that non-ethnographic research involves various complications (e.g., reporting with implicit evaluation of the teachers). Nevertheless, as Polio stresses, such research *is* a benefit to the field of second/foreign language teaching (although it may include sensitive issues especially with respect to the teachers). Investigating the teachers' behavior is important, given that they are the most important factors affecting the success of instructed SLA (Polio, 1996). Therefore, such kinds of non-ethnographic research should be encouraged.

She provides suggestions to help minimize potential problems in presenting the observational reports: eliciting teacher perspectives, acknowledging the teacher's point of view and the realities of the teaching context, for example. Informed by these suggestions,

[13] Polio (1996) subdivides non-experimental (i.e., qualitative) research into three kinds: ethnography, program evaluation, and non-ethnographic/non-experimental research. These three types are not necessarily mutually exclusive, but each type has its own characteristics. For example, ethnographic research is more holistic, while non-ethnographic/non-experimental research focuses on a specific feature of the classroom. Non-ethnographic research is also different from program evaluation research; the purpose of the study is known by all the parties involved in program evaluation, but is implicit in non-ethnographic research.

this study triangulated the data by adopting a retrospective method - stimulated recall (Gass & Mackey, 2000). In their thorough guidelines for stimulated recall, Gass and Mackey (2000) note that the major advantage of this tool is that it allows the researcher to access the participant's insights, which are difficult to obtain by other means (e.g., class observation alone).

The following section describes the background of data collection: teaching contexts, participants, and procedures.

4. Data Collection

4.1. Background: Teaching Contexts, Goals of English Education

The elementary school level was chosen for observation in this study. The rationale behind the choice was the assumption that elementary school English classes have more TL interaction than classes at higher levels (Lee, Choi, Boo, & Lee, 2001). English instruction for secondary school students is more grammar-oriented (i.e., more traditional), because of the importance of college entrance examinations in Korea (Kim, 2002). Kim's (2002) survey also reported that elementary school teachers (n=14) showed more positive attitudes toward the TL use policy while secondary school teachers (n=39), especially high school teachers, did not favor it. Only 5th and 6th grade classes were selected; in the 3rd and 4th grade, curriculum is designed mainly to develop listening skills, and much of the lesson content is comprised of songs and chants only (Lee et al. 2001).

According to the national curriculum, the primary goal of English education at the

elementary school level is to develop "communicative competence and fluency"; another objective is to raise student's motivation and interest in English learning (Kwon, 2000, p. 78). Under the new national curriculum, 5th and 6th grade receive English instruction 2 hours a week; 3rd and 4th grade 1 hour a week. One characteristic of the Elementary school English curriculum is the total exclusion of written language in the first year of instruction.[14] The following list summarizes the characteristics of the previous national curriculums (6th. effective in 1995-2000). According to Kwon (2000), the new curriculum (7th. effective in 2001-current) followed the basic philosophy of the previous one, which the list outlines (p.60-61):

1) A change to a functional syllabus from the traditional grammatical syllabus
2) Comprehension before production
3) Emphasis on communicative competence
4) Fluency over accuracy

The only major change made in the new curriculum was to switch the orientation of the syllabus – from functional to "grammatical-functional syllabus"; Grammatical structures are categorized for their grammatical functions without explicit grammatical terminology. (Kwon, 2000, p.79).

4.2. Participants

Five female EFL teachers in public elementary schools participated in this study. Table 1 shows the teachers' profiles. In terms of their years of teaching experience, T 1

[14] English curriculum at the elementary school level has been criticized by its too little emphasis on writing and grammar skills (Lee et al. 2001). Lee et al. (2001) for example argued that there has been discontinuity between elementary English and middle-school curriculums. Indeed, the teachers in this study expressed such concerns. However, this study will not attempt to evaluate the program.

and T 4 had more than 10. T 3 and T 5 had 4 years each, and T 2 had 2 years. All teachers but T 4 were teaching Grade 6 (11-12 years old). Regarding the teachers' background, T 2, T 3, and T 5 all majored in elementary school English education in college, with T 5 taking an MA degree in the subject as well. T 4 taught English in secondary schools for 8 years before she started teaching at the elementary level. T 1 and T 2 had ESL experience overseas.

Table 1. Summary of Participants

	T 1	T 2	T 3	T 4	T 5
English teaching	11 (yrs)	2	4	12	4
Education	B.A. in Elementary Education + M.A. in Psychology	B.A. in Elementary English Edu.	B.A. in Elementary English Edu.	B.A. in Secondary English Edu.	B.A. + M.A. in Elementary English Edu.
Formal training	Training programs abroad	Intensive ESL abroad	In-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	In-service teacher training
Grade observed	6^{th} (Age: 12)	6^{th} (Age: 12)	6^{th} (Age: 12)	5^{th} (Age: 11)	6^{th} (Age: 12)
Class size	45	40	39	38	39

As to why these particular teachers were invited, the first priority when finding suitable teachers was to include ones who were relatively experienced (i.e., in terms of their years of teaching and/or their educational background). The five teachers do have different backgrounds (e.g., their years of English teaching experience vary from 2 to 12;

their TL proficiency was unknown before observing the classes; some teachers had ESL training experience overseas, and the others did not; some teachers had had classes in English teaching methods for the elementary school level, and others had not.) However, this diverse group *is* regarded as representative of the current average population of English teachers in elementary school in Korea. Considering that there are also non-English-major teachers who are teaching the subject in elementary schools, the four teachers (T 2,3,4,5) can be regarded as relatively qualified for elementary schools in Korea.[15] The second important objective in mind was to have at least one teacher who was particularly skilled (i.e., T 1).[16] T 1's teaching experience started when English language was elective, not a regular subject in elementary school curriculum. She has done workshops as a teacher trainer and attended overseas training programs in English speaking countries.

4.3. Data Sources and Procedures

The data consisted of class observations of 4 lessons and stimulated recall (SR) after the last observation. Each class was videotaped, and the videotape was used as the main prompt for SR. The data collection period was May through June 2003, halfway through the first semester of the school year. The schedules for the observations and

[15] There are three types of English teachers at elementary school level in Korea: English subject-only teachers (e.g., T 1, T 2), homeroom-teachers (e.g., T 3, T 5), and competent neighboring classroom teachers in exchange of other subjects (e.g., T 4). Not all the teachers are English-related major in the case of homeroom teachers (i.e., teaching all the subject matters including English); many of them, especially for 3rd and 4th grade level teachers, are non-English majors. Non-English majored teachers are eligible to teach English subject once they receive 120-hour in-service training programs (Kwon, 2000).

[16] Polio (1996) notes the benefits of observing particularly skilled teachers in conducting an observational study. For example, in their 1990 study of college-level foreign language classes in North America, Duff and Polio found one teacher who effectively used her TL/NL (i.e., the teacher used the students' NL (i.e., English) in the last 5 minutes of class so that the students could ask questions in English). Using this example as well as a work by Cumming (1992), Polio (1996) writes that such an approach allows a study to make a more positive report on teacher behaviors, consequently benefiting other pre-/in-service teachers.

stimulated recall are in Appendix A. During the video recordings, an audiotape was placed on the teacher's desk at the front of the classroom. Transcriptions were made using both the audiotape and the videotapes to capture the teachers' non-verbal gestures. The transcript conventions can be found in Appendix B.

A pre-observational interview was done briefly to get the background of each teacher, such as their teaching experiences, and to arrange an observation schedule. The teachers were informed that this study was generally interested in classroom interaction. They were not told about the specific objective of the study – their patterns of TL feedback, nor were they told that this study was also interested in looking at their TL/NL use. Although it might have been useful information to directly survey each teacher about her self- perceived proficiency, the question was not asked during the observation periods. The reason behind this omission was a concern that the teachers might become too self-conscious about their language use during videotape recordings. Later, during the interviews, all the teachers expressed the opinion to some degree that their TL proficiency was one constraint in their teaching of English.

CHAPTER 2

TEACHERS' LANGUAGE USE

As mentioned previously, the teachers' TL/NL use was the primary issue that needed to be addressed before discussing TL feedback. The following section presents the ratio of TL to NL by the teachers, functions of the languages, and the teachers' reasons for their language choice. The distribution of the teachers NL and TL was calculated by counting the utterances[17]. The definition of utterance was defined as "grammatical and/or intonational limits" (Ma, 2003).[18] An utterance appeared as a single lexical word, a sentence, or a phrase. Each teacher's utterance was entered into a spreadsheet and coded as K, E, or M for Korean, English, and Mixed utterances respectively. Examples and a detailed description of the definition of utterance can be found in Appendix C.

1. Results

1.1. The Ratio of TL to NL

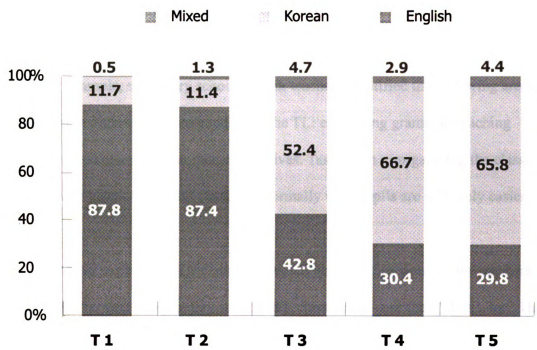
Figure 1 shows the average use of the languages over 4 lessons by the five teachers. The amount of TL showed a range from around 88% to 30%. The mean of total TL use by T 1

[17] For the analysis of teachers' percentage of TL/NL use, all four lessons from each teacher were used. It was judged that it would be beneficial to look at as many lessons as possible.

[18] Counting utterances was used here instead of other techniques, such as word counting, since Korean is an agglutinative language and English is not. That is, an utterance at a sentential level in English can be a lexical word in Korean. Polio and Duff (1994) addressed this problem. Another method, marking the language by listening to tapes, is a technique used in some of the studies (e.g., Duff & Polio 1990; Kang, 2001). The current study did not use this technique because the teachers frequently used CD-Rom – in every lesson, for each activity, which might affect the results more if the method had been used. In other words, it was judged that using such techniques might not be giving more accurate pictures of the ratio of the two languages used by each teacher, especially in the case of low NL using teachers.

and T 2 was *over* 80 %, T 4 and T 5 *less* than 30 %, and T 3 in the middle.

Figure 1. Ratio of Teachers' TL vs. NL Use



In the quantitative study of teachers' language use (i.e., 15 teachers of Spanish at secondary school level), Wing (1987) reported that postgraduate travel/residence in a target country was the strongest predictor leading to the high amount of TL use in the classroom. This may have accounted for the high amount of TL use by T 1 and T 2; both had ESL experience abroad.

1.2. The Functions of the TL/NL Use

Many studies have looked at the teacher's TL use, but those are mostly conducted at the secondary school level (e.g., Mitchell, 1988; Franklin, 1990; Macaro, 1995; Turnbull, 1999; Wing, 1987), and a few at college level (e.g., Duff & Polio, 1990; Polio

& Duff, 1994). The overarching findings of these previous studies are that L1 was used mostly for teaching grammar explicitly, giving instructions for complex activities, controlling/ managing the classroom, for building rapport, and providing L1 equivalents or vice versa (Macaro, 2001). Some of them point out that there is a hierarchy of difficulty in the TL among teacher-fronted activities like the ones just listed. In Franklin (1990), for example, secondary school French teachers identified the following areas as being the most difficult tasks to conduct in the TL: explaining grammar, teaching background, and discussing language objectives. Tasks such as organizing the classroom, giving activity instructions, and chatting informally with pupils are relatively easier to do in the TL.

A logical expansion of the question would be: what functions do the teachers in this particular context - elementary school EFL classrooms - use their TL/NL for? The functions were broken down into six broad categories: basic instruction, eliciting comprehension, activity/game instruction, praise/feedback, modeling, and explicit teaching of forms/lesson objectives.

Basic instruction includes a short instructional phrase as a routine (e.g., "Listen carefully," "Clap your hands five times"). Discipline-related phrases were also included with basic instructions, since some teachers used overt statements (e.g., T 2: Speak quietly, 조용히 하십시오 [*Speak quietly*], T 4: 조용히 해 [*Be quite*]), while other teachers used basic instructional phrases for the purposes of discipline (e.g., T 1: ((gesture)) Point to the window, point to the board, point to the door, point to the ceiling, ((lowering her voice when the class begins to calm down)) Point to your eyes, nose, mouth, ((whispering)) put your hands down).

(Examples 6) Basic instruction & disciplining	
TL	T 1: Now, open your book to page fifty one. Open your book to page fifty one and ((gesture)) please read the sentence, and connect the pictures with sentences... ((walking around the class)) Please connect the word-sentences with pictures XXX.
Middle	T 3: Open your book to page fifty-five. Fifty-five. 자[ok], Listen carefully. 잘듣고 내용에 맞게 선으로 연결해 봅시다. [*Listen carefully and match the answers correctly.*]
NL	T 5: 자 그럼 1번 문제, 다같이 1번문제 읽어보자. '잘 듣고 알맞은 그림과 낱말을 선으로 연결해 봅시다.' 잘듣고, 두번만 들려줍니다. 음, 떠드는 사람은 잘 들을 수 없어. 잘 듣고 줄을 그어보세요. [*OK, next, question number one. Let's read question number one together. 'Listen carefully to the dialogue and match the pictures and words line by line.' Listen carefully. I'll play it only twice. Those who make noise can't listen properly. Listen carefully and match them line by line.*]

Elicitation of comprehension mostly occurred during listening comprehension checks; Examples are given below.

(Examples 7) Eliciting comprehension (After listening to a CD dialogue)	
TL	T 1: Who is she? Who is she? S1: She is a - SS: Momy // mo:m= T: = She is Mom. Mom. She is Mom. Who is she? SSS: She is Nami. T: She is Nami. Is she wearing red cap? SSS: No~
NL	T 4: 자! 아까 나왔던 그 남자아이 이름이 뭐였죠? 진? [*Ok, what's the name of the boy in the dialogue? Jin*?] SS: 호 //진호 [*Ho // Jinho*] T: 진호 삼촌 이름은? [*Jinho's uncles' name is*?] SSS: 준일! // 김준일 [*Junil // Kim Junil*] T: 김준일씨는 뭐하는 사람일까요? [*What does Mr. Kim Junil do*?] SSS: 가수 [*A singer*] T: 가수. 머리에 뭘 쓰고 있었어요? [A singer. What was he wearing?] SSS: 안경 // 썬글라스 [*Glasses // sun glasses*] T: Sunglasses. 진호 선생님 이름은? [*Jinho's teachers' name is*?] SSS: 스미스 [*Smith*] T: Mrs. Smith. 진호 선생님은 키가 커요, 작아요? [*Is Mrs. Smith tall or short*?]

	SSS: 커요. [*Tall*]

Activity instructions include functions used to explain game procedures or the gestures for songs/chants. Some examples of activity instructions happened as follows.

(Example 8) Activity/game instruction	
TL	T 1: Let's review the last lesson. ((showing picture cards)) Let's play the game. Please, ((gesture)) raise your hand, and ask me, "I'm thirsty, can I have some juice?" If I have it, I will give it to you and I'll say "Here you are". T: ((showing a picture card)) 자, 선생님이 있으면, "Sure, here you are"하고 줄 거예요. You have five chances. Please-- ready -- raise your hand. "I'm thirsty, can I have some juice?" or "I'm hungry, can I have some hamburgers?"
NL	T3: 오늘은 activity 그리고 review. Lesson six. 6 단원에서 배운 내용을 모두 복습해보는 활동을 할 거예요. 아까 선생님이 카드를 나눠줬지요. 두가지 종류가 있어요. 자, I'm hungry, I'm thirsty는 무슨 카드일까요? [*Today, we will do an 'activity' and a 'review.' Lesson Six. We will do a review activity for Lesson Six. You have cards I gave you. There are two types of cards. Ok,* I'm hungry, I'm thirsty, w*hat type of cards are these*?] SSS: 배고프다 // 목말라 [*Hungry // thirsty*] T: 이거는 뭔가 문제가 있는 상황이죠? 이건 문제상황카드. 그다음에 여러가지 음식카드를 나눠줬었지요? 이거는 문제를 해결할 수 있는? [*These cards have some problems, right? So these are problem-cards. Next you have food-item cards. The cards for solving problems are?]* S: 문제 해결 카드 [*Problem-solving cards*] T: 어. 문제 해결카드예요. 우선, 문제 상황카드부터 쫙 놓으세요. 문제 해결카드는 모아서 한사람이 갖고 있고, 문제 상황카드는 6명이 손이 닿을 수 있게 가운데 놓으세요. 섞어주세요. ((instruction continues)) [*Yes, problem-solving cards. First, spread out your problem cards. One member in each group collects the solving-cards and keeps them. Put only the problem-cards in the center of your table. Mix them please*]. ((continues))

The category of explicit teaching of forms is comprised of functions that did not fit into the above three categories: explicit teaching of forms (e.g., vocabulary, pronunciation/phonics, grammar, writing, culture) and managerial language (e.g., lesson objectives, homework). Not all teachers used all of these functions to the same extent (e.g., some teachers talked about lesson objectives at some length, while others did not;

some teachers taught phonics explicitly, and some did not). Some examples appear in the box below.

(Example 9) Explicit teaching of vocabulary, pronunciation, phonics, grammar, writing, culture, lesson objectives, etc.	
TL	T 2: i 하고 e가 '스'야? /ai/ ((Writing 'ai' on the board)) i 하고 e 발음, 같이 합쳐지면, rice. i 하고 e 발음이 같이 합쳐지면 'ai' 이렇게 발음한다 그랬죠. [[When 'i' comes before 'e'] *Is 'i' pronounced as 's'? /ai/. When 'i' comes with 'e', rice, I told you, you pronounce 'i' as 'ai.* ']
NL	T 3: Thirsty. 지난 시간에 썼는데, "r" "v" 그 담에 "s"자 빼먹은 사람들 ((Writing the words on the board)) 자, Hungry 할때 h 길게 빼세요. N으로 쓰지말고, Hungry 쓰는데 요거를 위에 것을 짧게 쓰면 뭐가 되요? ((Pointing to the letter 'h' in 'hungry')) [*You wrote the word, thirsty, last time. Some people missed the letters - 'r' 'v' or 's'. Ok, when writing 'hungry', stretch the letter 'h.' Don't write 'n.' If you write 'h' short, what does it become?*]

The first three categories were the most commonly occurring language functions across all of the classrooms (i.e., basic instructions including disciplinary comments; eliciting comprehension; and activity/game instructions). Table 2 provides an overview of the functions of teachers' language use. The five teachers are divided into 3 categories: high, middle, and low TL users. The three most commonly occurring language functions show the most differences in the TL use among the 3 groups. For instance, basic instructions (e.g., "Open your book to page~") were usually given in the TL by the high TL users, and in the NL by the low TL users.

Table 2. Overview of the Functions of TL/NL use

Functions	High TL users (87.7%, 87.4%)	Middle (42.8 %)	Low TL users (30.4%, 29.8 %)
Basic instructions/disciplining	TL	NL (+ TL)	NL
Eliciting comprehension	TL	NL (+ TL)	NL
Activity/game instructions	TL (+ NL)	NL	NL
Explicit teaching of (vocabulary, pronunciation, phonics, grammar, culture, lesson objectives, homework, etc.)	TL + NL	TL + NL	NL + TL
Feedback/praise (including choral feedback)	TL (some in NL)	NL (+ TL)	NL (with TL phrases in it)
Modeling	TL	TL	TL
	n = 2 (T 1 & T 2)	n = 1 (T 3)	n = 2 (T 4 & 5)

The issue of when to use the TL or NL is not simple; for instance, language use must obviously take into consideration the grade level and the curriculum being taught. For example, for the teachers at a higher grade, grammar instruction might be the most challenging area to teach, as has been reported in the previous studies. For the teachers at elementary schools observed in this study, explicit teaching of grammar was not an issue since the syllabus itself does not emphasize explicit grammar knowledge much. Rather, much of the class time was spent on checking listening comprehension with CD-ROMs and the game/activity explanations in general; these were the skills/kinds of exercises the curriculum was built around. Listening comprehension and leading activities were also the areas where the low NL-using teachers tended to rely on the NL. The following section describes the teachers' rationales for their language choices.

1.3. Reasons for Language Choices

As much as there were considerable differences in the amount of TL use, each teachers' reasons for their choices was different. The following section will describe some representative examples, and each teacher's accompanying stimulated recall comments. The teachers' recall comments are translated into English, and presented in italics.

A. Teacher 1

Functions of TL used	Functions of NL used
- Basic instruction, disciplining	- Brief translation of activity instructions
- Activity instructions	- Vocabulary equivalents
- Disciplining	- Giving homework
- Commenting/giving feedback	- Explicit/brief grammar instruction
- Modeling, etc.	- Talking with students individually, etc.
Strategies for TL use: • Use of visual aids, modifying textbook materials • Miming actions and the pronunciation of words • Simple sentences, repetitive, slow speech, etc.	

T 1 taught the majority of her lessons in the TL. What noted in particular about T 1' language is that she used a variety of strategies to make TL comprehensible. Her TL sentences were simple, repetitive, and very clear. She also used lots of visual aids, miming actions and the pronunciation of words. One of the most distinctive differences between her and the other teachers was that she used very little Korean translation. On a few occasions, she provided TL vocabulary equivalents in Korean, but in general, she rarely relied on translation. Another distinct difference from the other teachers was found in her activity instructions. She modified the games/activities in the textbook (by simplifying) so that she would not spend much time explaining directions for activities. In a recall comment on the TL instructions for one of her activities, she said, "*I used*

English but I didn't expect them to understand what I said at this moment. As the game progresses, though, they would pick up the procedures, thinking 'Ah, this is what the teacher meant!'" She notes that some activities require more thorough explanations than others, but in such cases, she says, "*When an activity cannot be fully modeled with gestures or pictures only, I don't spend much time trying to explain how to play the game in Korean. I quickly give the translation if necessary, and move on to the game. If you go to the activity right away, the SSS catch up sooner or later, doing it themselves.*"

B. Teacher 2

Contrary to T 1, T 2 gave longer and more complex explanations in English, which seemed often to be at a level that was quite advanced, and too challenging for her students. Sometimes, she translated her TL utterances into the NL (when she judged the students would not understand her English); instances in which she used this approach included introducing a lesson, giving background for vocabulary, correcting students' common mistakes, teaching phonics, and disciplining. In Example 6 below, T 2 is introducing a new lesson, first in English and then in Korean. In recall, she says "*When I'm explaining something, I give the explanation in English first. Then, I usually give the Korean translation. I spoke English first, so that the students would become more familiar with English explanations... Here, I was a bit concerned that there might be some students whose parents had been laid off.*"

(Example 10)

T: From this class, ssh– from this class, we will learn lesson-- seven, lesson seven. "My Father is a Pilot." We will learn some expressions which are related with jobs and vocations. 직업에 관련된 말들을 아마 표현들을 배울 겁니다. *[We will learn about job-related*

expressions] Before we start, I want to say something. 여러분들에게 할 말이 있는데요 *[I have something to tell you]* Now, our economy situation is recession. 우리나라 경기가 아주 불경기지요 *[Our economy is in recession]* So, may, your father may retired. right? 여러분 아버지나 어머니께서 직업을 잃어버리셨을 수도 있을 수도 모르지만, *[Some of your parents might have lost their jobs]* Don't take it seriously. Just you will learn some jobs, how to speak, how to say some jobs in English. 어떤 직업에 관한 것들을 영어로 배운다는 느낌으로 여기에다, 이 과를 접해 주시기 바랍니다. *[Just think of the lesson as vocabulary you are learning]*

C. Teacher 3

T 3 has yet a different pattern. She used the TL when giving basic instructions such as "listen carefully" or in getting attention (e.g., "Attention!"). However, she reverts to Korean for all other functions, as in the example below. In Example 7, she is giving directions mainly in Korean for a sentence scramble. In her recall, she explains: "*My English is a problem, but the BIGGER problem is that my students don't pay attention even in Korean; I don't think they would listen to me if I explained this in English. I usually use Korean for game procedures, because 'the way to play the game' is not really the English I am trying to teach them.*"

(Example 11)

T: 오늘 lesson 6의 제목을 누가 한번 맞춰볼까?

[Who wants to put the title of lesson six in order?]

누가 한번 해볼까? *[Who'd like to try?]* 엉망으로 되어있지요 *[It's scrambled.]*

누가 한번 해볼까? *[Who'd like to try?]* 아, 지연((S name)), Come to the front.

하나씩 맞추는 거예요 *[Put them in order one by one]*

저 위에다가 붙이세요 *[Stick the cards at the top of the board]*

맨 처음에 뭐가 와야할까? *[Which one should come first?]*

In general, having students participate was more important for her than having them use the TL. In the next example, she is telling a student to speak in Korean if he is not sure what to say. T 3 comments, "*I wanted him to participate even if he used Korean. I think participation is better than nothing.*"

(Example 12)

T: Do you like sunny days?

Sss: No~ XXX

T: Why? 왜 싫어요? *[Why don't you like them?]* J, 왜 싫어요? *[J, why don't you like them?]*

S1: 뭐라고 하지? *[What should I say? ...uhm...]*

T: 그냥 한국말로 하세요 *[Just say it in Korean]* 그냥 한국말로 해 *[Say it in Korean]*

S1: 한국말도 까먹었어요 *[I forgot even the Korean]*

T: 한국말도 까먹었어? *[You forgot how to say it in Korean?]*
그럼 영어로 해야돼? *[You want to use English then?]*

((class laughs))

T 3's use of TL pattern was different from T 1 and T 2. T 3 started with the NL and then switched to TL. T 1 and T 2's did the opposite, because their priority was communicating in the TL. T 3 tried to use the TL in giving basic instructions, but it was difficult for her to sustain unless she thought about it deliberately, as seen in Example 9.

(Example 13)

T: 여러분 이거 쉬웠어요, 어려웠어요? Easy or difficult?

T: 자, 그럼 다같이 한번 읽어 보자 Let's read!

➔ *It's my habit, I think. Unless I really try to, Korean comes first, unconsciously.*

D. Teacher 4

T 4 used the NL all the time, except when modeling target expressions for the lesson. To the question why she did not use English, she answered: *"Except when I model the target expressions, I don't use English at all... My personality is the biggest obstacle, I guess. I feel so awkward speaking English, even saying things like 'Listen carefully,' or 'Next.' More complicated commands or explanations of game rules, I can't do these in English...I am afraid of making mistakes; I don't want to make mistakes, because I majored in English."*

(Example 14)

T: 자, 그다음, 복습해볼까요? 따라해 보세요 **[***Ok, next, let's review. Repeat after me.***]**
Everyday
SSS: Everyday
T: I get up
SSS: I get up
T: At seven o'clock
SSS: At seven o'clock
T: Everyday I get up at seven o'clock.
SSS: Everyday I get up at seven o'clock.

She also expressed her concerns that, *"If I had to speak English all the time, I wouldn't be able to say what I really want to say... Is it 'Sit down straight' or what? My students wouldn't understand either...I do want to observe a class where the teacher uses English..."*

E. Teacher 5

The last teacher, T 5, also used mainly Korean for all functions except modeling.

Only occasionally did she use basic instructions in English such as "*Clap your hands*," and "*Great*!" T 5 was responding to classroom realities in a way similar to T 3, mentioned previously. She commented, giving a reason for using the NL, that, "*Even if a teacher explains in Korean, the students don't understand. If they don't understand, they don't pay attention. I think my class is at least better than the other classes.*" During SR, she spoke of Krashen's natural approach, and emphasized listening comprehension-based learning and the affective filter as teaching approaches that had an influence on her. She said one of the main reasons she used Korean was that she had observed that some of her lower level students expressed frustrations in their journals (e.g., "*English is too hard*"); these comments, in turn, lowered her expectations of them. She believes English learning in elementary school is supposed to make students feel English is "fun."

(Example 15)

T: 지금부터 선생님 행동 따라 해보자. *[Now, look at my gestures.]*

ABC 가르쳐주는 거 어떻게 하면 좋을까? *[What can we do as a gesture for a teacher?]*

여러분 연필 같은 거 있으면, *[If you have something like a pencil* (using it)*]*

ABC 따라서 읽으라는 것처럼, abc 이렇게 표시해주자. ABC.

[just like the teacher asking students to read the alphabet, ABC, let's make the gesture this way]

SSS: ABC ((with gesture))

T: 자, 그다음에 부릉부릉 할때는 *[Then, next. When you say broom broom]*

운전하는 것처럼, 부릉부릉 부릉부릉 *[gesture like you are driving, broom, broom]*

She said that giving instructions for activities was the hardest part of the class to conduct in English. She also commented that use of the TL needs to be accompanied by the teacher's miming of the task. This teacher personally found it hard to be an "actor" in this way. However, T 5 acknowledges that an English teacher should try to use the TL as

much as possible: "*I think I should use English, because the students don't have opportunities to use English outside of class. But, practically, it's very hard for the teacher to keep speaking English... First of all, it requires a lot of patience on the teacher's part. Unless she/he is quite determined, it's very easy for a teacher to give up using English. If the teacher can use other means, like gestures, mimes, etc., it will be great, but I found it hard to do, with my personality... once the teacher decides to use English all the time, lots of preparation and effort is involved ...In addition, teachers are afraid that if they use English, they will lose control of the class.*"

2. Discussion and Conclusions

As for the ratio of NL/TL use by the teachers observed, there was a wide range. The amount of teaching experience did not seem to affect the teachers' TL use. Their recall comments show that the reasons for recourse to the NL are very complex; teacher-specific factors such as personality are interrelated with other known factors (e.g., TL proficiency/confidence). This observation backs up what Dickson (1996, p. 15) has noted – that teachers' language proficiency was only one of many factors that explained their reluctance to use the TL for certain purposes.

In summary, the high TL using teachers seemed to be more influenced by classroom-internal factors in the reasons they give for TL/NL use (i.e., features that vary by lessons).[19] On the other hand, classroom-external factors (i.e., features that do not vary by lessons) appeared to be the greater influence on low TL using teachers. There were also reasons for TL/NL use the two groups of teachers had in common, given in Table 3 below.

[19] The term, classroom-internal/external factors, was used in Polio and Duff (1994).

Table 3. Summary of Factors Affecting the TL/NL Use

	High TL users	Low TL users
More influential factors affecting TL/NL use	Classroom-internal factors - Complexity of language utterances - Functions of language use	Classroom-external factors - Teacher personality - Teachers' TL confidence - Attitude toward TL use: Less firm belief toward TL use - Empathy toward lower-level students: maximum student participation
Common reasons by all teachers	- Presence of lower-proficiency students (mixed-level, large class-size) - Teacher proficiency - Need for comprehension checks, expedience, discipline - Explicit correction for common mistakes	

The observation on the teachers' language use leads to some concerns that many SL researchers have pointed out. For example, in their study of teacher talk in foreign language classrooms, Polio and Duff (1994) pointed out that the teachers' too-frequent recourse to the NL takes up precious class time, reducing the amount of input time for learners. The implied recommendation of course is that the explanations should usually be given in the TL. However, three teachers said the students would not understand if they gave instructions in English. The fact was the data from this study indicate that they spend too much time explaining activities in the NL. In one instance, it took more than twice as long (i.e., 9 min) to explain a card game than it took to complete the game itself (i.e., 4 min.), which made me wonder about the quality of the activity (e.g., card game on occupation vocabulary). In such cases, when the teachers introduced activities, their NL explanation was hard to understand, even for the observer. Thus, it was not surprising that

the students in their classes looked passive; it was the teacher who monopolized most of the speaking.

Some recall comments seem to reflect that the teachers understand TL use from a rather narrow point of view. For example, one teacher commented that there is no need to use the TL for activity instruction since the way to play the game/activity is not what the students are learning. However, Clark (1981) asserted that such behavior might have the students perceiving that "Use English [NL] when you have something real to say. Use the foreign language [TL] when we are doing exercises, question-answer work, and other unreal (non-communicative) things" (p.153; cited in Franklin, 1990, p.20). Polio and Duff (1994) further argued that such approach is problematic; it "offers little incentive for students to initiate meaningful interaction in the TL themselves, since that behavior is not being modeled for them by their teachers" (p. 323). Indeed it was observed that where the teachers resort to the NL the teachers often asked the students to speak the TL during the group activities. The following example illustrates the point made above.

(Example 16) fill-in elicitation	T 3
T: Next, 얘는 어떤 상태일까요? [*How is he feeling?*]	SR comments:
S: 목말라요 [*He is thirsty*]	*"I wanted them to say the*
T: I'm? --I'm? --I'm?	*expressions in English, but*
SS: thirsty	*they kept saying in Korean and*
T: thirsty. I want some orange juice.	*I became a bit impatient. I*
얘는 어떤 상태일까요? [*How is he feeling?*]	*should've asked them to say in*
S: 배고파요 [*Hungry*]	*English here... like "in*
T: I'm?	*English?", but..."I'm? I'm?"*
Sss: hungry	*came out first.*
T: hungry. I want some pizza.	

In the episode, the teacher tried to elicit TL expressions using picture prompts on a TV screen. Although she wished the students to answer the questions using TL target expressions, the students did not, and the teacher ended up initiating the TL point and having the students fill in the rest of the expression. This type of practice was common in classes where the teacher used NL most of the time. This teacher at least wished the students would respond more in the TL, although she herself used the NL. It was my impression that the other high-NL use teacher did not seem to even expect the TL from the students.

To conclude, the major problem the teachers in this study had did not seem to be due to the students' low proficiency in English. Rather, the problem originated with the teachers' lack of strategies to modify both the English they were capable of, and the material in the textbooks. In fact, in T 1's lessons, few TL phrases could be found which might have challenged the students' understanding. Most of the class activities in T 1's lessons were ones she developed, along with a few modified from the textbook activities. If strategies are developed in the areas above, teachers' confidence in the use of TL in the classroom may be built up. Of course, there are other long-term issues on which follow-up work needs to be done in this process of developing teacher strategies. As Chambers (1991) reasoned, given the difficulty of teaching in the TL in FL classrooms, teachers will not maintain their application of the necessary strategies if they do not really believe they are valid. Therefore, teacher education programs need to provide teachers with opportunities to think about when NL can be useful (or not), and eventually to come to a consensus about maximizing TL input.

CHAPTER 3

TARGET LANGUAGE FEEDBACK

So far, this thesis has looked at the teachers' TL/NL use, both in terms of amount and function, in the classroom. This chapter discusses the main research questions of this study about the TL feedback found during teacher-fronted lessons. The first lessons from each teacher were excluded, so three lessons from each teacher (a total of 15 lessons) were used for the analysis of TL feedback. Discussion will start with the details on data coding.[20]

1. Data analysis

In this study, the definition of an error is operationalized as utterances that contain *ungrammatical elements* or ones that have *obvious* pronunciation errors (definition in Oliver, 2000 [italics added]). Students' hesitations or slow speech were not considered to be errors, nor were student response in the NL.

Greater problems arose in determining whether a certain exchange in TL could be considered a feedback move or not than coding the types of TL feedback. Therefore, this section will start with a discussion of how errors/feedback episodes have been defined in this study.

1.1. Criteria for excluding exchanges from TL corrective feedback

Based on the definition of errors above, the following criteria were created. First,

[20] The first two lessons from T 1 and T 4 were observed on the same day, but with two different classes. Some parts of the content of the lessons that T1 and T4 did with their separate classes overlapped, and therefore the decisions was made to exclude the first lesson observed with ALL of the teachers' classes.

any exchanges that fell under the following criteria were excluded from the analysis of TL feedback episodes.

- **Over-correction:**

  Several researchers addressed the difficulties in defining an error in the L2 classroom. One of the problems is over-correction (e.g., George, 1972; Nystrom, 1983; Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Chaudron, 1986, 1988; Ellis, 1990). Allwright and Bailey (1991), for example, described a problem that occurred in error correction when the teacher rejected students' correct responses because they were not expressed in the form the teacher wanted. This type of exchanges occurred particularly with one of the teachers in this study, which made it hard to draw the line between feedback on errors and unnecessary interruption. It was hard to justify calling the students' utterances errors, and thus such exchanges were excluded, leaving them as a point to be discussed later. In addition, the judgment was made that the inclusion of such episodes in the frequency of feedback would not give a more accurate picture of that frequency in a comparative study such as this.

- **Teachers' filling-in type elicitation, or filling in the lines:**

  Occasions where the teacher starts with partial TL expressions and has a student fill in the rest were not counted as feedback moves. Exchanges in which the teacher completes the TL expressions by interrupting the student's "half-done" utterance (i.e., turn completion by the teacher) were also excluded. The rationale was that when such exchanges occurred, the students had not yet made errors. This paper will revisit this type of episode in a discussion.

- **Teacher's TL translation as a reaction to students' response in NL:**

Some previous studies (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002) included a student's *unsolicited* NL use as an error, thus included the teacher's translation as a type of recast; their studies were interested in how the teachers reacted to their students' NL use. They were probably able to do so because the TL was the main medium of instruction. However, this study did not consider students' NL response to be an error, because as the teachers' question itself was posed in NL, most of the students' responses in NL could not be regarded as *unsolicited*.

- **Non-corrective repetition vs. Recasts on pronunciation:**

  Unless the students' utterances had a distinctive pronunciation error in it, a teacher's repetition of such grammar error-free utterances were excluded. The reason was that when the teacher repeated a student's utterance that contained no grammatical errors, it was sometimes unclear whether the teachers' intention was to recast pronunciation, or just to give the student positive reinforcement (in the lessons that were *not* later watched together). In these cases, the purpose of the repetition was inferred, largely based on the teachers' recall comments.[21]

In addition to the occasions listed above, exchanges where the teachers explicitly requested a student to speak up were excluded from feedback coding (e.g., *T: I can't hear*

[21] Confusion of intention arose particularly with one of the teachers, who constantly repeated students' utterances back to them (T 3). During SR, she explained what she was doing three different ways. For two episodes in the beginning of the lesson, she said she intended to provide corrections of the student's utterances. About similar exchanges which came at the end of the lesson, she claimed that her main intention in repeating was to gather the students' attention, and have their classmates listen. At other times, T3 said that the repetition was positive reinforcement. When a usually quiet student participated, she would repeat what that student had said to provide praise in an indirect form, rather than saying "Good," or "Excellent." In general though, she emphasized that her main purpose of repeating is to gather students' attention and have other students listen. It should also be noted that since the observer, I myself, shared the same NL, there can be a bias in determining "obviousness of errors" in pronunciation. I did not catch many errors in pronunciation.

you. Speak up, please.). There were 5 occasions of that kind in L2 (one in T 1's lesson and four in T 2's lesson) and frequently in the L1 in the other teachers' classes.

1.2. Data coding

To find out the amount and type of feedback in TL, error-feedback exchanges (i.e., learner error → teacher feedback in TL) were identified. Each feedback episode was coded under the following categories: recast, negotiation, and explicit feedback. The teachers' feedback in NL that contains the correct form of TL was considered as NL feedback, not TL feedback; this will be discussed later on.[22] Multi-feedback within a teacher's turn occurred only one time with one of the teachers, where the teacher used 4 different types of feedback (repetition→explicit feedback→NL translation of her previous utterance→ explicit feedback with the correct pronunciation); they were coded one TL explicit feedback and one NL feedback. To check the inter-coder reliability, a second coder coded the types of feedback on the transcripts of all the data, based on the criteria provided as above. Since the low inference categories were used, coding for the types of feedback reached over 90 % agreement.

1.3. Issues regarding uptake

Some classroom-based studies on feedback have included in their analysis the amount of learner uptake (i.e., learners' response to feedback) to measure the immediate effect of feedback (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Havranek, 2002). This study did not attempt to compare whether certain feedback types lead to more

[22] Such excluded NL feedback episodes include an occasion where the teacher repeats a student's NL/TL mixed sentence (containing an incorrect pronunciation of a word) slightly changing the pronunciation (e.g., S: 난 /doctol/이 세장이야. T: /doctor/가 세장이야.).

uptake. One reason for this is that uptake does not necessarily mean that the feedback was effective (or shows the learner has acquired the form), as many SL researchers have pointed out (e.g., Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000). Furthermore, a more direct reason concerned the problem of recording; the video recording was done in the back so it could not capture all the students' reaction to teacher feedback. In addition, it quickly became apparent from the observation that the predominant teacher-to-one discourse pattern was IRE (i.e., Teacher's initiation – student's response – teacher evaluation/feedback, then moves to a next turn by another student). There was little opportunity for students to respond to the teachers' feedback.

2. Results and Discussion

2.1. Frequency of TL Feedback (Research Question 1)

Table 4 shows the amount of each type of feedback in TL occurring in the total of 3 lessons by each teacher. The results of the distribution of TL feedback vary across this group of teachers. T 1 has the highest total amount of TL feedback. TL feedback by T 3, 4, and 5 are quite low compared to T 1. T 2 is in the middle.

Table 4. Frequency of TL Feedback

	T 1 (n=31)	T 2 (n=13)	T 3 (n=3)	T 4 (n=7)	T 5 (n=1)
Implicit feedback					
- Recasts	31	8	3	5	0
- Negotiation	0	3	0	1	1
Explicit feedback	0	2	0	1	0
(TL) Total	31	13	3	7	1
Average per lesson	**10.3 (31/3)**	**4.3 (13/3)**	**1 (3/3)**	**2.3 (7/3)**	**0.3 (1/3)**

Implicit feedback occurred most from T 1 (n=31), some from T 2 (n=11) and T 4 (n=6), and only a few times from T 3 (n=3). Only one negotiation-type implicit feedback was found by T 5 (n=1). Both negotiation episodes occurred in T 3 and T 4 were repetition-type. For T 2, two negotiation episode arose in the form of clarification request phrase (e.g., T: Uh? beg your pardon?) and one episode in repetition-type (T: sirsty?). Explicit feedback arose only from T 2 (n=2), one incidence of which occurred in reaction to a pronunciation error and one in reaction to a student's false start.

Feedback given in NL

Table 5 shows the total amount of NL feedback by each teacher (the amount of TL feedback was given below as well to compare).[23] No feedback in the NL was found from T 1. However, all the other teachers resorted to NL for feedback in varying degrees.

[23] NL feedback was not broken down into smaller categories. The reason given was that using L1 already entailed explicitness (functioning similar to explicit feedback in TL). Thus it was not necessary to break it down, based on implicitness/explicitness (although some NL feedback were more explicit (e.g., direct statement) than others (e.g., question form)).

Table 5. Feedback in NL vs. TL

	High TL user		Middle	Low TL user	
	T 1 (n=31)	T 2 (n=18)	T 3 (n=5)	T 4 (n=15)	T 5 (n=4)
NL feedback	0 (0%)	3 (19%)	2 (40%)	8 (53%)	3 (75%)
TL feedback	31 (100%)	13 (81%)	3 (60%)	7 (47%)	1 (25%)
Total	31 (100%)	16 (100%)	5 (100%)	15(100%)	4 (100%)
Errors missed	n=1	n=7	n=10	n=1	n=0

In the case of T 2, the three episodes of NL feedback were the translated-version of her previous TL feedback. Although the tokens of NL feedback were low (similar with the TL feedback), the low TL using teachers (T 4 and 5) relied more on the NL than the TL for feedback. The NL feedback of T 2, 3, 4, and 5 were given in reaction to errors on pronunciation (T 2) and vocabulary (T 3 and T 5). NL feedback on grammar was encountered in T 4's lessons; she did not use any metalinguistic terminology, as seen in Example 17 below.

(Example 17) NL feedback	T 4

S1: I come to school at - eight ten, o'clock.

T: 'I come to school at eight ten o' clock 했네요

[*said, 'I come to school at eight ten o'clock'*]

o'clock은 언제만 쓰는 거예요? [*when should we use 'o'clock'?*]

Previous studies on error correction have reported that teachers are inconsistent in their error treatment (Ellis, 1990). In this study too, not all the errors were treated by the teachers; most *were* treated though, except by T 3 and T 2. Most of the errors that went

untreated were those the teachers did not seem to recognize as errors (e.g., S: Can I have some hamburger? T: Can I have some hamburger?).[24] A few errors were made by the students because the teacher had unknowingly taught the class to make them (e.g., T: Sorry, I don't have. S: Sorry, I don't have.).

Discussion on TL Feedback Occurred

With respect to the TL feedback that occurred (e.g., error types), this paper will only focus on T 1, whose classes I found more communicatively-oriented and whose students were most engaged in the TL. The frequencies of TL feedback by the other teachers seemed to be too low to discuss any patterns of TL feedback. Remember that the amount shown in Table 1 is the sum for 3 lessons.

For the 4 teachers' classes, more was needed than just a statement of what occurred; the issue that has to be addressed is why so little TL feedback occurred. This matter will be dealt with in answering the second research question (i.e., what are identifiable factors affecting the occurrence of TL feedback?).

The amount of TL feedback from T 2 (n=13) was higher than that from three of the other teachers (T 3, T 4, and T 5). However, the difference between T 2 and T 1 (n=31) is greater than that any between T 2 and the other 3 teachers (i.e., the amount of T 2's TL feedback is closer to the other lower occurrence group). Despite the fact that she used more TL than the 3 teachers, T 2's overall interaction patterns and teaching approach were much closer to T 3, 4, and 5 than T 1. Therefore, this paper will consider T 2's class a lower TL feedback groups. A description of the other teachers' feedback description and

[24] The lesson was about asking for food (i.e., a hamburger/hamburgers, not meat from the butchers). Another example: (S : Can I have some sandwich? T : I'm thirty or I'm hungry? S : I'm hungry. T : good job.)

some of their recall comments can be found in Appendix F.

Teacher 1

T 1 implemented meaning-oriented activities (e.g., guessing the price) in which individual students could participate freely (rather than being called on) using the TL points. Her implicit feedback occurred during such activities, and also in listening activities (e.g., T: Ok, tell me what you heard!). Linguistic targets of her TL feedback were mostly grammar (e.g., S: It's egg. T: Yes, it's an egg. Do you like egg?) and pronunciation. Some episodes arose in reaction to lexical errors (e.g., T: How's the weather? S1: It's sunny! S2: It's cloudy! T: It's CLOUDY [in one of the routines – exchanging weather information at the beginning of the lessons]).[25] Table 6 shows the number of individual students' turns, errors, and instances of feedback given by the teacher.

Table 6. T 1: Individual Students' TL Turns, Errors, Feedback, Errors Untreated

	Student turns (S) in TL	Errors	Implicit feedback	Errors untreated
L 1 (5/27)	24 (guessing the price)	16	16	
	3 (reading sentences)	0	-	
L 2 (6/10)	21 (guessing the food)	7	7	
L 3 (6/10)	23 (listening elicitation)	9	8	1
	26 (alphabet hangman)	0	-	
	7 (read my lips)	0	-	
Total	**104**	**32**	**31**	

[25] One may argue that the function of the teacher's feedback in this episode is closer to positive reinforcement, confirming S 2's response was correct. However, the teacher's reaction arose with additional facial signals and exaggerated mouth movement. Her reaction serves as positive feedback to S 2's utterance, but at the same time it also functions as corrective feedback to S 1's utterance. S 1's and S 2's utterances occurred almost simultaneously.

The example below is a guessing activity where recasts on pronunciation occurred most. Individual students are participating to "win" the game against the teacher by telling what food she has. The focus here was pronunciation of vocabulary - food nouns.

(Example 18)	(T - 1) SR comments
S 1: I'm hungry. Can I have some /e-g-s/? T: Sorry, I don't have **eggs**. S 2: I'm hungry- hungry. Can I have some, some /pija/? T: Sorry, I don't have /**pitsa**/ S 3: Can I have some--/bre- bred/? T: Sorry, I don't have **bread**. ((The game continues))	T1: *I didn't find any grammar errors by students here; The expressions were simple. What I was focusing on here was vocabulary and I was especially looking at their pronunciation and accent. Even though they know the word, pronouncing the words clearly is another story. 'I'm,' 'HUNGry,' 'r-rice,' 'bRead'... these look simple but still difficult for them... I do look at pronunciation a lot, but I don't necessarily point out the pronunciation problems explicitly during the activities. I exaggerate my mouth a lot to model instead.*

No explicit feedback was used in reaction to individual students' errors, nor was any NL feedback. This might lead one to the impression that T 1 only focused on fluency at the expense of accuracy, which was not the case. Common grammar errors that occurred during such games (e.g., the plural –s that occurred during the guessing the price game) were revisited at the end of the lesson; she used picture flash cards on the board and had a focused practice as a class. She also had a short time at the end of the lesson on asking for food explaining the grammar point on plural –s after certain food items (e.g., T: Look! 여기 –s 를 꼭 붙여줘야되지요? 왜냐하면 some 했으니까, 몇개인지 몰라요 햄버거가 한개인지 두개인지 Some hamburgerS. 근데, juice하고 water는? 셀수가 없어요 그래서

여기에는 –s를 붙이지 않습니다. Juice, water, chicken. *[*Look! *We must put –s here, right? because he said SOME. We don't know how many; one hamburger, or two hamburgers. SOME hamburgerS. Then, juice and water? we can't count. So no –s after these words like juice, water, chicken.]*).

One thing to note is that, in T 1's class, after the class, each student was given a short conversation time with the teacher one-on-one, which they called "pass-word game." All the students lined up, and each student had to talk with the teacher using 2-3 expressions based on what they had learned. There, the teacher used a more variety of different feedback types including ones that were more explicit.

2.2. Factors Affecting the Occurrence of TL Feedback (Research Question 2)

In order to answer the second research question, "What are some of the identifiable factors affecting the occurrence of TL feedback?", this study first looked at what the similarities and differences were across the teachers, especially between the high TL feedback classes (T1) and the low TL feedback classes (T 2, 3, 4, 5). At the surface-level, the following features were noticeable.

1) There were more choral responses than individual student responses, in most classes except in T 2's (i.e., T 1, T 3, T 4, T 5).
2) Most of the *individual* students' turns contained little potential for TL errors, especially in T 2, 3, 4, and T 5's classes, for one or more of the following reasons:
   A. Students' utterances were based on rote performance (memorization), especially in T 2 and T 4's classes; hesitation were observed but not many errors.
   B. Students produced much of their NL in response to teacher's questions.

C. Students were often fed the lines, thus many of their turns consisted of one word only.

D. Students' utterances were often interrupted by the teacher because of the teachers' tendency toward over-correction.

Based on the features illustrated above, and taking into consideration the issues related to the teachers' language use, the factors affecting the occurrence of TL feedback were identified as seen in Table 7.[26]

Table 7. Factors Affecting the Occurrence of TL Feedback

(Commons and Differences between High vs. Low TL Feedback Teachers)

Factors	T 1	Low TL Feedback teachers
A. General factors (applying to most classes)	**More teacher-to-many than teacher-to-one interaction** →Choral feedback	
	• **Communicative drills**	• **Repetition, pattern drills**
Teacher-specific factors		
B. TL use by teachers: Medium of instruction	• **TL as the medium** → Feedback in TL	• **NL as the medium** → Feedback in NL
C. Teaching approaches/ methodology used	**Opportunities for students to make errors**	**Little opportunity for learners to make errors**

[26] The above factors identified are of course not mutually exclusive.

1) TL activities	• **Teacher implemented communicative TL activity**	• **Teachers implemented few/no TL activities** → Heavy drills & rote memory
2) Eliciting technique	• **Teacher elicits TL points** → TL used by students	• **Teachers elicit translation** → NL used by students
3) Reactive patterns	• **Allows variation**	• **Allows little variation** → **Filling-in** → **Over-correction**

It should be noted that, for different teachers, different factors played more of a role in determining the results of TL feedback. To capture the differences, as well as to have a better picture of class interaction overall, post-hoc analysis were done: quantitative counts of the distribution of the students' *turns* according to their languages (NL vs. TL) and according to the interaction patterns (choral responses [SSS] vs. individual responses [S]). Students' TL turns were then subdivided by the nature of the responses (Negotiated [N] vs. Non-Negotiated [NN]).[27]

The terms, negotiated/non-negotiated, in this study were used as a convenient device to distinguish between plain drills (i.e., repetition, translation, rote memorization)

[27] The following turns were excluded: Students' turns where they repeat after the CD or singing songs. Short turns were also excluded such as the followings: "yes/ no," names of students/groups, requesting for participation ("Me! Me!"), roaring, turns with no prominence - such as "I got it". Student-generated questions or requests were also excluded (e.g., asking about the activity procedures).

and responses that occurred during less controlled, open questions.[28] Table 8 provides a more detailed overview of the functions of TL/NL turns by the students. Non-negotiated (NN) TL turns included repetition, translation, reading out sentences, and rote performance. Negotiated (N) TL turns, on the other hand, included those generated during meaning-based activities where meaning was the primary focus. There was no need to break down the students' NL turns; they were all negotiated (e.g., definition, responding to listening comprehension questions). Choral responses which occurred in a more conversational style (e.g., communicative drills) were considered negotiated responses.

Table 8. Functions of Students' TL/NL Use During Teacher-Fronted Lessons

NL	*TL*	
Negotiated turns	***Negotiated turns***	***Non-Negotiated turns***
- Listening comprehension exchanges in NL **- NL responses on activity procedures** **- Word definition in NL** **- Translations into NL**	- Meaning-based activities (e.g., guessing games) - Vocabulary activities (communicative-drills) - TL responses to the teachers' questions in TL	**- Repetition of single vocabulary word item** **- Rote performance at the sentence level** **- Reading TL sentences** - One word TL responses - Translations into TL

[28] Gass and Varonis (1991) defined negotiated exchanges as ones which include routines or exchanges that involve indications of non-understanding and subsequent negotiations of meaning (p.127; cited in Boulima, 1999, p. 1). Following this definition in his study of negotiated interaction in English classes in Morocco, Boulima (1999) operationalized a negotiated interaction as one which violates the basic functional structure of teaching exchanges (i.e., IRE) (p.4). However, the type of complex negotiated exchanges Boulima refers to (i.e., violating IRE) were rare in the data of this study, since the teachers had great control over the students' responses/participation. For the purposes of this study, the term 'negotiated interaction' takes not only the kind of exchange that would be called a negotiated interaction in previous studies, but also ones that occur during IRE exchanges (i.e., responses from students that have the potential for negotiation).

Table 9 shows the quantitative results. Note that the students' *turns* in this table are *not* the amount of their TL/NL use.[29]

Table 9. Distribution of Students' Turns

		NL		TL			
	Total	SSS	S	SSS		S	
	Turns	N	N	NN	N	NN	N
T 1	279	0 (0%)	2 (1%)	46 (16%)	129 (46%)	3 (1%)	101(36%)
T 2	193	7 (4%)	26(13%)	58 (30%)	0 (0%)	83 (43%)	19 (10%)
T 3	201	20(10%)	28(14%)	96 (48%)	7 (3%)	24 (12%)	26 (13%)
T 4	376	32 (9%)	14 (4%)	200 (53%)	0 (0%)	130 (35%)	0 (0%)
T 5	185	11 (6%)	27(15%)	114 (62%)	16 (9%)	11 (6%)	6 (3%)

As seen in Table 9, different factors were more noticeable in certain teachers. For example, the prominence of choral response that is seen in most of the teachers was extremely dominant in T 5's lessons; almost 90 % of her students' TL turns were choral rather than individual (i.e., SSS:S = 130:17 = 88 %:12 %). Also, the individual students in T 2 and T 4's classes were much more engaged in much more non-negotiated TL production (i.e., rote memorization and repetition) than negotiated.

In the following sections the factors will be discussed one by one, accompanied by the results of the quantitative analysis of student turns, broken down along the lines of the discussion point.

[29] Even so, it may be worth noting that the TL choral turns (i.e., SSS) were mostly a single word-level de-contextualized repetition in the classes of T 2, T 3, T 4, and T 5. Individual students' NL turns particularly in T 5's classes were at the short paragraph's level.

Discussion

1. General factor: More teacher-to-many than teacher-to-one interaction

Table 10 shows the average ratio of the TL turns by choral response (SSS) to individual student responses (S) during teacher-fronted lessons: the data are drawn from Table 8. As seen in Table 10, in all teachers' classes, except T 2's, there was more interaction between the teacher and the students as a class/group than interaction between the teacher and individual students. Consequently, there were more chances for choral feedback to occur than individual-based feedback.

Table 10. Ratio of Student TL Turns: SSS vs. S

	TL	
	SSS: S (%)	SSS: S (raw amount)
T 1	63% : 37%	(175:104=279)
T 2	36% : 64%	(58:102=160)
T 3	67% : 33%	(103:50=153)
T 4	61% : 39%	(200:130=330)
T 5	88% : 12%	(130:17=147)

Undoubtedly, the problem of large classes is the major constraint on more frequent one-to-one interaction.[30] This holds true particularly in T 1's lessons, as she commented during SR that large class size limited her individual interactions with students. The pass-word game was meant to provide one-on-one input to students in T 1's

[30] This does not mean that small classes will lead automatically to more one-to-one interaction and feedback. (I thank Dr. Susan Gass for making the point that the class size by itself can not be the cause of a lack of interaction.) As found in the study by Mackey et al. (2004), teacher variables such as experience may be even more important factors. The argument just stated is not meant to imply that large class sizes *cause* the lack of one-on-one interaction and feedback. Rather it is based on comments from teachers in this study; the quantification of student TL turns by SSS and S were presented to provide the general picture of classroom interaction.

class.

Differences in the nature of such teacher-to-many interaction were observed between T 1's classes and those of the others. While T 1 interacted with her class in a more communicative way, the other teachers did so in a very audio-lingual way; the comparison in Example 14 illustrates the disparity in the teachers' approaches.

(Example 19)

Drill practice on vocabulary	
<T 1> Communicative drills (6/10)	<T 2> Non-communicative drills (6/9)
T: ((Pointing the pictures on the board)) Ok, let's review, lesson six. Do you remember this? What's this?	T: Ok, let's see the vocabulary. Repeat after me. Sandwich!
SSS: juice//ju-sseu	SSS: Sandwich!
T: Tomato juice? Apple juice? Orange juice?	T: Sandwich!
SSS: Orange juice.	SSS: Sandwich!
T: What's this?	**T: Don't say SAN-DU-WI-CHI. Say SANdwich.**
SSS: It's pizza//pizza.	SSS: sandwich
T: Do you like PIZZA?	T: sandwich
SSS: Yes~~!!! // I like pizza.	SSS: sandwich
T: ME, TOO! I like PIZZA. What's this?	T: hamburger
SSS: It's~hamburger // hamburger.	SSS: hamburger
T: I like HAMburgers. How about you?	T: hamburger
SSS: I don't like // I like …	SSS: hamburger
T: What's this?	T: coke
SSS: rice//rice//	SSS: coke
T: Do you like RICE?	T: coke
SSS: yes~!	SSS: coke
T: I do too. I love~ RIce. Ok, RIce. It's very very delicious. Ok, what's this?	T: egg
	SSS: egg
	T: orange juice

SSS: eg-//egg. It's egg. T: Yes, it's an egg. Do you like egg? SSS: yes//	SSS: orange juice T: It's not the o-lan-ji-ju-ssu. Orange juice SSS: orange juice T: orange juice SSS : orange juice

Table 11 below shows the ratio of negotiated vs. non-negotiated TL choral responses (i.e., SSS) in each teacher's classes. Most of the student responses found were based on repetition of one word or phrases/expressions in the 4 teachers lessons.

Table 11. Ratio of Negotiated vs. Non-Negotiated TL Choral Responses

	TL by SSS	
	NN: N (%)	NN: N (raw amount)
T 1	26% : 74%	(46:129=175)
T 2	100%: 0%	(58:0=58)
T 3	93% : 7%	(96:7=103)
T 4	100% : 0%	(200:0=200)
T 5	88% : 12%	(114:16=130)

Pattern drills or simple repetition type practices may be a necessary component of background building, particularly for beginner-level learners. However, a problem observed in this study was that the students *were* already getting this type of practice regularly - repeating after the CD in every single lesson. (Recall that the students' turns in the above analysis do not include repetitions they made after CD.)

Teacher-Specific Factors

2. TL use by the teachers

The teachers' medium of instruction was a determining factor that affected the frequency of TL feedback, as well as overall class interaction, which in turn affected TL use by the students. The results of the preliminary study of the teachers' TL/NL use (i.e., the amount, functions, reasons for their language choice) have already been presented, along with examples of the impact a teacher's recourse to NL has (seen in Example 12). With respect to the relationship between the teachers' medium of instruction and the frequency of TL feedback, T 2's decision to stay with the TL most of the time led her to have a relatively higher amount of TL feedback than the other three teachers who maintained NL instead (i.e., T 3, 4, 5). T 2 rationalized her NL use for feedback by explaining that she corrects students' pronunciation explicitly. Through the NL version provided in her correction, more students would realize what the pronunciation errors were (e.g., English 'th' sounds). With T 3, 4, and 5, since Korean was their language of instruction, their reasons for choosing the NL as a vehicle for their feedback were no different from their reasons for TL/NL use in general; using Korean for feedback was taken for granted.

2. Methodology-Related Factors: Little opportunities for students to produce TL errors

With the teacher's language use as a factor affecting the occurrence of TL feedback, the most problematic findings from the observation of these classes is that individual students in T 2, T 3, T 4 and T 5 were given little opportunity to produce TL errors! (Note that the frequencies of feedback, including that given in the NL, still

showed a difference between T 1 [n=31] and the other teachers [n = ranging from 4 to 16]). The three most apparent factors related to students' opportunities to use TL were:

(1) Implementation of TL activity

(2) Techniques of eliciting students' knowledge (i.e., students' use of TL vs. NL)

(3) Reactive patterns (i.e., TL exchanges that were excluded from feedback)

   a. filling-in-the-gaps

   b. over-correction

The above elements characterize the basic differences between T 1 and the other teachers, which in part explain the low frequencies of TL feedback for T2, T3, T4, and T5. The discussion will start first with the first factor in the above list - implementation of TL activities.

2.1) Implementation of TL activities: meaning-based vs. drills/rote memorization

The teacher's ability to design TL tasks during teacher-fronted lessons was one of the significant differences between T 1 and the others. While T 1 implemented tasks in which the students could participate individually, using the TL without fear of making errors (e.g, guessing activities), the other teachers did not.[31] This is true particularly in the case of T 2 and T 4, who often spent class time having individual students stand up and perform (i.e., calling on them individually). Their teaching methods relied heavily on the following practices: mechanical drills, rote memorization, and asking questions for TL translation. All the students in their classes needed to do was repeat after the teacher (or the CD), or perform English phrases and sentences they had memorized.

[31] There were a few activities in the other teachers' classes such as bingo or TPR; these did not require much student' speaking.

Consequently, the students' utterances in their classes did not contain many grammar errors. Rather, difficulties arose when students could not memorize the TL in question, and thus hesitated or spoke slowly (the students' hesitation was not considered an error). Often it was my impression that the students were under pressure to produce exactly, and only, what their teachers expected.

Oliver and Mackey (2003) reported that among the different classroom contexts, errors occurred most when the focus of activity was meaning-based communication (e.g., the teacher asks open-ended questions). This risky kind of activity (from the point of view of making errors) pays off in that it provides many opportunities for feedback to occur. [32] Oliver and Mackey suggested that the high occurrence of errors in communication exchanges supports Tarone's (1979) claim that errors are likely to occur more when the primary attention is put towards conveying meaning (cited in Oliver & Mackey, 2003, p. 529). Along the same lines as Oliver and Mackey's (2003) finding is the observation in this study that students in the classes where the teacher implemented meaning-based activities had more chances of making errors than those in the more traditional type of class. The teachers rationalize their styles as follows.

(Example 20)

T 2	T 4
T: Now, look at the board. Is there any volunteer? Is there any volunteer? Ok, you stand up! Look at the board. 자 look at the board. Read it please.	T: *Ok, starting now, you as a pair will stand up and perform the patterns we've learned so far. One person asks first "what time do you~?" If you want to ask the same question,*

[32] However, they report that the percentage-wise, the provision of feedback was the highest in two other contexts (i.e., explicit language focused and content), not communication. Then again, although the percentage was low, the raw number of feedback given in communication exchanges was still the second highest.

S: …

T: Can I? I am?

S: …I'm hungry?

T: Stay stand up. 일서서 계십시오

[*stay stand up*] 자, J! stand up please. Is anybody want- wants to talk? Ok, you, you A, you B. Start.

S 1: I'm hungry. Can I have some X?

S 2: Sure, here you are.

S 1: Thank you.

T: Great.

ask "how about you?" or "what about you?" If you want to ask a different question, ask "what time do you do your homework?" for example. Try to ask different questions each time, though. [instruction continues…]

T: Stand up!

S 1: What time do you go to bed?

S 2: I go to bed at twelve o'clock.

S 1: what time~

T: 물어봐야지[*You should ask*]

S 2: how about you?

S 1: I go to bed at nine-thirty.

Q: You use English a lot.

➔ *I guess around 6:4 or 7:3? I use Korean especially when I scold them. I use English a lot but my teaching style is quite Korean… very strict.*

Q: Why? On purpose?

➔ *Yes. 2 hours per week is too short to reach the lesson objectives. Otherwise they wouldn't learn as much as is in the textbooks during the limited time. To do so, I have to be strict. If I'm not, I have hard time in the following class.*

➔ *I expected them to use different expressions, like… If one says "what time do you get up?" then the other says "what time do you have breakfast?" But they mostly used what's in the main dialogue* (i.e., they would re-use "What about you?" as an answer repeatedly).

Q: You particularly seem to concentrate on individualized rote performance?

➔ *The students don't have chances to speak English outside. I want them to have a chance to speak out at least one sentence before they leave the class. A drawback is sometimes it's boring, but it is still better than just winding up listening to the CD.*

2.2) Negotiation in NL? – Teachers' eliciting techniques

Related to the techniques a teacher could use for implementing meaning-based activities is another observation taken from this study – that the teachers often asked questions which actually promoted the students' use of the NL.

Van Lier (1988b) noted that the teacher's questioning is the most common speech act in all classrooms (p. 274). What this implies is that, depending on how the teacher elicits students' knowledge of content or understanding, the students either have a chance or have *NO CHANCE* to speak the TL. Of course, an effective teacher would want the students to engage in using the TL as much as possible, because it would be waste time if the students had to translate into the NL instead.

In the classes observed, questioning by the teacher was indeed the main discourse act used to keep the class moving. It quickly became apparent in observations of T1's class that she used her questions effectively (keeping them very short), in such a way that the students had to respond in the TL. The other teachers used questions the opposite way; the students had to use the NL. The functions of the individual students' NL responses include responses to:

- listening comprehension questions (Example 21-2)
- giving the meaning of TL words (e.g., T: Bread, what does it mean? S: 빵[*bread*])
- responding to managerial questions including activity procedures

(e.g., T: 카드가 몇장 있어야해? [*How many cards do you need to have?*]

S1: 6장[*six*]

T: 카드가 몇장? [*How many?*]

S2: 6장이요! [*six!*-polite ending marker]).

● answering to review questions

(e.g., T: 6과에서 지금까지 어떤 거 배웠죠? [*What did we learn in Lesson six?*]

S 1: 배고프다[*hungry*] T: 배고프다[*hungry*]

S 2: 목마르다[*thirsty*] T: 목마르다[*thirsty*]

S 3: 뭣좀 주세요[*can I have some~?*] T: 뭣좀 주세요[*can I have some~?*]

S 4: 먹고 싶다[*I want some-*] T: 먹고싶다[*I want some*]...)

Table 12 shows the ratio of NL vs. TL individual student turns that occurred during negotiated exchanges with the teachers.

Table 12. Ratio of NL vs. TL Negotiated Individual Student (S) Turns

	S - Negotiated	
	NL : TL (%)	NL : TL (raw amount)
T 1	2 % : 98%	(2:101=103)
T 2	58%: 42%	(26:19=45)
T 3	52% : 48%	(28:26=54)
T 4	100% : 0%	(14:0=14)
T 5	82% : 18%	(27:6=33)

As seen in Table 12, in T 1's lessons, in only two questions did she ask for translations of what an expression meant (Example 21-1). In the other teachers' classes, there were many more questions eliciting the students' response in which they would have to use the NL.

Compare the following two excerpts from a listening activity which was one of the most common activities seen in all of the classes.[33]

[33] As mentioned previously in the section of Teaching Context, the state curriculum puts great emphasis on

(Example 21)	Example Listening comprehension checking	
<CD dialogue>	Nami: Mom, I'm home.	Mother: I'm making sandwiches
	Nami: Can I have some?	Mother: Sure, here you are.
	Nami: hum, it's delicious. Thanks mom.	

(Example 21- 1) T 1	(Example 21 - 2) T 3
T: Ok, tell me what heard. ((T walks around the class to give a point mark to those who participated))	T: 자, 어디서 돌아오는 거예요, 남희가? [*Where is Namhi coming back from?*]
S1: Thank you mom.	SSS: 집에서 // 집 [*home // home*]
T: Thank you mom. **THANKS Mom.** THANKS mom. Thanks mom ((gesture)) =	T: 자, 학교에서 집으로 돌아왔는데, 엄마한테 어떻게 얘기하면 좋을까? [*Ok, she came home from school. What can she say?*]
S2:=Can I have some?	SSS: 샌드위치 주세요!// 저 왔어요// [*Sandwich, please//I'm home*]
T: Can I have some? Can I have some? Can I have some? 좀 먹어도 되겠습니까? [*Can I have some*?]	T: 'Mom, I'm home.' 다같이 [*Repeat after me*] 'Mom, I'm home.'
S3:= Here you are.	SSS: 'Mom, I'm home.'
T: Here you are! Here you are. ((gesture))	T: 지금 어떤 상태에요? [*How is Nami feeling now?*]
S4: I'm hungry.	SSS: 배고파요 [*She's hungry*]
T: I'm HUNGRY. I'm HUNGRY. ((gesture))	T: Oh, I'm hungry. 마침, 엄마가 무엇을 하고 계셨어요? [*What was her mom doing then?*]
S5: It's delicious.	SSS: 샌드위치// 샌드위치 만들어요 [*Sandwich// She's making sandwiches*]
T: Oh, **deLIcious. It's deLIcious.** ((gesture))	T: I'm MAKING?
S6: Sure.	S: 샌드위치!
S7: I'm making sandwich.	T: Sandwich. 자, 그래서 엄마가 만들어준
T: **Yeh! I'm making SANDwiches.** I'm making SANDwiches. What does it	

listening skills (as well as oral skills). Thus, listening comprehension activity took a large portion of the lessons. The curriculum is largely influenced by Krashen's input hypothesis and natural approach, which emphasizes heavy listening comprehension skills but not necessarily speaking.

mean in Korean? SS: 샌드위치를 만들고 있다. [*I'm making sandwiches*] T: That's right! Oh, you missed ONE sentence. You missed ONE sentence. ((gesture)) SSS: One more time! // 다시한번! //One more time! [*one more time!*] T: Ok, listen one more time. You missed ONE sentence. Listen, listen. ((gesture)) ((the activity continues))	샌드위치를 먹어보는 그런 장면이었죠 다시한번 들어보고, 나중에 조용히 하고 해볼꺼예요. 그러니까 Listen carefully. [*ok, so the scene was about Nami's trying the sandwiches. Let's listen again. Then we will repeat after it, so* Listen carefully.] ((After playing the CD)) T: 내용이 굉장히 쉽지요. It's easy, 그치요? [*It was very easy to understand, right?*] Let's listen and repeat.
Q: You don't really ask questions that they should reply to in Korean. ➔ *Having them translate is not encouraged. I don't usually do so. Sometimes you make an on-the-spot decision for giving the Korean meaning of a certain English expression. In that case, I quickly say it and move on, instead of stopping the class and asking them to translate. Keeping the flow of the lesson in the TL is important.*	**Q: What do you think of your students' listening skills?** ➔ *In terms of listening, most of them are really good, far better than when we learned English. Many of them go to private institute after class.* **Q: Is there any reason you elicit them in Korean?** ➔ *Some students would not understand... and I don't think I can ask in English.*

As seen in the examples above, T 1's elicitation technique is effective in that the students had to speak in the TL to express their understanding. Some errors in different areas occurred, and the teacher recast (e.g., sandwich → sandwiches). In T 3's class, on the other hand, the teacher elicited the students' comprehension by having them answer in the NL. She became the one who was really using the target expressions. Compared to the students in T 1's class, the students in T 3's were missing out on opportunities to

speak the TL based on what they had understood.

It was not my impression at all that students in T 3's class were less proficient than those in T 1's; many of the students seemed to know the content of the CD dialogue already. As a matter of fact, T 3 herself commented (during SR) that most of her students' listening skills were quite "impressive," partly because most of them took English tutoring privately after class. Is it truly necessary, then, to have the students to translate what they understood back into the NL? What the students are really missing is the chance to produce TL output, rather than just repeating after the teacher.

(Example 21- 2): this type of class interaction seemed preferable to the listening elicitation and word meaning questions, which were done frequently - completely in the NL - in two of the other teachers' lessons (Example 22).

(Example 22) - Listening comprehension	T 5
T: ((after playing the CD)) Ok, S!	➔ *"I learned from my professors in*
S 1: 승준이가 발표하겠습니다. 선생님, 약간	*graduate studies, who had been*
틀려도 돼요?	*influenced by theories of Krashen's,*
T: 그럼요.	*like the natural approach,*
S 1: 그러니까요, 너네 아빠 뭐하시니 하니까요,	*comprehensible input, affective filter,*
우리 아빠는 경찰이야. 너네 아빠는	*TPR, etc. I'm quite influenced by*
뭐하시니? 비행기 조정사야.	*such comprehension-based teaching*
T: 오, 맞았어요. 또, 보충해 볼사람? 보충해 볼	*approaches. We learned that these*
사람? 승주 보충해보자.	*theories were quite important. So,*
S 2: 경찰을 보면서 경찰- 남자 아이가 자기네	*even if my students can't verbalize, I*
아빠가 경찰이라고, 여자 아이는 나중에 크면	*have them explain first in Korean*
경찰이 되고 싶다 그러고, 남자 아이는요, 그	*what they understood. Then, tell them*
여자 아이가 아빠 직업뭐니 그래가지고,	*listen again and find one expression,*
비행기 조종사라 그러니까 나중에 커서	*like "I want to be-" here..."*
비행기 조종사가 되고 싶다고 그런	

내용이었어요

[*Translation*]

S1: *I will present. Teacher, is it ok if my answer is not completely correct?*

T: *Sure.*

S: *What happened was, the girl asked 'What does your father do?' then the boy said 'My father is a police officer.' 'What does your father do?' 'He is a pilot.'*

T: *Oh, that's right. Who else? Who wants to add more? Let S ((S2)) try.*

S2: *Looking at the picture of a police officer- the boy said his father was a police officer, and the girl said she wanted to be a police officer in the future. The boy asked what her father did. She said 'Pilot.' Then he said he wanted to be a pilot. That was what the story was about.*

2.3) Teachers' reactive patterns (Excluded exchanges from TL feedback)

The last discussion point, representing another explanation for the low frequency of TL feedback, concerns two features of the teachers' reactive moves: the fill-in-the-blank type elicitation and over-correction. These arose particularly in T 2 and T 3's classes, and were not counted as feedback episodes unless the student actually made an error (there was one case in T 2's class where a student had a completely false start, and the teacher used filling-in-the-blank type elicitation; this was counted as explicit feedback).

2.3.1) "Filling-in-the-blank" – Missing opportunities for negotiation

The following occasions were examples of filling-in-the-blank type exchanges:

i) Type A: The teacher completes the TL by interrupting the student's utterance (Example 23-1) or giving the correct answer (Example 23-2)

(Example 23-1) - T 3	(Example 23-2) - T 2, T 4
T: 자, 아주머니가 맛있게 먹고있는데, 고양이 표정이 지금 어떤 거 같애요? [*Ok, the lady is eating a hamburger. What does the cat want?*]	(T 2) S: I, want, some, **T: I want some spaghetti.**
S: 먹고 싶은 표정 [*he wants to eat something*]	S: I want some spaghetti.
T: 자, 뭘 먹고 싶을까? [*What does he want to eat?*]	T: Right! I want some spaghetti. Good job.
SSS: 햄버거 [*a hamburger*]	
T: 햄버거? 어, 손은 햄버거로 뻗치고 있어요 [*a hamburger? Yes. His paws are reaching for the hamburger.*] 그런데 얘도 지금 - 고양이 햄버거 좋아하니 안좋아하니? [*Then, does the cat like hamburgers or not?*]	(T4) S 1: I come to school...at...eight, T : Ten. 다음 [*next*] S 2: I get home, seven o'clock, uh...and study English.
S: 안좋아해요 [*no, it doesn't*]	
T: 지금 목이 마른 거 같은데 어떻게 표현하면 좋을까? [*The cat looks thirsty. What can it say?*]=	
S: =I'm:=	
T: =I'm thirsty. I'm thirsty.	
여기 책에 있는 거 보고 읽어보자. 시작! [*let's read what's in the book. Start!*]	

ii) Type B: The teacher interrupts the student's half-done sentence by eliciting the completion (e.g., having the student fill in the last word) (Example 24)

(Example 24-1) T 3	(Example 24-2) T 2
T: J, 그 자리에서 얘기해 보세요 [*J, you try*]! I'm hungry? Or I'm thirsty?	T: ((holding up a picture)) Look at me. What do I want? -- I'm?
S: I'm hungry.	S: I'm hungry, I, want some, chi-X.
T: I'm hungry? 그럼 얘기해 보세요 [*Then, ask me*] **Can I have some?**	**T: I want some?** S: Chicken

S 1: Can I have some-- hamburgers? T: hamburger? No, I'm sorry, I don't have hamburgers.((pointing S 2)) S 2: Can I have some= T: **=I'm?** S: I'm hungry. T: hungry? S: Can I have some pizza? T: pizza? Sorry, I don't have pizza.	S: … **T: he wants some?** S: He wants some bread. T: Right! He wants some bread.
➔ *In case the students couldn't say it well, feeling embarrassed...to encourage, to help..*	➔ *I tend to elicit the student's response this way, especially if the student is at the lower-level.*

Walsh (2002) notes that teachers' turn-completion is problematic because it minimizes students' opportunities to reformulate their utterances (i.e., to negotiate meaning/form). He further argues:

> "The teacher's intentions may well be justified: there are other learners waiting to speak, for example, or she needs to move on to the next phase of the lesson. Nonetheless, she may be doing the learner a disservice as there is no negotiation of meaning, no need for clarification, no confirmation checks. There is a sense of the learner being 'fed the lines' instead of being allowed time and space to formulate her response" (p. 16 [italics added]).

The teachers in this study had their reasons for filling in. They said they tended to do so particularly when the student called upon was less proficient than others (Example 24 - 2), sometimes because of time constraints (Example 23 -1), and at other times out of their great consideration for the student on the spot (just in case the student failed to do what they were asked) (Example 24 - 1). However, this filling-in-the-blanks strategy seemed to be almost a habit, with the unspoken assumption being that it was only the teacher who was capable, or who even had the right to say the complete TL sentence. In Example 23-1,

after the class had spent a long time on comprehension-checking exchanges in Korean, a student finally tried to respond in the TL to the teacher's question. The teacher did not wait, taking over the student's turn to complete instead. Filling-in-the-blank may have become a crutch, in part, because teachers only partly understand the importance of negotiation in the process of language acquisition – a point made by Walsh (2002) above, as well as many other SL researchers (Gass, 1997; Pica, 1989; Polio & Duff, 1994; Swain, 1985, 1995).

As to the question of why filling-in-the-blank was resorted to (especially Type B), another observation that was made (although the assertion does not sound ethical) was that the teacher used it particularly when the lessons were not well structured. In other words, it seemed almost "inevitable" that teachers would need to *feed* students the lines, because the students had not been given enough background before they were pushed into saying things the teacher wanted them to say, into performing. The students did not appear to know (or at least were not confident that they could say) exactly what the teacher expected them to. Consider the following (Example 25).

(Example 25) Filling-in elicitation (+ over-correction)	T 2 SR (6/13)
T: Does your mother work?	➔ *I wanted her to*
S1: No.	*be able to say using*
T: No, she? -- No, she? -- No, she? – doesn't. Good. You may sit. You stand up. What does your, what does your father do? Does your father work?	*more complex expressions, not just yes or no.*
S: My father is a=	
T: =Yes, he? Yes, he? Yes, he does.	
S: Yes, he does.	

In the example above, the teacher was trying to elicit a complete expression when the

student responded briefly (i.e., "no"). The teacher later commented that she wanted to have the student give a response more complex than just "no" (i.e., with a correct use of pronouns and negation). The fact was that it was the first day of a series of lessons on asking people about their occupations. After going through the job-related nouns word by word, the teacher started calling on individual students, asking them whether their parents worked or not. Many of the students could not meet the teacher's expectations. The content they had just learned consisted only of job-related nouns, NOT the pronouns (i.e., he vs. she) or the negative forms (does vs. doesn't) that might accompany a short dialogue about whether someone works or not. Consequently, the day of that particular lesson, there were many in the class who were "low proficiency students" from the teacher's perspective.

2.3.2) Over-correction

Another problem, which was also excluded from the feedback counts, occurred when the teacher overcorrected in response to a student's complete sentence. Over-correction in this study refers to occasions when the teacher demanded another form in response to a linguistically appropriate utterance from a student which deviated from the form the teacher desired. For reasons similar to those for the filling-in-the-blank type exchanges discussed above, the overcorrecting pattern is problematic; it allows students little autonomy to create their own sentences – sentences which may well be correct, even if they are not the answers the answers the teacher expected. It does not credit any answer which is not what the teacher expects. In this sense, some over-correction episodes overlap with the filling-in-the-blank type elicitation above (Example 25), since the

teachers over-corrected many times using fill-in-the-blank elicitation.

The following is an example of over-correction which took the form of fill-in-the-blank elicitation, but with yet another problem compounding it. The teacher interrupted one student in the pair (who were practicing a dialogue standing up before the class) because S 2 "skipped" a part that the teacher had expected to hear. Through her interruption, the teacher "succeeded" in having the student say the form she wanted. However, she "skips" herself, by not providing the right input on S 2's article errors.

(Example 26)	T 2 SR comments:
S 1: Does your father work?	Q: S2 said "a" office worker. Any
S 2: Yes, my father is- a office worker=	reason for focusing on "yes, he does,"
T: =Yes, he?-- Yes, he? --	not correcting his article error?
SS: does...	➔ *"Almost no student said 'an' today.*
T: Yes, he?	*What I wanted them to say was "Does*
S 2: yes, he does.	*your father work? Yes he does," being*
T: Right. Yes, he does. Good. Well done.	*able to say different jobs based on this*
You may sit.	*frame. So I interrupted them to use that*
	phrase"

The tendency to over-correct becomes even more problematic when it gets explicit. In the following example (Example 27), S 1 pronounced the word, *water*, in a way that was closer to North American pronunciation (i.e., */wərə/*) than British. The teacher had been teaching the British pronunciation, and she points out explicitly. The teacher's intention (i.e., telling the students about pronunciation variation) is understandable (and certainly it is the teacher's right to choose which errors she corrects). Nonetheless, her explicit over-correction seemed to confuse the students.

(Example 27) fill-in elicitation	T 2 SR comments:
T : What's that?	Q: Any reason for correcting
S1 : It's some /wərə/.	the student's pronunciation?
T : /wərə/? /wərə/? some /wərər/? No…	➔ *"I wanted them to be*
S2 : Some milk?	*familiar with different*
T : No. 자[*ok*], I told you. I told you, don't pronounce	*pronunciation of the*
/wərər/. /warer/ 라고 발음 발음하지 말랬지요?	*word...I don't think it's good*
[*I told you not to pronounce it /ware/, right?*]	*for the students to teach*
SSS: 어? [Uh?]	*only one pronunciation."*
T: 자[*ok*], Who- who can revise it?	
S3: /wəta/	
T: Right, /wəta/	

3. Conclusion and Implications

Before discussing the conclusions of this thesis, the significance of the teacher's role in teacher-fronted lessons should be emphasized again. Walsh (2002) addressed the importance of teacher-student interaction and the need for the teacher's awareness of how to facilitate the negotiation of meaning during teacher-fronted lessons. Supporting his claim were the findings of Foster's (1998) study, which looked at learner interactions during pair/group work in adult EFL classrooms. Foster reported that there was little evidence of negotiation for meaning. Such a claim may not mean that pair/small group work would not work in all the classrooms. The point is that because the teacher can not always ensure that the students will maintain discourse in the TL, especially in the case of large classes like the ones observed in this study, the teacher's strategies to keep directing the class interaction in such a way as to simulate meaningful communication are

indeed important. In this sense, the findings of this study shed light on the teachers' actual classroom practice during teacher-fronted lessons.

It should be noted that, since this thesis involves a small sample size, it is problematic to generalize from it about non-native EFL teachers' language use. However, several tentative conclusions can be drawn from the study. In response to the first question, "What amount of TL corrective feedback is found in Korean elementary EFL classrooms and what type is it?," the amount and type of TL feedback varied across the classes, ranging from over 30 episodes for one teacher to a single incident in the total of the 3 lessons for another. Except for T 1, the frequency of TL feedback was too low to draw any generalizations about patterns in the type of TL feedback each teacher used. In T 1's classes, implicit feedback was used for errors by individual students which occurred during communicative activities.

To answer the second research question, "What are the identifiable factors affecting the occurrence of TL feedback?," this study compared the high TL feedback teacher (i.e., T1) with the low TL feedback teachers (i.e., the other four). The two major differences were the teacher's language of instruction and the teaching methodology used. Some specific issues related to teaching methodology were whether the teachers implemented TL activities, and what techniques they used to elicit students' knowledge. Based on the observations, tentative conclusions for the observed behaviors can be drawn as follows.

1) The classes where the highest amount of TL feedback occurred were those where the teacher implemented meaning-based activities, as well as maintained TL use. T1, whose class was the most communicatively oriented, implemented activities where

individual students could participate in the TL without being pressured to speak in correct sentences. During those activities, the teacher reacted to student errors using implicit feedback techniques.

2) In the classes where the teacher depended heavily on traditional methodology (excessive drills, rote memorization, NL translation), there was little opportunity for meaningful TL use by individual students. Thus, errors did not occur often, and there was not much feedback.

3) The way that the teacher elicited students' knowledge was another factor affecting the individual students' language production, and the consequent occurrence of TL feedback. In the low TL feedback classes, individual students produced as much NL, if not more, in response to the teacher's questions. Therefore, meaningful negotiation occurred more in the NL than in the TL.

4) The teachers' patterns of filling-in-the-gaps, instead of providing the individual students opportunities to reformulate their utterances, was observed in the low TL feedback teachers' classes. Along with the teachers' tendency to fill in, there was the demand they made of students to produce legitimized TL patterns (i.e., over-correction). Both of these were identified as other factors affecting the occurrence of TL feedback.

5) Summary of stimulated recall: The above conclusions are based on what was observed in the classroom. Some of the stimulated recall comments from each teacher were presented in earlier chapters, along with their classroom practice. The following section summarizes the voices of the teachers gathered during the stimulated recall. The summary of the teacher comments which follows is organized under factors related to the teacher's educational background, TL proficiency, and other external factors raised by the

teachers such as class size/mixed-level, class management etc.

a. Teacher training experience abroad:

T 1 commented that the experience of taking teacher education programs abroad helped her teaching of English. Through such programs, she had opportunities both to observe classes where the medium of instruction was the TL, and to do micro-teachings in English. She recalled, "*In the program in Canada, for example, we observed ESL classes and French immersion classes. After observing the classes, we also had chances to try teaching demonstrations in front of the teacher educator there. Then we discussed each other's teaching, what was good and what could be improved. It was all in English.*"

These experiences were invaluable for her, as she stressed when she said: "*You learn from your own teaching - what works and what doesn't work. But I believe observing different classes teaches you many things that can't be learned just from your own teaching. Through observations, you get opportunities to reflect on your own teaching, and think of how to improve. It was a great learning experience for me to observe ESL classes and try teaching in English.*"

She described some of the teaching methodology programs she attended in another English-speaking country: "*When the lesson was on the 'opposites,' for example, we used real pictures from magazines, pictures that showed the opposite concepts, like 'ugly,' then 'pretty.' Another thing we did was, we made masks and did a play. Basically, the methodology there was quite activity-based; a teacher teaches the language by doing hands-on things together with the students, and we teach words such as* making, cutting off, cutting out, *and so on.*"

She was impressed with the classroom dynamics she observed; the students

participated in class activities with great engagement; "*It struck me the way the students interact with their teachers. Students' participation was not like, a teacher says something and has them repeat after her, or she calls on someone. There were many students who asked questions of the teacher, and the teachers were able to answer. It was quite different from our typical classroom dynamics.*"

To a question regarding other elements that may have influenced her teaching, T 1 noted; "*The basic element is, you must love what you are doing - enthusiasm. It's your enthusiasm that makes you attend training programs, observe other classes, think of different activities, look for resources, and so on. In my case, studying child psychology in a graduate program was of particular help; it taught me to see a child's perspective. Besides, I think my personality fits a teaching job too. When I first started teaching English, I didn't even use a textbook. I now reflect that I was quite brave. Fortunately, at that time, there was an English native-speaking teacher here; I observed her classes sometimes, and learned a lot.*"

b. TL proficiency:

The teachers' TL proficiency was a common concern for all the teachers regardless of the amount/type of TL use. For T 2, the issues were related to how to make the TL comprehensible. As she said, "*I have difficulty making my English easier for students to understand, especially the classroom English you use for management, or ways to communicate with students more naturally...*" In the case of low-TL using teachers, the issues related to their TL proficiency were more complicated, involving matters such as concerns about low proficiency students, class management, workload etc. For T 1, a main concern was how to integrate the natural use of TL within an activity.

Reflecting on her own experience as a teacher trainer, T 1 made the point that, "*Giving input constantly to students, while having them engaged in real tasks- activities: this is probably the best way to teach a language, right? But there are many problems in having such a class. First of all, it is hard to expect teachers to have that much language skill. If I could, I would love to teach lessons this way. For example, I say what I'm doing in English simultaneously with doing it,* 'I'm cutting, I'm pasting, I'm drawing, *etc.' That is the way English education should aim to go in the future, though.*"

c. Mixed-level classes, large class sizes, and lower-proficiency students:

The difficulty of teaching mixed-level classes was raised by T 2, T 3, and T 5. T 3 and 5 commented that there was a large gap between low-proficiency students and the higher-proficiency students, and that such gaps were the result of socio-economic differences among the students. That is, the students whose families could afford private language schools or private tutors already knew the content of the lessons, while there were still some students who could not attend a private language school. For T 3 and T 5, the fact that using English might exclude low-proficiency students was a reason for using Korean. According to the teachers, the national curriculum provided tasks to help teachers teaching multi-level classes, but as T 5 commented, "*dividing groups of 40 students by their levels and giving them different tasks is difficult for one teacher to manage.*" T 2 responded that she had similar problems with proficiency gaps among the students. She had problems keeping the class under control, since there were many students who went to private schools, and they did not pay attention in this class.

d. Difficulties specific to homeroom teachers: Workload, keeping student motivation:

T 3 and T 5 had an additional difficulty that is specific to the case of homeroom

teachers of the higher grades of elementary school. First of all, since homeroom teachers teach all subjects, including English, to the same group of students, switching from one language to the other was not easy. T 5 stated that, "*English class comes between two periods of other subjects. In the previous class, you scold them. Then, in English class, if the teacher comes in with a lively face, saying* 'Hello everyone*!' they don't follow you. It does not really matter in lower grades, 3rd grade classes, but for 6th graders it matters.*" T 3 continued that it was a challenge to keep student motivation up, "*Because the students don't have the opportunity to use English outside class, our school is even talking about designating one spot as an 'English zone' where students have to speak English. But it's not easy for teachers to keep the students in the mood for English even in the classroom. For example, when I use the word* 'Attention*!' in the classes for other subjects, some of my students say 'Oh, Teacher, this is not English class'... Those who don't usually participate much in school certainly don't participate in English class.*"

Their workload was another problem, as T 5 commented, "*When I first started teaching English, I would go to a big bookstore looking for English materials, tapes, songs for my students. But after 7 years of teaching, I find myself not the same as I was before. Work that is related to students, like checking homework and diary assignments, preparing to teach other subjects - these are just a part of what you need to do. There is administrative work homeroom teachers need to do other than teaching English.*" T 4 also noted, "*I felt that teaching English in a middle school was easier since you only needed to teach one subject repeatedly in different classes.*"

e. Influence of previous teacher education:

The type of teacher education program a teacher had gone through was another

element that played a role. In T 5's case, she learned about Krashen's input hypothesis as an important basis for teaching methodology during her graduate studies. Comprehensible input and affective filter were important elements that formed her teaching philosophy, she said. Accordingly, her lessons contained noticeably more praise than those of other teachers. (e.g., "그렇지! 너무 잘하네" [*Yes! you are doing great*!], "Oh, GREAT!") and encouraging comments (e.g., "영어는 자신감이야. 자신감있게 하는게 제일 중요합니다. 말이 잘 안 나와도 괜찮아요." [*Learning English is about having confidence. Having confidence is most important. It's ok not to say it fluently*] – when asking for a volunteer to perform a target expression).

***f. Idea of TL learning/teaching*:**

Recall comments such as "...*What I wanted them to say was 'Does your father work? Yes he does,'...* " (in Example 26), and the teachers' practices (e.g., focus on rote memory, tendency to over-correct), seem to indicate that the teachers' ideas of L 2 learning were based on audio-lingual theory. Teachers' demands for the full TL pattern might be interpreted as a sign of their enthusiasm, but this does not make the phenomenon acceptable; it still stifles students' creativity with sentences.

To summarize, the stimulated recall sessions were beneficial for teachers as well as the researcher to understand the observed behaviors. For some teachers, watching a video of their own teaching served as a moment of awakening; for others, the first reaction was defensive. T 1 sums up the problem the Korean EFL teachers were facing: disregarding the issue of teacher proficiency for the moment, "*There are many difficulties - class size, time to prepare the materials and so on. On top of that, if students could understand, we might be able to maximize English use, but not all students are yet ready*

and we need to compromise in this real situation we are dealing with... What teaching English through English means to us I believe is using English at a level the students can understand... It seems hard to reduce the gap between different points of view as to how much English teachers should use; people outside the class can easily say, 'Well, elementary school teachers are not qualified; they should use English more... 'The bottom line is though that, although there ARE many problems and difficulties, we should keep trying to make sure we provide the students with the best formation we can." Let it be noted, however, that in T 1's case, she was able to maintain the TL for her students by using other strategies to help the students understand her TL.

Many interrelated reasons explain the observed behavior of the four teachers whose classroom culture does not reflect the current direction in English education. It MUST be emphasized that the problems which have been identified are systemic rather than simply teacher-based. Regardless of the effectiveness of their actual teaching practice, each traditional-approach teacher had sincere concern for the students, as their insights (noted under examples) show. The observation and the teachers' recall comments suggest special attention to the following areas.

- ***Understanding the importance of modified TL output in meaningful context.*** The low TL feedback teachers' excessive use of oral drills and CD-Rom for "input," and their reliance on the NL for "interaction" seem to show that the teachers are not aware that meaningful output is also important. It was evident that the teachers in this study put great effort into making sure the students did comprehend the listening materials; they did so by having them verbalized back in the NL to the teachers.

It seemed that the emphasis on listening in the national curriculum might have

caused elementary school teachers to overemphasize this skill. One of the basic principles of the Korean curriculum (as mentioned in a previous chapter of this study) is "comprehension before production." The Ministry of Education Teacher's Guide also identifies the Natural Approach as the most important theoretical principle to base language education on at the elementary school level (Korea Institute of Curriculum & Evaluation, 2002, p. 33). Although the curriculum does state that the English education should also develop "communicative competence" and "fluency over accuracy" (Kwon, 2000, p.60), there seems to be relatively little explanation of how to best develop the "communicative competence." We all know through our own experience of learning a second language, oral drills or rote memorization alone do not help much in developing TL proficiency.

• ***A problem of proficiency or a problem of strategy?:*** Some teachers commented that they would not be able to use the TL to elicit listening comprehension because of their own lack of proficiency, besides the other problems such as mixed-level. However, the teachers' concerns about not being able to speak TL seem to have more to do with a lack of strategies than their TL proficiency. The strategy T 1 used was lots of pictures, simple sentences, and gestures, while the other teachers used the NL as a way to increase comprehensibility. As seen in the examples on listening elicitation earlier, T 1 used just a few phrases, as a routine (e.g., "Tell me what you heard!" "You missed ~ sentence!"). It was the *students* who spoke the TL in T 1's classes, while in the other classes it was usually just the *teachers* who spoke the TL during listening comprehension. T 2, 3, and 5 expressed concerns about the difficulty of teaching/managing mixed-level classes. Franklin (1990) argued that the "real" problem of mixed ability may have more to do

with the teachers' expectations of what low ability students are capable of achieving, than the exact nature of the ability mix in the classroom (p.21). He further asserted that these expectations may in turn depend on the teaching and learning experience of the teachers themselves.

• ***Opportunities for teachers to build TL confidence through on-going training:***

Needless to say, as previous studies have addressed, on-going opportunities for teacher training must be provided. Certainly T 1 benefited from attending teacher training programs abroad. However, accessing professional development abroad is not an option for most teachers. Therefore, in-service teacher training programs on a regular basis seems to be urgent. There are many commercial resource books on classroom English. The Teacher's Guide also provides examples of classroom English for teachers. However, if the teachers are not given opportunities to try teaching English using the TL, these books may not be utilized much. If resources were all that was necessary to implement TL use in elementary school classrooms, all the EFL teachers in Korea would be experiencing great success. Particularly, the teachers seemed to have difficulties in making the TL comprehensible to the students. For one thing, being unsure about minor classroom language such as basic instructions seems to bother teachers. For example, T 2 knew that some of her TL was non-idiomatic (e.g., "Speak down" instead of "Speaking quietly"). Another problem was that her instructions also tended to be complex and confused. In her case, this sometimes led her to translate her TL into NL sentence by sentence. Clearly teachers need opportunity to develop their competence. At the same time, however, they need to build their confidence in order to have more fluency in the TL. Some of the teachers' comments (e.g., T 4 in Example 14) show that self-

consciousness is an inhibiting factor on their TL use. As T 1 commented, "*It is always better to have more proficiency. But, at the same time, it's important not to be afraid of making mistakes.*"

• ***Teacher's Guide:*** The Teacher's Guide could be improved to reflect more realistic classroom dynamics. The first area to include is a section with the possible errors that occur frequently. Throughout the classes, common errors that could have been corrected were not caught by the teachers. Particular grammar problems found during the observation were related to countable/non-countable nouns. Activities in the textbook also need modification to reflect actual "normal" class size. This was in fact raised by T 4, who commented that many activities in the textbook and the instruction in the teachers' guide seemed to be for small classes (e.g., card games). In her case, she preferred to use class time having students recite the TL patterns as much as possible, rather than spending time explaining and doing the games during which she sometimes found the class became "uncontrollable."

To conclude, much work needs to be done by teacher education programs in Korea. Language teachers need information, guidance, and practical support in order to implement a more communicative approach to teaching. One of the main blocks impeding such a change seems to be that most teachers have been trained in traditional audio-lingual methods, and are consequently most familiar with that style. Therefore, teacher education programs, including in-service workshops, need to start by changing attitudes to classroom dynamics. If the teachers are not exposed to the kinds of strategies that T 1 had, technology and textbooks will not succeed in addressing the problem of students' lacking opportunities to interact in the TL. All the "great" policies and

curriculum development initiatives will not get off the ground.

APPENDIX A

Schedule for Observations and Stimulated Recall

	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	SR (Stimuli)
T 1	5/27 (another class)	5/27	6/10	6/11	6/11 (Videotape: Last lesson)
T 2	6/5	6/9	6/12	6/13	6/13 (Videotape: 2/3 of the last lesson & transcripts in August)
T 3	5/21	5/23	5/28	5/30	6/2 (Videotape: Last lesson & brief transcripts)
T 4	5/20 (another class)	5/20	5/21	6/3	6/4 (Videotape: Last lesson)
T 5	5/29	5/30	6/4	6/7	6/10 (Videotape: All four lessons)

APPENDIX B

Transcription Conventions (Adapted from Polio & Duff, 1994, p.325)

T	teacher
S	student
SS	more than two students, but not the whole class
SSS	almost all the students
[*italics*]	translation of NL utterance
(( ))	((comments))
X	one or two unclear words
XXX	more than two unclear words or entire utterance
-	(hyphen attached to speech on left side) false start or self-correction
?	utterance-final rising intonation
.	utterance-final falling intonation
=	latching (no pause between two speakers)
//	overlapping (two speakers talking at the same time)
,	pause between phrases or clauses
THE	(capital letters) stressed word (e.g., T: It's CLOUDY.)
...	hesitation (e.g., uh...) or long pause

APPENDIX C

Definition of Utterance

"Stretch of uninterrupted talk by one speaker, which has grammatical and/or intonational limits; clausal, phrasal or even lexical unit bounded by some sort of intonational indication of its completeness" (definition by Ma, 2003).

1. The following utterances were excluded:
   1) Indistinct backchannels/discourse markers (e.g., 자[*ok*], "umm", "oh," "uh" "shushing" "ok")
   2) Names of a student/group (e.g., "Team A," "9 모듬"[*Group 9*])
   3) An utterance containing inaudible elements (T: igeo XXX [*this* XXX])
   4) Teachers' talking to themselves ("*Where is my picture?*")

2. Stretched sentences/words were coded as one utterance.
   (Example) T: It…s…too….ex…pe…n..si….ve.

3. Coding

A. **M(ixed):** When an utterance had a mixture of English and Korean.
   (Examples)
   - "zero였어요?" [*zero-yeosseyo?*]
   - "ham-beo-geo가 아니고 hamburger" [*not 'ham-beo-geo' 'hamburger'*]

B. **K(orean):** When a sentence was uttered in Korean (with one word or phrase in English).

   (Examples)
   - "누가 mom을 한번 해볼까?" [*Who wants to be the mom*?]
   - "오늘 group two가 아주 잘하고 있어요."
     [*Group Two is doing great today*]
   - "Hello밖에 몰라요? [*You only know 'hello'*?]

   Questions asking a definition of an English word were coded as Korean.
   (Examples)
   - "Thirsty는 뭐예요?" [*What's 'thirsty' in Korean*?]

C. **E(nglish):** When a sentence was uttered in English (with one word or phrase in Korean).

   (Example)
   - "교과서- open your book to fifty two."
     [***textbook***]

APPENDIX D

The Amount of TL Feedback From Each Teacher by Lesson

Teacher 1

	Recasts	Negotiation	Explicit	NL	Total (TL + NL)
5/27	16	0	0	0	16
6/10	7	0	0	0	7
6/11	8	0	0	0	8
Total	**31**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**31**
		31		**0**	**31**

Teacher 2

	Recasts	Negotiation	Explicit	NL	Total (TL + NL)
6/9	1	0	0	1	2
6/12	0	3	1	2	6
6/13	7	0	1	0	8
Total	**8**	**3**	**2**	**3**	**16**
		13		**3**	**16**

Teacher 3

	Recasts	Negotiation	Explicit	NL	Total (TL + NL)
5/23	0	0	0	1	1
5/28	1	0	0	1	2
5/30	2	0	0	0	2
Total	**3**	**0**	**0**	**2**	**5**
		3		**2**	**5**

Teacher 4

	Recasts	Negotiation	Explicit	NL	Total (TL + NL)
5/20	2	0	0	4	6
5/21	2	0	1	3	5
6/3	1	1	0	1	3
Total	**5**	**1**	**1**	**8**	**15**
		7		**8**	**15**

Teacher 5

	Recasts	Negotiation	Explicit	NL	Total (TL + NL)
5/30	0	1	0	1	2
5/4	0	0	0	2	2
6/7	0	0	0	0	0
Total	**0**	**1**	**0**	**3**	**4**
		1		**3**	**4**

APPENDIX E

Description of Feedback Occurred in T 2, T 3, T 4, T 5

Teacher 2

	Recasts	Negotiation	Explicit	NL	Total (TL + NL)
6/9	1	0	0	1	2
6/12	0	3	1	2	6
6/13	7	0	1	0	8
Total	**8**	**3**	**2**	**3**	**16**
		13		**3**	**16**

In T 2's classes, all types of feedback were found. Out of a total of 8 recasts episodes, 7 arose in one lesson when she asked students questions about the target vocabulary words (e.g., *T: Who needs this stuff? S: Teacher T: Yes, a teacher needs this*). One recast arose during listening comprehension activity where the teacher elicited knowledge of a dialogue content (e.g., *T: What food is Nami's mom making? S: Sandwich. T: Yes, she is making sandwiches, Right*). The linguistic targets of her recasts were grammar points (e.g., English articles and plural markers).

T 2 tended to use explicit feedback (including NL) on students' pronunciation errors. Indeed, all 3 instances of NL feedback and 1 of the 2 episodes of TL explicit feedback that occurred related to pronunciation errors. In the example below, a student was called on to respond to a picture that appeared on a TV screen using the pattern, "I'm __, I want some ___." The teacher points out the student's pronunciation error explicitly, using more than one kind of feedback within the same turn.

Example	SR comments
T: Look at the picture and answer.	→
S: XX	*I explicitly corrected the pronunciation error because it (i.e., 'th' sound) is one of the areas where many students have trouble.*
T: I'm what? – I'm? ((→ Clarification request: Negotiation))	
S: /sərsty/	
T: /sərsty/? Is there that kind of word? ((→TL Explicit))	
자, /sərsty/라는 단어가 영어에 있습니까? ((→ NL translation))	
[*Ok, is there such a word, 'sirsty', in English?*]	
Say properly. THirsty. THirsty. Repeat after me. THirsty.	
S: THirsty	
T: THirsty	
S: X	
T: OK, I'm thirsty. I want some orange juice. Good!	
CD: I'm thirsty. I want some orange juice.	

Teacher 3

	Recasts	Negotiation	Explicit	NL	Total (TL + NL)
5/23	0	0	0	1	1
5/28	1	0	0	1	2
5/30	2	0	0	0	2
Total	**3**	**0**	**0**	**2**	**5**
		3		**2**	**5**

Three recasts episodes were found in T 3's classes, all of which concerned pronunciation errors; 2 episodes occurred during the exchange of greetings at the beginning of class (e.g., *S: I'm /ta:-i-ə-deu/. T: I'm tired. Why?"*), and 1 occurred during a guessing game about food.

One of the distinctive features in T 3's reaction to individual students' utterances was that she often repeated after students (as mentioned in Footnote 19 in this paper). She commented that her main intention in repeating students' utterances was to get the class to pay attention. Therefore, unless there were obvious pronunciation errors, her repetitions were excluded from being counted as feedback episodes. An example of her recasts is given below.

Example	SR comments
T: J, how are you feeling today? S 1: I'm /ta:iədeu/. T: I'm tired. Why? S 2: I'm tiger! S 1: 11시, 쿨쿨, ok? [*eleven o'clock,* snoring sound] ((SSS laugh)) T: 어젯밤 11시에 늦게 자가지고... 유재? ((S3)) [*J went to bed at eleven last night.*] S3: /taiəd -- taiəd/ T: I'm tired? Why? S3: 어, 밖에서 못 놀아서 [*uh, because I couldn't play outside*] T: 밖에서 못 놀아서, 비가 와서 밖에서 못 놀면 피곤하구나. [*because you couldn't play outside. You get tired if you can't play outside because of raining*]	➔ *Here, I repeated to give a clearer pronunciation, but also to have other students listen.* **Q: I noticed you often repeat what the students said. Did you have any purpose in doing so?** ➔ *I do so mainly to gather the students' attention, and to let others know they can do it too* (i.e., encouraging participation). *Sometimes a student's voice is too low, so I repeat it.*

APPENDIX E (Cont'd)

Teacher 4

	Recasts	Negotiation	Explicit	NL	Total (TL + NL)
5/20	2	0	0	4	6
5/21	2	0	1	3	5
6/3	1	1	0	1	3
Total	**5**	**1**	**1**	**8**	**15**
		7		**8**	**15**

Indirect feedback (which counted as recasts) were used during the individual students' rote performance (e.g., *S: What time you do go to bed? T: What time DO you go to bed.*). NL feedback occurred frequently (e.g., *S: I come to home at eight o'clock. T: 'come home'이지* [it should be 'come home']). Only one episode of negotiation feedback (repetition type) was found; it occurred when a student **used the wrong vocabulary** (i.e., *S: I get up at three thirty. T: Huh? At three thirty?*).

The teacher commented that she does not try to correct explicitly all the time, unless the error occurs consistently. She says, "*Sometimes, there are students who I think do not really know the meaning of the sentences they are reciting. I just provide the correct form when a student couldn't remember. For example, if a student missed 'my' in 'I do homework,' then I say 'I do my homework at five o'clcok'.*"

Teacher 5

	Recasts	Negotiation	Explicit	NL	Total (TL + NL)
5/30	0	1	0	1	2
5/4	0	0	0	2	2
6/7	0	0	0	0	0
Total	**0**	**1**	**0**	**3**	**4**
		1		**3**	**4**

Only one instance of TL feedback was found in T 5's classes, in the form of repetition (*S: /diz/ T: /diz/?*). Two NL feedback arose in reaction to a student's lexical errors and one in response to pronunciation. An example of the two NL feedback is given below.

Example

S: I want to be a teeth teacher.
T: 뭘까? [*what's 'teeth teacher' in English*?]
S: teeth doctor, 이 선생님 [*teeth doctor*]
T: 이 선생님[*teeth doctor*],
자, 치과의사를 dentist라고 합니다. [*ok, 'dentist' is 'dentist' in English*]

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