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A Comparative Study of Different Types of Oral Error Correction Used by Native and Non-Native EFL Teachers Across Elementary and Advanced Levels

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Abstract

The current study aimed to explore native and non-native EFL teachers' use of different types of oral error correction across elementary and advanced-level classrooms. To this end, two female EFL teachers, namely, one native and one non-native from two language institutes in South Korea and Iran, were invited online to participate in the study based on availability/convenience sampling. Three successive sessions of their elementary and advanced level classrooms (each session lasting 90 minutes) were audio-recorded, totaling 18 hours of recording. The recorded data were coded deductively based on the techniques offered by Walz (1982) for offering error correction in terms of participatory structure. The results revealed that three types of oral error correction, namely, self-, peer, and teacher correction, were used. Among these, both native and non-native teachers employed teacher correction and self-correction the most across elementary and advanced levels, respectively. The results imply that teacher correction should be utilized to foster support and confidence in lower-level learners, while self-correction promotes autonomy and active engagement in higher-level learners.

Keywords: corrective feedback, error correction, native/non-native EFL teachers, peer correction, self-correction, teacher correction;

1. Introduction

These days, it is taken for granted that English is the most ubiquitous language all over the world, and it is applied to both academic and real-

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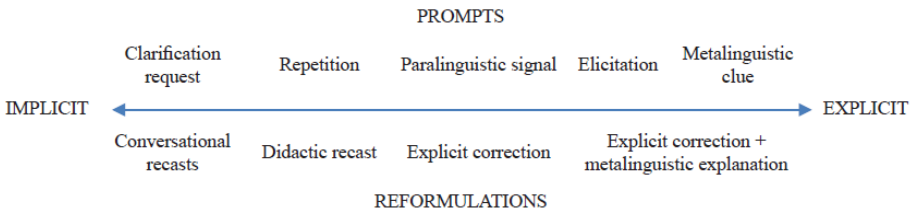
life settings. Furthermore, according to Kachru's (1992) World Englishes, English is not limited to only those countries in which English is spoken as the first language. Rather, it also includes inner-circle and expanding-circle countries in which English is somehow used as the second language or even a foreign language. Therefore, it is necessary for it to be learned by people across the world. However, it should be taken into account that learning this language is not that straightforward. Since, during this process, errors are expected to be made by learners at all stages of learning (Truscott, 1996). Both teachers and learners of English should know that error commitment is normal. Through learners' errors, further areas for working on learners' knowledge can be diagnosed (Chandler, 2003). Therefore, due to the importance of EFL learners' errors, providing corrective feedback (CF) to their errors has been of great interest to different researchers (e.g., Alkhammash & Gulnaz, 2019; Fakzali, 2018; Gholami, 2024; Tran & Nguyen, 2020). CF is defined by Ellis (2006) as teachers' responses to the erroneous forms that are uttered by learners. According to Wang (2023), CF refers to responding to errors made by learners in their production.

Although different definitions of CF revolve around the same concept, there have been contentious attitudes regarding its usefulness. Krashen (1982) claimed that CF is not helpful to language learners. Providing learners with comprehensible input is sufficient. Similarly, the proponents of nativism hold that CF is not helpful because it affects learners' performance, not their core competence (Schwartz, 1993). On the other hand, some scholars are in favor of CF. For instance, Gitsaki and Althobaiti (2010) believe that teachers make use of CF to help their learners master the target. Similarly, Hattie and Timperley (2007) believe that CF is one of the most powerful techniques that influences learners' achievement positively.

Along with controversies on the usefulness of CF, there have been different taxonomies concerning the ways of providing CF as well. Lyster and Ranta (1997) suggested six types of CF, namely, recast, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, explicit correction, and repetition. Ten years later, Ranta and Lyster (2007) categorized CF moves into reformulations and prompts. In the first case, teachers reformulate errors by themselves, and in the latter case, they make learners self-correct. Sheen and Ellis (2011) kept some moves from Lyster and Ranta's (1997) taxonomy and added a few more. They proposed implicit CF (conversational recast, repetition, and clarification request) and explicit CF (didactic recast, explicit correction only, explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, metalinguistic clue, elicitation, and

paralinguistic signal). Lyster et al. (2013) further developed the previous taxonomies by adding the different single moves on an explicit/implicit continuum with reference to prompts and reformulations as two dichotomous elements (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. *Classification of CF* (Lyster et al., 2013)



Although the above-mentioned taxonomies have revolutionized the English language teaching (ELT) community, especially in the domain of error correction, they do not clearly draw attention to the participatory structure of error correction. However, in addition to the above-mentioned taxonomies, there is another one by Walz (1982) in the literature that has classified CF based on the participants involved in error correction. In this kind of classification, three possibilities are expected to occur: self-correction, peer correction, and teacher correction. In self-correction, teachers encourage their learners to correct their errors by themselves (Tomkova, 2013). According to Méndez and Cruz (2012), self-correction is advantageous because it gets learners to be active and autonomous in their learning. However, Ellis (2009) believes that it may not be helpful because some learners are only willing to be corrected by their teacher. In peer correction, if a learner cannot self-correct, teachers encourage other peers to do the correction (Méndez & Cruz, 2012). It is advantageous in terms of diminishing the intensity of teacher authority status and creating a lively class environment (Rollinson, 2005). However, it is ineffective because due to the psychological and social nature of this kind of CF, peers cannot correct errors accurately (Sato, 2017). Finally, in teacher correction, the provider of CF is the teacher himself or herself (Méndez & Cruz, 2012). They have also stated that it is advantageous because teachers know exactly how they can solve a problem and explain it in a clear and simple way to help learners have a better understanding. However, Walz (1982) believes that if the correct form is simply given to learners, points will not be established in their long-term memory.

Based on the above-mentioned points, it can be realized that there are contentious attitudes regarding the participatory structure of error

correction. In order to reduce fuzziness concerning this problem, a plethora of empirical studies have investigated the participatory structure of error correction worldwide (Aghajani & Zoghipour, 2018; Ahangari, 2014; Ganji, 2009). However, most of them have examined the effectiveness of engaging different participants in error correction. To this date, no study has taken into account what types of oral error correction are used by EFL teachers in terms of participatory structure when it comes to interactions in language learning classes. Therefore, in order to consolidate the literature, this study aimed to investigate native and non-native EFL teachers' use of different types of oral error correction in relation to the participatory structure in EFL classes across elementary and advanced levels. The following research questions were formulated for the purpose of the study:

1. What types of oral error correction are used in native EFL teachers' elementary-level classes?
2. What types of oral error correction are used in native EFL teachers' advanced-level classes?
3. What types of oral error correction are used in non-native EFL teachers' elementary-level classes?
4. What types of oral error correction are used in non-native EFL teachers' advanced-level classes?
5. Are there any significant differences among the types of oral error correction used in native and non-native EFL teachers' classes across elementary and advanced levels?

2. Literature Review

This section is concerned with theoretical and related studies, which serve as a reference point for the current study.

2.1. Theories in Favor of Offering Corrective Feedback

The first theory, which is in favor of CF, is Pienmann's (1998) processability theory. It postulates that there is a linguistic processor in the human brain that has some constraints in its ability to perform certain processing routines. He believes that these constraints and limitations are concerned with the nature of grammatical features in a particular language. If these limitations on processing and the grammatical features are combined, the route followed by language acquisition can be predicted. Therefore, the concept of route suggests that learning some grammatical features becomes possible only if the previous features have been acquired on this acquisitional path. Pienemann (2007) claims that

form-focused instruction or CF cannot change the natural order. Some researchers (e.g., Bitchener & Ferris, 2012) are on the same page but further express that learners can move from one given stage to another with the help of CF. The second theory is Anderson's (1985) and Dekeyser's (2007) skill theory. The main premise is that in learning a new language, learners' progress from the declarative knowledge stage, which involves controlled processing, to the procedural knowledge stage, where there is automatic processing. This progression is done by practicing. It is believed that CF helps learners practice the target language and convert their declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge (Bitchener, 2012). Therefore, CF is considered a facilitator of knowledge transformation. Last but not least is sociocultural theory. It comes from Vygotsky's work (1978), in which CF was examined from a new perspective. It postulates that mental activities like language learning are mediated through taking part in social interaction, which is done between learners and superior peers (say, native speakers, teachers, etc.). Moreover, language development occurs within the learners' zone of proximal development (ZPD), the distance between the learners' current level of knowledge and the potential level that will be achieved with the help of their superior peers. Lantolf and Thorne (2006) believe that learners, with the help of their superior peers within ZPD (including scaffolding or CF), can use the target language autonomously. In summary, the sociocultural theory holds that CF is effective if it aligns with learners' ZPD. All in all, the aforementioned theories provide insightful frameworks for understanding the function of CF in learning English. Each theory highlights distinct facets of language learning, proposing novel directions for further investigation and practice involving CF.

2.2. Corrective Feedback and Learners' Proficiency Level

Lyster and Ranta (1997), based on their study in a French immersion program, arrived at the judgment that recasts were less effective in terms of getting learners to repair their errors successfully since the participants of their study were dealing with high-proficiency learners so they could correct their errors on their own. It was right after Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study that other scholars became interested in investigating CF as well. Havranek and Censik (2001), based on their study with 200 young EFL learners, found that prompts were useful in terms of leading to uptake. However, it was noted that it was the learners' proficiency level that led to their findings. They came to the conclusion that proficient users of the target language benefited more from CF than those who were not proficient. Then again, other scholars have made different conclusions and

judgments. Ammar and Spada (2006), in their study with sixth-grade ESL learners, concluded that both prompts and recasts can help learners use possessive determiners accurately, but only higher-level learners benefit from recasts. Both lower- and higher-level learners benefit from prompts. The above-mentioned studies suggest that although offering CF is highly effective, CF strategies should suit learners' different levels of proficiency to be beneficial. All things considered, the results of these studies not only show how complex CF effectiveness is in relation to proficiency but also set the stage for further research that aims to improve CF techniques in EFL and ESL contexts. Investigating these aspects can make a substantial contribution to the developing pedagogical frameworks required for effective language instruction.

2.3. Empirical Studies

Gitsaki and Althobaiti (2010) sought to investigate the effectiveness of different CF types in interactions, the CF types that lead to learners' uptake, and the error types, namely, lexical, grammatical, and phonological, in beginner and intermediate ESL classes. The results indicated that in both beginner and intermediate classes, explicit correction was the most commonly used CF type by ESL teachers. Furthermore, it was found that repetition and metalinguistic CF were always successful in terms of leading to repair. Finally, with respect to the foci of error correction, teachers preferred phonological errors the most. Zoghi and Nikoopour (2014) aimed to investigate the frequency of EFL learners' different types of errors, the most frequent errors, different CF types, and learners' uptake, followed by the offered CF type. They found that phonological and grammatical errors were made the most (43% and 30%, respectively). Concerning the CF types, explicit correction was the most commonly used one. Finally, it was found that elicitation, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, and repetition were four CF types that led to successful uptake. Shirkhani and Tajeddin (2016) conducted a study on the use of different CF types by Iranian EFL teachers and their target respecting learners' linguistic errors. The results indicated that explicit correction was the most frequent CF type offered by the teachers. As for the linguistic foci, it was also found that grammatical errors were the most frequently corrected. Tresta and Guanwan (2018), in their case study, aimed to investigate an EFL teacher's use of CF types, especially explicit correction, which has been one of the dominant CF types. They found that explicit CF was the most commonly used one by the teacher. Furthermore, it was found that the teacher's scaffolding technique was providing CF by motivating learners and concentrating on

their erroneous utterances. Alkhammash and Gulnaz (2019) sought to investigate EFL teachers' beliefs and actual practices of using CF types. The teachers believed that peer correction was the most commonly used CF type in their classes. However, it did not match their actual use of CF in their classes. That is, they used elicitation as the most common CF type. Fan (2019) conducted an observational study on the use of oral CF in a college ESL listening and speaking class. The results of the data analysis indicated that elicitation with questions was the most frequently used CF type in the class. Irfani (2023) aimed to investigate the match between EFL students' and teachers' beliefs, preferences, and practices of using oral CF. The results indicated that students and teachers preferred offline CF, while teachers offered online CF in practice. Teachers preferred correcting grammatical problems, yet students preferred to be corrected on vocabulary errors. However, when it came to practice, pronunciation errors received greater attention from professors. According to the ideas expressed by teachers and students, peer evaluation was thought to be more beneficial for language acquisition. However, students seemed to prefer teacher correction, and teachers' feedback practices clearly favored teacher over peer correction. Although negotiated feedback was preferred by both students and teachers, in actuality, teachers primarily used clarification requests. Pratiwi et al. (2023) examined an English teacher's use of oral CF in a senior high school in Indonesia when teaching speaking. The results of virtual and in-person observations and interviews with the teacher revealed that four types of CF were utilized by the teacher: elicitation, recast, explicit correction, and clarification request. Among these, explicit correction was the most commonly used CF (52%), whereas clarification request was the least commonly used (2%).

Critically speaking, based on reviewing the existing literature on CF in EFL classes, it becomes evident that while a range of studies have investigated various CF types, such as prompts and recasts, there remains a significant gap regarding the use of different types of oral error correction in terms of participatory structure. Therefore, the necessity for conducting the current study is clear. Such an investigation can fill the identified gap and contribute significantly to the field of ELT by offering illuminating insights into the dynamism of error correction.

3. Methodology

3.1. The Design of the Study

In order to investigate native and non-native EFL teachers' use of oral error correction types across elementary and advanced levels, the current study required a qualitative design. Specifically, a descriptive design

using observations was adopted to provide real-time insights into CF practices. The researchers were observers but did not take part in the classes, and the recording procedure was done by the participants themselves.

3.2. Participants

Two female EFL teachers (one American and one Iranian), aged 24 and 29, respectively, were chosen from two different language institutes in South Korea and Iran by convenience sampling. This type of non-probability sampling was selected because it is the most common one in second-language research and is used when researchers consider participants' availability or their required characteristics to be involved in the study (Dörnyei, 2007). In addition, it is worth mentioning that the native teacher was a certified TESOL teacher, teaching primarily young learners, and the non-native teacher held a BA in ELT from a reputable state university in Iran, teaching primarily diverse age groups, from children to adults. While the native teacher was monolingual, the non-native teacher spoke Azeri Turkish as her mother tongue, Persian as a second official language, and English as a foreign language. This linguistic background helped her connect with her students, particularly those who shared similar language profiles. As for their experience of teaching, the native teacher had been teaching English for almost 3 years, and the non-native teacher had been teaching English for 5 years. Table 1 indicates the tabular version of their biodata information:

Table 1. *Details of the Teachers Involved as the Research Participants*

Participants	Gender	Age	Nationality	Native Language	Educational level	Teaching Experience	Teaching level
T1	Female	24	American	English	TESOL certificate	3	Elementary and advanced
T2	Female	29	Iranian	Azeri Turkish	BA degree	5	Elementary and advanced

Note. T1 = Teacher 1, T2 = Teacher 2

3.3. Data Collection Tool

The researchers chose non-participant observation for this study, which entails observing the phenomenon being studied from a distance without taking part in any activities (Seliger & Long, 1993). This method was selected to preserve objectivity and let the teachers exhibit their natural teaching styles free from the interference of a participant observer. Due to the impossibility of physically attending the native teacher's classes, audio-recorded sessions were used to observe both participants'

classes. The primary area of focus for the observations was the interactions between the teachers and their students.

3.4. Procedure

To begin with, the researchers invited the participants on a reputable online platform to participate in the study based on their availability. It was made sure that the participants were in charge of teaching both elementary and advanced classes. Then, in order to ensure ethical issues in research, an informed consent form was sent to them via email to be filled out. The consent form included assuring information on the purpose of the study, confidentiality, anonymity, and other relevant information. However, they were informed only that the study focused on the nature of teacher-learner interaction in EFL classrooms without disclosing the main purpose. All in all, the inclusion criteria were rigorous: a minimum of two years of teaching experience, a TESOL certification or relevant academic degree, native English proficiency for the native teacher, professional proficiency in English for the non-native teacher, willingness to participate, and the ability to provide audio recordings of their classes. Upon obtaining consent from the teachers, they were instructed on the audio-recording process. The teachers recorded their classes over three consecutive sessions, each lasting 90 minutes, resulting in a total of 18 hours of recordings (9 hours for each teacher's elementary and advanced classes). After receiving the recorded files, the researchers went about transcribing the data. Transcription focused specifically on those interactions that entailed erroneous utterances and follow-up CF on the part of the teachers. Having finished transcribing the data, the teachers' oral error correction types in relation to participatory structure were identified and coded deductively based on different techniques offered by Walz (1982) for offering error correction in terms of participatory structure. In order to ensure inter-coder reliability, a Ph.D. student in ELT was asked to go through the coded data. A simple percentage agreement measure indicated a high level of inter-coder reliability at 98.22% agreement between the researchers and the coder. Finally, the data were prepared for further analysis.

3.5. Data Analysis

In order to answer the posed research questions, the categorized data were analyzed via descriptive statistical measures like frequencies and percentages. As regards inferential statistics, a three-way loglinear analysis was employed. The following provides examples from the real-gathered data:

Self-Correction

Teacher (T): What happened to your dad?
Learner (L): He die when I was five years old.
T: He…?
L: Died
T: Yes, that's right, and I'm so sorry.

Peer Correction

L1: I given a speech three years ago to hundreds of people.
T: Can you correct your friend's mistake? (Pointing to another learner).
L2: Hmmm, I given a speech to hundreds of people.
T: Someone else, please.
L3: I GAVE a speech (change in intonation).

Teacher Correction

L: My mother lived (/liːved/) in Indonesia for 2 years.
T: No, not /liːved/, say /lɪved/.
L: Oh, OK. Thanks.

4. Results and Discussion

RQ1: What types of oral error correction are used in native EFL teachers' elementary-level classes?

In order to answer this question, the frequency and percentage of using different types of error correction were recorded. Table 2 indicates the results in this regard:

Table 2. *Frequency and Percentage of Using Different Types of Oral Error Correction in the Native EFL Teacher's Elementary-Level Class*

Types of error correction	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Self-Correction	**7**	**10.6%**
Peer Correction	**2**	**3%**
Teacher Correction	**57**	**86.4%**
Total	**66**	**100%**

According to Table 2, the total frequency of 66 moves was identified in the native teacher's elementary class. Among these, 86.4% of CF techniques were teacher correction, followed by 10.6% of self-correction and 3% of peer correction.

RQ2: What types of oral error correction are used in native EFL teachers' advanced-level classes?

In order to answer this question, the frequency and percentage of using different types of oral error correction were recorded. Table 3 shows the results in this regard:

Table 3. *Frequency and Percentage of Using Different Types of Oral Error Correction in the Native EFL Teacher's Advanced-Level Class*

Types of error correction	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Self-Correction	**33**	**63.5%**
Peer Correction	**5**	**9.6%**
Teacher Correction	**14**	**26.9%**
Total	**52**	**100%**

According to Table 3, the total frequency of 52 moves was identified in the native teacher's advanced class. Among these, 63.5% of CF techniques were self-correction, followed by 26.9% of teacher correction and 9.6% of peer correction.

RQ3: What types of oral error correction are used in non-native EFL teachers' elementary-level classes?

In order to answer this question, the frequency and percentage of using different types of error correction were recorded. Table 4 presents the results in this regard:

Table 4. *Frequency and Percentage of Using Different Types of Oral Error Correction in the Non-Native EFL Teacher's Elementary-Level Class*

Types of error correction	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Self-Correction	**10**	**16.9%**
Peer Correction	**1**	**1.7%**
Teacher Correction	**48**	**81.4%**
Total	**59**	**100%**

According to Table 4, the total frequency of 59 moves was identified in the non-native teacher's elementary class. Among these, 81.4% of CF techniques were teacher correction, followed by 16.9% of self-correction and 1.7% of peer correction.

RQ4: What types of oral error correction are used in non-native EFL teachers' advanced-level classes?

In order to answer this question, the frequency and percentage of using different types of error correction were recorded. Table 5 indicates the results in this regard:

Table 5. *Frequency and Percentage of Using Different Types of Oral Error Correction in the Non-Native EFL Teacher's Advanced-Level Class*

Types of error correction	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Self-Correction	**34**	**68%**
Peer Correction	**0**	**0%**
Teacher Correction	**16**	**32%**
Total	**50**	**100%**

According to Table 5, the total frequency of 50 moves was identified in the non-native teacher's advanced class. Among these, 68% of CF techniques were self-correction, followed by 32% of teacher correction and 0% of peer correction.

RQ5: Are there any significant differences among the types of oral error correction used in native and non-native EFL teachers' classes across elementary and advanced levels?

To answer this question, let us first review the descriptive statistics for this study (Table 6).

Table 6. *Descriptive Statistics for Correction Types Across Proficiency Levels for Native and Non-Native Teachers*

Teacher	**Students' Proficiency Level**	**Correction Type**	**Frequency**
Native	Elementary	Self-Correction	7
		Peer Correction	2
		Teacher Correction	57
	Advanced	Self-Correction	33
		Peer Correction	5
		Teacher Correction	14
Non-Native	Elementary	Self-Correction	10
		Peer Correction	1
		Teacher Correction	48
	Advanced	Self-Correction	34
		Peer Correction	0
		Teacher Correction	16

A three-way (2 × 2 × 3) loglinear analysis was run to seek the existence of any significant differences among the types of oral error correction used in native and non-native EFL teachers' classes across elementary and advanced levels. Tables 7 and 8 present the results of this analysis.

Table 7. *Goodness-of-Fit Tests*

	Chi-Square	**df**	**Sig.**
Likelihood Ratio	8.724	6	.190
Pearson	6.782	6	.341

The three-way loglinear analysis produced a final model that did not retain all effects. The likelihood ratio of this model was χ^2 (6) = 8.724, p = .190. This indicated that the highest-order interaction (teacher non-/nativeness × student's proficiency level × error correction type) was not significant, χ^2 (2) = 3.108, p = .211. So, there is no need to break down this effect by employing separate chi-square tests on the proficiency and correction type variables for native and non-native teachers. In simple terms, there are no significant differences among the types of oral error correction (self-, peer, and teacher correction) employed by native and non-native EFL teachers across elementary and advanced levels.

Table 8. *K-Way and Higher-Order Effects*

	K	df	Likelihood Ratio		Pearson		Number of Iterations
			Chi-Square	Sig.	Chi-Square	Sig.	
K-way and Higher Order Effects[a]	1	11	223.103	.000	218.586	.000	0
	2	7	82.497	.000	78.051	.000	2
	3	2	3.108	.211	2.804	.246	3
K-way Effects[b]	1	4	140.606	.000	140.535	.000	0
	2	5	79.389	.000	75.247	.000	0
	3	2	3.108	.211	2.804	.246	0

a. Tests that k-way and higher order effects are zero.

b. Tests that k-way effects are zero.

All in all, based on the tables, it can be realized that teacher correction was the most commonly used CF technique by both native and non-native EFL teachers at the elementary levels, while at the advanced levels, self-correction was the most commonly used one.

As for the use of teacher correction as the most common CF technique in elementary classes, the results are in line with Gitsaki and Althobaiti (2010), Zoghi and Nikoopour (2014), Shirkhani and Tajeddin (2016), Tresta and Guanwan (2018), who found that explicit correction, in which teachers themselves are involved in providing the correct form, was the most commonly used CF technique. It can be discussed that within the context of language education, it is noteworthy that teacher correction is the most commonly used error correction technique among elementary-level EFL teachers, both native and non-native. This observation

highlights how teacher correction is a preferred CF type in language learning environments due to its perceived effectiveness and widespread adoption, especially at the foundational stages of proficiency development. Teachers with different linguistic backgrounds who consistently use teacher correction point to a common pedagogical focus on giving learners direct guidance and support in correcting linguistic errors. This result may be interpreted as supporting the pedagogical idea that errors should be corrected immediately by providing clear feedback in order to improve students' language accuracy and proficiency in elementary EFL classes. Moreover, the prevalence of teacher correction as the principal CF type utilized by EFL teachers, both native and non-native, highlights the possibility of a convergence in teaching approaches among various teacher cohorts. This convergence may point to a common understanding and prioritization of the importance of direct corrective intervention in scaffolding learners' language learning processes in the early phases of language learning. Accordingly**,** there are some possible speculations regarding why teacher correction was used the most by native and non-native teachers in elementary classes. It could be due to the fact that elementary learners, because of their ability level, consider their teacher as the main source for transmitting knowledge. This is supported by Ellis (2009), who stated that some learners only tend to be corrected by their teacher. Another possible speculation is that since elementary learners are not usually able to spot and correct their errors on their own, EFL teachers tend to take on the responsibility of error correction by themselves. This is supported by Kennedy (2010), who claimed that learners with lower levels of proficiency were not able to correct their errors on their own. Another possible speculation for using teacher correction in elementary classes is that teachers know that their learners are not competent enough to self-correct, and if they do not take care of errors by themselves, they will be considered irresponsible in the eyes of different stakeholders. This is supported by Bartman and Walton (1991), who stated that if teachers do not correct their learners' errors, they will have a pang of conscience, and different stakeholders will be unsatisfied with them.

Furthermore, concerning the use of self-correction as the most common CF technique in advanced classes, the results are in line with Alkhammash and Gulnaz (2019) and Fan (2019), who found that elicitation, in which the learner who made the error is involved in self-correcting, was the most commonly used technique. It can be discussed that at advanced levels of EFL teaching, the use of self-correction as the main CF technique indicates a shift towards learner autonomy and metacognition. In order to improve advanced proficiency, this trend highlights the value of giving learners the freedom to take charge of their language learning process and to engage in self-monitoring and reflective practices. Regardless of the teachers' native backgrounds, there is a general preference for self-correction, which indicates that active learner engagement and metacognitive strategies are valuable pedagogical approaches for language mastery. This finding points to a paradigm for teaching that promotes proactive student involvement in error identification and correction, leading to a greater understanding of language structure. All in all, this observation highlights the potential benefits of nurturing learners' independent error correction skills and metacognitive competencies in advanced EFL classes. Accordingly, there are some possible speculations regarding why self-correction was used the most by native and non-native teachers in the advanced classes. One possible speculation is that advanced learners are competent enough to do the correction on their own. This is supported by Kennedy (2010), who found that advanced learners were provided with more self-correction techniques since they were knowledgeable enough to self-correct. Another possible speculation is that EFL teachers want their advanced learners to produce successful uptake. This lends support to Havranek and Censik (2001), who believed that prompts were more likely to lead to successful uptake. Another possible speculation is that EFL teachers believe that if they simply provide the correct form by themselves, the points will not be internalized in their long-term memory. This lends support to Walz (1982), who believed that providing the correct form by teachers does not establish a pattern for long-term memory. Finally, EFL teachers offer self-correction techniques because they want their learners to be self-regulated in the process of learning. This is supported by Méndez and Cruz (2012), who state that self-correction is effective because it makes learners autonomous and shoulder the responsibility of their own learning.

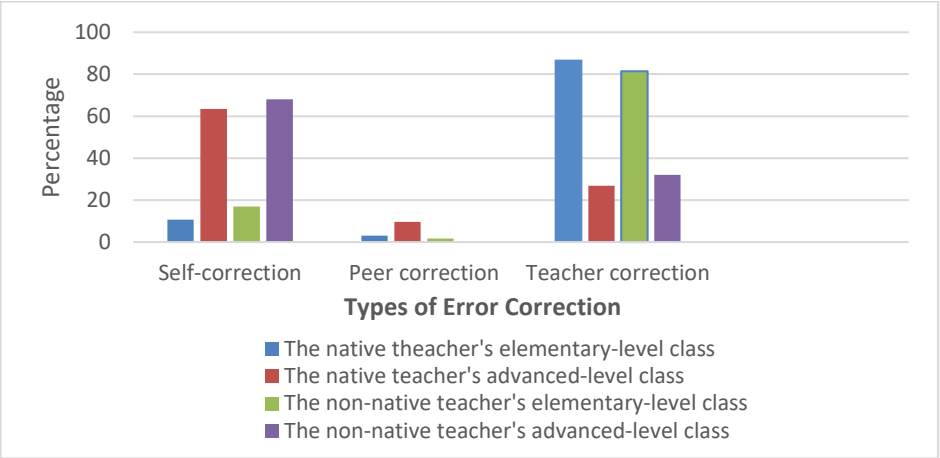
Before wrapping up this discussion, it is worth comparing different types of oral error correction in relation to participatory structure by native and non-native teachers in their elementary and advanced classes. As

Figure 2 shows, although the participants used teacher correction as the most commonly used CF technique at the elementary levels, self-correction as the most commonly used one at the advanced levels, and peer correction as the least commonly used one at both elementary and advanced levels, there were differences in their percentage of occurrence. At the elementary level, teacher correction constituted 86.4% of the CF techniques in the native teacher's class, while it constituted 81.4% of the CF techniques in the non-native teacher's class. Peer correction constituted 3% of the CF techniques in the native teacher's class, while it constituted 1.7% of the CF techniques in the non-native teacher's class. Self-correction constituted 10.6% of the CF techniques in the native teacher's class, while it constituted 16.9% of the CF techniques in the non-native teacher's class.

Finally, as for the advanced levels, teacher correction constituted 26.9% of the CF techniques in the native teacher's class, while it constituted 32% of the CF techniques in the non-native teacher's class. Peer correction constituted 9.6% of the CF techniques in the native teacher's class, while it constituted 0% of the CF techniques in the non-native teacher's class. Self-correction comprised 63.5% of the CF techniques in the native teacher's class, while it constituted 68% of the CF techniques in the non-native teacher's class. It can be interpreted that these variations could result from instructors' perceptions of students' requirements and the learning environment; this would be consistent with academic viewpoints regarding the influence of situational factors on error correction procedures. These observations highlight the complex interactions that occur when teaching experiences, learner requirements, and the choice of CF strategies are combined in EFL teaching. Accordingly, there are some possible speculations for this variation. One possible speculation is that EFL teachers consider the conduciveness of the situation and the environment when deciding whom to involve in error correction. This is supported by Lier (1988, cited in Rydahl, 2006), who stated that a teacher's use of error correction techniques is influenced by the situation and the atmosphere of the class. It could also be due to the fact that EFL teachers may have different experiences regarding what CF techniques best meet the needs of their learners when an error is committed. This is supported by Kim (2015), who observed that when

EFL teachers want to offer a particular CF technique, their decisions are influenced by their learners' peculiar needs.

Figure 2. *The Percentage of the Use of Different Types of Oral Error Correction by Both Native and Non-Native Teachers Across Elementary and Advanced Levels*



5. Conclusion

The current study made a contribution to the literature by investigating the problem from a new point of view. That is, it was aimed at investigating native and non-native EFL teachers' use of different types of oral error correction in terms of participatory structure across elementary and advanced levels. The findings indicated that both native and non-native teachers used teacher correction and self-correction the most at elementary and advanced levels, respectively.

Although this study investigated the problem from a new point of view and came up with illuminating findings, it has some limitations, just as with other empirical studies. First, due to the infeasibility of involving more native EFL teachers as the participants of the study, the study proceeded with only two participants, namely, one native and one non-native EFL teacher. Or else, the findings would have been more dependable. Second, in this qualitative observational study, generalizing the findings from two participants to a wider population is questionable. Third, the findings were not triangulated. Finally, the individual differences among the participants were not taken into account, although they may have affected the results.

As such, there are some suggestions for further research in this regard. In addition to investigating different types of oral error correction in terms

of participatory structure, prospective researchers can also investigate the foci of error correction to discover what participants are involved in correcting what types of errors. Moreover, prospective researchers can replicate this study with more native and non-native EFL teachers to come up with richer data. Furthermore, the same problem can be investigated using methodological triangulation (say, observations and follow-up interviews) to increase the dependability of the findings. Finally, further studies can look at the participatory structure of oral error correction across all levels of proficiency (elementary, intermediate, and advanced).

Finally, it is worth mentioning that just because of the few limitations, the informative implications of the findings should not be overlooked. This being said, two implications can be drawn from the findings of the study for EFL teachers. First, it was found that teacher correction was the most commonly used CF technique in the elementary-level classes taught by both native and non-native teachers. These findings recommend that EFL teachers should opt for teacher correction in their elementary classes because such learners do not have enough competence to self-correct on their own. However, it is believed that effective provision of CF occurs when various techniques are taken into account to best meet the needs of learners. Therefore, it is recommended that in elementary classes, EFL teachers can get learners to self-correct, and if they are not able to do that, then they can intervene and provide the correct form by themselves. Indeed, this leads to the creation of a sense of support, confidence, and support on the part of lower-level learners. Second, it was found that self-correction was the most commonly used CF technique in the advanced-level classes taught by both native and non-native teachers. The findings imply that since advanced learners are competent enough to self-correct, EFL teachers should use this technique in their advanced classes to help their learners produce successful uptake and become self-regulated in the process of learning. Furthermore, this technique is recommended to be used in advanced classes because it creates an active and lively classroom environment. By and large, these findings underscore the need for EFL teachers to adapt their correction methods according to the proficiency levels of their students. By strategically integrating these techniques, educators can create a more effective and responsive learning experience, enabling learners to thrive in their English language proficiency journey.

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