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A STUDY ON THE ORAL CORRECTION OF SYNTACTICAL AND MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS IN HIGH SCHOOL EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this work is to find out how teachers at some schools, use oral feedback when they correct students' errors. We also want to ascertain what kind of oral feedback and techniques teachers use with their students' incorrect utterances. Finally, the last objective of this study is to determine how many types of oral feedback are given every class by teachers.

The results of our investigation show that teachers combine different oral feedback on different occasions depending on their work experience. Most teachers prefer to give multiple feedbacks in the same turn in a specific situation. They can either be direct or indirect, to a single student or later on to the whole class.

INTRODUCTION

Currently, learning English as a foreign/second language (L2) is more than learning for knowledge or simple pleasure. It is indeed, a necessity; due to the fact English language has become the lingua franca. It is the main language for trade, business and communication since it is spoken in many places around the world. As a consequence, we can say that English is spoken as the official language at least in four continents as different as America (United States, Canada), Oceania (New Zealand, Australia), Europe (The United Kingdom), and South Africa: Therefore, English is taught around the world, more than any other language.

Learning a second language is not a new issue. During the Middle Ages, Latin was the lingua franca in Europe. Before the 13th century, no languages other than Latin and Greek were formally taught. Latin was an essential vocational subject for any youth aspiring to further education or to work in the public service – it was the key to the world of business, trade, and work. This phenomenon is not just part of the past because nowadays English is incredibly important, in the same way that Latin was relevant for many ancient societies. English has now the same status.

Due to the importance English has had in the last years and the relevance of it in Chilean education nowadays, we wanted to propose a topic that was relatively new and also that contributed to Chilean education, specifically for English taught in high schools. After analysing different subjects of studies, we reached the conclusion that Corrective Feedback in high school EFL learners would be an interesting topic to carry out as our investigation since it is something that has not been investigated in depth in Chilean education and also due to the importance of

providing students with feedback in their oral performance. If students are corrected effectively in their oral performance they will improve the development of their second language.

It is important to mention that the Ministerio de Educación (Mineduc, 2011) has emphasised the idea of developing communicative skills in English as a foreign language. Therefore, oral performance has taken a great role, bringing as a result that teachers must create a proper environment in which students can have the possibility to communicate and also where they can be offered (Selinker, L., & Douglas, D. (1985):

"feedback about their weaknesses and strengths. Sharing this information with students guides them to the next steps that they must follow to go ahead. Furthermore, it gives the chance to develop metacognitive and reflexive process destined to favor their own learning, and also, this facilitates teacher involvement and commitment to students" (2011:16).

Even though our research is focused on "Corrective feedback", we cannot exclude the close relationship between learning and teaching, consequently we need to know who the learners are, where they come from, what their native language is, their background, socioeconomic status, for example. Our study will be focused on a sample of several Chilean high school teachers and the way that

they correct their students' oral errors. We understand that making mistakes and errors is an important part of the learning process since they reflect in what stage their interlanguage is. On the other hand, for the purpose of this study we will not make a distinction between error and mistake.

It is important to improve teachers' knowledge of their own actions, so that they can be aware of the corrective feedback techniques they can use. The present study, therefore, aims at contributing to this topic, but it also tries to look at the student's side – how corrective feedback enhances or hinders the learning process, and furthermore, if it is even beneficial to correct errors in the first place.

In chapter one, the reader will find the theoretical framework and review of the previous studies linked to our research, which provides the underlying theories that are the basis of our work.

In chapter two, the reader will find the research methodology which includes the situational framework, the approach used, the participants of the study, the analysis of graphics and the results obtained from our investigation.

In chapter three the reader will find the conclusions obtained from the results of our investigation and suggestions for future research. Finally in our investigation there are four appendixes A, B, C and D:

(a) Appendix A includes the personal information questionnaire about the teachers and their academic formation.

(b) Appendix B includes the class observation sheet and the elements that were evaluated and the information about the teacher, classroom and students.

(c) Appendix C includes the transcription of the class.

(d) Appendix D includes a list of transcript convention used in the description of turn-takings and examples. That will help the reader to understand the transcription of the class.

The importance of this study is that few investigations on corrective feedback have been conducted in Chile. We hope the results obtained here can make a contribution to the understanding of how corrective feedback is used not only in the sample of subjects participating in this research, but also to other students.

Chapter I:

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1.0 TEACHING

In this chapter we discuss Teaching English as a Foreign Language, hereafter TEFL. Learning and teaching a second or foreign language is not a new issue, since the time of the Roman Empire languages have been taught and learned for many different purposes. Brown (2007) points out that when we talk about teaching or learning English, it is relevant to consider the differences between ESL (English as a Second language), and EFL (English as a Foreign Language). Firstly, the term EFL is essentially a UK definition for people who learn English in non English speaking country, for example: Here in Chile we are students of EFL, since our native language is Spanish. On the other hand, the acronym ESL is an American expression for people who study English in a country where the official spoken language is English, for example U.S.A., U.K., etc. These distinctions do not seem to be well observed, and many British teachers use EFL as a global term whereas many American Teachers use ESL as well. However, this little distinction makes a huge difference when you teach English; different strategies will be applied if you are or not in a non English speaking country because the needs of your student will be diverse and as a teacher you have to be ready to do different lesson plans. A learner of ESL may have more immediate English needs, because he is living in an English-speaking country, so if he wants to say something this should be done in English. The student may not need to worry about grammar right away, but may need to learn basic survival skills as quickly as possible. On the other hand, the learner of EFL may not be as concerned about learning English really fast, because he is probably living in a

country where he speaks the native language of the country and is able to take care of the necessities of his daily life (Brown 2002). In addition learners of ESL and EFL differ in the quality and amount of input they are exposed to.

Teaching English as a foreign language is a very difficult task, because several factors are involved in this process, such as the age of the students, their motivation, native language, previous knowledge, personal abilities, preferences and so on. For those reasons and due to the importance of English language nowadays, many new trends in techniques and approaches of pedagogy have been proposed, in order to make the teacher's job easier and to help students learn faster without problems, because one of the most relevant roles of a teacher should be to work as a facilitator of the learning process.

1.1.1 METHOD, APPROACH AND TECHNIQUE

According to the statement that teaching a new language is a difficult task, different scholars have investigated on different fields of teaching and learning. In this perspective, Brown (2000) established a definition for "*method*", the practical realization of an approach. The originators of a method have arrived at decisions about types of activities, roles of teachers and learners, the kinds of material that will be useful and models of syllabus organization, technique, approach and procedure. We can mention, for example, the Grammar Translation Method, where the principal idea was just to work with writing abilities. On the other hand, we have "*Approach*", which describes how a particular language is used and how its

constituent parts connect each other. It points out how people attain their knowledge of the language and make statements about the conditions that will promote successful language learning. At this point, we can mention the Lexical Approach, whose aim is to promote the three different language abilities such as speaking, writing, and reading. Subsequently, *"The procedure"* is explained as an ordered sequence of techniques. A procedure is a sequence which can be described in terms like, first you do this, after that, you do that. Finally, "Technique", explained as the manner, the procedure carried out.

Through time, many different methods, approaches and techniques have been provided, some of them with more success than others. The most significant ones are explained below, as well as the role of correction.

1.1.2 THE GRAMMAR-TRANSLATION METHOD

Based on Brown's research (2000) this approach has been historically applied in teaching Greek and Latin and then, globalized to teaching modern languages. Earlier in this century, this method was used for the purpose of helping students read and appreciate foreign language literature. It was also hoped that, through the study of the grammar of the target language, students would become more familiar with the grammar of their native language, and that this familiarity would help them speak and write their native language better.

According to Larsen-Freeman (2008: 17-19), the classes are taught in the students' mother tongue, with a little use of their target language. Also, long lists of vocabulary items are learned in isolation, grammar is taught with deep explanations, smallest possible attention is paid to in the context of the books, little or no attention is paid to pronunciation and there is much less attention given to speaking and listening. Also, students study grammar deductively; that is, they are given the grammar rules and examples, are told to memorize them, and then are asked to apply the rules to other examples.

In relation to corrective feedback, when a student makes an error, the teacher should supply the correct answer (recast) and there may be a few instances when elicitation may occur.

1.1.3 THE DIRECT METHOD

The Direct Method receives its name from the fact that meaning is to be conveyed *directly* in the target language through the use of demonstration and visual aids, with no recourse to the students' native language (Diller, 1978). In this method, the initiation of the interaction goes both ways, from teacher to students and from students to teacher. Students converse with one another as well. The lessons start with a dialogue using a modern conversational style in the target language. Grammar is taught inductively; that is, the students are presented with examples and they figure out the rule or generalization from the examples. An

explicit grammar rule may never be given. Students practice vocabulary by using new words in complete sentences. Material is primary presented orally with actions or images and the mother tongue is not used. Vocabulary is emphasized over grammar. Although work on all four skills occurs from the start, oral communication is seen as basic. Thus, the reading and writing exercises are based upon what the students practice orally first. Pronunciation also receives attention right from the beginning of a course. One of the biggest differences is the no translation system and the use of the target language during the lessons. The most common exercise is a series of questions and answers in the target language based on a dialogue or an anecdotal narrative. Questions are answered in the target language.

In this method the teacher employs different correction techniques and tries to get students to self correct whenever possible Brown (2000), for example: the teacher has the student self-correct by asking them to make a choice between what they said an alternative answer he/she supplied. There are, however, other ways, of getting students to self-correct, such as: reading aloud, questions and answer exercises, getting students to self-correct, conversation practice, fill-in-the-blank exercises, dictation, map drawing, paragraph writing.

1.1.4 THE AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD

The Audio-Lingual Method is based on the principles of psychology, closely connected to behavior trends; it took many of the principles and procedures of the Direct Method, in some way as a reaction to the lack of speaking skills. In this

method it is thought that the way to acquire the sentence patterns of the target language is through conditioning helping learners to respond correctly to stimuli through shaping and reinforcement. Original material, new vocabulary and structural patterns are presented through dialogues which are learned through imitation and repetition.

It was based on the principle that language learning is habit formation; the method consists of reinforcement on mimicry, memorization of set phrases and over-learning. The grammar structures are taught gradually and using repetitive drills without grammatical explanations. There is student to student interaction in chain drills or when students take different roles in dialogues, but most interactions is teacher directed. The Audio-lingual Method was not completely successful, because the mistakes of the learner are a simple imitation.

Student errors are to be avoided if at all possible through the teacher's awareness of where the students will have complexity and limit of what they are taught to say (Larsen-Freeman 2008). Based on the behaviorist viewpoint teacher are supposed to avoid mistakes since they have to avoid "bad habits".

1.1.5 THE SILENT WAY

The Silent Way Method starts by using a set of colored rods and verbal commands in order to achieve the creation of simple linguistic situations that stay under the complete control of the teacher to pass on to the learners the responsibility of the learning process.

The teacher sets up situations that focus student attention on the structures of the language and, the situations provide a vehicle for students to perceive meaning. The teacher uses the students' errors as evidence of where the language is unclear to students and, hence, where to work.

Student errors are seen as natural, indispensable part of the learning process. The teacher uses students' error as a basis for deciding where further work is necessary.

In this method, if the students are unable to self-correct and peers cannot help, then the teacher would supply the correct language, but only as an ultimate resource (Larsen-Freeman 2008).

1.1.6 TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE

James J. Asher (1982) defines the Total Physical Response (TPR) method as one that combines information and skills through the use of the kinesthetic sensory system. One of the bases of his research, Asher reasoned that the fastest, least stressful way to achieve understanding of any target language is to follow directions uttered by the instructor without native language translation. As a consequence, this success leads to a high degree of motivation. The basic tenets consist of understanding the spoken language before, to develop the skills of speaking.

One of the main reasons TPR was developed was to reduce the stress people feel when studying foreign languages. One of the primary ways this is accomplished is to allow learners to speak when they are ready, forcing them to speak before then, will only create anxiety and fear.

In this method are expected that students to make errors when they first begin speaking. James J. Asher (1982) postulates that teachers should be tolerant of them and only corrects major errors. Even these should be corrected and unobtrusively. When students are more advanced, teachers can correct more minor errors.

1.1.7 COMMUNICATIVE APPROCAH

Larsen-Freeman (2008) postulates that Communicative Language Teaching aims broadly to apply the theoretical perspective of the Communicative Approach by making communicative competence the goal of language teaching and by acknowledging the interdependence of language and communication. What this looks like in the classroom may depend on how the tenets are interpreted and applied. The teacher facilitates communication in the classroom. In this role, one of his/her major responsibilities is to establish situations likely to promote communication. The teacher acts as an adviser, answering students' questions and monitoring their performance. Teacher might make note of their errors to be worked on at a later time during more accuracy-based activities. One of the basic assumptions of CLT is that by learning to communicate students will be more

motivated to study a foreign language since they will feel they are learning to do something useful with the language. Moreover, teachers give students an opportunity to express their individuality by having them share their ideas and opinions on a regular basis. Student, security is enhanced by the many opportunities for cooperative interactions with their fellow students and the teacher. Judicious use of the students' native language is permitted in CLT however; whenever possible the target language should be used not only during communicative activities, but also for explaining the activities to the students or in assigning homework. The students learn from these classroom management exchanges, too, and realize that the target language is a vehicle for communication, not just and object of study.

Errors of form are tolerated during fluency-based activities and are seen as a natural outcome of the development of communication skills. Students can have limited linguistic knowledge and still be successful communicators. The teacher may note the errors during fluency activities and return to them later with an accuracy-based activity.

1.1.8 METHOD VERSUS PEDAGOGY

In this section, the concept of method of teaching is re-examined as a manner to offer a complementary view on how teaching is understood nowadays. Even though in the twentieth century, attention was paid to the search of the perfect or the most significant method of language teaching. By the twenty-first century this tendency has moved away from the elaboration of ideal methods or

master keys toward a more complex view of language teaching, as a way to support the proposal that two of the main components in language learning and teaching are the students on the one hand and teachers on the other. Brown (2007) traces this movement from a concern on "methods" to a focus on "pedagogy".

Nevertheless, the long history in language teaching, has witnessed. By the rise and fall of a diversity of methods throughout the new history of language teaching.

Richard & Renandya (2002), explain a number of reasons for the decline of what he called "methods syndrome". As they and others have written, the idea of an all purpose designed method, that will work anyplace and for everyone has a lot of problems, for example, methods are usually top-down imposition of experts' views of teaching; the role of the individual teacher is reduced; his or her function is to apply the method and adjust his or her teaching style to make it conform to the method.

The idea of pedagogy comes to substitute the "terminology method", not because it is in opposition to it but because pedagogy compiles a set of logical steps as a manner to find out accurately the needs of a special group of students. The first step is "*diagnosis",* this relevant instrument helps teachers to know the level of the students, and with that information they can decide the most appropriate material and strategy to teach them. The second step is "*treatment"*, by knowing the learner's weak points, the prominence is put right there. The last step

is *"assessment"*, this phase provides the results of the whole process giving specific information about the advances of the students.

Based on these tenets, we have decided to focus our research on the teaching practice, rather than on one specific method or technique, and more particularly on the field of teaching speaking, because the topic of our research deals with oral communication.

1.1.9 TEACHING SPEAKING ABILITIES

A great number of language students around the world learn English in order to develop speaking abilities. However, developing these abilities is a complex task. Communication is more than talking, because there exist a lot of ways to communicate or to say something: mimicry, signs, codes, gesturing among others.

The diverse functions of the language involve a certain level of language knowledge, and depending on the difficulty or the context of the message, the level of language proficiency could be high or low.

Speaking a language is complex because to get an effective oral communication involves the ability to use the language appropriately in social interactions.

As a conclusion, speaking is one of the essential elements of communication and one of the most complex abilities to develop. At this stage is where feedback takes place in order to help proper instruction. Teachers of EFL

have to be able to use as many strategies and procedures as the number of students they have with the purpose to helping them develop fluent oral communication.

1.1.10 TTT and STT

The acronym TTT stands for Teacher Talking Time and it refers to the time in which teachers talk during their lessons. The TTT has been seen, through time as unhelpful and it should be restricted as much as possible, since a large TTT necessarily limits the STT or Student Talking Time (Brown, 2001).

When Teaching Talking Time is utilized cleverly it can also be a helpful tool for learning. For example, if TTT is used to create elicitation instead of explanation, it leads students to make their own discoveries about the language. If a new word appears during the period of the lesson, it may be quicker for the teacher to explain it than if the students look for it in their dictionaries. Students, particularly beginners, need more explanation of everything because they do not know how to speak the language, so it is impossible to ask them to talk; it should be done gradually and step by step, and in this sense, if students are learning English in a non English speaking country, the teacher probably will be their best source of input, this is what Stephen Krashen (1988) denominated "roughly tuned input". The proposal behind "roughly tuned input" is that language is obtained by exposure to discourse which is comprehensible to the learners but one step above their current productive competence. In this sense it has elements which can be understood from the context but which the learner cannot yet generate accurately.

1.2 ACQUISITION AND LEARNING

In this part of our thesis we shall confine our attention to the notions of acquisition and learning in terms of developing a foreign/second language. However, at first it is important to provide the reader with certain theory of first language acquisition for the purpose of introducing better acquisition and learning in second language.

Pinker (1994) says that First Language Acquisition:

"... is not a cultural artifact that we learn the way we learn to tell the time.... instead, it is a distinct piece of biological makeup of our brains. Language is a complex, specialized skill, which develops in the child spontaneously, without conscious effort or formal instruction, is deployed regardless awareness of its underlying logic, is qualitatively the same in every individual, and is distinct from more general abilities to process information or behave intelligently".

From this definition, it can be inferred that First Language Acquisition is not an easy process and it involves mental processes which are determined in our brain, and we acquire language as a natural development. Harmer (2008) agrees with this definition: furthermore, he adds that "three features need to be present in

order for children to acquire a language: exposure to it, motivation to communicate with it and opportunities to use it" (2007:47).

Unlike first language acquisition, when we are in the process of developing a second language, we have two totally different ways to do it: acquisition and learning. There are many theories related to these topics; however, in this study we are just going to focus on those posited by Krashen and Chomsky.

Krashen (1988, 2003) made a distinction between acquisition and learning. The former is spontaneous if natural conditions are present in the process, that is to say, non formal instruction, natural interaction with the caretaker, and so on. On the other hand, learning is a conscious process in which students have to pay attention to the form of language, not only to the message conveyed. "The learning is the conscience or maybe forced association of the grammar rules" (Krashen, 1988:41). The main difference between acquisition and learning is the awareness of the students. Krashen adds that "acquisition" is the result of a subconscious process very similar to the process that children undergo when they acquire their first language. In order for this to happen, it is necessary to have meaningful interaction in the target language – comprehensible input- in which speakers are concentrated not on the form of their utterances, but on the communicative act (1988:53). Learning is the product of formal instruction which involves a conscious process of accumulating knowledge of the grammar and vocabulary of the target language. According to this author, teachers should concentrate on acquisition

rather than learning because of the proficiency that students may develop in a natural setting.

On the other hand, Chomsky (1965), in his theory of the *Language Acquisition Device* (LAD), supported the idea that children were born with a hard-wired device in their brains, an innate ability, for acquiring languages. This theory comes from the nativist position and claims that babies are born with the knowledge that languages have patterns and with the ability to seek out and identify these patterns. Then Chomsky expanded this idea into Universal Grammar which is a set of innate principles that have characteristics in common to all languages, for example, the notion of "nouns" and "verbs". The presence of a Universal Grammar in the brains of children lets them interpret the structure of their native language from the exposure given.

As we have noticed, acquisition and learning in L2 and L1 occur differently. It is undeniable that it would be interesting to replicate the conditions of the experiences of children in the language classroom. Nevertheless, it is difficult to establish those conditions in that context even though students have exposure to the language, opportunities to try out the regularities of language and motivation to develop a second language. We can then agree with Harmer (2008) that:

"Perhaps mere exposure to comprehensible input is not enough, therefore, for older children and adults. Perhaps, as some claim, they should have their attention drawn to aspects of language so that they can notice these aspects; as a result they will recognize them when they come across them again, and this recognition will be the first stage in their knowing of the language which, once known in this way, will be available for them to use" (p.48).

Harmer proposes that students pay attention to aspects of language so they will be able to notice and recognize these aspects in future sentences. Here, we can find the usefulness of feedback since if students are corrected by using feedback, students will be aware of their errors and they will change their oral mistake.

1.3 THE LEARNER

When we talk about learners, there are many aspects that we have to consider before teaching, such as their cognitive capacities, personalities, motivation, age, learning style and beliefs about how languages should be delivered. In other words, individual differences, which may affect not only the learners own, learning process but also the learning environment as well.

Ellis (1994), Lewis (1993) and Lightbown and Spada (2006) agree that learners have different kinds of abilities and predispositions to the second

language which may make a prediction of success or failure in learning it. They propose some individual differences they share, such as aptitude, learning style, personality, motivation, learner beliefs and age. Ellis (1994) adds affective state to this classification. On the other hand, Lightbown and Spada (2006) add intelligence, identity and ethnic group affiliation. We will analyze these individual differences from those points of view in depth:

(a) The first factor is *intelligence,* which has been traditionally measured through tests associated with the prediction of success in second language learning, specifically, IQ tests. (Lightbown and Spada, 2006). These tests are related more to metalinguistic knowledge rather than communicative skills. Therefore, we can say that intelligence has been related to development of second language in terms of reading, grammar and vocabulary, but not necessarily on oral production skills. *"Intelligence may play a less important role in the classrooms when the instruction focuses on communication and interaction"* (Lightbown and Spada 2006:57). As we can see, intelligence takes another route when the objective of the class is related to communication and interaction. In this study the sense of the definition given above is the most important.

(b) The second factor is *aptitude,* which is the ability and the speed of the learner to learn a second or any number of languages. Some tests have been developed along years some tests such as Modern Language

Aptitude Test (MLAT) and the Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery which are based on the idea that aptitude is composed of the abilities to:

- Identify and memorize new sounds.

- Understand the function of particular words in sentences.

- Figure out grammatical rules from language examples.

- Remember new words.

(c) The third factor is *learning style,* which can be defined as an *individual's natural, habitual, and preferred way of absorbing, processing, and retain new information and skills* (Reid 1995, quoted by Lightbown and Spada, 2006). As it can be observed are different ways of learning. The first classification is perceptually-based learning style which can be briefly categorized as visual, aural and kinesthetic. Then we have a second classification which is related to individuals who have been described as field independent or field dependent. In accordance with Ligthbown and Spada (2006) independent learner refers to individuals who tend to separate ideas from particular to general, and on the other hand field dependent refers to learners who see things as a whole. The first one is strongly linked with the success of second language learning. Teachers should not assume that the ways that learners chose to learn are wrong even though if their choice is different from the pedagogical approach that teachers are applying. We can postulate then, that the challenge of

teachers nowadays is to find instructional approaches that suit learner's needs with a variety of aptitude and learning styles.

(d) Another important factor is *personality,* which is difficult to describe because different studies have shown several changes regarding this topic. *"It is often argued that an extroverted person is well suited to language learning. However, research does not always support this conclusion"* (Lightbown and Spada 2006:60). According to Wong-Fillmore not all successful language learners get good marks when they are measured by extroversion patterns. *The quite observant learner may have greater success* (Wong-Fillmore 1979, quoted by Lightbown and Spada 2006:61). Therefore, we can say that the effect of personality on second language learning can vary according to students' individual differences. The same authors point out that inhibition disheartens learners to run risks in language learning, which is necessary for improving it. This is considered as a problem for teenagers when they are more self-conscious than children. We can point that inhibition is negative for second language pronunciation performance.

Furthermore, anxiety plays a negative role in language learning depending on the situation. Generally it is when learners have to speak, for instance, when they have to interact with peers. In summary, even though there are not too many studies connected with the influence on personality and success in language learning,

maybe a mixture of factors plus personality may contribute or diminish the success of it.

Ellis (1994) proposes Learner's affective state, which is similar to Personality in the classification made of Lightbown and Spada (2006). Anxiety is a concept in common and it can be defined as "*apprehension that is experienced at a particular moment in time as a response to a definite situation*" (Speilberg 1988, quoted by Ellis 1994). As we can notice, both authors agree that anxiety is provoked in a particular situation, above all when students have to speak outloud since they may be competing against other learners one step forward and that situation makes them feel anxious. Another example is when students feel that they can lose their mother tongue by the use of the target language. This last example can be linked with learner´s beliefs mentioned below.

(e) The fifth factor is *motivation* and *attitudes*, which *"can be defined in terms of two factors: communicative needs and the attitudes towards the second language community"* (Lightbown and Spada 2006:63). The former is used when a learner needs to speak the second language as a necessity to communicate (instrumental motivation) and the latter is used when a learner is well disposed towards the speaker of the languages (integrative motivation). It is important to mention that teachers also have an influence on the motivation of their students since teachers have to make decisions all the time, such as, choosing the content according to

their age, the learning goals should be challenging, the atmosphere should be supportive, and so on.

(f) The sixth factor is identity and ethnic group affiliation which involves social factors in terms of its dynamism and power relationship between the languages. This print for example: the learners of minority group have different attitude to language than the members of the learner major group of the same society due to instrumental and integrative motivation do not adapt to the complex relations of power. The powerful members of the major group have more opportunities to speak in the target language than the members of minority group learning since they have access to language. Another factor can be the strong relationship between mastery of pronunciation and feelings of ethnic affiliation. When a member of a closed community pretends to get a high degree in pronunciation is perceived as a disloyal person in his/her community. To sum up, dynamism and relations of power in society may impact negatively on learners who are trying to learn a second language.

(g) The seventh factor is learner beliefs, which involve the perceptions of the learner about how instruction should be taught. Everyone has their own beliefs which are based on their previous learning experiences. This is an area that has not been studied but recent research that learners' preconceptions can affect their experience in the classroom. If a student has learned a second language in terms of form of that language and

then the focus of it has moved on meaning, he may probably feel dissatisfied.

(h) The last factor is *age of acquisition* which takes us to *the Critical Period*, this seem to be one of the most important elements in the learning process because of the differences among growing stages. For example, it is not the same when immigrant children learn a second language to when their parents have to do it since they have reached the Critical Period; children's brain is predisposed for successful language development. Children also have more opportunities in informal communication to listen to and try out what they have learned than adults would have. Adults are usually in more complex situations in which they feel pressured to express themselves with complicated ideas, and they feel embarrassed when they make a mistake. On the other hand, other authors such as Stern (1983), Ellis (1986) and Els, Van, Theo, et al (1987) say that adults are better learners than children in the early ages due to the fact that they can make use of metalinguistic knowledge, memory, and problem-solving skills, that is to say, they are cognitive advantaged.

We must bear in mind that teachers have enough theories at the moment to choose the best theory to generate a successful learning of the second language in the classroom. Many of the choices of teacher are grounded on established principles of language and learning linked with practice. Brown adds that "*By*

perceiving and internalizing connections between practice (choices you make in the classroom) and theory (principles derived from research), your teaching is likely to be enlightened" (2007:63)*.* Considering the learner, Brown (2007) proposes three groups and principles:

(a) Cognitive principles *"They relate mainly to mental and intellectual functions"* (Brown, 2007:63):

- Automaticity: It is a subconscious process in which through an inductive exposure to language (input) and opportunity to experiment with output, students appear to acquire language naturally. If older children and adults focus just on grammar they will learn language consciously, and therefore, it will imply fluency. The idea is to replicate automaticity of how children acquire language.

- Meaningful Learning: It is a mental connection between the new information with the previous knowledge, giving as a result long term retention. In order to achieve this association, it is necessary to provide learners with a meaningful input.

- Anticipation of Reward: As human beings, we act by the anticipation of some sort of reward that will ensure our behavior. Rewards will indicate that our performance is well done, and also we usually will be prized in public making us feel successful.

- Intrinsic Motivation: It is the idea that motivation to learn comes from inside the learner.

- Strategic Investment: It is the notion that students are cognitively involved and teachers have to be aware of the different cognitive styles to identify weaknesses in order to apply the best strategy.

- Autonomy: Teachers have to allow their students to do things in the classrooms, such as perform role, solve problems with their peers, initiate conversations, and so on. There the objective is to make students take part in their own learning.

(b) Socioaffective Principles are *"characterized by a more marked degree of emotional involvement"* (Brown, 2007:71):

- Language Ego: Learners build-up a new identity when learning a second language so adults may feel fragile and inhibited because they may not have good proficiency in the language. Therefore, it is necessary for teachers to present a supportive attitude towards their students in this process.

- Willingness to Communicate: In the words of Brown, "*linked to one´s self-confidence (and allaying anxieties) is the ability to take calculated risks in attempting to use language- both productively and receptively*" (2007: 73).

(c) Linguistic Principles *"Centre on language itself and on how learners deal with these complex linguistic systems"* (Brown, 2007:75):

- Native Language Effect: Mother tongue can be used as a reference system, in which language learning turns out to be facilitated or interfered. The latter is the most recurrent effect on beginner learners due to the fact they assume that the new language works as their mother tongue.

- Interlanguage: This system provides with information about the stage in which students are in the new language. Every time students use this system they will be closer to the proficiency of it. It is important that teachers provide with appropriate feedback as affectively as cognitively to their students in order to make them aware of what they have to improve.

There is another important factor proposed by Krashen (1988) that has to do with the learner, and it is present during the acquisition of a second language: the Affective Filter. This Affective Filter is a mental barrier made up of feelings and emotions which can impede the learning process in older children and adults, such as embarrassment and inhibition. In accordance with Yule (2003), Affective Filter results from negative feelings or experiences that come from the learner when he or she is stressed, uncomfortable, self-conscious or unmotivated. All these feelings may play against effective language learning.

Clearly, all these principles are closely related to correction feedback and uptake, and should be considered in the theory of corrections in general.

1.3.1 UPTAKE

In their attempt to give a definition of uptake, Lyster and Ranta propose that:

"It is a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance" (1997:49).

In their model, these authors suggest there are two main types of learner uptake: repair and needs-repair. Repair occurs when an error is repaired by the learner and needs-repair happens when the first uptake move is not successful. No uptake refers to the case where teacher feedback is not responded to nor reacted to by the student at all. According to Lyster and Ranta there are four types of moves considered as repair: repetition, incorporation, self-repair and peer-repair. These can be summarised as follow:

(a) Repetition

Repetition is the correct form given by the teacher in response to the incorrect answer from the student. In this case the student just repeats what the teacher says as he/she infers that the teacher is giving him/her the correct answer.

Exchange 1:

S: I go to the bed after midnight **(grammatical error).**

T: I go to bed **(recast).**

S: I got to bed **(uptake: repetition).**

(b) Incorporation

Incorporation is quite similar to repetition; the teacher provides the correct form to the student, but this time the student includes that correct form into a longer self-produced utterance.

Exchange 2:

T: May I ask you something? *expects the student to repeat the sentence*

S: Yes of course

T: Dígalo!

S: Can I ask you something?

T: De la forma formal usando may **(explicit correction).**

S: May I ask you something important? **(uptake: incorporation).**

(c) Self-repair

Self-repair occurs when a student corrects his/her own error. This type of uptake should only happen after cover feedbacks such as elicitation so this means that the teacher should not give the student the correct answer himself/herself.

Exchange 3:

> T: Ok, can you tell me the name of the exercise please.
>
> S: Número catorce **(Use of L1).**
>
> T: In English please **(elicitation).**
>
> S: Number fourteen **(uptake: self-repair).**
>
> T: Yes, number fourteen

(d) Peer-repair

On the other hand, we have peer-repair. This situation occurs when a student corrects another student's error after the feedback given by the teacher in the initial error.

Exchange 4:

> S1: People has pets **(grammatical error).**

T: Revise si lo que dijo está bien. **names another student** **(elicitation).**

S2: People have pets **(uptake: peer-repair).**

T: That is right, people have

(e) Needs-repair

In addition, there are six types of *needs-repair* utterances. It is necessary to give additional feedback from the teacher. The needs-repair moves are the following: acknowledge, same error, different error, off target, hesitates, and partially repairs (Lyster and Ranta 1997:50-51):

1. Acknowledge: A student can acknowledge his/her error by saying "yes" or "yeah". Actually he/she wants to say, "Yes, that is what I meant to say".

2. Same error: The student repeats the same error in his/her new turn.

3. Different error: The student does not correct the error after the feedback, and makes a different error.

4. Off target: The student avoids the teacher's intentions and goes off target.

5. Hesitates: The student hesitates in response to the feedback.

6. Partial repairs: The student cannot repair the complete error instead of that he/she repairs just a part of it.

1.3.2 ERROR

Errors can be seen from different perspectives. Although a simple definition could be given, there are many ways of looking at it, and researchers need to find the best definition for their research. One definition describes an error as:

> *"an utterance, form, or structure that a particular language teacher deems unacceptable because of its inappropriate use or its absence in real-life discourse"* *(Hendrickson 1978:387).*

There are other topics to consider when an error is defined and examined. Even though, the terms *error* and *mistake* could appear to be synonyms, (as quoted in Corder 1967, in Allwright and Baily,1991:91) claim they are different between them. A *mistake* or slip is an incorrect utterance that a student can correct him/herself, while an *error* implies a lack of competence in a particular linguistic area; in this case a student will require assistance in order to correct it.

According to Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005:44-45) an error happens when learners try to say something beyond their current level of language processing, whereas a mistake or slip is the result of tiredness, worry or other temporary emotions or circumstances.

Several researchers have chosen if to use *grammaticality*, which is a competence learned or acquired in childhood by intuition or *acceptability* which is the social acquisition of language when they define an error. According to Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) errors can be *overt* or *covert* in nature:

> *"An error is said to be overt if it can be detected by*
> *inspecting the sentence/utterance in which it occurs. An*
> *error is covert if it only becomes apparent when a larger*
> *stretch of the discourse is considered". (2005:56).*

Acceptability is something not easy to define, since it involves the subjective evaluation of a researcher. "Determining acceptability also involves attempting to identify a situational context in which the utterance in question might fit" (Ellis and Barkhuizen 2005:56).

For Chaudron, a more extensive definition for error can be:

"An objective evaluation of linguistic or content errors

according to linguistic norms or evident misconstrual

of facts, and any additional linguistic or other

behaviour that the teachers reacted to negatively or

with an indication improvement of the response was

expected" (1986:67).

Chaudron posits that this definition covers not only the linguistic aspect and grammatical correctness, but also concentrates on the teachers' views of what is acceptable and what is not. There are errors that move away from the native language, but others that come up in the lesson topic or the exercise at hand, and only the teacher can judge whether a certain answer is correct in a given situation. The purpose of the present study is to analyse the oral errors that students might make, consequently the terms "errors" and "mistake" will be considered as synonyms.

According to Spratt, Pulverness and Williams (2005:44-45), there are two main reasons why second language learners make errors. The first one is called interference or transfer. This is the influence from the learner's first language (**L1**) on the second language (**L2**). The second reason is the kind of error called developmental error. Learners make these errors when they are working out and organising language. These kinds of errors are quite similar to those made by a young first language speaker as part of their normal language development. For example they normally make errors with verb forms, saying things such as "I goed"

instead of "I went". In this case learners wrongly apply a rule they have learnt before for one item of the language to another item. This process is known as overgeneralization.

Learners' own version of a second language is called interlanguage. Errors and interlanguage are necessary to language learning; interlanguage is an essential and unavoidable stage on this field. According to Selinker, (1972:209-241) there are three main ways of developing interlanguage. First, learners need exposure to language at the right level; second, they need to use language with other people; and third, they need to focus their attention on the form of the language.

Sometimes errors do not disappear, but get fossilised. When a learner does not stop making errors, commonly among adults, it is because they are able to communicate, so they do not need to improve the foreign language. This may come from a lack of exposure to L2 and/or a lack of motivation to improve their level of accuracy.

1.3.3 INPUT-INTAKE PROCESS.

The first definition of input – intake was pointed out by Corder (1967:165). He asserted in his report that:

"The simple fact of presenting a certain linguistic form to a learner in the classroom does not necessarily qualify it for the status of input, for the reason that input is what goes in not what is available for going in, and we may reasonably suppose that it is the learner who controls this input, or more properly, his intake".

More recent researches on intake provide two views: intake as product and intake as process. In the product view, intake is a subset of input *before* the input is processed by learners, whereas in the process view, intake is what comes *after* psycholinguistic processing (Kumaravadivelu 1994:35-36).

This means that in the product view, intake is input that is unprocessed language, whereas in the process view, it is a part of the learner's interlanguage system and is thus processed language.

According to Kumaravadivelu, (1994:37) who reconsiders the concept of intake as follows: *"An abstract entity of learner language that has been fully or partially assimilated into their developing system".*
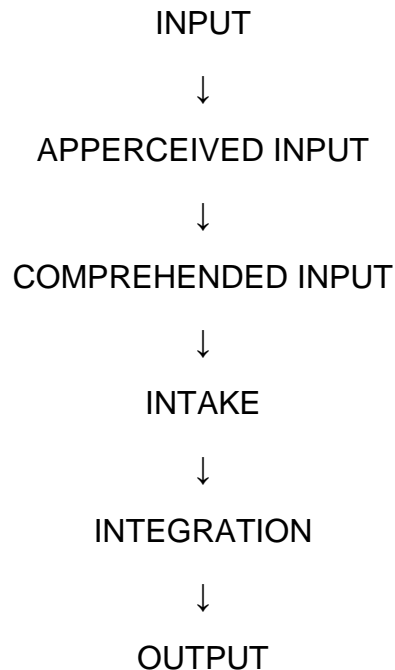
There are several factors that influence the input-intake according to SLA researchers. For example Kumaravadivelu (1994) suggests the following learner-internal and learner-external factors as *intake factors*:

- Individual factors: Age and anxiety

- Negotiation factors: Interaction and interpretation

- Tactical factors: Attitudes and motivation

- Knowledge factors: Language knowledge and metalanguage knowledge

- Environmental factors: Social context and educational context (p.39)

It is widely agreed that comprehensible input is necessary for SLA to occur. Not only some of the factors listed above determine comprehensibility of input, but also linguistic factors such as language complexity, frequency, and perceptual saliency. According to Yasuko Ito study, (2001) "perceptual saliency makes certain features of the input more comprehensible and in this way more liable to become intake".

Gass and Selinker (1994) propose a model to explain how people learn a second language; this model integrates linguistic, sociolinguistic, and psycholinguistic aspects of acquisition. There are five levels in a learner's conversion of input to output in Gass and Selinker's model (Gass & Selinker 1994:297):

INPUT

↓

APPERCEIVED INPUT

↓

COMPREHENDED INPUT

↓

INTAKE

↓

INTEGRATION

↓

OUTPUT

Gass and Selinker (1994:298) put forward that "input" refers to "a body of second language data" learners are exposed to. Not all the language data is used by the learners when they form their L2 grammar, some of this data pass through to the learner and some do not. The first stage of the initial data is "apperceived input" which refers to "a bit of language which is noticed in some way by the learner because of some particular features".

The second stage is "comprehended input". Gass and Selinker (1994:299) explain that there are two differences between their notion and Krashen's. The first difference lies in that "comprehensible input" is controlled by the person providing input, whereas "comprehended input" is *learner-controlled*. This means that it is the learner who is (or who is not) doing the work to understand the input. The second difference is that "comprehensible input" is treated in Krashen's theory as a

dichotomous variable, namely, input is either comprehensible or incomprehensible, whereas "comprehended input" is multi-stage, with comprehension representing "a continuum of possibilities ranging from semantics to detailed structural analyses" (p.300).

Gass and Selinker explain that "intake" is "the process of assimilating linguistic material". It is "the mental activity that mediates between input and grammar and is different from apperception and comprehension" (p.302).

1.4 INTRODUCTION TO FEEDBACK

Day after day learning is gradually recognized as a complex task, since there are many aspects such as: cognitive, psychological and environmental aspects which affect and determine the learning process.

As Askew (2005:23) suggests,

Many writers now recognize the importance of the emotional and social dimension of learning as well as the cognitive. The relationship between learning and teaching is being viewed as a dynamic, rather than a one-way transmission of knowledge. Learning is supported by a whole range of processes, one of which is feedback.

Spratt et. al (2005), explain feedback as the action of giving information to students about their learning. This feedback can focus on the learner's language skills, the thoughts of their work, their actions, their posture or attitude to learning or their improvement. The authors also indicate the function of feedback as an efficient tool of motivation, and as an outstanding manner to help learners increase their language skills. Nevertheless, when this technique is not realized correctly feedback can be a big risk.

It is frequent to listen to the expression of "giving" and "receiving" feedback, but feedback is not constantly a gift from one person to another. In a dominant discourse, it is simple to find feedback considered as right or wrong or as correct or incorrect, but in a Constructive model, we will find different qualities, which reveal these two alternative views.

In the next section, three models of education are going to be illustrated with their strengths and weaknesses. They will show their potent effect on the way to see feedback and how education is appreciated: The receptive transmission model, the constructive model and the co-constructive model.

1.4.1 FEEDBACK FOR LEARNING

Feedback can be a very important connection among teachers and their students. All of them are implicated in the learning–teaching process because the students learn or not according to the teacher´s technique. If students do not learn, there is something wrong and if learning happens, feedback becomes a very

helpful tool. The use of feedback is making the function of assessment formative. Sadler (1989) suggests that if feedback does not have a formative effect on learning, then it is not real feedback.

Susan Askew (2005) presents three models of feedback: The receptive transmission model, the constructive model and the co-constructive model, which we shall examine in the next section.

1.4.2 THE RECEPTIVE-TRANSMITION MODEL

Dominant until the end of the 1950s, the receptive transmission model still relates most closely to practice in educational institutions and it has to do with a mechanistic view of learning and organizations. This model of teaching and learning is described as receptive transmission because both terms describe the states of the learner and the teacher. The teacher is a specialist in a particular field and provides contents to an inactive student. In this model, the teacher is an expert in his/her specific discipline and gives information to a passive recipient so as to feedback is given only from the teacher. There is a type of communication where only the teacher talks and the student just listens to and receives new knowledge, consequently this type of feedback often contains evaluation with no help and the teacher generally does not improve the student´s work. In this model the curriculum is a body of worthwhile knowledge to which everyone is entitled (Hirst, 1974), defined by the educational establishment, workplace or state. The transmission of this knowledge is the initial mission of teaching, providing concepts and facts.

The curriculum content is non-flexible; it concentrates on cognitive features and emphasizes the significance of coherent thinking that is purpose, abstract, rational, sequential view. Having taken into account all these facts, and following Askew (2005) and Brown (2001), it appears that this model appropriately suits with our educational system, where the teacher is the source or basis of all knowledge and learners are only viewers who obtain the information in a passive mode without participating in the procedure. Susan Askew (2005) claims that the receptive transmission model is not the most effective feedback method and calls it `killer feedback´ since according to her, it hinders students to learn appropriately. Moreover, Askew explains that young people need to be more flexible and to make connections between their learning in one sphere and learning in another to apply their learning to different situations.

1.4.3 FEEDBACK IN THE DOMINANT MODEL

According to Susan Askew (2005), in the Receptive transmission model we can notice that feedback is a type of reward from the teacher to the student. The teacher is viewed as an expert and feedback is one-way communication from teacher to student (Seltzer and Bentley 1990). In this model teachers should impart the information that will facilitate the student to learn and apply their skills. In the dominant model the information is regularly evaluative, because this model can reveal the outline between good or bad works and also what are the best and worst feature of the students, what the teacher wants from them and how they can catch up with those aims. Nowadays still is used `Feedback´ with this dominant view of

teaching and learning, although, as we will see at the end of this section, feedback is not a method that works immediately for everyone.

Lately, the concept of feedback has become recurrent; it is present in many situations in where giving and receiving information is usual. Those types of situations could be very familiar for us, for example at the university trainees ask for feedback at the end of the course. In a job interview, the commission is obliged to provide feedback to people who were not chosen for the employment. In our daily work as trainee teachers we provide our students with feedback on their attitude, pronunciation, their strong and weak points, and so on all the time.

1.4.4 THE CONSTRUCTIVE MODEL

On the contrary, we have the Constructive Model, in which the main actor in the process of teaching and learning is the student, because this process is constructed by the learner, incorporating many activities, such as open-ended questioning, discussion, participatory learning and discovery learning. This occurs because knowledge is associated to the learner's experiences and everyday life situations. A feedback method that Askew (2005) prefers instead of the `Receptive transmission model` is the `Constructive model´. In this model, feedback is called `Ping-Pong feedback` due to the relationship between the teacher and the student, moreover it gives emphasis to a description of the experience without evaluative judgments by the teacher. Furthermore, this model stresses the importance of students` motivation; thus students are encouraged to make choices about their learning experiences. In this model the role of the teacher is a kind of, because in

this process he/she has to motivate and instigate a dialogue among and with their students, based in their interests and common experiences. In the constructivism model the relationship between teacher and learner is less hierarchical.

Following this model in an insightful research publication Askew (2005) stated:

> *In the constructivism model, it is accepted that young people have different intelligence levels and different talents, interests and skills. It assumes that young people are rational decision-makers, can be self directed and learn autonomously. Learners are encouraged to make choices about their learning experiences, within limits placed on them by teachers and the school context. (p.32).*

Here Susan Askew postulates that the first task of education is the development of students' thinking abilities for acquiring, processing and relating information to their own experience. On her research, Askew considers some teaching strategies that are particularly significant for teachers and learners. This type of activities and strategies included the use of stimuli based on students' preferences and interests like music, drama, comedy and role play by telling stories, working in groups or in pairs, together with the use of visual stimuli like flashcards, pictures, images, every material or instrument that is related to students' preferences.

In the constructive model the relationship between the teacher and the learner is crucial, because in terms of education the role of the teacher is to motivate pupils and develop their self control and some values and norms related to organization.

When students are immersed in the constructive model, they tend to improve their interest, abilities and skills, because most of time this environment is a good help and motivation to increase students' confidence.

1.4.5 FEEDBACK IN THE CONTRUCTIVE MODEL

It is important to explain and establish the differences that exist between the Dominant Receptive-Transmission model and the Constructivism model, because they present considerable dissimilarities in terms of applying feedback (Askew 2005). In the first model, feedback is shown as a gift from the teacher to the learner, for example, the student is a receptive and passive actor that receives the information from the active teacher who makes the whole work, identifying the errors and mistakes and providing the correction or solution to the problem. On the other hand, in the Constructivism model the teacher motivates the students to discover their own problems providing them some clues on how to resolve their problems and doubts without giving learners the solution because the teachers' role is closer to a facilitator of tools so that the students find the answer and solutions with their own abilities.

One of the most considerable characteristic of feedback in the Constructivism model is to remove the evaluative judgment. The assessment consists in a description of the experience; it is closer to a piece of suggestion rather than punishment. In other words, in the Constructivism model teachers are friendlier and closer to the learners; it means that teachers use languages as simple as possible and according to the students level, so that it is easy for the students to understand. A different situation happens in the Dominant model in which feedback is given by the teacher in a hierarchical position.

The gap between those who give feedback and those who are on the receiving end has not shifted very far. Power still resides with the teacher or with the evaluator, external researcher, or other expert because the agenda for the feedback is decided by them. Because the agenda is not decided by the person who receives feedback, it may not be useful to them, or they may not know how to make use of it, as with feedback in the previous model. The teacher-learner dynamic is unchallenged. (Askew 2004:39).

In the Constructivism model, feedback is not a gift, it does not work with hierarchical relationships between teacher and learner, it is constructed and based through dialogue. As nothing is ever influenced in just one direction, responsibility for learning is shared by the main actors of the process of teaching and learning.

1.4.6 CO-CONSTRUCTIVE MODEL

The third model presented by Askew (2005) is called `The co-constructive model of teaching and learning`. This model equals the dialogue between the teacher and the student, because the teacher is not seen as the person in charge. Besides, there is collaborative work between them. Learning in this model, involves reflective processes, critical investigation, analysis, interpretation and reorganization of knowledge, all of these features are of great importance. On the other hand students produce work or solve problems that have meaning in the real world, so that their work is very important and significant.

Susan Askew has postulated that this model is one of the best since learning is a responsibility shared by both the teacher and the student and judgments are not necessary in the school context.

Another term which Askew emphasizes, is `Killer Feedback`, which refers to differences between positive and negative feedback. The first will always be positive if it helps learning independently, if it is a criticism or praise, because the final objective of feedback is to be an aid in the learning process. Moreover, positive feedback will promote motivation and participation in the students. On the other hand, negative feedback does not provide motivation and tends to increase the levels of anxiety, fear or stress in a learner. This feedback could come from a teacher or a classmate, but the impact on us depends on the level of the relationship, that is to say, the quality of the relationship between the giver and the receiver is significant in leading to learning (Carnell 1999). But the so-called

`positive feedback´ may prove to be unhelpful. Most teachers praise students in order to enhance progress toward these goals, however current research poses the possibility that some common uses of praise may actually have negative effects in the students because not all young children are interested in pleasing the teacher, and as children grow older, interest in pleasing the teacher diminishes significantly. Brophy (1981) claims that giving praising in a general or indiscriminate way may be unhelpful, and may lead to a lower self-esteem and the loss of confidence.

Another important point has to do with giving feedback in front of the class. It may also encourage comparison and competitiveness between the learners, nevertheless there are many beliefs which indicate that comparison between individuals encourages people to work harder and to achieve the goals, as Askew (2005) claims: *Comparison can lead to competition and may result in some individuals giving up, feeling they are failures and evaluating their abilities negatively.*

1.4.7 CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK TYPES

(a) RECAST

Following Lyster and Ranta (1997), Lyster and Panova (2002), Surakka (2007), define Recast as "an implicit corrective feedback". This means the teacher does not say "you mean and you should say"; in this type of feedback the teacher reformulates parts or all of student´s utterance without error. In other words the

teacher provides the correct form without trying to give more information about the error, or without trying to help a student to produce a correct form, so that the teacher does not indicate that the student made an error, but merely gives a correct form. An example of recast is found in the present data:

Exchange 1 (8º B)

S: He don't understand the homework. (Grammatical error)

T: He doesn't understand the homework.

S: He doesn't understand the homework.

In this example, the female student is helping her classmate, because he/she did not understand the instructions given by the teacher, therefore she produces the sentence `he don't understand´ which is grammatically incorrect, so the teacher corrects her immediately by a recast. The teacher does not give any additional information about the error. As a result is not clear if the student was aware of his error in the utterance, he just repeats after the teacher gives correct form of the sentence.

(b) EXPLICIT CORRECTION

This refers to the explicit provision of the correct form. That is to say, the teacher gives the correct form; furthermore she/he provides a clear indication that the student`s utterance was incorrect. As a consequence, the teacher gives both

an explanation and the correct form. There is an example of explicit correction move from the present data:

Exchange 2 (Iº C)

S: How I say `boda´ in English?

T: When you make a question, you have to use the auxiliary verb `do´ in a question. You can say, `How do I say boda in English? ´

In this example, the student is asking the teacher how he can say a word in English. In this case, the teacher not only gives the correct answer, but he also explains how the question was incorrect. The student then repairs himself by repeating the utterance according to the teacher's explanation and model.

(c) CLARIFICATION REQUEST

Sometimes there are some situations, where the teacher does not understand a student's utterance. When this happens, the teacher uses words such as, "I`m sorry" or "what do you mean by …?". Lyster and Ranta (1997) define this action as *Clarification request;* it suggests to students that their utterance has been misunderstood by the teacher or that the utterance is incorrect in some way and that repetition is required in this situation. Exchange 3 shows an occurrence of a clarification request found in the present data:

Exchange 3. (5º A)

S: Jenny are playing yesterday.

T: Sorry? Are playing?

S: Jenny was playing yesterday?

In the previous example we could see that the male student made a grammatical error, in this case the teacher tries to elicit the correct form of the sentence, at last the student comprehend that the word `sorry` it's a kind of notice for him, thus he achieves the correct utterance.

(d) METALINGUISTIC FEEDBACK

This type of feedback contains either comments, information, or questions related to well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the accurate form. In other words this kind of corrective feedback makes the learner analyze his/her utterance linguistically. An example of metalinguistic feedback found in the present data:

Exchange 4 (IIIº A)

S: I stay with my friend last Friday night

T: What ending do we use on verbs when we talk in the past?

S: ((   ))

T: This is a regular verb, therefore?

S: I stayed with my friend …….

In this example, the student makes a grammatical error; then the teacher provides information about the verbs in past, then the student does not understand the explanation concerning the verbs, and remains in silence; finally the teacher elicits the correct form of the utterance with another description of the subject.

e) ELICITATION

This refers to techniques that teachers use to directly elicit the correct form from the student. In this case the teacher guides the student to self-correction. There are two techniques where the teacher elicits the correct answer. These techniques are sentence completion, asking for an example or direct questions ("for example…." Or "How do we say…… in English?"), and asking for the student to reformulate an utterance. An example of elicitation found in the present data:

Exchange 5 (Iº C grade):

S: They is very good friends

T: We are talking about more than one person, so we use the verb in plural

S: They are very good friends

In this case a male student makes a grammatical error when he formulates the sentence `there is good friends´. The teacher corrects the mistake by explaining that he must use the verb in plural in order to get the correct answer from the student. Finally the student correct himself.

(f) REPETITION

Repetition is another type of corrective feedback that is explicit; it refers to the teacher's repetition, in isolation, of the student's erroneous utterance and does not provide the student with the correct answer is. According to Panova and Lyster (2002: 584), "in a repetition, the teacher repeats the ill-formed part of the student's utterance", and in doing so, the student should understand the location and nature of the error, and be able to self-correct. An example of repetition move from the present data:

Exchange 6 (8º B)

T: What about your holidays?

S: last holiday we go to the beach

T: go?

S: we went to the beach.

In this situation, the teacher is asking students about their holidays. Suddenly, a female student answers the question saying `Last holiday we go to the beach´, then the teacher repeats the error and the student corrects her mistake.

(g) TRANSLATION

An additional corrective feedback category (similar to recast) that does not need the student to find the right answer is known as translation. According to Panova and Lyster (2002), translations take place, when a teacher hears a student use her/his mother tongue, and if the use of his/her L1 is not permitted, the teacher will translate the learner's utterance. Lyster and Ranta (1997) treat translation as a type of recast. Below an example of translation found in the present data:

Exchange 7 (IIº A)

S: Can you tell me your age?

T: 13 años **(use of L1)**

S: thirteen years old **(Translation)**

In exchange 7, the teacher asks a male student about his age, the male student answers in Spanish. After that the teacher uses *"translation"* by correcting the student.

To sum up according to the previous studies on the different types of corrective feedback, we are going to emphasize our research in the definitions of corrective feedback proposed by Lyster and Panova (2002) and Lyster and Ranta (1997), we consider that are the most suitable for the purpose of the present study.

On the other hand it is important to highlight that Lyster and Panova (2002) add "Translation" to the six types of corrective feedback already investigated by

Lyster and Ranta (1997), even so the terms and concepts used by them do not differ from the terminology of Panova and Lyster (2002), the definitions are basically the same, and they have not change over time (from 1997 to 2002).

Finally, we would like to accentuate that there are seven types of corrective feedback: recast, translation, elicitation, clarification request, repetition, metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction which will be in the framework for our observation.

CLOSING

In our research we have discussed different teaching methods exposed throughout teaching history. There are different ways to teach a new language depending on the student's background, age, motivation, etc. It is also important to find the best corrective method in accordance with the students, the English level and the classroom atmosphere.

 Some of the methods are very traditional; some others are at the forefront of teaching methods. All of them have a special and specific interaction between teacher and students and also a special and specific interaction between error and correction. Due to this reason teachers should be aware of what method applies or which part of the method considers when they teach.

Teachers should also be aware of the different types of corrective feedback and their use. One type of feedback could be useful on a specific occasion whereas the same one could be useless on another. We cannot ignore the students' reaction to the correction stimulus, so we must create a pleasant atmosphere in our lessons to avoid stress and anxiety to students.

The role of errors should be seen as significant to acquire the new language. Because of this reason, teachers should learn to get familiar with students errors and see them neither avoidable nor threatening during their lessons because not only they can guide the teachers to do their work better, but also students to improve the new language.

Chapter II:

THE STUDY

2 THE STUDY

This chapter introduces the research of three months of the collection of data, participants and processing of the data in detail. Moreover, this chapter discusses the ideas and motivation behind the making of this study, its relevance and contribution to Chilean society.

2.1.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

Since there are numerous international studies on the different corrective feedback types and learner uptake (Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Lyster and Panova, 2002), the present study is one of the few studies carried out in this particular area in Chile. However, most of these international studies have been conducted in immersion classrooms or adult ESL settings, and not many studies have focused on Chilean classrooms, where the L1 is Spanish, and English is taught /learned as a foreign language.

Furthermore, the participants of previous studies have been adults but the present study, however, includes participants of Chilean classrooms whose ages range from 10 to 17 years.

2.1.2 REASEARCH JUSTIFICATION

The learning process of a foreign language is a very complex process, which, even today, is still a mystery for teachers and students. Every day in the

classroom is different because of many factors: student´s mood, teacher´s disposition or general atmosphere.

Many authors, such as Krashen (1982), Ellis (1994), Askew (2005), Lightbown and Spada (2006), among others have written many hypotheses and theories about the "necessary ingredients" to produce successful learning in an English class. Some of them point to feelings, others to motivation, and others to learners' abilities. But, the most important thing which all of them agree on is the fact that student's assessment and oral feedback is indispensable to achieve every aim in lessons and every outcome in the classroom. In fact, every learner of a foreign language needs the teacher's guidance in order to develop a meaningful learning by the oral feedback given by the teacher. In this sense, we can say that students would be aware about the oral error, and in this way they could modify their oral errors, which would be seen as a positive feedback for future oral performances. It is for that reason that, we have thought about the importance of having well-trained teachers together with an appropriate proficiency of English, so who can also apply good EFL methodology, including motivating corrective feedback.

2.1.3 PROBLEM

Our research studies the use of Oral Feedback in five schools in Santiago, considering theories about Oral Feedback and Correction. Furthermore, it aims to find out the way syntactical and morphological error in high school EFL learners are corrected by EFL teachers.

2.1.4 OBJECTIVES

(a) General Objective

The general objective of this work is to describe the type and frequency of feedback used by non-native English teachers.

(b) Specific Objectives

- Describe the relationship between correction feedback and learner uptake in high school EFL classrooms.

- To identify the patterns and frequency of corrective feedback used by the EFL teachers when they encounter morpho-syntactical oral errors in their students.

- To examine which of these techniques is more effective.

2.1.5 THE HYPOTHESES

This study considers two hypotheses related to the correction of morpho-syntactic errors by EFL teachers:

- The correction techniques used by teachers depend on the length of their teaching experience.

- Teachers with more experience in teaching use less correction techniques.

2.1.6 THE METHODOLOGY

This investigation is quantitative, which gives a fundamental connection between empirical observation of the collected data and the mathematical expression of the results obtained (in a quantitative relation).

2.1.7 DATA

In this section, we will describe the context from which we obtained the data for our investigation.

a) SCHOOLS

Information about the schools where the data was collected is summarized in Table 1.

No.	Name of school	Location in Santiago	Levels	Specialty	No. of teachers taking part in this study
1	Instituto Politécnico San Miguel Arcángel	San Miguel	Secondary	secretary, infant and accounting	2
2	Álvaro Covarrubias Arlegui	Independencia	Primary and secondary	Arts and Science	2
3	Pan-american College	San Miguel	Primary and secondary	Arts and Science	2
4	Oratorio Don Bosco	Santiago	Primary and secondary	Arts and Science	2
5	The Angel´s School	Ñuñoa	Primary and secondary	Arts and Science	2

Table 1. Schools

The investigation was carried out in five schools located in different areas in Santiago. As features in common, the five schools are subsidized schools, profess Catholic religion, the English teaching is mandatory, there are specialized teacher per each subject, they have similar social class and four of the five schools focus on the teaching of Arts and Science.

The first school, Instituto Politécnico San Miguel Arcángel, has three specialties: secretarial studies, kindergarten assistant and accounting. This school has secondary education only and there are 45 students per class and 520 students approximately. In addition, there are 15 teachers; two of them are teachers of English. In this school, students have four hours of English per week in secondary school.

The second school is called Álvaro Covarrubias Arlegui, which has two sections: elementary and secondary education. In the elementary level, there are 6 teachers and from on average of 15-25 students per class. In secondary education, there are 10 teachers in total and two are teachers of English. The number of students per class is 20-30 and there are 600 students approximately. Students, have four hours of English per week in elementary and secondary school.

The third school is called Pan-american College, which has kindergarten, elementary and secondary school. In this school there are 25 teachers, besides there are 15-25 students per class on average, and there are 220 students approximately. Four of the 25 teachers teach English in high school. In this school students have four hours of English per week in elementary and secondary school.

The fourth school is called Oratorio Don Bosco, which has both elementary and secondary school. There are 20 teachers and two of them are English teachers in secondary school. The school has 39 students per class on average. There are 1.000 students, and 25-30 students per class approximately. In this

school students have three hours of English per week in elementary and secondary school.

The fifth school is called The Angel's School. It has kindergarten, elementary and secondary school. This school has 55 teachers in total and 4 of them are English teachers. It is important to mention that teachers have more than ten years of experience. There are 600 students, and 25-30 students per class approximately. Students have four hours of English per week in elementary and secondary school.

2.1.8 PARTICIPANTS

a) Teachers

There are 10 teachers in our sample, whose profile we describe in Table 2. Concerning our class observations, we could record 10 classes which correspond to the five schools mentioned above.

As a common characteristic, we can say that all of them have formal studies in teaching English. The age of these teachers ranged from 25 to 58, and have from 2 to 33 years of experience. Moreover, two of them have completed a Master's degree in Curriculum and the others have pursued post-graduate studies**.** Table 2 summarizes the background of the teachers taking part in this study.

Teacher no.	Gender	Age	Years for a degree in education	Other studies	Years of experience
1	Male	25	5	-	3
2	Female	27	5	1 training course	3
3	Female	30	5	French	5
4	Female	31	5	1 training course	6
5	Female	34	5	-	9
6	Female	37	5	Master	14
7	Female	42	5	2 training courses	18
8	Male	47	5	Master	20
9	Female	53	5	2 training courses	29
10	Female	58	5	3 training courses	33

Table 2: Information about the teachers

b) Students

The sample of students participating in this study comes from 5th year (Elementary) to 3rd year (Secondary), with ages from 10 to 17 years old. When the data was collected, the number of students in the classroom was 20-45 students. Two schools are for girls only and the others, co-educational.

2.1.9 DATA COLLECTING

During a period of three months, a total of 10 EFL lessons by 10 different volunteer teachers were video-recorded (total running time: 5 hours and 20 minutes). The camcorder was controlled manually by a member of this research group, while another member took notes. In order to avoid distracting the students, both observers sat at the back of the classroom or in a strategic position.

An Observation Sheet (see Appendices) was used during each lesson to take notes about contextual and/or paralinguistic aspects which might not be recorded by the camera (facial expressions by the students, answers coming from students off-camera, for example). Also, a questionnaire about personal information was given to each teacher at the end of the lesson so as to obtain data on their university studies and teaching background, for example (see Appendices).

2.2 DATA PROCESSING

The data was obtained and analyzed in the following stages:

1. Observation and video-recording of the class (two observers per class)
2. Transcription of the class using the Transcript Conventions (see Appendix C and D) .
3. Analysis of the recordings using Lyster and Panova's model of feedback to error and student response. Each move was analyzed by three members of this research group.
4. Statistical analysis using Excel 2007 © to obtain Pearson Momentum and Average figures.
5. Conclusions.

Chapter III:

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

3. Results and analysis

Following Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Lyster and Panova (2002) proposal of correction feedback types and techniques, the data obtained was transcribed, categorized and analyzed. In the Appendix C you can see a sample of the transcripts and their accompanying notes.
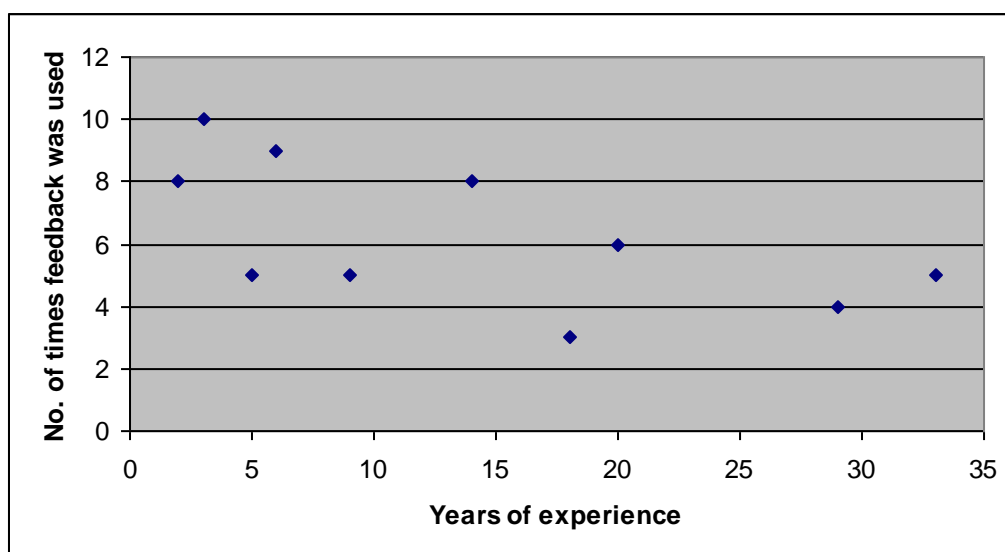
3.1 Types of corrective feedback

Table 3 shows the results comparing years of experience of teachers and the types of feedback produced in the lessons.

Teacher Nº	Years of experience	Types of feedback							
		Recast	Translation	Clarification Request	Metalinguistic Feedback	Elicitation	Explicit Correction	Repetition	TOTAL
1	2	3	1	0	1	2	1	0	8
2	3	4	0	2	2	1	0	1	10
3	5	2	1	1	0	1	0	0	5
4	6	3	1	0	1	1	2	1	9
5	9	2	0	1	0	0	1	1	5
6	14	2	1	4	0	1	0	0	8
7	18	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	3
8	20	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	6
9	29	1	2	0	1	0	0	0	4
10	33	2	3	1	0	0	0	0	5
	TOTAL	24	6	11	7	7	4	3	63
	Pearson	-0.61	0.7	-0,08	-0.33	-0.76	-0.47	-0.5	

Table 3: Types of feedback produced by the teachers
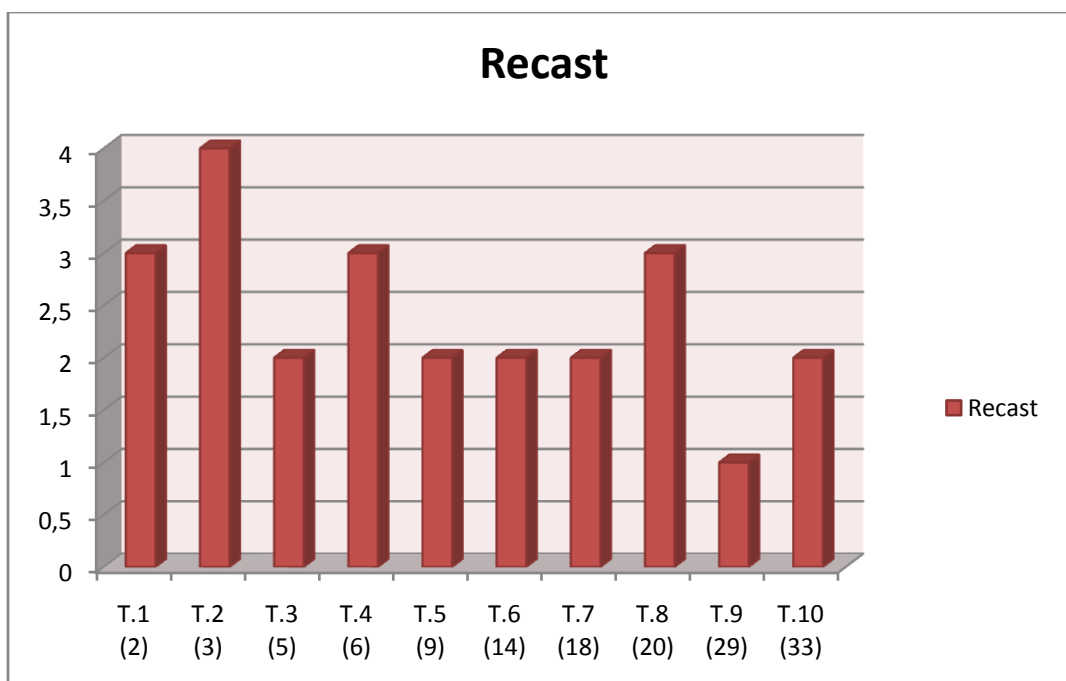**Pearson Momentum: Years of experience/Types of feedback.**

In this table, we can see that the most common type of correction feedback is Recast (24 out of 63) and the least common are Translation and Repetition (6 and 3, respectively, out of 63). Pearson shows that there is an inverse correlation of -0.61 between years of experience and the number of types of feedback used by the teachers, which in statistics is highly significant. This means that the more the experience in the profession, the less the number of types of corrective feedback a teacher is likely to use. The results show that recasts are the most common type of feedback throughout the 2-33 years of experience, while it seems the number of the other types of feedback tend to lower inversely over the years. Interestingly, of these, translation seems to increase significantly as a type of correction (correlation r=0.7). The distribution of these figures can be seen in Graph 1.

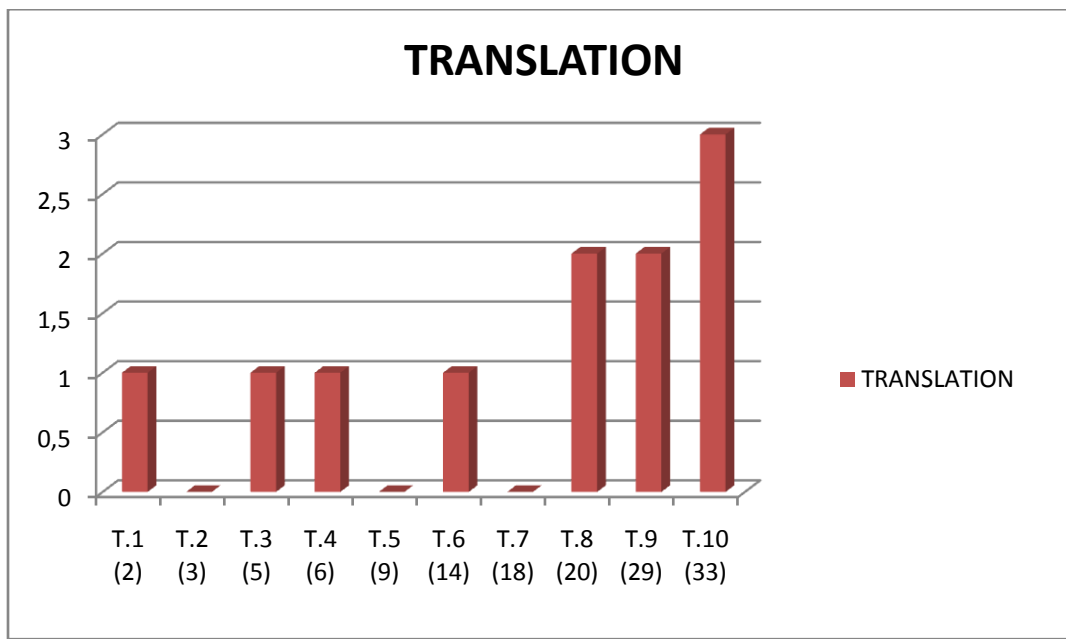**Graph 1: Correlation between types of feedback and years of experience.**

The following graphs show the occurrence of each type in detail. On the X axis, it shows the teachers and, in parenthesis, their years of experience.
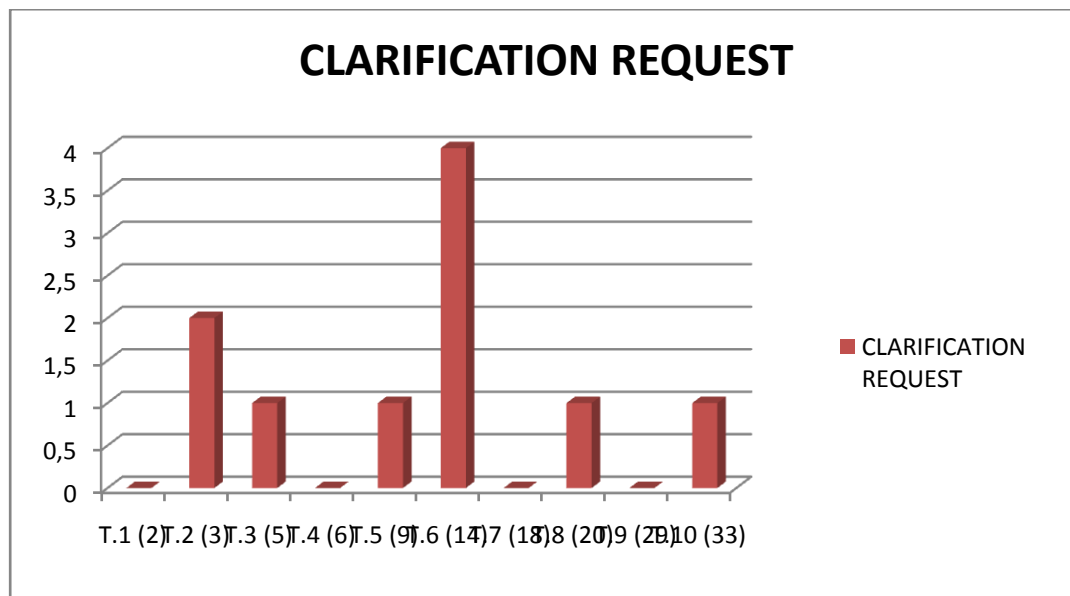
a) Recast

Graph 2

According to Graph 2, all teachers use Recast as feedback. Although the number of examples found in this study lowers over the years of experience, it is still present in the higher number of years of experience.

b) Translation

Graph 3

Translation seems to increase together with the number of years of experience (Pearson correlation r=0.7). Three of the teachers did not make use of translation at all to correct students.
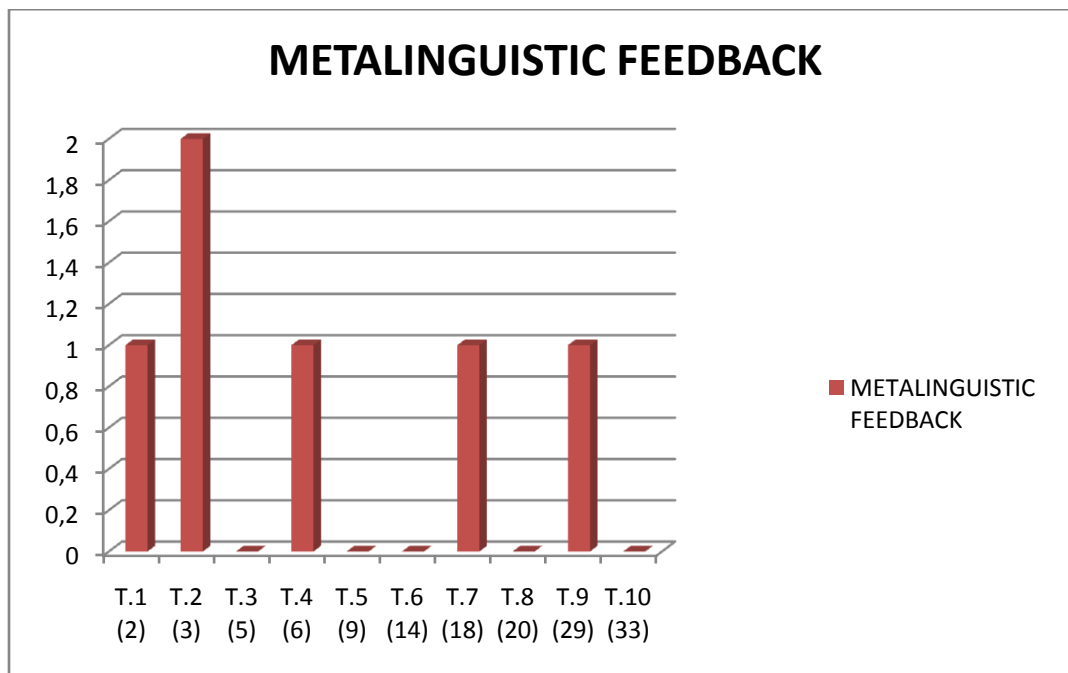
c) Clarification request

CLARIFICATION REQUEST

T.1 (2) T.2 (3) T.3 (5) T.4 (6) T.5 (9) T.6 (14) T.7 (18) T.8 (20) T.9 (29) T.10 (33)

Graph 4

Graph 4 shows there are six teachers who present Clarification Request as feedback during the recorded lessons. Pearson indicates a moderate inverse correlation of r=-0.08, but still significant in statistical terms.
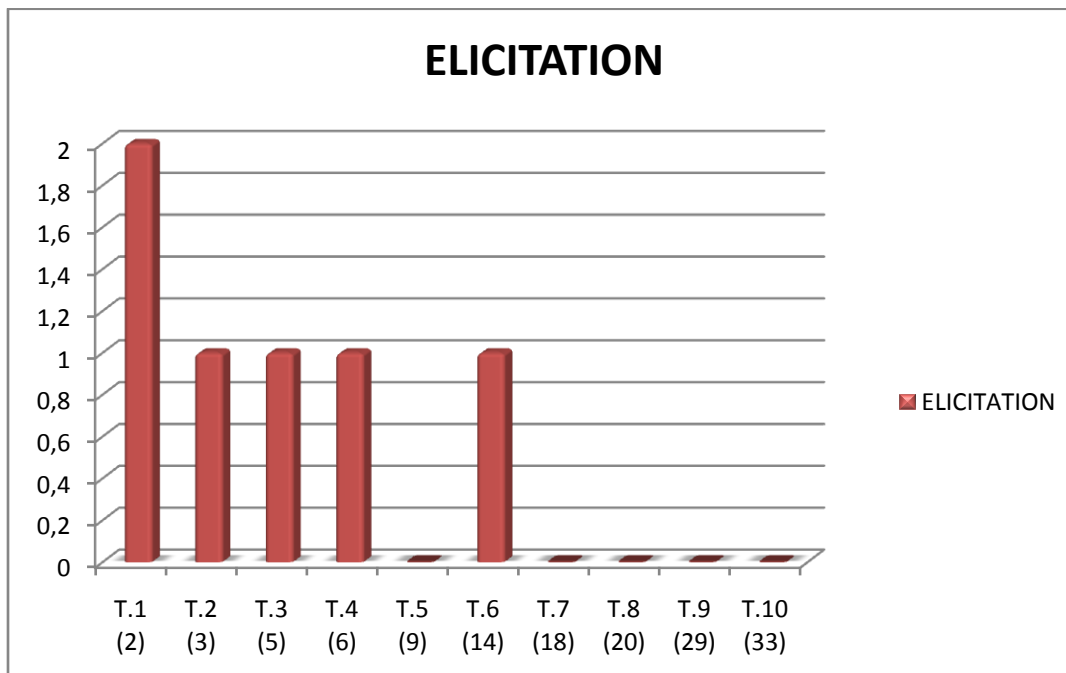
d) Metalinguistic feedback

Graph 5

In bar Graph 5, five teachers show Metalinguistic feedback in their lessons. Teacher 2 uses this corrective feedback much more than teachers 1, 4, 7 and 9. Pearson calculations show an inverse correlation of r= -0.33, which is slightly important.
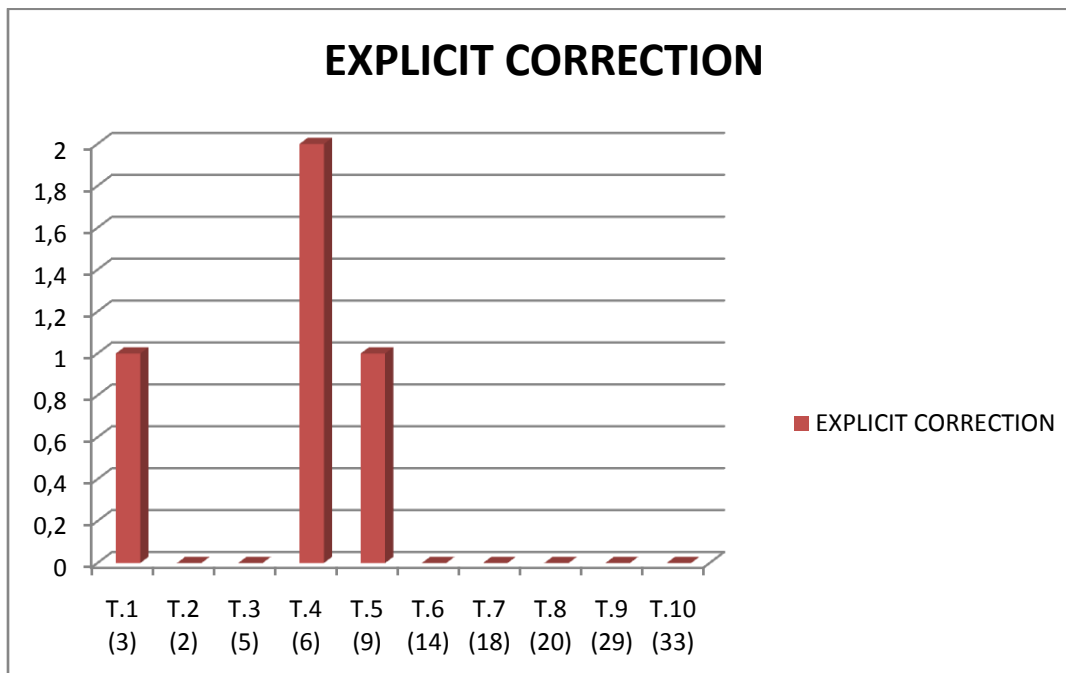
e) Elicitation

Graph 6

In bar graph 6 (Elicitation**), five out** of the ten teachers show this type of feedback in their lessons. Pearson showed a strong correlation of -0.76, which is highly significant but in an inverse manner.
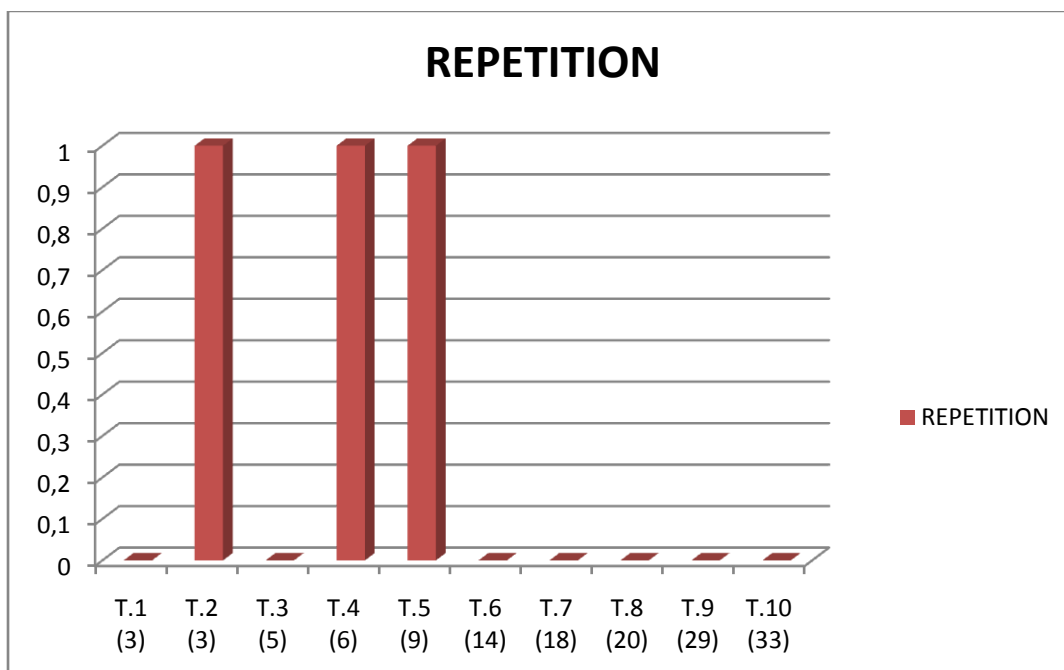
f) Explicit correction

EXPLICIT CORRECTION

Graph 7

In this graph, the teachers with a low number of years of experience made use of Explicit Correction more commonly. Pearson shows a correlation of r= -0.47, which is slightly significant, but still valid.

g) Repetition

REPETITION

Graph 8

In Graph 8, three teachers give this type of feedback in their lessons (**3, 6 and 9** years of experience). Apparently, teachers with higher experience do not use this type of feedback. Pearson gave an inverse correlation of r=-0.5.

CONCLUSION OF THE DATA

The results in this study suggest that there is a strong and negative correlation between years of experience and number of times corrective feedback is used: the frequency of corrective feedback tends to lower over the years. Concerning the type of feedback most commonly used, the results suggest that Recast and Clarification Request were preferred by teachers, independently of years of experience. Interestingly, the frequency of translation tends to increase over the years.

Chapter IV

CONCLUSIONS

CONCLUSIONS

The aim of the present study was first and foremost to describe the ways in which teachers correct students' oral morpho-syntactical errors in an EFL classrooms. The findings of the present study show that there is a variety of feedback moves present during English lessons, and those learners are able to correct themselves or provide help for others, if teachers use feedback types that elicit answers from the learners. Throughout our investigation, we have discussed the aspects related to teaching, which is a complex system of interaction between the people involved. Teachers must pay attention to every learner's characteristic and, at the same time, organize the different elements they will use with their students: contents, objectives, aims, settings.

We started this investigation with the objective to examine and identify the type and frequency of corrective feedback used by non-native teachers of EFL when they encounter morpho-syntactical oral errors in their students. For this purpose, lessons by teachers from five schools in different socio-economical areas of Santiago were observed and video recorded. The correction moves were later transcribed and analyzed using the corrective feedback models proposed by Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Lyster and Panova (2002).

There were two working hypotheses which guided our study:

- Hypothesis 1: The correction techniques used by EFL teachers depends on their experience.

- Hypothesis 2: EFL teachers with more experience in teaching use less correction techniques

In relation to our hypotheses, the results showed the following tendencies:

- Clearly, the most common type of correction feedback is Recast (24 out of 63, 40% of the examples of correction) and the least common are Translation and Repetition (6 (8%) and 3 (5%), respectively, out of 63).

- Pearson Momentum shows that there is an inverse correlation of -0.61 between years of experience and the number of types of feedback used by the teachers in this study, which in statistic terms is highly significant. This may mean that working experience correlates negatively with the number of types of corrective feedback a teacher is likely to use.

- Also, the results show that (a) recasts are the most common type of feedback throughout the 2-33 years of experience, (b) Translation increases its frequency positively (Pearson correlation r=0.7), and (c) the number of the other types of feedback tend to lower inversely over the years.

Although these results confirm our two hypotheses, it is important to consider that the results come from a small sample, hence, they are not conclusive but might show tendencies: teachers with more experience in teaching use less correction techniques. Also, most of their corrections are recasts. After a personal interview with the teachers observed, it was suggested that with years of experience senior teachers might lose their motivation about the use of different techniques and

maybe they use those which can be useful in most cases. It was also noticed that teachers tend to use the same teaching methodology and practices that they learned when they graduated, and this means they tend to deal with student errors differently. On the other hand, beginner teachers make use of more diverse correction strategies and are more aware of the importance of effective correction techniques based on state-of-the art methodology of EFL teaching.

Due to the limitations of this investigation in relation to its side and length of observation, we would like to formulate some suggestions for future research:

- Why recasts are more common and their real benefit still needs more understanding. Some authors neglect their impact (Brown 2002), but we still need further studies to make use of their potential, eliminate them from the teaching practice or continue using them.

- It would be useful to consider a similar study over a longer period of time, with the same teachers in different levels (primary or secondary). There also might be other variables that should be considered, such as the attitude of a teacher towards a group of students.

- There have been different discussions and empiric studies as to which type of error correction techniques are more useful (Brown 2002, Strake 2002). Results and conclusions have been diverse, and sometimes even contradictory. It would be interesting to study which techniques are more useful and in which settings, as students are different and have different needs.

- Another question is the attitude students have towards being corrected and how they view correction.

We would like to finish our investigation saying that few studies on effective corrective feedback have been conducted in Chile. We hope our study makes a contribution to this field. The Ministry of Education and the English Open Doors Programmed have emphasized the need to understand corrective feedback and implement effective practices that can help the learning process of EFL.

TEACHING PROPOSAL

The teaching proposal we offer according to our research is the use of various types of feedbacks in the classrooms in accordance with the English level.

Recast was the most used feedback by the selected teachers. According to the results it should be more useful for students with a low level of English. In an elementary level when is the teacher who gives the answer most of the time, students feel more comfortable with the language and also with their own learning process. It is also a very useful tool for saving time during the lessons but it does not give the opportunity to students to think and understand the new language.

The use of Metalinguistic Feedback, Elicitation, Clarification Request and Repetition can be used for teachers to students with different English levels in different environments because these types of feedbacks give the students the chance to reflect on their errors and reformulate their answers without the teacher's help. Even though in beginner levels the use is more restricted, it can be an excellent tool to make students get familiar with the new language. The use of any of these feedbacks during the English lessons demands time and as teachers we know that time is valuable so, it is important to know when to use them.

We recommend to use Translation or Explicit Correction with beginner students because they can feel self confident and more comfortable with the new language and with the teacher during the learning process. It can also be useful for advanced students when a topic is difficult and comprehension results really hard in the second language. Both feedbacks demand a short time of execution but they do not let students reflect on their errors.

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Appendix A

PERSONAL INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

I PERSONAL INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

(FOR TEACHERS)

1. Name

   _____

2. Age

   _____

3. Degree in teaching

   _____

4. Other studies

   _____

5. Years of experience

   _____

Appendix B

CLASS OBSERVATION SHEET
(Sample)

I. ELEMENTS TO BE EVALUATED

INFORMATION ABOUT THE TEACHER, CLASSROOM AND STUDENTS.

1. Place: **Liceo Oratorio don Bosco, (Científico-Humanista)**

2. Class: **8° B**

3. Date and time: **October 4th, 2011. 11:30**

4. Duration of recorded class: **45 minutes.**

5. Subject: **Idioma extranjero-Inglés.**

6. Aim of the class: **Students make comparisons using adjectives and comparatives.**

7. Classroom materials: **Whiteboard, marker, textbook.**

8. Teacher age and gender: **42 years old, female**

9. How long has the teacher been teaching English? **18 years**

10. How long did the teacher study English? **5 years**

11. Does he/she have any post graduate studies? **She made two training courses.**

12. How many students are there? **39 male students**

13. How old are the students? **13/14**   14/15   15/16   16/17

INFORMATION ABOUT ORAL FEEDBACK GIVEN

1. How many types of feedback does the teacher give to the students?

   The teacher gave 7 oral feedback.

2. What kind of oral feedback does the teacher give to the student?

   The teacher gave 5 direct feedbacks and 1 indirect feedback.

3. What technique did the teacher use to give the oral feedback?

   Recast: 2 times.

   Matalinguistic feedback: 2 times.

   Elicitation: 1 time.

   Clarification request: 1 time.

   Repetition: 2 times.

4. The oral feedback was mainly centered on:

   a) **Grammar: X**
   b) **Pronunciation: X**
   c) **Syntax: X**
   d) **Lexis (vocabulary):**

II.- Correction Moves

IIIºA

1) Time: 11:45 A.M

   Notes: The student reads a phrase from his textbook "We meet on a flight from London to Paris". The student has made a phonological error, so the teacher looks at him and says: "Ok, we met" the teacher emphasises the verb in past tense, and she says "Lo vamos a decir con solo una e" meanwhile, the student looks at the teacher in silence and nodding.

8ºB

2) Time: 11:35 A.M

   Notes: The student answers "dirty". The teacher says no word and waits for a complete answer. Another student tells to his classmate "lee la frase completa". Finally, the first student answers "My grandmother's house is dirtier than me". The teacher after listening this answer says "mine".

   Time: 11:45 A.M

   Notes: A student reads from his textbook and says "my brother is longer than me". The teacher says "Ok, what is the meaning of long?" and waits for an answer. The student hesitates a couple of seconds and says "largo?"So, the teacher says "mi hermano es mas largo que yo?" due to this question

the student remains in silence because he is not able to answer yes or no. Another student says "mi hermano es más pequeño que yo".

Time: 11:52 A.M

Notes: A student reads from his textbook and says "my brother is smaller than me, he is ten and I'm twelve". According to this answer teacher says "Ok, my brother is smaller tha me, más pequeño? Estamos hablando de edades, no usamos pequeño". After this clarification another student says, "younger" finally, the teacher repeats the correct answer "he is younger than me".

Time: 12:00 P.M

Notes: The teacher asks a student to read an exercise with the letter E. The students says "A cheetah. Faster than a". Because of the noise in the classroom the teacher is not able to hear the answer from the student and says " I cannot listen". When there is a little silence in the classroom, the student restarts the phrase and says "a cheetah is faster than a zebra". The teacher says "very good".

Appendix C

TRANSCRITP
(Sample)

School: Oratorio Don Bosco

Date: October 4th

Subject Teacher: 4

Exchange 10 (III⁰ A)

S: We [meet] on a flight from London to Paris **(phonological error).**

T: Ok… We *met* **the teacher emphasises the verb in past tense** on a flight from London to Paris **(recast)** Recuerda! Está en pasado, lo vamos a decir con solo una "e" *met* al presente diremos *meet* **(use of L1) (metalinguistic feedback)**.

Notes:

In exchange 10 the male student pronounces the verb met incorrectly. The teacher corrects the mistake immediately by recast. After that the teacher explains why the first sentences were incorrect saying: *lo vamos a decir con sólo una "e" met* ("we are going to say it with just one "e").

Exchange 11 (8⁰ B)

S1: [Dirty]

T: (( ))

S2: Lee la frase completa **(peer-repair).**

S1: My grandmother's house is dirtier than me **(grammatical error).**

T: Mine **(recast).**

In exchange 11 the student reads an exercise of comparatives from his textbook but he does not read the sentence completely mentioning just the comparative form of dirty. In the meantime the teacher waits for a full sentence. A second student warns that he should read the whole sentence, he says: *Lee la frase completa* ("Read the whole sentence"). The student reads the sentence but at the end instead of saying *mine* he says *me*. The teacher corrects the mistake by recast.

Exchange 12 (8º B)

S1: My brother is longer than me **(grammatical error).**

T: Ok. What is the meaning of long? **(Elicitation).**

S1: Long... ((   ))largo?

T: ¿MI HERMANO ES MÁS LARGO QUE YO? **(use of L1)**
(Clarification request).

S1: ((   ))

S2: Mi hermano es más pequeño que yo **(Uptake: peer-repair)**.

In exchange 12, there is a multiple feedback, the teacher asks a male student to complete a sentence with a comparative from his textbook but he answers incorrectly using the adjective long instead of young. Firstly the teacher poses the question. What is the meaning of long? The student replies *largo*. After the student's answer the teacher translates the sentence said previously, ¿Mi hermano es más largo que yo? The first student notices his error but he is incapable of correcting himself. It is another male student who gives the correct answer but in his first language L1.

Exchange 13 (8º B)

S1: My brother is smaller than me. He is ten and I am twelve **(grammatical error).**

T: Ok. My brother is smaller than me? ¿Más pequeño? Estamos hablando de edades, no usamos pequeño **(Use of L1) (Repetition-metalinguistic feedback).**

S2: younger **(Uptake: peer-repair).**

T: He is younger than me

In exchange 13, a male student reads an exercise from his textbook but says the sentence incorrectly using an inappropriate adjective. In this case the teacher's feedback is a translated repetition of the ill-formed part of the first student's utterance mixed with Metalinguistic feedback. At first the teacher asks, `My brother is smaller than me´? And then the teacher says "Estamos hablando de edades". There is a multiple feedback from the teacher simultaneously. Another student S2 partially gives a correct answer, saying younger. Finally it is the teacher who gives the complete sentence.

Exchange 14 (8º A)

T: Please letter "e" **Indicates a student to read**

S: A cheetah. faster than a.

T: I can't listen **(clarification request).**

S: A cheetah is faster than a zebra. **(Uptake: Self repair).**

T: Very good.

In exchange 14 the teacher indicates a student from the classroom to read a sentence. The teacher is not able to listen what the student says because of the noise and just hears a part of the sentence, so the teacher gives clarification request as feedback. Finally the student reads the sentence a second time but louder.

APPENDIX D: Transcript conventions

Symbol	Meaning
T	Teacher
S	Student
……	Action
?	Utterance in form of a question
((pause))	Pause that lasts 4-10 seconds
[……]	Pronunciation: written as pronounced
,	Pause, steady or rising tone of voice
.	Pause, falling tone of voice
.	In the beginning of an utterance: small pause
THIS	Speaker emphasis / louder voice

Appendix E

Application of Recording

UNIVERSIDAD CATÓLICA
SILVA HENRÍQUEZ

Salesiana

Santiago, Septiembre de 2011.

Señor:

<u>Presente</u>

Estimado Señor:

Junto con saludarlo, quisiera solicitar permiso para llevar a cabo grabaciones en dos cursos del establecimiento The Angel's School durante la asignatura de inglés que servirán como apoyo a la investigación de tesis que están realizando cinco estudiantes de la Universidad Católica Silva Henríquez (UCSH). Su tesis tiene por nombre:" A study on the Correction of Syntactical and Morphological Error in High Schools EFL Learners" y es un estudio observacional basado en las técnicas de corrección de Lyster y Ranta (2002), la cual tiene como objeto determinar qué tipo de técnicas correctivas utiliza el profesor y cuáles son las más efectivas, es decir, que logren que el alumno se dé cuenta de su error y sea capaz de modificarlo.

Para este estudio es necesario grabar a profesores de inglés de enseñanza media y para lograr su validación es imprescindible obtener varias fuentes de información, mientras más clases grabadas mejor será la muestra y análisis de la investigación.

Estaría muy agradecida si fuera tan amable de aceptar esta petición, ya que los alumnos de la UCSH necesitan de este material.

Saluda atentamente,

Tamara Iriarte Jara

Coordinadora Pedagogía en Inglés

Facultad de Educación

Universidad Católica Silva Henríquez