

EFL learner and teacher perspectives on corrective feedback and their effect on second
language learning motivation

by

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November 2013

A thesis submitted to McGill University in partial fulfillment of the requirements of
the degree of Master of Arts in Second Language Education

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There are numerous people that I would like to thank for being present at every step I have undertaken to make this work possible. First and foremost, I would like to thank my supervisor, Dr. Roy Lyster, for his brilliant guidance and constant encouragement. His vast knowledge, exceptional work, and celebrated career have been a genuine inspiration to pursue this challenging academic endeavor and it has been a true honor to do so under his supervision. I would also like to particularly thank him for the kind and generous advice he always gave me, which shows that he is not only a tremendous mentor, but also a wonderful person.

I would also like to thank José Correa and Carlos Gómez-Garibello for their valuable suggestions in terms of the statistical analysis and interpretation of this research study. Additionally, I would like to highlight the important contribution of Mrs. María Victoria Freire and Mrs. Silvia Estay, who kindly offered their help to recruit participants and motivate them to be part of this research study. To all the teachers and students who were involved in this investigation, thank you very much.

Moreover, I would like to thank my personal friends Mariona Lozano Riera and France Bourassa, who did not only emotionally support me during this process, but also provided constructive academic assistance. Thank you to all my friends here in Canada and in Chile, who have made this journey a lot gentler. Without your encouragement, I could not have found the motivation to continue.

Furthermore, I would like to thank my family, especially my parents, for always believing in me and encouraging me to pursue my dreams even when they seemed too far to reach. They have taught me that effort is the key to achieving any objective in life and that kindness is the most important virtue a person can have. Mamá, Papá, Angela, Pablo, thank you for always being there and supporting me the way you have always done.

Above all, I would like to thank the person who has been encouraging, helping, and accompanying me during this whole process: my life partner, Felipe. I have no words to express my gratitude for everything you have done and sacrificed for me in the last two years. You have been the backbone of this life project and I could not be happier to have shared this experience with you. Thank you for your unconditional love and support. I could not have done it without you.

Finally, I gratefully acknowledge the financial support throughout my studies from Chile's National Commission for Scientific and Technological Research (CONICYT) as well as the Walter A. & K. Mary Marsh Fellowship awarded to me by the McGill Faculty of Education.

ABSTRACT

The present mixed-methods research study examines the beliefs of 247 high school students and their 12 EFL teachers about corrective feedback in terms of its types, frequency, and their positive and negative attitudes towards it. The data were gathered by means of a questionnaire administered to all participants and in-depth interviews conducted with a subsample of 15 students and all 12 of the participating EFL teachers at two distinct research sites in Santiago, Chile: a private bilingual school and a semi-private institution. Teacher and learner perspectives on error correction were compared within and across schools in order to identify differences that might affect students' L2 motivation by quantitatively analyzing the questionnaire data by means of the Mann-Whitney *U* Test and by qualitatively examining the interviews through content analysis. The results revealed that in both research settings there were evident disparities between teacher and learner perspectives on corrective feedback. Whereas students expressed positive views of corrective feedback and its effectiveness as well as preferences for explicit types of correction, teachers were skeptical of its effectiveness and concerned about its effect on learners' self-confidence. Accordingly, teachers reported preferences for more implicit types of feedback. These results are discussed in terms of the potentially detrimental effects they may have on students' L2 motivation and in terms of their pedagogical implications.

RÉSUMÉ

Une démarche de méthodes mixtes a été utilisée dans cette étude qui porte sur les croyances de 247 élèves du secondaire, ainsi que leurs 12 professeurs d'anglais, langue étrangère, par rapport à la rétroaction corrective en ce qui a trait aux types, à la fréquence et aux attitudes positives et négatives que les participants pourraient avoir envers celle-ci. Les données furent recueillies à l'aide d'un questionnaire administré à tous les participants, ainsi que par l'intermédiaire d'entrevues approfondies avec un sous-échantillon composé de 15 élèves et des 12 professeurs participant à l'étude. Ces entrevues ont eu lieu à deux différents sites d'échantillonnage à Santiago au Chili : une école bilingue privée et une institution semi-privée. Les points de vue des enseignants et apprenants par rapport à la rétroaction corrective ont été comparés intra- et inter-écoles quantitativement en analysant avec le test *U* de Mann-Whitney les données obtenues du questionnaire, et qualitativement en faisant une analyse de contenu des entrevues, dans le but d'identifier les différences qui pourraient affecter la motivation en L2 des étudiants. Les tests révèlent qu'il y a dans les deux contextes de recherche des disparités évidentes entre les croyances des enseignants et des apprenants en ce qui a trait à la rétroaction corrective. Alors que les élèves expriment des points de vue positifs envers la rétroaction corrective et son efficacité, ainsi qu'une préférence pour les types explicites de correction, les professeurs doutaient de son efficacité et s'inquiétaient de ses effets sur la confiance en soi des élèves. De ce fait, les professeurs proféraient une préférence pour les types plus implicites de rétroaction. Ces résultats font l'objet d'une discussion portant autant sur les effets potentiellement néfastes qu'ils pourraient avoir sur la motivation en L2 des élèves que sur leurs implications pédagogiques.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I will discuss the rationale behind this research study which examines teacher and learner perspectives on corrective feedback and its effect on second language learning motivation. This section comprises information about the selected topic of investigation, the need for further research, and the purpose of the present study.

1. Problem Statement

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is still considered a young domain of applied linguistics which since the 1960s has contributed to understanding the process of acquiring a second or foreign language under naturalistic circumstances or through effective second language (L2) instruction (Ellis, 2005). In this field, one of the most widely researched individual factors affecting L2 learning is motivation, which has also been extensively investigated in social psychology and conceptualized as a complex phenomenon entailing dynamic individual perceptions and attitudes (Ortega, 2009).

L2 learning motivation has been described as a learner's intrinsic willingness or desire to spend time and effort in order to initiate and sustain the process of learning a new language (Ortega, 2009; Richards & Schmidt, 2002). This concept is of great importance in education and SLA since it helps explain the different degrees of L2 learning achievement among individuals (Dörnyei, 1994). Accordingly, motivation is one of the most important individual variables which might determine failure or

success in language acquisition (Dörnyei, 1994; 2005; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). Nonetheless, according to Dörnyei (2005), recent studies have shown that motivation is far from being a static variable in SLA, being constantly affected by other individual and environmental factors. One of these factors is corrective feedback, which has also been extensively explored by SLA researchers in the last two decades (Lee, 2013; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010).

Ellis et al. (2006) define corrective feedback as a teacher, peer, or native interlocutor's response to a learner's ill-formed utterance. In a seminal study carried out in French immersion classrooms in Canada, Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified six different types of corrective feedback used as common teaching strategies to help students notice the gap between their own inaccurate utterances and the correct versions of them (Sheen, 2010). Nonetheless, the effectiveness of corrective feedback also depends on a number of factors. As stated by Schachter (1991), the efficacy of corrective feedback might be affected by language features, instructional practices, and learner individual characteristics, such as motivation. Therefore, corrective feedback and motivation are certainly interrelated and both play an important role in the process of learning an L2.

Despite the fact that corrective feedback is a commonly-used teaching tool in all types of classrooms around the world, several research studies suggest that language teachers often feel confused about the use, frequency, and effectiveness of corrective feedback, due to the assumption that it might negatively affect students' self-esteem and motivation (DeKeyser, 1993; Jean & Simard, 2011; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010). However, several other studies suggest that language learners are

indeed very receptive to corrective feedback and that they would generally like to be corrected by their teachers most of the time (Jean & Simard, 2011; Lee, 2013; Schulz, 1996; 2001; Yoshida, 2008b). These results show a clear disparity between teacher and learner perspectives on corrective feedback, which might affect motivation and consequently reduce the effectiveness of error correction as a teaching and learning strategy.

Schulz (2001) states that student beliefs greatly influence motivation and that, accordingly, “teaching activities need to be perceived in the learners’ minds as conducive to learning” (p. 245). Consequently, if teachers and learners have different views about the way language errors should be corrected, motivation might be greatly affected and ultimate L2 learning jeopardized. For this reason, it is essential that teachers pay attention to learner beliefs since “mismatched objectives may lead students to perceive the teaching as deficient, and teachers to perceive their students as unmotivated or uninterested” (Jean & Simard, 2011, p. 468). Finally, taking into account that “beliefs are considered one area of individual learner differences that may influence the processes and outcomes of second/foreign language learning/acquisition (SLA)”, the disparity between teacher and learner beliefs about such an important and common strategy as corrective feedback can certainly have some detrimental effects on motivation and overall L2 learning (Kalaja & Ferreira Barcelos, 2003, p. 1).

Unfortunately, so far there are not many studies carried out with the purpose of examining the link between corrective feedback and motivation or how teacher and learner perceptions of error correction might affect students’ willingness to continue learning. This situation suggests that more research is still needed to fully comprehend

the complexity of the interrelationship between these two vital factors in L2 learning, as well as the differences or similarities between teacher and learner perspectives on corrective feedback in various second or foreign language contexts. Lastly, according to Jean and Simard (2011), studies examining learner perceptions have mainly addressed adult populations, suggesting that more research is also needed to examine the beliefs of teachers and learners in high school contexts, which is the target population of this investigation.

2. Study Purpose

In consequence, the purpose of this research study is to examine teacher and learner perspectives on corrective feedback in terms of its types, frequency, and positive and negative attitudes towards it in order to identify if there is a disparity between teacher and learner views that might have a detrimental effect on students' L2 learning motivation. In addition, as more research is needed in foreign language contexts and with teenage populations, this study involves English as a foreign language (EFL) high school students and their EFL teachers in Santiago, Chile.

In the following chapter, I will present a thorough review of the literature comprised of previous research studies examining corrective feedback, L2 learning motivation, and teacher and learner preferences of corrective feedback. I will also discuss how corrective feedback and motivation are interrelated and how this could eventually affect learners' willingness to continue learning an L2. Lastly, I will present the research questions for this particular research study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the broad discipline of Applied Linguistics, SLA researchers have constantly tried to understand and contribute to the effectiveness of instructed second or foreign language learning (Ellis, 2005). Among the topics SLA researchers have investigated in the last 60 years, second or foreign language learning motivation has been regarded as the “best researched L2 factor in the general area of conation” (Ortega, 2009, p. 168). Nonetheless, another area which has also been gaining attention in the last two decades is corrective feedback, also known as error correction or negative feedback (Lee, 2013; Sheen, 2011; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010). Accordingly, several laboratory and classroom-based studies have been carried out in order to understand to what extent these two variables influence second or foreign language learning in instructional settings, offering a set of pedagogical implications for the teaching of additional languages in diverse educational contexts (Ellis et al., 2006).

Nonetheless, not many studies have simultaneously addressed these two factors in order to understand how they interact in L2 classrooms and how they influence each other. In this section, I will discuss some of the research findings and theories which pertain to corrective feedback, L2 motivation, their interrelationship, and teacher and learner perceptions regarding the use of error correction in diverse second/foreign language settings around the world.

1. Corrective feedback in SLA

Corrective feedback, which is also known in SLA as error correction or negative feedback, has been defined as “responses to learner utterances that contain an error” (Ellis et al., 2006, p. 340). Additionally, Yoshida (2008a) describes it as “teachers’ or other learners’ responses to second language or foreign language learners’ erroneous or inappropriate products, by reformulating the forms or giving clues for corrections” (p. 525). These responses can consist of indications that an error has been made, provision of the correct form, or provision of metalinguistic information related to the nature of the language error (Ellis et al., 2006).

1.1 Effectiveness of corrective feedback

Corrective feedback has been a major topic of interest among SLA researchers during the last decade and much of the research done so far suggests that it greatly contributes to L2 learning due to the fact that it helps students notice the difference between their own ill-formed utterances and the correct ones (Li, 2010; Sheen, 2010). Moreover, Sheen (2010) argues that the effectiveness of corrective feedback lies in “its propensity for interaction to construct a zone of proximal development (where learners are assisted to perform a linguistic feature that they are not yet able to handle independently) for the learner” (p. 170). Nonetheless, she also warns that learners will be actively “involved in comparing on-line the gap between an error and a target form” only when they are cognitively ready to notice the feedback (Sheen, 2011, p.2).

Furthermore, research suggests that learner responses represent a reliable measure of the relationship between noticing corrective feedback and further L2

learning achievement (Egi, 2010). As an illustration, Lyster (2007) argues that “immersion teachers’ tendency to use random implicit feedback” might correlate with “immersion students’ developmental plateau in their communicative ability” (p. 92). This shows that the effectiveness of corrective feedback greatly depends on how it is used and that if it is not employed consistently it might have a detrimental effect on L2 learning.

In the last two decades, several meta-analyses have been carried out in order to synthesize the results of the great amount of research regarding the effectiveness of corrective feedback and explicit instruction on L2 learning (e.g., Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Norris & Ortega, 2000; Russell & Spada, 2006). The results of these four meta-analyses, which altogether comprise more than 100 unique research studies about corrective feedback and explicit versus implicit instruction, show that corrective feedback “makes a significant impact on L2 learners’ performance” (Lyster & Saito, 2010, p. 289). Furthermore, explicit instruction, which entails corrective feedback as one of its key “particular pedagogical techniques” (Norris & Ortega, 2000, p. 462) shows to be more effective than implicit instruction. In addition, Russell and Spada’s (2006) meta-analysis not only showed evident support for the effectiveness of corrective feedback for L2 learning, but also revealed that “the benefits of corrective feedback are durable” (p. 152). Therefore, corrective feedback has been regarded an essential teaching tool not only for helping students notice “target exemplars in the input, but also for consolidating emergent L2 knowledge and skills” (Lyster et al., 2013, p. 5).

In terms of the most effective type of corrective feedback, Lyster and Saito (2010) found that while all three types of corrective feedback (recasts, prompts, and explicit correction) have a positive effect on L2 learning, corrective feedback in “classroom settings may be more effective when its delivery is more pedagogically oriented (i.e., prompts) than conversationally oriented (i.e., recasts)” (p. 290). In contrast, Li (2010) found that the positive effect of implicit feedback was better maintained than that of explicit feedback. However, in his study, he classified recasts and prompts as implicit, leaving metalinguistic correction, which is a type of prompt, and explicit correction in the explicit instruction group because they “overtly indicate that the learner’s L2 output was not acceptable” (p. 323). Conversely, implicit correction does not provide an evident indication that an error has been committed (Sheen, 2011).

Additionally, Sheen (2007b) found that while explicit correction in the form of metalinguistic feedback had a positive effect on L2 learning in an intermediate communicative class with adult learners, implicit feedback, specifically recasts, was not so successful. Nonetheless, several laboratory studies have also been carried out in order to determine the effectiveness of implicit feedback on L2 learning, some of which have also yielded positive results (e.g. Han, 2002; Long et al., 1998). Thus, it seems that the effectiveness of implicit versus explicit corrective feedback greatly depends on the linguistic and individual learner characteristics of each unique learning context (Sheen, 2011).

Finally, while Lyster and Saito (2010) did not find any differences between the effectiveness of corrective feedback in second language (SL) contexts versus foreign

language (FL) contexts, Li (2010) found that studies conducted in FL contexts revealed a higher degree of effectiveness than those carried out in SL settings. This might be explained by the tendency that “learners in FL contexts have a more positive attitude toward error correction than learners in SL contexts” or that “the instructional dynamics of FL contexts might make corrective feedback more effective” (p. 344). This finding is pertinent to the present study as the research settings are located in an FL learning context, where the target language is not used outside the classroom on a regular basis.

1.2 Types of corrective feedback

One of the seminal studies in SLA about corrective feedback is Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) research, which was carried out in French immersion programs in the Montreal area with students from primary school, specifically from 4th to 6th grade. In this study, they distinguished six different types of corrective feedback: recasts, explicit correction, clarification requests, repetition of error, elicitation, and metalinguistic clues (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

1.2.1 Recasts

Extensive research has shown that recasts are one of the most frequently used types of corrective feedback in a diverse range of classrooms around the world, such as Japanese as a foreign language in Australia (Yoshida, 2010), French immersion in Canada (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), Japanese immersion in the U.S. (Lyster & Mori, 2006), or English as a second language in the U.S. (Vásquez & Harvey, 2010). Recasts have been defined as “implicit negative feedback that reformulates learners’

non-target-like utterances toward second language norms” (Egi, 2010, p. 1). Lyster and Ranta (1997) also define them as “the teacher’s reformulation of all or part the learner’s utterance, minus the error” (p. 46).

The effectiveness of recasts is considered a controversial topic in the field of SLA due to the fact that some students have difficulty in noticing and acknowledging recasts as corrective feedback, leading to limited learner uptake and ultimate L2 learning (Egi, 2010). In addition, recasts are commonly used ambiguously as confirmation checks, expansions, or corrective feedback, which might affect the way students perceive the intention of the interlocutor when a recast is delivered (Lyster, 2007). Nonetheless, recasts can also provide help with keeping students’ attention, maintaining the flow of communication, and facilitating the “delivery of complex subject matter because they provide supportive, scaffolded help” (Lyster & Mori, 2006, p. 273). Therefore, recasts have the potential to make students aware of their language errors in order to improve their L2 communicative abilities (Lyster, 2007).

1.2.2 Explicit correction

Another type of corrective feedback found in Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) study is explicit correction, which is the reformulation of the incorrect sentence as well as an indication that what the learner said was wrong. In this case, the teacher provides the correct form and also makes sure the learner identifies the language error.

1.2.3 Prompts

Finally, repetition of errors, clarification requests, elicitations and metalinguistic clues were grouped together as prompts as they do not provide the correct form, but allow the students to self-correct (Lyster, 2007). Repetition of errors are the teacher's reiterations of the learners' incorrect utterances usually adjusting intonation patterns to help students notice the error and produce the correct version of it (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Clarification requests are used by language teachers to ask students for the reformulation of their incorrect sentences, being "a feedback type that can refer to problems in either comprehensibility or accuracy, or both" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 47). Elicitation relates to various strategies teachers use to help students find the correct answer, for instance by pausing to give students the opportunity to complete the sentence, using questions to allow students to provide the correct form, or directly asking students to rephrase their utterance (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Finally, metalinguistic feedback contains metalinguistic questions or information about the accuracy of the student's utterance in terms of grammatical, lexical, or phonological features which "point to the nature of the error but attempt to elicit the information from the student" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 47).

As an illustration, Table 1 below provides an example for each type of corrective feedback found in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study.

Table 1

Corrective Feedback Types with examples (adapted from Lee, 2013, p. 2)

Corrective Feedback Types	Example
1. Explicit correction	Student: On May. Teacher: Not on May, in May. We say, "It will start in May."
2. Recast	Student: I have to find the answer on the book? Teacher: In the book
3. Clarification request	Student: What do you spend with your wife? Teacher: Sorry?
4. Metalinguistic feedback	Student: There are influence people who are successful. Teacher: Influence is a noun, you need an adjective.
5. Elicitation	Student: This tea is very warm. Teacher: It's very...? Student: Hot.
6. Repetition	Student: I will showed you. Teacher: I will SHOWED you? Student: I'll show you.

Despite the fact that there seems to be agreement on the effectiveness of corrective feedback to enhance L2 development, there is still debate about what type of corrective feedback is the most effective (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010). While recasts and explicit correction provide the correct version for the learners, which in the case of recasts is implicit, prompts do not provide students with the correct form of the utterance, suggesting that different cognitive mechanisms need to be activated in order to repair the errors (Egi, 2010).

In conclusion, as stated by Lyster and Saito (2010), “prompts withhold correct forms and instead provide clues to prompt students to retrieve these correct forms from their existing knowledge” (p. 268). In other words, prompting encourages students to resort to their own linguistic inventory to self-repair their language errors, while recasting or explicitly correcting provides correction and repair by the teacher in one single exchange, which, in the case of recasts, might not always be perceived as correction (Lyster & Saito, 2010).

2. Teacher and learner perspectives on corrective feedback

Corrective feedback is not only a controversial topic in the field of SLA, but also in second or foreign language teaching. According to Vásquez and Harvey (2010), who carried out a multiple-case study on teacher perceptions of corrective feedback partially replicating Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) study in an SLA course, teachers usually struggle with corrective feedback because it entails very complex decisions, which raise a lot of questions about its appropriateness, frequency, effectiveness and context.

Corrective feedback is an area of study in SLA that is particularly relevant for teachers, but it is also a field where there is clear disparity between research findings and teacher beliefs (Sheen, 2011; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010). While L2 educators believe that corrective feedback is an area in which they can exert some kind of control, most of them express uncertainty about what the best type of feedback is or how frequently to correct students so as not to affect their self-esteem or motivation (Vásquez & Harvey, 2010). Furthermore, while some teacher educators advise not to

“interrupt students’ efforts to communicate”, such as Truscott (1999), who has stated that teachers should be extremely cautious with the use of corrective feedback as it might produce “embarrassment, anger, inhibition, feeling of inferiority, and a generally negative attitude toward the class” (p. 441), research suggests that correcting learners immediately after they have made a mistake might have a positive cognitive effect on their L2 learning process (Sheen, 2011, p.17). Consequently, this discrepancy between research findings and teachers’ opinions causes confusion and insecurity especially in novice teachers (Vásquez & Harvey, 2010).

In the replication study conducted by Vásquez and Harvey (2010), nine L2 teachers were videotaped in their classrooms and their interactional moves with the students were coded; in addition, written journals reflecting on their teaching practice were analyzed. According to the results, the teachers initially realized that corrective feedback was essential for students to become aware of their own mistakes and enhance their L2 development, but it was only after the treatment that teachers started using corrective feedback as a teaching strategy more consistently in their classrooms, focusing on the benefits students would get from it, rather than worrying about motivation issues.

In a different exploratory study which involved 824 American FL students and their 92 teachers, Schulz (1996) examined student and teacher perceptions of grammar instruction and corrective feedback. According to this author, several applied linguists and teachers have reservations about corrective feedback due to the assumption that “it may activate the ‘affective filter’ by raising the students’ level of anxiety which, in turn, prevents the learner from actually acquiring communicative ability” (p. 344). The

supporters of this view claim that due to universal grammar, L2 learners will eventually acquire grammatical forms regardless of the type of instruction or corrective feedback. However, in this research study, Schulz (1996) found that while students might be afraid of making errors, they were surprisingly receptive to corrective feedback. Indeed, 90% of them expected to have their oral errors regularly corrected, while only 34% of their teachers agreed with that statement. These results show a notorious disparity between teacher and learners perspectives on corrective feedback, which Schulz (1996) considers an important pedagogical implication since “students whose instructional expectations are not met may consciously or subconsciously question the credibility of the teacher and/or the instructional approach in cases where corrective feedback is not provided” (p. 349).

In a follow-up study which included 607 Colombian FL students and 122 language teachers as well as the 824 students and 92 teachers who participated in the first study, Schulz (2001) intended to compare teacher and learner perspectives on the role of corrective feedback and explicit grammar instruction in two FL contexts; EFL in Colombia and German, French, Italian, Spanish, Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Russian as a foreign language in the U.S. On this occasion, she found that, while there were no significant differences between the two cultural groups, there was again “striking disagreement” between teacher and learner perspectives on corrective feedback, showing “evidence of a strong positive belief on the part of the students of both cultures that explicit grammar study and corrective feedback play a positive role in FL learning” (pp. 253-254).

In another descriptive inquiry-based study about student and teacher perspectives on different aspects of grammar instruction, Jean and Simard (2011) investigated the beliefs of 2,321 high school French as a second language (FSL) and English as a second language (ESL) students and 45 teachers in Canada. One of their main findings was that teachers prefer to correct only those mistakes that impede communication so as to not interrupt the flow of language and not to affect their students' confidence. Conversely, learners expressed that they "should get their oral errors corrected all the time" (Jean & Simard, 2011, p. 474). The results suggest that corrective feedback does not necessarily have a detrimental effect on student motivation considering that in fact "students believed even more than teachers in the value of error correction" (p. 478). However, again teacher and learner beliefs about corrective feedback seem to be completely dissimilar.

Lee (2013) carried out another study regarding teacher and learner preferences of corrective feedback in a large public university in USA. His study involved 60 graduate students with a high level of English proficiency and four native-speaker ESL teachers. Data were collected through Likert-scale questionnaires and follow-up interviews. Similarly, the results showed great inconsistency between teachers' and learners' preferences in terms of types of feedback and frequency of feedback. While students expressed that they would like to be corrected all the time, teachers did not agree with that statement and they even expressed that "they did not feel an obligation to provide corrective feedback for all the students' errors" (p.8). Regarding types of feedback, students preferred to receive immediate explicit correction, whereas teachers were more inclined to use implicit feedback and delayed correction despite the fact that they were "aware of the significance of their corrective feedback and the

effectiveness of immediate correction to correct the students' errors and improve their speech" (Lee, 2013, p.8).

In another recent study, Kaivanpanah et al. (2012) investigated the views of 154 EFL Iranian learners and 25 EFL teachers about oral corrective feedback through a questionnaire and in-depth interviews. They aimed to compare the learners' preferences among three groups with different proficiency levels, and also between students and their teachers. Results yielded significant differences between students and teachers regarding immediacy of feedback and attitudes towards peer correction. Regarding the latter, learners felt more positive about peer feedback than their teachers due to the educators' assumption that "teachers are conventionally seen as the primary source of knowledge" and that students might receive peer feedback as criticism (p.10). In terms of immediacy of feedback, whereas learners again had a positive attitude towards immediate feedback, teachers seemed concerned about "undermining learners' self-confidence and damaging their self-esteem in front of their classmates by on-the-spot correction" (p. 14). Lastly, they found that learners with a lower level of language proficiency preferred metalinguistic feedback, while highly proficient students preferred elicitation. This suggests that there are not only discrepancies between teacher and students regarding corrective feedback, but also between learners with diverse language proficiency levels.

Finally, in another classroom-based study carried out with 70 Japanese as a foreign language students in Australia, Yoshida (2008b) also examined teachers' choices and students' preferences regarding corrective feedback. In this study, teachers acknowledged that they favored recasts over prompts or explicit correction because they seemed to be less intimidating for students, which suggests that teachers use

recasts “as their social strategy for the maintenance of a supportive classroom atmosphere in order to sustain learners’ motivation” (Yoshida, 2008b, p. 89).

Nonetheless, according to Oladejo (1993) these teacher beliefs are not based on empirical evidence, which certainly affects corrective feedback choices and leaves “the opinions of learners, their preferences for error correction, and their views about different error correction procedures almost totally neglected” (p. 73).

Unfortunately, the results of these studies on teacher and learner perceptions regarding corrective feedback, where the disparity between their views is staggering, show that L2 learners’ instructional needs and opinions are not being attended to (Oladejo, 1993). Indeed, most L2 students believe that corrective feedback is beneficial for their learning and disagree with the idea that receiving correction might cause them frustration (Oladejo, 1993). Nonetheless, teachers continue to feel confused about its use despite the fact that learners seem to have a very clear idea of what they prefer.

This situation could be explained by the fact that teacher beliefs are based on subjective assumptions and therefore, they entail “complex cognitive structures that are highly individual, relatively stable, and relatively enduring”, which makes them difficult to eradicate (Grotjahn, 1991, p. 188). Furthermore, Grotjahn (1991) states that these “subjective theories” are often illogical and even contradictory (p. 192). An example of this inconsistency was found in Yoshida’s (2008b) study, which revealed that although language teachers were aware of the benefits of prompting, they preferred to use recasts in order to maintain the flow of communication and keep students engaged.

Furthermore, evidence suggests that teacher and learner beliefs “play a central role in learning experience and achievements” (Cotteral, 1999, p. 494). As stated by Riley (1996), learner beliefs represent a crucial factor in learning because they shape students’ attitudes towards the subject matter and help sustain their motivation (as cited in Cotteral, 1999, p. 495). Furthermore, Brown (2009) asserts that teacher and learner opinions certainly overlap and that this “intersection of the two belief systems has ramifications for students’ language learning and the effectiveness of instruction” (p. 46). For this reason, language teachers need to “engage in meaningful dialogue about learning with their learners” in order to recognize their beliefs and better fulfill their expectations, especially regarding error correction (Cotteral, 1999, p. 511). Finally, since “there is still major uncertainty in the profession as to the place and role of error correction in foreign language teaching and learning” (Bell, 2005, p. 267), more research in the area of teacher and learner preferences of error correction is needed in order to understand why teachers and students think so differently about giving and receiving feedback and to find strategies to conciliate their staggering disparities (Lyster et al., 2013).

3. Second language learning motivation and corrective feedback

Second or foreign language learning motivation has been widely acknowledged as one of the most influential individual factors which might determine success or failure in effectively acquiring an L2 (Dörnyei, 1994; 2005; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). In fact, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) state that even learners with the most outstanding language abilities will not be able to sustain the long process of learning a second or foreign language without genuine intrinsic motivation.

In the field of SLA, motivation has been defined as the “combination of the learner’s attitudes, desires, and willingness to expend effort in order to learn the second language” (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 343). In addition, Harmer (2007) states that the foundation of motivation comes from the desire to achieve a specific goal and that if it is strong enough, it will trigger different actions to accomplish that objective. This willingness to learn that comes from motivation has driven SLA researchers to study this phenomenon since the 1970s, when Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert first introduced the socio-educational model of L2 learning motivation, which is still considered one of the fundamental motivation theories in SLA (Ortega, 2009). In a nutshell, this model suggests that L2 development might be positively affected if the learners’ attitudes towards the L2 community are favorable (Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

Nonetheless, current SLA researchers have found that there are many other factors which might affect motivation, as many people around the world learn second or foreign languages for academic or job-related reasons which are not necessarily related to the desire to belong to the L2 community (Ortega, 2009). Additionally, motivational theories have recently moved away from explaining motivation in isolation to considering all the external factors which might explain its fluctuations as a dynamic educational and psychological phenomenon (Ortega, 2009).

Acknowledging the dynamic nature of motivation, Zoltán Dörnyei and Istvan Ottó introduced the Process Model of L2 Motivation in an attempt to address the influence of contextual factors on motivation (Dörnyei, 2005). Concisely, this motivation theory captures the evolution of learners’ motivation as they learn an L2,

which can be affected by several factors, such as their initial attitudes towards the L2, sense of achievement and autonomy, beliefs, learning strategies, classroom atmosphere, and teacher feedback (Dörnyei, 2005).

This model comprises three temporal motivational stages. The first is the preactional stage, which relates to the initial desire to learn an L2, which at the same time leads to the choice of goals the person will attempt to achieve. The second stage is called actional, in which motivation is maintained through a set of actions which go from studying the L2 to avoiding distractions that might have a negative effect on learning. Finally, the third stage is known as the postactional stage, which refers to the evaluation of the learning process after the goals have been achieved by analyzing students' past experiences and setting future learning objectives (Dörnyei, 2005).

It is in this postactional stage of the Process Model of L2 Motivation that teacher feedback is given an important role as it is expected that after receiving feedback, students will evaluate their language development and take the necessary measures to improve their linguistic performance. Nonetheless, as learners also assess their whole learning experience in this stage, if they are not satisfied with what they obtained from language instruction, which involves corrective feedback as one of its most important teaching strategies, they might get frustrated and decide not to continue pursuing their goal of learning an L2.

Moreover, Dörnyei (2005) also explains that all of these factors which are found along the Process Model of L2 Motivation can interact with each other at different stages as they “do not necessarily exclude each other, but can be valid at the

same time” (p. 86). Therefore, as corrective feedback is one of the most commonly-used teaching strategies and it is present throughout the learning process, it might affect motivation at any point of these three motivational stages, especially if the learners’ objectives are not met because of insufficient or inefficient error correction.

Moreover, in a previous study carried out by Dörnyei and Csizér (1998), 200 Hungarian language teachers were asked to rank a selection of 51 teaching strategies they considered essential in order to motivate students. One of these strategies that Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) classified as a “teacher-specific motivational component” was teacher feedback (p. 207). Teacher feedback in this study is seen as an influential factor on the “direct socialization of student motivation,” which is defined as the ability to stimulate learners’ motivation and self-confidence (p. 211). According to Dörnyei (1994), consistent feedback is essential to maintaining L2 motivation as it “carries a clear message about the teacher's priorities and is reflected in the students' motivation” (p. 278). Nonetheless, he also advises not to overreact to language errors, but rather to focus on the students’ L2 achievements (Dörnyei, 1994).

Finally, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) carried out another study which examined the relationship between teacher motivational strategies and students’ L2 motivation. They collected data through a self-report questionnaire for students and an observation instrument called the motivation orientation of language teaching (MOLT) for teachers. In this instrument, they included a section called “encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation,” which comprised descriptors of corrective feedback, particularly prompts (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008, p. 57). Their results showed that there is a significant correlation between learner L2 motivation and teacher

motivational strategies, which indirectly suggests that corrective feedback might have certain effect on L2 learning motivation. All in all, the Process Model of L2 Motivation, along with other research findings, is the most recent motivational theory which addresses the relevance of corrective feedback as an influential external factor on the learners' intrinsic desire to continue learning an L2.

One of the very few studies that indirectly linked motivation and corrective feedback is DeKeyser's (1993) quasi-experimental study, which examined the effect of error correction on L2 grammar and oral performance in order to "assess the efficiency of oral correction as a function of the students' individual characteristics of aptitude, motivation, anxiety and previous achievement" (p. 501). The participants of DeKeyser's (1993) study were 35 learners of French whose first language was Dutch and who went through a ten-month treatment in Belgium, where one of the groups received constant corrective feedback while the other did not. One of the findings of this research study regarding corrective feedback and motivation showed that students with low motivation had better results on oral accuracy and fluency after receiving constant feedback. This finding suggests that there is a correlation between corrective feedback and individual factors, such as motivation, which might directly affect the effectiveness of L2 instruction.

In conclusion, several research studies have shown that there is a notorious gap between teacher and learner beliefs about corrective feedback, not only about its best type according to each context, but also about frequency (Jean & Simard, 2011; Kaivanpanah et al., 2012; Lee, 2013; Oladejo, 1993; Schulz, 1996; 2001; Yoshida, 2008b; 2010). The main issue with this situation is that such disparities between

teacher and learner perspectives “can have negative effects on instructional outcomes” due to the fact that students might start questioning the credibility of the instructional setting where corrective feedback is not consistent (Schulz, 1996, p. 349).

Furthermore, this lack of consistency may have a detrimental effect on learners’ motivation, which consequently affects the time and effort spent in L2 learning (Jean & Simard, 2011; Schulz, 1996; 2001). Accordingly, Kaivanpanah et al. (2012) advise language teachers to ask learners about their beliefs since “there is likely to be a relationship between learners’ preferences in the classroom and the effectiveness of learning” (p. 17). Therefore, if L2 teachers acknowledge that learner beliefs influence motivation or the desire to continue learning, then educators should also pay attention to what students have to say in order to find orientation, consistency, and awareness (Oladejo, 1993; Schulz, 2001).

In addition, several researchers have acknowledged that corrective feedback and motivation are interrelated as they interact at different stages of the learning process, hopefully facilitating the acquisition of the target language (DeKeyser, 1993; Dörnyei, 2005; Jean & Simard, 2011; Schulz, 1996; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010). As an illustration, in DeKeyser’s (1993) study, students with low extrinsic motivation did better on “oral accuracy and oral fluency post-test measures after systematic error correction” (p. 511). This finding refuted his original hypothesis in which he stated that students with low motivation would take corrective feedback as criticism and would not benefit from it as much as students with high motivation, confirming that corrective feedback does have an effect on students’ L2 motivation (DeKeyser, 1993).

Nevertheless, due to the lack of research in this particular area, teachers still feel confused about the use and frequency of corrective feedback since it might affect students' willingness to continue learning, which in language teaching is a key factor to successful L2 acquisition. In DeKeyser's (1993) words, "one of the questions that language teachers most often ask second language researchers is what to do about error correction" (p. 501). For this reason, this study aims to determine not only what type of feedback or frequency of feedback teachers and learners prefer in a specific EFL context, but also to examine teacher and learner positive and negative attitudes towards error correction in order to identify any differences in their preferences that might affect students' motivation, and to what extent they do.

4. Research Questions

In the present research study, I intend to explore Chilean EFL teacher and learner perspectives on corrective feedback in terms of its types and frequency and their positive and negative attitudes towards it. Accordingly, I aim to answer the following research questions:

4.1 Research Question 1

Are there significant differences between teacher and learner preferences of corrective feedback within and across two different EFL instructional settings in Chile? Regarding:

- Types of corrective feedback
- Frequency of corrective feedback
- Positive attitudes towards corrective feedback

- Negative attitudes towards corrective feedback

4.2 Research Question 2

What types of feedback do EFL teachers and students prefer depending on the type of error students make (grammatical, phonological, lexical)?

4.3 Research Question 3

To what extent do teacher and learner perspectives on corrective feedback affect L2 learning motivation?

In the next chapter, I will present the methodological aspects of this investigation, which include information about the participants, the research settings, the instruments, the data collection, and data analysis.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

In terms of the methodology of this study, this section comprises detailed information about the research setting, the participants, the types of data collected, the methods implemented to gather it, and its further analysis. Additionally, I will discuss ethical considerations related to the selection of the participants and their involvement in this investigation.

1. Research Settings

1.1 Private bilingual school

This research study was carried out in two notably distinct schools in Santiago, Chile. One of these research sites was a highly recognized private bilingual school where only English is permitted to be spoken in and outside the classrooms. Most students who attend this school go through an English immersion program from grade one to six. Once they enter middle school, students start having more lessons taught in their mother tongue (Spanish), although they continue to have approximately 12 to 20 45-minute periods of English lessons per week depending on the grade level until they finish high school. Since in this school EFL teachers speak English at all times, corrective feedback is always provided using the target language.

This type of educational institution is not common in Chile. Indeed, there are only a few bilingual schools which are typically oriented to attract students from a more privileged social segment. In addition, in the private educational sector, school

authorities have the right to adjust the national curriculum to suit the needs of their student population. Therefore, even though these schools need to follow some national educational policies and cover the “Contenidos Mínimos Obligatorios” (Minimum Obligatory Contents) stipulated by the Ministry of Education, they are entitled to design their own curriculum after fulfilling these basic requirements.

Regarding the type of English lessons taught in this private school, their main objective is to prepare learners to pass Cambridge ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) examinations, such as the Preliminary English Test (PET), which is taken by all students in 8th grade, and the First Certificate in English (FCE), taken by all senior-year students. Since these international examinations assess the four language skills, English is taught through theme-based units with an emphasis on accuracy and fluency. Apart from English language lessons, students also have a reading class in which they read and discuss novels in the target language. Finally, the number of students per English classroom is approximately 20 from 8th grade on.

In 2010, the Chilean Ministry of Education implemented a new policy which mandates that all students in 11th grade from all high schools in Chile take the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) Bridge developed by the English Testing Service (ETS). This test only assesses reading and listening comprehension. According to the results of this test published in 2011, this private school was placed among the first 20 Chilean high schools with the best scores, reaching the level B1 under the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). This means that the average level of English proficiency among students is intermediate,

which is the highest level that can be achieved in this specific international English test (Ministerio de Educación, 2012b).

1.2 Semi-private school

The second research site is a semi-private school which receives students from one of the largest districts in Santiago. Semi-private schools are partly financed by the Ministry of Education, the district municipality, and monthly fees paid by the parents. This school attracts students from a lower-middle-class background, who receive approximately six 45-minute periods of English lessons per week since kindergarten. In this particular context, EFL teachers do not always use the target language as the main language of instruction, thus, corrective feedback may be delivered in Spanish, as well as English.

This school represents the type of semi-private educational institution the majority of the Chilean population attends. In fact, according to the official figures published by the Chilean Ministry of Education on their 2010 Public Declaration, 49.7% of the Chilean student population goes to semi-private schools, 42.1% to public ones, and only 6.7% to private institutions (Ministerio de Educación, 2012a).

Regarding how English is taught in this particular school, there is a strong focus on grammar and receptive skills, but very few instances to develop written production or oral fluency. The average number of students per classroom is 45, however, in 11th and 12th grade students are divided into specialized courses according to their area of interest. In case students choose Humanities as their specialization, they have an extra English course in which they develop oral fluency. These optional

courses are comprised of approximately 28 students. Nonetheless, according to the results of the evaluation implemented by the Ministry of Education, this school only reached the A2 level, which means that students in general have an elementary level of English proficiency (Ministerio de Educación, 2012b).

The rationale behind having two different research settings is the comparison of teacher and learner views within and across schools. The objective is to detect if their preferences concerning corrective feedback vary according to the amount of English lessons they have and the amount of language input to which students are exposed.

2. Participants

This study involved 247 Chilean EFL learners and their 12 EFL teachers from two different schools in Santiago, Chile. Of these participants, 122 students and 10 teachers belonged to the private school, whereas 125 students and 2 teachers belonged to the semi-private one.

2.1 EFL Students

The sample comprised students from 8th to 11th grade (13 to 17 years old) whose first language was Spanish, but most of whom had had English lessons since kindergarten with different degrees of exposure to the target language. Regarding socio-economical background, most of the students from the private bilingual school came from privileged upper-middle-class families, while the students from the semi-private school came from a lower-middle-class sector. These participants were selected through cluster sampling as they belonged to 15 intact classes; 4 from the semi-private

school and 9 from the private one (see Table 2 for distribution of students according to grade level).

Table 2

Distribution of students per grade level

	Private School	Semi-private School
N° of Sts Grade 8	61	34
N° of Sts Grade 9	29	37
N° of Sts Grade 10	32	24
N° of Sts Grade 11	0	30
Total	122	125

2.2 EFL Teachers

Regarding the 12 EFL teachers, 10 were Chilean, whose mother tongue was Spanish, but had an advanced level of English proficiency, and two were American, who were English native speakers. The two American teachers worked for the private institution along with eight Chilean colleagues. Therefore, both teachers at the semi-private school were also Chilean. All 12 EFL teachers were women.

The participants' years of teaching experience ranged from 1 to 22 and the average was 14.04 years (see Table 3). They were all qualified EFL/ESL teachers, who had either a Bachelor of Education degree with concentration in Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) or a Teaching of English as a Second Language (TESL) certificate. Additionally, two of the teachers from the private school had a Masters' degree related to education. Finally, as all of the teachers from the bilingual school felt comfortable speaking English, they were interviewed in this language.

However, even though teachers from the semi-private school speak English regularly, they preferred to be interviewed in Spanish.

Table 3

EFL teachers' years of teaching experience

Teacher	Institution	Years of Experience
1	Private School	22
2	Private School	22
3	Private School	3.5
4	Private School	16
5	Private School	1
6	Private School	20
7	Private School	20
8	Private School	10
9	Private School	20
10	Private School	6
11	Semi-private School	20
12	Semi-private School	8

3. Procedures

3.1 Design

This research study is a concurrent embedded mixed methods study, which entails “one data collection phase, during which both quantitative and qualitative data are collected simultaneously” (Creswell, 2009, p. 228). This type of mixed methods approach also has a primary method for collecting data and a secondary one to support it. In this case, there is a primary focus on quantitative data, which were collected through two questionnaires (one for learners and one for teachers) especially designed for this study. As the students in this study greatly outnumber teachers and the implementation of a questionnaire would not be sufficient to draw generalizations, a

secondary qualitative method was needed. These were in-depth focus-group interviews with volunteer teachers and students which served to complement and deepen questionnaire responses. In the case of the students who volunteered to be interviewed, the EFL teachers asked for the participation of a maximum of two volunteers per classroom in order to have at least one student representative from each intact class and not to interfere with the regular academic activities of the group. In the case of the EFL teachers, all of them volunteered to take part in the interviews. Therefore, the total number ($n = 12$) of EFL teachers involved in this research study were interviewed.

3.2 Data Collection

The data collection took place in December 2012, which corresponds to the end of the school year in Chile, and it lasted three weeks. Nevertheless, the letters for school authorities were sent six months in advance and the consent forms for parents were delivered at the two schools three weeks before the administration of the questionnaires and interviews. The consent forms were sent to parents and collected by the 12 EFL teachers in both schools.

Additionally, EFL teachers were in charge of administering the questionnaire in each of their classrooms. Nonetheless, school authorities and homeroom teachers from both schools also helped motivate students to participate in the study and to implement the questionnaire. The questionnaire administration took approximately 20 minutes; 5 minutes for instructions and 15 for answering and collecting them. The role of the researcher was to ensure that every student understood the instructions and to collect

all of the questionnaires once answered. As compensation, students received a piece of candy and an institutional pen from McGill University.

Four in-depth focus-group interviews were carried out one week after the administration of the questionnaire. The two student interviews were conducted in their respective schools, outside the classrooms in a separate school office and they took approximately 30 minutes. Seven students from the semi-private school participated in the in-depth interview, whereas eight students participated in the private one. The interviews with teachers were carried out in their respective staff rooms and lasted approximately 40 minutes in the semi-private school with only two teachers and 1 hour and 40 minutes in the private school with ten teachers. Three of the four group interviews were carried out in Spanish, except for the interview with teachers from the private school, who preferred to use English. As compensation, both teachers and students received a piece of candy and a McGill library bag for participating in the interviews.

4. Instrumentation

4.1 Questionnaires

Considering that in the related literature there is no standardized instrument intended to collect data about teacher and learner perceptions of corrective feedback in terms of its types, frequency, and effect on motivation, I have especially designed two questionnaires for this study: one for learners and one for teachers. Some of the questions in these two instruments were inspired by Jean and Simard (2011) and Schulz (1996; 2001), who also developed questionnaires in order to examine teacher

and learner preferences for corrective feedback. Nonetheless, their studies also aimed to examine teacher and learner preferences for grammar instruction, which is not the focus of the present investigation. Finally, these two questionnaires were designed in English and Spanish, but administered in Spanish with both EFL teachers and students in order to avoid any linguistic interference.

Both questionnaires consist of two parts. The first section comprises 15 Likert-scale questions designed to collect information about student and teacher preferences regarding (a) types of corrective feedback, (b) frequency of correction, as well as (c) positive and (d) negative attitudes towards corrective feedback. Therefore, each first part of the questionnaire has four constructs with three to four questions addressing a specific focus (see Table 4). These questions were formulated as statements so that students and teachers could express to what extent they agree or disagree with them in a five-point scale in the Likert format: strongly agree (5), agree (4), neutral (3), disagree (2), and strongly disagree (1). Finally, each statement was adjusted to address either student or teacher preferences (see Table 5 for an example of one of these statements).

Table 4

Questionnaire part 1: Constructs per Likert-scale question

Question	Construct	Focus
1	Type of feedback	Explicit feedback
2	Type of feedback	Recast
3	Type of feedback	Prompt
4	Type of feedback	Metalinguistic clues
5	Frequency of feedback	Always
6	Frequency of feedback	Sometimes
7	Frequency of feedback	Never
8	Positive attitude	Awareness
9	Positive attitude	General benefit
10	Positive attitude	Effectiveness
11	Positive attitude	Helpfulness
12	Negative attitude	Embarrassment
13	Negative attitude	Frustration
14	Negative attitude	Interruption
15	Negative attitude	Rejection

Table 5

Likert-scale question 1: Example of student and teacher versions

Language	Question 1 Student	Question 1 Teacher
English	I like it when my teacher explicitly tells me I made a mistake and gives me the correct version of what I said.	I like to explicitly tell my students when they make a mistake and give them the correct version of what they said.
Spanish	Me gusta cuando mi profesor(a) me dice explícitamente que me equivoqué y me da la versión correcta de lo que dije.	Me gusta decirle explícitamente a mi alumno que se equivocó y darle la versión correcta de lo que dijo.

The second part of the questionnaire contains four multiple-choice questions intended to determine the type of corrective feedback students and teachers prefer according to different types of error (grammatical, phonological, lexical) and a fourth question which also addresses the type of prompt they prefer (elicitation, repetition,

clarification request, metalinguistic information) (see Table 6 for an example). In this section of the questionnaires, the respondents were instructed to select only one answer per question. The answers to the first three questions described three different types of feedback (explicit feedback, recasts, prompts) and the answers to the last question described the four types of prompt (metalinguistic cues, clarification, elicitation, repetition). The results of this multiple choice section also served to confirm the data gathered through the Likert-scale questions (see complete questionnaires in Appendix A for students and Appendix B for teachers).

Table 6

Multiple choice question 1: Example of student and teacher versions

Language	Question 1 Student	Question 1 Teacher
English	<p>1. When I am speaking English and I make a grammar mistake, such as “he have a car”, I would like my teacher to correct me by:</p> <p>a) Saying “he has a car” after me without telling me she/he is correcting me.</p> <p>b) Telling me that “he have” is wrong and that the correct version is “he has”.</p> <p>c) Asking me “could you say that again?” so that I can correct myself.</p>	<p>1. When my students are speaking English and they make a grammar mistake, such as “he have a car”, I like to correct them by:</p> <p>a) Saying “he has a car” after them without mentioning I am correcting them.</p> <p>b) Telling them that “he have” is wrong and that the correct version is “he has”.</p> <p>c) Asking them “could you say that again?” so that they can correct themselves.</p>
Spanish	<p>1. Cuando estoy hablando inglés y cometo un error gramatical como “he have a car”, me gustaría que mi profesor(a) me corrigiera:</p> <p>a) Diciendo “he has a car” después de mi sin hacerme saber que me está corrigiendo.</p> <p>b) Diciéndome que “he have” es incorrecto y que la versión correcta es “he has”.</p> <p>c) Pidiéndome repetir la frase para autocorregirme.</p>	<p>1. Cuando mis alumnos están hablando inglés y cometen un error gramatical como “he have a car”, me gusta corregirlos:</p> <p>a) Diciendo “he has a car” después de ellos sin hacerles saber que los estoy corrigiendo.</p> <p>b) Diciéndoles que “he have” es incorrecto y que la versión correcta es “he has”.</p> <p>c) Pidiéndoles repetir la frase para que se autocorrijan.</p>

4.1.1 Piloting

As it was the first time these questionnaires were administered, they were piloted at one of the research sites with a group of 35 students four months before the actual implementation so as to receive constructive feedback and validation. The administration lasted 15 minutes in total, including time for a short introduction and instructions. The students seemed to be receptive to it and reported that they did not have any difficulty understanding the questions. After this preliminary piloting and the descriptive analysis of the results, it was observed that there was consistency between students' preferences in the first part and the second part of the questionnaire.

As a result of the piloting, the order of the questions in the first part was altered as well as the wording of two of the alternatives in the multiple-choice section of the questionnaire. Additionally, one question in the Likert-scale part was removed as it was repetitive.

4.2 Interview Protocols

In order to complement the primary quantitative data source, post-questionnaire focus-group interviews were carried out at the two research sites with volunteer participants. These interviews were semi-structured and consisted of 11 guiding questions for teachers (see Appendix C) and nine for students (see Appendix D). The content of the questions focused primarily on the effect that corrective feedback had on the students' motivation. Nonetheless, the interviews also provided information to confirm teacher and student preferences regarding type and frequency of corrective feedback. Therefore, all the guiding interview questions were inspired by the student

and teacher questionnaires and the research questions of the present research study. All interviews were audio taped and then transcribed for analysis. Finally, as three of the four focus-group interviews were carried out in Spanish, these were translated into English.

5. Data Analysis

The data collected through the questionnaires were analyzed by means of descriptive and inferential statistics. The first part of the questionnaire, which corresponds to the 15 Likert-scale questions, was analyzed via the Mann-Whitney *U* test, which is the non-parametric equivalent of a *t* test (Field, 2005). This test is employed to “look for differences between two independent samples” by comparing the mean ranks, especially when dealing with ordinal data that is not normally distributed (Field, 2005, p. 737). The mean ranks are obtained once the scores from both groups have been ranked from lower to higher in an ordinal scale. Additionally, the Mann-Whitney test “takes into consideration the central tendency, as well as the distribution of scores for both groups” and since it is a non-parametric test, the assumption of normality or homogeneity of variance does not need to be met (Hinkle et al., 2003, p. 575). Nonetheless, as the difference between sample sizes of students (247) versus teachers (12) is vast, a Bonferroni post hoc analysis was needed in order to adjust the *p* values and thus control Type I error (Field, 2005). In the present study, the *p* value was set at the 0.5 level of significance.

The second part of the questionnaire, which consisted of multiple-choice questions, was descriptively analyzed by means of frequency distributions. This is a

form of data tabulation that indicates the number of times participants choose one of the three or four possible answers on the multiple-choice section (Hinkle et al., 2003).

Finally, the in-depth interviews were analyzed firstly by the use of coding in order to prepare the data for content analysis and, thus, identify the main emerging themes for further interpretation. The coding process involved labeling recurrent words and ideas that were common to all four interviews as they emerged from reading, and making notes in order to keep record of some early interpretations. Following this, the content analysis entailed a thorough comparison of the main ideas found in the four interviews. More specifically, the interviews were compared between students from the two schools, between teachers from the two schools, between teachers and students from each of the two research sites, and finally, between the complete sample of teachers and the entire sample of students. Based on this analysis, the most important and recurrent themes were categorized and interpretations were made emphasizing differences and similarities between the group samples.

6. Ethical Considerations

Before accessing the research site in order to collect data for this mixed-methods study, several ethical considerations needed to be taken into account. Firstly, as the participants were EFL students under the age of 18, consent forms had to be sent and signed by their parents or legal guardians prior to the data-collection process in order to fulfil the requirements established by the McGill Research Ethics Board (REB) (see Appendix E for consent form). Additionally, the confidentiality of the data and anonymity of the students as well as the teachers was protected at all times.

The following chapter will comprise a detailed description of the results found in this investigation by means of the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data collected through the questionnaires and in-depth interviews.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

In this chapter, I will present the results of the quantitative and qualitative data analysis in this mixed-methods study. The quantitative data were gathered through 15 Likert-scale questions and four multiple-choice items, which correspond to the first and second part of the two questionnaires specially designed for this investigation.

In addition, I will discuss the main themes found in the in-depth semi-structured interviews conducted with students and teachers from both schools. Nonetheless, although this section will comprise brief comments on the principal findings, these will be further interpreted and explained in the discussion following this chapter.

1. Quantitative analysis: Likert-scale questions

The first part of the student and teacher questionnaires consisted of 15 Likert-scale questions which addressed: four different types of corrective feedback (explicit correction, recasts, prompts, and metalinguistic feedback); three ranges of frequency of feedback (always, sometimes, never); four positive attitudes (awareness, general benefit, effectiveness, helpfulness) and four negative attitudes (embarrassment, frustration, interruption, rejection) towards feedback. Each one of these questions was formulated as a statement so that students and teachers could determine to what extent they agreed or disagreed with them by means of a five-point Likert scale. This scale went from strongly disagree (1) and disagree (2), with a neutral (3) component, to agree (4) and strongly agree (5).

These 15 Likert-scale questions were analyzed by means of a Mann-Whitney U test in order to identify significant statistical differences between the groups. This test was used to compare results between students from the private school ($n = 122$) and the semi-private one ($n = 125$) and between the total number of teachers ($n = 12$) and the total number of students ($n = 247$). Differences between teachers from both schools could not be identified by means of this test as the number of teachers from the semi-private school ($n = 2$) was too low to be considered a group comparable to the group of teachers from the private institution ($n = 10$). Nonetheless, differences between teachers from both schools were dealt with qualitatively via the in-depth interviews. Finally, a Bonferroni correction was computed to adjust all p values, including comparisons between students from both schools and between students and teachers.

1.1 Comparison of preferences between students

1.1.1 Preferences for types of feedback

The results shown in Table 7, which corresponds to the comparison of student responses from the two different schools, indicate that there are no significant differences between students from the private and semi-private institution regarding types of feedback. Nonetheless, the mean ranks corresponding to students from the semi-private school appear to be higher than the ones from students in the private school in all feedback types, which might be an indication that, in general, the students from the semi-private school agreed more with all types of corrective feedback than the students from the private institution.

Table 7

Comparison of preferences for types of feedback between students

Type of Feedback	Mean Rank Private School	Mean Rank Semi-private School	<i>U</i> value	<i>p</i> value
Explicit	113.62	134.13	6359.00	.22
Recasts	114.09	133.67	6416.50	.40
Prompts	112.78	134.95	6256.00	.18
Metalinguistic	118.13	129.73	6908.50	1.00

1.1.2 Preferences for frequency of feedback

In terms of frequency of feedback, the results yielded no significant differences between students from both schools (see Table 8). Yet, again the mean ranks of students from the semi-private school are higher than the ones from students who attend the private school in two of the three descriptors for frequency of feedback (always and sometimes). Conversely, the mean rank in the last descriptor (never) was higher for students from the private school, which might be a sign of a negative response towards feedback, as they apparently prefer to be never corrected more than students from the semi-private school.

Table 8

Comparison of preferences for frequency of feedback between students

Frequency of Feedback	Mean Rank Private School	Mean Rank Semi-private School	<i>U</i> value	<i>p</i> value
Always	112.66	135.07	6241.00	.12
Sometimes	115.79	132.02	6623.00	1.00
Never	125.70	122.34	7417.00	1.00

1.1.3 Positive attitudes towards corrective feedback

In this specific section of the questionnaire, results yielded significant differences for two of the four questions related to positive attitudes towards corrective feedback (see Table 9). Specifically, students differed in their appreciation of the effectiveness of corrective feedback ($U = 5230.50$, $p < .001$) and its helpfulness to identify weak areas in their language development ($U = 6098.00$, $p = .04$). This finding suggests that students from the private institution, while still positive towards feedback, might feel less optimistic about how much corrective feedback enhances their L2 learning.

Table 9

Comparison of positive attitudes towards corrective feedback between students

Positive Attitudes	Mean Rank Private School	Mean Rank Semi-private School	U value	p value
Awareness	117.02	130.82	6773.00	1.00
General benefit	116.14	131.68	6665.50	.39
Effectiveness	104.37	143.16	5230.50	< .001
Helpfulness	111.48	136.22	6098.00	.04

1.1.4 Negative attitudes towards corrective feedback.

Finally, concerning the comparison of negative attitudes between students from both schools, the results yielded significant differences in the question which addresses how interrupted students feel when receiving error correction ($U = 5774.00$, $p = .01$) (see Table 10). In this particular case, students from the private school seem to agree more with the feeling of interruption caused by corrective feedback than students from the semi-private school, which might be suggestive of learners from the private

institution being predominantly more sensitive to immediate correction. Furthermore, all mean ranks from students attending the private bilingual institution are higher, which denotes that these students might have a slightly enthusiastic attitude towards corrective feedback in general.

Table 10

Comparison of negative attitudes towards corrective feedback between students

Negative Attitudes	Mean Rank Private School	Mean Rank Semi-private School	<i>U</i> value	<i>p</i> value
Embarrassment	124.75	123.26	7533.00	1.00
Frustration	131.45	116.72	6715.50	1.00
Interruption	139.17	109.19	5774.00	.01
Rejection	128.19	119.91	7113.50	1.00

1.2 Comparison of preferences between students and teachers

As there are only a few significant differences between students from both schools, which exclusively pertained to positive and negative attitudes towards corrective feedback, in this specific analysis, they have been grouped together ($n = 247$) in order to compare their preferences to that of their EFL teachers ($n = 12$). Similarly to the previous analysis, a Bonferroni correction was computed to adjust all p values and avoid Type I error due to the difference in sample sizes.

1.2.1 Preferences for types of feedback

As to the four types of corrective feedback addressed in the first four questions, the results showed significant differences between teacher and student preferences regarding explicit correction ($U = 759.00$, $p = .03$) (see Table 11). On the one hand,

students appear to prefer this feedback type over any other kind. In fact, they ranked explicit correction in the first place, followed by metalinguistic feedback, prompts, then finally recasts, which might indicate that students from both schools have a preference for explicit corrective feedback, either in the form of explicit correction or metalinguistic cues. On the other hand, teachers ranked explicit correction in the last place, which might denote that teachers feel less comfortable providing explicit feedback and give more emphasis to implicit feedback, which was ranked first, in the form of recasts. Finally, even though the results only show significant differences in one type of feedback, the order in which these four types of feedback were ranked by teachers and students is completely inversed.

Table 11

Comparison of preferences for types of feedback between students and teachers

Type of Feedback	Mean Rank Teachers	Mean Rank Students	<i>U</i> value	<i>p</i> value
Explicit	69.75	132.93	759.00	.03
Recasts	173.92	127.87	955.00	.48
Prompts	173.25	127.90	963.00	.52
Metalinguistic	96.29	131.64	1077.50	.12

1.2.2 Preferences for frequency of feedback

As shown in Table 12, there is statistical difference between student and teacher preferences for frequency of feedback in two of the descriptors. This indicates that while students would rather be corrected every time they make a mistake (always) ($U = 253.50, p < .001$), teachers prefer to only correct those mistakes that impede communication (sometimes). Regarding never receiving correction, students and teachers differ again ($U = 760.00, p < .001$); however, in this case teachers disagree

with this statement more than students, which might suggest that even though teachers do not like to correct students all the time, they are aware of the detrimental effect that the absence of correction would have on the learners' language development.

Table 12

Comparison of preferences for frequency of feedback between students and teachers

Frequency of Feedback	Mean Rank Teachers	Mean Rank Students	<i>U</i> value	<i>p</i> value
Always	25.96	135.05	233.50	< .001
Sometimes	167.33	128.19	1034.00	1.00
Never	190.17	127.08	760.00	< .001

1.2.3 Positive attitudes towards corrective feedback

While teachers and students seem to have an overall positive attitude towards error correction, they appear to think differently about the effectiveness of corrective feedback ($U = 555.00, p < .001$) (see Table 13). The results revealed that teachers agree less with the assertion that, when receiving correction, students feel that they learn more. In contrast, students appear to have a more favourable opinion about the same statement. This might suggest that teachers feel less optimistic about the effectiveness of error correction than their students and that, while students are more certain about the positive effect that error correction has on their language learning process, teachers might not see it as evidently.

Table 13

Comparison of positive attitudes towards corrective feedback between students and teachers

Positive Attitudes	Mean Rank Teachers	Mean Rank Students	<i>U</i> value	<i>p</i> value
Awareness	108.17	131.06	1220.00	1.00
General benefit	87.54	132.06	972.50	1.00
Effectiveness	52.75	133.75	555.00	< .001
Helpfulness	77.92	132.53	857.00	.12

1.2.4 Negative attitudes towards corrective feedback

As shown in Table 14, the results yielded significant differences for one of the items regarding negative attitudes towards error correction, specifically addressing rejection of corrective feedback ($U = 776.50$, $p = .01$). Similarly, in this case, teachers seem to have a less favourable impression of how their students feel when receiving correction.

Table 14

Comparison of negative attitudes towards corrective feedback between students and teachers

Negative Attitudes	Mean Rank Teachers	Mean Rank Students	<i>U</i> value	<i>p</i> value
Embarrassment	151.13	128.97	1228.50	1.00
Frustration	154.71	128.80	1185.50	1.00
Interruption	166.63	128.22	1042.50	.36
Rejection	188.79	127.14	776.50	.01

2. Quantitative analysis: Multiple choice questions

The second part of the questionnaire consisted of four multiple choice questions aimed at identifying teacher and learner preferences for types of corrective feedback according to different error categories; grammatical, phonological, and lexical, and also at confirming the results of the first part of the questionnaire. These questions targeted common mistakes Spanish speakers make when speaking English. The first three questions had three answers participants could choose from that described the way that specific error would be corrected by means of explicit correction, recasting, or prompting. The last question had four alternatives describing different types of prompt.

These four questions were analyzed by means of frequency distributions expressed in percentages. Moreover, similarly to the analysis carried out in Schulz's (2001) study, "discrepancies in agreement" (p. 246) were computed by subtracting the groups' ratings. In this specific analysis, both groups of students were condensed as their preferences were prominently similar. Therefore, the results presented in this section correspond to the comparison of preferences between the total number of students from both schools ($n = 247$) and the total number of EFL teachers ($n = 12$).

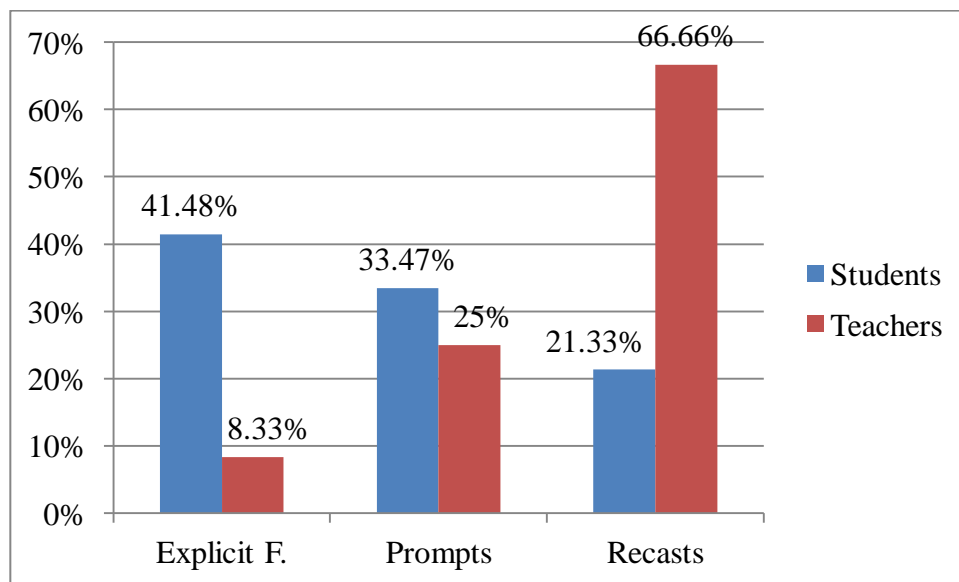
2.1 Grammatical error

As seen in Figure 1, teacher and learner order of preferences regarding the type of feedback they would rather give and receive when facing a grammatical mistake is extremely dissimilar. While teachers give evident priority to recasts (66.66%), followed by prompts (25%) and finally explicit correction (8.33%), students' order of

preferences is completely inversed, favouring explicit correction (41.48%) over prompts (33.47%) and recasts (21.33%). As a result, the largest discrepancy of agreement between students and teachers corresponds to recasts (45.33%), followed by explicit correction (33.15%), and finally by prompts (8.47%). These results confirm the findings of the first part of the questionnaire in which statistical significant differences were found regarding teacher and learner preferences for types of feedback, specifically in terms of explicit correction. Even though in this question the largest difference was found in their preferences for recasts, the disparity between learner and teacher views is evident, especially when observing the order of preferences, which is absolutely contrary.

Figure 1

Grammatical error: Preferences for types of feedback



2.2 Phonological error

In regards to teacher and learner preferences for type of feedback in a phonological error, the results show that again there is disparity between their views (see Figure 2).

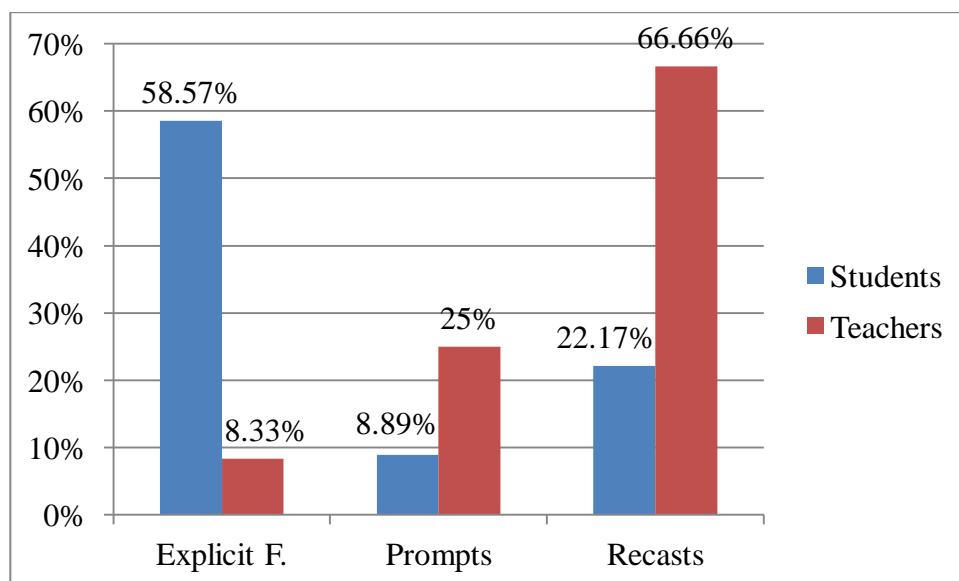
Teachers show the same pattern as in the previous question, selecting recasts (66.66%) as their first choice, followed by prompts (25%), and explicit correction (8.33%).

Conversely, students' first choice was explicit correction (58.57%), followed by recasts (21.17%) then prompts (8.89%). The most noticeable discrepancy of agreement in this question corresponds to explicit correction with a divergence of 50.24%, followed by recasts (45.49%) and then prompts (16.11%). Despite the fact that the order of preferences in this question is not completely the opposite, the first preference of each group is contrary in nature. Namely, recasts, which were chosen by teachers, are implicit, and explicit correction, chosen by students, is certainly explicit.

Therefore, these results suggest once more that there is disagreement between learner and teacher preferences for corrective feedback.

Figure 2

Phonological l error: Preferences for type of feedback

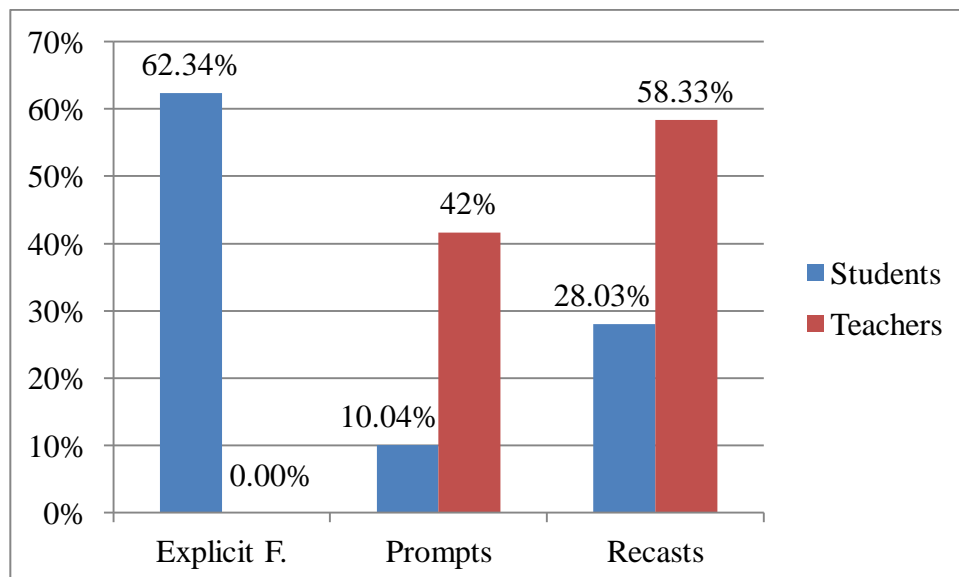


2.3 Lexical error

Concerning feedback-type preferences in lexical errors, students and teachers again seem to disagree. In fact, the same pattern appears (see Figure 3). While 58.33% of the teachers selected recasts as their choice, 42% chose prompts. However, none of them chose explicit correction as an alternative to correct a lexical mistake. In contrast, the majority of students again prefer to be corrected by means of explicit correction (62.34%), then by recasts (28.03%) and finally by prompts (10.04%). In this case, the largest difference was found in explicit correction (62.34%) as none of the teachers selected it, followed by prompts (31.96%) and recasts (30.3%). In conclusion, these results show one more time that teachers and students think differently when it comes respectively to correcting and being corrected.

Figure 3

Lexical error: Preferences for type of feedback

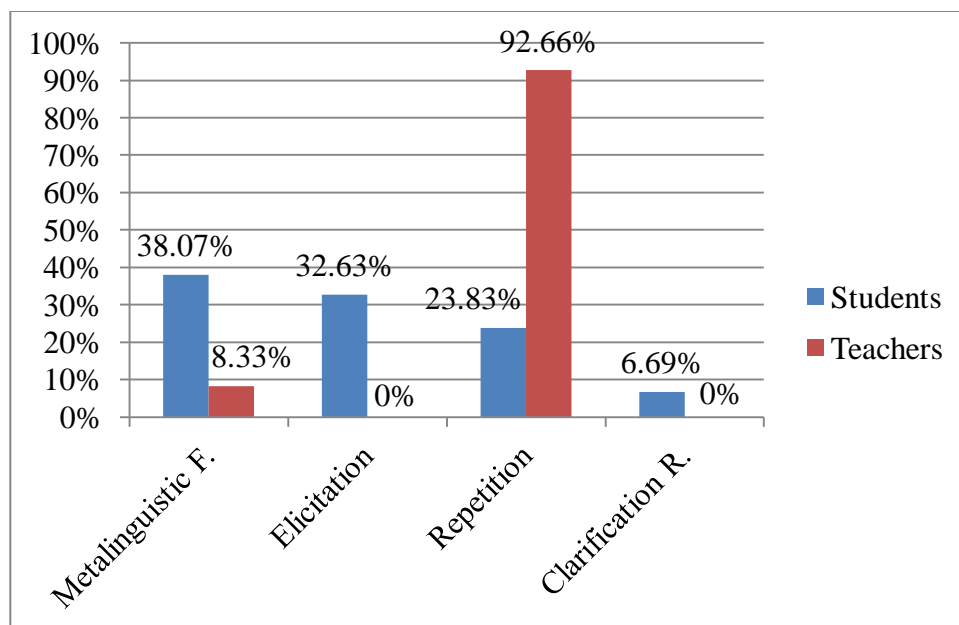


2.4 Types of prompt in a grammatical error

As to teacher and learner preferences for types of prompt, the results displayed in Figure 4 show that 92.66% of teachers chose repetition as the type of prompt they prefer and 8.33% chose metalinguistic feedback. Nonetheless, none of them chose elicitation or clarification requests. Conversely, students chose metalinguistic feedback (38.07%), followed by elicitation (32.63%), then repetition (23.83%), and finally clarification requests (6.69%). The most evident discrepancy of agreement in this question was found in repetition (68.83%) and then in elicitation (32.63%) as none of the teachers selected that type of prompt. Furthermore, the discrepancy of agreement in metalinguistic feedback reached 29.74% and lastly, 6.69% in clarification requests. Notably, the pattern in this question is again repeated since teachers keep selecting more implicit types of feedback, which in this case was in the form of repetition. In contrast, learners continue to prefer explicit types of correction, such as metalinguistic cues, which, although classified as prompts, are the most explicit ones since there is an overt indication that an error has been made (Li, 2010).

Figure 4

Grammatical error: Preferences for type of prompt



In conclusion, all four questions in the second part of the questionnaire indicate that there is a tendency for teacher and learner perspectives on corrective feedback to be different. Additionally, the patterns revealed that teachers tend to prefer implicit over explicit corrective feedback in all types of error. In contrast, students appear to be more inclined to be more explicitly corrected in all situations.

3. Qualitative analysis: In-depth interviews

In order to complement the quantitative data of this mixed-methods research study, four semi-structured in-depth interviews were carried out in both schools with a group of EFL teachers and a group of students. These interviews were audio taped, then transcribed, translated and coded so as to find the main themes by means of content analysis. The purpose of these interviews was to confirm the results of the questionnaire and also to find out more information about the potential effect

corrective feedback might have on motivation. All participants' names were coded in order to protect their identity.

3.1 Benefits of corrective feedback

One of the main themes discussed in these interviews was how beneficial corrective feedback was for L2 learning. In this respect, students from both schools unanimously believed in the benefits of error correction stating that it helped them identify their mistakes and, at the same time, it prevented them from not making them again (see Excerpt 1). For this reason, both groups of students expressed that they would like their teachers to correct them every time they make a mistake, which is consistent with the results of the questionnaire as it also showed that students from both schools preferred to be always corrected (see Excerpt 2).

Excerpt 1-Semi-private school

Student 12: "It's good when they [teachers] tell you that you're making a mistake because if they don't, you're going to continue saying the same and you're going to get used to saying things in the wrong way."

Excerpt 2-Private school

Student 3: "Teachers should always correct students so that we don't make the same mistakes. I wouldn't like to be wrong again."

Conversely, teachers' views about the benefits of error correction are not entirely consistent among each other. While some teachers are convinced that correction is favourable for their students' language development (see Excerpt 3), others have doubts about its effectiveness due to the fact that even when their students have been

corrected since they started learning English, they still continue to make the same language mistakes (see Excerpt 4).

Excerpt 3-Private school

Teacher 3: “I think it [corrective feedback] is extremely important because you’re teaching a language that is not their [the students’] mother tongue, so it’s harder for them to identify potential mistakes.”

Excerpt 4-Private school

Teacher 1: “I have serious doubts in terms of correction, because I think that when we receive our kids in high school, they must’ve undergone thousands of teachers correcting them and they still say things like ‘did you went?’ (...) So, why are these kids that have been corrected all the time still making the same mistakes?”

Additionally, teachers from both schools believe that it is more important to give emphasis to communication than to correction so as to lower learners’ language anxiety and allow them to express themselves, especially when the learners are shy (see Excerpt 5). This is also consistent with the questionnaire as teachers’ responses suggested that they preferred to correct students only when they faced a communication problem.

Excerpt 5-Semi-private school

Teacher 11: “I think that it [corrective feedback] is important, but not the most important thing (...) I try to give more importance to communication than to the correction of mistakes.”

Teacher 12: “Yes, I agree with her. For me, it’s more important to have students communicating or expressing an idea in any way possible. If the general idea of what they’re trying to say is clear, that’s perfect. Then, we will have the corrections.”

3.2 Types of corrective feedback

Despite not finding any statically significant differences between students from two different schools in this regard, the interviews revealed that their opinions do diverge about the type of corrective feedback they prefer. For instance, in the case of the private bilingual school, it appears that this specific focus group of students has a preference for recasts over any other type of correction, although, on occasion, they also expect a more detailed explanation of their mistakes (see Excerpt 6). In addition, they reported that recasts are the most used type of feedback by their teachers and they unanimously expressed that they always recognized this type of feedback as correction (see Excerpt 6). Finally, concerning their least favorite type, the majority expressed they did not feel comfortable receiving prompts because they felt that prompts put them on the spot in cases when they did not know how to correct themselves.

Excerpt 6-Private school

Interviewer: "If it is a mistake, as in 'people is', how would you like to be corrected?"
(...)

Student 1: "I would like my teacher to say "people are" after me."

Student 7: "Yes, me, too."

Interviewer: "Why?"

Student 7: "Because it's shorter and easier."

Student 1: "Yes, it is easier."

Student 7: "I mean, I understand that I made a mistake just with that, but it would also be good to have an explanation."

Interviewer: (...) "And do you all recognize this as correction?"

Everybody: "Yes"

Student 7: "Yes, and you repeat it."

In contrast, most students from the semi-private school have a preference for explicit feedback, although 11th graders, who have more hours of English lessons, stated that they also liked recasts and prompts as they helped them recall previous knowledge. In the case of the students who had a preference for explicit feedback, they expressed that they liked explicit explanations because they helped them remember the reason behind the error, which would make them better retain the correct form of their mistake when attempting to say it again (see Excerpt 7). Nonetheless, they did not consider that their teachers used this type of feedback very often. On the contrary, they recalled being generally corrected by means of prompts and also recasts.

Excerpt 7-Semi-private school

Student14: “It is better to have the grammatical explanation in order to remember it and not make the same mistake again.”

Student 15: “I also prefer explicit because then I remember the reason of the error.”

Student 12: (...) “I like it a lot when the teacher gives me time to think about what was wrong because if you correct yourself, you remember that you know it and you use it again.”

In terms of awareness of recasts, these students expressed not always recognizing them as correction due to noise interference, lack of attention, or because the recast was not salient enough (see Excerpt 8).

Excerpt 8-Semi-private school

Student 14: “I prefer explicit correction because if she [the teacher] just repeats after me, I might not hear it or not know that she is correcting me.”

Student 11: (...) “Sometimes, you don’t hear the repetition because of the noise of the classroom or because you don’t realize that what you said is different from what the teacher is repeating.”

Teachers’ opinions about the type of feedback they use the most and the one they find most effective are quite similar in both schools. However, while teachers from the private institution acknowledged using recasts more than prompts as the most frequent type of feedback, teachers from the semi-private school reported using recasts, but also prompts, which is consistent with what students from both schools perceived. Nonetheless, a recurrent theme discussed by all teachers was the need to adjust correction according to the objectives of the lesson. Therefore, as most speaking lessons have a communicative focus, teachers expressed not liking to interrupt their students while they were trying to get an idea across or during an oral presentation (see Excerpt 9).

Excerpt 9-Private school

Teacher 2: “We have to bear in mind what we want to achieve in that class because sometimes we want discussion and we want to prioritize that more than English itself. Even though, I will make corrections if it is too repeated or if something which has been corrected many times is still not grasped, in those occasions, when I want them to discuss the topic, I would rather let them speak than interrupt them all the time telling them that they’re making mistakes.”

Yet, if the objective of the lesson was to work on accuracy in order to prepare an oral exam or a presentation, they would correct students more consistently and explicitly throughout the lesson, paying special attention to those mistakes made by the majority of students, writing them on the board and explaining them in a more detailed and explicit way (see Excerpt 10).

Excerpt 10-Semi-private school

Teacher 12: “When there are oral tests and you help them prepare for those tests, there is a lot of correction in order to ensure they do well and pay attention to their language difficulties. (...) And if there are a couple of mistakes that have been very repetitive, we make general corrections and we write them down on the board so that they don’t forget.”

Regarding the use of recasts by both groups of teachers, they reported it was mainly due to three reasons. The first one was that recasts were used as a way to facilitate communication and not interrupt students. Secondly, according to their opinion, recasts are faster to deliver; therefore, they help make better use of their teaching time. Finally, because of the number of students they have (approximately 20 in the private school and 45 in the semi-private one), the use of recasts helps them maintain the attention of the rest of the group and avoid dealing with disciplinary issues (see Excerpt 11).

Excerpt 11-Private school

Teacher 3: “I think that usually providing the correct way of saying something is, at least in my case, the most common thing that I do to correct. (...) I have 30-something students, so it’s impossible to give them feedback at the end or to everyone. (...) So, providing the correct version of what they’re saying is faster for me as a teacher and also maybe listening to the correct way of saying it helps them. (...) I think it also has to do with that we want to be good models for them and maybe by allowing them to have more time to correct themselves you fear that they’re going to lose the attention of what you’re trying to say and so, you just repeat the correct version.”

For this reason, even though both groups of teachers agree that prompts are the most effective type of feedback, they acknowledged that the educational context in which they work does not provide the best environment to deal with errors by this means due to lack of time, the number of students per classroom, the proficiency level, and maturity of some students.

3.3 Immediate versus delayed feedback

Another recurrent topic found in the interviews was the time of delivery of corrective feedback, which could be immediate or delayed. Immediate feedback is given right after the learner has made the mistake and delayed feedback is delivered after the student has finished a complete sentence or idea (Sheen, 2011). While the majority of the interviewed students from both schools seem to prefer delayed feedback because of the interruption immediate correction causes them to feel (see Excerpt12), there are a few that recognize the benefits of immediate feedback by stating that the interruption itself serves as a way of making the error salient and memorable (see Excerpt 13).

Excerpt 12 –Private school

Student 7: “When my teacher makes us speak, she interrupts us with the right word when we’re speaking, so I think it would be better if she did that at the end.”

Student 8: “Yes, because it cuts in everything you’re trying to say.”

Excerpt13- Semi-private school

Student 12: “I think it’s good if she [the teacher] corrects after you speak and also when you’re speaking because sometimes you speak so fast that you forget where the mistake was (...) So, if she corrects you right in the middle when you’re speaking, something changes. She interrupts you and that subconsciously stays with you and you remember it better afterwards.”

Regarding the same topic, teachers from both schools agree with their students in the sense that they also believe that delayed correction is better. This is mainly because they do not want to inhibit their students by making them feel interrupted or embarrassed when trying to communicate (see Excerpt 14).

Excerpt 14 –Private school

Teacher 7: “I used to correct my students a lot when I started because it freaked me out every time they made those terrible mistakes, but when I realized that what happens to me is that every time students interrupt, I lose my train of thought, and that happens to them, too. (...) I remember very well that once a student told me: ‘Miss, you don’t let me finish!’ And it was true, of course, you never let your students finish and they can’t connect their ideas. It’s hard for us who know English, imagine for them, building up a phrase or an argument.”

In a similar respect, teachers also expressed that, in order to provide the best type of correction for each individual, it was necessary to know how much correction learners could tolerate and when to provide it. Therefore, it was essential for these

teachers to get to know students and adapt correction to their needs instead of learners adapting to their way of correcting (see Excerpt 15).

Excerpt 15-Private school

Teacher 8: “I think that for me, what has worked best is knowing the students in my class. Independently of where I am (...) from of the range of corrections that you can apply, what works best is to know who you are talking to. How that person is, how he/she reacts, if it’s worth correcting in that moment or if it’s better to let go.”

3.4 Tone of correction

Another important theme brought up in the interviews with students from both schools was the tone of correction. Regarding this topic, they stated that they were not as worried about the type of feedback they received as about the tone in which teachers delivered the feedback (see Excerpts 16 & 17).

Excerpt16 –Private school

Student 1: “I have had bad experiences with correction because sometimes you make a mistake and they [teachers] interrupt you and they do not say it in a nice way. (...) I know sometimes they do not do it intentionally, but it’s not nice to be spoken to like that.”

Excerpt 17–Semi-private school

Student 13: “Whenever they [teachers] correct you, it should be in calm and nice way.”

The tone of correction was also discussed by teachers, especially from the semi-private institution, who expressed that the tone should be very delicate in order not to embarrass students. Nonetheless, they also admitted that sometimes their

corrections were so subtle that they were not sure if students realized they were being corrected. For this reason, they also expressed that they were not certain if their corrections were having a positive impact on their students' L2 learning process (see Excerpt 18).

Excerpt 18-Semi-private school

Teacher 12: "I think that in my case, I try to correct students very softly so that they don't feel bad because some of them really struggle to speak English. (...) And I try to do it in that way so that they don't realize I'm correcting them. Though, I don't know if that's good or bad because I might not be encouraging meaningful learning."

3.5 Embarrassment

Another recurrent theme discussed in the interviews was the potential embarrassment students might feel when receiving correction. Nonetheless, this topic was evidently much more important for teachers than students. Indeed, the only reference made to embarrassment by students, specifically from the private school, was when discussing the use of prompts and how sometimes they felt uncomfortable by not knowing how to self-correct. Conversely, both interviews with teachers revealed that they were extremely cautious with the use of correction precisely because they were afraid of embarrassing students and hindering their willingness to speak English (see Excerpts 19 & 20).

Excerpt 19- Semi-private school

Teacher 11: "I will never correct my students harshly because making mistakes is one of the things they are afraid of. That's why they don't speak. That's why we need to find other ways to correct."

Excerpt 20-Private school

Teacher 1: “There are students who can’t just take corrections out loud in front of them because they are oversensitive to making mistakes in public and you would kill them if you corrected them in public.”

Some teachers also discussed how sometimes they perceive frustration in their students when receiving correction and how that might affect their self-esteem (see Excerpt 21).

Excerpt 21-Private school

Teacher 10: “I see some students frustrated with error correction. Mostly I think it’s with an error they see over and over again and they say ‘ugh, why did I say that?’ (...) I think when sometimes you point it out to the students, they are like ‘oh, she made me look like an idiot in front of everyone else, pointing it out that I made that error’.”

3.6 Corrective feedback and its effect on L2 motivation

The last theme discussed in these in-depth interviews was the effect corrective feedback might have on students’ L2 motivation. In this regard, students almost unanimously believed it was necessary to receive error correction in order to stay motivated, otherwise, they would not see any advancement in their L2 development. Students additionally stated they even felt challenged by correction and that it made them want to know more about the language and the errors they were committing in order not to repeat them again (see Excerpt 22).

Excerpt 22-Semi-private school

Student 13: “I think that correction really motivates you because it makes you want to know more. So, if I say something wrong, I have to learn how to say it right by looking for the best way and correction helps with that.”

Student 11: “Yes, if they didn’t correct us, we would be talking nonsense all the time and if you ran into somebody who knows English, you wouldn’t be able to communicate.”

Nonetheless, there was only one student who expressed that even though corrective feedback could eventually help sustain L2 learning motivation, it was not the most important factor for her (see Excerpt 23).

Excerpt 23 –Private school

Student 1: “I don’t know. I think there are other factors that motivate you to learn more than correction. Correction helps you learn better, but I’m not sure it motivates me.”

On their part, EFL teachers had diverse opinions about the effect corrective feedback might have on motivation. Firstly, most teachers recognized that there is an effect, but whether that effect is positive or negative depends on several factors. The main factor they described is the individual characteristics of each student, which include personality, maturity, interests and level of proficiency. However, most of them agreed that students receive corrective feedback in a positive way and that some of them even feel grateful about it (see Excerpt 24).

Excerpt 24-Private school

Teacher 4: “Some of them feel very thankful, especially those you have been training for a test, for example. They’re like: ‘Miss, thank you, I needed that’ or they feel like it’s useful for them because they had that goal, I think.”

Nonetheless, they also expressed that this positive or negative reaction towards correction again depends on the tone and time when correction is delivered and how much correction the learner can tolerate since overcorrecting mistakes might have a negative effect on their L2 motivation (see Excerpt 25).

Excerpt 25-Private school

Teacher 3: “It [correction] does affect motivation. If you have a student who doesn’t feel comfortable with coping with correction, let’s say, because you’re doing it in front of the other students, then that will affect his or her ability to produce later because he or she will feel ashamed, so, of course that it will affect them. But with some other students it has the opposite effect. For some of them is like: ‘Oh, great! Now I know the correct way of saying it’ and they feel more confident in producing, (...) but, yeah, I think it does affect their motivation, especially if you overcorrect. (...) I think that they hate that.”

Additionally, while some teachers expressed that they did not think corrective feedback could help sustain students’ motivation throughout the process of learning an L2 (see Excerpt 26), others had a very pessimistic view of the relationship between error correction and motivation, stating that they can only be interrelated in a negative way (see Excerpt 27).

Excerpt 26 –Semi-private school

Teacher 11: “I don’t think it [correction] is relevant to maintain motivation (...) unless it is a person that really wants to be corrected because he/she wants to improve his/her English a lot, (...) but the rest, I don’t think their motivation is linked to correction.”
Teacher 12: “Me, neither.”

Excerpt 27- Private school

Teacher 10: “I don’t think that motivation and error correction are connected in a positive way. I don’t feel like being in a classroom and being corrected and like: ‘Oh, I’m making progress!’ I think it can only affect motivation negatively. I think that what’s motivating about a language is learning new things and using them in a meaningful way. So, I don’t think that necessarily by being corrected and no longer making that error makes them [students] feel accomplished.”

One of the solutions teachers proposed in order to avoid affecting students’ motivation in a negative way and ensure that the correction had a long-lasting impact on their language development was to make correction playfully memorable. Namely, teachers suggested playing with correction (see Excerpt 28).

Excerpt 28–Semi-private school

Teacher 11: “If correction is funny and they laugh a lot and it becomes a competition, then it is done in a didactic way, so, it’s good, not as if I said: ‘You made a mistake and you have to say it this way because it is the law and I say so’.”

For instance, they suggested having competitions, or making funny faces every time their students make a mistake, or even making learners do a special movement when committing an error so that they remember the correction not only by what they heard or repeated, but also for what they had to do, which involves different learning styles (see Excerpt 29).

Excerpt 29 –Private school

Teacher 1: “You’ve got to do things with the correction otherwise it just goes. You’ve got to play with it, you’ve got to use it, you’ve got to reuse it. Make it part of the dynamics, but playfully.”

Teacher 8: “As you said, being and doing things that are kind of silly and entertaining help them to register also.”

Finally, teachers reflected on the need to talk to students about error correction so that they take it positively and see it as a tool to improve the language, not as criticism. In addition, teachers also recognized not having thought about this essential teaching strategy before participating in this study and, thus, they also acknowledged the need to reflect on this topic in order to improve their teaching practice and respond more conscientiously to their students’ needs (see Excerpt 30).

Excerpt 30 –Private school

Teacher 1: “I feel that this conversation has been very beneficial in terms of reflection and I think that we learn when we have a moment to stop and think about what we’re doing and it can always be improved, and it can always be questioned, and motivated, and inspired. (...) I’m thinking now ‘well, if we have been correcting this way all the time, why are they still making mistakes?’ or ‘why don’t we question ourselves more in relation to how we’re correcting if we’re having the same mistakes over and over again for years?’ In that sense, this conversation has inspired me to think, to reflect on what’s going on. Teachers are professionals, so we have to continue to look for better teaching techniques, always.”

In summary, the results of the questionnaires and the in-depth interviews have shown that there are evident differences between teachers and students in terms of the types of feedback they prefer, its frequency and their positive and negative attitudes

towards error correction. These differences were not only found between both groups of teachers and students, but also between the two different educational institutions, which suggests that, among some other factors, the characteristics of the educational context might have an important role in the way corrective feedback is perceived by learners and their teachers.

Additionally, there was an evident tendency for learners to be very receptive and positive towards corrective feedback. Even though to a certain extent some of them seemed concerned about the tone of correction, it appears that teachers were much more worried about these aspects than their students due to the assumption that error correction causes interruption and embarrassment, which might negatively affect learners' willingness to continue learning an L2.

In the next chapter, I will discuss the main findings of this mixed-methods study by addressing each one of the research questions and their implications for L2 teaching. I will also discuss the influence these noticeable disparities between teachers and students might have on students' L2 motivation and propose different teaching strategies to deal with these potential difficulties in the language classroom.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, I will provide a detailed discussion of the main findings of this mixed-methods study, which pertains to teacher and learner perspectives of corrective feedback within and across two distinctive research settings in Santiago, Chile. For this purpose, I will integrate the quantitative and qualitative results in order to answer each of the three research questions and discuss the pedagogical implications these findings may have for L2 teaching and learning. The three questions will be answered by firstly addressing differences between the learners, followed by differences between the teachers, and finally, I will discuss the general disparities between EFL teachers and their students from both schools together.

1. Research Question 1

The first research question sought to identify significant differences between teacher and learner preferences of corrective feedback within and across two different EFL instructional settings in Chile in terms of types of feedback, frequency, and positive and negative attitudes towards it.

1.1 Types of corrective feedback

1.1.1 Differences between students

In regards to learner perspectives on types of corrective feedback, one of the main findings was that while the questionnaire showed no significant differences between student preferences from the two schools, the interviews revealed some

disparities. The quantitative results suggested that students had similar preferences for types of feedback, ranking explicit correction in the first place, followed by metalinguistic cues, which is still explicit in nature, then prompts, and finally recasts. This is consistent with previous research on learner preferences of error correction. For instance, Lee (2013) found that adult students with an advanced level of English proficiency also had a preference for explicit correction. Additionally, Odalejo (1993) found that “the intermediate learners would also like to be told their errors and be provided with correction” (p. 83). Moreover, Kaivanpanah et al. (2012) found that students with an elementary level of proficiency preferred explicit or metalinguistic feedback. Finally, Lasagabaster and Sierra’s (2005) study, which examined teacher versus student perceptions of corrective feedback through the identification, classification, and judgment of error correction moves in a teaching video, exhibited that a few students also expected an explicit explanation of their errors after receiving feedback as they did not always notice correction unless there was some rationalization involved.

The reasons behind learners’ preferences for explicit feedback were also explored through the in-depth interviews. According to the students, especially from the semi-private institution, the main reason that the majority of them preferred explicit correction was the necessity to have the errors clearly identified and to know the reason behind them. According to the students, this further explanation of the mistake would have a long-lasting effect on their memory and it would help them avoid making the same error again, which is consistent with the explanations students

with different proficiency levels have stated in previous research studies (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Lee, 2013; Kaivanpanah et al., 2012).

Another explanation for students' preference for explicit correction might be related to the general EFL context in which the language is taught and the role the teacher has in this environment. Chile's official language is Spanish and even though English teaching and learning has been encouraged in the last 10 years, the level of English of Chileans is generally very poor and, thus, English is rarely spoken outside the language classrooms. In fact, according to the latest report of the English Proficiency Index (Education First, 2012), which illustrates the range of English proficiency around the globe, Chile is one of the worst ranked countries in Latin America. Accordingly, Li (2010) and Schulz (1996; 2001) explain that learners in FL contexts generally have a more open attitude towards corrective feedback and grammar instruction. Therefore, students' preference for explicit correction might be explained by the fact that explicit feedback does not only point out the mistake, but also provides a grammatical explanation of the error, fulfilling learners' expectations "to increase their knowledge and competence in the use of target language structures" (Kaivanpanah et al., 2012, p. 11). Finally, Kaivanpanah et al. (2012), also explain that the role of the language teacher in FL contexts is very significant as they are "conventionally seen as the primary source of knowledge", which might elucidate why these students expect a more detailed explanation after they have been corrected (p. 10).

Regarding the qualitative analysis of this mixed-methods study, some relevant differences between the two groups of learners were disclosed. During the interviews,

the focus group of students from the private bilingual institution reported they preferred recasts, which was not consistent with their questionnaire responses. This might be due to the fact that the majority of the students who answered the questionnaire were in 8th grade, while half of the students who participated in the interviews were in 10th grade. Therefore, within the same group of students from the private institution, there might have been differences in terms of maturity, cumulative time of exposure to the language, and level of proficiency. In contrast, most students from the semi-private institution confirmed their choices by stating that explicit feedback was the type of feedback they liked the most and the one they found most effective.

This divergence of opinion regarding types of corrective feedback between students from different schools might be explained by two main factors. Firstly, the constant feeling of interruption expressed by the focus group of students from the private bilingual school, which predominantly included 10th graders who had at least 10 45-minute periods of English lessons per week, was one of the most recurrent themes. This suggests that students who have more opportunities to develop their oral skills might feel more comfortable receiving recasts because, in their opinion, they are the simplest and fastest way for the teacher to correct their mistakes without interrupting their train of thought. In fact, a couple of 11th graders from the semi-private institution who also had more English lessons per week and far more opportunities for oral practice in comparison to their classmates, agreed that recasts were less distracting. This finding is similar to that of Lasagabaster and Sierra's (2005) study, which revealed that students also preferred to "communicate more freely" and

that sometimes they felt inhibited by teacher feedback (p. 124). In addition, one of the few items of the questionnaire in which significant differences were found between students was precisely the question which addressed interruption, where students from the private institution agreed much more with that statement than students from the semi-private school. Therefore, it appears that the amount of oral practice these students have and their desire to speak English without being interrupted might influence learner preferences for error correction.

Another possible reason for this divergence between students might be their level of awareness of recasts, which at the same time, could be related to the learners' level of proficiency and exposure to the target language (Oladejo, 1993). In the case of students from the private institution, according to the international English examination that was implemented by the Chilean Ministry of Education (2012b), their level of English was at least intermediate and the number of English lessons they have per week doubles or triples the ones in the semi-private school depending on the grade level. This situation might have an influence in the way students perceive recasts. According to Kennedy (2010), highly proficient students usually acknowledge recasts as corrective feedback because they have a "greater ability to understand oral English and thus to understand that the teacher's utterance was meant to be corrective" (p. 46). Additionally, Nabei and Swain (2002) suggest that the awareness of recasts is influenced by "the teaching environment, the interaction context, and the learner's cognitive orientation" (p. 43). Therefore, if the use of recasts in the classroom is consistent, which was confirmed in the interviews as both teachers and students from the private bilingual school acknowledged recasts as the most common type of

feedback, and the learners also assert recognizing these as corrections, then recasting might have a fruitful effect on the students' learning and, thus, positively affect the opinion students have about this type of correction.

1.1.2 Differences between teachers

Regarding teacher perspectives on types of corrective feedback, the questionnaire and interviews revealed that both groups of EFL teachers think alike. As to the type of feedback they use the most in the classroom, both groups reported that recasts were very frequent, although teachers from the semi-private institution also expressed using prompts on a regular basis. One of the reasons reported for using recasts is related to the speed of delivery, which, in their opinion, is much faster than any other kind of feedback and, thus, their teaching time is more efficiently distributed. Secondly, recasts would help maintain the flow of communication without interrupting students' stream of thought or intimidating them. Finally, recasts would also facilitate classroom management since teachers use them as a strategy to retain their students' attention during a communicative activity. These motives are consistent with the ones found in several other studies (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Lee, 2013; Schulz, 2001; Yoshida, 2008b), where teachers have also preferred to use recasts primarily due to time constraints and to avoid diminishing learners' self-confidence.

Concerning the type of feedback these EFL teachers found most effective for language learning, both groups expressed that prompts were the best kind. Nonetheless, they also realized they did not use them consistently enough in their classroom, mainly due to time constraints and the high number of students they had.

This finding is similar to that of other studies (Kaivanpanah et al., 2012; Yoshida, 2008b), which suggests that despite the fact that most teachers recognize the educational value of prompts, they do not use them as often as recasts due to the lack of time and the fear prompts might affect students' motivation in case learners are not able to self-correct.

1.1.3 Differences between students and teachers

When comparing the views of both groups of students versus both groups of EFL teachers, there seem to be clear disparities in their preferences for types of corrective feedback. Indeed, the results of the questionnaire not only yielded significant differences for explicit correction, but also showed that the patterns of preference were completely contrary. This finding denotes that, in general, teachers and students from these two specific educational contexts have opposite views in terms of the feedback types they respectively would rather deliver and receive.

As the quantitative results suggest, the most noticeable difference corresponds to explicit feedback, which was the most preferred type for students and the least favorite for teachers. This was confirmed through the interviews as most teachers expressed not liking to correct students explicitly due to the assumption that explicit feedback might make them sound excessively authoritarian and, thus, harmfully affect learners' confidence. Additionally, they expressed that explicit correction, as well as prompts, take more time to deliver, which might affect classroom management, lesson planning, and the distribution of their teaching time. All these motives are consistent with previous research, which shows that teachers, in general, seem to be reluctant to

use explicit correction regularly in their language classrooms (Lee, 2013; Schulz, 2001; Vasquez & Harvey, 2010; Yoshida, 2008b).

According to previous research, these beliefs might be shaped by the teachers' own experiences with corrective feedback as L2 learners or by their own failure or success implementing it in their classrooms (Schulz, 2001). In addition, the majority of these EFL teachers, with the exception of two cases, reported that they had not received any instruction pertaining to corrective feedback while going through their teacher training programs, as well as the teachers in Vásquez and Harvey's (2010) study, which might also explain their subjective appreciation of error correction. Lastly, most teachers recognized that before participating in this research study, they had never reflected on this vital teaching strategy. This situation might denote that there is not only insufficient awareness in terms of how important corrective feedback is for L2 learning, but also that there is little knowledge about empirical evidence that suggests that students are indeed very receptive towards correction (Lee, 2013; Jean & Simard, 2011; Schulz, 1996; 2001; Yoshida 2008b), which is very distant from what these educators believe.

Conversely, the quantitative results of the student questionnaire suggest that learners have a clear preference for explicit types of corrective feedback, such as explicit correction and metalinguistic cues. The main reason students reported was the usefulness this had for their language learning as an explicit explanation of their mistake would have a more permanent effect on their memory and would thus prevent them from making the same mistake again. These student views have been supported by recent research which highlights that explicit correction "caters not just to explicit

learning and explicit memory but also to implicit learning and implicit memory” (Ellis et al., 2006, p. 343). Nonetheless, Ellis et al. (2006) also advise that one single correction exchange will not guarantee that the correct form of the mistake will have a substantial effect on the learner’s L2 development and that explicit correction is certainly more likely to “impede the natural flow of communication” (p. 431).

Despite the fact that the questionnaires yielded significant differences between students and teachers regarding types of feedback, the interviews showed that in some particular cases the disagreement between teachers and learners is not so palpable. As an illustration, the interviewed students from the private institution declared that they also liked recasts, which was not portrayed in the questionnaire responses.

Correspondingly, teachers from the same institution also acknowledged using and favoring recasts the most, which might indicate that there is less distance between these students’ and their teachers’ opinions than between their counterparts from the semi-private school. Indeed, while teachers from the semi-private institution also preferred recasts and prompts over explicit correction, learners expected a more explicit explanation, which might denote that the divergence of agreement in this context may be more serious.

This particular situation could be enlightened by the large number of students these EFL teachers have to deal with on a daily basis. The average number of students in the semi-private school is 45, which directly affects the way educators teach the subject, the allotted time to practice oral skills, and the strategies they choose to use. Indeed, these teachers reported that they exclusively employed explicit correction to tackle general errors most students had difficulty with, but rarely to treat individual

mistakes as it would take too much time to correct all students in this manner.

Therefore, these teachers tend to favor recasts so as to facilitate communication and make the class more dynamic without stopping to give explanations to each student and lose the attention of the rest. Similarly, as teachers from the private bilingual school have fewer students (approximately 20) and the amount of time dedicated to oral practice is plenty, there is a strong focus on meaning rather than form when practicing speaking, and so, teachers also tend to provide recasts to foster communication. Nonetheless, teachers from the private institution also believed that the number of students they had affected their error correction choices.

All in all, despite the fact that teachers from the two research settings stated that they chose the best type of feedback depending on the objective of the lesson, they acknowledge that the most frequent ones were recasts and prompts, but that they rarely used explicit correction for individual mistakes. This might pose a conflict with students' beliefs of teacher feedback. In fact, when asked about the level of satisfaction they had with correction, although most students reported being pleased, they did state that they expected more explicit explanations that would help them understand why they made the mistake and how to fix it. These differences in teacher and learner perspectives of feedback might have a negative effect on L2 motivation as learners might not feel their teachers are responding to their needs.

1.2 Frequency of corrective feedback

1.2.1 Differences between students

In regards to frequency of feedback, one of the main findings was that all students, regardless of the institution they attended, had similar views about how often teachers should correct them. The student questionnaire did not yield any significant differences and it showed that the frequency of feedback that they agreed the most with was ‘always’. The interviews served to confirm this preference. Students from the two schools expressed they would like to be corrected every time they made a mistake because, in their opinion, if they are not corrected, those mistakes might fossilize.

This finding lends support to the results of Jean and Simard (2011), whose study revealed that 54% of the ESL students participating in their research agreed that their language errors should always be corrected. Yet, 41% of the remaining learners expressed they would like to be corrected when they cannot communicate.

1.2.2 Differences between teachers

Both groups of teachers also had similar preferences for frequency of feedback. The results of the questionnaire showed that teachers preferred to correct students only when they could not communicate successfully. Additionally, as expressed in the interviews, the majority disagrees with the idea of correcting learners all the time because of the detrimental effect this would have on students’ confidence. This is also consistent with previous research findings. For instance, Lee (2013) found that teachers “strongly resisted correcting all of the students’ oral errors and mistakes” (p. 9). Similarly, Jean and Simard (2011) found that teachers tended to correct errors that

impeded communication or errors about language features that students should already know.

1.2.3 Differences between teachers and students

When comparing both groups of teachers to both groups of students within and across schools, the disparities among them are visible. Students and teachers in these two educational contexts have opposite views about how often error correction should be delivered. The results of the questionnaire yielded significant differences in two frequency descriptors: ‘always’ and ‘never’. The difference in the first construct might be explained by the fact that while students expressed wanting to be corrected every time they make a mistake, teachers only preferred to correct errors that impede communication or that are recurrent and need further correction. However, the difference in the second construct, in which teachers disagreed more with the statement that “teachers should never correct their students’ mistakes,” might denote that even though teachers try not to overcorrect students so as to not affect students’ self-esteem, they are aware of the harmful effect that having no correction would have on the learning process.

This finding is coherent with previous research where the disparity between teachers and students regarding frequency of feedback has been striking (Jean & Simard, 2011; Lee, 2013; McCargar, 1993; Schulz, 1996; 2001). Nonetheless, as stated by Jean and Simard (2011), if students were actually corrected all the time, especially students with a low level of proficiency who tend to make plenty of mistakes in their

early stages of L2 development, they might feel differently about constant correction and their perspectives may be much closer to that of their teachers.

1.3 Positive attitudes towards corrective feedback

1.3.1 Differences between students

Significant differences were found between students' perceptions of the effectiveness of feedback and its helpfulness to identify weak areas. Even though in both cases students' responses were highly optimistic, learners from the private bilingual institution agreed less with the positive characteristics of error correction. In the interviews, both groups of students asserted that the use of error correction was extremely beneficial for their L2 development as without it, they would not be able to identify the mistakes. However, despite the fact that students from the private institution reported always recognizing recasts, which was identified as the most commonly used feedback in that context, this could not be empirically proven in this study. Therefore, it could be inferred that if the perception of recasts by students from the private institution is not always accurate, either because of lack of salience of the recast or lack of awareness from the students, this might affect how they perceive the effectiveness and helpfulness of error correction.

1.3.2 Differences between teachers

On the part of teachers, even though a number from both schools recognized the educational contribution of error correction, others were skeptical about its effectiveness, especially from the private school. The interviews revealed that one of the teachers' main reasons for this skepticism was the poor improvement some

students had shown over the years despite being corrected since they started learning the L2. Nonetheless, this could be explained by the characteristics of the learning context. In the case of the majority of the students from the private school, they had gone through English immersion from Kindergarten to grade six, where there was a strong focus on meaning rather than form, which is still present today especially when doing communicative activities. According to Lyster et al. (2013), in contexts where there is a plenty of negotiation for meaning, to continue recasting for “what students already know (but fail to use accurately) may fall short of ensuring continued development of target language accuracy” (p. 30). Therefore, if teachers expect to see a palpable improvement in their students’ L2 development, they need to employ other types of correction, such as prompts, that will trigger other cognitive mechanisms in order to help students fix those mistakes that have been fossilized (Lyster et al., 2013). Indeed, Lyster and Mori’s (2006) counterbalance hypothesis states that the instructional practices, such as corrective feedback, that differ from those usually implemented in the classroom “will be more facilitative of interlanguage restructuring than instructional activities and interactional feedback that are congruent with the predominant communicative orientation” (p. 294).

1.3.3 Differences between teachers and students

Regarding differences between students and teachers from the two educational institutions, the main finding is that again there are significant differences in terms of effectiveness of corrective feedback. Whereas students seemed much more positive about the effect corrective feedback has on their learning, teachers were not completely convinced. Additionally, although in general the results of the

questionnaire indicated that both teachers and students seem to have a favorable attitude towards error correction, students' responses were far more optimistic. This finding is similar to that of a number of research studies on learner and teacher preferences of corrective feedback (Jean & Simard, 2011; Oladejo, 1993; Schulz, 1996; 2001), which shows that regardless of the educational context, teachers tend to have a certain resistance towards error correction because of the many negative pre-conceived ideas they have about the effect this may have on learners' motivation.

1.4 Negative attitudes towards corrective feedback

1.4.1 Differences between students

Whereas both groups of students seemed to disagree with most statements addressing negative attitudes towards error correction, students from the private institution seemed to be slightly more sensitive towards interruption than students from the semi-private institution. This feeling of interruption was also one of the most recurrent themes in the interviews. This finding might be related to the amount of oral practice students have in the bilingual school. As students are used to talking freely with an emphasis on meaning rather than form, they might think of correction as distracting. Another important reason might be the learners' individual characteristics, which "influence learners' receptivity to error correction and thus the effectiveness of feedback" (Sheen, 2011, p. 129).

1.4.2 Differences between teachers

Teachers from the two schools also have similar views about the negative effect error correction might have on students' self-esteem. Indeed, one of the most recurrent themes found in the interviews was the embarrassment corrective feedback might cause in some students, especially in the shy ones. For this reason, teachers expressed being extremely careful when providing feedback so as to not cause students frustration and increase their anxiety. Nonetheless, some of them also recognized that, by being so subtle in their corrections, sometimes their students did not even notice they were being corrected. This is consistent with the negative views of corrective feedback teachers in Vásquez and Harvey's (2010) research had before participating in their replication study, who expressed that error correction made them feel insecure and reluctant to provide it.

1.4.3 Differences between students and teachers

One of the main findings regarding negative attitudes towards error correction was that teachers seem to assume students have an aversion towards corrective feedback. Nonetheless, in the questionnaire, students disagreed with this statement much more than teachers, which might be explained by the many assumptions teachers have about the pernicious effect feedback may have on students' affective individual characteristics. Additionally, in all four statements addressing negative attitudes towards corrective feedback, teachers' responses were more pessimistic than students', which indicates that in general, these teachers' attitudes towards feedback are more negative than that of their students.

In summary, even though there were a few differences between the two groups of students and the two groups of teachers detected in the qualitative analysis, the most staggering differences correspond to the general comparison between teacher and learner perspectives from both schools jointly. Indeed, significant differences were found in all four sub-dimensions of the first research question, which might have important implications for FL teaching, discussed later in this chapter.

2. Research Question 2

The second research question aimed to identify the types of feedback EFL teachers and students prefer depending on the type of error students make, which could be grammatical, phonological, or lexical. As both groups of students and both groups of teachers from the different schools had similar results in the second part of the questionnaire, this section will only include a general comparison of teacher and learner preferences.

2.1 Grammatical error

The main finding regarding the types of feedback teachers and students prefer when confronting a grammatical error is that they have completely opposing views. Whereas teachers keep favoring implicit types of feedback, either recasts or prompts, learners would rather receive explicit correction. These preferences were confirmed though the interviews. Notwithstanding, some students from the private bilingual school insisted on recasts being the best feedback type for them as, in their opinion, they always recognized them as correction and did not need any further grammatical explanation of their mistakes.

This finding is similar to that of Yoshida's (2008b) study, where the teacher believed that providing the correct form (i.e., recasts) would be more effective for his students than providing an explicit grammatical explanation. Nonetheless, his students did not always recognize this as correction because they were not paying attention or because they were not able to detect that what the teacher was saying was different to what they had previously said. This is consistent with what some students reported in the interviews, especially from the semi-private school, who might not have had the sufficient language proficiency to notice the corrective intention of the teacher (Kennedy, 2010).

In the case of the type of prompt students preferred when making a grammatical mistake, they again chose an explicit type of feedback in the form of metalinguistic cues. This might pertain to the strong grammar orientation learners have in FL contexts, where "grammar-based curriculum and discrete-point testing methods [...] are still prevalent in many classrooms" (Schulz, 1996, p. 348). Indeed, teachers from the semi-private school reported that sometimes students did not appreciate the opportunities for oral practice as much as a more traditional grammar-based lessons because they felt they had not done anything productive (see Excerpt 31). Therefore, when students receive correction, they might expect it to be more grammatical because, otherwise, they do not consider it that effective.

Excerpt 31-Semi-private school

Teacher 11: "Students say that if they didn't work on the textbook or did not write anything on their notebooks, they did not work at all. They say 'No, we didn't do anything today, we just talked'."

Conversely, the vast majority of teachers (92%) chose repetition, which entails a repetition of the error, adjusting the intonation in order to provide a hint for the students to self-correct (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). This might indicate that teachers, regardless of the situation, have an evident preference for implicit types of feedback, which is consistent with several other research studies (Jean & Simard, 2011; Schulz, 1996; 2001; Yoshida 2008b).

2.2 Phonological error

In terms of phonological errors, the results showed that the pattern repeats itself. While students selected explicit correction, teachers chose recasts. Nonetheless, the students' second choice was also recasts, which might suggest that when it comes to phonological mistakes the students might appreciate the benefits of hearing the accurate version in order to attempt to correct the mistake. Indeed, this topic arose in the interviews, where students stated that they preferred to listen to the correct pronunciation of the word before articulating it again. On their part, teachers also expressed that sometimes it was easier to provide the model than to wait for students to remember how to pronounce the word because sometimes they did not know it. Correspondingly, teachers in Lasagabaster and Sierra's (2005) study expressed that providing the "the right model and its repetition" was an efficient way to correct pronunciation mistakes (p. 120). In fact, according to Lyster et al. (2013), recasts pose an important contribution to the correction of phonological errors because, on the one hand, they alert the learner that their pronunciation was incorrect, and, on the other hand, they provide the model for students to practice the correct form.

2.3 Lexical error

Similarly, when facing a lexical error, students and teachers showed opposite preference patterns. Learners again chose explicit correction, whereas teachers selected recasts. However, the second option for the students was also recasts. This might be due to the fact that the example created to show a lexical mistake involved using a word from their first language (L1) instead of using the word in the target language (see question 3 on the second part of the student questionnaire on Appendix A). Therefore, learners and teachers might have selected recasts as their second and first option, respectively, because if students do not know the word in English, they would need a model to correct that specific mistake, which could be delivered in the form of explicit correction or recasts.

All in all, student and teacher feedback preferences in response to different types of error (grammatical, phonological, or lexical) seem to be completely opposed. In all four questions of the second part of the questionnaire, students demonstrated an evident preference for explicit types of feedback (explicit correction or metalinguistic cues), whereas teachers insisted on selecting more implicit types of feedback (recasts or repetition). Nonetheless, it appears that in some cases where the model of the teacher is needed to correct the mistake, either because the learner fails to recall the accurate version or because of lack of knowledge, recasts might also be welcomed by students. Nonetheless, once again, the disparity between teacher and learner perspectives of corrective feedback is striking, regardless of the type of error students might commit.

3. Research Question 3

The third and last research question of the present study was intended to understand the extent to which teacher and learner perspectives on corrective feedback affect L2 learning motivation. In this respect, the inconsistency between learner and teacher perspectives of corrective feedback found in the two research settings is fairly noteworthy. Through the questionnaires, not just differences regarding types and frequency of correction were detected, but also disparities in the general positive or negative feelings students and teachers have towards corrective feedback.

In addition, the interviews held with students and teachers served not only to confirm their differences concerning preferences for error correction, but also to disclose some opinions about the potential effect corrective feedback might have on L2 motivation. In this regard, students expressed that error correction might indeed be a positive factor for them to stay motivated as it presents them with information about their L2 development in terms of how much progress they have made. Some others asserted feeling challenged by corrective feedback and even achieving a sense of satisfaction once a recurrent error had been eradicated. Finally, all learners acknowledged corrective feedback was an essential tool to help them realize that an inaccuracy had been committed.

However, one of the very few unhelpful elements mentioned by students was the occasional feeling of interruption they had when receiving immediate feedback, which is why some of them preferred to be corrected after they had finished putting their idea across. In addition, they mentioned that the only aspect that might eventually

affect their motivation in a negative manner was the tone of correction, more than the feedback itself. Nonetheless, they also expressed that as long as the teacher's feedback was nicely delivered, they would appreciate the correction and would work along with the teacher towards the improvement of those mistakes.

This finding suggests that corrective feedback itself may not necessarily affect students' motivation, but the teacher's behaviors might. In fact, according to Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008), there seems to be a strong correlation between motivated learners and motivating teacher characteristics, such as the provision of supportive feedback. In addition, Noels (2001a) proposes that for students to be intrinsically motivated the teacher needs to "be viewed as an active participant in the learning process, who provides feedback in a positive and encouraging manner" (p. 136). Therefore, it appears that error correction does not have a negative connotation for learners, but the tone in which it is delivered might affect their willingness to continue learning the L2.

In summary, learner perspectives on error correction from the two distinct research settings appear to be quite favorable and the main reason seems to lie in the key role that corrective feedback plays in helping students realize that the language they are producing is not accurate and needs remediation. This finding is compatible with a number of research studies on learner preferences for error correction (Jean & Simard, 2011; Lee, 2013; Kaivanpanah et al., 2012; McCargar, 1993; Oladejo, 1993; Schulz, 1996; 2001) which suggests that error correction might not be a negative factor in learners' L2 motivation.

Conversely, teachers from the two educational institutions had some interesting assumptions about the effect corrective feedback might have on L2 motivation. On the one hand, a number of teachers seemed very optimistic about it, stating that error correction makes an important contribution to learning and that they perceived students' reaction towards corrective feedback to be generally favorable. On the other hand, some other teachers expressed being very concerned about the prejudicial effect error correction may exert on students' motivation. In their opinion, corrective feedback increases learners' language anxiety and causes embarrassment, which is consistent with the findings of previous studies (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Kaivanpanah et al., 2012; McCargar, 1993; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010; Yoshida, 2008b). As a result, they consciously tried to make their corrective moves almost imperceptible, so as to not affect students' self-esteem.

This finding might be an indication of how much disagreement there is among L2 teachers regarding the positive or negative effect corrective feedback may have on motivation. Indeed, Schulz (1996) states that "these fundamental differences of beliefs indicate that FL teaching is far from a united profession" (p. 348). This situation could be explained by the fact that, in the case of these teachers, their beliefs about error correction did not have an empirical base. On the contrary, their views were shaped by their own experiences with corrective feedback, either as teachers or L2 learners (Schulz, 2001).

Nonetheless, regardless of how optimistic or pessimistic they were, there was some common ground in their assumptions. As an illustration, all teachers agreed that it was essential to get to know the students in order to know how much correction they

could tolerate. For this purpose, they expressed the importance of taking into account the individual characteristics of each student, including personality and level of proficiency so as to know what type of feedback would be most effective for them. Additionally, all teachers agreed that overcorrecting might have a harmful effect on students' confidence and that the tone and time of correction was also relevant to make students feel comfortable when receiving feedback.

In spite of the diversity of teacher views there was a common feeling of uncertainty as to whether their opinions about how learners feel when receiving feedback are accurate or not. This situation might be suggestive of lack of reflection on the part of the teachers or of the necessity to openly discuss this topic among themselves and with their students, who seem to have completely opposite beliefs about the role of error correction.

Dörnyei (2005) states that beliefs certainly influence personal behaviors because they are “more deeply embedded in our minds and they can be rooted back in our past or in the influence of the modeling example of some significant person around us” (p. 214). Therefore, beliefs might be more complicated to modify even when faced with factual evidence (Cotteral, 1999). For this reason, it could be inferred that when teacher and learner beliefs go in an opposite direction, this might cause a detrimental effect on L2 motivation, lessening the success of instruction and consequently affecting L2 learning (Brown, 2009; Grotjhan, 1991; Jean & Simard, 2011; Oladejo, 1993; Schulz, 1996; 2001).

This situation might have an important pedagogical implication for L2 teachers, especially in FL contexts, where student beliefs about grammar instruction and corrective feedback seem to be especially favorable (Kaivanpanah et al., 2012; Schulz, 2001). As Schulz (1996) states, the current trend in L2 teaching and learning emphasizes the need to take student beliefs into consideration as they can influence the effectiveness of the learning process. Accordingly, one way of avoiding the conflict that dissimilar perspectives on corrective feedback might cause would be to openly ask students about their views on error correction (Kaivanpanah et al., 2012; Schulz 1996; 2001), either by means of a class discussion or a questionnaire, such as the one presented in this study. This could help dissipate any doubts teachers might have about how to correct students and, at the same time, students would feel “that their perceived needs are being catered to” (Oladejo, 1993, p. 73).

Moreover, once L2 teachers have gathered this information on how to treat their students’ errors in a specific learning context, they can go even further, paying attention to the needs of each learner and tailoring their corrective feedback moves according to what seems to be effective for both the group and the individuals in that class (Kennedy, 2010). All in all, according to Lyster et al. (2013), the best teachers are the ones who are able to provide a broad range of types of corrective feedback, taking into consideration the characteristics of the educational context, as well as the unique traits of each learner. Therefore, it is only in this way that teachers will be able to sustain students’ motivation throughout the learning process: by letting them know explicitly (as learners seem to prefer) that their perspectives regarding error correction are being considered and, thus, that their voices are being heard.

In the following chapter, I will provide an overview of the main findings of the present study and I will additionally address the main pedagogical implications these findings have for L2 teaching and learning. Finally, I will discuss the main research limitations and propose new ideas for future investigations.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

In this final chapter, I will firstly present a summary of the major findings of this mixed-methods research study. Secondly, I will discuss the most relevant pedagogical implications these results may have for L2 teaching and learning, and propose some practical activities for teachers to implement in their classrooms. Lastly, I will address the main limitations of this research in terms of its methodology and suggest new ideas for future investigations.

1. Overview of Findings

The present research study aimed at examining EFL teacher and learner perspectives on corrective feedback in order to identify any differences between them that might negatively affect students' L2 motivation. This investigation was carried out in two different research settings in Santiago, Chile. One of these settings was a private bilingual school where learners had considerable exposure to the target language and numerous opportunities to develop oral fluency. The second research site was a semi-private school where students had fewer hours of English lessons per week and limited oral practice. The rationale behind having two research sites was to compare not just the general teacher versus learner beliefs about error correction, but also to have a comparison between these two very distinct educational contexts.

1.1 Learner perspectives on corrective feedback

The main finding pertaining to learner beliefs about error correction was that while the quantitative results only yielded a few differences between students from the two distinct research sites, the qualitative analysis exhibited some discrepancies between them. For instance, in terms of types of corrective feedback, both groups of students had a preference for explicit correction in the Likert-scale questions and the multiple-choice section of the questionnaire. Nonetheless, the interviews revealed that students from the private bilingual school also felt comfortable receiving recasts, while the students from the semi-private institution kept favoring explicit feedback. This suggests that the amount of exposure to the target language and the level of proficiency these students have might influence their error correction preferences. As an illustration, students from the private institution and a couple of students from the other school who had more oral practice stated that they did not like to be interrupted when speaking English. For this reason, they preferred a more implicit type of feedback, such as recasts, which did not interrupt their train of thought and facilitated their oral production. At the same time, previous research suggests that students who have a higher level of proficiency have less trouble noticing the corrective intention of their teachers' recasts (Amar & Spada, 2006; Kennedy, 2010; Nabei & Swain, 2002).

In terms of frequency of feedback, both groups of students agreed that they would like to have their mistakes corrected all the time and that they would rather receive the correction after they have finished developing their idea. Regarding positive attitudes towards corrective feedback, both groups of students exhibited very favorable opinions towards correction, although in general, it seemed that students

from the semi-private institution were slightly more optimistic. Finally, concerning negative attitudes towards corrective feedback, students from both schools disagreed with all statements, but significant differences were found in the statement addressing the concept of interruption. In this respect, students from the private school appeared to be more sensitive to feeling interrupted when receiving corrective feedback, which is consistent with what was found in the interviews as it was one of the most recurrent topics.

In summary, all students shared very positive beliefs about corrective feedback, regardless of the institution they attended. Nonetheless, it appears that the amount of exposure to the language and the level of proficiency might play an important role in learners' preferences for error correction, especially in terms of the types of feedback they would rather receive from their teachers.

1.2 Teacher preferences for corrective feedback

Whereas there seemed to be certain degree of agreement among students, teachers' perspectives on corrective feedback appeared to vary considerably, especially concerning their general appreciation of error correction. Nonetheless, this variation did not seem to depend on the institution they worked at, but on their personal and professional experiences with corrective feedback. As an illustration, while some teachers believed that error correction had a beneficial effect on L2 learning, others were doubtful about it due to the poor improvement some students had shown despite receiving constant correction from their teachers. Additionally, a number of teachers expressed that their main concern was to not inhibit students' desire to communicate in

the target language and, thus, they made their corrections as subtle as possible so as not to affect students' self-esteem. Conversely, others stated that correction was necessary to help students identify the mistakes they were not able to recognize by themselves.

In terms of types of corrective feedback, teachers from the private institution reported using more recasts, while teachers from the semi-private institution acknowledged using recasts and prompts. The most important explanation for this situation was that, in their opinion, recasts were faster to deliver and did not interrupt the flow of interaction. Additionally, both groups of teachers agreed that prompts were the most effective type of feedback, but did not use them as much because of time constraints and the large number of students they had. Regarding explicit correction, both groups of teachers reported that they did not usually employ it to correct individual mistakes because it took away teaching time and they felt it made them look too stringent, so they would rather use it to deal with general errors that needed further remediation.

In regards to frequency of feedback, teachers expressed having a preference for correcting mistakes that impede communication mainly because overcorrecting students might cause them frustration. For this reason, they acknowledged being extremely careful with correction, so as to ensure students wanted to continue using the language in communicative activities after being corrected.

1.3 Differences between teacher and learner perspectives on corrective feedback

One of the most significant findings of this research study is that there were evident disparities between teacher and learner perspectives regarding types of corrective feedback, its frequency, and positive and negative attitudes towards it in the two FL contexts involved in this investigation. In regards to types of feedback, whereas students had a general preference for explicit feedback in the form of explicit correction and metalinguistic cues, teachers preferred implicit types, such as recasts or repetition. However, the fact that some students from the private institution expressed also liking recasts might suggest that there is less distance between these learners' beliefs and their teachers' than those of the participants from the semi-private institution. Concerning frequency of feedback, students had a preference for constant correction that would occur every time they committed an error. However, teachers would rather just correct those mistakes that prevent students from communicating effectively in order not to affect their self-confidence.

In terms of positive and negative attitudes towards error correction, learners in general appeared to be much more convinced of the benefits of corrective feedback than their teachers, who showed evident skepticism. Nonetheless, most teachers agreed that error correction was necessary to help students see the difference between their errors and the correct versions of them and thus improve their language production. As to negative attitudes, the results suggested that teachers had a more pessimistic view of error correction than their students, which was confirmed through the interviews as one of the most persistent topics was their concern for causing learners embarrassment,

which could eventually diminish students' self-confidence and hinder oral communication.

1.4 The effect of corrective feedback on L2 motivation

The last relevant finding pertains to learner and teacher beliefs about the effect that corrective feedback might have on students' L2 motivation, which again are very dissimilar. Students from the two schools reported that error correction had a positive effect on their motivation as it encouraged them to learn more. Indeed, a few students even stated that they felt challenged by corrective feedback and that overcoming a persistent error made them experience a sense of achievement. Nonetheless, they also expressed that their motivation was negatively affected when the tone of correction was not appropriate. Therefore, it could be concluded that students do not seem to be as concerned about the type or frequency of correction they receive as about the tone in which teachers deliver that correction.

On the other hand, while a few teachers agreed with students' views, the majority believed that either corrective feedback did not have any effect on motivation or that the influence it had was completely detrimental. This might explain the motive behind their extreme concern for the embarrassment error correction might cause students. For this reason, they expressed it was absolutely essential to get to know students and tailor corrective feedback moves so as to fit the needs of each learner and not inhibit their L2 development.

In conclusion, the present research study suggests that there are important differences between teacher and learner perspectives on error correction regardless of

the FL educational contexts in which this investigation was conducted. According to previous research (Dörnyei, 2005; Cotteral, 1999; Grotjhan, 1991), learner beliefs play an essential role in L2 learning as they shape students' behaviors and motivation to continue acquiring the target language. Therefore, if students' beliefs about error correction do not match those of their teachers, learners might feel that their expectations are not being met and, thus, the effectiveness of instruction might be questioned (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Kaivanpanah et al., 2012; Schulz 1996; 2001). Consequently, students may lose interest or completely desist from learning an L2.

2. Pedagogical implications

Several pedagogical implications can be drawn from the main findings of this research study which suggests that, in this particular EFL context, teacher and learner perspectives on corrective feedback are far from being similar. For this reason, and taking into consideration that disparities between teacher and learner beliefs about such an important teaching strategy as corrective feedback might have a pernicious effect on L2 motivation, there seems to be an urgency to address this topic in the classroom and overtly discuss it with students. This could be done by having an open conversation with learners, hopefully at the beginning of a new course, in which teachers state the importance of error correction for L2 learning and ask students about their preferences. This could also be achieved through the administration of a brief questionnaire, like the one designed for this investigation, which could shed light on students' general appreciation of error correction and on their preferences for different

varieties of feedback according to the type of errors they commit (grammatical, lexical, and phonological).

Nonetheless, for educators to have this conversation with students, they need to be convinced of the benefits of corrective feedback themselves. Therefore, another pedagogical implication would be the need to discuss this topic among L2 teachers in order to eradicate any preconceived ideas they may have about error correction through an informed reflection on their teaching practice and sharing of experiences. It would also be advisable to encourage teachers to get involved in relevant SLA discussions by attending conferences or workshops that might address this topic and thus help them get acquainted with the latest trends in L2 teaching and learning , especially concerning a topic that apparently is not regularly dealt with in EFL teacher training programs in Chile. In this respect, it is also important to highlight the need to include this subject in teaching methodology courses, so as to prepare future EFL teachers to successfully integrate error correction as an effective teaching strategy without feeling insecure about the effect it may have on students' L2 motivation.

Finally, as teachers from both schools stated, it is vital to take into consideration students' individual differences, such as personality, maturity, and level of proficiency when selecting the type of feedback that will be most effective for them; however, at the same time, it is also important to understand how the educational context might influence learner beliefs about error correction. As the present study exhibited, the amount of exposure to the target language and the opportunities learners had to develop oral skills influenced learners' preferences for corrective feedback. Accordingly, EFL teachers should take these individual and environmental factors into

account when implementing different types of corrective feedback in their classrooms in order to not only be effective in their corrections, but also to make students feel that their opinions matter. It is in this way that learners will be able to sustain their motivation throughout the process of L2 learning, by seeing their teachers concerned about their needs and by having the space to clearly state what they find beneficial for their own learning. As a result, teachers will not just be gathering information pertaining to learner beliefs about corrective feedback, but they will also be fostering students' reflection on their own learning experience.

3. Limitations

The present research study has some methodological limitations which might affect the generalizability of the results. The most relevant one relates to the total number of students involved in this investigation ($n = 247$), which greatly surpasses the number of teachers ($n = 12$). Consequently, although a Bonferroni correction was applied to all p values, these results might not be representative of the reality of other schools in a similar FL context, especially in terms of teacher beliefs about error correction.

Additionally, as this study did not include any classroom observation, teacher and learner views about the types of feedback that were used the most or about learners' awareness of recasts were purely subjective. Therefore, despite all the research that suggests that recasts are the most frequent type of feedback found in diverse FL/SL classrooms around the world (Lee, 2013; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010; Yoshida, 2010), this could not be confirmed through an objective measurement. Although such an endeavor proved impossible within the time

constraints of the present study, the study clearly would have benefited from an observational component to complement the questionnaire and interview data.

4. Future research

The present study contributed to understanding the preferences of teachers and learners for corrective feedback in an FL context that had not been previously explored and with a high school student population that has not been the target of a vast number of investigations. It also helped shed light on students' and teachers' opinions about the effect corrective feedback might have on L2 motivation and how their disparities might eventually affect it, which is a topic that has not yet been extensively investigated in SLA. For this reason, it might be advantageous to continue conducting research on the interrelationship of L2 motivation and corrective feedback in order to help decrease teachers' feelings of insecurity by empirically showing that corrective feedback, when employed appropriately, might be a favorable factor in increasing students' motivation. Additionally, it may also be useful to continue doing research on teacher and learner preferences for corrective feedback in a greater variety of learning contexts, as each of them is unique and different results might be found. At the same time, it may also be interesting to see how incorporating the topic of corrective feedback in the syllabus of a course in an EFL teacher training program might change the views of novice teachers regarding error correction when compared to their already experienced counterparts.

Finally, in terms of future analyses of the present data, it would be sensible to calculate the internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of the participants' responses in

each of the constructs addressed in the questionnaires in order to improve and validate them to be used in future investigations. Moreover, as there is no instrument intended to measure the relationship between corrective feedback and L2 motivation in the related literature, it would be helpful to include more questions about their interrelationship in the instruments designed for the present study or even create a new questionnaire intended to thoroughly examine their link.

In conclusion, corrective feedback is still an area of SLA that needs researchers' attention. Indeed, despite the fact that research has shown that this teaching tool facilitates L2 learning and that students from diverse educational contexts are very receptive to it, there is still certain resistance from teachers to accept these findings and integrate error correction as an essential part of their teaching practice. This situation indicates that more studies are needed to help close the gap between SLA research findings and language pedagogy.

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APPENDIX A: Student Questionnaire (English and Spanish)

Second Language Learning: Learner Questionnaire**McGill University**

We would like to invite you to answer this questionnaire about some aspects of second language learning. You do not have to write your name. We are interested in your personal opinion, so there is no right or wrong answer. Please answer sincerely as this will guarantee the success of this research study. However, you do not need to answer any question you do not want to.

Do you agree to answer this questionnaire? Yes_____ No_____

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I.	We would like you to indicate your opinion after each statement by putting an "X" in the box that best represents the degree to which you agree or disagree.					
1	I like it when my teacher explicitly tells me I made a mistake and gives me the right version of what I said.					
2	I like it when my teacher corrects my English without letting me know she/he is correcting me.					
3	I like it when my teacher asks me to correct myself.					
4	I like it when my teacher tells me what kind of mistake I made and asks me to correct myself.					
5	Teachers should correct students every time they make a mistake when speaking English.					
6	Teachers should correct students only when students cannot communicate clearly.					
7	Teachers should never correct their students' mistakes when speaking English.					
8	I always know when my teacher is correcting me even if she/he doesn't tell me.					
9	Error correction is good for language learning					
10	Every time my teacher corrects me, I feel I learn more.					
11	Error correction helps me identify my weak areas in English.					
12	I usually feel embarrassed when my teacher corrects me in front of the whole class.					
13	Generally, I feel frustrated, after my teacher corrects me.					
14	Generally, I feel interrupted every time my teacher corrects me.					
15	I would feel much more comfortable if my teacher never corrected me.					

- II. In this section, please circle the alternative that best represents your preference.
2. When I am speaking English and I make a grammar mistake, such as “he **have** a car”, I would like my teacher to correct me by:
 - d) Saying “he has a car” after me without telling me she/he is correcting me.
 - e) Telling me that “he have” is wrong and that the correct version is “he has”.
 - f) Asking me “could you say that again?” so that I can correct myself.
 3. When I am speaking English and I mispronounce a word, I would like my teacher to:
 - a) Ask me to say it again correctly.
 - b) Tell me the word is mispronounced and provide the right pronunciation.
 - c) Repeat the word with the correct pronunciation after me without telling me she/he is correcting me.
 4. When I am speaking English and I say a word I do not know in Spanish, as in “I love eating ‘**arroz**’”, I would like my teacher to:
 - a) Tell me: “In English, the word is ‘rice’”.
 - b) Ask me “what is the word for ‘arroz’ in English?”
 - c) Say “rice” after me without letting me know she/he is correcting me.
 5. When my teacher asks me to correct my own incorrect sentence: “People **is** very nice”, I like it when she/he first makes me realize I made a mistake by:
 - a) Asking me “Are you sure it is correct to say ‘people is’?”
 - b) Repeating my error with special intonation to allow me to correct that mistake, as in: “People **is**?”
 - c) Telling me “I didn’t understand ‘people is’, can you say it again?”
 - d) Indicating what kind of error I made, as in: “‘People is’ is a grammatical mistake, can you correct it?”

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP! ☺

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(Spanish version) Aprendizaje de Idiomas Extranjeros: Cuestionario Estudiantes**McGill University**

Te invitamos a contestar este cuestionario acerca del aprendizaje de idiomas extranjeros, que en este caso es inglés. No es necesario escribir tu nombre. Estamos interesados en tu opinión personal, por lo que no hay respuestas correctas o incorrectas. Sólo te pedimos que por favor contestes sinceramente, ya que esto garantizará la validez de este estudio. Sin embargo, no es necesario que contestes preguntas que no quieras contestar.

¿Estás de acuerdo con responder este cuestionario? Sí_____ No_____

		Muy en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Neutral	De acuerdo	Muy de acuerdo
I.	Por favor marca con una "X" la casilla que mejor representa el grado en que estás de acuerdo o en desacuerdo con cada afirmación.					
1	Me gusta cuando mi profesor(a) me dice explícitamente que me equivoqué y da la versión correcta de lo que dije.					
2	Me gusta cuando mi profesor(a) repite la versión correcta de lo que dije sin hacerme saber que me está corrigiendo.					
3	Me gusta cuando mi profesor(a) me pide que me autocorrija.					
4	Me gusta cuando mi profesor(a) me indica qué tipo de error cometí y me pide que me autocorrija.					
5	Los profesores de inglés deberían corregir a sus alumnos cada vez que cometen un error al hablar inglés.					
6	Los profesores de inglés deberían corregir a sus alumnos sólo cuando ellos no pueden comunicarse claramente.					
7	Los profesores nunca debieran corregir a sus alumnos cuando hablan inglés.					
8	Siempre sé cuando mi profesor(a) me está corrigiendo, incluso cuando no me lo dice.					
9	La corrección es beneficiosa para el aprendizaje de idiomas.					
10	Cada vez que mi profesor(a) me corrige, siento que aprendo más inglés.					
11	La corrección me ayuda a identificar las áreas que debo mejorar en inglés.					
12	Generalmente, me siento avergonzado(a) cuando mi profesor(a) me corrige en frente de mis compañeros.					
13	Generalmente, me siento frustrado(a) después de que mi profesor(a) me corrige.					
14	Generalmente, me siento interrumpido(a) cada vez que mi profesor(a) me corrige.					
15	Me sentiría más a gusto si mi profesor nunca me corrigiera.					

- II. En esta sección, por favor encierra en un círculo la alternativa que mejor representa tu preferencia.
1. Cuando estoy hablando inglés y cometo un error gramatical como "he **have** a car", me gustaría que mi profesor(a) me corrigiera:
 - d) Diciendo "he has a car" después de mi sin hacerme saber que me está corrigiendo.
 - e) Diciéndome que "he have" es incorrecto y que la versión correcta es "he has".
 - f) Pidiéndome repetir la frase para autocorregirme.
 2. Cuando estoy hablando inglés y pronuncio mal una palabra, me gustaría que mi profesor(a):
 - a) Me pidiera decir la palabra mal pronunciada otra vez correctamente para autocorregirme.
 - b) Me dijera qué palabra está mal pronunciada y que él/ella la pronuncie correctamente para que yo la repita.
 - c) Repitiera la palabra con la pronunciación correcta después de mi sin decirme que me está corrigiendo.
 3. Cuando estoy hablando inglés y digo una palabra que no sé en español, como por ejemplo: "I love eating '**arroz**'", me gustaría que mi profesor(a):
 - a) Me dijera: "En ingles, la palabra es 'rice'".
 - b) Me preguntara "¿Cómo se dice 'arroz' en inglés?"
 - c) Dijera "rice" después de mi sin decirme que me está corrigiendo.
 4. Si mi profesor(a) me pide que me autocorrija cuando digo: "People **is** very nice", me gusta que me ayude a identificar mi error:
 - a) Preguntándome "¿Estás seguro(a) que se dice 'people is'?"
 - b) Enfatizando la entonación para que pueda corregirme, como por ejemplo: "People **is**?"
 - c) Diciéndome: "No entendí 'people is', puedes decirlo otra vez?"
 - d) Indicando el tipo de error que cometí, como por ejemplo: "'People is' es un error gramatical, ¿puedes corregirlo?"

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP! 😊

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APPENDIX B: Teacher Questionnaire (English and Spanish)

Second Language Learning: Teacher Questionnaire**McGill University**

We would like to ask you to answer this questionnaire about some aspects of second language learning. You do not have to write your name. We are interested in your personal opinion, so there is no right or wrong answer. Please answer sincerely as this will guarantee the success of this research study.

Do you agree to answer this questionnaire? Yes_____ No_____

We would like you to indicate your opinion after each statement by putting an "X" in the box that best represents the degree to which you agree or disagree.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I like to explicitly tell my students when they make a mistake and give them the correct version of what they said.					
2	I like to give my students the correct version of their sentence without letting them know I am correcting them.					
3	I like to ask my students to correct themselves.					
4	I like to tell my students what kind of mistake they've made and then ask them to correct themselves.					
5	Students should be corrected every time they make a mistake when speaking English.					
6	Students should be corrected only when they cannot communicate clearly.					
7	Students should never be corrected when they make a mistake speaking English.					
8	My students always know when I'm correcting them even if I don't tell them so.					
9	Error correction is good for language learning.					
10	Every time I correct my students, I feel they learn more.					
11	Error correction helps my students identify their weak areas in English.					
12	My students usually feel embarrassed when I correct them in front of the whole class.					
13	Generally, my students feel frustrated after I correct them.					
14	Generally, I feel that I interrupt my students every time I correct them.					
15	My students would feel much more comfortable if I never corrected them.					

In this section, please circle the alternative that best represents your preference.

- 1) When my students are speaking English and they make a grammar mistake, such as "he **have** a car", I like to correct them by:
 - g) Saying "he has a car" after them without mentioning I am correcting them.
 - h) Telling them that "he have" is wrong and that the correct version is "he has".
 - i) Asking them "could you say that again?" so that they can correct themselves.

- 2) When my students are speaking English and they mispronounce a word, I like to:
 - d) Ask them to say it again correctly.
 - e) Tell them the word is mispronounced and provide the right pronunciation for them.
 - f) Repeat the word with the correct pronunciation after them without mentioning I am correcting them.

- 3) When my students are speaking English and they say a word they do not know in Spanish, as in "I love eating '**arroz**'", I like to:
 - d) Tell them: "In English, the word is 'rice'".
 - e) Ask them "what is the word for 'arroz' in English?"
 - f) Say "rice" after them without letting them know I am correcting them.

- 4) When I ask my students to correct their own incorrect sentence: "People **is** very nice", I like to make them realize they made a mistake by:
 - e) Asking them "Are you sure it is correct to say 'people is'?"
 - f) Repeating their error with special intonation to allow them to correct that mistake, as in: "People **is**?"
 - g) Telling them "I didn't understand 'people is', can you say it again?"
 - h) Indicating what kind of error they made, as in: "'People is' is a grammatical mistake, can you correct it?"

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP! ☺

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**(Spanish version) Aprendizaje de Inglés como Segunda Lengua: Cuestionario
Profesores**

McGill University

Te invitamos a contestar este cuestionario acerca de la corrección de errores al hablar inglés. No es necesario escribir tu nombre. Estamos interesados en tu opinión personal, por lo que no hay respuestas correctas o incorrectas. Sólo te pedimos que por favor contestes sinceramente todas las preguntas, ya que esto garantizará la validez de este estudio.

¿Estás de acuerdo con contestar este cuestionario? Sí_____ No_____		Muy en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Neutral	De acuerdo	Muy de acuerdo
1	Me gusta decirle explícitamente a mi alumno que se equivocó y darle la versión correcta de lo que dijo.					
2	Me gusta repetir la versión correcta de lo que mi alumno dijo mal sin hacerle saber que lo estoy corrigiendo.					
3	Me gusta pedirles a mis alumnos que se autocorrijan.					
4	Me gusta indicar qué tipo de error mis alumnos cometieron y pedirles que se autocorrijan.					
5	Los profesores de inglés deberían corregir a sus alumnos cada vez que cometen un error al hablar inglés.					
6	Los profesores de inglés deberían corregir a sus alumnos sólo cuando ellos no pueden comunicarse claramente.					
7	Los profesores nunca debieran corregir a sus alumnos cuando hablan inglés.					
8	Mis alumnos siempre saben cuándo los estoy corrigiendo, incluso cuando no se los digo.					
9	La corrección es beneficiosa para el aprendizaje de idiomas.					
10	Cada vez que corrijo a mis alumnos, siento que ellos aprenden más inglés.					
11	La corrección ayuda a mis alumnos a identificar las áreas que deben mejorar en inglés.					
12	Generalmente, mis alumnos se sienten avergonzados(as) cuando los corrijo en frente de sus compañeros.					
13	Generalmente, mis alumnos se sienten frustrados(as) después de que los corrijo.					
14	Generalmente, mis alumnos se sienten interrumpidos(as) cada vez que los corrijo.					
15	Me sentiría más a gusto si nunca tuviera que corregir a mis alumnos.					

- II. En esta sección, por favor encierra en un círculo la alternativa que mejor representa tu preferencia.
- 4 Cuando mis alumnos están hablando inglés y cometen un error gramatical como "he **have** a car", me gusta corregirlos:
- d) Diciendo "he has a car" después de ellos sin hacerles saber que los estoy corrigiendo.
 - e) Diciéndoles que "he have" es incorrecto y que la versión correcta es "he has".
 - f) Pidiéndoles repetir la frase para que se autocorrijan.
- 5 Cuando mis alumnos están hablando inglés y pronuncian mal una palabra, me gusta:
- a) Pedirles que digan la palabra mal pronunciada otra vez correctamente para que se autocorrijan.
 - b) Decirles qué palabra está mal pronunciada y pronunciarla correctamente para que la repitan.
 - c) Repetir la palabra con la pronunciación correcta después de ellos sin decirles que los estoy corrigiendo.
- 6 Cuando mis alumnos están hablando inglés y dicen una palabra que no saben en español, como por ejemplo: "I love eating '**arroz**'", me gusta:
- a) Decirles: "En ingles, la palabra es 'rice'".
 - b) Preguntarles "¿Cómo se dice 'arroz' en inglés?"
 - c) Decir "rice" después de ellos sin decirles que los estoy corrigiendo.
- 7 Si les pido a mis alumnos que se autocorrijan cuando dicen: "People **is** very nice", me gusta ayudarles a identificar el error:
- a) Preguntando: "¿Estás seguro(a) de que se dice 'people is'?"
 - b) Enfatizando la entonación para que pueda corregirse, como por ejemplo: "People **is**?"
 - c) Diciendo: "No entendí 'people is', puedes decirlo otra vez?"
 - d) Indicando el tipo de error que cometió, como por ejemplo: "'People is' es un error gramatical, ¿puedes corregirlo?"

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP! ☺

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APPENDIX C: Focus-group post-questionnaire questions for teachers

English	Spanish
1. How beneficial do you think corrective feedback is for learning English?	1. ¿Cuán beneficiosa es la corrección para el aprendizaje del inglés?
2. Did you receive any type of instruction about corrective feedback at university? If so, what did they teach you?	2. ¿Recibió algún tipo de instrucción con respecto a la corrección en la universidad? Si es así, ¿qué le enseñaron?
3. How often do you correct your students' oral mistakes?	3. ¿Cuán a menudo corrige los errores de sus alumnos al hablar?
4. How do you usually correct your students? Please provide an example.	4. ¿Cómo corrige usualmente a sus alumnos? Por favor da un ejemplo.
5. Do you prefer to repeat your students' mistakes and correct them with or without them necessarily knowing you're correcting them or would you rather allow them to correct themselves?	5. ¿Prefiere repetir los errores de sus alumnos y corregirlos con o sin que necesariamente se den cuenta o prefiere darles la oportunidad de que se autocorrijan?
6. Based on your experience, what method of correction do you think is the most effective? Why?	6. Basado en su experiencia, ¿qué método de corrección es el más efectivo? Porque?
7. Do you change the method of correction according to the type of mistake students make (grammatical, lexical, or phonological)?	7. ¿Cambia el método de corrección según el error que sus alumnos cometan (gramático, léxico, o fonético)?
8. Do you sometimes feel insecure about how to correct your students? If so, why?	8. ¿A veces se siente inseguro (a) de cómo corregir a sus alumnos? Si es así, porque?
9. How do you think your students feel when they are corrected in front of the class? Do they have a positive or negative reaction?	9. ¿Cómo cree que sus alumnos reciben la corrección? Tienen una reacción positiva o negativa?
10. What's your perception of the students' level of satisfaction regarding the way you correct them?	10. ¿Cuál es su percepción del nivel de satisfacción de los estudiantes respecto de la forma en que usted los corrige?
11. Do you think that error correction keeps students motivated to continue learning? Why?	11. ¿Usted cree que la corrección mantiene a los alumnos motivados a seguir aprendiendo? Porque?

APPENDIX D: Focus-group post-questionnaire questions for students

English	Spanish
1. How beneficial do you think corrective feedback is for learning English?	1. ¿Cuán beneficiosa es la corrección para el aprendizaje del inglés?
2. How often would you like your teacher to correct your mistakes when speaking?	2. ¿Cuán a menudo te gustaría que tu profesor(a) corrigiera tus errores al hablar?
3. How does your teacher usually correct your mistakes? Please provide an example.	3. ¿Cómo usualmente te corrige tu profesor(a)? Por favor da un ejemplo.
4. Do you like your teacher to repeat your mistakes and correct them with or without you necessarily knowing you're being corrected or do you like it when he allows you to correct yourself?	4. ¿Prefieres que tu profesor(a) repita tu error y lo corrija con o sin que necesariamente me dé cuenta o prefieres que te dé la oportunidad de autocorregirte?
5. Based on your opinion, what way of correction do you think you learn the most with? Why?	5. Basado en tu opinión, ¿con cuál forma de corrección aprendes mejor? ¿Por qué?
6. Would you like that your teacher corrected you in a different way depending on what mistake you made? For example, if you made a grammar mistake, or if you confused a word or said it with the wrong pronunciation?	6. ¿Te gustaría que tu profesor(a) cambiara el método de corrección según el error que cometieras? Por ejemplo si te equivocas en una oración o en una palabra o en pronunciación.
7. How do you feel when you are corrected in front of the class? Do you have a positive or negative reaction?	7. ¿Cómo te sientes cuando te corrigen en frente de la clase? ¿Tienes una reacción positiva o negativa?
8. How do feel about the way your teacher corrects you? Would you change anything?	8. ¿Cómo te sientes con respecto a la forma en que tu profesor(a) te corrige? ¿Cambiarías algo?
9. Do you think that error correction keeps you motivated to continue learning? Why?	9. ¿Crees que la corrección te mantiene motivado para seguir aprendiendo? ¿Por qué?

APPENDIX E: Consent form for parents (English and Spanish)

**Informed Written Consent for Parents**

November____, 2012

Dear Parents/Legal Tutors:

Your son/daughter has been invited to participate in a research study about teacher and learner perspectives on error correction and its effect on motivation, which will involve students from eighth to eleventh grade and their English teachers in _____ school. This thesis project, conducted by Ms. Natalia Miranda Calderón and supervised by Dr. Roy Lyster, aims to examine the opinions of teachers and students about the way they are corrected when speaking English and discover if this affects their desire to continue learning.

The purpose of this letter is to request your permission to have your son/daughter participate in this study which will take place during the last week of November and the first of December. The participants will be asked to answer a short anonymous questionnaire in the classroom which takes approximately 15 minutes. However, a second data collection procedure involves small group interviews which can take up to 1 hour in a separate office at the school during school hours and which will be audio-taped. Your son/daughter does not need to answer any question he/she does not want to, both in the questionnaire and the interview. Even though participating may not benefit your son/daughter directly, it will contribute to the understanding of an educational aspect that teachers and students are involved in on a daily basis.

The participation in both stages of the process is completely voluntary and the information collected will be kept absolutely confidential. No one, except for the researcher will have access to that information. Also, if you do agree to have your son/daughter participate, he/she can withdraw at anytime from the study without any negative consequences.

Below we ask that you indicate whether or not you agree with your child answering a questionnaire and/or participating in an interview. If you would like additional information about the project, you can contact Ms. Natalia Miranda Calderón at natalia.miranda-calderon@mail.mcgill.ca or at +56 (02) 2888788. Also, if you have any questions or concerns regarding your son/daughter's rights or welfare as a participant in this research study, please contact the McGill Ethics Officer at 514-398-6831 or lynda.mcneil@mcgill.ca.

Sincerely,

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M.A. in Second Language Education candidate
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I will allow _____ to answer the questionnaire:
Yes _____/No _____

And/ or to participate in the focus group interview: Yes _____/No _____

Signature of the parent/legal tutor: _____



Consentimiento informado para padres

____ de Noviembre, 2012

Estimados Padres / Tutores Legales:

Su hijo/a ha sido invitado a participar en un estudio de investigación sobre las perspectivas de alumnos y profesores con respecto a la corrección de errores y su efecto en la motivación, en el que participarán estudiantes de Octavo a Tercero Medio y sus profesores de inglés en el colegio _____. Este proyecto de tesis, realizado por la Srta. Natalia Miranda Calderón y supervisado por el Dr. Roy Lyster, tiene como objetivo examinar las opiniones de los profesores y estudiantes sobre la forma en que son corregidos cuando hablan Inglés y descubrir si esto afecta su deseo de seguir aprendiendo.

El propósito de esta carta es solicitar su permiso para que su hijo/a participe en este estudio, que se llevará a cabo durante la última semana de noviembre y la primera de diciembre. Los participantes tendrán que responder un breve cuestionario anónimo en la sala de clase que dura aproximadamente 15 minutos. Sin embargo, una segunda parte implica entrevistas grupales que pueden durar hasta 1 hora. Éstas serán llevadas a cabo en una oficina del colegio durante tiempo de clase y serán grabadas (sólo audio). Su hijo/a no necesita contestar ninguna pregunta que no quiera en el cuestionario o la entrevista. A pesar de que la participación en este estudio puede no beneficiar a su hijo/a directamente, ésta contribuirá a la comprensión de un aspecto educativo en el que profesores y estudiantes están involucrados en el día a día.

La participación en ambas etapas del proceso es totalmente voluntaria y la información recogida será mantenida absolutamente confidencial. Nadie, excepto el investigador tendrá acceso a esa información. Además, si usted está de acuerdo con que su hijo/a participe, él /ella puede retirarse en cualquier momento del estudio sin ninguna consecuencia negativa.

A continuación le pedimos que indique si está o no de acuerdo con que si hijo/a responda un cuestionario y /o participe en una entrevista. Si desea información adicional sobre el proyecto, puede comunicarse con la Srta. Natalia Miranda Calderón a través del email: natalia.miranda-calderon@mail.mcgill.ca o al teléfono +56 (02) 2888788. Además, si usted tiene alguna pregunta o inquietud con respecto a los derechos o bienestar de su hijo/a como participante en este estudio, por favor contacte al Oficial de Ética McGill en +1 514-398-6831 o en el email: lynda.mcneil@mcgill.ca.

Atentamente,

Natalia Miranda Calderón
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Yo doy permiso para que mi
hijo/a _____ conteste el cuestionario:

Sí _____/No _____. Y/o para que participe en la entrevista grupal: Sí _____/No _____.

Firma del Padre/Madre o Tutor Legal: _____