Cross-cultural influences on corrective feedback preferences in English language instruction

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ABSTRACT

This cross-cultural study examined the preferences of 137 Taiwanese EFL students and 97 ESL Quebecois students for specific types of corrective feedback, as well as their attitudes and beliefs about error correction, and those of 12 Taiwanese English instructors and 12 native English teachers in Quebec. All participants completed two questionnaires, the first eliciting overall preferences and attitudes for corrective feedback, and the second eliciting preferences for specific types of feedback aurally modeled through a digital recording designed for the purpose of this study. In addition, a subsample of participants was selected for follow-up interviews. Descriptive analysis of the initial questionnaire coupled with trends found in interview data revealed cross-cultural differences in preferences for types of errors to correct, the use of correction, rates of correction and affective reactions to error correction. However, statistical analysis of the data yielded by the main elicitation instrument revealed similar preferences within both cultural groups, with explicit correction being ranked highest, followed by recasts and then prompts.

RÉSUMÉ

Cette étude transculturelle étudie les préférences de 137 étudiants taïwanais en anglais langue étrangère et de 97 élèves québécois en anglais langue seconde envers des types précis de rétroaction corrective de même que leurs attitudes et leurs croyances concernant la correction d'erreur de pair ainsi que les préférences avec celles de 12 instructeurs d'anglais taïwanais et de 12 professeurs d'anglais du Québec. Tous les participants ont rempli deux questionnaires, le premier visant à mettre en lumière les préférences et attitudes générales face à la rétroaction corrective et le second qui cherchait à obtenir des renseignements sur les préférences pour des types précis de rétroaction modelée oralement sur un enregistrement numérique conçu spécialement aux fins de l'étude. De plus, un sous-échantillon de participants a été sélectionné pour des entrevues de suivi. Une analyse descriptive du questionnaire initial de même que des tendances décelées à l'entrevue révèlent des différences transculturelles quant aux préférences concernant les erreurs à corriger, l'utilisation et la fréquence de la correction, et les réactions affectives à la correction d'erreur. Toutefois, une analyse statistique des données recueillies au moyen de l'instrument principal de collecte des renseignements révèle des préférences similaires au sein des deux groupes culturels plaçant au premier rang la correction explicite, suivie de la reformulation et, ensuite, des incitations.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This study examines possible cultural influences on the preferences for oral error correction of English language learners and teachers. As English is being taught increasingly in foreign language contexts, the influence of culture on language learning and classroom instruction has been given increased attention. Particular emphasis has been placed on examining cross-cultural differences in student learning styles and instructor teaching styles, student and teacher perceptions regarding their particular roles in the classroom, as well as student and teacher preferences for form-focused instruction and the use of error correction in formal language learning. Despite a significant amount of descriptive and experimental studies focusing on the success of error correction in the language classroom, little research has focused on possible cross-cultural influences on learner preferences for particular forms of error correction.

1. Study Rationale

The treatment of learner oral errors is but one of many instructional practices used in the language classroom which, when observed as a whole, may be illustrative of a particular teaching style. Learners' perceptions and preferences for these different instructional practices may be reflective of particular learning styles. The implications of research on cultural differences in learner preferences for error correction are far-reaching in that they may help reflect the growing consensus that language learners from other cultures outside of North America exhibit specific learning styles. Ten years ago, Crystal (1997) estimated that within a decade the number of people using and communicating in English as a second or foreign language would be considerably higher than the number of

native speakers. Given the current shift in the global English learning landscape, the ability of Western pedagogues to identify these differences and make adjustments to current Western methodology, Western-developed curricula, language learning materials and teacher training is crucial in ensuring that the vast majority of language learner needs are being met globally within ESL and EFL contexts. In shedding light on student preferences for error correction, I hope to illustrate the potential for cultural differences in learner preferences relative to the learning of a second or foreign language.

In analyzing learner preferences for particular types of correction between two distinct cultural groups in different learning contexts, I will discuss these preferences in reference to foreign and second language learning, and to a growing body of research that has looked at the success rates of different corrective techniques within different learning contexts (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Carpenter et al., 2006; Havranek, 2001; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Lyster, 2004; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Lyster & Ranta 1997; Sheen, 2004, 2006; Tsang 2004). If there is evidence for preferences in specific forms of error correction between cultural groups, being aware of these patterns may lead to heightened teacher awareness and help mitigate possible teacher-learner style conflicts which may play a role in the ultimate success of error correction in the language classroom.

In the following study, I will present a comprehensive review of the literature, helping draw the link between culture and learning preferences, and how this ties in to particular instructional practices such as corrective feedback. Using a mixed methods approach, I will triangulate data drawn from questionnaire dissemination and follow-up interviews with Taiwanese students and Taiwanese English teachers, as well as French Quebecois students and native English teachers in Quebec in order to shed light on specific preferences and attitudes towards error correction between these groups.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will help establish a link between the possible influence culture may have on the preferences and attitudes towards error correction by addressing previous research on cultural variables affecting student learning styles and instructor teaching styles, and how achieving congruence between learner and teacher beliefs is essential for effective language learning. A thorough analysis of both descriptive and experimental research in the field of error correction will illustrate how this pedagogical practice plays an important role in language learning, and how influencing variables such as instructional focus, instructional settings, types of feedback used, and learner preferences and attitudes may influence its ultimate success. In doing so, this chapter will also introduce the notion that culture may affect learner preferences for certain types of corrective feedback.

1. Cultural influence on the learning styles of ESL/EFL learners

According to Peacock (2001), language learning styles are "a student's natural, habitual, and preferred way of observing and learning a second language" (p. 1). Ample research has led to the realization that learning styles are heavily influenced by the cultural background of the learner. Dunn and Griggs (1995) state that although "a consistent finding among researchers is that each individual within a family, classroom, or culture has unique learning style preferences that differ from those of their siblings, parents, peers and cultural group, each cultural group tends to have some learning style elements that distinguish it from other cultural groups" (p. 37). In looking at the five major cultural groups in the United States (African-American, Hispanic-American,

Native-American, Asian-American, and European-American), Dunn and Griggs observed significant differences between groups and concluded that "culture influences both the learning process and its outcomes"(p. 37).

Reid (1987) administered a questionnaire to 1,388 students composed of native (NSEs) and non-native (NNSEs) speakers of English to identify their learning style preferences. A total of nine language backgrounds, which included English, were analyzed based on six different learning style preferences developed by the researcher. Results indicated that NNSE preferences differed significantly from those of NSEs. In addition, high variability in learning style preference was observed between NNSEs of different language backgrounds. In discussing these results, Reid hypothesized that a mismatch between teaching and learning styles could be detrimental to overall learning. Peacock (2001), in an attempt to investigate the hypothesis established by Reid (1987), administered the questionnaire developed in Reid's study, and conducted tests and interviews with 46 EFL teachers and 206 EFL students from a university in Hong Kong. Results corroborated Reid's hypothesis that dissonance between student learning and instructor teaching styles led to learning failure. In addition, he also predicted that native English teachers of Chinese students would notice that their students globally favour and disfavour particular learning styles. Peacock strongly suggested that Western teachers pay attention to a particular learning style favoured by Chinese learners and that they may find differences between their learning beliefs and that of their students. He drew the conclusion that teachers should use a balanced approach to teaching in order to accommodate different learning styles.

Bedell and Oxford (1996) presented a review of 36 learning strategy studies focusing on over a dozen different cultures in both EFL and ESL contexts over a period

of 10 years. Conclusions were drawn that learners often "behave in certain culturally approved and socially encouraged ways as they learn" (p. 60).

Oxford, Holloway and Horton-Murillo (1992) support the belief that learning styles are often related to cultural values. This notion is also supported by several language researchers who believe that ethnicity is one of several factors that influence learning styles (Dunn & Dunn, 1979; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995; Reid, 1987).

Woodrow and Sham (2001) conducted a study comparing the learning preferences of British-Chinese pupils in the Greater Manchester school system to their British-European counterparts. Significant differences were found for a number of learning preferences, with British-Chinese indicating a preference for autonomous work over group work, and demonstrating a dislike for asking or being asked questions. Results also indicated that British-Chinese learned best through rote learning. In the words of the authors, "the overwhelming conclusion from this research is the extent to which British-Chinese pupils remain conditioned by traditional Chinese behavioural rules even though they were largely born in England" (p. 377). Zhenhui (2001) claims that the traditional approach to teaching found in many East Asian countries have resulted in particular learning styles of students from those countries. This has been corroborated in numerous studies which have revealed particular learning characteristics and preferences unique to students from this part of the world (Nelson, 1995; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Reid, 1987; Sato, 1982).

2. Cultural perceptions towards language learning

In addition to culturally specific preferences for learning styles, studies have revealed cultural differences in the perceptions towards language learning.

Dahlin and Watkins (2000) revealed significant differences in the way Western and Chinese students viewed the concept of understanding, which consequently coloured their approaches to learning. Jin and Cortazzi (1998) identified significant differences in how British and Chinese high school students defined the concept of 'good teacher'. McCargar (1993) conducted a study based on his suspicion that "people from various cultures may not share similar expectations of teacher and student roles" (p. 200). Results revealed that role expectations differed in ESL contexts among teachers and students from eight different ethnic groups (Indian, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Arab, Persian, Hispanic, and American).

In a study comparing Colombian EFL teachers and students with their foreign language counterparts in the U.S., Schulz (2001) revealed a number of discrepancies between both ethnic groups concerning their beliefs on the use of explicit grammar instruction and error correction in the classroom.

Given the differences observed in their learning style preferences, as well as their expectations and attitudes relating to learning, the potential for conflict between language learners and instructors from different cultures appears highly plausible.

3. Importance of teacher/student style congruence in the language classroom

Second language research has recognized the potential for differences in preferences, attitudes and beliefs of both students and teachers, as well as the impact harmonious and disharmonious views may have on overall language learning. Felder and Henriques (1995) warn that serious mismatches may occur in classrooms due to incongruent student and teacher styles, and can lead to poor student performance and attitudes as well as undermine instructor confidence in their own teaching ability (Felder

& Silverman, 1988; Oxford et al., 1991). Kinsella (1996) claims that "having students learn in ways that are not consistent with their natural or habitual approach can be extremely threatening" (p. 30). The belief that a large discrepancy between student and teacher perceptions regarding the effectiveness of any given instructional practice being detrimental to learning is also shared by many (Green 1993; Horwitz, 1988; McCargar 1993; Schulz, 1996, 2001).

Additionally, studies have shown that matching teaching styles to learning styles within foreign language instruction can improve academic performance, as well as student attitudes and behaviour (Oxford et al., 1991; Wallace & Oxford, 1992). Cheng and Banya (1998) revealed a growing body of research in support of the relationship between higher student performance and the congruence of student learning styles and teacher teaching styles.

It appears evident that the preferences, attitudes, beliefs and strategies harboured by both students and teachers relating to language learning and instruction play an important role in the overall achievement attained by the student and in the effectiveness of the instructor. Kern (1995) believed that one way of gauging the success of a given type of classroom instruction was by measuring learner and teacher perceptions about the particular form of instruction. Ensuring that both students and teachers share similar beliefs and expectations regarding language teaching, as well as the instructional practices that lead to learning, seems essential. However, Schulz (1996) claims that very few studies have looked at comparing student and teacher perceptions, despite the warnings that mismatches can have negative effects on instructional effectiveness (Horwitz, 1990).

Oladejo (1993) points out that learners must feel that their needs are being considered if they are to develop a positive attitude towards what they are learning. "If

serious considerations are not given to the learners' needs, there will be some impediments to learning" (p. 73). Considering this importance assigned to culture in language learning, few studies have attempted to focus on cross-cultural differences as possible factors contributing to preferences for specific types of classroom instruction.

With the overwhelming support for the effects of culture on student learning styles and views on education, scrutinizing preferences for specific instructional practices among students from different cultures appears to be a valid next step. Cheng and Banya (1998) claim that perceptual preferences are one of several elements which illustrate particular learning styles. Within a language learning context, the perceptions and evaluations made by students regarding the various teaching methods they are exposed to could be viewed as a direct reflection of their particular learning styles.

4. Error correction: A vital component to language learning

Perhaps one of the most heavily researched classroom techniques in language teaching has centred on the oral correction of learner errors, an important issue debated by educators and researchers alike for over the last thirty years. *Corrective feedback,* which focuses on the oral correction of learner oral errors by teachers, has been given considerable attention recently, as researchers have attempted to determine whether its use by educators leads to better language acquisition by students (e.g. Doughty & Varela, 1998; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Today there is growing consensus that classroom learners are likely to benefit from feedback, but the benefits may vary according to specific factors such as: the type of feedback used, learner's predisposition (attitude, aptitude, learning style, proficiency), instructional settings, and teacher attitudes and beliefs.

The primary argument supporting the need for oral error correction in the language classroom is that it presents learners with *negative evidence,* or proof that their produced speech is somehow erroneous. Panova and Lyster (2002) state that although a large part of language learning occurs due to exposure to the target language, learners may still require information, in the form of error correction, when they are unable to "discover through exposure alone how their interlanguage differs from the L2" (p. 573). In the words of Oladejo (1993) corrective feedback "enables the learner to confirm, disconfirm, and where necessary modify the hypothetical, transitional rules of his interlanguage" (p. 72). Because corrective feedback can lead to the modifying of a language learner's interlanguage, it should be considered a vital ingredient in the improvement of a learner's second language proficiency.

Ample studies have focused on tracking and quantifying corrective methods used by teachers and student reactions to these instructor moves (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey, Gass & McDonough, 2000; Panova & Lyster, 2002), as well as on the effectiveness of error correction (DeKeyser, 1993; Havranek & Cesnik, 2001). In examining the issue of effectiveness, researchers have focused on looking at various types of corrective moves which fall along an implicit-explicit spectrum (Ellis et al., 2006; Kim & Mathes, 2001; Loewen & Philp, 2006) as well as on comparing specific types of feedback and the extent to which they lead to noticing by the learner in various teaching contexts (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Carpenter et al., 2006; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Lyster, 1998, 2004; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Sheen, 2004, 2006; Tsang, 2004).

Conflicting findings in the reactions of students to certain feedback have led to the conclusion that factors such as learning context, linguistic focus and learner proficiency may play a part in the effectiveness of certain feedback but that further research into what

makes it effective and for whom is still needed (Carpenter et al., 2006). Given the need for continued research into the effectiveness of corrective feedback, only a small number of studies have focused on comparing instructor and learner attitudes and beliefs regarding error correction; and less than a handful have looked at possible cross-cultural influences affecting these preferences. Furthermore, the bulk of research done on corrective feedback has been both descriptive and experimental in nature. The need to examine learner preferences and attitudes for error correction through self-assessment is an equally important area of investigation which could provide valuable insight into the behaviours observed in descriptive and experimental studies.

Cultural background has proven to be a valid influencing factor on preferences for particular learning styles of students, yet has not been factored into the equation when examining the various reasons behind the variance in student reactions to certain forms of corrective feedback, or as possible influences which shape teachers' choices relating to the ways in which they correct students. In a meta-analysis looking at the effectiveness of corrective feedback in the acquisition of L2 grammar, Russell and Spada (2006) suggested that researchers focus on "the constellation of moderating variables that could make a difference regarding CF effectiveness" (p. 156). A focus on learner characteristics, which include age, gender, proficiency level and cultural background, among others, needs to be considered along with learning context and instructional focus if we hope to shed light on the myriad number of factors responsible for the effectiveness of corrective feedback in the language classroom.

5. Uptake – Reactions to corrective feedback

In their model of the error treatment sequence, Lyster and Ranta (1997) redefined the term 'uptake' to indicate "a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance" (p. 49). It is this noticing which then leads learners to presumably take action and modify their existing knowledge of the target language. Schmidt (1995), who looked at the role of attention and learning within foreign language contexts, claims that the ability for learners to notice is essential if learning is to occur.

In the Lyster and Ranta study two forms of uptake were identified: uptake that resulted in repair or uptake which still contained an error. In their model, uptake with repair referred only to the immediate student reply following the teacher correction and not the subsequent sequence of turns between student and teacher eventually leading to repair. The following is an example of student uptake with repair:

Student: I <u>eated</u> some cereal. (erroneous utterance)
Teacher: You what? You….(corrective feedback eliciting student to self-correct)
Student: I <u>ate</u> some cereal. (uptake in the form of reformulation with repair)

According to Panova and Lyster (2002), "repair can occur in the following forms: self-repair or peer-repair of error, and repetition or incorporation of feedback" (p. 585). There is ongoing debate concerning the value of uptake in the form of repetition compared to self-generated repair by students, with some considering repetition to simply be a redundant reaction to an answer already provided by the teacher with little impact on L2 learning (Panova & Lyster, 2002).

The notion that immediate uptake is unequivocal proof that learning has taken place has not been universally accepted nor even proposed. Research has revealed that learning does take place in the absence of uptake or in the absence of situations which allow for uptake (Mackey et al., 2000, Oliver, 1995). It is quite obvious that learning can be internalized and absorbed without the need for overt reaction and one would be hard pressed to find a universal measuring stick for all instances of learning. However, given the complex nature of error correction, quantifying uptake rates at the very least provides a clear indication that noticing has taken place. It is this noticing which then leads to potential verbal interaction and negotiation focused on the identified error between student and instructor which can only serve to increase the likelihood of potential learning. 'Success' of corrective feedback through the observation of uptake rates should rather be defined as 'success in having the correction noticed by the learner' rather than as an irrefutable gauge of successful learning. It is this noticing which makes the error more salient and thus offers students the opportunity to internalize this information into their interlanguage. As stated by Tsang (2004), "Although the immediate behavioural change as exemplified in the repair cannot be taken as integration of the more correct or advanced form, a reformulated utterance (uptake), nonetheless, suggests that the disparity between the learner utterance and the target utterance has been noticed" (p. 190).

Given the importance placed on the relationship between corrective feedback and student uptake, many studies centering on corrective feedback have focused on observing the frequency of feedback types used by instructors and the associated rates of student uptake for each feedback type in language classrooms.

6. Research on error correction

Before focusing on the issue of culture and its potential effects on the perceptions of corrective feedback by language learners and instructors, I would first like to provide a brief overview of the research conducted on error correction. This overview will serve to contextualize the present focus on learner preferences for error correction. In addressing previous studies, much of the terminology used in the present study will be explained to better acclimate the reader to the field of corrective feedback.

6.1 Identifying types of corrective feedback

Anyone who has taken the time to analyze a typical language learning classroom would notice that teachers often use a variety of ways to correct students. It comes as no surprise then that the earliest studies centering on corrective feedback focused on classifying, analyzing, and quantifying the different corrective moves observed in language classrooms and student reactions to these moves. Perhaps one of the earliest studies involved the descriptive study of a French immersion classroom and the reaction of students to teacher corrections (Chaudron, 1977). It was observed that instructor feedback on student errors which involved repeating students' errors with emphasis was noticed and corrected by students far more often than other corrective attempts where emphasis was not present.

Observations of adults learning French as a foreign language by Doughty (1994) revealed that teachers employed a variety of corrective techniques which ranged from very implicit to explicit in nature, and varied in terms of the degree to which they attempted to elicit corrections from learners.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) conducted a study in six primary French immersion classrooms in Canada. Using a model developed for this study, which illustrated the various steps involved in the error treatment process, they were able to classify six different feedback types used by instructors as well as the frequency and distribution of student reactions (uptake) to each feedback type. This was one of the first studies to clearly label, identify, and quantify the various methods of oral error correction employed by teachers.

I will provide brief descriptions of the various feedback methods identified by Lyster and Ranta (1997) along with examples to better illustrate their use. The feedback classifications introduced by this groundbreaking study are critical to further discussion on corrective feedback, and constitute terminology that has been widely used in subsequent studies in the field.

Four of the feedback types defined in the study shared a common trait in that they all involved pushing learners to improve the accuracy of their erroneous utterance. *Clarification requests, repetition, elicitations* and *metalinguistic feedback* push learners to self-correct and lead interlocutors to engage in verbal interaction towards the repair of the error, which certain applied linguists believe is integral to improving a learner's interlanguage (Swain, 1985). These feedback types are characterized by their attempt to generate a corrected reply from learners; pushing them to retrieve information that they already know. Lyster (2002) classified the interaction generated from the use of this type of feedback as 'negotiation of form' due to the fact that " these moves return the floor to students along with cues to draw on their own resources, thus allowing for negotiation to occur bilaterally" (p. 382). Lyster also postulated that, unlike 'negotiation of meaning' proposed in Long's (1981) "interaction hypothesis", which focuses solely on

conversational aspects affecting comprehension between interlocutors, these forms of feedback promote a more pedagogical focus on form and accuracy while still maintaining the communicative aspects of a meaning-based negotiation.

6.1.1 Clarification request

Clarification requests were defined as corrective methods whose purpose is to "elicit reformulation or repetition from the student with respect to the form of the student's ill-formed utterance" (Panova & Lyster, 2002).

Example 1 *Clarification Request*

S: I want practice today, today (incomplete infinitive 'to practice').
T: I'm sorry? (clarification request)

(from Panova & Lyster, 2002, p. 582)

In this instance, the student is prompted to explicitly reformulate his/her utterance yet the teacher does not draw specific attention to the nature of the error, or the specific part of the ill-formed utterance. A certain amount of ambiguity with this type of feedback lies in the interpretation of the motive behind the teacher's corrective move by the student. Using reactions such as "Could you say that again?", "I'm sorry?", "What?" could be construed by students as a request to repeat the utterance merely because the teacher did not hear the student properly the first time. Furthermore, if the student recognizes the feedback as corrective, there is no indication as to the nature of the error: was it grammatical, lexical, or phonological? The clarification request is somewhat more ambiguous than other explicit forms of correction which address the specific error while clearly indicating to the student that an error was made.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) discovered very high uptake in response to this type of feedback (88%) since students were pushed to react in some manner to the corrective move made by the teacher. The relative ambiguity of this method may have contributed to a low rate of repair (28%) by students when compared to other more explicit forms of feedback. Clarification requests accounted for only 11% of total feedback given.

6.1.2 Repetition

Repetition involved the repetition of the student's utterance with emphatic intonation on the erroneous part of the utterance. In the Lyster and Ranta study, repetition was the least frequent form of feedback used by teachers (5%), although the researchers stated that it is often used in combination with other feedback types. Using this method led students to uptake 78% of the time, with 31% resulting in self-repair.

Example 2 *Repetition*

Student: I leave in Japan (pronunciation error: 'leave' instead of 'live')
Teacher: You **leave** in Japan? (repetition)
(bold text indicates teacher stress on the erroneous part of the student utterance)

6.1.3 Elicitation

This form of feedback involved the incomplete reformulation of the student utterance up to, but not including, the erroneous part by the teacher. The primary characteristic of an elicitation is that it strategically draws students to their error by asking them to complete the remaining part of the sentence, prompting them to reformulate the erroneous segment. Because of the presentation of an incomplete utterance to students, elicitations are arguably the most salient form of self-corrective feedback employed by teachers, since it is made clear to students that the teacher's corrective move requires

some form of logical completion. This form could also be preceded by a repetition of the student utterance Here are two examples of an elicitation:

Example 3 *Elicitation*
Student: My dog run_ very fast. (omission of third person final 's' to verb)
Teacher: My dog… (elicitation)

Example 4 *Elicitation with repetition*
Student: My dog run_ very fast.
Teacher: My dog run very fast? (repetition) My dog… (elicitation)

Lyster and Ranta also indicated that elicitations can take the form of questions which prompt students to elicit the correct form (i.e. Can you say that in English?). Used only 14% of the time by teachers in their study, this form of feedback led to 100% uptake and was the most successful corrective move at leading students to repair their error (46%).

6.1.4 Metalinguistic Feedback

Feedback involving "comments, information, or questions relating to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form" (p. 47) was classified as *metalinguistic feedback*. The term *metalinguistic* refers to the fact that the teacher uses terminology which addresses the form of the language (i.e. grammatical rules and classifications, or lexical references). Although this method uses questions or comments to identify the error, this form of correction still attempts to elicit the response from the student. This type of feedback has also been referred to as *metalingistic clue* in subsequent research (Lyster, 2004).

Example 5 *Metalinguistic Feedback*
Student: "My father is visiting me. **She** will come tomorrow"
(gender inappropriate personal pronoun)
Teacher: "Can you use 'she' as a pronoun for your father?"

Metalinguistic feedback was used infrequently in the study (8%) and led to 86% uptake, more than half of which resulted in eliciting repair (45%).

6.1.5 Explicit Correction

In sharp contrast to the preceding feedback types which push learners to generate some form of self correction, feedback identified as *explicit correction* included any teacher moves which attempted to provide students with an explicit explanation of the correct form. In providing students with feedback "he or she (the teacher) clearly indicates that what the student had said was incorrect" (p. 46). Example 5 illustrates the nature of an explicit correction:

Example 6 *Explicit Correction*
Error: "He **goed** home" (overgeneralization of simple past 'ed' to an irregular verb)
Explicit correction: "No, it's he **went** home"

(from Lochtman, 2005, p. 341)

Results of the Lyster and Ranta study (1997) indicated that students displayed 86% uptake in response to this infrequently used feedback type (7%), although 50% of the uptake led to no repair.

6.1.6 Recasts

Recasts, much like explicit correction, provide learners with the corrected form of their error. The difference between both kinds of feedback lies in the level of explicitness in which information is presented to students. Recasts were defined as corrective moves which "involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error" (p. 10). The recast is considered implicit, relative to other methods of correction, in that it reformulates a student error in an unobtrusive manner which does not undermine the flow of communication between interlocutors. At no point are words used to indicate that an error was made on the part of the student.

According to Lyster and Mori (2006), they are "ideal for facilitating the delivery of complex subject matter because they provide supportive, scaffolded help, which serves to move lessons ahead when the target forms in question are beyond the students' current ability" (p. 273). The notion that recasts provide ample positive evidence to students is unquestioned in the field; however, there are those who advocate that recasts should not be considered an ideal method of presenting students with negative evidence (Panova & Lyster, 2002) given their implicit nature. The recast itself acts as a positive model, yet negative evidence can only be factored in if the student is able to refer back to his/her original utterance and recognize incongruence between their error and the corrected recast provided by the teacher. This noticing would then presumably lead to a reassessment of their interlanguage. Example 7 illustrates a recast:

Example 7 *Recast*

S: Any person who is _ very great poet, I would be. (omission of indefinite article 'a')
T: Oh, okay. All right. A great poet? You would be a great poet? (recast)

(from Sheen, 2004, p. 278)

Results of the Lyster and Ranta study revealed that this method of correction resulted in infrequent attempts by students to recognize and repair their error, although it was the most common form of feedback used, accounting for 55% of corrective moves used by teachers. Only 31% of errors corrected using recasts led to some form of uptake by students and it was the least successful in generating student repair (18%). This may give some indication that students were possibly unable to distinguish a recast as corrective in nature. The aforementioned explicit forms of feedback led to greater student uptake and resulted in higher rates of student-generated repair.

Subsequent descriptive studies in a variety of classroom settings and with students of varying age and culture have corroborated the frequent use of recasts by instructors (Mori, 2002; Sheen, 2004; Tsang, 2004). Panova and Lyster (2002) examined the various types of feedback used by instructors in an adult ESL classroom in Canada, and their relationship to student uptake and attempts at generating student repair. Results were similar to those revealed by Lyster and Ranta (1997), in that there was a clear preference by instructors for the use of recasts, despite generating low rates of student uptake and self-repair.

Lyster and Mori (2006) outlined research corroborating the predominance of recasts in the language classroom across instructional settings, ranging from elementary immersion classrooms to adult ESL classrooms, as well as in EFL and ESL contexts.

Recasts have presented an ongoing debate among applied linguists, some arguing that their implicit nature leads to misinterpretation in light of the fact that classroom observations have substantiated a tendency for teachers to repeat learners' correct utterances as a sign of approval (Lyster, 1998). Given the implicit and ambiguous nature of the recast, its value as a source of negative evidence to learners has been put into

question (Carpenter et al., 2006). In defence of the recast, others claim that its complex nature requires further investigation since recasts take on various forms, ranging from implicit to explicit, and perform different functions (Ellis & Sheen, 2006). "Researchers have not clearly distinguished between intensive and extensive recasts, nor have they considered their differential benefits" (p. 575). Although implicit in nature, the degree of explicitness may be increased in certain forms of recasting by either only recasting the erroneous part of the student error or placing more emphasis on the corrected portion of the recast (Ellis & Sheen, 2006). Instructors may choose to simply repeat the erroneous part of the student's utterance rather than repeating the entire sentence in response to a learner error. This increases the saliency of the error and may reduce instances of misinterpretation on the part of students. Some researchers clearly believe that the recast provides a unique opportunity for students to contrast both their error with the correct form provided by the recast and notice the difference (Doughty, 2001).

As a result of this ongoing debate, a large number of studies have recently attempted to look at language learners' reactions and interpretations of this ubiquitous corrective feedback type across instructional settings (Carpenter et al., 2006; Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Sheen, 2006).

6.1.7 Prompts

Feedback types outlined in the Lyster and Ranta (1997) study have also been combined based on the sharing of similar characteristics. Lyster (2004) introduced the term *prompts* to represent a family of feedback types that employ a range of signals, other than the explicit reformulation of the initial error, and whose goal is to push learners to self repair. Feedback falling under this category "have one crucial feature in common:

they withhold correct forms as well as other signs of approval and, instead, offer learners an opportunity to self-repair by generating their own modified response" (Lyster & Mori, 2006, p. 271). Types of feedback falling into the category of prompts would be the aforementioned *clarification requests, elicitations,* and *repetitions*.

6.2 Effectiveness of error correction

Both descriptive and experimental research on the effectiveness of error correction has looked at a multitude of factors involved in this complex instructional process (Russell & Spada, 2006). With the ongoing debate regarding the importance of negative evidence in improving language learner performance, descriptive studies have attempted to pinpoint the different elements affecting the success rates of corrective feedback, using student uptake to oral correction as a gauge of success. Experimental studies have also been conducted using the pre- and post-testing of specific grammar points as a means of identifying which corrective feedback types lead to improved learner performance.

6.2.1 Descriptive studies using uptake and repair rates

One of the better-known observational studies on learner uptake and repair in response to corrective feedback is the aforementioned study by Lyster and Ranta (1997). In their observations of six French immersion classrooms at the primary level in Canada, it was revealed that despite the high rate of recasting used by instructors, students displayed higher rates of uptake and self-repair to elicitations, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition. This study revealed the potential ineffectiveness of recasts for these particular learners, based on their rates of uptake and repair following the use of this feedback type.

Mackey, Gass and McDonough (2000) reported similar results to those of Lyster and Ranta in their work with adult learners in terms of the range and type of feedback used and subsequent learner recognition. Panova and Lyster (2002), using the same feedback classification system as Lyster and Ranta (1997), also examined the patterns of corrective feedback and student uptake in an adult education context, where learners expressed a preference for implicit forms of corrective feedback, as illustrated by very low rates of uptake and repair.

Lyster and Mori (2006) examined the effects of explicit correction, recasts and prompts on learner uptake and repair. Comparing results from the Lyster and Ranta (1997) study involving elementary students in French immersion classrooms with results from a previous study by Mori (2002) involving young learners in Japanese immersion classes, it was observed that recasts were once again the most frequently used method of correction by teachers in both contexts but that the uptake patterns and repair rates differed in both groups. Prompts led to higher repair with students in the French immersion classroom (53%) as compared to recasts leading to more repair in the Japanese classroom (68%).

6.2.2 Experimental studies measuring grammar performance

In one of the earlier studies on the effectiveness of error correction using an experimental design, DeKeyser (1993) examined whether error correction had an effect on grammar knowledge and oral proficiency of Dutch learners of English. Subjects belonged to two classes that lasted for one year. One teacher was asked to correct her class as frequently and as explicitly as possible, while the other teacher for the other class was asked to avoid error correction as much as possible. Results were mixed, but did

confirm that error correction did not lead to an "across-the-board improvement" (p. 510) of L2 proficiency and that individual differences in learners (extrinsic motivation and anxiety) led to error correction being beneficial for some yet not for others.

Ellis et al. (2006) looked at the dichotomy between both implicit and explicit forms of corrective feedback on ESL classes in New Zealand, in terms of their effectiveness at helping learners acquire knowledge of past tense *–ed*. Results indicated that explicit feedback was more effective in helping students improve their ability in this area.

Kim and Mathes (2001) compared explicit metalinguistic error correction with implicit recasts in terms of improving Korean students' use of dative alternation. In this case, no significant differences were found between these two forms of feedback in helping students acquire the particular grammar point.

Lyster (2004) examined the effects of prompts and recasts in form-focused instructional contexts. Results indicated a significant improvement in students' ability (both written and oral) to correctly assign grammatical gender in French when instructed using prompts over recasts or no feedback at all.

Ammar and Spada (2006) used a quasi-experimental design to analyze the effectiveness of recasts and prompts with young learners in intensive ESL classes. The instructional intervention focused on the teaching of third person singular possessive determiners, with one group of participants receiving correction only in the form of recasts, another exclusively receiving prompts, and a third acting as the control group. Although results indicated an improvement in all three groups, overall those students corrected with prompts appeared to have more success in learning the targeted grammatical forms than those corrected using recasts. Furthermore, the success of recasts

appeared contingent on the proficiency level of students, with high-proficiency students benefiting equally from prompts and recasts, and lower-proficiency students benefiting more from prompts.

Havranek and Cesnik (2001) conducted a comprehensive developmental study with 207 native German speakers studying EFL to gauge the success of error correction on their performance on a subsequent test. Results indicated that corrective feedback leads to improved performance, but that its success is dependent on such variables as the type of error made, the type of correction given, as well as the learner's personal characteristics. It was revealed that, of all the error correction types, feedback techniques which attempted to elicit a self-correcting response from the learner were the most successful in having that student correct his or her initial mistake. Those that involved "the teacher's unobtrusive reformulation without further comment or repetition" (p. 106) were among the least effective. This was evident whether students were the direct recipients of the correction or whether they were classmates exposed to the correction of one of their peers. Furthermore, the nature of the error being corrected influenced success rates between both groups, with those being corrected showing the greatest improvement when correcting their grammatical errors and the least amount of improvement when reacting to the correction of a pronunciation error. The exact opposite held true for classmates exposed to the correction of their peers only. They appeared to benefit most from the correction of a pronunciation error by another classmate. With respect to learner characteristics, variables such as proficiency level, verbal intelligence, and the attitude towards correction proved to have the greatest effect on the success of corrective feedback.

6.2.3 Instructional focus and context as influencing variables on error correction

The issues of learning context (EFL vs. ESL) and instructional focus (form-focused vs. communicative classrooms) have been considered as a means of interpreting conflicting results between learner reactions to the same feedback in different studies.

In the aforementioned Lyster and Mori (2006) study, which attempted to shed light on the different rates of uptake in Japanese and French immersion settings, researchers chose to look at the instructional focus of both learning contexts to interpret differing reactions to recasts by both groups of students. It was revealed that the Japanese immersion classes displayed elements of form-focused or analytic instruction (choral repetition, oral production practice) relative to the more communicatively-oriented French immersion classes. By virtue of a more form-focused emphasis, Lyster and Mori (2006) suggested that the corrective nature of the normally implicit recast becomes more salient in a learning context where form-focused instruction is emphasized, thus leading to increased instances of uptake and repair. Conversely, in more communicative instruction, as exhibited by the content-based French immersion classes, the recast retained its ambiguity given the ample amount of exchanges between students and teachers, many of which may not have been corrective in nature but rather used as a means of topic continuation or affirmation on the part of the teacher in more meaning-focused instruction. As such, the use of a more salient form of error correction, in the form of a prompt, led to more instances of repair.

The 'counterbalance hypothesis' was proposed to explain that types of feedback such as recasts, which emulate more naturalistic ways of correction and favour implicit correction, would work best in teaching environments that are more concentrated on an explicit focus on form, and explicit corrective moves such as prompts would prove more

effective and salient in highly communicative contexts due to their ability to draw attention to form in settings which normally avoid such focus in lieu of meaningful communication. The notion of using feedback whose function and purpose contradicts, or acts as a 'counterbalance' to, the instructional focus of the classroom was believed to be the cause of this increased noticing by learners, and helped contribute to higher instances of correction due to their high saliency.

Other instances of viewing the effects of corrective feedback focused on the EFL-ESL and analytic-experiential dimensions. In an attempt to discover the kinds of oral corrective feedback that characterize analytic foreign language teaching and the resulting uptake rates, Lochtman (2005) looked at German foreign language classes offered in Belgium. She stated that foreign language teaching in the Belgian secondary school system "has always been mainly analytic, often with an emphasis on grammar and error correction" (p. 338). Contrary to certain ESL studies examining instances of feedback and uptake (Panova & Lyster, 2002) which revealed recasts as comprising more than half of teacher corrective moves, Lochtman discovered that only 30.5% of error correction was in the form of a recast and that a very high use of metalinguistic feedback and elicitations was employed (23.9% and 30.2% respectively). Results also revealed that recasts led to uptake with repair 35% of the time, which proved higher than similar studies focusing on French immersion classes in Canada (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Sheen (2004) looked at learner reactions to corrective feedback across four communicative classroom settings: French immersion, Canadian ESL, New Zealand ESL, and Korean EFL. Results revealed that both uptake and repair were greater in the New Zealand and Korean setting than in the Canadian context. Results implied that recasts

were more effective in settings where "students are oriented to attending to linguistic form rather than meaning" (p. 263).

6.4 Error correction and learner preferences

In addition to studies attempting to gauge the success of error correction by examining teaching contexts and instructional focus, applied linguists have touched on the attitudes and beliefs language learners and teachers have regarding error correction. These studies, although few in number, present critical research into the effectiveness of corrective feedback by examining some of the variables which may dictate its success. Conceivably, if corrective methods used by instructors are at odds with student beliefs of how teachers should teach or with how students prefer to be corrected, their success in improving students' language ability could be compromised, regardless of instructional context or focus. Uptake may only be the first step towards the long-term alleviation of an error. Once acknowledged, the chance of learners incorporating this knowledge into their interlanguage may depend on the nature of the corrective method and how closely it corresponds to their own related preferences, however. Any incongruence between instructional method and learner expectation may be one of several deciding factors that influence whether learners incorporate the feedback into their existing interlanguage or not.

Most studies have looked at the learner-teacher dichotomy relating to the preferences for error correction; however, fewer have examined this distinction from a cross-cultural perspective.

Schulz (1996) conducted a study for the purpose of comparing student and teacher attitudes regarding the role of explicit grammar in foreign language learning and towards

error correction. Participants were composed of 824 American students enrolled in foreign language classes and 92 foreign language teachers at the University of Arizona. Large discrepancies were found between teachers and students on numerous areas of error correction. The majority of students (90%) indicated a preference for having their spoken errors corrected, whereas only 34% of their teachers agreed with this method. Teachers' beliefs about how they felt students perceived being corrected were also incongruent with students' actual beliefs. One third of teachers (33%) thought that students would dislike being corrected when in actuality 86% students were in favour of correction. In light of these attitudinal discrepancies, the author suggests "in order to establish pedagogical credibility and increase their students' commitment to and involvement in learning, teachers must make an effort to explore students' beliefs about language learning and establish a fit between their own and their students' expectations" (p. 343).

Oladejo (1993) looked at two studies involving the preferences and expectations of intermediate and advanced ESL learners regarding error correction. He compared data from a study conducted by Lim (1990) investigating the attitudes, opinions and expectations of secondary school students in Singapore regarding error correction in English language instruction with his own data investigating similar questions with undergraduate students from five different faculties at the University of Singapore. The comparison of both sets of data was used to illustrate the opinions of learners at different levels of language learning. Results indicated that the majority of language learners in both studies believed error correction to be desirable. There was also general disagreement with the popular pedagogical belief that error correction should be done selectively in order to avoid frustrating the learner. In fact, learners indicated a preference for frequent correction and disagreed that constant correction would lead to learner

frustration. The study further revealed little agreement between students and teachers regarding which types of errors should be given the highest priority for the purposes of correction. Perhaps the most glaring incongruence between teacher and student revealed by the study was in comparing preferences for specific forms of error correction. The author indicates that the most popular form of error correction used by teachers is to show the learner's errors and provide the correct form. However, the study revealed that learners preferred methods that provided cues or comments that would enable them to self-correct. Conclusions were drawn that if error correction in the classroom is to be effective, teachers must be aware that their opinions and instructional methods do not always match the needs of the learner, and that they must be willing to modify their practices to better meet the expectations of their students and not adhere to a rigid, inflexible form of error correction.

Schulz (2001) re-examined her initial 1996 study from a cross-cultural perspective. The purpose of this replication was to determine whether student and teacher perceptions about the value of formal grammar teaching and error correction differed in another culture and whether discrepancies between teachers and students also existed within different cultures. She administered a questionnaire to 607 Colombian foreign language students and 122 of their teachers, and compared results to the data collected from 824 American foreign language students and 92 teachers in her earlier study concerning the role of explicit grammar instruction and corrective feedback in foreign language learning. Besides discovering discrepancies between both student and teacher beliefs for formal grammar correction within each culture, Schulz also discovered this same discrepancy across both cultures. Whereas both Colombian students and teachers strongly believed that formal grammar instruction accelerated language learning, their

American counterparts did not share the same opinion. The author concluded that teachers should explore their students' perceptions regarding these factors and make efforts to deal with potential conflicts between student beliefs and instructional practices.

In studies involving native and non-native ESL teachers from the United States and India, Sheory (1986) discovered that native speakers were more tolerant of learner written errors than their non-native counterparts, and that both groups of teachers had significantly varying perceptions relating to learner errors. Although this study was not focused on the oral correction of learner errors, it is likely that a variation in the correction of written errors could equally be reflective of attitudes relating to error correction in general by teachers.

Arva and Medgyes (2000) examined the differences in teaching behaviour between British EFL teachers and their Hungarian counterparts. Results indicated that non-native teachers resorted to more error correction than native English teachers. These studies reveal significant cross-cultural differences in the teaching styles of English educators. Presumably the decisions that guide teachers' classroom instructional practices must be shaped by the different attitudes they have about language learning. Borg (2003) states that there is ample evidence that teachers' experiences as learners can shape their beliefs about teaching and learning which continues to influence their practices throughout their careers. The differences discovered between teachers from varying cultures could thus be reflective of a global approach to teaching exhibited by specific cultures.

An early study by Cathcart and Olsen (1976) examined the issue of teacher and student preferences for error correction, focusing on both grammar and pronunciation errors. A total of 188 students in nine ESL classes and 38 teachers at four community

college centres and a university in San Francisco participated in the study which asked participants to complete questionnaires in response to an audiotape of a teacher correcting a student grammar error and a pronunciation error. Unlike other studies focusing on contrasting teacher and learner preferences for error correction, which focused primarily on the general beliefs and perceptions relating to error correction, participants were asked to rate their preferences for *specific* types of corrective feedback. The error correction exemplars were drawn from taped sessions of ESL classes in which corrective feedback attempts by teachers were classified into the 12 categories appearing on the questionnaires. Participants were also given a preliminary questionnaire relating to their general beliefs about error correction. Results were compiled according to class level and the nationality of participants. A comparison of teacher and student questionnaires revealed that students wished to be corrected more than teachers felt they should be. General agreement was found between teachers and students regarding the preferences for feedback types, although there was slight disagreement in the methods used to correct a grammar error, where students preferred explicit correction over the teacher-preferred prompt. No differences in preference for error correction were revealed between students at different class levels, nor were there many differences among nationalities. Although each cultural group agreed with the total group on almost all preferences, this study failed to compare results *between* cultures. Individual cultural groups were simply compared to the entire student collective. Furthermore, the authors noted that the small sample sizes of several of the cultural groups made it "impossible to make any meaningful observations about them" (p. 47). They suggested that carrying out further studies with larger sample sizes representing different cultural groups could prove interesting.

Surprisingly, despite the questions which arose from this early attempt at looking at student and teacher preferences, no attempt has been made to recreate or adapt the Cathcart and Olsen (1976) study using a more rigorous methodology, nor has there been any attempt at exploring preferences cross-culturally using more representative sample sizes, as suggested by the authors. Despite some of the methodological shortcomings of the study, the Cathcart and Olsen study is the only study to date which has attempted to examine the issue of cultural influence on learner feedback preferences for specific forms of corrective feedback rather than gauging general attitudes relating to error correction (i.e. the necessity/level of importance of corrective feedback in the classroom) (Schulz, 2001). Examining preferences for specific forms of feedback is particularly relevant pedagogically as it provides specific information on how learners and teachers perceive particular corrective moves which would allow educators to alter their instructional methods in very detailed ways, as opposed to global alterations to their teaching method, such as simply increasing or decreasing the rate of error correction.

7. The proposed study

In light of the fact that recent research has failed to examine how learners and teachers from different cultures perceive the effectiveness of specific forms of error correction, I chose to pursue an adaptation of the Cathcart and Olsen (1976) study to re-examine questions which surfaced in this earlier study, but strictly from a cross-cultural perspective. By using recent findings in error correction research, which includes focusing on corrective feedback types that have been the subject of numerous observations and debates within the field, as well as improving upon some of the methodological shortcomings which existed in this earlier study (small sample sizes,

absence of terminology), I hope to provide insight into the influences of culture on shaping the beliefs and attitudes of both learners and instructors regarding the use of particular forms of corrective feedback in the language classroom. Furthermore, insight gained from this study may help shed light on the results of descriptive and experimental studies conducted on the effectiveness of error correction in the language classroom.

I chose to focus on two particular cultures in two different instructional contexts for the purpose of this study: Taiwan and Quebec (a predominantly French province in Canada). I believe that if cultural influence on preference for error correction does indeed exist, the likelihood of it surfacing would be increased if the cultural groups being examined shared fewer philosophical and linguistic commonalities. Taiwanese students and teachers are representative of a traditional Eastern perspective on education whereas francophone Quebecois students better reflect a Western language learner of English. Furthermore, although participants in Taiwan experience English learning within a foreign language context, compared to francophone Quebecois students learning English in a second language context (given Canada's bilingual status), the nature of ESL instruction in Quebec is somewhat unique in that it shares similar dynamics found in many EFL contexts. The French culture is very dominant in the Province of Quebec, where francophone participants for this study obtained their English instruction. As such, the cultural composition of many English classes offered in this part of Canada is reflective of English learning within EFL contexts, as entire ESL classes are often composed exclusively of francophone Quebecois students.

Unlike the Cathcart and Olsen (1976) study, I chose to also include a comparison of the attitudes and beliefs toward error correction held by instructors of varying cultures. Arguably, the teaching practices of instructors can be viewed as a reflection of the teacher

training methods espoused by their particular cultures. In turn, student expectations and preferences may equally be shaped by the methods of instruction they have grown accustomed to within their own cultures. As such, unearthing cross-cultural differences between instructors was equally important for this study.

The impact of culturally-induced preferences is nowhere more apparent than in EFL contexts, where ensuring that learner and teacher styles, attitudes and beliefs are congruent in English language instruction is especially critical. Within these contexts (as well as in particular ESL contexts such as in Quebec), culturally homogeneous classrooms are often instructed by native English teachers from a different culture than that of their students. Because of the cultural uniformity of classes, any mismatch in instructional preferences between both student and teacher will have an effect on the entire class, as opposed to ESL contexts where the multi-cultural nature of most classes might generate mixed reactions to a culturally-related teaching dynamic, depending on how closely the teaching practice agrees with the student's own related cultural beliefs pertaining to learning.

Given these critical issues, the opportunity presented by this study to examine possible cross-cultural preferences for error correction between participants from two distinctly different cultures will shed light on the following research questions:

1. What are the major similarities and differences between Taiwanese non-native teachers of English (NNTEs), native teachers of English (NTEs), and students of both cultural groups (i.e. Taiwanese and Quebecois) relating to attitudes and beliefs toward error correction?

2.What are the preferences of Taiwanese EFL and French Quebecois ESL students for prompts, recasts, and explicit correction?

3. What are the differences in preferences between Taiwanese EFL and French Quebecois ESL students for prompts, recasts, and explicit correction?

4. What are the preferences of students in both cultures relating to the correction of grammar errors relative to pronunciation errors?

8. Summary

This chapter provided a detailed explanation regarding the history of research on error correction and the important issues which shaped the focus of applied linguists on certain aspects of this instructional practice. Readers were also introduced to the basic terminology and dynamics involved in the oral correction of learner errors.

In examining the various descriptive and experimental studies conducted, I also helped illustrate the need to focus on individual learner preferences for corrective feedback, and in particular, whether possible cultural influences could affect the overall success of corrective feedback in language learning. This argument was supported by a wealth of research illustrating a strong cultural influence on student learning styles in the language classroom. If preferences for particular forms of instruction, such as error correction, are reflective of particular learning styles, the notion that culture may play a role in shaping these preferences is plausible.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, I will provide a detailed explanation of the participants in the study and the procedural steps undertaken. Data collection instruments will also be explained along with the specific terminology used in the classification of questionnaire items.

1. Participants

1.1 Taiwanese Students

A total of 137 students from four different classes in two universities in Taichung, Taiwan took part in the study. One of the participating universities was a teacher training college specializing in training students to become elementary and high school teachers. The school offered a number of teacher training courses in addition to EFL classes.

A total of 30 participants were obtained from a graduate level *Children's English Reading* course, 18 from a professional development EFL in-service writing class and 48 from an undergraduate *Freshman English* class. In addition, 41 of the Taiwanese participants were drawn from a remedial undergraduate EFL course at a technical college in Taichung. All participants were of Taiwanese origin. Both the *Children's English Reading* course and EFL writing classes were designated as intermediate level in terms of the English proficiency students were required to have in order to enroll in these classes. The proficiency level for the Freshman English and remedial English classes were considered to be advanced beginner to low intermediate by the respective universities offering the courses. Table 1 provides some bio data and a summary of Taiwanese students' English learning history gathered through the dissemination of a preliminary

questionnaire. These and other data pertaining to participants in this study were collected through use of a questionnaire described in section 2.1.

Table 1
Bio data and English learning history – Taiwanese students

Total number of participants	137
Average age	23[1]
Gender	91 female (68%)[2]
	42 male (32%)
Average number of years studying English	8.70[1]
Learned English through:	
Their country's/province's public school system	98%
Private language classes	37%
Studies undertaken outside of their country/province	4%
Course on other subjects taught in English	30%

[1] based on 131 participants / [2] based on 133 participants

1.2 Taiwanese Teachers

Twelve Taiwanese EFL teachers also took part in the study. Seven were instructors at the teacher training college, one was an instructor at the technical college and four were elementary school English teachers enrolled in the EFL in-service writing class. Seven of the university teachers obtained graduate degrees from the United States in addition to obtaining degrees from Taiwan. Teachers from the in-service course received their education exclusively in Taiwan with one teacher indicating no formal academic training related to teaching. Regardless of their educational background, all teachers were proficient in English. Table 2 provides bio data and a summary of Taiwanese English teachers' English teaching history and training.

Table 2
Bio data and English teaching history – Taiwanese English teachers

Total number of participants	12
Average age	39
Gender	11 female (92%) 1 male (8%)
Average number of years teaching English	10.40
Obtained teacher training:	
College, university, institution from my own country	50%
College, university, institution outside of my country	58%
No academic training:	8%
Proficiency level accustomed to teaching:	
Beginner	42%
Intermediate	83%
Advanced	0%
Age group accustomed to teaching:	
Children	33%
Teenagers	0%
Adults	75%

1.3 French Quebecois Students

A total of 158 students were initially obtained from a total of nine communicative ESL courses offered in Montreal, Quebec, Canada. Six were part of the undergraduate program at a francophone university, three were part of the non-credit continuing education program at the same university and were offered to French-speaking support staff from an affiliated engineering school. Two of the courses were offered to personnel at a Canadian bank head office as part of a professional development initiative. Course levels ranged from advanced beginner to advanced intermediate. Proficiency levels for the six undergraduate university courses were determined by results on a placement test

administered prior to the beginning of classes. The proficiency level of students in the three non-credit engineering school courses and the two private sector banking courses were also determined through the administration of a pre-course placement test, though this test varied from the one used for the university credit courses.

Because Quebec has a high percentage of immigrants whose mother tongue is not French, ESL classes in the province are often composed of students from varying cultural and linguistic backgrounds, unlike the related homogeneity found in the Taiwanese EFL courses. Because this study hoped to compare the effects on feedback preferences of two particular cultures (Taiwanese and French Quebecois), it was critical that the students who qualified to represent Quebec ESL learners not only possess French as a mother tongue, but also received all or the majority of their schooling in the provincial French school system. Since entire classrooms participated in the study, it was critical to be able to distinguish between students based on these criteria, since a large portion of some of the classes were composed of new immigrants to the province.

In order to ensure that this distinction could be made, the preliminary questionnaire to Quebec students contained an additional question which helped identify the educational history of students (please refer to section 2.1 *Data Collection Instruments*). Students who indicated having received most or all of their education in the French school system in Quebec were considered eligible for the study. Those indicating that most or all of their education had been completed through school systems outside the province were not used. After answers were scored, only 97 of the original 158 qualified to represent Quebec ESL learners. Table 3 provides some bio data and a summary of Quebecois students' English learning history.

Table 3
Bio data and English learning history – French Quebecois students

Total number of participants	97
Average age	39.92[1]
Gender	77 female (80%)[2]
	19 male (20%)
Average number of years studying English	6.70[3]
Learned English through:	
Their country's/province's public school system	92%
Private language classes	36%
Studies undertaken outside of their country/province	4%
Course on other subjects taught in English	8%

[1] based on 64 participants / [2] based on 96 participants / [3]based on 71 participants

1.4 Quebec Native English Teachers

Teachers participating in the study from Quebec represented the native-English ESL teacher (NTEs) group. It was decided to not include native French-speaking ESL teachers in the study since, unlike Taiwan, where the low number of NTEs relative to EFL teaching positions led to an abundance of Taiwanese non-native English teachers (NNTEs), finding a sizeable number of qualified native French-speaking ESL teachers at the University level in Montreal proved difficult due to the large number of qualified NTEs in the city.

In defense of this omission, I believe that the cross-cultural comparison of French ESL teachers to Taiwanese EFL teachers is comparable to a comparison using native-speaking ESL teachers in Canada considering that the Quebec and English Canadian school systems share many similarities. Arguably, francophone Quebecois teachers are exposed to similar language learning environments as their English Canadian counterparts, relative to Taiwanese learners, and are also trained using Western

methodology common to both French and English teacher training programs in the country. For this reason, cross-cultural comparisons of preferences for specific forms of error correction between the French and Taiwanese were reserved to students.

Nine of the 12 NTEs were ESL instructors at the university level, with eight holding graduate degrees in a related field. Four of the teachers were in the process of completing their graduate degrees in education at a university in Montreal. All teachers possessed a sizeable amount of ESL/EFL teaching experience. Table 4 provides some bio data and a summary of the NTEs English teaching history and training.

Table 4
Bio data and English teaching history – Quebec Native English Teachers

Total number of participants	12
Average age	46
Gender	9 female (75%) 3 male (25%)
Average number of years teaching English	16.80
Obtained teacher training:	
College, university, institution from my own country	92%
College, university, institution outside of my country	33%
No academic training:	0%
Proficiency level accustomed to teaching:	
Beginner	42%
Intermediate	75%
Advanced	42%
Age group accustomed to teaching:	
Children	8%
Teenagers	33%
Adults	92%

An important consideration for the cross-cultural comparisons of the attitudes and beliefs of NTEs, relative to the use of error correction, to students and teachers from Taiwan is that results could help illustrate differences which may exist in current EFL

contexts, where NTEs are often teaching classrooms composed of students sharing a common culture.

2. Procedure

This mixed-methods study employed an adapted version of the questionnaires first developed in the Cathcart and Olsen (1976) study. It was first piloted using 12 adult students in an ESL communicative English course in Montreal, Quebec prior to implementation. All ethical procedures were followed in accordance with the guidelines stipulated by McGill University (see Appendix AA). Instruments used in the collection of data will be explained along with related procedural steps, followed by a summary of the general implementation methods.

2.1 Data Collection Instruments

2.1.1 Preliminary Questionnaire

Participants were first asked to complete a set of preliminary questions, adapted from the Cathcart and Olsen (1976) study. Students and teachers were provided with different versions asking for their age and English learning and teaching histories, respectively (see Appendix A for students and Appendix B for teachers). A set of close-ended questions gauged their general attitudes about error correction in their roles as either language learner or instructor.

Quebecois student preliminary questionnaires contained an additional question to help identify students who had received all or the majority of their education within the province and those that may have immigrated to Quebec from other countries (see

Appendix A, question 5). Students from each cultural group received preliminary questionnaires in their first languages (see Appendix C for Chinese Mandarin and Appendix D for French) whereas teachers received English versions (see Appendix B).

2.1.2 Feedback Preference Analysis Charts (FEEPAC)

Participants were then asked to complete two questionnaires in response to an audio recording of a dialogue between a teacher and a student. The audio segment mirrored the dialogue and examples presented in the questionnaires. The Feedback Preference Analysis Charts (FEEPAC) are modified versions adapted from the original error preference charts designed by Cathcart and Olsen (1976).

Both FEEPAC questionnaires consisted of a student oral English error made in response to a teacher-generated question, followed by 11 different corrective feedback replies made by the instructor addressing the error. Participants were asked to rate each possible feedback type in terms of how they would like to be corrected (students) or how they would correct (teachers). Both teacher and student versions of FEEPAC were identical except for the initial instructions which contained minor variations reflecting the perspective of the student or teacher vis-à-vis error correction (see Appendix E). Students from each cultural group were provided with questionnaires containing instructions in their L1. Teachers were provided with versions containing English instructions.

Participants were first asked to complete the FEEPAC-G, which focused on a student grammar error (see Appendix F for English, Appendix G for Chinese Mandarin, and Appendix H for French) while the second questionnaire asked participants to rate corrective feedback relating to a student pronunciation error (FEEPAC-P) (see Appendix I for English, Appendix J for Chinese Mandarin, and Appendix K for French).

Both FEEPAC questionnaires were composed of 11 4-point Likert scale questions that asked participants to rate different corrective feedback exemplars according to 'how helpful' they felt it was in correcting the modeled error (1 = very good / 2 = good / 3 = bad / 4 = very bad). The audio recording first presented the initial dialogue between student and teacher where the erroneous utterance by the student occurred. Each of the 11 different possible corrective attempts made by the teacher was then presented. Each feedback exemplar was fronted with the repeated student sentence containing the error, followed by an 8-second pause allowing participants to make their selection on the Likert-scale corresponding to each particular feedback type. Here is an example of the procedural order that was followed:

Teacher: "What did you eat for breakfast this morning?" Student: "I eated some cereal."
Exemplar 1. *Teacher: "You have to say 'ate', not 'eated'."*
BEEP followed by 8-second pause – students choose selection on Likert-scale relating to preference for exemplar 1 feedback type.
Student: *"I eated some cereal."*
Exemplar 2. *Teacher: "I ate some cereal."*
BEEP followed by 8-second pause – students choose selection on Likert-scale relating to preference for exemplar 2 feedback type.

Two different versions of each FEEPAC questionnaire (FEEPAC-G and FEEPAC-P) were created in which the order of the error correction exemplars were reversed (see Appendix L and Appendix M for FEEPAC G and FEEPAC P English; Appendix N and Appendix O for FEEPAC G and FEEPAC P Chinese Mandarin;

Appendix P and Appendix Q for FEEPAC G and FEEPAC P French). Two different audio recordings were also developed to reflect the change in the exemplar order presented to participants. Seventy-nine of the Taiwanese students received the regular order FEEPAC questionnaires and 58 received the reverse order versions. Fifty-four of the French Quebecois students received the regular order FEEPAC questionnaires compared to 43 who received the reverse order versions.

Because of the small number of participants in the teacher group, all participants received the regular order versions. The decision to present participants with variable order questionnaires safeguarded against the possibility of results being tainted due to the order in which the different error correction exemplars were presented. Dornyei (2003) explains that item sequence in a questionnaire is extremely important because "the context of a question can have an impact on its interpretation and the response given to it" (p. 59). He claims that the meaning of any question can be affected by other questions adjacent to it.

The two error examples (grammar and phonological) used in the original Cathcart and Olsen (1976) study were replaced with different examples and several of the original feedback exemplars were either discarded or re-worded due to redundancy, or because they were not representative of the feedback types identified by Lyster and Ranta (1997) which this study used to illustrate the various forms of feedback employed by teachers.

2.1.2.1 Corrective feedback classifications

The corrective feedback types developed in the Lyster and Ranta (1997) study were instrumental in assessing the Cathcart and Olsen (1976) feedback exemplars for

inclusion in or omission from the FEEPAC questionnaires and also contributed to the development of new feedback exemplars used in the chart.

As previously mentioned, six distinct forms of corrective feedback were outlined by Lyster and Ranta (1997) during their study with French immersion elementary students: recasts, elicitations, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction, and repetition. The authors of the study mentioned that several of the categories could be further broken down into specific sub-categories. I decided to separate all feedback types (including sub-categories), with each one represented by a feedback exemplar in both FEEPAC-G and FEEPAC-P. I felt that the inclusion of *all* versions of feedback would provide more comprehensive and detailed data of learner and teacher preferences. For the purposes of data analysis these feedback types could be looked at individually or grouped into similar feedback families. Table 5 provides definitions of each category along with the exemplars used for both questionnaires. All definitions used were taken from the Lyster and Ranta (1997) study except for the *recast translation* which was replaced with a *metalinguistic feedback translation*. This feedback type was identical to *metalinguistic feedback* but instead used the participant's L1.

Table 5

Corrective feedback types, definitions and FEEPAC exemplar key

Feedback type	FEEPAC-G item	FEEPAC-P item	Definition
Explicit Correction	*1. You have to say "ate" not "eated"*	*1. You have to say "live" not "leave"*	Explicit provision of the correct form.
Recast (implicit)	*2. You ate some cereal*	*2. You live in Japan*	Reformulation of the corrected complete student utterance.
Recast (salient)	*3. Ate*	*3. Live*	Reformulation of the erroneous part of the student utterance.
Metalinguistic Feedback (translation)	*4. Group dependent*	*4. Group dependent*	Feedback using L1 of each target group.
Metalinguistic Clue	*5. Can you say eated?*	*5. Is leave the right pronunciation?*	Points to the grammatical nature of the error to elicit the correct form.
Clarification request	*6. What?*	*6. What?*	Indication that the student utterance has been misunderstood or is ill-formed.
Elicitation (strategic pausing)	*7. I...*	*7. I...*	Elicitation through reformulation of the student utterance up until the erroneous section, where a pause is introduced to allow the student to complete the sentence with the correct version.
Metalinguistic Feedback (explicit rule)	*8. You can't say 'eated'. Eat is an irregular verb. 'Ate' is the past tense of 'eat'.*	*8. You don't want to use the strong vowel sound /ey/ as in 'see'. You want to use the soft vowel sound /I/ as in 'give'*	Provides explicit metalinguistic comments explaining the error without providing the correct answer.

Elicitation (repetitive)	*9. I eated some cereal? I...?*	*9. I leave? I...?*	Identical to strategic pausing but fronted with the erroneous student error with rising intonation.
Elicitation (reformulation)	*10. Could you say that again?*	*10. Could you say that again?*	Elicit answer by asking student to reformulate his/her utterance.
Repetition	*11. I **eated** some cereal?*	*11. I **leave** in Japan?*	Repetition of complete student utterance with voice intonation altered when repeating erroneous section.

2.1.3 Follow-up Interviews

Post-questionnaire interviews were conducted with participants who chose to volunteer for this additional segment of the study. The interview consisted of seven questions for teachers and five for students, generated exclusively for the purpose of this study (see Appendix R). Questions were developed to provided a more detailed analysis of participant attitudes and beliefs relating to error correction. Although mentioned in the informed consent form, participants were reminded that the interview would be audio taped and written excerpts could be taken from recordings to be included in the thesis. Participants had the option of being asked (in the case of the oral interview) or receiving the interview questions (in the case of e-mail or written responses) in their L1.

Interviews were approximately 30 minutes in length and were conducted immediately after participants undertook the questionnaire segment of the study in the same classrooms. Five students from each cultural group volunteered along with four Taiwanese NNTEs and four NTEs. Due to scheduling constraints, follow-up interviews

with students were conducted in groups, while teachers were interviewed individually. Participants who expressed an interest in answering the questions but were unable to attend the interview session submitted their answers either in writing or by e-mail.

2.2 General implementation

The study was conducted first with Taiwanese participants in Taichung several months before being implemented in Montreal with the French Quebecois students and NTEs. Due to schedule constraints, I was unable to conduct the study for the Freshman English class in Taiwan. The implementation of the study for this group was, therefore, conducted by one of the Taiwanese teachers using a CD of the audio portion of the study one month after the initial data had been collected from the other classes. The instructor was well versed in all procedural aspects of the study, as she had acted as a facilitator while I was obtaining data from the other classes in Taiwan. Questionnaires from this class were mailed to Canada upon completion.

During the study implementation in Taiwan, I was accompanied by a Taiwanese professor who acted as facilitator and translator when required. This was not required with the Quebecois participants since I am bilingual in both English and French, and could readily explain procedural elements in both languages.

In both Taiwanese and Quebecois settings, participants were provided with explicit oral instructions in English, followed by an explanation in their L1 prior to the completion of all questionnaires. In addition, all questionnaire instructions and consent forms were translated into Chinese Mandarin and French, and administered to Taiwanese and French students respectively. This ensured that potential limited language proficiency would not interfere in the comprehension of the procedure and nature of the study.

Taiwanese EFL teachers and native English-speaking ESL instructors were provided with English versions of all documents and instruments.

Students completed the questionnaires together in class during regularly scheduled class hours. Those teachers selected for the study whose classes were participating also completed the teacher versions of the questionnaire at the same time. Teachers who participated in the study, who did not have participating classes, completed the questionnaire individually.

3. Data Analysis

Two sources of data were used in this study: quantitative results obtained from questionnaires represented the primary source of information to be analyzed; qualitative data, in the form of post-questionnaire interviews, were used to further probe and add to the results obtained from the quantitative data. This mixed method model, whereby quantitative data was first used and analyzed, and then supported by results from the qualitative data, represents one of several mixed method analysis models outlined by Creswell (2007) in his presentation of the various methods of data analysis available to researchers using this approach. Quantitative data were obtained from results of the preliminary questionnaire and from both FEEPAC questionnaires.

Preliminary questionnaire data analysis was conducted using descriptive statistics while data from both FEEPAC G and P were analyzed using frequency counts for all corrective feedback types, as well as repeated measures ANOVAs to assess differences in mean responses among three corrective feedback families (explicit correction, recasts, prompts). The repeated measures procedure takes into account the possible correlation of responses within a subject (student preferences for each family type within a cultural

group) and between subjects (student preferences for each family type between each cultural group). The ANOVAs were conducted using the mixed model procedure (PROC MIXED) of SAS, version 9 (SAS Institute, Inc., 2002-2003). In addition, Tukey-Kramer adjusted p-values were also used for post-hoc analysis with an assigned alpha level of .05.

4. Summary

In this chapter, I provided information on the participants selected for this study as well as the rationale for their inclusion. I also provided a detailed explanation of the steps taken to implement this study as well as the creation of instruments used to collect participant data, and the analysis used in the treatment of the data. A detailed explanation of the principal instruments used was also outlined, along with how they were adapted from the original Cathcart and Olsen (1976) study to better reflect contemporary research on corrective feedback. In the next chapter, I will provide extensive analysis of the data gathered from these questionnaires using both descriptive and inferential statistical analysis.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter will provide an analysis of quantitative data obtained from the preliminary questionnaires given to teachers and students, as well as data obtained from both FEEPAC G and FEEPAC P questionnaires from student participants.

The qualitative data for this study were composed of participant answers to interview questions. General findings will be discussed, with excerpts and a more in-depth analysis used in the discussion section to provide insight into results gathered from the quantitative data as well as help illustrate other pertinent issues relating to this study.

1. Preliminary Questionnaire Data

Four questions on both teacher and student versions of the preliminary questionnaires (Appendices A and B) yielded data which were analyzed using descriptive statistics, in the form of means or frequencies, to compare answers between 12 NTEs, 12 Taiwanese NNTEs, 137 Taiwanese students and 97 French Quebecois students.

1.1 Preliminary question 1: Preferences for the use of error correction

As indicated in Table 6, results from question 1, asking participants to select either 'yes' or no' to either the student preliminary questionnaire (Do you prefer if your teacher corrects your mistakes?) or the teacher preliminary questionnaire (Do you prefer correcting students?), revealed overwhelming support for error correction among students regardless of cultural background (Taiwanese EFL students indicating 99% 'yes' and Quebecois ESL students stating 100% 'yes'). Taiwanese NNTEs proved to be the only group where support for the use of error correction was not unanimous, with one third

indicating that it was not a preferred instructional practice (33% answering 'no'). Conversely, the views of NTEs were in line with those expressed by students in both cultural groups (100% selecting 'yes').

Table 6
Student and teacher preferences for the use of error correction

	Yes	No
Taiwanese EFL students	99%	1%
Quebecois ESL students	100%	0%
Taiwanese NNTEs	67%	33%
Quebecois NTEs	100%	0%

1.2 Preliminary question 2: Preferences for the frequency of error correction

As indicated in Table 7, results from question 2 on the student preliminary questionnaire (How often do you want your teacher to correct your mistakes?) and the teacher preliminary questionnaire (How often do you correct student errors?) again revealed similar attitudes among students from both cultural groups relating to the rate of error correction. Participants were asked to choose one of four rates of correction: 'always', 'most of the time', 'not often', and 'never'. Although both student groups were favourable towards a high frequency of error correction, this preference was not as marked with the Taiwanese relative to their Quebecois counterparts: the majority of Taiwanese EFL students indicated a strong desire to be corrected (40% selecting 'always' and 46% 'most of the time') compared to 14% who selected 'not often'; however, Quebecois ESL students expressed an even stronger desire for intense correction (78% choosing 'always' and 21% 'most of the time') with only 1% choosing 'not often'.

Results among Taiwanese NNTEs and Quebecois NTEs indicated a discrepancy between both groups relating to this question: only 38% of Taiwanese NNTEs selected 'most of the time', and none selected 'always'. The majority felt that students should not be corrected often (62%). Conversely, the majority of Quebecois NTEs indicated a desire to correct often (8% choosing 'always' and 67% selecting 'most of time'), with only 25% believing it should not be used often. Despite these differences, all teachers indicated a reluctance to correct students constantly (Taiwanese 0% and Quebecois 8% respective selections for 'always'). Within both cultural groups, teachers were less inclined to use error correction as often as their students expected, although this difference was more marked within the Taiwanese group (Combined selection of 'always' and 'most of the time' for Taiwanese students 86% vs. Tawainese NNTEs 38%; Quebecois students 99% vs. Quebecois NTEs 75%).

Table 7
Student and teacher preferences for the frequency of error correction

	Always	Most of the time	Not often
Taiwanese EFL students	40%	46%	14%
Quebecois ESL students	78%	21%	1%
Taiwanese NNTEs	0%	38%	62%
Quebecois NTEs	8%	67%	25%

1.3 Preliminary question 3: Preferences for types of errors to correct

Preliminary question 3 in both student and teacher preliminary questionnaires addressed what types of errors are most important to correct (see Appendix A for students and Appendix B for teachers). Participant answers were based on ranking three error type

categories (grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary) from 1 to 3, with 1 indicating most important, 2 indicating important, and 3 indicating least important. Data presented in Figure 1 included the total mean score for each of the three error categories. The mean scores were based on a points system awarded to the ranking of error types (i.e. a ranking of 1 was scored as 3 points, a ranking of 2 received 2 points, and a ranking of 3 was given 1 point). This method yielded larger scores as being more indicative of a higher ranking.

In certain cases, participants indicated equal ranking to error categories (i.e. 1 grammar, 1 pronunciation, 2 vocabulary – to indicate that both grammar and pronunciation were equally important; or grammar 3, pronunciation 3, vocabulary 3 – to indicate that all categories were equally unimportant). In these instances, each category was scored according to the point system, irrespective of identical ranking.

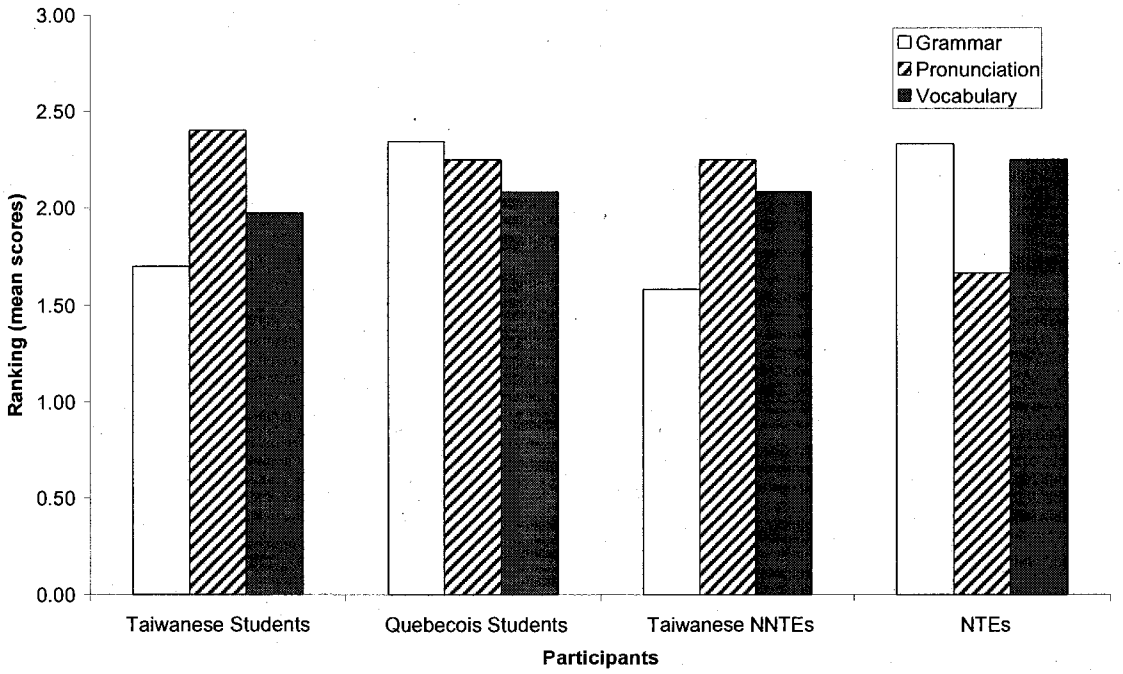

Figure 1. Student and teacher perceptions of errors most important to correct

Results indicated that Taiwanese students (n = 137) considered pronunciation errors to be the most important to correct with a mean score of 2.40, followed by lexical

errors (1.97), and finally grammar errors (1.70). Quebecois students (n = 97), on the other hand, considered grammar errors to be the most important to correct (2.34), followed by pronunciation (2.25), and then lexical (2.08). A large discrepancy existed regarding the importance of correcting a grammar error between both groups of students (2.34 for Quebecois students and 1.70 for Taiwanese students, a mean difference of .64), as compared to other error types (pronunciation resulting in a mean difference of .15, and lexical in a difference of .11). The difference in the assessment of a grammar error compared to a pronunciation error was much more marked among Taiwanese students compared to Quebecois students (.70 mean difference for Taiwanese students as compared to .09 difference for Quebecois students).

Interestingly, teachers revealed similar preference patterns to the student groups they were accustomed to teaching. Taiwanese NNTEs (n = 12) also considered pronunciation-related errors to be of paramount importance (2.25), followed by lexical errors (2.08), and lastly grammar errors (1.58), the identical order indicated by Taiwanese students.

Quebecois NTEs (n = 12) expressed similar views with Quebecois students by giving the highest importance to grammar errors (2.33). However, unlike Quebecois students, who ranked lexical errors last, NTEs ranked them second, followed by pronunciation errors. Although there was agreement between teachers and students in Quebec relating to the primary importance of correcting grammar errors, there was large discrepancy in how they rated the importance of a pronunciation error, with students assigning a mean score of 2.25 (second place ranking) as compared to teachers who gave it a 1.67 (third place ranking), a mean difference of .58.

Teacher groups were the most polarized when it came to their views on the types of errors to correct, with Taiwanese NNTEs revealing the lowest ranking score for grammar errors (1.58) among all groups, and Quebecois NTEs indicating the lowest ranking score for pronunciation errors (1.67).

1.4 Preliminary question 4 (students): Student perceptions of errors corrected by teachers

Question 4 on the student preliminary questionnaires asked participants to gauge their perceptions regarding what types of errors they thought were actually corrected by their teachers (see Appendix A). As illustrated in figure 2, Taiwanese students felt that pronunciation errors were addressed most often by their teachers (2.09), followed by grammatical errors (2.01) and then lexical errors (1.91), although the differences in mean rankings were quite small. This implied that students generally perceived a uniform treatment of all classroom errors by their teachers. Nonetheless, the perception that pronunciation errors were addressed more than other types of errors were in line with both Taiwanese student and teacher beliefs that pronunciation errors were the most important types to correct.

Quebecois students believed that grammar errors were treated most often by their teachers (2.39), followed by pronunciation errors (2.32) and then lexical errors (1.88). Although only a small margin between the mean rankings of grammar and pronunciation errors existed, student perceptions of what their teachers corrected most were also in line with their beliefs and Quebecois NTE beliefs that grammar errors were the most important to correct.

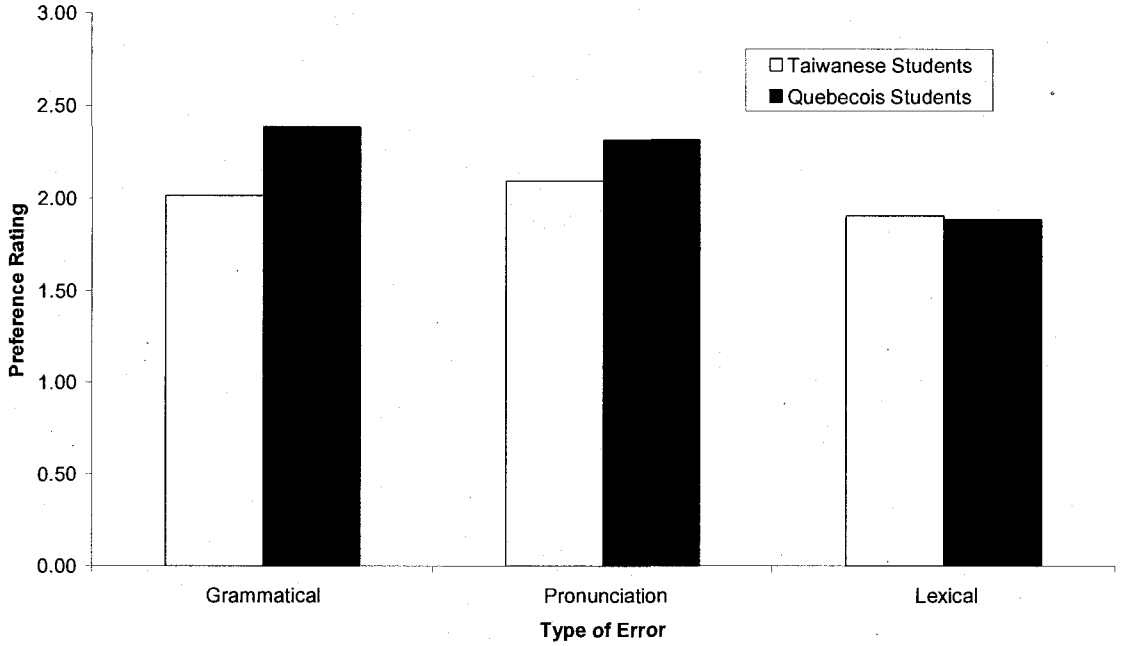

Figure 2. Student perceptions of errors corrected by teachers

1.5 Preliminary question 4 (teachers): Preferences for treatment of student errors

Question 4 on the teacher version of the preliminary questionnaire provided teachers with two scenarios on the treatment of a learner error, and asked them to indicate which was most important (see Appendix B). As indicated in Table 8, there was overwhelming support by all teachers for the scenario which allowed students to produce the target language without interruption, regardless of whether an error was made or not, as compared to the scenario which called for immediate interruption as soon as an error was made for the purposes of correction. There was unanimous agreement among Taiwanese NNTEs to allow students to speak unfettered by correction, whereas a small percentage of Quebecois NTEs believed that errors needed to be addressed immediately.

Table 8
Teacher preferences for the treatment of a learner oral error

	Allow student to speak without interruption	Interrupt and provide feedback as soon as error is made
Taiwanese NNTEs	100%	0%
Quebecois NTEs	91%	9%

2. FEEPAC questionnaire data analysis

Data from both FEEPAC G and FEEPAC P were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Results from reverse order questionnaires were converted back to the standard order prior to any statistical analysis (i.e. item 1 on the reverse order questionnaire was item 11 on the regular order questionnaire) (please refer to Appendices F through K for standard order FEEPAC G and P, and Appendices L through Q for reverse order FEEPAC G and P).

In analyzing learner preferences for feedback families, data were converted from ordinal to interval data by using mean scores for each feedback family rather than individual item likert scale responses (please refer to section 2.2 for a detailed explanation of this process).

2.1 Frequency counts of feedback items

Frequency counts of Likert scale preference intervals for each of the 11 corrective feedback examples on both FEEPAC questionnaires were first assessed. As mentioned in the methodology section, Likert scales were used to assess preference for each of the 11 feedback examples on each questionnaire, where participants had the choice of responding 1 for very good, 2 for good, 3 for bad, and 4 for very bad. Frequency counts

indicate the number of times participants selected one of the four ratings on the Likert scale for each questionnaire item. I chose to collapse data into two categories: *good* and *bad* in order to present data in a clearer and more concise manner, as well as to focus on the negative/positive differences rather than the 'degree' of differences within the negative and positive. I achieved this by combining the frequency counts for both positive interval ratings (1 *very good* and 2 *good*) and both negative interval ratings (3 *bad* and 4 *very bad*). Appendices S, T, U, and V provide frequency count tables expressed in the form of percentage scores for both FEEPAC G and FEEPAC P questionnaires for Taiwanese students, Quebecois students, Taiwanese NNTEs, and NTEs, respectively.

In the following presentation of results, the percentage figures denote the favourable selection rates made by participants for that particular feedback method.

2.1.1 Taiwanese Students

Taiwanese students favourably rated *metalinguisitc (explicit rule)* most often (83.94%) followed by *explicit correction* (81.76%) for a grammar error. *Clarification requests* received the fewest favourable ratings with only 10.22%. *Elicitation (strategic pausing)* received the second lowest rating, at 24.82% (see Appendix S, Table 1).

Where a pronunciation error was concerned, almost identical patterns were revealed. Students rated *explicit correction* the most favourably at 88.32%, with *metalinguisitc (explicit rule)* rated a close second, at 85.82%. *Clarification requests* were again rated least favourable at 10.22%, followed by *elicitation (strategic pausing)* at 19.71% (see Appendix S, Table 2).

2.1.2 Quebecois Students

Quebec students showed similar ratings to their Taiwanese counterparts for a grammar error, selecting *metalinguistic (explicit rule)* as the most favourable (89.47%).and *explicit correction* second (71.13%). *Clarification requests* were also least favoured, at 13.40%; however, unlike the Taiwanese who considered *elicitation (strategic pausing)* to be the second least favourable method of correction, Quebecois students selected *salient recasts* (19.59%) (see Appendix T, Table 1).

Similar preferences were revealed when dealing with a pronunciation error, with Quebec students favouring both *metalinguisitc (explicit rule)*(89.69%) and *explicit correction* (82.48%). They again favoured *clarification requests* the least (10.42%) but changed their second least favoured feedback to *elicitation (strategic pausing)* (29.89%), a choice mirrored by their Taiwanese counterparts (see Appendix T, Table 2).

2.1.3 Taiwanese NNTEs

Taiwanese NNTEs rated *implicit recasts* most favourably (83.33%) and *clarification requests* least favourably (8.33%) for a grammar error (see Appendix U, Table 1). This same pattern was maintained for a pronunciation error, with teachers rating *implicit recasts* even higher (91.67%) and maintaining *clarification requests* as their least favoured (18.18%) (see Appendix U, Table 2).

2.1.4 NTEs in Quebec

Quebecois NTEs revealed a similar preference for both reformulated elicitation and elicitation using strategic pausing (83.3%) and expressed dislike for metalinguistic feedback employing translation in the student's L1 (16.67%) for a grammar error (see Appendix V, Table 1). In reaction to a pronunciation error, teachers favoured repetition

and elicitation using repetition equally (75%). Metalinguistic feedback in students' L1 was again selected as the least favoured method (16.67%) (see Appendix V, Table 2).

2.2 Data conversion and feedback classifications

Prior to inferential analysis, Likert scale selections made on the FEEPAC questionnaires were converted to values by attributing points to the different preference intervals. All selections of 1 (very good) were allocated 4 points, 2 (good) 3 points, 3 (bad) 2 points, and 1 (very bad) 1 point. The rationale employed here was that, in calculating mean scores for each feedback item on the questionnaires, I wanted a larger score to be indicative of a higher preference.

I then decided to group corrective feedback types into three families of feedback that have been compared in recent studies due to the different approach each takes in dealing with error correction: recasts, prompts, and explicit correction (Lyster & Mori, 2006). Feedback types illustrated in the 11 questionnaire items could be divided into one of these three families based on sharing similar characteristics. By separating these 11 items (some of which were variations on the same feedback type) into these three groups that were recognizably distinct from one another, the analysis of results would be more clearly interpretable and would also further current research aimed at contrasting these feedback families. Furthermore, combining preference ratings of individual questionnaire items obtained from Likert scales, which traditionally generate ordinal data, into these three feedback families, allowed me to treat ratings as interval data and use inferential analysis. Participant scores for explicit correction, prompts and recasts represent the mean of the different Likert scale ratings given to each feedback item within that feedback family. Participants now had three mean scores to analyze rather than 11 different scores

which had previously been analyzed using frequency counts due to the ordinal nature of the data. The following definitions obtained from Lyster and Mori (2006) define each feedback family.

2.2.1 Recasts

The recast group included all feedback types where the teacher implicitly reformulates all or part of the student's utterance. It was composed of items 2 (implicit recast) and 3 (salient recast) on both FEEPAC G and P questionnaires.

2.2.2 Explicit Correction

This family included all error correction where the teacher supplies the correct form and clearly indicates that what the student said was incorrect. Items included in this category were explicit correction (item 1), metalinguistic feedback (translation) (item 4), and metalinguistic feedback (explicit rule) (item 8).

2.2.3 Prompts

Feedback types in the prompt family were categorized as corrections which include a variety of signals, other than alternative reformulations, that push learners to self-repair. Items 5 (metalinguistic clue), 6 (clarification request), 7 (elicitation – strategic pausing), 9 (elicitation – repetitive), 10 (elicitation – reformulation), and 11 (repetition) were selected as feedback types sharing features exemplified by the prompt category.

2.3 Inferential analysis

Mean scores were calculated for recasts, prompts, and explicit correction for each participant. Group means and standard deviations were then calculated for each feedback family using participant mean scores. These data were then utilized for all subsequent

inferential analysis both within and between groups for both FEEPAC G and FEEPAC P.

Repeated measures ANOVAs were used to assess differences in mean responses among explicit correction, recasts, and prompts. Within-group preferences were first analyzed for significance (preferences for each family type within a cultural group) and then between-group preferences (for each family type between each cultural group). Tukey-Kramer adjusted p-values were then calculated for post-hoc analysis with an assigned alpha level of .05 which took into account repeated analysis of the same data set.

Preliminary analysis within and between teacher groups revealed no significant difference, which I attributed to the relatively small sample sizes for both groups (12 Taiwanese NNTEs and 12 NTEs). As such, it was decided to omit these results from the inferential analysis and focus primarily on student groups that had more representative sample sizes (137 Taiwanese students, 97 Quebecois students).

2.3.1 Feedback preferences within cultural groups

Before examining the potential differences in feedback preference between Taiwanese students and their Quebecois counterparts, I first wanted to establish whether significant differences existed within each cultural group for each of the three feedback families (recasts, prompts and explicit correction). Repeated measures ANOVAs were first used to assess whether a significant main effect existed for feedback families within each group. Tukey-Kramer's post-hoc analysis was then used to examine comparisons between specific families to help pinpoint where significant differences occurred (a total of three permutations were used: explicit – prompts, explicit – recasts, and prompts – recasts). Analyses were conducted separately for student preferences in response to a grammar error (FEEPAC G) and in response to a pronunciation error (FEEPAC P).

Student group means and standard deviations were calculated for each of the feedback families, as well as the mean differences between feedback family comparisons, and adjusted p values for post-hoc analysis.

2.3.1.1 Taiwanese student feedback preferences: grammar error

In calculating the mean preference ratings for all three feedback families, Taiwanese students rated explicit correction the highest (3.19), followed by recasts (2.78) and then prompts (2.23). The analysis of variance confirmed that there was a significant main effect for feedback family preferences, $F(2,136) = 15.88, p < .01$. Tukey Kramer's post hoc pairwise analysis revealed significant differences between all three feedback family comparisons ($p = .0001$). (see Table 9).

Table 9
FEEPAC G within group feedback preferences of Taiwanese students

Feedback family	Mean	SD	Comparison	Mean Difference	p-value
Recast	2.78	.67	Explicit-Prompts	.96	.0001
Explicit	3.19	.62	Explicit-Recasts	.40	.0001
Prompts	2.22	.52	Prompts-Recasts	-.55	.0001

Main effect: Feedback family: $F(2,136) = 76.19, p < .0001$

2.3.1.2 Taiwanese student feedback preferences: pronunciation error

Taiwanese students displayed the same pattern of feedback family preference in response to a pronunciation error, rating explicit feedback the highest (3.27), followed by recasts (2.78) and then prompts (2.23). The ANOVA revealed that there was a significant main effect for feedback families, $F(2,136) = 106.06, p < .0001$ by Taiwanese students

for a pronunciation error. Tukey Kramer's post hoc pairwise analysis revealed significant differences between all three feedback family comparisons ($p = .0001$). (see Table 10).

Table 10
FEEPAC P within group feedback preferences of Taiwanese students

Feedback family	Mean	SD	Comparison	Mean Difference	p-value
Recast	2.78	.70	Explicit-Prompts	1.04	.0001
Explicit	3.27	.52	Explicit-Recasts	.48	.0001
Prompts	2.23	.52	Prompts-Recasts	-.55	.0001

Main effect: Feedback family: $F(2,136) = 106.06, p < .0001$

2.3.1.3 Quebecois student feedback preferences: grammar error

Quebecois students rated explicit correction highest (3.02), followed by recasts (2.36), and then prompts (2.22). The analysis of variance confirmed that there was a significant main effect for feedback families, $F(2,96) = 45.43, p < .0001$. Tukey Kramer post-hoc analysis revealed significant differences between explicit correction and prompts ($p = .0001$), as well as explicit correction and recasts ($p = .0001$); however, no significance was revealed between prompts and recasts ($p = .2609$) (see Table 11).

Table 11
FEEPAC G within group feedback preferences of Quebecois students

Feedback family	Mean	SD	Comparison	Mean Difference	p-value
Recast	2.36	.77	Explicit-Prompts	.79	.0001
Explicit	3.01	.65	Explicit-Recasts	.65	.0001
Prompts	2.21	.62	Prompts-Recasts	-.14	.2609

Main effect: Feedback family: $F(2,96) = 45.43, p < .0001$

2.3.1.4 Quebecois student feedback preferences: pronunciation error

Quebecois students revealed the same preference order in response to a pronunciation error, with explicit correction rated highest (3.06), followed by recasts (2.67) and then prompts (2.20). Analysis of variance also confirmed that there was a significant main effect for feedback families, $F(2,96) = 53.99, p < .0001$. In addition, Tukey Kramer post-hoc analysis revealed significant differences between all feedback family comparisons (explicit – prompts , $p = .0001$; explicit – recasts, $p = .0004$; and prompts – recasts, $p = .0001$ (see Table 12).

Table 12
FEEPAC P within group feedback preferences of Quebecois students

Feedback family	Mean	SD	Comparison	Mean Difference	p-value
Recast	2.67	.81	Explicit-Prompts	.85	.0001
Explicit	3.06	.62	Explicit-Recasts	.38	.0004
Prompts	2.20	.63	Prompts-Recasts	-.47	.0001

Main effect: Feedback family: $F(2,96) = 53.99, p < .0001$

2.3.2 Feedback preferences between cultural groups

Having revealed that students within both groups exhibited statistically significant preferences for different forms of feedback, I was now interested in examining whether any differences existed in student preferences between cultures. Once again a repeated measures analysis of variance was employed to discover interaction effects between corrective feedback family preference (recast, explicit correction, and prompts) and student culture (Taiwanese and French Quebecois). Tukey-Kramer adjusted p-values were then calculated for post-hoc analysis with an assigned alpha level of .05 to

determine where significant differences could be found among the three different feedback families. Analyses were conducted separately for student preferences in response to a grammar error (FEEPAC G) and in response to a pronunciation error (FEEPAC P).

Cultural group comparisons were achieved by examining the differences in mean preference rating scores for each feedback family from both FEEPAC G and P questionnaire answers. Overall results revealed that both cultural groups ranked feedback families in the same order, with explicit correction ranked highest, followed by recasts and then prompts, regardless of the nature of the error; however, overall ratings for each family were higher among Taiwanese students than with their Quebecois counterparts. The nature of the error being corrected also appeared to affect the preference level for feedback types selected by each cultural group.

2.3.2.1 Cultural group preferences in response to a grammar error

Cultural group feedback preference comparisons in response to a grammar error were achieved by comparing mean preference rating scores for each feedback family from answers to the FEEPAC G questionnaire from each group (see Figure 3).

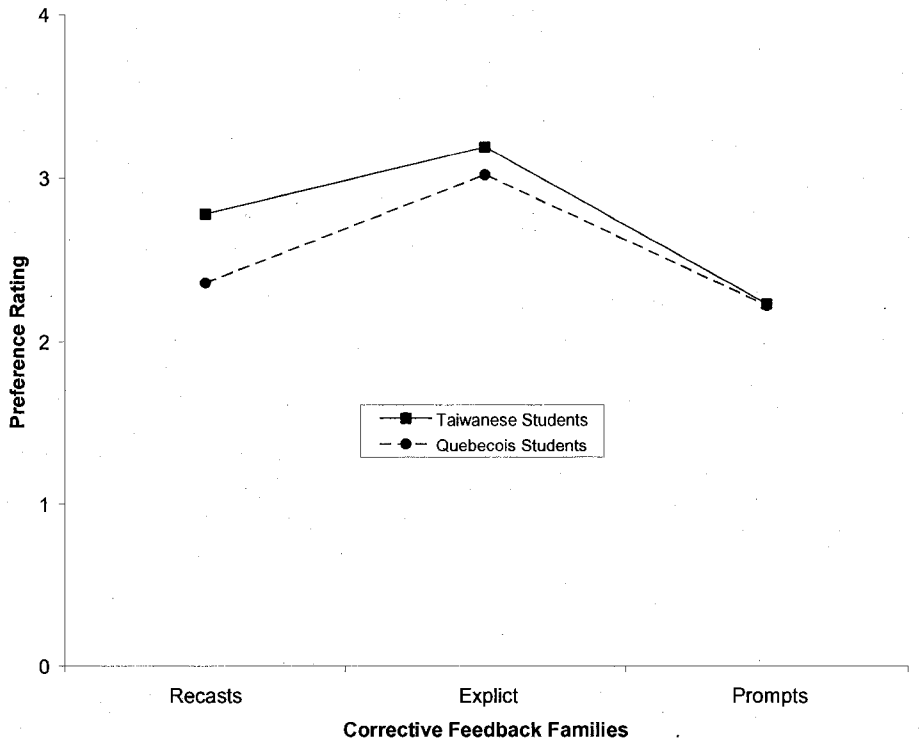

Figure 3. Culture and feedback preference interaction in response to a grammar error

Taiwanese students rated all feedback families higher than their Quebecois counterparts. This difference was most marked for recasts, less so for explicit correction, and almost identical ratings were indicated for prompts. The analysis of variance revealed a significant interaction effect between feedback family preference and culture for a grammar error between Taiwanese and Quebecois students, $F(2,231) = 6.33$, $p < .05$. However, Tukey Kramer's post hoc comparison confirmed significant feedback preference differences between groups in relation to recasts only ($p = .001$), although there was near significance for explicit correction ($p = .0705$) as indicated in Table 13.

Table 13
FEEPAC G: Comparison of Taiwanese and Quebecois student feedback preferences

Feedback family	Mean Difference	p-value
Recast	.42	.0001
Explicit	.18	.0705
Prompts	.01	.8643

Interaction effect: L1 culture and feedback family: $F(2,231) = 6.33$, $p = .0021$

2.3.2.2 Cultural group preferences in response to a pronunciation error

Cultural group comparisons were achieved by comparing mean rating scores for each feedback family from answers to FEEPAC P. Both groups ranked feedback in the same order, with the Taiwanese providing higher overall rankings than the Quebecois, although this difference was less marked than for a grammar error (see Figure 4).

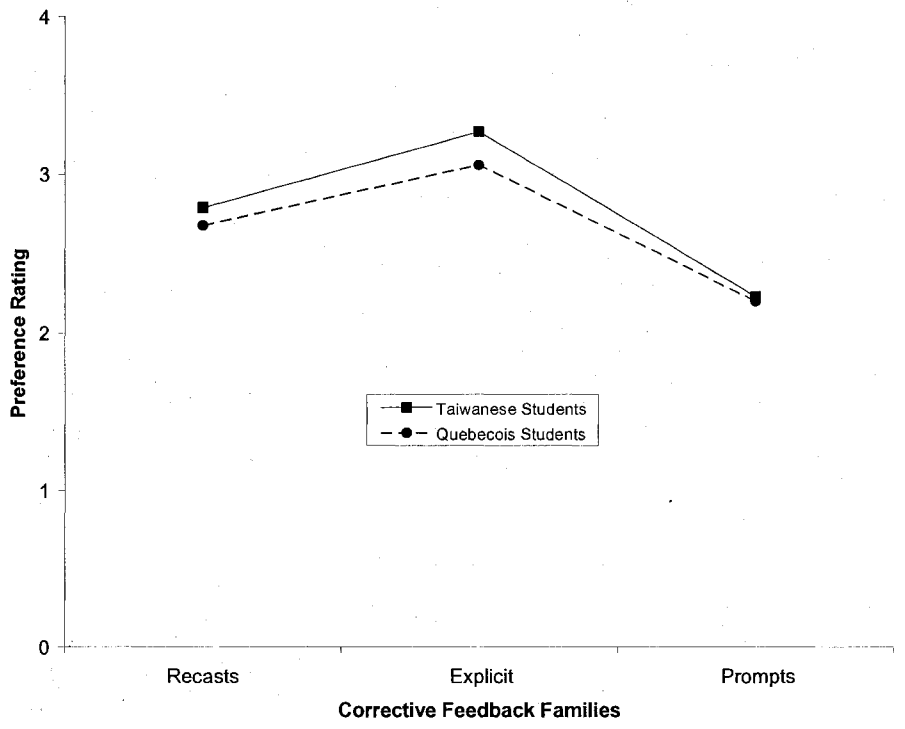

Figure 4. Culture and feedback preference interaction in response to a pronunciation error

Unlike the grammar error, analysis of variance did not show a significant interaction effect between feedback family preference and culture for a pronunciation error between Taiwanese and Quebecois students, $F(2,231) = 1.35$, $p = .2602$. However, Tukey-Kramer post hoc analysis did reveal significant feedback preference differences between groups in relation to explicit correction ($p = .0159$) as indicated in Table 14.

Table 14
FEEPAC P: Comparison of Taiwanese and Quebecois student feedback preferences

Feedback family	Mean Difference	p-value
Recast	.11	.4464
Explicit	.21	.0159
Prompts	.03	.6829

Interaction effect: L1 culture and feedback family: $F(2,231) = 1.35$, $p = .2602$

2.3.3 Within-group preferences for a grammar and pronunciation error

In comparing cultural group preference ratings for a grammar and pronunciation error, Quebecois students appear to have increased their preference for recasts in response to a pronunciation error relative to a grammar error (from 2.36 grammar to 2.67 pronunciation) while Taiwanese students maintained identical ratings regardless of the nature of the error (2.78). Conversely, Taiwanese students appeared to have increased their preference for explicit correction when the error in question was pronunciation based (from 3.19 grammar to 3.27 pronunciation) while Quebecois students maintained a more uniform preference for this type of feedback regardless of the error type (3.01 grammar to 3.06 pronunciation). This shift in feedback preference within cultural groups,

contingent on the nature of the error, helps explain why preferences for recasts were found to be significantly different in the presence of a grammar error, and preferences for explicit correction significantly different for pronunciation errors in the earlier between-group analysis.

An analysis of variance was conducted to examine whether the differences in feedback family ratings between a grammar and pronunciation error within each group were statistically significant. Doubly repeated ANOVAs were used, as the same subjects were measured for FEEPAC G and FEEPAC P, and for the three same feedback families. Using this analysis ensured that possible correlations between measurements 'within' the same subject were taken into account in the analysis.

As indicated in Table 15, no significant differences were found for Taiwanese students, particularly between prompts and recasts, though there was near significance in preference ratings for explicit correction, where students preferred to be corrected this way more when the error was pronunciation based, as mentioned earlier.

Table 15
Comparison of Taiwanese feedback preferences for a grammar and pronunciation error

Feedback family	Mean Difference	p-value
Recast	.0036	.9929
Explicit	.0827	.1359
Prompts	.0043	.9929

In assessing differences for Quebecois students, significance was revealed for recasts only, where students decreased their rating for this feedback type when the error was grammatical compared to phonetic (see Table 16).

Table 16
Comparison of Quebecois feedback preferences for a grammar and pronunciation error

Feedback family	Mean Difference	p-value
Recast	.3144	.0001
Explicit	.0464	.7952
Prompts	- .0141	.7971

2.4 Qualitative analysis: follow-up interviews

In this section I will explain the general findings and common themes drawn from the answers of participants from each cultural group during the follow-up interview segment of the study. These themes were discovered after a content analysis of interview recordings and transcripts. Using excerpts of answers to interview questions given to participants (see Appendix R), I will illustrate differences in the views of teachers and students from both cultures, as well as any shared perceptions or beliefs which may exist relating to error correction. Names used in the excerpts are fictitious in order to respect the anonymity of participants.

For complete transcripts of interview answers, please refer to Appendix W (Taiwanese students), Appendix X (Quebecois students), Appendix Y (Taiwanese NNTEs), and Appendix Z (NTEs).

2.4.1 Students: Importance of error correction

Interviews with students from both cultures revealed that there was unanimous agreement in favour of the importance of error correction.

Excerpt 1 – Quebecois students

(Mireille) Yes. When the teacher shows me my mistakes, I am aware that I made errors and I could correct them. If he does not correct them, I will not learn to speak correctly.

(Anne) Yes, it helps us improve our English at least for the next time. If nobody tell us the correct way, we'll make the errors again.

Excerpt 2 – Taiwanese students

(Bernice) Yes. When we know where our mistakes are, we can correct them and that's make us improve our English.

(Suzy) Yes, because sometimes you may make some errors so often that you even do not notice.

2.4.2 Students: Satisfaction with how teachers correct their mistakes

Taiwanese students expressed mixed reactions regarding how satisfied they were with the methods used by their teachers to correct their English errors.

Excerpt 3

(Suzy) In Taiwan, there are very few teachers would correct students' mistakes. I would like teachers to correct my mistakes by raising their tones and repeating that wrong words or phrases again to let myself find out my mistakes.

(Veronica) I don't like some of my teachers had been corrected my mistakes without explaining and telling me how to solve my problems. I think that's helpless for me.

(Bernice) Yes, I can accept the way my teacher corrected my mistakes. They point out our mistakes and tell us to try one more time to get the correct answer.

(Richard) I think most of my teachers correct my mistakes in a right way.

Quebecois students, however, were in agreement that teachers corrected their errors in a way that was satisfactory to them.

Excerpt 4

(Anne) Yes, I think that my teachers correct my mistakes the way I like because when I make mistakes I must found myself the mistakes.

(Nadia) I think that most of my teachers correct my mistakes the way I like.

(Mireille) I think so. When the teacher repeats my errors, I could think about and correct them.

2.4.3 Students: Views on immediate correction versus uninterrupted L2 production

Taiwanese students expressed near unanimity in their belief that they should not be immediately corrected by teachers but be allowed to complete their utterance.

Excerpt 5

(Suzy) I would prefer a teacher tell me my errors after I finish what I want to say, or else, being interrupted may let me feel nervous about making another errors and forget what I was trying to express.

(Richard) I like teachers stop me when I finish the whole talk or speech because I think if they stop me as soon as possible, it will interrupt my speech. Also, it won't be too polite to interrupt people when they are talking.

(Victor) I would prefer to just talk without being interrupted because maybe that little mistake is acceptable or I really want to tell someone something.

Conversely, Quebecois students agreed by and large with the notion that teachers should correct them immediately.

Excerpt 6

(Anne) I prefer to be stop as soon as I make a mistake because if the teachers repeat us the same error everytimes we made it we will finish by say correctly.

(Corinne) Sometimes it's preferable being interrupted as soon as the mistake is done. But he can also ask us after the sentence if there is something wrong in what we just said.

(Nadia) Yes I prefer when a teacher tells me right away when I make a mistake.

2.4.4 Students: Attitudes towards receiving answers versus opportunities to self-correct

All students, irrespective of cultural background, appeared to prefer being given a second chance to try and find the correct answer themselves rather than be given the answer by teachers. This appears to contradict quantitative findings which revealed that students from both cultures preferred explicit correction. Furthermore, both groups selected prompts as their least preferred method despite the fact that this feedback family generates the highest opportunity for student self-correction.

Excerpt 7 – Taiwanese students

(Veronica) I would like to have the chance to think about my mistakes and try my best to give the correct response myself. But we Chinese students get used to wait the correct answers.

(Suzy) I think it is better to give me the chance to think about it first, because sometimes it may be a small error that's just a slip of the tongue.

(Richard) I think the teacher should let me think of the mistake for a while and then tell us the correct one.

(Victor) I think it's better to give me the chance to think about it and try and give the correct response myself because it shows I have the ability.

Excerpt 8 – Quebecois students

(Mireille) I prefer to think about my mistake and try to find by myself the correct answer.

(Anne) I believe that we must search the good answer because, when we search a long time the next time we remember.

(Corinne) As far as I'm concern, I prefer when he let me try to think about a little while before giving me the answer, If I really can't find it by myself.

(Nadia) I like it better when a teacher tells me my mistake [ed - indicates error, not answer] and give me some hint and I'll try to find the right answer.

2.4.5 How Taiwanese NNTEs and NTEs deal with error correction

Taiwanese students were asked whether they believed that the corrective methods of Taiwanese NNTEs differed from those of NTEs who had instructed them in Taiwan. Certain beliefs among students indicated that a distinct difference existed between both groups of teachers in their eyes. Generally, NTEs were thought to correct with less frequency and used methods that were less disruptive to the flow of communication while pushing learners to self-correct. Taiwanese NNTEs, on the other hand, were thought to be more explicit in their methods and address errors immediately.

Excerpt 9

(Veronica) ... most of my country teachers give the answers in the direct ways.

(Bernice) Yes. Native English teachers like to give us more opportunities to let us find the answer but Taiwanese English teachers would tell us what the right answer is if we had the wrong answer.

(Suzy) Native English teachers may tell my errors after I finish my talking, while English teachers in Taiwan would interrupt me right away.

(Victor) Generally, English teachers from my country usually correct my mistakes right away and native English teachers would not correct my mistakes if he/she can understand my English well.

2.4.6 Teachers: Effectiveness of error correction

There were mixed reactions from both Taiwanese NNTEs and NTEs regarding their beliefs on the effectiveness of error correction.

Excerpt 10 - NTEs

(Agnes) Very important, If errors are permitted to remain, students will not receive the required modeling system.

(Martha) Moderately effective, but often students ask to be corrected. The correction sometimes doesn't seem to penetrate.

Excerpt 11 – Taiwanese NNTEs

(Shirley) I think it can be quite effective if done tactfully and correctly. If the teacher doesn't correct a student's error, then how will they learn?

(Yvonne) I think error correction is effective to some degrees and in some extent.

(Anne) Correcting students errors is partially effective.

In establishing whether error correction was effective, student proficiency level seemed to colour teacher beliefs in both cultures, and particularly for Taiwanese NNTEs.

Excerpt 12

(Mary, NTE) Very – at the high-intermediate level. It pushes them past the "intermediate plateau".

(Yvonne – Taiwanese NNTE) For more advanced learners, error correction helps to "hone" and improve their English. But for less proficient learners, many teaching strategies are more important or effective for them than error correction.

(Anne – Taiwanese NNTE) It depends on the different levels and how motivated students are toward English. If their levels are higher and they are more motivated, error correction may function better.

2.4.7 Teachers: Influencing factors contributing to attitudes about error correction

NTEs echoed the belief that their teaching experiences played a large part in shaping their attitudes about error correction. They seemed to rely heavily on the needs of their students in making determinations about whether the use of error correction had pedagogical value.

Excerpt 13

(Agnes) Seeing students perpetuate their errors does not stimulate them toward reaching "automaticity" in correct English usage.

(Terry) ...experience with adult learners who specifically ask for corrective feedback: "I know I'm making mistakes. Please correct me".

(Mary) The fact that most high-intermediate students ask for it.

(Martha) Experience (watching their reactions) and the fact that students ask for it.

Taiwanese teachers appeared to give weight to their own experiences as language learners and their cultural and personal beliefs and philosophies in addition to teaching experience.

Excerpt 14

(Shirley) Personally, I would choose to use error correction, due to my personal experiences and cultural views of education.

(Yvonne) My professional training, my own English learning experiences, my own teaching experiences, and my philosophy of teaching and education in general.

(Anne) I think my own English learning experience and my observations in the class are the most important factors which contributed to my attitudes about error correction.

2.4.8 Teachers: Influence of teacher training on error correction

By and large both groups of teachers attributed some influence to their professional training when asked, although there were mixed reactions by NTEs.

Excerpt 15 –Taiwanese NNTEs

(Shirley) It has redesigned the way I correct. For example, instead of saying "No, that's wrong!" patterning or modeling is much more effective.

(Yvonne) Definitely. I believe that language is learned from the process of using that language for authentic purposes and real functions. Errors are part of the learning process.

Excerpt 16 – NTEs

(Agnes) Only to a small degree.

(Terry) No, because all during the early communicative years correction was soft-pedaled. I personally think it's important.

(Mary) Yes. When I started, as a true follower of the communicative approach, I would never correct.

2.4.9 Teachers: Preferred way of correcting students

Providing students with the correct form was clearly the preferred method of correction for Taiwanese NNTEs, while NTEs revealed a wider array of preferences ranging from explicit correction to pushing learners to self-correct.

Excerpt 17 – Taiwanese NNTEs

(Yvonne) I usually provide correct forms for the students or ask them to say what they intend to say again. That is to raise their attention to the errors.

(Anne) I think providing the correct answer is the most often used method by me...

(Shirley) I use modeling or patterning, which I think are the most effective....For example: if time permits, I would have them read aloud the correct expressions as many times as possible...

Excerpt 18 – NTEs

(Agnes) ...once comment has been fully expressed, professor repeats in correct form.

(Terry) On the spot, but taking the time to dwell on an utterance. Use peers in a small group by saying I didn't quite understand. I need help.

(Mary) Direct correction. Life is too short, classes are big, and students are in a hurry to get their point across. The shorter the interruption, the better.

(Martha) I use question inflection when repeating what they've said. It (hopefully) guides them to thinking of right answer, or I simply correct the error.

2.4.10 Teachers: Providing answers vs. allowing students to self-correct

In asking teachers whether they felt students should be given the correct answer rather than be allowed to try and think about their mistake and provide the corrected response themselves, both cultural groups expressed mixed reactions, although there was slightly stronger support for self-correction by NTEs and for teacher provision of the correct form by Taiwanese NNTEs.

Excerpt 19 – NTEs in support of student self-correction

(Terry) It's good to let them call on their resources because two objectives are accomplished: they get the correct language input and they realize maybe they can help themselves. Taking time to reflect can foster long-term memory retention.

(Martha) Make them think (if there's time). It's the same correcting compositions. I use correction symbols and they have to think more about the corrections.

Excerpt 20 – NNTEs in support of teacher-provided correction

(Anne) I think correct input is important and if they can understand what kinds of errors they are making, next time they will improve it.

(Jane) Yes. They will thereby have a better memory of the correct way there.

2.4.11 NNTEs: Taiwanese students' comfort and preferences for error correction

Taiwanese NNTEs were asked to comment on how comfortable they thought Taiwanese students were with error correction and which methods of correction they felt students were most accustomed to. Answers revealed that teachers, for the most part, felt that students were comfortable with error correction and that they would be most accustomed to an explicit explanation of their error.

Excerpt 21

(Shirley) I think most students here are comfortable with error correction. They would be more accustomed to giving them an explicit explanation, modeling or patterning.

(Anne) I think yes, for the students who goes through the traditional education system in Taiwan, it's very helpful to correct them and they feel comfortable with error correction because they have been corrected in every kind of classes and they just feel its kind of instructional process to be corrected.

3. Summary

In this section I provided an analysis of both quantitative results from preliminary and FEEPAC questionnaires along with qualitative results from interviews with students and teachers, to help illustrate potential differences and similarities between Taiwanese NNTEs, NTEs, and students from both Taiwanese and Quebecois cultural backgrounds relating to their attitudes and preferences for specific forms of error correction. Patterns and trends unearthed by this analysis will be discussed in the next chapter, as specific research questions relevant to the study are addressed.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This chapter will provide insight and help shed light on the similarities and differences between students from both Taiwanese and French Quebecois cultural groups, as well as Taiwanese NNTEs and NTEs regarding preferences for oral error correction and their related attitudes and beliefs associated with this classroom dynamic. This will be achieved through the triangulation of data obtained from the quantitative results and qualitative interview themes, as research questions are answered in turn.

1. Research Question 1: What are the major similarities and differences between Taiwanese non-native teachers of English (NNTEs), native teachers of English (NTEs), and students of both cultural groups relating to attitudes and beliefs on error correction?

Participant attitudes and beliefs regarding error correction were gauged by some of the preliminary questionnaire items as well as post-questionnaire interview questions. Answers to various questions will be discussed separately using data obtained from interviews to help illustrate any revealed patterns or trends.

1.1 Preferences for the use of error correction and rate of correction

All groups, except for Taiwanese NNTEs, unanimously preferred the use of error correction in the classroom. Student participants, regardless of culture, indicated near unanimous support for error correction. This was consistent with an earlier study by Cathcart and Olsen (1976), which revealed that students wished to be corrected all of the time. In their study, students were representative of diverse cultural backgrounds but were not isolated into groups for the purposes of comparison. Results of the present study suggest that students have a strong desire to be corrected, regardless of their culture.

Where teachers were concerned, it was revealed that NTEs mirrored student preference for the use of error correction, with unanimous approval. Almost a third of Taiwanese NNTEs, however, indicated a dislike for error correction. At first glance, one would surmise that this discrepancy between Taiwanese student preferences and those of their teachers for the use of error correction was symptomatic of teachers not being aware of, or not taking into consideration, student needs (99% approval for use of error correction by students as compared to 67% by teachers). However, upon analysis of the rates of correction preferred by students, it was revealed that Taiwanese students were less eager to be corrected constantly compared to their Quebecois counterparts (40% for Taiwanese as compared to 78% for Quebecois).

This may be reflective of the general observation that Asian students tend to be more reticent learners than their Western counterparts (Rao, 2001; Sato, 1982) and may be less comfortable with correction than Western learners. This reticence on the part of Asian learners possibly stems from the method of teaching they have been exposed to, which has been shaped by a Confucian view of learning espoused by many Asian countries. This philosophy places the student in a more passive role in classrooms that are traditionally teacher-centred, with the teacher acting as purveyor of knowledge while students absorb and internalize information (Hu, 2002). Although not all correction requires active participation on the part of students, it nonetheless shifts the classroom focus onto them, and identifies to others that they have generated an error. Given the traditional instructional settings Taiwanese learners have been exposed to, their opportunities for student production would be much lower than for students in Western language classrooms who tend to be exposed to more interactive teacher-assisted learning. Because of this reduced opportunity, Taiwanese students may not be used to

frequent correction. Taiwanese NNTEs appeared to be attuned to the learning tendencies and preferences of their students and, consequently, indicated a preference for much lower rates of correction compared to NTEs. The majority of Taiwanese NNTEs opted for infrequent correction (62%) as compared to NTEs who favoured using correction most of the time (67%). According to Chen (2006), who looked at the online behaviours of Chinese learners in a teacher training course, "teachers sometimes put special effort into protecting students' face" (p. 2). Where constant correction was concerned, however, all teachers were in agreement that this was not a favoured practice (0% for Taiwanese and 8% for NTEs).

1.2 Taiwanese concern for affective reactions by students to error correction

The common theme of student embarrassment which arose during post-questionnaire interviews appears to tie in to the aforementioned Taiwanese NNTE reticence to use error correction, as well as their preference for reduced rates of correction. Many Taiwanese NNTE and student replies drew attention to the notion that correction could lead to lowered self-esteem or generate feelings of discouragement in students.

Excerpt 22

(Richard - student) I like teachers don't use words which will attack my confidence...

(Shirley - NNTE) ...too much focus on errors drains a person's enthusiasm to learn. It can lower their self-esteem. The students' personalities and motivations must also be factored.

(Veronica – student) ....If the English teachers correct my mistakes immediately when I talk, I will feel embarrassed.

(Richard - student) Yes, I think if teachers correct my errors in an appropriate way, it will help me improving my English ability. Appropriate ways mean that a teacher shouldn't use words that will discourage students.

(Jane – NNTE) For oral practice, correction may interfere with the student's motivation and courage to go on.

The issue of an individual's preservation of *face* and a focus on respect for others is very important in Chinese culture (Chen, 2006). It seems natural that this philosophy would also extend itself to the classroom, where public displays of student-generated error could create scenarios of personal embarrassment to the learner. Liu and Littlewood (1997) claim that one possible reason behind the reticence of East Asian learners is the anxiety felt because of self-imposed high performance expectations as well as the risk of "making a fool of themselves, especially when they are not confident about their English" (p. 376).

Taiwanese NNTEs appeared to indicate that the risk of these face-threatening scenarios could prove more harmful than the benefits gained through error correction. According to Chen (2006) "many teachers are worried that if they make their students lose face in class, the students might hate them and stop working hard on their subject" (p. 2). He believes that maintaining student face while also helping them progress in learning English is a major challenge for instructors. This attitude helps explain Taiwanese NNTE preferences for the sparing use of error correction as well as their lower preference for the use of error correction as compared to NTEs.

In post-interview questioning, there appeared to be contradictory findings when half of the Taiwanese NNTEs felt that students were comfortable with error correction (see Appendix W, question 7). However, the issue is not one of correction vs. no correction, where Taiwanese students are concerned, but more so in the amount of correction given, as previously mentioned. There was unanimous agreement among students from both cultures in the value of error correction (see Appendix Y and Appendix Z, question 1). The primary difference between teacher beliefs in each culture revolved around the amount of correction students should be subjected to.

1.3 Perceptions of types of errors most important to correct

Major differences were revealed regarding the level of importance placed on certain types of errors by students from both cultures, as well as Taiwanese NNTEs and NTEs from Quebec. Taiwanese students felt that pronunciation errors were more important to correct than either lexical or grammatical errors. In contrast, Quebecois students felt that grammar errors were the most important to address. Teachers appeared to have their fingers on the pulse of their students' learning needs, as both Taiwanese NNTEs and NTEs in Quebec mirrored their students views regarding the most important error types to correct. This could be explained by the contexts where students were learning English. Clearly, Quebecois students learning within an ESL context have significantly greater opportunities to learn English and be exposed to English in authentic settings given the bilingual status of Montreal. Francophone learners residing in Montreal are often exposed to English in informal settings outside the classroom prior to learning English formally, either through daily social interactions, or access to English-speaking friends. Because of this increased exposure, many have had the opportunity to use and listen to the target language without the benefit of structured learning provided by a language classroom. Consequently, issues of pronunciation may be less critical to them than learning the rules of the language to help refine and fill the gaps in their grammar knowledge, which may not have been addressed in informal learning.

An alternate hypothesis to Quebecois participants' lower preference for correction of a pronunciation error stems from a sociolinguistic study by Gatbonton et al. (2005) that investigated ethnic group affiliation and pronunciation accuracy between two ethnic groups (French Quebecois and Chinese immigrants) learning English in Quebec. It was revealed that "L2 learners treated their peers' L2 accent as an indicator of these peers'

degree of ethnic affiliation" (p. 497). Data from a previous study by Gatbonton conducted in 1975, which examined the attitudes of native Francophone learners' attitudes toward their peers learning English in Quebec, was used for this study and revealed a specific behavioural consequence among Quebecois participants, who were considered to be learning English within a context where socio-political conflict between English and French was present. When asked to select peers as leaders, Quebecois participants who had been classified as 'nationalistic' indicated a preference for peers with accented or heavily French-accented English speech, in mono-ethnic contexts, over those with more accurate English pronunciation. This discovery led to the conclusion that ethnic affiliation may be considered more important, in specific contexts, than L2 proficiency. In light of these findings, it is also plausible that the correction of a pronunciation error was less critical to Quebecois participants who may have considered the perfecting of their accent as symbolizing disassociation from their ethnic affiliation.

The exact opposite holds true for Taiwanese students who are learning English in EFL contexts, where the bulk of their exposure to the language would be limited to the confines of the language classroom. Asian learners often have a strong grasp of grammar rules, relative to their oral proficiency, due to limited opportunities for language use outside the classroom, and are often eager to find language exchange partners to help shore up their limited speaking skills. Taiwan, unlike Quebec, does not provide daily opportunities to converse in English outside the classroom, as is the case with most EFL contexts. This often leaves students with an unbalanced skill set, where their English grammar knowledge far outweighs their capacity to speak the language.

Traditionally, emphasis has been placed on grammar teaching in Asian EFL contexts, with limited opportunities for authentic student production in heavily teacher-

centred classrooms. The preference displayed by students for the correction of a pronunciation error in this study may be reflective of their desire to use and produce the language rather than focus on the grammatical form, something they have had opportunities to do throughout their English learning experience in Taiwan.

One issue that has been discussed regarding the focus on grammar teaching in Asian EFL settings, at the expense of pronunciation, lies in the limited oral proficiency of NNTEs relative to their NTE counterparts. One criticism levelled at the recent trend to promote the Western-based communicative language teaching (CLT) methodology in China, which focuses heavily on language use and student production and experimentation with the target language, is that it requires a certain level of communicative competence which many Chinese NNTEs do not possess, particularly in rural settings (Hu, 2005). However, when Taiwanese students were asked to comment on the type of errors being corrected by their teachers, they believed that their teachers were in fact giving a priority to pronunciation errors. Furthermore, Taiwanese NNTEs used in the study agreed with their students that pronunciation errors were the most important to correct. The fact that Taiwanese teachers are echoing their students' preference for pronunciation error correction and are viewed as putting this belief into practice by students may be indicative of a shift in focus by NNTEs in Taiwan EFL teaching. Instructors seem to have recognized this deficit in the language skill set by students and are making pronunciation more of a priority in the language classroom. Furthermore, it may also be indicative of a high level of communicative competence by Taiwanese NNTEs, as they seem willing and prepared to address pronunciation errors over other errors in their classrooms.

1.4 Preferences for teacher reactions to a learner error

Both Taiwanese NNTEs and NTEs in Quebec heavily supported allowing students to produce the target language uninterrupted, despite making an error, rather than correct them immediately. That Taiwanese NNTEs were unanimous in this decision is likely attributable to their aforementioned concern for student embarrassment.

Where Quebecois students were concerned, all four participating in the interview indicated a preference for being corrected immediately (see Appendix Z, question 3) contrary to four of the five Taiwanese learners interviewed who indicated a preference for being allowed to produce English without error correction interruption (see Appendix Y, question 3). This again may be evidence of a certain reticence by Taiwanese learners and a fear of embarrassment compared to their Quebecois counterparts.

Contrary to the support for uninterrupted student production previously indicated by Taiwanese NNTEs, when asked to differentiate between how NNTEs and NTEs in Taiwan deal with oral error correction, comments gathered from the five Taiwanese students interviewed indicated that Taiwanese NNTEs either had a tendency to interrupt and correct them immediately or directly compared to NTEs who allowed them to speak uninterrupted (see Appendix Y, question 5). Taiwanese students' global perception of how their teachers treat their errors revealed during interview sessions seems more in keeping with the traditional teacher-centred method of teaching in East Asia.

Further evidence of a traditional teaching method used by NNTEs in Taiwan was revealed when four of the five students interviewed confirmed that NNTEs in Taiwan tended to provide them with the answers to their errors (see Appendix Y, question 5), an instructional method characteristic of the teacher-centred Confucian classroom.

1.5 Preferences for types of error correction

Yet further proof of a traditional East Asian teaching philosophy where error correction is concerned was revealed during interviews when three of the four Taiwanese NNTEs interviewed indicated that their favoured method of correction was providing the answer to students (see Appendix W, question 4). The provision of correct forms to learners could be considered characteristic of teacher-centred instruction as this method of correction requires no language production by students in comparison to feedback which pushes the learner to self-correct, such as prompts or clarification requests. It also satisfies the role expectation of the teacher in the Confucian view of education, as provider and disseminator of knowledge.

In answer to FEEPAC G and P questionnaire items, Taiwanese NNTEs selected the implicit recast as their most preferred method (see Appendix U). Although this form does in fact provide students with an answer, it does so in a very subtle fashion by rephrasing the student utterance and correcting the erroneous segment. This method would then allow teachers to preserve the traditional teacher-driven corrective methods used in East Asian classrooms, but in using a form that was less threatening or explicitly obvious to the student, would also reduce chances of student embarrassment or creation of *face-threatening* scenarios. This preference was reflective of the popularity of recasts in studies that observed the frequency rates of feedback types in instructional settings across different cultures (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mori, 2002; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004; Tsang, 2004).

NTEs in Quebec, on the other hand, favoured elicitations as a form of feedback (see Appendix V). This form, which pushes learners to self-correct, could be reflective of the Western philosophy of teaching which places paramount importance on student

production and experimentation with the target language. Teachers act as facilitators in the learning process; however, the onus is placed on students to produce the language and then discover the rules for themselves with the assistance of the instructor. The fact that elicitations are a form of corrective feedback which generate subsequent student production make it a more favoured method in a language classroom which places emphasis on student-teacher interaction and language use by learners. Results from the Cathcart and Olsen (1976) study also revealed that the NTEs used in their study had a preference for using this form of feedback when participants selected "Yesterday I..." as the corrective method they thought would be best to use in response to a learner error.

Where students were concerned, both Quebecois and Taiwanese English learners indicated a preference for metalinguistic (explicit rule) and explicit feedback, regardless of culture (see Appendices S and T). This comes as little surprise for Taiwanese students, as Rao (2001) states that East Asian learners "find it normal to engage in modes of learning which are teacher-centered and in which they receive knowledge rather than interpret it". What comes as a surprise is the fact that Quebecois students also wished to receive explicit correction provided by their teachers above all other forms of feedback. In fact, they preferred receiving metalinguistic feedback using an explicit rule even more so than their Taiwanese counterparts (see Appendix V). This appears to indicate that students, regardless of culture, preferred being provided with the answer by teachers, where the corrections were given in explicit and direct methods.

2. Research Question 2: What are the preferences of Taiwanese EFL students and Quebecois ESL students for prompts, recasts, and explicit correction?

2.1 Taiwanese students

The various items on FEEPAC G and P questionnaires were collapsed into three distinct corrective feedback families, namely recasts, explicit correction and prompts. Taiwanese students displayed significant preference differences between all three feedback categories, with explicit correction being most preferred, followed by recasts, and then prompts. The preference difference was most apparent between explicit correction and prompts, for both grammar and pronunciation errors (see Tables 9 and 10). This illustrates a preference that may be reflective of the traditional Confucian view of the role of teacher as the transmitter of information (Rao, 2001), a feature conducive to feedback types in the explicit correction family, which all include error correction where the teacher supplies the correct form and clearly indicates that what the student said was incorrect. The Cathcart and Olsen (1976) study also revealed that when students were broken up into separate cultures and then compared to the student total, almost all preferences and dislikes were identical except for the explicit feedback exemplar "Don't say go; say went" which was ranked within the top three by almost all cultural groups.

The fact that prompts were the least preferred method of correction supports the aforementioned emphasis Taiwanese learners placed on avoiding public embarrassment and keeping *face* in the language classroom. Prompts, characterized by teacher moves which push learners to self-correct, are arguably feedback types which create scenarios where student production is a necessary part of the correction process between interlocutors. Certain studies have revealed that prompts lead to the highest rates of

student uptake (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) and understandably so since students are pushed to provide uptake in the form of a reformulation of their initial utterance. It seems clear that the use of this feedback type could lead to higher instances of embarrassment given the increased requirement for student production, as well as the possibility of students committing yet another error in subsequent attempts at self-repair.

Conflicting results were revealed in Taiwanese student interviews, however, where all five participants appeared to prefer being given the choice to think about their error and try again rather than be given the answer by teachers (see Appendix Y, question 4). In light of the fact that they ranked prompts last, even though this form of error correction provides the highest opportunity for self-correction, perhaps this indicates that although students prefer figuring out their errors for themselves, there is a dislike for the prompts used by teachers to push learners to achieve this end. This may lend support for the pedagogical practice of correcting student answers at the end of class, where students are not singled out as the source of the error in front of their peers. Although there is no research which indicates that this practice leads to improved learning or increased effectiveness of error correction, this could at least alleviate any feelings of embarrassment associated with direct prompting while allowing students the opportunity to repair previously made errors without being associated as the source of that error.

2.2. Quebecois students

Quebecois students showed the same preference patterns as Taiwanese students for the three different feedback families, although their ratings were lower for all three families, particularly with recasts in response to a grammar error. All preference ratings were considered significant except for the prompts-recasts comparison in response to a

grammar error. This can possibly be explained by examining previous preferences exhibited by Quebecois students for a pronunciation error over a grammar error (see research question 1, section 1.3). It appears that in response to a grammar error, considered most important to correct by Quebecois students, they decrease their preference for recasting (from 2.67 for pronunciation to 2.36 for grammar) while maintaining their low preference rating for prompts (2.21 grammar and 2.20 pronunciation) and high preference rating for explicit correction (3.01 and 3.06 for grammar and pronunciation, respectively). This could indicate that the use of a recast is less preferred when the error in question is deemed more important to them (grammar over pronunciation). Perhaps Quebec students feel the implicit nature of the recast is insufficient in bringing the error in question to their attention, or providing them with the necessary information required to perfect an error they consider important. Conversely, when the error in question is less critical to them (pronunciation error), the use of the more implicit recast (relative to the other two feedback types) is more acceptable.

Like the Taiwanese, the greatest significance could be found in the explicit-prompt feedback family comparisons (see Table 11 and Table 12). In attempting to explain why Quebecois students disliked prompts more than other forms of feedback, it could be argued that all students dislike the 'being put on the spot' scenario that prompts generate, whereby the student is asked to reformulate their utterance immediately, as was hypothesized to explain reactions to prompts by Taiwanese learners. However, unlike the Taiwanese, none of the four Quebecois students interviewed indicated any concern for embarrassment as a consequence of the error correction process.

One possible variable that may have influenced Quebecois student preference ratings, particularly in the selection of explicit correction as their most preferred method

of correction, was the advanced age of the group relative to their Taiwanese counterparts. As previously mentioned, the average age for Quebecois students was almost 40, compared to an average of 23 for the Taiwanese. It has been widely accepted that older learners appreciate the use of explicit feedback and instruction. Carroll and Swain (1993) looked at the effects of negative feedback on adult learners learning the dative alternation rule in English. Results showed that the group corrected using explicit metalinguistic feedback outperformed all other groups being corrected using other types of feedback. Lyster (1998) claims "it remains difficult to know how relevant laboratory studies with adult learners may be for error treatment in communicative classrooms with young learners" (p. 270). This points to the fact that age variables may produce sizeable differences in reactions to error correction by learners whose age difference is relatively large. The age effects on feedback preference created by the large age discrepancy between both these groups may have obscured any differences brought on by possible cultural variables.

Similar to the Taiwanese, all four Quebecois students indicated a preference for the opportunity to self-correct during post-questionnaire interviews (see Appendix Z, question 4) despite their dislike for prompt exemplars in both FEEPAC G and P. This again leads to the conclusion that all students, regardless of culture, prefer having opportunities to self-correct but appear to dislike the feedback methods used by teachers that provide the greatest opportunity for self-correction.

3. Research Question 3: What are the differences in preference between Taiwanese EFL students and Quebecois ESL students for prompts, recasts and explicit correction?

As revealed in the results section, within-group preference order for the three feedback families was identical, with both Taiwanese and Quebecois students favouring explicit correction first, followed by recasts, and then prompts. In comparing between-group preferences for the three feedback families, I chose to discuss group results for grammar and pronunciation errors separately. In doing so, interesting results were discovered between both groups, as cross-cultural differences in learner preferences appeared to be dictated by the nature of the error in question.

3.1 Differences between student groups in relation to a grammar error

Statistical analysis of between-group preference ratings for the three feedback families in response to a grammar error revealed that Taiwanese learners preferred recasts significantly more than their Quebecois counterparts. This significant difference in preference for recasts could possibly be explained by examining the learning contexts and instructional focus these two groups of students have been accustomed to learning English in. As previously indicated, scrutinizing these factors have helped shed light on conflicting reactions by students to specific feedback types in previous studies. Research has suggested that recasts appear very explicit in foreign language contexts, where language learning tends to be more form-focused (Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Lochtman, 2005; Lyster & Mori, 2006). Consequently, Taiwanese students may find recasts to be sufficiently explicit in their more traditional classrooms, and "pedagogically expeditious" (Loewen & Philp, 2006, p. 551) when it comes to the correction of grammar errors. In contrast, Quebecois students may find the recast too implicit when correcting grammar in their communicative ESL classrooms. Given the clear preference for explicit correction

indicated by students from both cultures, the more explicit the recast is made to be, the higher the degree of preference expressed by students presumably.

The dislike shown for prompts between groups was almost identical, with a mean difference of .01. The same could be seen in similarly high ratings for explicit correction, with a mean difference of .18 (see Table 13). Given these close ratings, neither of the differences for these two feedback types proved to be significant.

3.2 Differences between student groups in relation to a pronunciation error

In comparing between-group preferences in response to a pronunciation error, although there was no main effect significance, post-hoc analysis revealed significant differences in ratings for explicit correction. Taiwanese students appeared to favour explicit correction over their Quebecois counterparts when faced with a pronunciation error. Very similar preference ratings were given for both recasts (mean difference of .11) and prompts (.03), and as such between-group differences proved not to be significant for these two feedback types.

4. Research Question 4: What are the preferences of students in both cultures relating to the correction of a grammar error relative to a pronunciation error?

The data analysis that assessed whether students within each cultural group displayed significant differences in their preference ratings depending on whether the error at hand was grammatical or phonological revealed interesting results. The preference of Quebecois students for recasts was significantly higher for pronunciation errors than for grammatical errors. The preference of Taiwanese students for explicit

correction was higher (and approaching significance) for pronunciation errors than for grammatical errors.

A possible explanation of these results points to the level of importance placed on the type of error in each culture, and how this may have led to changes in preferences for error correction within each cultural group. As revealed earlier in the descriptive analysis of preliminary questionnaire data, Taiwanese students had prioritized phonological errors as the most important errors to correct (see Figure 1). Consequently, when faced with a pronunciation error, Taiwanese students preferred explicit correction more than when the error was grammar based, and that this difference was approaching significance (see Table 15). This may suggest that the more important the perceived error, the higher the emphasis the Taiwanese students place on being corrected explicitly by Taiwanese teachers.

Quebecois students, on the other hand, rated recasts in response to a grammatical error, which they considered most important (see Figure 1), significantly lower than recasts in response to phonological errors.

A study by Havranek and Cesnik (2001) confirmed that the success of error correction in their study was contingent on certain variables, one being the type of error made. Perhaps this variation in results could be traced to learner preferences linked to the type of error being corrected, as revealed in the current study. Cathcart and Olsen (1976), however, revealed no differences in student preferences whether the error being corrected was grammatical or pronunciation based. Students in their study selected the implicit recast "I went to the bank" (grammar) and "I study English" (pronunciation); and the explicit correction exemplars "Don't say go, say went" (grammar) and "Don't say stoody; say study" as their most and second most preferred feedback types, respectively.

5. Drawing the link between feedback preference and feedback success

In analyzing many of the experimental and observational studies conducted on the success certain feedback types have had on language learning, results appear to indicate that feedback types vary in their success. In certain instances, prompts have been revealed to benefit learners the most (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Lyster, 2004), whereas other studies have shown recasts (Mori, 2002) (in terms of student uptake rates) or explicit correction (Ellis et al., 2006) to be the most effective. Conversely, other studies have shown no conclusive evidence of any learning benefits linked to a specific feedback type (Kim & Mathes, 2001).

Results of this study, which indicate a clear consensus regarding the high preference for explicit correction and the low preference for prompts, by two different cultures across two different instructional contexts, seems to point to a possible universal preference by students for the way teachers treat learner errors. The fact that qualitative findings suggested that learners preferred the opportunity to self-correct, contrary to quantitative data which indicated that all learners rated prompts lowest, leads to the conclusion that this corrective method, although used to maximize student self-correction, may not be appreciated by learners, and that alternate methods to promote self-correction in the classroom may need further consideration.

Furthermore, the notion that the nature of the error may influence the types of corrections preferred, relative to the importance placed on it by the learner, is also of interest. Understanding what areas of language learning students prioritize may help predict how receptive learners are to specific forms of error correction.

Whether learner preferences translate to an immediate effect on learning is, as yet, still unknown, considering the multitude of other learner variables such as age, learner

predisposition, and proficiency level, which may also affect the overall success of error correction. What remains clear, however, is that by making attempts to gauge what learners consider important, be it the nature of the error being corrected, the method and frequency of correction employed by instructors, or how comfortable students feel with a particular corrective technique, we are increasing the likelihood of learner satisfaction with error correction, which can only help contribute to its effectiveness in the language classroom.

6. Summary

In this chapter, I shed light on the similarities and differences regarding preferences for error correction between Taiwanese and Quebecois students, Taiwanese NNTEs, and NTEs in Quebec revealed by data analysis. By examining the descriptive, inferential and interview data obtained during the course of the study, I was able to show similarities and dissimilarities between groups relating to preferences for specific types of error correction, as well as the attitudes and beliefs surrounding this instructional practice. Among the interesting revelations that surfaced, the nature of the error and how this proved to alter the preferences for some types of corrective feedback from each cultural group, the possible effects of the instructional focus and learning context on learner preferences towards certain feedback, as well as the high priority placed on attending to learner embarrassment among the Tawainese participants, appear to have significant pedagogical implications. In the following chapter, I will discuss these implications with other commentary and suggestions stemming from the differences and similarities unearthed between students and teachers from Quebec and Taiwan, as well as certain limitations present in the current study.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

In this final chapter, I will present an overview of the pertinent findings of this study, as well as the limitations encountered. I will also discuss the related pedagogical implications and help illustrate how these findings have contributed to the field of error correction, and what further research may be considered in light of this work.

1. Overview of findings

This study was an attempt to gauge whether cultural background had an effect on Taiwanese and Quebecois language learner preferences for particular corrective feedback, as well as on certain beliefs and attitudes surrounding the use of error correction in the language classroom held by students from both these cultures and their teachers.

1.1 Preferences for the use and frequency of error correction

In examining the attitudes and beliefs about error correction it was revealed that students from both cultures heavily supported the use of error correction in the classroom. This was mirrored by NTEs in Quebec; however, almost a third of Taiwanese NNTEs preferred not to use error correction. When examining preferences for the frequency of error correction, this hesitance on the part of Taiwanese NNTEs was better understood, as Taiwanese students were far less eager to be corrected frequently relative to their Quebecois counterparts, with almost twice as many Quebecois students opting for consistent correction over Taiwanese students. This was reflected in the rates of correction preferred by their teachers, with the majority of Taiwanese NNTEs opting for infrequent correction compared to the majority of NTEs who wished to correct students

most of the time. This revelation was indicative of a possible reticent learning style found in Asian learners, whereby their roles as learners in traditional classrooms were guided by the Confucian principles of learning, which called for students to be recipients of knowledge in classrooms focused on the dissemination of information by the instructor. Given these instructional settings, Taiwanese students were perhaps not used to scenarios involving numerous communicative interchanges between themselves and the teacher, which would conceivably lead to increased opportunities for error correction. Consequently, their preference for the rate of error correction was lower than Quebecois students who may have been more accustomed to classroom environments where teacher-student exchanges were more frequent, and led to increased instances of error correction.

1.2 The theme of embarrassment and error correction from Taiwanese participants

Interviews with Taiwanese participants revealed a common theme of student embarrassment and fear of losing face. Taiwanese teachers indicated the importance of reducing instances of student embarrassment when it came to correcting their errors, and students indicated that error correction should be used but not at the expense of possible embarrassment. This was not an issue for Quebecois participants, who focused more on the pragmatic benefits associated with error correction. This revelation also helped explain the aforementioned hesitance for the use of error correction by Taiwanese NNTEs and the preference for lower rates of correction from Taiwanese students.

Further evidence of Taiwanese teachers perhaps altering their corrective techniques to reduce student embarrassment was evidenced by their preference to allow students to speak the target language uninterrupted rather than stop them immediately, even if their speech contained errors. This was also mirrored by NTEs in Quebec who, in

teaching through a more communicative approach, would more than likely favour student production. Taiwanese students also indicated their preference for unfettered speech, contrary to the preferences of their Quebecois counterparts who asked to be corrected immediately, once again lending support to the hypothesized Taiwanese aversion to embarrassment generated by the error correction process. Alternatively, this may have been indicative of Taiwanese students' desire to increase their opportunities to speak and use the language rather than focus on the form of the language. Furthermore, the Western training of the interviewed Taiwanese NNTEs may also have shaped their pedagogy to incorporate more communicative features such as maximizing student production and experimentation with the target language.

1.3 Differences in types of errors most important to correct

Both Taiwanese students and Taiwanese NNTEs considered phonological errors to be of greater importance compared to grammar or lexical errors. Conversely, Quebecois students and NTEs in Quebec felt that grammar errors were the most important. This proved to be an indirect form of linguistic needs assessment, in that student and teacher selection of the most important type of error to correct was perhaps reflective of the area of English they considered most critical to focus on. This difference was explained by the learning context each cultural group found itself in: Taiwanese students and teachers considered pronunciation to be more important since the EFL context of learning in Taiwan presented students with ample formal classroom exposure to English, where an emphasis on grammar instruction was always present, yet infrequent opportunity to use the language in informal authentic contexts led to fewer opportunities to speak the language and focus on issues of pronunciation. Conversely, Quebecois

students, learning English in an ESL context, had ample opportunities for informal exposure to English outside the classroom, as they were learning in a bilingual city, yet may not have received as much exposure to grammar through formal language instruction compared to students learning within EFL contexts.

There was also the sociolinguistic issue of whether the lowered importance allotted to pronunciation errors was somehow linked to socio-political attitudes and beliefs associated with the perfecting of learners' accents in Quebec. Previous research had revealed that for Quebecois students who expressed support for provincial nationalism, the perfecting of a French Quebecois accent, when speaking English, was perceived as detracting from their ethnic affiliation, given the history of socio-political conflict between the English and French in the province.

1.4 Preferences for prompts, recasts and elicitations in relation to a grammar and pronunciation error

Within-group analysis indicated that students from both cultural groups ranked the three feedback families in identical fashion, though Taiwanese students provided higher overall rankings for all three feedback families.

Taiwanese students ranked explicit correction significantly higher than recasts and prompts, and ranked recasts significantly higher than prompts, whether the error was grammatical or phonological. However, when their feedback preferences for each error type (grammar and pronunciation) were compared, their preference for explicit correction was greater in response to phonological errors than in response to grammatical errors, and this difference was approaching significance. Moreover, the post-hoc analysis of between-group differences revealed that Taiwanese students' preference for explicit

correction was significantly stronger that that of their Quebecois counterparts in response to a pronunciation error. This may be reflective of the fact that Taiwanese students believe phonological errors to be more important than grammatical errors (see Figure 1) and, as a direct consequence, increase their preference for explicit correction when the error at hand is perceived as more important.

Quebecois students, much like their Taiwanese counterparts, ranked explicit correction significantly higher than recasts and prompts, whether the error was grammatical or phonological, and ranked recasts significantly higher than prompts, but only in response to a pronunciation error. In comparing their feedback preferences for each error type, their moderate preference for recasts was significantly less in response to grammatical errors than in response to phonological errors. Moreover, the between-group analysis revealed that Quebecois students' preferred recasts significantly less than their Taiwanese counterparts in response to a grammar error. One hypothesized cause is rooted in the differing instructional focus and learning context each group was accustomed to learning English in. Recasts may have appeared more explicit to Taiwanese students who were accustomed to learning English in form-focused EFL classrooms, whereas recasts may have appeared more implicit to Quebecois learners in their communicative ESL classes. The fact that Quebecois students expressed a significant drop in preferences for recasts only in response to a grammar error, may also be reflective of the fact that they considered grammar errors more important than pronunciation errors (see Figure 1) and, consequently, appreciated the implicit recast even less so when faced with a correction they considered more important.

2. Pedagogical implications

The overarching implications for the findings of this study focus essentially on the consideration of cultural and learning contexts when choosing appropriate methods of correction, as well as student reactions to correction, which, as revealed in this study, may have been influenced by cultural background.

Given the number of NTEs teaching in EFL contexts, some of the issues raised in this study may help sensitize them to specific learner needs and preferences when teaching abroad. The fact that students from both groups clearly indicated a preference for explicit correction may signal to teachers that this method of correction is one that can be universally appreciated by students across cultures, and that the use of prompts, although effective in furthering student production of the target language, may not always be the best method, especially in East Asian contexts where student affective reactions appear to be more of a concern than in Western-based teaching contexts. Contradictory findings, in which Taiwanese learners indicated a preference to self-correct during interview sessions, yet ranked prompts as their least preferred method of correction on questionnaires, implies that perhaps the direct nature of prompts may cause Taiwanese students to feel embarrassed and stressed with having to correct themselves immediately and in front of their peers, despite the fact that they would welcome the opportunity to self-correct. Instructors may want to consider exploring ways which allow learners to self-correct that do not require an immediate reformulation on the part of the student, or to do so in ways that do not associate a particular learner with the error.

In exploring this study's findings concerning recasts, although not as preferred as explicit correction, they appear to be acceptable forms of correction to the Taiwanese, as they were ranked significantly higher than prompts for both types of errors. This may be

due to the fact that they do not openly signal a learner error and do not necessitate self-correction, which could lead to student embarrassment, which as revealed earlier was of particular concern to both Taiwanese teachers and students. However, in light of the fact that Taiwanese students appreciated recasts significantly more than their Quebecois counterparts in response to a grammar error, it was suggested that the degree of explicitness generated by this form of feedback could vary according to the instructional focus of the classroom. Pedagogy shaped by this focus is often linked to views on education espoused by certain cultures, such as that of the Confucian view in Asian contexts. Because the focus on language instruction in Asian cultures is clearly on the form of the language, the recast would tend to be more salient and noticed by the learner. Conversely, in ESL contexts, the communicative nature of language classes could lead to recasting being lost in the volume of exchanges made between students and teacher. Consequently, instructors should be aware that learner reactions to certain feedback may vary depending on where, and whom, they are teaching.

Yet another insightful finding with strong pedagogical value lies in the difference in preferences for correction rates between NTEs and Taiwanese students. NTEs indicated a preference for consistent error correction but may find that Asian students, as illustrated by Taiwanese students' preference for lower rates of correction in the current study, may not feel comfortable with large amounts of feedback. Nonetheless, students across cultures indicated unanimously to include error correction in classroom pedagogy. This clearly indicates that students, regardless of culture, wish to be corrected. However, what teachers need to be sensitive to when teaching in EFL contexts is the frequency of correction, the types of correction used, and that rates and method of correction may need to be altered depending on the cultural context teaching takes place in.

In discovering a cultural difference in preferences for the error types most important to correct and how this alters preference ratings for different forms of feedback, it is imperative that teachers assess what their students' language learning needs are. As indicated by this study, students from both cultures altered their preferences for certain forms of correction depending on the type of error made, and that this preference appeared linked to the degree of importance placed on these different errors by students. As was postulated, learning context plays a large role in determining how students prioritize error types: grammar may not be as critical a point to correct in EFL contexts, where students have received ample focus on the form of the language but now look to gain knowledge from native speakers in the area of pronunciation, which NNTEs in their native countries may be unable to provide. Although addressing all elements of the target language is important and necessary for a comprehensive language class, NTEs may want to assess whether students within EFL contexts prioritize pronunciation-related errors and subsequently chose to provide more focused feedback in the form of explicit modeled correction in areas of the target language students have prioritized as most important.

3. Limitations

Limitations of the study were primarily related to the participants and possible extraneous variables that may have affected their views and attitudes towards corrective feedback.

3.1 Teacher groups

Group sizes were quite small (12 per teacher group) and as such may not have been a large enough sample from which to draw inferences to the specific populations.

Inferential data analysis was therefore limited to student groups, which were composed of a much larger number of participants. Another limitation could be found in the fact that Taiwanese NNTEs had all received some form of education in the west. Consequently, some of their views and perceptions towards error correction may have been influenced by their education abroad. Teachers from both groups were also university-level instructors and may not have been representative of the typical Taiwanese NNTE at the elementary or high school level.

3.2 Age discrepancies in student groups

As previously mentioned in the discussion section as a possible explanation to Quebecois students' high preference for explicit feedback, the higher age of Quebecois students may have influenced their corrective feedback ratings; Taiwanese students averaged 23 years of age, while their Quebecois counterparts averaged close to 40. As a result, learning styles and preferences associated with age may have contributed to student preferences and possibly tainted any cultural effects between both groups. Subsequent research may want to consider finding groups with comparable ages to reduce the likelihood of this influence.

3.3 Instructional contexts

Approximately half of the Taiwanese students were learning English through content-based classes as part of a degree in education whereas most of the ESL students in Quebec were learning English as part of professional development courses. This may have led to selecting students with varying goals and attitudes towards English, which may have influenced their attitudes towards error correction.

3.4 Student proficiency levels

Although students were classified within the intermediate proficiency range (from low to advanced), the criteria for assessment were specific to the different academic institutions where students were taking classes. As such, there may have been variance between student proficiency levels despite similar labels given by the different schools involved. These proficiency-level variances may also have contributed to attitudes and preferences for error correction. Ideally if participants had been assessed using a pre-study proficiency test, this would have standardized assessment and ensured uniform proficiency levels across student groups. Furthermore, it was unknown what methods or tests were used by each academic institution to determine student proficiency levels.

4. Call for further research

Findings provided by this study call for further research into the area of learner preferences for error correction. The revelation that explicit correction is a preferred method of correction and that prompts are the least preferred, irrespective of culture, warrants continued research, using participants from other cultures to examine whether in fact a universal preference does exist. In addition, the discovery of cross-cultural differences in feedback preference related to different types of errors may lead researchers to consider scrutinizing the nature of errors made when tracking frequencies of corrective feedback in observational or experimental studies. Perhaps student uptake, or even patterns of feedback used by teachers, may be dictated by the types of errors committed by students, and these patterns may vary depending on the instructional contexts learning takes place in. Ideally a more comprehensive experiment could be endeavoured, combining the data collection instruments of this study, followed by an

experimental component which could assess whether preference for specific feedback leads to increased uptake rates and learning in participants who had selected them as preferred methods. Although an ambitious undertaking, such a study could possibly determine whether learner preference for specific forms of feedback leads to improved uptake rates and/or performance on particular language learning tasks.

5. Contributions

In attempting to assess possible cultural differences in the preference for specific types of corrective feedback and the general attitudes and beliefs surrounding this instructional practice by students and teachers, this study has helped contribute to the growing body of research looking at both contextual effects and cultural differences on learner reactions to corrective feedback. Results from the study have immediate pedagogical value to EFL practitioners who may consider these findings when attempting to fine-tune instruction associated with error correction to best match the preferences of their students. In so doing, this study also provides further support for the use of context-based teaching methods, whereby classroom methodology is determined and shaped by the contextual factors instructors find themselves teaching in (Bax, 2003).

Finally, the introspective nature of this study, which explores the preferences and beliefs that may guide student responses to error correction, may also be used to shed light on previous descriptive and experimental studies examining the effectiveness of error correction. The triangulation of data drawn from what learners and practitioners think and from observational studies revealing how students react to corrective feedback, may provide a more thorough and in-depth analysis of the possible influencing variables behind these behaviours.

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APPENDIX A:

English Preliminary Questionnaire -Students

FEEPAC
Feedback Preference Analysis Chart

Preliminary background information — STUDENTS

AGE: _____ GENDER: M / F

Total number of years studying English academically: _____

SELECT AS MANY CHOICES THAT APPLY TO YOU:

I learned English through →

___ a) MY COUNTRY'S PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM

___ b) PRIVATE LANGUAGE CLASSES

___ c) STUDIES UNDERTAKEN OUTSIDE OF MY COUNTRY

___ d) COURSES ON OTHER SUBJECTS TAUGHT IN ENGLISH

Questions on error correction in the classroom

1. **Do you prefer if your teacher corrects your mistakes?** Yes / No

2. **If you said yes in question 1, how often do you want your teacher to correct your mistakes?**
   a) Always b) Most of the time c) Not often d) Never

3. **What kinds of mistakes do you feel are most important to correct?**
   (Rank the following choices in order of importance from 1 to 3:
   1 = most important / 3 = least important)
   Grammar ____ Pronunciation ____ Vocabulary___

4. **What kind of errors do you think your teachers correct most ?**
   (Rank the following choices in order of importance from 1 to 3
   (1 = most important / 3 = least important)
   Grammar ____ Pronunciation ____ Vocabulary___

APPENDIX A:

English Preliminary Questionnaire –Students

(supplemental question: Quebec students only)

FEEPAC

Feedback Preference Analysis Chart

Preliminary background information — STUDENTS

5. INDICATE WHICH ONE OF THESE SITUATIONS APPLIES TO YOU:

___ a) I received ALL of my education in the Quebec French school system.

___ b) I received MOST of my education in the Quebec French school system (Indicate the number of years of education received outside the Province or Country ____ and where: _____)

___ c) I received ALL or MOST of my education OUTSIDE Quebec (indicate the number of years _____ and the province/country where you were educated: _____)

APPENDIX B:

English Preliminary Questionnaire –Teachers

FEEPAC

Feedback Preference Analysis Chart

Preliminary background information — TEACHERS

AGE: _____ GENDER: M / F

Total number of years teaching English: _____

1. I obtained my teacher training →

___ a) from a college, university or other institution in my own country (specify the degree: _____)

___ b) from a college or university outside of my country (specify the country: _____)

___ c) I have no formal academic training. I have achieved my training through experience teaching.

2. What proficiency level are you most accustomed to teaching?
___ beginner ___ intermediate ___ advanced

3. What age group are you most accustomed to teaching?
___ children ___ teenagers ___ adults

Questions on error correction in the classroom

1. Do you prefer correcting student errors? Yes / No

2. If you said yes in question 1, how often do you correct student mistakes?
a) Always b) Most of the time c) Not often d) Never

3. What kinds of mistakes do you feel are most important to correct?
(Rank the following choices in order of importance from 1 to 3:
1 = most important / 3 = least important)
Grammar ____ Pronunciation ____ Vocabulary___

4. What is more important?

a) Allowing students to produce English uninterrupted even if they make mistakes

b) Stopping them each time they make a mistake to ensure that their sentences are error-free

APPENDIX C:

Chinese Mandarin Preliminary Questionnaire –Students

FEEPAC
Feedback Preference Analysis Chart

背景信息 — 學生

年齡: _____ **性別:** 男 / 女

正式學習英語的時間(請填寫你已經學習英語多少年): _____

請選擇所有符合你的情況:

我通過以下方式學習英語 →

____ **a)** 我們國家的公立學校

____ **b)** 私立語言學校

____ **c)** 國外學習

____ **d)** 用英語教授的其他學科課程

關於課堂錯誤糾正的問題

1. 你願意老師糾正你的錯誤嗎? 是 / 不是

2. 如果你在第一題答 "是", 那麼你希望老師經常糾正你的錯誤嗎?

a) 經常 **b)** 大部分時間 **c)** 不經常 **d)** 從不

3. 你認為哪類錯誤最應該被糾正?

(請按照各類錯誤需要被糾正的程度排序: 1 = 最需要糾正 / 3 = 需要糾正的程度最低)

文法錯誤 ____ 語音錯誤 ____ 詞匯錯誤 ____

4. 你認為老師糾正哪類錯誤最多?

(請按照程度排序: 1 = 最多 / 3 = 最少)

文法錯誤 ____ 語音錯誤 ____ 詞匯錯誤 ____

APPENDIX D:

French Preliminary Questionnaire –Students

FEEPAC
Feedback Preference Analysis Chart

Renseignements préliminaires sur la formation — ÉTUDIANTS

ÂGE : ___ SEXE : M / F

Années d'apprentissage de l'anglais dans un établissement d'enseignement : ___

INDIQUEZ TOUTES LES SITUATIONS QUI S'APPLIQUENT À VOUS : →

J'ai appris l'anglais

___ a) DANS LE SYSTÈME PUBLIC D'ÉDUCATION DE MON PAYS

___ b) DANS LE CADRE DE LEÇONS PARTICULIÈRES DE LANGUE

___ c) DANS LE CADRE D'ÉTUDES À L'EXTÉRIEUR DE MON PAYS

___ d) DANS DES COURS SUR D'AUTRES MATIÈRES ENSEIGNÉES EN ANGLAIS

Questions sur la correction des fautes en classe

1. Préférez-vous que votre professeur corrige vos fautes ? Oui / Non

2. Si vous avez répondu « oui » à la première question, voulez-vous que votre professeur corrige vos fautes ?

a) toujours b) la plupart du temps c) à l'occasion d) jamais

3. D'après vous, quelles sont les fautes les plus importantes à corriger ? (Évaluez les éléments suivants sur une échelle de 1 à 3 :

1 = le plus important et 3 = le moins important)
la grammaire ___ la prononciation ___ le vocabulaire___

4. D'après vous, quelles fautes vos professeurs corrigent-ils le plus ? (Évaluez les éléments suivants sur une échelle de 1 à 3 :

1 = le plus important et 3 = le moins important)
la grammaire ___ la prononciation ___ le vocabulaire___

APPENDIX D:

French Preliminary Questionnaire –Students

(supplemental question: Quebec students only)

FEEPAC
Feedback Preference Analysis Chart

Renseignements préliminaires sur la formation — ÉTUDIANTS

5. Veuillez indiquer laquelle des situations suivantes s'applique à vous:

_____ **J'ai reçu TOUTE mon éducation dans le système scolaire francophone au Québec.**

_____ **J'ai reçu la MAJORITÉ de mon éducation dans le système scolaire francophone au Québec. (veuillez indiquer le nombre d'années ____ et la province/le pays en dehors du Québec où vous avez reçu une partie de votre éducation : _____).**

_____ **J'ai reçu TOUTE ou LA MAJORITÉ de mon éducation EN DEHORS du Québec. (veuillez indiquer le nombre d'années ____ et la province/le pays en dehors du Québec où vous avez reçu la plus grande partie ou toute votre éducation : _____).**

APPENDIX E:

English instructions for FEEPAC G and P questionnaires

Student

Please listen to the following short dialogue between teacher and student, followed by several teacher responses. Be sure to take the time to listen to each teacher response before you select your choice on the chart. Imagine that you had made the same mistake as the student in the following example. Rate how well each teacher response (1-11) helps you understand that you have made an error and would help you improve your English. For each response select the box that best identifies how 'helpful' this response is. Select 1 for very good, 2 for good, 3 for bad, and 4 for very bad, or if you did not understand the response.

1= Very Good / 2= Good / 3= Bad / 4= Very Bad or you did not understand this type of feedback

Example: Teacher: "What did you eat for breakfast this morning?"
Student: "I eated some cereal".

Teacher

Please listen to the following short dialogue between teacher and student, followed by several teacher responses. Be sure to take the time to listen to each response before you select your choice on the chart. Imagine that one of your students had made the same mistake as the student in the following example. Rate how well you think each teacher response (1-11) helps the student understand that the teacher is trying to correct him/her. For each response select the box that best identifies how 'helpful' this response is in terms of helping the student improve their English. Select 1 for very good, 2 for good, 3 for bad, and 4 for very bad, or if you feel this method is too confusing for the student to understand.

1= Very Good / 2= Good / 3= Bad / 4= Very Bad / ? = Student would not understand this type of feedback

Example: Teacher: "What did you eat for breakfast this morning?"
Student: "I eated some cereal".

APPENDIX F:

English FEEPAC G Questionnaire - Students

FEEPAC

Feedback Preference Analysis Chart

Please listen to the following short dialogue between teacher and student, followed by several teacher responses. Be sure to take the time to listen to each teacher response before you select your choice on the chart. Imagine that you had made the same mistake as the student in the following example. Rate how well each teacher response (1-11) helps you understand that you have made an error and would help you improve your English. For each response select the box that best identifies how 'helpful' this response is. Select 1 for very good, 2 for good, 3 for bad, and 4 for very bad, or if you did not understand the response.

1= Very Good / 2= Good / 3= Bad / 4= Very Bad or you did not understand this type of feedback

Example: Teacher: "What did you eat for breakfast this morning?"
Student: "I eated some cereal".

	Teacher response:	☺ ❶	❷	❸	☹ ❹
1.	"You have to say 'ate', not 'eated'"	☑	☐	☐	☐
2.	"You ate some cereal"	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	"Ate"	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	Explained in your first language	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	"Can you say eated?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	"What?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	"I..."	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	"You can't say 'eated'. Eat is an irregular verb. 'ate' is the past tense of 'eat'"	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	"I eated some cereal? I..."	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	"Could you say that again?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	"I ***eated*** some cereal?"	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX G:

Chinese Mandarin FEEPAC G Questionnaire - Students

FEEPAC

Feedback Preference Analysis Chart

請聽下面一組老師和學生之間的對話，對話后有老師所作出的幾種不同的反應。請在認真聽完每種教師反應后再在表格上做記號。想象您自己和錄音中的學生犯了同樣的錯誤，請給不同的老師反應打分（1-11），打分的標准是您認為這些反應對你的英語學習幫助的程度。在每個老師反應裡您認為合適的分數后劃勾。 1代表非常有幫助，2代表有幫助，3代表沒有幫助，4代表非常沒有幫助，或你沒有聽懂這個反應。

1= Very Good / 2= Good / 3= Bad / 4= Very Bad or you did not understand this type of feedback

Example: Teacher: "What did you eat for breakfast this morning?"
Student: "I eated some cereal".

	Teacher response:	☑ ☺ ❶	❷	❸	☹ ❹
1.	"You have to say 'ate', not 'eated'"	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	"You ate some cereal"	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	"Ate"	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	Explained in your first language	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	"Can you say eated?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	"What?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	"I..."	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	"You can't say 'eated'. Eat is an irregular verb. 'ate' is the past tense of 'eat'"	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	"I eated some cereal? I..."	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	"Could you say that again?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	"I ***eated*** some cereal?"	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX H:

French FEEPAC G Questionnaire - Students

FEEPAC

Feedback Preference Analysis Chart

Veuillez écouter le court dialogue suivant entre un professeur et un étudiant, suivi de plusieurs réactions du professeur. Veuillez prendre le temps nécessaire d'écouter chaque réaction du professeur avant d'indiquer votre choix sur la fiche. Imaginez que vous avez fait la même faute que l'étudiant dans l'exemple. Évaluez la pertinence de chaque réaction du professeur (1 à 11) à vous faire comprendre que vous avez fait une faute et à vous aider à améliorer votre anglais. Pour chaque réaction, choisissez la case qui en qualifie le mieux la pertinence. Indiquez le 1 pour très bonne, le 2 pour bonne, le 3 pour mauvaise et le 4 pour très mauvaise ou si vous n'avez pas compris la réaction.

1= très bonne / 2= bonne / 3= mauvaise / 4= très mauvaise ou vous ne comprenez pas ce genre de commentaire.

Example: Teacher: "What did you eat for breakfast this morning?"
Student: "I eated some cereal".

	Teacher response:	☑ ☺ 1	2	3	☹ 4
1.	"You have to say 'ate', not 'eated'"	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	"You ate some cereal"	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	"Ate"	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	Explained in your first language	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	"Can you say eated?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	"What?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	"I..."	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	"You can't say 'eated'. Eat is an irregular verb. 'ate' is the past tense of 'eat'"	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	"I eated some cereal? I..."	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	"Could you say that again?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	"I *eated* some cereal?"	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX I:

English FEEPAC P Questionnaire – Students

FEEPAC

Feedback Preference Analysis Chart

Please listen to the following short dialogue between teacher and student, followed by several teacher responses. Be sure to take the time to listen to each teacher response before you select your choice on the chart. Imagine that you had made the same mistake as the student in the following example. Rate how well each teacher response (1-11) helps you understand that you have made an error and would help you improve your English. For each response select the box that best identifies how 'helpful' this response is. Select 1 for very good, 2 for good, 3 for bad, and 4 for very bad, or if you did not understand the response.

1= Very Good / 2= Good / 3= Bad / 4= Very Bad or you did not understand this type of feedback

Example: Teacher: "Where do you live?"
Student: "I *leave* in Japan"

	Teacher response:	☺ ☑ ❶	❷	❸	☹ ❹
1.	"You have to say "live" not 'leave"	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	"You live in Japan"	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	"live"	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	Explained in your first language	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	"Is *leave* the right pronunciation?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	"What?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	"I...?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	"You don't want to use the strong vowel sound 'ee' as in 'see'. You want to use the soft vowel sound 'i' as in 'give'	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	"I leave? I...?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	"Could you say that again?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	"I *leave*?"	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX J:

Chinese Mandarin FEEPAC P Questionnaire – Students

FEEPAC
Feedback Preference Analysis Chart

請聽下面一組老師和學生之間的對話，對話后有老師所作出的幾種不同的反應。請在認真聽完每種教師反應后再在表格上做記號。想象您自己和錄音中的學生犯了同樣的錯誤，請給不同的老師反應打分（1-11），打分的標准是您認為這些反應對你的英語學習幫助的程度。在每個老師反應裡您認為合適的分數后劃勾。 1代表非常有幫助，2代表有幫助，3代表沒有幫助，4代表非常沒有幫助，或你沒有聽懂這個反應。

1= Very Good / 2= Good / 3= Bad / 4= Very Bad or you did not understand this type of feedback

Example: Teacher: "Where do you live?"
Student: "I *leave* in Japan"

	Teacher response:	☑ ☺ ❶	☐ ❷	☐ ❸	☐ ☹ ❹
1.	"You have to say "live" not 'leave"	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	"You live in Japan"	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	"live"	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	Explained in your first language	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	"Is *leave* the right pronunciation?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	"What?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	"I...?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	"You don't want to use the strong vowel sound 'ee' as in 'see'. You want to use the soft vowel sound 'i' as in 'give'	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	"I leave? I...?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	"Could you say that again?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	"I *leave*?"	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX K:

French FEEPAC P Questionnaire – Students

FEEPAC

Feedback Preference Analysis Chart

Veuillez écouter le court dialogue suivant entre un professeur et un étudiant, suivi de plusieurs réactions du professeur. Veuillez prendre le temps nécessaire d'écouter chaque réaction du professeur avant d'indiquer votre choix sur la fiche. Imaginez que vous avez fait la même faute que l'étudiant dans l'exemple. Évaluez la pertinence de chaque réaction du professeur (1 à 11) à vous faire comprendre que vous avez fait une faute et à vous aider à améliorer votre anglais. Pour chaque réaction, choisissez la case qui en qualifie le mieux la pertinence. Indiquez le 1 pour très bonne, le 2 pour bonne, le 3 pour mauvaise et le 4 pour très mauvaise ou si vous n'avez pas compris la réaction.

1= très bonne / 2= bonne / 3= mauvaise / 4= très mauvaise ou vous ne comprenez pas ce genre de commentaire.

Example: Teacher: "Where do you live?"
Student: "I *leave* in Japan"

	Teacher response:	☺ ☑ ❶	❷	❸	☹ ❹
1.	"You have to say "live" not 'leave"	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	"You live in Japan"	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	"live"	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	Explained in your first language	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	"Is *leave* the right pronunciation?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	"What?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	"I...?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	"You don't want to use the strong vowel sound 'ee' as in 'see'. You want to use the soft vowel sound 'i' as in 'give'	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	"I leave? I...?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	"Could you say that again?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	"I *leave*?"	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX L:

English Reverse Order FEEPAC G Questionnaire – Students

FEEPAC

Feedback Preference Analysis Chart

Please listen to the following short dialogue between teacher and student, followed by several teacher responses. Be sure to take the time to listen to each teacher response before you select your choice on the chart. Imagine that you had made the same mistake as the student in the following example. Rate how well each teacher response (1-11) helps you understand that you have made an error and would help you improve your English. For each response select the box that best identifies how 'helpful' this response is. Select 1 for very good, 2 for good, 3 for bad, and 4 for very bad, or if you did not understand the response.

1= Very Good / 2= Good / 3= Bad / 4= Very Bad or you did not understand this type of feedback

Example: Teacher: "What did you eat for breakfast this morning?"
Student: "I eated some cereal".

	Teacher response:	☑ ☺ 1	2	3	☹ 4
1.	"I *eated* some cereal?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	"Could you say that again?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	"I eated some cereal? I..."	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	"You can't say 'eated'. Eat is an irregular verb. 'ate' is the past tense of 'eat'"	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	"I..."	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	"What?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	"Can you say eated?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	Explained in your first language	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	"Ate"	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	"You ate some cereal"	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	"You have to say 'ate', not 'eated'"	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX M:

English Reverse Order FEEPAC P Questionnaire – Students

FEEPAC

Feedback Preference Analysis Chart

Please listen to the following short dialogue between teacher and student, followed by several teacher responses. Be sure to take the time to listen to each teacher response before you select your choice on the chart. Imagine that you had made the same mistake as the student in the following example. Rate how well each teacher response (1-11) helps you understand that you have made an error and would help you improve your English. For each response select the box that best identifies how 'helpful' this response is. Select 1 for very good, 2 for good, 3 for bad, and 4 for very bad, or if you did not understand the response.

1= Very Good / 2= Good / 3= Bad / 4= Very Bad or you did not understand this type of feedback

Example: Teacher: "Where do you live?"
Student: "I *leave* in Japan"

	Teacher response:	☑ ☺ 1	2	3	☹ 4
1.	"I *leave*?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	"Could you say that again?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	"I leave? I... ?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	"You don't want to use the strong vowel sound 'ee' as in 'see'. You want to use the soft vowel sound 'i' as in 'give'	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	"I... ?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	"What?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	"Is *leave* the right pronunciation?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	Explained in your first language	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	"live"	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	"You live in Japan"	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	"You have to say "live" not 'leave"	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX N:

Chinese Mandarin Reverse Order FEEPAC G Questionnaire – Students

FEEPAC

Feedback Preference Analysis Chart

請聽下面一組老師和學生之間的對話，對話后有老師所作出的幾種不同的反應。請在認真聽完每種教師反應后再在表格上做記號。想象您自己和錄音中的學生犯了同樣的錯誤，請給不同的老師反應打分（1-11），打分的標准是您認為這些反應對你的英語學習幫助的程度。在每個老師反應裡您認為合適的分數后劃勾。 1代表非常有幫助，2代表有幫助，3代表沒有幫助，4代表非常沒有幫助，或你沒有聽懂這個反應。

1= Very Good / 2= Good / 3= Bad / 4= Very Bad or you did not understand this type of feedback

Example: Teacher: "What did you eat for breakfast this morning?"
Student: "I eated some cereal".

	Teacher response:	☑ ☺ ❶	❷	❸	☹ ❹
1.	"I *eated* some cereal?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	"Could you say that again?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	"I eated some cereal? I..."	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	"You can't say 'eated'. Eat is an irregular verb. 'ate' is the past tense of 'eat'"	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	"I..."	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	"What?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	"Can you say eated?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	Explained in your first language	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	"Ate"	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	"You ate some cereal"	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	"You have to say 'ate', not 'eated'"	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX O:

Chinese Mandarin Reverse Order FEEPAC P Questionnaire – Students

FEEPAC

Feedback Preference Analysis Chart

請聽下面一組老師和學生之間的對話，對話后有老師所作出的幾種不同的反應。請在認真聽完每種教師反應后再在表格上做記號。想象您自己和錄音中的學生犯了同樣的錯誤，請給不同的老師反應打分（1-11），打分的標准是您認為這些反應對你的英語學習幫助的程度。在每個老師反應裡您認為合適的分數后劃勾。 1代表非常有幫助，2代表有幫助，3代表沒有幫助，4代表非常沒有幫助，或你沒有聽懂這個反應。

1= Very Good / 2= Good / 3= Bad / 4= Very Bad or you did not understand this type of feedback

Example: Teacher: "Where do you live?"
Student: "I *leave* in Japan"

	Teacher response:	☺ ☑ ❶	❷	❸	☹ ❹
1.	"I *leave*?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	"Could you say that again?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	"I leave? I...?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	"You don't want to use the strong vowel sound 'ee' as in 'see'. You want to use the soft vowel sound 'i' as in 'give'	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	"I...?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	"What?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	"Is *leave* the right pronunciation?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	Explained in your first language	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	"live"	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	"You live in Japan"	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	"You have to say "live" not 'leave"	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX P:

French Reverse Order FEEPAC G Questionnaire – Students

FEEPAC

Feedback Preference Analysis Chart

Veuillez écouter le court dialogue suivant entre un professeur et un étudiant, suivi de plusieurs réactions du professeur. Veuillez prendre le temps nécessaire d'écouter chaque réaction du professeur avant d'indiquer votre choix sur la fiche. Imaginez que vous avez fait la même faute que l'étudiant dans l'exemple. Évaluez la pertinence de chaque réaction du professeur (1 à 11) à vous faire comprendre que vous avez fait une faute et à vous aider à améliorer votre anglais. Pour chaque réaction, choisissez la case qui en qualifie le mieux la pertinence. Indiquez le 1 pour très bonne, le 2 pour bonne, le 3 pour mauvaise et le 4 pour très mauvaise ou si vous n'avez pas compris la réaction.

1= très bonne / 2= bonne / 3= mauvaise / 4= très mauvaise ou vous ne comprenez pas ce genre de commentaire.

Example: Teacher: "What did you eat for breakfast this morning?"
Student: "I eated some cereal".

	Teacher response:	☑ ☺ 1	2	3	☹ 4
1.	"I ***eated*** some cereal?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	"Could you say that again?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	"I eated some cereal? I..."	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	"You can't say 'eated'. Eat is an irregular verb. 'ate' is the past tense of 'eat'"	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	"I..."	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	"What?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	"Can you say eated?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	Explained in your first language	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	"Ate"	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	"You ate some cereal"	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	"You have to say 'ate', not 'eated'"	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX Q:

French Reverse Order FEEPAC P Questionnaire – Students

FEEPAC
Feedback Preference Analysis Chart

Veuillez écouter le court dialogue suivant entre un professeur et un étudiant, suivi de plusieurs réactions du professeur. Veuillez prendre le temps nécessaire d'écouter chaque réaction du professeur avant d'indiquer votre choix sur la fiche. Imaginez que vous avez fait la même faute que l'étudiant dans l'exemple. Évaluez la pertinence de chaque réaction du professeur (1 à 11) à vous faire comprendre que vous avez fait une faute et à vous aider à améliorer votre anglais. Pour chaque réaction, choisissez la case qui en qualifie le mieux la pertinence. Indiquez le 1 pour très bonne, le 2 pour bonne, le 3 pour mauvaise et le 4 pour très mauvaise ou si vous n'avez pas compris la réaction.

1= très bonne / 2= bonne / 3= mauvaise / 4= très mauvaise ou vous ne comprenez pas ce genre de commentaire.

Example: Teacher: "Where do you live?"
Student: "I *leave* in Japan"

	Teacher response:	☑ ☺ ❶	❷	❸	☹ ❹
1.	"I *leave*?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	"Could you say that again?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	"I leave? I... ?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	"You don't want to use the strong vowel sound 'ee' as in 'see'. You want to use the soft vowel sound 'i' as in 'give'	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	"I... ?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	"What?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	"Is *leave* the right pronunciation?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	Explained in your first language	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	"live"	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	"You live in Japan"	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	"You have to say "live" not 'leave"	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX R:

Follow-up Interview Questions

Teachers

Q1: How effective do you think correcting students' errors is, in terms of improving their English ability? Explain.

Q2: What factors contributed to your attitudes about error correction?

Q3: Do you think your teacher training has influenced the way you correct errors? Explain.

Q4: What method do you use most when correcting student errors in class and think is the most effective? Why?

Q5: Do you change the way you correct student errors depending on their level? If so, how. If not, why not?

Q6: Do you think it's better to just give students the correct answer or make them try and think about their mistake and provide the corrected response themselves? Why?

Q7: (Taiwan) Considering the traditional education system that the typical student goes through in Taiwan, do you think students are comfortable with error correction and, if so, what method do you think they would be most accustomed to?

Q7: (Quebec) In your opinion, what form of error correction do you think francophone language learners would prefer, and why?

Students

Q1: Do you think that when teachers correct your errors it helps you improve your English ability? If yes, how? If not, why not?

Q2: Do you think that most of your teachers correct your mistakes the way you would like them to? What do they do that you like? / What do they do that you don't like?

Q3: Do you prefer if a teacher stops you as soon as you make a mistake or would you prefer to just talk without being interrupted? Why?

Q4: Do you think it's better for teachers to give you the correct answer when you make a mistake or give you the chance to think about it and try and give the correct response yourself? Why?

Q5: (Taiwan only) Do you think there is a difference in how Taiwanese English teachers from Taiwan correct your errors compared to native English teachers? If so, how?

APPENDIX S

Table 1
Frequency counts of Likert scale ratings for Taiwanese student FEEPAC G responses

	Likert scale ratings (%)	
FEEPAC exemplar	Good (1, 2)	Bad (3, 4)
1 Explicit correction	81.76	18.25
2 Recast (implicit)	78.84	21.17
3 Recast (salient)	53.68	46.33
4 Metalinguistic (translation)	73.73	26.28
5 Metalinguistic (clue)	46.33	53.68
6 Clarification request	7.30	92.71
7 Elicitation (strategic pausing)	24.82	75.19
8 Metalinguistic (explicit rule)	83.94	16.06
9 Elicitation (repetitive)	40.15	59.86
10 Elicitation (reformulation)	52.56	47.45
11 Repetition	51.83	48.18

Table 2
Frequency counts of Likert scale ratings for Taiwanese student FEEPAC P responses

	Likert scale ratings (%)	
FEEPAC exemplar	Good (1, 2)	Bad (3, 4)
1 Explicit correction	88.32	11.68
2 Recast (implicit)	65.70	34.31
3 Recast (salient)	64.97	35.04
4 Metalinguistic (translation)	77.94	22.06
5 Metalinguistic (clue)	66.42	33.58
6 Clarification request	10.22	89.79
7 Elicitation (strategic pausing)	19.71	80.30
8 Metalinguistic (explicit rule)	85.82	14.18
9 Elicitation (repetitive)	39.42	60.59
10 Elicitation (reformulation)	48.91	51.10
11 Repetition	43.07	56.94

APPENDIX T

Table 1
Frequency counts of Likert scale ratings for Quebecois student FEEPAC G responses

	Likert scale ratings (%)	
FEEPAC exemplar	Good (1, 2)	Bad (3, 4)
1 Explicit correction	71.13	28.86
2 Recast (implicit)	69.07	30.93
3 Recast (salient)	19.59	80.41
4 Metalinguistic (translation)	44.79	55.21
5 Metalinguistic (clue)	67.01	32.99
6 Clarification request	13.40	86.59
7 Elicitation (strategic pausing)	29.90	70.11
8 Metalinguistic (explicit rule)	89.47	10.52
9 Elicitation (repetitive)	38.14	61.85
10 Elicitation (reformulation)	38.14	61.85
11 Repetition	48.45	51.55

Table 2
Frequency counts of Likert scale ratings for Quebecois student FEEPAC P responses

	Likert scale ratings (%)	
FEEPAC exemplar	Good (1, 2)	Bad (3, 4)
1 Explicit correction	82.48	17.53
2 Recast (implicit)	60.83	39.18
3 Recast (salient)	57.73	42.26
4 Metalinguistic (translation)	47.42	52.58
5 Metalinguistic (clue)	78.35	21.65
6 Clarification request	10.42	89.58
7 Elicitation (strategic pausing)	29.89	70.10
8 Metalinguistic (explicit rule)	89.69	10.31
9 Elicitation (repetitive)	34.02	65.98
10 Elicitation (reformulation)	40.20	59.80
11 Repetition	43.30	56.70

APPENDIX U

Table 1
Frequency counts of Likert scale ratings for Taiwanese NNTE FEEPAC G responses

	Likert scale ratings (%)	
FEEPAC exemplar	Good (1, 2)	Bad (3, 4)
1 Explicit correction	50.00	50.00
2 Recast (implicit)	83.33	16.67
3 Recast (salient)	33.33	66.67
4 Metalinguistic (translation)	33.33	66.67
5 Metalinguistic (clue)	66.67	33.33
6 Clarification request	8.33	91.67
7 Elicitation (strategic pausing)	50.00	50.00
8 Metalinguistic (explicit rule)	58.33	41.66
9 Elicitation (repetitive)	50.00	50.00
10 Elicitation (reformulation)	58.34	41.66
11 Repetition	50.00	50.00

Table 2
Frequency counts of Likert scale ratings for Taiwanese NNTE FEEPAC P responses

	Likert scale ratings (%)	
FEEPAC exemplar	Good (1, 2)	Bad (3, 4)
1 Explicit correction	50.00	50.00
2 Recast (implicit)	91.67	8.33
3 Recast (salient)	58.33	41.67
4 Metalinguistic (translation)	33.33	66.67
5 Metalinguistic (clue)	25.00	75.00
6 Clarification request	18.18	81.82
7 Elicitation (strategic pausing)	25.00	75.00
8 Metalinguistic (explicit rule)	58.33	41.67
9 Elicitation (repetitive)	50.00	50.00
10 Elicitation (reformulation)	58.33	41.67
11 Repetition	41.67	58.33

APPENDIX V

Table A1
Frequency counts of Likert scale ratings for NTE FEEPAC G responses

	Likert scale ratings (%)	
FEEPAC exemplar	Good (1, 2)	Bad (3, 4)
1 Explicit correction	33.33	66.67
2 Recast (implicit)	66.67	33.33
3 Recast (salient)	41.67	58.33
4 Metalinguistic (translation)	16.67	83.33
5 Metalinguistic (clue)	58.33	41.67
6 Clarification request	50.00	50.00
7 Elicitation (strategic pausing)	83.33	16.67
8 Metalinguistic (explicit rule)	41.67	58.33
9 Elicitation (repetitive)	66.67	33.33
10 Elicitation (reformulation)	83.33	16.67
11 Repetition	66.67	33.33

Table A2
Frequency counts of Likert scale ratings for NTE FEEPAC P responses

	Likert scale ratings (%)	
FEEPAC exemplar	Good (1, 2)	Bad (3, 4)
1 Explicit correction	33.33	66.67
2 Recast (implicit)	50.00	50.00
3 Recast (salient)	58.33	41.67
4 Metalinguistic (translation)	16.67	83.33
5 Metalinguistic (clue)	58.33	41.67
6 Clarification request	41.67	58.33
7 Elicitation (strategic pausing)	58.33	41.67
8 Metalinguistic (explicit rule)	41.67	58.33
9 Elicitation (repetitive)	75.00	25.00
10 Elicitation (reformulation)	66.67	33.33
11 Repetition	75.00	25.00

APPENDIX W

Taiwanese NNTE Follow-up Interview Transcript

1. How effective do you think correcting students' errors is, in terms of improving their English ability? Explain.

(Shirley) I think it can be quite effective if done tactfully and correctly. If the teacher doesn't correct a student's error, then how will they learn? If their errors are not corrected, or are corrected too slowly, they may have the errors memorized and internalized (fossilized). However, too much focus on errors drains a person's enthusiasm to learn. It can lower their self-esteem. The students' personalities and motivations must also be factored.

(Yvonne) I think error correction is effective to some degrees and in some extent. For more advanced learners, error correction helps to "hone" and improve their English. But for less proficient learners, many teaching strategies are more important or effective for them than error correction.

(Anne) It depends on the different levels and how motivated students are toward English. If their levels are higher and they are more motivated, error correction may function better. Correcting students errors is partially effective.

(Jane) It depends. For oral practice, correction may interfere with the student's motivation and courage to go on. However, for writing, the teacher's correction will surely be helpful.

2. What factors contributed to your attitudes about error correction?

(Shirley) Personally, I would choose to use error correction, due to my personal experiences and cultural views of education. Chinese students are quite passive in class. As for correcting their errors, I would prompt students to try again, depending on their personalities. For those who are shy in class, I would give them an explicit explanation.

(Yvonne) My professional training, my own English learning experiences, my own teaching experiences, and my philosophy of teaching and education in general.

(Anne) I think my own English learning experience and my observations in the class are the most important factors which contributed to my attitudes about error correction.

(Jane) The factors are: the skill the student is practicing, the student's willingness to be corrected, the requirement from the department.

3. Do you think teacher training has influenced the way you correct errors? Explain.

(Shirley) It has redesigned the way I correct. For example, instead of saying "No, that's wrong!" patterning or modeling is much more effective.

(Yvonne) Definitely. I believe that language is learned from the process of using that language for authentic purposes and real functions. Errors are part of the learning process.

(Anne) What I've learned is more about the research instead of hands on teacher training.

(Jane) I guess so. We always do what we know.

4. What method do you use most when correcting student errors in class and think is the most effective? Why?

(Shirley) I use modeling or patterning, which I think are the most effective. I believe a correct feedback is both tactful and effective. For example: if time permits, I would have them read aloud the correct expressions as many times as possible. And then you would assign them to include the idioms or sentences they've just learned in a short conversation, which should be made up by themselves. By doing so, they'll "remember" the correct patterns.

(Yvonne) I usually provide correct forms for the students or ask them to say what they intend to say again. That is to raise their attention to the errors. That also helps to increase their awareness of the language form and their language use.

(Anne) I think providing the correct answer is the most often used method by me because I think… well according to Krashen comprehensible language input is useful. So I think we should provide students with the correct input instead of the wrong input.

(Jane) It's hard to be specific. Nevertheless, I think it should be better to point out the student's good point before you correct him or her.

5. Do you change the way you correct student errors depending on their level? If so, how? If not, why not?

(Shirley) Sometimes yes, sometimes no. A lot depends on the individual student's personality (no matter if they are in higher or lower level). But I would try to let those who are in higher level correct their own errors or encourage them to try. For lower level students, if modeling or patterning fails after several attempts, then direct correction is applied in hopes of avoid fossilization.

(Yvonne) Yes. For less proficient learners, I expect errors to be part of their English production. I correct them when meaning is lost, unclear, or changed. For more advanced learners, I correct more often, because they can handle the corrections without feeling intimidated.

(Anne) Yes I do. Because if you want to correct student errors, you have to help them to understand the correct one. So, if they are just beginners, I don't think they will quite understand the nature of the language they are learning. So I think the primary goal for the beginners is to motivate them to speak out instead of keeping correcting them. At first they are going to make lots of errors but it's not necessary to correct them every time. But for the higher levels I think they can understand why the teachers need to correct them so, well then, I will correct them.

(Jane) I guess so. For lower level students, we should give more encouragement rather than correction.

6. Do you think it's better to just give students the correct answer or make them try and think about their mistake and provide the corrected response themselves? Why?

(Shirley) It depends. Some students have the ability to correct themselves, and I think it is good; but others just don't. For those who don't have the ability to correct themselves, I would give them direct correction.

(Yvonne) The idea of encouraging students to try and correct themselves is fine, but if students are still confused, that when the teachers needs to step in and help.

(Anne) I think correct input is important and if they can understand what kinds of errors they are making, next time they will improve it. So I think give them the correct answer and make them try to think is good.

(Jane) Yes. They will thereby have a better memory of the correct way there.

7. Considering the traditional education system that the typical student goes through in Taiwan, do you think students are comfortable with error correction and, if so, what method do you think they would be most accustomed to?

(Shirley) I think most students here are comfortable with error correction. They would be more accustomed to giving them an explicit explanation, modeling or patterning.

(Yvonne) I think English teachers in Taiwan probably correct their students' English a lot, but I really don't know if students are comfortable with that. I guess it has to do with each student's personality. For myself, I wouldn't interrupt a student just to correct their English. I would wait till then end of the talk or turn of speech before I provide suggestions for correction.

(Anne) I think yes, for the students who goes through the traditional education system in Taiwan, it's very helpful to correct them and they feel comfortable with error correction because they have been corrected in every kind of classes and they just feel its kind of instructional process to be corrected. I think most students are comfortable with proper error correction.

(Jane) I think correction is OK, but encouragement and enthusiastic assistance are more effective in their learning.

APPENDIX X

NTE Follow-up Interview Transcript

1. How effective do you think correcting students' errors is, in terms of improving their English ability? Explain.

(Agnes) Very important, If errors are permitted to remain, students will not receive the required modeling system.

(Terry) It depends. If I elicit and follow up in succeeding classes (recall of a correct vocabulary word, a correct grammatical formulation, and structuring of activities to elicit the correct utterance) then maybe learning occurs.

(Mary) Very – at the high-intermediate level. It pushes them past the "intermediate plateau".

(Martha) Moderately effective, but often students ask to be corrected. The correction sometimes doesn't seem to penetrate.

2. What factors contributed to your attitudes about error correction?

(Agnes) Seeing students perpetuate their errors does not stimulate them toward reaching "automaticity" in correct English usage.

(Terry) My own experience learning French. I really appreciate interlocutors correcting me. Also experience with adult learners who specifically ask for corrective feedback: "I know I'm making mistakes. Please correct me".

(Mary) The fact that most high-intermediate students ask for it.

(Martha) Experience (watching their reactions) and the fact that students ask for it.

3. Do you think teacher training has influenced the way you correct errors? Explain.

(Agnes) Only to a small degree.

(Terry) No, because all during the early communicative years correction was soft-pedaled. I personally think it's important.

(Mary) Yes. When I started, as a true follower of the communicative approach, I would never correct.

(Martha) Yes, I read an article which said the person being corrected doesn't really process the info, but those around him/her do.

4. What method do you use most when correcting student errors in class and think is the most effective? Why?

(Agnes) Student should not be interrupted because of having made an error; student's train of thought should not be curtailed. Therefore, once comment has been fully expressed, professor repeats in correct form. Then error and correction are written on blackboard. After discourse has been completed, the correction is explained. It is suggested that students copy the correction to become part of a "new personal language list" which they are encouraged to read 2 or 3 times before going to sleep that night, thus committing the correction to long-term memory (I hope!)

(Terry) On the spot, but taking the time to dwell on an utterance. Use peers in a small group by saying I didn't quite understand. I need help.

(Mary) Direct correction. Life is too short, classes are big, and students are in a hurry to get their point across. The shorter the interruption, the better.

(Martha) I think it was #9 and #11 [in reference to feedback exemplars in FEEPAC]. I use question inflection when repeating what they've said. It (hopefully) guides them to thinking of right answer, or I simply correct the error.

5. Do you change the way you correct student errors depending on their level? If so, how? If not, why not?

(Agnes) [N/A] I teach advanced students only.

(Terry) First, I try to elicit with both beginners and advanced learners. I will explain the nature of corrections in more detail to advanced learners.

(Mary) Absolutely. I use a much gentler, inductive approach with lower levels.

(Martha) Yes, sometimes, if there's time. Sometimes give more explanation at higher level.

6. Do you think it's better to just give students the correct answer or make them try and think about their mistake and provide the corrected response themselves? Why?

(Agnes) If I estimate that a student can self-correct, this method is employed. If I believe that a student is unable to self-correct, I employ the method explained in question 4.

(Terry) It's good to let them call on their resources because two objectives are accomplished: they get the correct language input and they realize maybe they can help themselves. Taking time to reflect can foster long-term memory retention.

(Mary) See Q4.

(Martha) Make them think (if there's time). It's the same correcting compositions. I use correction symbols and they have to think more about the corrections.

7. In your opinion, what form of error correction do you think francophone language learners would prefer, and why?

(Agnes) Most of my students are francophone; they appear to be content with Q4 method.

(Terry) Older francophone students, who I deal with mostly, many on the job market seem to want upfront correction and feedback. They want to speak fluently but correctly.

(Mary) Direct.

(Martha) I don't know.

APPENDIX Y

Taiwanese Student Follow-up Interview Transcript

1. Do you think that when teachers correct your errors it helps you improve your English ability? If yes, how? If not, why not?

(Veronica) If my teachers would like to correct my errors in the direct ways, and tell me what kind of the mistakes I made. I believe my English would improve more than now.

(Bernice) Yes. When we know where our mistakes are, we can correct them and that's make us improve our English.

(Suzy) Yes, because sometimes you may make some errors so often that you even do not notice.

(Richard) Yes, I think if teachers correct my errors in an appropriate way, it will help me improving my English ability. Appropriate ways mean that a teacher shouldn't use words that will discourage students.

(Victor) I think it helps because I would be careful and try to avoid making the same mistake.

2. Do you think that most of your teachers correct your mistakes the way you would like them to? What do they do that you like? / What do they do that you don't like?

(Veronica) I don't like some of my teachers had been corrected my mistakes without explaining and telling me how to solve my problems. I think that's helpless for me.

(Bernice) Yes, I can accept the way my teacher corrected my mistakes. They point out our mistakes and tell us to try one more time to get the correct answer.

(Suzy) In Taiwan, there are very few teachers would correct students' mistakes. I would like teachers to correct my mistakes by raising their tones and repeating that wrong words or phrases again to let myself find out my mistakes.

(Richard) I think most of my teachers correct my mistakes in a right way. I like teachers don't use words which will attack my confidence, vise versa.

(Victor) I think I like the way my teachers correct me. They usually correct my mistakes at the moment I made the mistakes, but if I really got something to say, they wouldn't stop me. Even though they correct my mistakes right away, they make it like a joke, so I don't feel too embarrassed.

3. Do you prefer if a teacher stops you as soon as you make a mistake or would you prefer to just talk without being interrupted? Why?

(Veronica) I would prefer to talk without being interrupted. Because I could practice listening and I have the chance to think about the correct sentences. If the English teachers correct my mistakes immediately when I talk, I will feel embarrassed.

(Bernice) Yes, I prefer my teacher to stop me as soon as I made a mistake. Because if my teacher didn't correct my answer, I may forget what mistake I made.

(Suzy) I would prefer a teacher tell me my errors after I finish what I want to say, or else, being interrupted may let me feel nervous about making another errors and forget what I was trying to express.

(Richard) I like teachers stop me when I finish the whole talk or speech because I think if they stop me as soon as possible, it will interrupt my speech. Also, it won't be too polite to interrupt people when they are talking.

(Victor) I would prefer to just talk without being interrupted because maybe that little mistake is acceptable or I really want to tell someone something.

4. Do you think it's better for teachers to give you the correct answer when you make a mistake or give you the chance to think about it and try and give the correct response yourself? Why?

(Veronica) I would like to have the chance to think about my mistakes and try my best to give the correct response myself. But we Chinese students get used to wait the correct answers.

(Bernice) At the beginning, I would like my teacher to give me one more opportunity to try. Sometimes, I do not really misunderstand it. Maybe I just misunderstand the question or something. But when I have tried and failed to get the right answer, the teacher should tell me what the right answer is.

(Suzy) I think it is better to give me the chance to think about it first, because sometimes it may be a small error that's just a slip of the tongue.

(Richard) I think the teacher should let me think of the mistake for a while and then tell us the correct one. Most time we make mistakes is when we are not mean to it so teacher should let us think about it. After a while, if we can not figure out then the teacher can tell us the correct answer.

(Victor) I think it's better to give me the chance to think about it and try and give the correct response myself because it shows I have the ability. I just can't give the correct answer in the first place because of some reasons.

5. Do you think there is a difference in how English teachers from your country correct your errors compared to native English teachers? If so, how?

(Veronica) I think it's no difference between them. But most of my country teachers give the answers in the direct ways. I think the only difference between them, it might be their accent.

(Bernice) Yes. Native English teachers like to give us more opportunities to let us find the answer but Taiwanese English teachers would tell us what the right answer is if we had the wrong answer.

(Suzy) Native English teachers may tell my errors after I finish my talking, while English teachers in Taiwan would interrupt me right away.

(Richard) I think if a native English teacher correct my errors would convince me more. Although one English teacher's English is well enough it's inevitable for them to make some errors in English.

(Victor) Generally, English teachers from my country usually correct my mistakes right away and native English teachers would not correct my mistakes if he/she can understand my English well.

APPENDIX Z

Quebecois Student Follow-up Interview Transcript

1. Do you think that when teachers correct your errors it helps you improve your English ability? If yes, how? If not, why not?

(Mireille) Yes. When the teacher shows me my mistakes, I am aware that I made errors and I could correct them. If he does not correct them, I will not learn to speak correctly.

(Anne) Yes, it helps us improve our English at least for the next time. If nobody tell us the correct way, we'll make the errors again.

(Corinne) Yes it does. Because if the teacher don't do that, I'll have the impression that I'll never improve my pronounciation and my vocabulary.

(Nadia) Yes, because I learn from my mistakes.

2. Do you think that most of your teachers correct your mistakes the way you would like them to? What do they do that you like? / What do they do that you don't like?

(Mireille) I think so. When the teacher repeats my errors, I could think about and correct them.

(Anne) Yes, I think that my teachers correct my mistakes the way I like because when I make mistakes I must found myself the mistakes. So, if we search the next time I'll remember more.

(Corinne) I prefer when he corrects my mistakes right away. Like that, it makes me realize where I did wrong.

(Nadia) I think that most of my teachers correct my mistakes the way I like. I like when they give me the correct answers with the explanation.

3. Do you prefer if a teacher stops you as soon as you make a mistake or would you prefer to just talk without being interrupted? Why?

(Mireille) I prefer when the teacher stops me but if I make too many mistakes, it is preferable that he does not stop me each time because I will forget what I want to say.

(Anne) I prefer to be stop as soon as I make a mistake because if the teachers repeat us the same error everytimes we made it we will finish by say correctly. But if they told us at the end of the sentence for exemple, I believe that we will remember less.

(Corinne) Sometimes it's preferable being interrupted as soon as the mistake is done. But he can also ask us after the sentence if there is something wrong in what we just said.

(Nadia) Yes I prefer when a teacher tells me right away when I make a mistake.

4. Do you think it's better for teachers to give you the correct answer when you make a mistake or give you the chance to think about it and try and give the correct response yourself? Why?

(Mireille) I prefer to think about my mistake and try to find by myself the correct answer.
(Anne) I believe that we must search the good answer because, when we search a long time the next time we remember.

(Corinne) As far as I'm concern, I prefer when he let me try to think about a little while before giving me the answer, If I really can't find it by myself.

(Nadia) I like it better when a teacher tells me my mistake and give me some hint and I'll try to find the right answer.