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The impact of the use of the Corrective Feedback perceived by EFL teachers on students’ oral production

Tesina para optar al grado de Magíster en la Enseñanza del Inglés como Lengua Extranjera

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this research study to my family who supported me during this process and also to Letty for being always there by my side.
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Abstract

Although many experimental and classroom studies show the benefits of oral corrective feedback for second language acquisition, very little is known about the actual practice of oral feedback in classrooms and to what extent this practice reflects teachers' beliefs. The present study presents an analysis of the insights of 28 EFL teachers and their stated perceptions about Oral Corrective Feedback. It appeared that most of the teachers were not fully aware of the frequency and the amount of feedback they tended to provide and when to do it, nor of the different types of correction they used. Even though all the teachers acknowledged the importance of feedback, they expressed concerns about interrupting students and provoking negative affective responses. Informing teachers of the results of corrective feedback research can encourage them to use a wider variety of techniques and possibly make their teaching more effective and at the same time improve students’ oral proficiency. The findings of this study contributed to the comprehension of teachers’ perceptions on students’ feelings and attitudes towards oral corrective feedback. These findings will be further developed and complemented by the results of future empirical studies in the field.

Keywords:

Oral corrective feedback; EFL Teachers; Teachers' perceptions; Corrective techniques.
Resumen

Aunque muchos estudios experimentales y en el aula demuestran los beneficios de retroalimentación correctiva oral para la adquisición de un segundo idioma, se sabe muy poco acerca de la práctica real de retroalimentación oral en las aulas y en qué medida esta práctica refleja las creencias de los profesores. El presente estudio presenta el análisis de las visiones de 28 profesores de inglés y sus percepciones acerca de la retroalimentación correctiva oral. Al parecer, la mayoría de los docentes no estaban plenamente conscientes de la frecuencia y la cantidad de realimentación que tendían a proporcionar y cuándo hacerlo, ni tampoco de los diferentes tipos de corrección que se utilizan. A pesar de que todos los profesores reconocen la importancia de la retroalimentación, éstos expresaron su preocupación por interrumpir a los estudiantes y provocar respuestas afectivas negativas. Informar a los profesores acerca de los resultados de la investigación sobre retroalimentación correctiva puede motivarles a utilizar una mayor variedad de técnicas y posiblemente hacer que su enseñanza sea más eficaz y al mismo tiempo mejorar la competencia oral de los estudiantes. Las conclusiones contribuyeron a la comprensión de las percepciones de los profesores acerca de los sentimientos y actitudes de los estudiantes hacia la retroalimentación oral correctiva. Se espera que los hallazgos de este estudio sean más desarrollados y complementados por investigaciones futuras en el área.

Palabras claves: Retroalimentación correctiva Oral; Profesores de Inglés como lengua extranjera; Percepciones de los docentes; Técnicas correctivas.
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CHAPTER 1

1.0 Introduction

Today, the importance of the English language as a tool of communication among people from different countries is extensively accepted. This language has become one of the most widely spoken languages by speakers of other languages, largely due to the role it plays in the social and academic world. Therefore, at the present time, it has become essential for people to learn English as a basic instrument of access to knowledge and society. It is imperative to acquire communicative competence and cultural knowledge of the language for its appropriate use in given social contexts Hymes (1972), cited in Richards (2001). Consequently, governments of non-English-speaking countries around the world have implemented different policies to overcome the barriers of global communication. Most governments have also standardized their curricular proposals to The Common European Framework (2001), which describes what language learners have to learn in order to be able to communicate.

However, learning a second or foreign language, aside from public policies that facilitate it, is linked to the adoption of a given teaching approach. In this respect, the history of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL for short), presents a history of at least 100 years, wherein different language teaching approaches have proposed different ontological, epistemological, and methodological views on language, language teaching, and language learning.

The last major teaching approach throughout the TESOL history is indeed the Communicative Approach, which emerged as an alternative to Audio-Lingualism during
the 1970s, and still enjoys importance in formal instruction of a language among educational institutions. American and British proponents see Communicative Language Teaching as an approach that aims “to (a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication” Richards (2001,p.155).

Our country, along with a number of countries, has openly embraced the Communicative Approach, yet the aforementioned ultimate aims have not become a reality despite the governmental efforts such as special programs and policies aimed to enhance the teaching process of learning English as a foreign language. Undoubtedly, this relative failure results from multiple factors such as government investment, initial teacher education, socio-cultural background of teachers and students, and so forth. Whichever the various reasons for our modest success in English teaching and learning, it is necessary to determine whether the principles advocated by the Communicative Approach correlate with teachers’ actual teaching practices.

As for the organization of the study, the first section of this research deals with the introduction of the study. The second section is related to the context of the research. The third section provides a review of the literature both at national and international levels. Then, the fourth section of the study presents the methodological framework adopted by the researcher. The results and the analyses of the data collected are presented in the fifth section. Finally, in section number six the final conclusions and discussions are presented.
1.1 Rationale

The study of English as a Foreign Language is a mandatory requirement for Humanist and Technical Education nationwide. English for General Purposes (EGP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) curricula engage students into language writing rather than speaking. But despite language curricula include systematic exposition to the language use in the classroom, there are weak oral-language production outcomes once student complete with their language requirements.

This study examines teachers’ perceptions toward performance and interaction in L2 oral production during EFL classrooms which main research question is the following: What are the perceptions of EFL teachers about the impact of oral corrective feedback techniques as a means to enhance students’ oral production?

1.2 Statement of the problem

While corrective feedback clearly relates to both oral and written discourse, the focus of this research is centered on the most common, effective and frequently used oral corrective feedback techniques and their implications perceived by 28 EFL English teachers coming from different educational levels in the seventh and eighth regions in Chile as a means to enhance students’ oral production.

The decision of when and how to correct students' English mistakes is a very important issue for any teacher of English as a foreign language. Providing learners with corrective feedback as a group, individually, during and at the end of activities are key strategies in encouraging students to use English rather than to worry about making too many mistakes. Corrective feedback also provides students with the opportunity to learn from their own
mistakes and it should not become a way of intimidating or to make feel students ashamed when the teacher uses these strategies, on the contrary, it helps develop student’s awareness on their own progress in their learning process. In this research different views, definitions and applications of corrective feedback in English language classes are going to be explored and also strategies used by teachers to deal with this topic in order to be a positive and useful source of monitoring and improvement of student’s oral production in utterances, interactions, dialogues and reports in classroom activities analyzed during a four-month period of study.

The information, data analysis, conclusions and recommendations presented in this research reveal the importance and necessity for teachers to know and use corrective feedback techniques effectively in the teaching-learning process and also how to implement these strategies in their classroom and in the Chilean educational context.

1.3 Research question

As this study examines teachers’ perceptions and beliefs toward the students’ oral communication achievement in EFL classrooms and to what extent they can affect learners’ speaking performance in classes, the research question selected and used in this project was the following:

- What are the perceptions of EFL teachers about the impact of oral corrective feedback techniques as a means to enhance students’ oral production?
1.4 Research Objectives.

1.4.1 General Objective.

- To explore the perceptions of EFL teachers about the impact of oral corrective feedback techniques as a means to enhance students’ oral production.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

- To research about the use of the most common and effective oral corrective feedback techniques used by EFL teachers.

- To explain the circumstances in which teachers use oral corrective feedback.

- To describe how students feel when they are corrected according to teachers’ perceptions.

- To assess the frequency in which teachers use corrective feedback techniques in their lessons.

- To analyse critically the importance of corrective feedback as a source of learning.
CHAPTER 2

2.0 Contextual Framework

2.1 Introduction.

This chapter discusses the research context related to the study. The ability to speak other language is something complex to achieve for many students as well as difficult to teach for many foreign language teachers. The students’ ability to speak to their friends and classmates is something natural, but performing a conversation in another language and being able to be understood is surely a goal achievable after a relatively long time. But after classes training and practice, how can students be sure that they are performing in a proper way? Teachers can use different tools in the classroom in order to help students discover how they are performing in a specific ability as speaking. After a period of a unit or lessons an assessment is performed. Normally, formative or summative assessment strategies are used.

Véliz (2008) pointed out, learners acquire and frame a foreign language in a socio-interactional context. This interaction includes the teacher - student, which most of the time receive the name of feedback. Several studies in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) suggest that teacher feedback provided during interaction might facilitate noticing, acquisition and retention of second language (L2) forms, and which facilitate meaningful possibilities for learners to correct or modify their output production as cited by Iwashita (2003); McDonough, (2005); Oliver & Mackey (2003). Such conversational feedback might create meaningful possibilities for the learners to modify their outputs. Eventually, those actions might help learners become aware of their interlanguage gaps. By this
understanding, making errors may be potentially crucial for developing learners’
competence Vicente-Rasomalala (1998). In any Second Language Classroom (SLC),
performance, producing language orally, and communicative competence- knowing how,
when and where to use an utterance appropriately- are two main goals to be achieved by
language teachers. “However, when it comes to producing language orally and using the
language in communicative contexts teachers are faced with a very difficult problem to
tackle, that of students’ errors and how to treat them” Véliz (2008, p. 285). That is why
error correction becomes so important in the language learning process. Now, regarding
error correction and feedback, it is found a concept that unites these two broad concepts to
make it one, corrective feedback.

2.2 English teaching and learning in Chile.

Matear (2008) showed that English language learning in all Spanish speaking
countries has become a major concern for many governments. The spread of English as
lingua franca has been studied long by Kachru (1992) who introduced the “Three Circles of
English” showing that English lacks official status and its usage is restricted to specific
spheres and purposes, but it is taught in schools and the number of people learning English
as a foreign language is growing, as expressed by Matear, (2008, p.131). According to
Wegner (2007) the access to foreign language is more and more available through videos,
internet and international traveling, the possibilities of exposure to the English language no
longer depends just on the teachers as before and the classroom. The learning of a language
has as mean to fully participate in a wider community of interest and practice, and requires
an effort from the language teacher to engage learners in meaningful activities in and out of the classroom as cited in Abrahams & Farias (2010, p. 114).

In the Chilean context, the government has carried out different policies in order to increase Chileans’ levels of proficiency in the English language, especially at school level. In 2003, a program called *English Opens Doors* was launched in Chile. The main purpose of this initiative was to support English teaching and learning and promote the English language as a general and fundamental skill for every learner to successfully face the global demands. To achieve this, the level of proficiency in the English language of Chilean teachers of English was tested to establish their command of the language. As a consequence of the test results, which were lower than the expected ones, English and methodology courses were offered for teachers so they could improve their teaching and language skills and meet the established international standards with the purpose of enhancing students’ learning processes of the foreign language. Similarly, special immersion programs were offered for students to foster the use of the target language so that they could succeed when facing standardized tests and using English for real communicative purposes.

In 2004, Chilean school students sat for a diagnostic test aimed to determine their levels of proficiency in the English language. This test was taken by students of 8th grade elementary school and 4th grade high school. The results showed that 67% of students from elementary school achieved a basic understanding of the language and 46% of the high school students reached the same level. The tested students scored far below the acceptable levels to perform adequately in educational and work spheres. Also, it was deemed important to gather information about the teachers’ methodologies and their level of
command of the English language. Therefore, in 2005 a sample of more than 2,000 in-service teachers of English was tested. This diagnostic evaluation showed that 28% of the teachers were placed in ALTE 2 (basic user of the language) and 27% in ALTE 3 (intermediate user of the language), according to the descriptors stated by the Common European Framework.

In 2010, a formal measurement of students’ English proficiency levels was conducted. The selected test to be applied was TOEIC Bridge; however, this evaluation came to be known as English language SIMCE. This acronym stands for Sistema de Medición de Calidad de la Educación in Spanish (Measurement System of Education Quality in English); there are SIMCE standardized tests for different school subjects, administered at different points in time in the school curriculum. In the case of the English subject SIMCE test, it is applied to 3rd grade secondary school students.

The results of 2010 English SIMCE showed that only 11% of students of 3rd grade high school can understand common phrases and short simple texts in English. It means that one out of ten students reached the level which is considered basic for the test. EducarChile, (2011). Besides, it was found that the scores correlated with the difference among the types of school systems (state-run, subsidized and private) in Chile and the social inequity as most of the students who succeeded in the test belong to high income families who study at private or subsidized institutions of education. On the other hand, most of the students who study at state-run institutions and belong to low-income families scored poorly. Similar results were showed in SIMCE 2012 which also demonstrated the poor performance among students from low-income families.
After all the poor aforementioned results, a new effort was made in 2012: The Chilean government released a document that adapts the National Curriculum, which is the main policy that guides the whole educational process in the country. The adjustment to the curriculum was called *Bases Curriculares* and they were only made in fifth and sixth grades at elementary school (in 2013, *Bases Curriculares* from seventh elementary school to second high school were enacted). The aim of this proposal is to allow students reach the necessary standardized levels to use the English language as a communicative tool to meet the global demands of communication, access new knowledge and education, and so forth.

It is expected that Chilean students will develop the four basic skills of the English language through meaningful authentic or adapted communicative tasks. It is also expected that learners will develop cognitive skills that allow them to organize and internalize information in order to be able to meet the continuous changes of this postmodern era.

Thus, it is interesting to establish the degree of congruence between the teaching methodologies employed by in-service English language teachers and the proposals of the Communicative Approach, and determine if these methodologies foster the English language as a communicative tool, which may be used not only in an educational setting but also in any real social context.
2.3 Feedback and corrective feedback

Within a teaching and learning setting, teachers and learners need feedback. By feedback, Crystal (2008) referred to “the process whereby the sender of a message obtains a reaction from the receiver which enables a check to be made on the efficiency of the communication” (p. 187). While providing learners with feedback during and after an oral language production activity, “speakers are able to monitor their own performance (both by self-observation, and by observing the response-signals of others) “(p. 187).

Taking into consideration corrective Feedback (CF), it has been the target of several studies in language teaching and learning and it has been considered by many international experts Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall, & Wiliam (2003); Clarke (2003); Hattie (2009); Hattie & Timperley (2007). Brown, Harris & Harnet (2012) pointed out that CF is “the most critical influence on students learning” (p. 968), becoming the most important element of Assessment for learning. According to Kluger & DeNisi (1996) feedback can increase learner satisfaction and persistence. Even more, Vollmeyer & Rheinberg (2005) stated that feedback contributes to students adopting more productive learning strategies. On the other hand, when feedback is provided in an inappropriate way, can lead to negative or even harmful effects.

Similarly, Leahy, Lyon, Thompson, & William (2005) stated that feedback continues to be endorsed worldwide as a powerful strategy for teachers of all subjects and all levels. And regarding this issue, teachers are the ones that have been empowered to provide, according to time constraints, different kind of assessment and experience, feedback to their students in the moment and in the way they consider appropriate to the
specific situation. The beliefs that teachers have about the nature and purpose of feedback will likely to affect the Assessment for learning approach, as cited in Brown et al. (2012, pp. 968-969).

Then, different questions arise in the light of an error in the learning process and the first one is if the error should be corrected or not, and how or when. In this context it will be considered error as “mistakes in spontaneous speaking” Crystal (2008, p. 173). Brown et al. (2012) pointed out that the how and when feedback is delivered affect or influence the student. The issue of grades as feedback is controversial, with some claiming “they negatively affect students’ motivation, distracting learners’ attention away from more constructive narrative feedback” (p. 969). Feedback’s timing is an important variable according to Hattie & Timperly (2007) and Shute (2008). The consensus among the author leads to the idea of feedback” is best provided during, not after the learning process” (p. 969). Another issues related to CF are even more complicated, for example, the fact that the teacher has to make quick decisions once having noticed the error in an student’s utterance. Lyster, Saito and Sato (2013) provided clear definitions for the concept of corrective feedback, understood as ‘responses to learner utterances containing an error” and as a “complex phenomenon with several functions”.

The literature concerning feedback provides different views regarding who should provide feedback, how and when it is best delivered. In English language teaching, teachers have been always responsible for giving feedback. However, Black et al. (2003) and Andrade; Strijbos & Sluijsmans (2010) reported that, with the international rise of student-centered pedagogy and Assessment for Learning policies, students have become legitimate source of feedback (as cited in Brown et al., 2012, p. 969).
In this case, regarding the issues of how and when feedback is delivered, there are different views that have enriched the literature. In the case of the how, verbal teacher feedback, when privileged, is described by Cowie and Bell (1999) as “interactive formative assessment,” where teachers notice, recognize and respond to students thinking in an unplanned and spontaneous manner during teacher-student interactions within the learning process (as cited in Brown et al., 2012, p. 969). On the other hand, some researchers as Kluger and DeNisi (1996) and Shute (2008) claimed that written comments are preferable to verbal feedback as students can revisit them (as cited in Brown et al., 2012, p. 969).

Regarding the issue of when, Hattie & Timperley (2007) and Shute (2008) stated that timing is an important variable, with consensus that the best time to provide corrective feedback to learners is during, not after, the learning process. Hattie & Timperley (2007) suggested that feedback’s content may determine the optimal timing for the feedback provision. While simple error correction may be most effective if provided immediately. In the case of feedback related to processes (e.g. reading fluency) or complex tasks, the feedback provided after may be more effective because allows the student to develop the task without interruption.

As stated before, corrective feedback has been studied by several researchers in different contexts. Two exponents in the corrective feedback Russell and Spada (2006) found that “considerable research of both a descriptive and experimental nature has been done to examine the effects of CF on oral production. One of the earliest descriptive studies was carried out by Chaudron (1977), who investigated the different types of CF provided to French immersion students by their teachers” (p. 134).
However, the results of these studies have been diverse. Russel and Spada (2006) pointed out the following:

The different findings across descriptive and experimental CF studies may be related to the explicit/implicit nature of the corrective feedback type, the extent to which type of feedback is dependent on context…and the intensive/extensive nature of CF. Nonetheless, there is growing evidence that CF can be helpful for L2 learning. (p. 135).

Results from studies on corrective feedback and learner proficiency have generated valuable suggestions for L2 teaching (Kennedy, 2010). However, these results are based on observation or assessment of multiple groups of learners and teachers or interlocutors. In other words, research on corrective feedback and learner proficiency thus far has largely not targeted individual teachers, or specifically how a teacher may provide feedback to learners of varied proficiency levels in his or her classroom (p. 32).
CHAPTER 3

3.0 Theoretical Framework

3.1 Introduction

A variety of terms have been used in identifying errors and mistakes providing corrective feedback (CF) in the SLA literature. As it is shown in several studies, researchers investigating the role of corrective feedback in SLA have made remarkable progress in the last two decades, especially in the 90s. As progress is made, and as the questions become more complex, more sophisticated methods will need to be developed in the future.

Nevertheless, research on the impact of corrective feedback on second language learning development has been dynamic and continues to grow, however it is not enough. In an area of research as diverse and as significant as that of corrective feedback, no single literature can cover all aspects of all the issues involved.

Negative feedback in second language (L2) learning has been of considerable interest to SLA researchers, generating a substantial amount of research several authors as Ammar and Spada (2006); Ellis et al. (2001); Ellis et al. (2006); Ishida (2004); Iwashita, (2003); Lyster and Ranta (1997); Mackey and Philp (1998), among others.

Negative feedback, also known as corrective feedback and error correction, has typically been defined as information provided to learners about the illformedness of their L2 production. Feedback may occur in response to learners’ oral or written production, with oral feedback usually occurring immediately during interaction while written feedback
is often provided some time after a text has been produced. Because of the aim of this research, only oral corrective feedback will be considered in this study.

On the one hand, Lightbown and Spada (1999) defined corrective feedback as any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect, this includes various responses that the learners receive. When a language learner says, ‘He go to school everyday’, corrective feedback can be explicit, for example, ‘no, you should say goes, not go’ or implicit ‘yes he goes to school every day’, and may or may not include metalinguistic information, for example, ‘Don’t forget to make the verb agree with the subject’ Lightbown and Spada, (1999 p. 171-172).

According to Schachter (1991), corrective feedback, negative evidence, and negative feedback are three terms used respectively in the fields of language teaching, language acquisition, and cognitive psychology. For him the feedback could be explicit (e.g., grammatical explanation or overt error correction) or implicit. Implicit correction includes: Confirmation checks, repetitions, recasts, clarification requests, silence, and even facial expressions that express confusion.

As Susan Gass and Selinker (2008) stated that Interactional feedback is an important source of information for learners. Most generally, it provides them with information about the success (or, more likely, lack of success) of their utterances and gives additional opportunities to focus on production or comprehension. There are numerous ways of providing feedback to learners from the explicit (stating that there is a problem) to the implicit (feedback during the course of an interaction). In this and the subsequent
sections, I address the role of feedback and suggest ways that different types of feedback may impact learning.

3.2 Teachers’ beliefs and perceptions.

As Borg (2006) stated in his work that teacher cognition “is an amalgam of what teachers know, believe, and think, which has been traditionally described by constructs such as knowledge, belief, attitude, value, perception, and rationale”. In Borg's words, teacher cognition “embraces the complexity of teacher's mental lives” (p. 49).

During the past thirty years, different studies have made important contribution to the exploration of teachers’ beliefs, and the relationship between teachers’ beliefs and teachers’ practice. Several researches have demonstrated that, through their conscious or unconscious participation, “individual teachers have the power to create or break trends. They shape the curriculum according to their own beliefs, teach their own personal values, through the implicit curriculum, and operate their classroom in accordance with their own particular definitions of teaching and learning” Shinde and Karekatti (2012, p. 70).

White (1999), based on research conducted on the nature and effect of beliefs, stated some claims such as beliefs have an adaptive function to help individuals define and understand the world and themselves, and just beliefs are instrumental in defining tasks and behaviors. Shinde and Karekatti (2012) claimed that “teachers’ belief systems, including their attitudes, values, expectations, theories and assumptions about teaching and learning, are considered a primary source of teachers’ classroom practice” (p.70).
Teachers’ beliefs have already been classified into various sets of categories by some researchers as Johnson (1992); William & Burden (1997). William and Burden (1997) divided their discussion of teachers’ beliefs into three areas: (1) about language learning, (2) about learners, and (3) about themselves as language teachers. On the one hand, a number of studies have attempted to investigate the beliefs of ESL teachers through questionnaires or inventories such as Hsieh & Chang (2002); Johnson, (1992); Kern (1995); Liao & Chiang, (2003); Yang, (2000). Yang (2000) discussed prospective teachers’ beliefs in four areas: (1) general beliefs about child development, (2) general beliefs about language learning, (3) specific beliefs about teaching English to children, and (4) self-efficacy and expectations, as cited in Shinde et al. (2012, p. 73).

Research into beliefs has also shown that they are affected by contextual factors as curriculum mandates, availability of resources and the instructional setting as in Borg (2003); Crookes & Arakaki (1999); Johnson (1996). This is a reason for studying teachers’ beliefs of traditional L2 teachers and establishes a comparison from those teachers working in immersion schools, and beliefs differ among teachers of different foreign language, as cited in Kissau, Algozzine, & Yon, (2012, p. 582).

The study of teachers’ beliefs is a delicate process, in which the researcher must be clear in terms of what is the target of his/her piece of research, what is the most important about the teacher beliefs and if the information gathered is deep and representative of the real teachers’ beliefs.
3.3 Errors and Mistakes.

Errors are no longer looked at as a result of ‘no learning’, rather it is viewed as the 'outcome' of natural development’ in language learning” Sultana, (2009, p. 11). Within the context of learning and teaching English, errors and mistakes are terms commonly used to refer to the student's wrong performances in the language. It is important to make a distinction between errors from mistakes. An error is seen as resulting from learner's lack of proper grammatical knowledge and the mistake as being failed to use a known system correctly.

As Brown (2000) defined mistakes as performance error. Such mistakes are generally made by both the native speakers and second language learners. However, native speakers are generally able to correct themselves quickly. Additionally, Brown (2000) has defined linguistic errors as “a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflecting the interlanguage competence of the learner”. He cites an example Does John can sing? where a preceding do auxiliary verb has been used as an error. Such mistakes include slip of the tongue, accidental misuse of grammatical structures. On the other hand, errors are systematic, in that they occur repeatedly and are not recognizable by the learner. They are a part of the learner's interlanguage, and the learner does not generally consider them as errors (p. 207).

Thus Ellis (1997) suggested two ways to distinguish between an error and mistake. The first one is to check the consistency of learner’s performance. If a learner sometimes uses the correct form and at other times the wrong form, then it is a mistake. However if he/she always uses incorrectly, it is then an error. The second way is to ask the learner to
try to correct his/her own incorrect form, if he/she is unable to do it, that deviation is an error; if he is successful to correct it, that is a mistake.

Moreover, Brown (2001) argued that when an error occurs, teachers must decide at first whether to “treat” or to “ignore” the error learners make which is to some extent affected by their view of language; if teachers consider language as a “perfectible grammatical system”, they would correct all errors, but if they view language as a “functional communicative system”, they would focus on comprehension and meaning of learners’ utterances. Then, if treatment is called for, there are various options to be considered such as when and how to correct (p. 292).

Because of possible confusion arising from the use of this terminology, a brief review of the definitions of terms and the different types of feedback to treat errors and mistakes are going to be presented in this current study. Swain (1985), Pica (1988) and Pica, Holliday, Lewis, and Morgenhaler (1989) suggested corrective techniques, such as clarification requests, elicitation, and confirmation checks, that lead to modified output and self-repair are more likely to improve learners’ ability to monitor their output and lead to IL development.

SLA researchers also disagree about the role CF plays in L2 acquisition. Krashen (1982) called error correction “a serious mistake” (p. 74). He offered two main reasons for this view. First, “error correction has the immediate effect of putting the student on the defensive” (p. 75) with the result that the learner seeks to eliminate mistakes by avoiding the use of complex constructions. Second, error correction only assists the development of “learned knowledge” and plays no role in “acquired knowledge.”
However, Krashen felt that error correction directed at simple and portable rules such as third person –s, was of value because it would enable learners to monitor their production when the conditions allowed (i.e., the learner was focused on form and had sufficient time to access learned knowledge).

In the same way, VanPatten (1992) promulgated a similar view to Krashen’s, arguing that correcting errors in learner output has a negligible effect on the developing system of most language learners (p. 24). However, other SLA researchers, especially those working within the interactionist framework, have viewed CF as facilitative of language acquisition. Their views are reflected in VanPatten’s later position on CF. In VanPatten (2003), for example, he acknowledged that CF in the form of Ellis Corrective Feedback of negotiating for meaning can help learners notice their errors and create form-meaning connections, thus aiding acquisition. There is increasing evidence that CF can assist learning, see for example, Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, (2006); Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, (2005), and current research has switched from addressing whether CF works to examining what kind works best. Corrective feedback—whether oral or written—is an integral part of teaching. It occurs frequently in most classrooms (but not in natural learning contexts)—see Chun, Chenoweth, & Luppescu, (1982). It is addressed in all the popular handbooks for teachers. It has been the subject of a large number of empirical studies (Russell & Spada identified fifty-six studies). Yet it is not possible to form clear conclusions that can serve as the basis for informed advice to teachers. It is pertinent to ask why. The answer lies in the complexity of CF as an instructional and interactive phenomenon and as a potential tool for acquisition. This complexity has implications for how CF is handled in teacher education programs.
3.4 Guidelines for corrective feedback

Now, regarding the issues of how and when feedback is delivered, there are different views that have enriched the literature. In the case of the how, verbal teacher feedback, when privileged, is described by Cowie and Bell (1999) as “interactive formative assessment,” where teachers notice, recognize and respond to students thinking in an unplanned and spontaneous manner during teacher-student interactions within the learning process as cited in Brown et al. (2012).

Drawing broadly on both interactionist/cognitive and SCT views of CF, Ferris, would like to propose the following general guidelines for correcting learner errors. These guidelines constitute an explicit set of principles that teachers can reflect on when determining their own policy for CF.

1. Teachers should ascertain their students’ attitudes towards CF, appraise them of the value of CF, and negotiate agreed goals for CF with them. The goals are likely to vary according to the social and situational context.

2. CF (both oral and written) works and so teachers should not be afraid to correct students’ errors. This is true for both accuracy and fluency work, so CF has a place in both.

3. Focused CF is potentially more effective than unfocused CF, so teachers should identify specific linguistic targets for correction in different lessons. This will occur naturally in accuracy work based on a structure-of-the-day approach but can also be usefully applied in fluency work.
4. Teachers should ensure that learners know they are being corrected (i.e., they should not attempt to hide the corrective force of their CF moves from the learners). Whereas it will generally be clear to learners that they are being corrected in the case of written CF, it may not always be clear in the case of oral CF.

5. Teachers need to be able to implement a variety of oral C.F strategies and to adapt the specific strategies they use to the particular learner they are correcting. One way of doing this is to start with a relatively implicit form of correction (e.g., simply indicating that there is an error) and, if the learner is unable to self-correct, to move to a more explicit form (e.g., a direct correction). This requires that teachers be responsive to the “feedback” they get from learners on their own corrective feedback.

6. Oral CF can be both immediate and delayed. Teachers need to experiment with the timing of the CF.

7. Teachers need to create space following the corrective move for learners to uptake the correction. However, whether the correction is or is not appropriated should be left to the learner (i.e., the teacher should not require the learner to produce the correct form).

8. Teachers should be prepared to vary who, when, and how they correct in accordance with the cognitive and affective needs of the individual learner. In effect this means they do not need to follow a consistent set of procedures for all students.

9. Teachers should be prepared to correct a specific error on several occasions to enable the learner to achieve full self-regulation.
10. Teachers should monitor the extent to which corrective feedback causes anxiety in learners and should adapt the strategies they use to ensure that anxiety facilitates rather than debilitates. These guidelines should not be presented to teachers as mandatory but rather as a set of propositions that they can reflect on and debate. They serve as a basis for teacher development.

3.5 Taxonomies

3.5.1 Pishghadam and Kermanshahi’s taxonomy (2011) pointed out that based on the tasks and the situations in which errors occur, teachers might apply different types of correction. Nine types of correction are presented as follows:

a) Explicit/Direct: When the teacher indicates an error and supplies the correct form Brown (2007).

b) Implicit/Indirect: When the teacher points out the problem and asks the learner to correct it if possible. Richards & Schmidt (2002).

c) Self-correction: It helps learners in “pushing their output in the direction of improved accuracy” Swain (1985).

d) Peer-correction: When other learners cannot understand or when they see someone “gets stuck” Paulston & Bruder (1976).


f) Clarification request: When the learner is asked to repeat or reformulate, Brown (2007).
g) Metalinguistic feedback: When the teacher gives comments and information or asks questions, Brown (2007).


i) Repetition: When the teacher repeats what the learner had said with a change in intonation, Brown (2007).

3.5.2 Lyster and Ranta's Taxonomy (1997). Corrective feedback episodes were coded according to oral feedback types. This consists of the following six types:

1. *explicit correction*: “the explicit provision of the correct form” where the teacher “clearly indicates that what the student has said is incorrect (e.g. “Oh you mean”, “You should say”).”

2. *recasts*: “the teacher's reformulation of all or part of the student's utterance, minus the error”

3. *clarification requests*: “indicate to students either that their utterance has been misunderstood by the teacher or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way”

4. *metalinguistic feedback (MF)*: “comments, information or questions related to the well-formedness of the students' utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form.”
5. _elicitation:_ “teachers elicit completion of their own utterance by strategically pausing to allow students to fill in the blank”

6. _repetition:_ “the teacher's repetition, in isolation, of the student's erroneous utterance (usually with adjusted intonation).”

### 3.6 Oral production

One of the most important types of data for feedback research is oral production, with the utterances of both feedback provider and feedback recipient receiving attention. Considerable research has investigated the amount and types of feedback in naturally-occurring classrooms as in the case of Chaudron (1977); Ellis _et al._ (2001); Loewen (2003); Lyster and Ranta, (1997); Sheen (2004); Yoshida, (2008). Such studies have high ecological validity because they describe actual classroom discourse. However, these studies are limited in the conclusions that they can draw about the effectiveness of feedback since they do not employ measures of L2 learning.

In addition to classroom observations, researchers have also investigated the occurrence of feedback in more controlled, laboratory contexts. In this way researchers have been able to investigate feedback variables in a more systematic and intentional manner. Laboratory-based studies can be either descriptive or quasi-experimental, with the former generally involving dyads of speakers that have been chosen according to specific characteristics, such as L1, age, sex, proficiency level, etc. Researchers then can describe
the amount and types of feedback that occur given these different variables. The utterances produced in both classroom and laboratory contexts have been analyzed using several similar taxonomies that take into account all or some of the following categories: the erroneous utterance that triggers the feedback, the feedback move itself, and the optional response to the feedback. The triggers are often coded for the general types of linguistic errors they contain, whether morphological, syntactic, phonological, or lexical. The feedback moves have been coded using taxonomies that attempt to categorize every type of feedback move or that attempt to differentiate only characteristics that may influence the learning potential of the feedback.
CHAPTER 4

4.0 Methodological framework

4.1 Research Methodology

First of all, an important task to carry out is identify the study’ research design. Harwell (2011) expressed “identifying a study’s research design is important because it communicates information about key features of the study, which can differ for qualitative, quantitative and mixed approach”.

The present research study was carried out using a mixed-methods approach (MM) to describe the specific situation of the use of oral corrective feedback techniques and their results in students regarding the sample teachers’ perceptions of the study. The data collection also involved gathering both numeric information (analysis of a survey) as well as text information (focus group). It is an approach to inquiry that combines or associates both qualitative and quantitative forms of research, it involves philosophical assumptions, the use of qualitative and quantitative approaches, and the mixing of both approaches in a study Creswell (2009).

The combination of methods in research emerged as a result of the recognition that every method has limitations which can be minimized with the use of other methods. In relation to this idea, Creswell (2009, p.14) indicates “recognizing that all methods have limitations, researchers felt that biases inherent to any single method could neutralize or cancel the biases of other methods”. I consider that for my particular type of study which aims to generate findings about my research questions, an MM approach is more
appropriate than the use of a single research methodology. Quantitative and qualitative research traditions can be complementary and the combination of both approaches might add more credibility to the findings.

Quantitative evidence was collected from the Likert scale surveys applied to a group of 28 EFL teachers from different educational contexts and levels; whereas qualitative data was collected from the responses of a focus group of six teachers out of the total of 28 participants from the survey, whereas all the data collected was considered for an overall data analysis.

Bearing in mind the general objective of this research, which was to explore the perceptions used by EFL teachers in their classes about the impact of oral corrective feedback techniques to enhance students’ oral production. According to Denscombe (2010) “The use of more than one method can enhance the findings of research by providing a fuller and more complete picture of the phenomenon being studied”. Sometimes the use of a single methodology does not ensure substantial findings, for this reason a mixed-methods approach was the most suitable to work with, since the data analysis procedures include information about the different phases of analysis of qualitative and quantitative methods and the integration of findings.

4.2 Paradigms

Two paradigms are present in this research: positivism and interpretivism. They represent the best form to study and gain knowledge in this particular educational ground.
• Positivism:

Positivism is sometimes referred to as 'scientific method' or 'science research', is "based on the rationalistic, empiricist philosophy that originated with Aristotle, Francis Bacon, John Locke, August Comte, and Emmanuel Kant", Mertens (2005, p.8) and "reflects a deterministic philosophy in which causes probably determine effects or outcomes" Creswell (2003, p.7). Positivism may be applied to the social world on the assumption that "the social world can be studied in the same way as the natural world, that there is a method for studying the social world that is value free, and that explanations of a causal nature can be provided" Mertens (2005, p.8). Positivists aim to test a theory or describe an experience "through observation and measurement in order to predict and control forces that surround us" O'Leary (2004, p.5).

The Likert scale survey allows the collection of quantitative data, where the information will be discovered, measured and explained in terms of cause and effect. Likewise, this approach allows finding out an objective reality “out there” waiting to be discovered; which in this case, refers to data related to in-service teachers’ perceptions about the impact of the use of oral corrective feedback techniques on students' oral production. The emphasis is in the value-neutral stance of social researcher and his/her tools of investigation.

• Interpretivism:

The interpretivist paradigm grew out of the philosophy of Edmund Husserl's phenomenology and Wilhelm Dilthey's and other German philosophers’ study of
interpretive understanding called hermeneutics Mertens (2005, p.12) citing Eichelberger (1989). Interpretivist approaches to research have the intention of understanding "the world of human experience" Cohen & Manion, (1994, p.36), suggesting that "reality is socially constructed" Mertens (2005, p.12). The interpretivist researcher tends to rely upon the "participants' views of the situation being studied" Creswell (2003, p.8) and recognises the impact on the research of their own background and experiences.

In this case, a social phenomenon is measured; i.e., teachers’ beliefs about the most common and effective oral CF techniques; through a focus group, the emphasis was on human action. In addition, there is a concern with the socially constructed nature of reality and the multiplicity of meanings and interpretations that can be attributed to it. Teachers have different views about their cognitive processes. Thus, the interpretation of their certainties varies according to multiples internal and external parameters of social contexts and personal backgrounds. Social reality is subjective thus, the meaning to different events or circumstances are given by people rather than by existing objectively out there.

4.3 The Sample

A group of 28 EFL teachers participated in the study. They were asked to answer a Likert scale survey (see appendix C) and six teachers from the same group were selected as a sample to participate in a focus group consisting of eight specific enquiries about the same research problem in order to obtain more complete and deep data results for more details (see appendix D). The sample in this research is a non-probability, convenience sampling.
Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2007) stated that “the non-probability sample derives from the researcher targeting a particular group, in the full knowledge that it does not represent the wider population; it simply represents itself. Another characteristic of the sample is that it is a convenience sample, “which involves choosing the nearest individuals to serve as participants” (p. 113). In words of Mackey and Gass (2005), a convenience sample is the selection of individual who happen to be available for the study. According to the authors, there is an obvious disadvantage in using convenience sampling, and that is likely to be biased and should be not taken to be representative of the population. However, this type of sampling is quite common in second language research (p.122).

The participants of the present study, as stated earlier, were 28 teachers of English from the 7th and 8th region. All of them belong to a master program in a private university in the eight region of Chile. From the total sample group, 9 people were male (32 %) and 19 people were female (68 %). Their ages ranged between 24 and 56 years old. Most of them were experienced teachers with more than five years of teaching experience who are currently working at elementary (39 %), high school (43 %) and university levels (18 %).

According to Hycner (1985), phenomenology is a theoretical point of view that advocates the study of detect experience taken at face value; and one which sees behavior as determined by the phenomena of experience rather than by external, objective and physically described reality, as cited in Cohen et al. (2007, p. 22). On the one hand, Moustakas (1994) suggested, “the empirical phenomenological approach involves a return to experience in order to obtain comprehensive descriptions that provide the basis for a reflective structural analysis that portrays the essence of the experience” (p. 13). Now it is
clear that the focus in phenomenology is experience, and what can the subjects, in this case teachers, express related to a specific phenomenon from their own practice and reality.

### 4.4 Data gathering instruments

In order to collect the necessary data to conduct this investigation, the following instruments were applied: a Likert scale survey and a focus group interview.

#### 4.4.1 The Likert scale survey

Various kinds of rating scales have been developed to measure attitudes directly (i.e. the person knows their attitude is being studied). The most widely used is the Likert Scale. Likert (1932) developed the principle of measuring attitudes by asking people to respond to a series of statements about a topic, in terms of the extent to which they agree with them, and so tapping into the cognitive and affective components of attitudes.

Likert-type or frequency scales use fixed choice response formats and are designed to measure attitudes or opinions as cited in Bowling (1997); Burns, & Grove (1997). These ordinal scales measure levels of agreement/disagreement.

A Likert-type scale assumes that the strength/intensity of experience is linear, i.e. on a continuum from strongly agree to strongly disagree, and makes the assumption that attitudes can be measured. Respondents may be offered a choice of five to seven or even nine pre-coded responses with the neutral point being neither agree nor disagree.

In its final form, the Likert Scale is a five (or seven) point scale which is used to allow the individual to express how much they agree or disagree with a particular statement.
A Likert scale survey was used in order to find out about teachers’ perception of the use of oral Corrective Feedback in the EFL classrooms regarding students’ feelings and opinions. This survey was especially designed on four dimensions: students’ feelings towards error correction, students’ perceptions towards error correction, frequency in which students are corrected, teachers’ reactions towards students’ mistakes. The survey is made up of 20 statements. For complete details of the survey (See Appendix C).

4.4.2 The focus group

As an adjunct to group interviews, the use of focus groups is growing in educational research, albeit more slowly than, for instance, in business and political circles. Focus groups are a form of group interview, though not in the sense of a backwards and forwards between interviewer and group. Rather, the reliance is on the interaction within the group who discuss a topic supplied by the researcher, Morgan (1988:9). Hence the participants interact with each other rather than with the interviewer, such that the views of the participants can emerge—the participants’ rather than the researcher’s agenda can predominate. It is from the interaction of the group that the data emerge. Focus groups are contrived settings, bringing together a specifically chosen sector of the population to discuss a particular given theme or topic, where the interaction with the group leads to data and outcomes. Their contrived nature is both their strength and their weakness: they are unnatural settings yet they are very focused on a particular issue and, therefore, will yield insights that might not otherwise have been available in a straightforward interview; they are economical on time, producing a large amount of data in a short period of time, but they
tend to produce less data than interviews with the same number of individuals on a one-to-one basis.

In the current study, as stated before, six teachers from the total of the same 28 educators participating in this study were selected as a sample to participate in a focus group, since it allows to go into more depth in the information requested. The sample in this research is a non-probability, convenience sampling. For more details (See appendix D).

4.5 Limitations of the study.

Some limitations of this study were time constraints related to carry on this study due to other teachers’ professional activities, the time adjustments participants teachers might make to answer the surveys and focus group enquires since it was difficult to coordinate times when I could meet them outside of class time, especially for the focus group. Regarding the opinion from most of the respondents, another limitation was the common students’ unwillingness to participate in oral production activities due to the anxiety, embarrassment, nervousness and insecurity they might feel when speaking English in front of their peers and teacher.
CHAPTER 5

5.0 Data analysis and results.

5.1 Data analysis

The following overall data analysis attempts to display gathered information from the results of combining quantitative and qualitative methods (a mixed method approach), dealing with 20 statements from the Likert scale survey and also from the information gathered from a focus group consisting of six selected participants out of the 28 total respondents. They have to express their opinions about eight enquires about the use of oral corrective feedback techniques in the EFL classroom, regarding teachers and students’ feelings about them. This study was divided into four dimensions.

Dimension 1: “Students’ feelings towards error correction”

I- Please, rate following statements regarding your students’ feeling towards error correction in your classroom.

How do you perceive the students feel when:

Statement 1: You correct them right after the mistake is made.

Statement 2: Students are corrected by their own peers.

Statement 3: Their errors are ignored and not corrected.

Statement 4: The students are corrected at the end of their reports or responses, not at the moment when the error is made.

Statement 5: The students are corrected in private by the teacher throughout the lesson.

Statement 6: The students are corrected in front of the class all the time.
Table 1 *First dimension scores results*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Frustated</th>
<th>Bad</th>
<th>Do not care</th>
<th>Pleased</th>
<th>Comfortable</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Statement 1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement 2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement 5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement 6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1 *Students’ feelings towards error correction*

As observed in Figure 1 “*Dimension 1: Students’ feelings towards error correction*” percentages show that with respect to statement 1 “You correct them right after the mistake is made.”, most of the teachers opted for the option “Comfortable” (25%), followed by “Pleased” (21%), slightly demonstrating they believe that 7 and 6 students out of 28 feel
that they have positive attitudes towards correction soon after when they make mistakes, as one of the teachers from the focus group indicated:

“*I think that first of all we have to correct the mistake when it is made, after that it is good to do a reinforcement at the end of the class.*” *(Teacher 6).*

Regarding statement 2 “*Students are corrected by their own peers.*”, teachers opted for the option “Do not care” (36%) demonstrating that this issue is not very relevant, a neutral position, since they think that teachers are in charge of making corrections, but most of teachers agree on peer correction also helps in the process.

With respect to statement 3 “*Their errors are ignored and not corrected*”, most of the teachers selected “Do not care” (46%) showing that they perceive that students do not mind being corrected during the lessons. However, one participant from the focus group expressed:

“*Well...I believe that in general we as teachers think that students get annoyed being corrected, but in several opportunities I have asked about this issue to some groups and they request to be corrected...*” *(Teacher 2)*

Regarding statement 4 “*The students are corrected at the end of their reports or responses, not at the moment when the error is made*”, the highest percentage answered “Pleased” (43%), illustrating that most teachers think that is better for students to be
corrected at the end of their reports because they do not want to be interrupted immediately, as teacher 5 from the focus group indicated:

“*When there is a report, I think that in the end is the best moment, I personally call the group while the next group is preparing to present, in the meantime I give them immediate feedback.*” (Teacher 5)

With respect to statement 5 “*The students are corrected in private by the teacher throughout the lesson*” most teachers favored the option “Comfortable” (43%) since students sometimes feel embarrassed in front of the whole class or even get nervous or feel anxiety, following this opinion teacher 1 said:

“*If it is an activity in which one is monitoring how students interact, it is not a good idea to interrupt and correct them, but also you can take notes and at the end of their activities you can provide them with feedback individually and in private, then you can comment the most common mistakes made by most of them.*” (Teacher 1)

Considering statement 6 “*The students are corrected in front of the class all the time*” the respondents favored the alternative “Bad” (39%), demonstrating that students prefer to be corrected in private as stated in the previous statement in order to not to feel ashamed or frustrated if they make a mistake, this result can be supported with the opinion of one teacher from the focus group interview who stated:
“No, personally I believe that this produces anxiety and can be a bit noxious for the confidence that your student have in you” (Teacher 2)

Dimension 2: “Students’ perceptions towards error correction”.

II- Categorize these statements with regard to your experience on students’ perception of error.

Statement 1: Most of the students do not want to be corrected by their teachers when expressing in English.

Statement 2: Most of the students think teachers must correct every single error when speaking in English.

Statement 3: Most of the students think teachers should correct only the most important error that cause them trouble in communicating.

Statement 4: Most of the students prefer to be corrected by their peers instead of their teachers in group work activities.

Table 2 Dimension 2 scores results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Completely disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Partially agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Completely agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Statement 1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement 2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>28</td>
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<tr>
<td>Statement 3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
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<td>28</td>
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<tr>
<td>Statement 4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Figure 2 Students’ perceptions towards error correction**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Completely disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Partially Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Completely Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Statement 1</td>
<td>21,42%</td>
<td>35,71%</td>
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<td>100%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Statement 2</td>
<td>7,14%</td>
<td>28,57%</td>
<td>28,57%</td>
<td>32,14%</td>
<td>3,57%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement 3</td>
<td>10,71%</td>
<td>21,42%</td>
<td>28,57%</td>
<td>28,57%</td>
<td>10,71%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement 4</td>
<td>7,14%</td>
<td>46,42%</td>
<td>14,28%</td>
<td>7,14%</td>
<td>7,14%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As observed in figure 2: Dimension 2 “Students’ perceptions towards error correction” with respect to statement 1 “Most of the students do not want to be corrected by their teachers when expressing in English” the highest percentage of teachers favored the option “Disagree” (36%) demonstrating that there is a strong tendency to favor error correction regarding students’ perceptions which led me to the conclusion that they expect the correction from their teachers in order to improve their English, as it is reflected in the extracts shown below:
“It all depends on how the teacher makes the correction, because if it is done in an offensive way, obviously the students are going to be frustrated, but if you correct them in a fraternal way, they are going to be grateful...” (Teacher 3)

“I think that everything is going to depend on the student’s real interest in learning the language, he will not care if he is corrected, he/she is even going to appreciate it and he/she will want to be corrected...” (Teacher 1)

Regarding statement 2, “Most of the students think teachers must correct every single error when speaking in English” the tendency shows that most of the teachers selected “Agree” (32%), followed by “Partially agree” (29%) illustrating from the results of the survey that they are for correcting every single mistake, differently, a teacher from the focus group expressed that:

“In my opinion, we must correct the mistakes which are commonly repeated, but not every single mistake, only the most recurrent and important ones...” (Teacher 5)

The opinion expressed above illustrates that she agrees with Freiermuth’s (1998) suggestion about correcting according to the importance of the error.

In the case of statement 3 “Most of the students think teachers should correct only the most important error that cause them trouble in communicating”, teachers’ responses are mainly divided into the options “Agree” (29%) and “Partially agree” (29%) which demonstrate that teachers assign more importance to the communicative approach rather
than others aspects which supports Freiermuth (1997) and Hagége’s (1999) “The error must impede communication before it should be considered an error that necessitates correction.” As it is reflected in a teacher’s opinion:

“I consider that we must only correct the errors that really hinder the comprehension and legibility of the message” (Teacher 4)

Regarding statement 4 “Most of the students prefer to be corrected by their peers instead of their teachers in group work activities” most of the respondents favored the option “Disagree” (46%) since it can be inferred that they prefer to be corrected by the expert in this case the teacher instead of their peers, as stated by Paulston & Bruder’s (1976) peer correction. In contrast, they consider self-correction as more effective as one of the teachers from the focus group stated:

“...I also believe that is important help the students in order to be able to self-correct themselves so that they do not always depend on the teacher, if they are not in a formal class.”(Teacher 2)

Dimension 3: “Frequency in which students are corrected”

III- Asses the frequency in which YOU correct students in the following aspects:

From your point of view, how often do you think learners should be corrected in:

Statement 1: Pronunciation, rhythm, intonation patterns.
Statement 2: Grammar.

Statement 3: Vocabulary.

Statement 4: Idiomatic expressions.

Table 3 *Dimension 3 scores results*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Hardly ever</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>28</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>Statement 3</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement 4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>Hardly ever</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>3,57%</td>
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<td>35,71%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>35,71%</td>
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<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>32,14%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Statement 4</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>7,14%</td>
<td>42,85%</td>
<td>28,57%</td>
<td>21,42%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3 *Frequency in which students are corrected*
As it shown in figure 3: Dimension 3 “Frequency in which students are corrected” regarding statement 1 “Pronunciation, rhythm, intonation patterns” teachers’ responses are mainly divided into the options “Often” (36%) and “Sometimes” (36%) demonstrating that most of them consider that correction especially in pronunciation is relevant since they are interested in their students to pronounce properly in order to enhance their oral production, coinciding with the research question of the current study, as it is reflected in the extract shown below:

“...I would give more emphasis to the pronunciation, since if we want that the student really speaks clearly and fluently, me must do it, otherwise he/she is going to speak in an abrupt way and we want to improve that...” (Teacher 4).

With respect to statement 2 “Grammar” most teachers selected the option “Sometimes” (43%) followed by “Often” (36%), demonstrating they believe that most students want to be corrected on grammar errors. However, the tendency nowadays favors the communicative approach, in which grammar is not the core as it used to be in the past, the aim is to communicate ideas, not correcting every single mistake in this aspect, this is the main opinion from the focus group participants.

With regards to statement 3 “Vocabulary” the majority of the surveyed teachers selected the option “Always” (36%) indicating they consider vocabulary as important as pronunciation in order to enhance students’ oral production, as it is expressed by one of the teachers from the focus group:
“...Well...it depends on what you want to emphasise, if the aim is communication, for example a role play, so I am going to focus on vocabulary and pronunciation” (Teacher 1).

With respect to statement 4 “Idiomatic expressions” teachers favored the option “Sometimes” (43%) demonstrating that this is not a core issue to correct frequently, giving priority to the previous ones (Pronunciation and vocabulary).

Dimension 4: “Teachers’ reactions towards students’ mistakes”

IV. According to YOUR experience in the classroom

When a student makes a mistake, the most proper reaction is:

**Statement 1:** Do not correct the error, ignore it.

**Statement 2:** To indicate there is a mistake, but giving the opportunity to the student to correct it.

**Statement 3:** To identify the error and give the correct answer immediately.

**Statement 4:** To indicate the error and give the student the chance to correct it by himself.

**Statement 5:** To identify the error and let another student give the correct answer.

**Statement 6:** To give a complete explanation of the mistake the proper rule or pattern.
Table 4 *Dimension 4 scores results*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Completely disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Partially Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Completely Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>14</td>
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<td>28</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
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<td>11</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement 5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>28</td>
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<td>9</td>
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<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Completely disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Partially Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Completely Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
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<td>50%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>7,14%</td>
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<td>Statement 3</td>
<td>10,71%</td>
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<td>39,28%</td>
<td>25%</td>
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<td>100%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Statement 4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Statement 6</td>
<td>7,14%</td>
<td>21,42%</td>
<td>32,14%</td>
<td>32,14%</td>
<td>7,14%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4 *Teachers’ reactions towards students’ mistakes*
As observed in figure 4: Dimension 4 “Teachers’ reactions towards students’ mistakes” considering statement 1 “Do not correct the error, ignore it” most of the teachers opted for the option “Disagree” (50%) demonstrating that from their point of view the correction of mistakes is crucial to learn from their own mistakes, differently in the first dimension, statement 3 “Their errors are ignored and not corrected” the teachers’ opinions regarding students’ feelings towards error correction selected “Do not care” (46%) showing that they perceive that students do not mind being corrected during the lessons, which illustrates a controversy in both opinions, supporting the first result of this dimension a teacher from the focus group expressed:

“The students need to know in what aspects they make mistakes and we must provide them with the information so that they can corroborate their errors or mistakes and learn from them.” (Teacher 3)

With respect to statement 2 “To indicate there is a mistake, but giving the opportunity to the student to correct it” the vast majority of the teachers favored the option “Agree” (54%) demonstrating once again that Swain’s self-correction (1985) is very important to promote autonomy in the learners, as it is reflected in the extract shown below:

“…We as teachers... have to show them the way, the manner how to correct themselves, by teaching them the techniques in order to promote self-correction, and in some way they can realize their mistakes and improve.”(Teacher 4)
Regarding statement 3 “To identify the error and give the correct answer immediately” teachers favored the option “Partially agree” (39%) indicating a neutral position towards this issue. Nevertheless, most of them think that immediate feedback could cause interruption in students’ utterances or conversations in English. Similarly, in the “dimension 1: Students’ feelings towards error correction” percentages show that with respect to statement 1 “You correct them right after the mistake is made.”, most of the teachers opted for the option “Comfortable” (25%), considering students’ feelings.

With respect to statement 4 “To indicate the error and give the student the chance to correct it by himself” most of the respondents opted for the option “Agree” (46%) demonstrating once again that self-correction is very important for the learning of a language, as it is reflected in the results of the statement 2 of this dimension.

In relation to statement 5 “To identify the error and let another student give the correct answer” the participants favored the option “Partially agree” (43%), showing a neutral opinion about peer correction as it was shown by the results from the dimension 2, statement 4, in which most of the respondents favored the option “Disagree” (46%) since it can be seen that students prefer to be corrected by their teachers instead of their peers.

With regards to statement 6 “To give a complete explanation of the mistake the proper rule or pattern” teachers’ highest responses are equally divided into the options “Agree” (32%) and “Partially agree” (32%), demonstrating that Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) explicit correction is one of the most preferred CF techniques used by teachers, as a respondent from the focus group expressed:
“I think that we use most of the CF techniques, but I believe the most frequently used among teachers is the explicit correction.” (Teacher 3)

Taking into account the information above, as stated before, a mixed methods approach was used to conduct this study, where the overall data analysis was done by combining and contrasting the similarities and the most important parameters found in the results from the survey and the focus group interview, consisting of eight enquiries for which the classification of mistakes was taken from Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) taxonomy. The emphasis of this study was focused on the use of oral corrective feedback techniques used by EFL teachers and its impact on the students’ oral production. The results are going to be discussed in-depth in chapter 6 “Conclusions and Discussion”.
CHAPTER 6

6.1 Answering the research questions.

To begin with this chapter, the research question and objectives are answered and explained below.

• What are the perceptions of EFL teachers about the impact of oral corrective feedback techniques as a means to enhance students’ oral production?

The purpose of this study was guided by the main research question as shown above, according to the results collected from the surveys and focus group, by using a mixed methods analysis to explore the perceptions of EFL teachers about the impact of oral corrective feedback techniques as a means to enhance students’ oral production reveal that, as it is shown in the previous chapter, most of the students have positive attitudes towards correction soon after when they make mistakes. However, a large number of teachers think that is better for students to be corrected at the end of their reports or utterances because they do not want to be interrupted immediately. Peer correction was not an important issue as shown in the results. Teachers believe that students prefer to be corrected in private throughout the lesson in order to avoid feelings of anxiety or embarrassment. Nevertheless, several participants from the focus group think that providing feedback at the end of their presentations or lessons is an efficient way to correct mistakes individually or as a group.

The gathered information led this study to the conclusion that students expect the correction from their teachers in order to improve their English, especially in their oral skill, which is the aim of this research. Most of the participants of this study think that
teachers only have to correct the errors that really hinder the comprehension and legibility of the message. Regarding the frequency in which teachers correct pronunciation, fluency, grammar and vocabulary, their responses demonstrated that most of them consider that correction especially in pronunciation and vocabulary is relevant since they want their students to pronounce properly in order to enhance their oral production, coinciding again with this research question and the specific objectives.

In relation to the most frequently used CF techniques regarding Lyster and Ranta’s taxonomy as it was shown in the focus group interview, most of the teachers classify them in the following order: Explicit correction, recast, metalinguistic feedback, repetition, clarification requests and elicitation. It is important to highlight that they added self-correction as a commonly used strategy, in spite of not belonging in the aforementioned taxonomy.

In summary, the overall results demonstrate that the 28 teachers interviewed think that CF strategies are crucial to promote the learning of English language and to enhance students’ oral production, since they need to become aware of their mistakes, so teachers have to use the adequate technique according to the type of mistake or error, recognizing that sometimes they do not know exactly the name of the CF technique, but they did use them in their classes, unaware of their technical names.
6.2 Conclusions and Discussion

The current descriptive study showed a positive attitude of students about the provision of corrective feedback as part of the teachers’ assessment procedure. They stated in their opinions that they rely on receiving corrective feedback. As stated before, errors emerged as a variable while coding the gathered information after the survey was administered to the teachers resulting into four categories. Nevertheless, from the focus group interview responses it is recognizable that teachers showed significant awareness of errors while students are speaking. As Crystal (2008) stated errors are “mistakes in spontaneous speaking.” Moreover, Brown (2001) argued that when an error occurs, teachers must decide at first whether to “treat” or to “ignore” the error learners make which is to some extent affected by their view of language; as it is shown in the results from the survey applied. Then, if treatment is called for, there are various options to be considered such as when and how to correct as stated in the earlier chapters.

With regards to the survey results and the focus group analysis it was found out that participants were providers of oral corrective feedback during the process of oral assessment. As Brown et al. (2012) stated teachers have been responsible for giving feedback to their students and conventionally regarded as more accurate. Teachers demonstrated to be consistent in the provision of corrective feedback as part of the oral assessment procedure. As Russel and Spada (2004) pointed out corrective feedback has a positive effect on students’ performance and that there is evidence that feedback type which promote students self-correction as well as In VanPatten (2003), for example, he
acknowledged that CF in the form of Ellis Corrective Feedback of negotiating for meaning can help learners notice their errors and create form-meaning connections, thus aiding acquisition. On the other hand, the findings of the administration of the instruments reveal clearly the how and when the teachers provide corrective feedback to their students as part of the oral assessment procedure, regarding the issues of how and the frequency in which feedback is delivered, there are different views that have enriched the literature. In the case of the how, verbal teacher feedback, when privileged, is described by Cowie and Bell (1999) as “interactive formative assessment,” where teachers notice, recognize and respond to students thinking in an unplanned and spontaneous manner during teacher-student interactions within the learning process (as cited in Brown et al., 2012, p. 969).

With respect to the overall data analysis, teachers demonstrated that they actually provide corrective feedback to their students in different ways, regarding the aforementioned taxonomies and in different times (frequency) as part of the oral assessment procedure (see appendices C and D). These findings to some extent cover the objective of the study, stating that teachers deliver corrective oral corrective feedback techniques that enhance students’ oral skills. However, a further study is suggested to accomplish with the complexity of this study.

Based on the research findings some issues can be observed. Teachers are concerned about the importance of corrective feedback delivered to learners as they provide corrective feedback in the moment they believe is most appropriated for their students. Also teachers are interested in providing CF to their students so they can express orally in English without feeling stressed or nervous in a more comfortable way.
The present research study could be of great significance for the educational community and for the people who are part of it, especially for the ones in the teaching-learning field since it could be helpful in developing a better learning environment in which educators can become acquainted of the different CF techniques and when to apply them properly in order to meet their students’ needs.

Nevertheless, it is not possible to generalize about the findings in relation to the use of corrective feedback due to the number of subjects who were part of this study. The sample was not as large as it should have been since this type of study requires as many responses as possible to obtain a more precise conclusion, In consequence the results of this investigation cannot be taken as a universal truth in this field.

6.3 Recommendations

As it was mentioned above, the current investigation results are not intended to be generalizable. This piece of research considers relevant aspects related to the provision of oral correction from the teachers’ perspectives and their impact on student’s feelings and attitudes. It was an attempt to provide useful information for further studies in the field so further studies are suggested.

Here some recommendations are provided for the process of delivering corrective feedback to the students.

- Teachers should ascertain their students’ attitudes towards CF, appraise them of the value of CF, and negotiate agreed goals for CF with them. The goals are likely to vary according to the social and situational context.
• Teachers need to be able to implement a variety of oral C.F strategies and to adapt the specific strategies they use to the particular learner they are correcting. One way of doing this is to start with a relatively implicit form of correction (e.g., simply indicating that there is an error) and, if the learner is unable to self-correct, to move to a more explicit form (e.g., a direct correction). This requires that teachers be responsive to the “feedback” they get from learners on their own corrective feedback.

• Teachers need to create space following the corrective move for learners to uptake the correction. However, whether the correction is or is not appropriated should be left to the learner (self-correction).

• Teachers should be prepared to decide who, when, and how they correct in accordance with the cognitive and affective needs of the individual learner. In effect this means they do not need to follow a consistent set of procedures for all students.

• Teachers should monitor the extent to which corrective feedback causes anxiety in learners and should adapt the strategies they use to ensure that anxiety facilitates rather than debilitates.

These suggestions should not be presented to teachers as mandatory but rather as a set of propositions that they can reflect on and debate. They serve as a basis for teacher development, especially if they are introduced in English teaching training programs.
References


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Reiko Yoshida (2010) *Journal: Language Awareness Volume 17*, Issue 1, (pp 78-93)


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Appendix A

CONSENTIMIENTO INFORMADO PARA LA PARTICIPACIÓN EN INVESTIGACIÓN

El propósito de este documento es describir el objetivo del estudio y obtener su consentimiento informado como participante. Esta investigación se titula “The impact of the use of the Corrective Feedback perceived by EFL teachers on students’ oral production” y está siendo desarrollada por don Ramón Cáceres Aravena, en el contexto de su tesis de título. Este estudio tiene como objetivo principal investigar acerca de las percepciones de los docentes de Inglés con respecto al uso del feedback correctivo y su impacto en la producción oral de los estudiantes.

Se solicita su colaboración en esta investigación a través de la aplicación de esta encuesta. El tiempo de aplicación es de aproximadamente 20 minutos. La información que nos proporcione será absolutamente confidencial y se resguardará su identidad. Usted tiene la libertad de retirar su consentimiento en cualquier momento y dejar de contestar la encuesta sin ningún perjuicio para usted.

Agradecemos su disposición y tiempo para responder esta encuesta. Su colaboración es indispensable para el logro de los objetivos de esta investigación. Se firmarán dos ejemplares, de los cuales uno quedará en su poder.

Si tiene alguna duda o preocupación sobre esta investigación, favor comuníquese con la Dra. Roxana Balbontín Alvarado de la Facultad de Educación y Humanidades de la Universidad del Bío-Bío, al teléfono (42) 2463471.

En total conocimiento, otorgo mi consentimiento para:

1. Ser encuestado.
2. Permitir que la información obtenida sea compartida con fines de investigación resguardando mi identidad.

_______________________________
Nombre y firma de el/la participante

_______________________________
Ramón Cáceres Aravena.
Nombre y firma de el/la Investigador (a)

Fecha____/____/_____
CONSENTIMIENTO INFORMADO PARA LA PARTICIPACIÓN EN INVESTIGACIÓN

El propósito de este documento es describir el objetivo del estudio y obtener su consentimiento informado como participante. Esta investigación se titula “The impact of the use of the Corrective Feedback perceived by EFL teachers on students’ oral production” y está siendo desarrollada por don Ramón Cáceres Aravena, en el contexto de su tesina de título. Este estudio tiene como objetivo principal investigar acerca de las percepciones de los docentes de Inglés con respecto al uso del feedback correctivo y su impacto en la producción oral de los estudiantes.

Se solicita su colaboración en esta investigación a través de la participación en este focus group. El tiempo de aplicación es de aproximadamente 30 minutos. La información que nos proporcione será absolutamente confidencial y se resguardará su identidad. Usted tiene la libertad de retirar su consentimiento en cualquier momento y dejar de contestar la encuesta sin ningún perjuicio para usted.

Agradecemos su disposición y tiempo para participar en esta actividad. Su colaboración es indispensable para el logro de los objetivos de esta investigación. Se firmarán dos ejemplares, de los cuales uno quedará en su poder.

Si tiene alguna duda o preocupación sobre esta investigación, favor comuníquese con la Dra. Roxana Balbontín Alvarado de la Facultad de Educación y Humanidades de la Universidad del Bío-Bío, al teléfono (42) 2463471.

En total conocimiento, otorgo mi consentimiento para:

1. Participar en el Focus Group.
2. Permitir que la información obtenida sea compartida con fines de investigación resguardando mi identidad.

________________________________________________________________________

Nombre y firma de el/la participante

________________________________________________________________________

Ramón Cáceres Aravena.
Nombre y firma de el/la Investigador (a)

Fecha___/____/____
Appendix C

"Use of Oral Corrective Feedback in the EFL Classrooms" Survey for teachers.

Name: 
Institution: 
Date: 
Levels: 

Instructions: Please answer the following survey by marking with a TICK one alternative for each of the statements.

I. Please, rate the following statements regarding your students' feelings towards error correction in your classroom:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How do you perceive the students feel when:</th>
<th>Comfortable</th>
<th>Pleased</th>
<th>Do not care</th>
<th>Bad</th>
<th>Frustrated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. You correct them right after the mistake is made (interruption).</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Students are corrected by their own peers.</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Their errors are ignored and not corrected.</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The students are corrected at the end of their reports or responses, not at the moment when the error is made.</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The students are corrected in private by the teacher throughout the lesson.</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The students are corrected in front of the class all the time.</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

II. Categorize these statements with regard to YOUR experience on student's perception of error correction:

| 1. Most of the students do not want to be corrected by their teachers when expressing in English. | Completely disagree | Disagree | Partially Agree | Agree | Completely Agree |
| 2. Most of the students think teachers must correct every single error when speaking in English. | ![ ] | ![ ] | ![ ] | ![ ] | ![ ] |
| 3. Most of the students think teachers should correct only the most important errors that cause them trouble in communicating. | ![ ] | ![ ] | ![ ] | ![ ] | ![ ] |
| 4. Most of the students prefer to be corrected by their peers instead of their teachers in group work activities. | ![ ] | ![ ] | ![ ] | ![ ] | ![ ] |

Adapted from Penny Ur, TESOL, 2000.
III. Assess the frequency in which YOU correct students in the following aspects:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From your point of view, how often do you think learners should be corrected in:</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Hardly ever</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Pronunciation, rhythm, intonation patterns.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Idiomatic expressions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IV. According to YOUR experience in the classroom:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When a student makes a mistake, the most proper reaction is:</th>
<th>Completely disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Partially agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Completely Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Do not correct the error, ignore it.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. To indicate there is a mistake, but giving the opportunity to the student to correct it.</td>
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<td>3. To identify the error and give the correct answer immediately.</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
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<td>6. To give a complete explanation of the mistake and the proper rule or pattern.</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

Adapted from Perry Ux, TESOL, 2008.

“Use of Oral Corrective Feedback in the EFL Classrooms” Survey for teachers.

Name: Paulina S. Institution: Medis
Date: Nov 14
Levels:

Instructions: Please answer the following survey by marking with a TICK one alternative for each of the statements.

I. Please rate the following statements regarding your students’ feelings towards error correction in your classroom:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How do you perceive the students feel when:</th>
<th>Comfortable</th>
<th>Please</th>
<th>Do not care</th>
<th>Bad</th>
<th>Frustrated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. You correct them right after the mistake is made (interruption).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Students are corrected by their own peers.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Their errors are ignored until not corrected</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The students are corrected at the end of their reports or responses, not at the moment when the error is made.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The students are corrected in private by the teacher throughout the lesson.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The students are corrected in front of the class all the time.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

II. Categorize these statements with regard to YOUR experience on student’s perception of error correction:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Completely disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Partially Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Completely Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>1. Most of the students do not want to be corrected by their teachers when expressing in English.</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>4. Most of the students prefer to be corrected by their peers instead of their teachers in group work activities.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from Penny Ur, TESOL 2018.
III. Assess the frequency in which YOU correct students in the following aspects:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Hardly ever</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Pronunciation, rhythm, intonation patterns</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Grammar</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
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IV. According to YOUR experience in the classroom:

<table>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

Adapted from Penny, L. TESOL 2006.
Appendix D

Focus Group interview for a thesis on Oral Corrective Feedback.

1) How do you think as a teacher what students feel to be corrected when speaking English?

2) Which do you think is the best moment of the class to correct your students?

3) Do you think it is important to correct each and every single mistake that students make when expressing in English?

4) According to your experience and perception; What are the oral corrective feedback techniques more used and effective to correct students?

5) In what circumstances should a teacher use oral corrective techniques mentioned before?

6) According to your opinion; How often should a teacher correct their students on issues related to their oral production? (Pronunciation, fluency, grammar, vocabulary, etc.)

7) Do you believe that oral corrective feedback techniques help improve oral communication skills of students? Yes/No. Why?

8) Do you think it is important to use oral corrective feedback strategies as a source of learning of the students?
Appendix E

Teachers’ Survey total Results

I- Please, rate following statements regarding your students’ feeling towards error correction in your classroom.

How do you perceive the students feel when:

Statement 1: You correct them right after the mistake is made (interruption).

Statement 2: students are corrected by their own peers.

Statement 3: Their errors are ignored and not corrected.

Statement 4: The students are corrected at the end of their reports or responses, not at the moment when the error is made.

Statement 5: The students are corrected in private by the teacher throughout the lesson.

Statement 6: The students are corrected in front of the class all the time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement 1</th>
<th>Frustrated</th>
<th>Bad</th>
<th>Do not care</th>
<th>Pleased</th>
<th>Comfortable</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28</td>
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<tr>
<td>Statement 2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Statement 3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement 4</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement 6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10,71%</td>
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<td>25%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Statement 2</td>
<td>10,71%</td>
<td>14,28%</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement 3</td>
<td>3,57%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>46,42%</td>
<td>17,85%</td>
<td>7,14%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Statement 4</td>
<td>3,57%</td>
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<td>42,85%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Statement 6</td>
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II- Categorize these statements with regard to your experience on students’ perception of error.

**Statement 1:** Most of the students do not want to be corrected by their teachers when expressing in English.

**Statement 2:** Most of the students think teachers must correct every single error when speaking in English.

**Statement 3:** Most of the students think teachers should correct only the most important error that cause them trouble in communicating.

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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Completely disagree</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Statement 1</td>
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</table>

**Dimension 2: Students' perceptions towards error correction**

[Graph showing percentage distribution for Statements 7 to 10]
III- Asses the frequency in which YOU correct students in the following aspects:

From your point of view, how often do you think learners should be corrected in:

**Statement 1:** Pronunciation, rhythm, intonation patterns.

**Statement 2:** Grammar.

**Statement 3:** Vocabulary.

**Statement 4:** Idiomatic expressions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dimension 3: Frequency in which students are corrected
IV- According to YOUR experience in the classroom
When a student makes a mistake, the most proper reaction is:

Statement 1: Do not correct the error, ignore it.

Statement 2: To indicate there is a mistake, but giving the opportunity to the student to correct it.

Statement 3: To identify the error and give the correct answer immediately.

Statement 4: To indicate the error and give the student the chance to correct it by himself.

Statement 5: To identify the error and let another student give the correct answer.

Statement 6: To give a complete explanation of the mistake the proper rule or pattern.