



UNIVERSIDAD DE QUINTANA ROO

División de Ciencias Políticas y Humanidades

**EFL STUDENTS' ATTITUDES AND PREFERENCES
TOWARD CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK AT UNIVERSITY OF
QUINTANA ROO**

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Jazmín de los Santos Sánchez Burgos

Directora de Tesis
Dra. Edith Hernández Méndez

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COMITÉ

DIRECTORA

Dra. Edith Hernández Méndez

ASESORA

Dra. Caridad Macola Rojo

ASESORA

Dra. María del Rosario Reyes Cruz

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Abstract
of
**EFL STUDENTS' ATTITUDES AND PREFERENCES TOWARD CORRECTIVE
FEEDBACK AT UNIVERSITY OF QUINTANA ROO**

by
Jazmín de los s. Sánchez Burgos

This study was conducted among 119 university students of English from the University of Quintana Roo who were asked their preferences from eighteen corrective feedback correction techniques. The techniques were presented mostly in dialogue form as actually they took place in the classroom. The study showed students' positive attitudes toward corrective feedback and their preferences toward teacher correction and peers. The study concluded that these techniques provide a type of corrective feedback that encourages students to participate in the correction of their speaking errors which conducted them to acquire a foreign language successfully.

Key words: error, corrective feedback, peer correction, types of corrective feedback.

1. INTRODUCTION

Over the past years, corrective feedback has been an issue that many teachers have worried about. Each year, more and more teachers pay more attention to this topic as it has become more popular in EFL/ESL teaching and learning. It is also known that approaches have changed throughout the years and that the communicative approach has been avoiding the treatment of errors in the language classroom. Nevertheless, researchers and teachers have begun to reevaluate the role that corrective feedback plays in language teaching and learning, and most of the results and arguments seem to favor corrective feedback in EFL/ESL teaching.

English language teachers have to deal with the responsibility of correcting students' errors. This is sometimes complicated since deciding when to correct students' errors, or what techniques to use is not an easy task. Nevertheless, teachers should consider that the purpose of correction is to help students progress in their learning process rather than put them on the spot. Making errors are necessary and a natural process of language learning (Hendrickson, 1987). It has been observed that sometimes the techniques teachers use to correct students in an oral class do not meet the students' preference which bring as a consequence some negative attitudes which can make the learning process unsuccessful.

Corrective feedback is an important issue that should receive more attention during the language teaching process. In the English language program at the University of Quintana Roo it was noticed that although teachers use oral corrective feedback in class, they often do not consider what students want, which I think is very important to know to achieve a successful outcome.

Professors at the university could be using or not adequate techniques for corrective feedback in classes. But how could we know if those techniques are working for all students?

One of the skills that students should develop after finishing this major is good fluency and accuracy in speaking; in other words, to be able to use the language correctly in order to achieve good communication (Rodgers, 2001). However, sometimes students from last semesters do not have a good outcome maybe because students' errors are not treated adequately or are not treated at all. Furthermore, sometimes student's attitudes vary according to the way they are corrected and their preference toward corrective feedback's techniques could be different from the ones that the teachers use in class. For these reasons, this research investigates EFL students' attitudes and preferences toward corrective feedback at the University of Quintana Roo. Moreover, variables such as sex, age and level of English are analyzed as possible factors affecting such preferences and attitudes.

By knowing the factors that affect students' successful outcome and their attitudes and preferences toward corrective feedback, teachers could have

this information as a tool to be used in their teaching, and they would be more confident applying the adequate technique. It is important for teachers to know their learners' preferences for corrective feedback in order to maximize its potential positive effect on language development. With this study, teachers and students can benefit as the learning of the target language can be accelerated and become more efficient if they know the array of techniques, the students' preferences and attitudes towards them and the differences among themselves. It is important for Foreign Language/L2 teachers to try to understand their students attitudes if they want their students to learn.

No much research has been done in the area of Corrective Feedback in Mexico, especially at the University of Quintana Roo. This study is a good opportunity for EFL teacher educators, EFL teachers, EFL pre-service teacher and EFL language students to know about the use of CF in their teaching practice once they know the preferences about the CF techniques.

1.1 General Objective

This study aims at becoming a reference of the students' attitudes and preferences toward oral corrective feedback in EFL so that this information can be used in the teaching of English as a Foreign Language in Mexico.

1.1.1 Specific objectives

- To identify the preferences and attitudes of the students of the undergraduate English Language Program at the University of Quintana Roo toward oral classroom corrective feedback.

- To analyze the preferences and attitudes of EFL students in relation to three variables: age, gender, and course level in English.

1.1.2 Research Questions

In order to investigate the University of Quintana Roo EFL students' attitudes and preferences toward corrective feedback, the following questions are addressed:

- What are the attitudes toward teacher and peer corrective feedback among EFL students from the English teaching program at the University of Quintana Roo?
- What are the students' preferences for the different techniques of corrective feedback in the classroom?
- Do attitudes and preferences toward corrective feedback vary according to the age, gender, and English level of the students?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter a review of previous researches about corrective feedback will be presented in order to have a better understanding of the problem.

Lim (1990) carried out a research in Singapore in order to investigate the attitudes, opinions and expectations of secondary school pupils to error and corrective feedback in English language. The questionnaire used by Lim tried to investigate three issues: a) preferences for error correction, b) perceptions of the nature of errors, and c) the attitudes of learners at different exposure levels to errors and error correction. Lim's findings showed positive students' attitude toward being corrected in the classroom by peers. Her findings showed that students preferred to be corrected in first instance in grammar errors, and then vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation, organization of ideas. Punctuation errors, that make the meaning confusing is the least important. Other preferences showed by students were that they wanted to participate in the correction of their error. However, they believed that the primary responsibility for correcting errors lay on the teacher.

Oladejo (1993) conducted a similar research in which he wanted to see if the learners' preferences vary according to their level of competence in the language. He assumed that with increasing levels of competence, the preferences and desires of the learners change. His findings showed that pupils did not favor peer correction; that the relatively advanced learners' attitude to peer-correction is not exactly the same as those of the secondary school pupils, and this method of error correction might not be as successful for the advanced learners as it might be in the case of the intermediate ones. His findings showed that the majority of his students preferred to pay more attention at the moment of correcting first; organization of ideas, then

grammatical errors, vocabulary errors, pronunciation and the least priority they believed were spelling and punctuation errors. Thus, it is seen that while the secondary school pupil (Lim's study) is more concerned about grammar and less with organization of ideas, advanced learners believed the opposite. Another interesting result was that learners preferred the method in which the teacher gave them a clue or comments that would enable them to self-correct, although students most of the time wanted to be corrected by the teacher not by classmates. Oladejo concluded that "teachers' opinion and classroom practice regarding corrective feedback do not always match the perceived needs and expectations of learners; such mismatch could contribute to lack of success in language learning" (p.84).

Some years later, Lyster and Randa (1997) set up an observational study to investigate corrective feedback and learners' uptake in four French immersion classrooms at the primary level. This study examined CF from an analytic teaching strategy perspective. The purpose of this study was to determine first whether error treatment is indeed "negotiable" and, if so to what extent such pedagogical motivated negotiation occurs in a communicative classroom, and finally what moves constitute such an exchange. The data analyzed for this study consisted of 27 lessons, 18.3 hours in total. The results obtained indicated that six different corrective feedback types were observed (explicit feedback, recast, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, elicitation and repetition). The one that was irresistibly preferred by the four teachers was "recast" in spite of its ineffectiveness at eliciting

student-generated repair. In the analysis of students' uptake, it was found that 69% of recasts were followed by topic continuation; 18% of recast were immediately repaired or incorporated into students utterances and were coded as needs repair. These findings suggested the need for teachers to implement various types of metalinguistic clues, clarification request, and repetition of errors, which constitute the negotiation of form. They concluded that feedback-uptake sequence engages students more actively when there is negotiation of form, as it is in recast and explicit correction and when signals are provided to the learners that assist in the reformulation of the erroneous utterances.

Using Lyster and Randall types of corrective feedback, there was carried out in Japan a study called "Learners' perceptions toward corrective feedback" by Katayama (2007). She investigated students' attitudes toward classroom corrective feedback, their preferences toward different types of correction and their preferences toward a particular correction method. She administered a questionnaire to 588 EFL students at several Japanese universities. Katayama's findings showed that students had strongly positive attitudes toward corrective feedback because they wanted to improve their accuracy in English; they also had a positive attitude toward teacher correction and 50.6% of the students favored peer correction. One of the preferences found in this research was the correction of pragmatic errors over any other kind of error and the most favored correction technique was that in which the teacher

provides a clue to enable the student to notice the error and self-correct. Katayama concluded that certain differences appear to exist between the students' expectations and the teachers' pedagogical practice.

A similar study, but done in Costa Rica was conducted by Abarca (2008). The study sought to determine which corrective feedback technique students prefer when they are corrected orally. She used a small-scale survey which was completed by 23 beginners of English learners from the University of Costa Rica's School of Modern Languages. The data obtained from the questionnaire showed students' preferences and attitudes toward classroom corrective feedback. Students expressed positive attitude toward the correction of their errors. The findings showed that students preferred those techniques in which they are explicitly told what their errors were. They also preferred the "repetition" technique. In her findings related to peers correction, she showed that most students do not welcome corrective feedback from a peer who is more or less at his or her proficiency level. Most of the students in Abarca's research did not favor the recast technique in the classroom. They preferred the ones in which they had to think and reformulate their utterances. The research showed that students feel confident if they are clearly informed about their errors and given the opportunity to correct them immediately. Abarca concluded that error correction made by teacher is an advantage, while peer correction was not approved at all. Students believe that feedback provided by their peers might be incorrect. In this point Abarca agrees with Katayama's finding. Both studies showed a negative attitude

toward peer correction and a positive attitude toward teacher correction. Students' perception toward corrective feedback in pair work is reviewed in the following lines.

Yoshida (2008) wanted to know the perception of the students toward Corrective Feedback (CF) in pairwork. This was a case study which was focused on three learners, who worked together in pair work in two classes. The data was obtained from the second-year level course of an Australian university. The objective of this research was to examine Japanese learners' perception of CF in pair work in relation to their noticing and understanding of their partners' CF and the factors that influence it. Students were observed, audio recorded and stimulated in recall interviews following the classroom recording. The data obtained from those methods applied with the three students showed that sometimes students did not understand their partners' CF and their dissatisfaction with their interactions affected their understanding of CF; the study suggests that not only noticing corrective feedback but also understanding the real nature of errors may be important for learning. Another finding in Yoshida's study related to affective factor was that the dissatisfaction of the learners with their roles in pair work did not influence their noticing of correct forms, however, it did affect their understanding as to why their forms were incorrect. She concluded that peer correction may not be sufficiently effective when learners have not understood partners' corrective feedback.

Naeini (2008) investigated the effects of prompts (as a kind of corrective feedback) on the language learners ability specially on their writing skills. The purpose of this study was to explore the effects of form-focused instruction and the types of corrective feedback used for learning. This study was conducted in Tehran. The participants were 32 female Iranian EFL students. Naeini divided the group in two: the experimental and the control group. Naeini applied three instruments in order to explore the answer to the research question; Nelson proficiency test (two structures of *as if/as thought* and *non-defining* relative clauses were inserted), pre/post tests of writing ability (to investigate students's improvement after receiving CF) and some pictures for the learners to describe (selected forms) . All the treatment classes were audio-taped. To assure that the subjects' scores in writing pre and post test are a reliable estimate of their ability and also to explore the consistency of the scores, the inter-rater reliability of the scores was assessed through Cronbach Alpha. Furthermore, correlation of scores of the three rater was estimated by Pearson correlation through SPSS. The rater scores were significantly correlated at the 0.01 level; the inter rater reliability assessed using Cronbach's Alpha, ranged between .93-.97, and it indicates high agreement between the rater scores. In order to compare the subjects' scores in the experimental and control groups after the treatment, a T-test was applied. The T-test applied to compare the subjects' performance before and after the treatment resulted in a significant and high correlation of the

scores. The analysis of the data done through a correlation coefficient and t-test indicated the outperformance of the participants in the experimental group over the performance of the other group (control). Naeini concluded according with his findings that any kind of corrective feedback is effective. However, the language instructors might be responsive to the learners' personality and attempt to adjust their feedback kinds with the language learner. The results and statistical analysis of his study revealed the significant effects of feedback in the form of prompts on language ability. Naeini suggested that noticing the mismatch between learner utterances and target utterances can be a step toward acquisition.

Bargiel-Matusiewicz & Bargiel-Firlit (2009) investigated whether and how learners appreciate corrective feedback. Its objective was to provide qualitative data about learners' opinions; moreover, it brings some comments on errors from their own experience. This study was carried out in four secondary schools in Poland. The students were from grades first to third. An anonymous questionnaire was administered in order to obtain the data. The findings of this study showed that all students believed that making errors is something natural and unavoidable. They were aware that a lack of error is equal to a lack of progress. Another important finding was that students believed that the manner the teacher treats errors determines their attitudes toward being corrected. The study showed that learners preferred teacher correction since they believe that the teacher is the right person to

correct errors. They did not favor peer correction because they feel humiliated when a classmate corrects them. Bargiel-Matusiewicz & Bargiel-Firlit concluded that teachers should realize that students' good disposition to learn a second language depends significantly on their attitude and beliefs toward corrective feedback and FL learning in general. .

Finally, Hernandez, Murrieta & Reyes (2009) found in an exploratory study the role that corrective feedback plays in English Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms and the techniques used by five English teachers from University of Quintana Roo in Mexico. In order to obtain the data, five language instructors from the language bachelors' program at UQROO were interviewed and recorded. A semi-structured interview with 20 questions was used. Hernandez et al showed that teacher correction is the type of correction more used by the instructors, and from the techniques mostly used by teachers, they found that repetition of error, recasting, body language and metalinguistic feedback are the most commonly used. They also found that teachers from the University of Quintana Roo favor more implicit CF techniques rather than explicit ones. Hernandez et al concluded that CF in the English Language Program at UQROO plays an important role in the teaching of English as a Foreign Language as it is used frequently in the classroom and although teachers use different techniques with their students, they seem more worried about learners' feelings and emotions and are afraid of de-motivating them.

We have seen in these pages, works of research that have investigated students attitudes and preferences toward corrective feedback (Lim, 1990; Oladejo, 1993; Naeini, 2008 & Yoshida, 2008), and the factors that influence them such as the way in which teachers correct or what errors they decide that should be corrected and which ones should not; however, besides all the findings, there could be some other important variables that could be related or, in fact, could influence students' attitudes and preferences toward error correction that have not been mentioned before. These factors are the ones that distinguish one student from another, for instance, age; gender and English level were taking into account in this study. This topic has not been explored before at the University of Quintana Roo (UQROO) in Mexico yet, and that is a concern in the present study.

3. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Some important concepts

3.1.1 Error vs. mistake

First of all, it is very important in this study to make a distinction between "error" and "mistake". Richard et al. (1985) defined an error as "the use of the linguistic item in a way in which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning" (in Yao, 2000, p.30). Lee (1990) makes a distinction between *mistake* and *error* assuming that "errors" arise because the correct form or use of a target item is not part of a speaker or writer's competence, whereas "mistakes" arise (for diverse reasons such

as fatigue, stress, inattention, etc.) even though the correct form or use is a part of the user's competence.

In this study the term of "error" presented by Lee (1990) will be taken into account. Once it is known the definition of error, it is important to make a classification of them. In the following subchapter the classification of types of error is presented.

3.1.2 Classification of Types of Errors

Errors have been categorized according to Mackey *et al.* (2000) and Nishita (2004) (cited by Yoshida, 2008) as following:

1. *Morphosyntactic error.* This kind of error commonly happens when students incorrectly use items such as word order, tense, conjugation and particles.
2. *Phonological error:* It refers to mispronunciation of words
3. *Lexical error.* It is when the learners use inappropriate vocabulary or they switch to L1 due to a lack of lexical knowledge.
4. *Semantic error.* This kind of error occurs when learner's utterance are misunderstood by the teacher, even though there are not any grammatical, lexical or phonological errors.

Another classification was made by researchers in the field of Foreign and Second Language instruction. Hendrickson (1978, cited by Yao, 2000), further subdivides errors into five linguistic categories:

1. *Lexicon* (omission or misused of certain words such as noun, verb, article, adjective, adverb, etc.).
2. Syntax (the wrong use of modals, prepositions, conjunctions, sentences connectors, etc.).
3. Morphology (the admissible arrangement of sounds in words).
4. Orthography (omission, addition, substitution, etc.).
5. Phonology (mispronunciation and non-standard intonation patterns).

In the present study, errors were classified, following Mackey *et al.* (2000) and Nishita (2004) (cited by Yoshida, 2008), as morphosyntactic error, phonological error, lexical error and semantic error.

Once we know the definition of errors and the classification of them, now we turn to the definition of corrective feedback which, according to Bienes (2010), it is an indispensable teaching strategy for second language acquisition.

3.1.3 Corrective feedback

Many Second and Foreign Language teachers deal with the issue of corrective feedback which is also known as “error correction” “negative evidence”, “negative feedback” (Leki, 1991; Schulz, 1996) and “corrective feedback”, however, the use of them varies. According to Schachter (1991 cited by Tatawi no date) who mentioned that negative evidence is used in the field of language acquisition while corrective feedback is used in language

teaching. The term used in the present paper is *corrective feedback* which is defined by Lightbown and Spada (1999) as follows:

“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”. (p.171-172)

This definition refers to explicit and implicit correction that is very important in the area of corrective feedback and it is necessary to make a clarification about both terms. According to Schachter (1991), correction can be explicit and explicit. The former refers a grammatical explanation, when the teacher clearly lets the learners know an error has been made and then explain them the reason of the error. Thus, there is a moment during the conversation when the teacher focuses his attention on form/grammar as the students' thought process is redirected to focus on the error made. On the other hand, with implicit correction, there is less of interference and the student can continue with the conversation without any interruption (Long, 1996) so if the teacher wishes to correct students without obstructing the conversation flow he/she could use implicit correction. Nevertheless, if a teacher is more concerned with the correct grammar form, he/she may prefer explicit form of correction to make sure that his/her students are aware of the correct form needed. Some second language researchers believe that although implicit

feedback is the best way to ensure the continuation of a communication, it is not always appreciated by students as an attempt at correction since it is much more subtle in nature in comparison to explicit feedback (Lyster and Ranta, 1997).

Keeping in mind the definition of corrective feedback, explicit and implicit correction, the following section is about the participants that are involved in the correction of the speaking error.

3.1.4 Participants in the corrective feedback

Taking into account the corrective feedback interaction that it is seen in an EFL classroom, some possibilities are presented below:

3.1.4.1 Self-correction

It refers to the technique in which the students are aware of the error that is committed and make an immediate repair by themselves. This kind of technique allows students to participate directly in the correction of their errors. (Murray & Zybert, 1999 cited in Kamilla Bargie I-Matusiewicz, 2009).

3.1.4.2 Peer correction

It refers to a classroom technique in which learners correct one another instead of the teacher. In the classroom this is a useful technique because learners feel less intimidated when they are helped by classmates. However, some students are resistant to being corrected by peers (Council, no date).

Peer correction does not make errors a public affair, which protects the learners' ego and increases their self-confidence. (Higgins 1987)

3.1.4.3 Teacher-correction

It refers to the correction of the errors by the teacher. Most of the students say that the person who has to correct the errors should be the teacher. Students trust what teachers say, respect his place as a fluent speaker of English. Teacher correction also allows students to deal with the error using the best technique and in a sensitive way (using corrective feedback to embarrass students or make students feel uncomfortable with the correction of their error is not the right thing to do). (Davies, 2009)

In the following pages the definition of types of corrective feedback and some examples are presented.

3.1.5. Types of corrective feedback

3.1.5.1 Explicit correction

According to Lyster and Randa (1997), *explicit correction* refers to the "explicit provision of the correct form" (p. 46). In this type of corrective feedback, teachers not only give students the correct form but also they clearly indicate that what the student had said was incorrect (e.g. "Oh, you mean," "You should say").

e. g. (1) S: She has *a black hair.

T: The word "hair" doesn't need an article in this case.

S: She has black hair.

3.1.5.2 Recast

It involves the teacher's "reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error" (pg. 46). Spada and Fröhlich (1995) also termed this technique as "paraphrase". Lyster and Randa (1997) point that this technique is generally implicit as is not introduced by phrases such as "You mean," "Use this word," and "You should say". It also allows translation (response) when students use L1 (Lyster and Randa, 1997)

S: I have hungry

T: I...hungry

S: I am hungry

3.1.5.3 Clarification request

In this technique, according to Spada and Fröhlich (1995), the teacher indicates students that their "utterance has been misunderstood by the teacher and that a repetition or a reformulation is required" (p. 25). Some of the phases included in clarification request are "Pardon me" or "What do you mean by X?" (Lyster and Randa, 1997)

e. g. (1) T: How old are you?

S: I *have 20 years old.

T: How old are you?

S: I am 20 years old.

3.1.5.4 Metalinguistic feedback

This corrective feedback technique contains "comments, information, or questions relating to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form" (p.47). Metalinguistic comments generally indicate that there is an error somewhere or provides some

grammatical metalanguage that refers to the nature of the error. This type of feedback has also been referred to as *metalinguistic clue* in a later research (Lyster, 2004).

e. g. S: Drinking too much is good for your health.

T: Is it good?

S: I mean; it's bad.

3.1.5.5 Elicitation

According to Lyster (1997), this type of corrective feedback refers to at least three techniques that teachers use in the classroom. The first one, elicit completion in which teacher strategically draws students into their error by asking them "fill in the blank" making students to reformulate the erroneous segment (elicit reformulation). It is preceded by metalinguistic comments such as "No, not that. It's a _____" Lyster and Ranta also indicated that elicitations can take the form of questions which prompt students to elicit the correct form (i.e. Can you say that in English?).

e. g. (1) S: She wrote an interesting *history.

T: She wrote an interesting ... ("interesting" precedes the error)

S: Story

3.1.5.6 Repetition of error

This technique of corrective feedback involves the repetition of the learners' utterances emphasizing the erroneous part of the utterance. (Lyster and Randa, 1997)

e. g. (1) S: He had *stole a lot of Money.

T: Stole? (emphasis)

S: Stolen.

3.1.5.7 Interruption

Interruption refers to the teachers' jumping in to correct students' error in the middle of their utterances without giving the students the chance to finish their utterance. (Yao, 2000)

e. g. T: What is your Schedule?

S: My sche...sche...

T: Schedule .

S: Schedule.

3.1.5.8 Body Language

In this technique teachers do not use oral response. Instead he uses facial expression or body movement to indicate students that an error has been made or what he/she said was incorrect; frown, head shaking, and others were observed. (Yao, 2000).

e. g. (1) S: I *go to the beach last Friday.

T: (moving the hand to the back to indicate the past)

S: I went to the beach last Friday.

After presenting the different corrective feedback types that teachers use in the classroom, it is necessary to define "attitude" which is one of the most important variables in this study. The attitude that our students have toward the correction of their errors plays an important role in Language Teaching. That is why attitude is brought up in the following lines.

3.1.6 Attitudes

According to Bogardus (1931), “an attitude is a tendency to act toward or against some environmental factor which becomes thereby a positive or negative value (p.52)”. This definition points out that an attitude results in positive or negative behavior. Many researchers (Yao, 2000; Brown, 2007; Yoshida, 2008 & Abarca 2001) have analyzed attitudes into “positive and negative”. Brown (2007) claims that “teacher needs to be aware that everyone has both positive and negative attitudes” (p.193).

Attitudes toward errors have changed over the years. An error is always a transgression, a deviation or an incorrect use of a norm which can be not only linguistic but also cultural, pragmatic and other variations (Blanco, 2008; my translation). However, students’ attitudes toward errors depend on how the students conceive the acquisition of a language. Someone can say that there exists a direct relationship between errors and acquisition. As Corder (1967) noted: “A learner’s errors...are significant in [that] they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in the discovery of the language” (p.167).

One of the considerations for corrective feedback is students’ attitudes, which could depend on the variation of teachers’ corrective feedback techniques according to the students’ need and the way in which they use them (Ellis, 2009). Attitude and preference could be useful tools for teachers to know which

type of corrective feedback should be best used in order to improve their students' oral skill without making them lose self-confidence and enthusiasm when they are producing speaking (Allwright & Bailey, 1991).

It is very important to know and understand learners before correcting errors.

Parrino (1997) says:

"If we teachers want to know how to determine when and how to correct, we would find it in our best interest to spend the first few weeks of a course getting to know what our students thoughts and feelings and expectations for themselves". (p.11)

In the affective filter hypothesis, Krashen (1982) declares that second language learners only use comprehensible input when they do not have a "mental block" (affective filter) blocking him. Krashen includes learner's motivation, needs, attitudes and emotional states by "affective filter". In other words, learners are not being able to utilize comprehensive input that is necessary for SL learners if their attitudes toward the target language, the teacher, the peers, or the target culture are negative (Yao, 2000). The affective filter also determines the speed of the SL acquisition process; in other words, how fast a second language is acquired (Lalleman 1996). Brown (2007) claims that "human beings are emotional creatures". "At the heart of all thought and meaning and action is emotional". As "Intellectuals" as we would like to think we are, we are influenced by our emotions" (p.68). According to Brown (2007), learner attitudes is one of the factors in the affective domain and he says that "any affective factor can conceivably be relevant to second language learning" (p.69).

Therefore, it is very important for FL/SL teachers to understand their students' attitudes if they really want their students to learn. They should also take students' attitudes into consideration at the moment of correcting errors.

3.1.7 Theories of Language Acquisition

In this section a description of the theories of Second Language Acquisition is presented together with the role that corrective feedback plays in some teaching approaches and methods derived from such theories. It is very important to mention that every theory and approach has a different perspective or view about corrective feedback.

3.1.7.1 Behaviorism Theory

The main proponent of this theory was B.F. Skinner. Behaviorism is described as a developmental theory that assesses observable behaviors produced by students' response to stimuli. Learner's responses to stimuli can be reinforced with positive or negative feedback to condition desired behaviors. Punishment is sometimes used in eliminating or reducing incorrect actions, followed by clarifying desired actions. "Educational effects of behaviorism are a key in developing basic skills and foundations of understanding in all subject areas and in classroom management". (Skinner, 1957)

Skinner (1957) in his Verbal Behavior declared:

"The basic processes and relations which give verbal behavior its special characteristics are now fairly well understood. Much of the experimental work responsible for this advance has been carried out on other species, but the results

have proved to be surprisingly free of species restrictions. Recent work has shown that the methods can be extended to human behavior without serious modifications." (p. 68)

Skinner proposes that children imitate the language from their parents or people who take care of them. Successful attempts made by children are rewarded, giving children what they are asking for or just praising them, thus successful utterances are reinforced while unsuccessful ones are forgotten (Brown, 2007). Children fortify their responses by the repetitions, corrections, and other reactions that adults provide, thus language is practice based. Behaviorists view the external environment as the principal determinant factor in behavior (Hall, no date).

3.1.7.2 Nativism Theory

Nativism proposes that human beings possess an implied capacity for learning a language (Ellis, 1990). Language acquisition is "a partly biologically predetermined process, and is a separate mental activity, which is in many respects different from other mental activities" (Lalleman, 1996, p.52; cited in Yao, 2000) not a process of external behaviors as Behaviorism claimed. Chomsky (1975), who was known as the main exponent of this theory, affirms that corrective feedback hardly plays any role in the acquisition process of a language. For the nativists, Universal Grammar (UG), "the system of principles, conditions and rules that are elements of properties of all human languages" (p.29) is what makes acquisition possible. Some researchers (White, 2003; Mitchell & Myles, 1999; Cook, 1993) assume that "all human

beings are genetically equipped with abilities that enable them to acquire a language” (Brown, 2007; p.29). According to Nativism, grammar errors are not corrected as adults only correct the truth and meaning of children’s utterances and they try to correct syntax and phonology does not have any cause in the language development of the children.

A nativist, Krashen (1981, 1982) made an important contribution to SL theory (Nativism) with his Monitor Model. Five hypotheses constitute what Krashen originally called the “monitor model” (Lightbown, 2006):

(1) The acquisition learning hypothesis, in which Krashen makes a comparison between acquisition and learning. In the former, he assumed that students acquire a second language as the first one – with no conscious attention to language form. The latter, on the other hand assumes that students learn via conscious process of study and attention to form and rule learning.

(2)The monitor hypothesis postulates that the acquired system acts only as an editor or monitor, making minor changes and polishing what the acquired system has produced.

(3) The natural order hypothesis proclaims that learners acquire grammatical forms and structures in a difficult order that cannot be altered by instruction.

(4)The input hypothesis, Krashen assumes that one acquires a language in only one way, which means to be exposed to comprehensive input. If the

input contains forms and structures just beyond the learner's current level of competence in the language ("i+1"), then both comprehension and acquisition will occur.

(5)The affective filter hypothesis states that anxiety can increase a learner's affective filter which delays fluency in the L2.

Learner's error should not be corrected when the goal is acquisition but should be corrected when the goal is learning. Corrective feedback does not have any role in acquisition since it only occurs as a result of the learning processing comprehensive input, although it can help the student to learn a simple rule. Nevertheless, given that the main goal of teaching is acquisition, the focus ought to be on meaning instead of form so corrective feedback is generally to be avoided (Ellis, 1990). For Krashen, corrective feedback has a low effect on second language acquisition as it does on L1 language acquisition.

3.1.7.3 Cognitive Theory

In this theory, the acquisition of the language is an internal mental learning process, not as Nativism claims that learners have an innate capacity to acquire a language, not an external habit formation as behaviorists have claimed. All linguistic knowledge is learned; the mental processes that play a role in language learning are thought to be the same as those that play a role in learning other complex cognitive skills (Lalleman, 1996).

Good and Brophy (1990) state that:

"Cognitive theorists recognize that much learning involves associations established through contiguity and repetition. They also acknowledge the importance of reinforcement, although they stress its role in providing feedback about the correctness of responses over its role as a motivator. However, even while accepting such behaviorist concepts, cognitive theorists view learning as involving the acquisition or reorganization of the cognitive structures through which humans process and store information." (p. 187).

In contrast with Nativism, Ellis argues that "comprehension alone does not lead to acquisition" (cited in Salazar, n.d., p.5). Furthermore, there are indications that exposure and input alone might not be sufficient for high-quality L2 learning and corrective feedback plays a beneficial role in facilitating the acquisition of certain L2 forms which may be difficult to learn through input alone (Ammar & Spada, 2006).

Long (1996, 1998) proposes that noticing and the learner's developing L2 processing capacity play a fundamental role in the negotiation of meaning. Moreover, he expresses in the Interactive Hypothesis that "negative feedback (corrective feedback) obtained during negotiation work or elsewhere maybe facilitate L2 development, at least for vocabulary, morphology and language-specific syntax, and essential for learning certain specifiable L1-L2 contrasts " (cited in Yao, 2000, p.6) .

Mackey (2006) associates attention and awareness as two cognitive processes that negotiate input and L2 development through interaction.

Schmidt's (1990, 1995, 2001) assumed that noticing is a requisite for learning. For that reason he suggested that students must consciously pay attention to or notice input in order to L2 proceed. Those who are adhering to the Noticing hypothesis view corrective feedback as precious. (Ellis, 1990; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Schmidt, 1990, 1995, 2001). Richard Schmidt is one theorist who has emphasized the role of "noticing" in second language acquisition. He assumed that "everything we come to know about the language was first to 'notice' consciously" (p.41). Oller (1986) assumes that correct affective and cognitive feedback can bring a positive change in a learner's interlanguage and be a preventative measure against fossilization. (Cited in Allwring and Bailey, 1991).

3.1.7.4 Sociocultural Theory

Recently, researchers have examined the role that corrective feedback plays in the **Sociocultural Theory (SCT)**, which assumed that acquisition occurs in interaction rather than as a result of interaction. In other words, interaction between learners and other people has to occur to acquire a L2. Zone of proximal development (ZPD) was constructed in order to explain corrective feedback. Vygotsky formulated the concept of ZPD which is defined as "the distance between a child's actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the higher level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Wertsch, p.60; cited by Choul, 2008). Corrective feedback episodes are viewed as a stadium for studying how interaction

mediates learning through the construction of ZPDs. (Ellis, 2009). Thus ZPD lie in the skills that students can develop with the help of others, but this is just a period before going to another stage that consists in the ability of the learner to do something himself. This theory has been applied to corrective feedback mainly in writing work (Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994; Nassaji and Swain, 2000; and Hyland, 2000 cited by Ellis, 2009).

This study was focused in the cognitive theory which seeks to identify the CF strategies that are most effective in promoting the internal processes responsible for acquisition.

3.1.8 The role of corrective feedback in the different approaches and methods of language teaching

3.1.8.1 Audiolingual Method

Audiolingual which is based on the Behaviorism learning theory favors corrective feedback. It had its origins during World War II; during that period Audiolingualists believed that language was a set of habits which consisted of the ability to produce automatically a response determinate (stimulus-response). The correct use of the language would receive positive feedback while incorrect use of that would receive negative feedback. Further, teachers say some words as “good”, “well done” to reward their students and pay students compliments when they perform well and some techniques to treat corrective feedback. For Audiolingualists when an error is made,

teachers had to provide immediate corrective feedback in order to avoid bad habits. Skinner (1957) proclaimed that “untreated errors would lead to fossilization and therefore required rigid and immediate correction if bad habits were to be avoided” (cited in Shaun, 2006). Although this is an old approach, it is still used in some language classroom nowadays.

3.1.8.2 Natural Approach

Krashen and Terrell (1983) prohibited corrective feedback, since they believed that it had no place in a Natural Approach to learning a language which should be developed in the same way as children learn their first language. Terrell created the Natural Approach which points the communicative competence over the accomplishment of a perfect grammar. As a result, teachers never correct students’ errors or show grammar in an explicitly way.

3.1.8.3 Communicative Language Teaching

As communicative approaches achieved a huge prosperity, fluency and expressions of meaning have been very important almost to the point of denying the necessity of treating learners errors in the classroom. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) points to meaning over form so that as a consequence, grammar correction is not important at all. (Hernandez, E., Murrieta, G. & Reyes R., 2010, Omagio, 2001).

CLT had dominated L2 classrooms since the 1980s and it is still used nowadays in many second and foreign language classrooms. As the Communicative Approach came into vogue, a common position was that

errors were not important as long as they did not affect communication (Littlewood, 1981). Long (1977) suggested that to provide much corrective feedback is erratic, ambiguous, ill-timed and ineffective. Truscott (1998) maintained that corrective feedback is ineffective and even harmful. (cited in Shaun, 2006). At the same time that CLT emerged some other communicative approaches such as the Natural Approach point out the importance of a silent period in the early stage of acquisition. The communication with people who speak the target language is the main goal defended by the communicative approach (Yao, 2000). Therefore, the necessity for a large number of communicative practice downplays the role of explicit focus on form and corrective feedback since fluency is emphasized over accuracy in form.

Corrective feedback have played a different role in the theories and approaches during the past of the years. Some of the theories see CF beneficial while others try to avoid it. Fortunately, some researchers have reevaluated the role of CF in the field of Second Language acquisition and it has been took into account again. Researchers investigating the role of corrective feedback in SLA have made remarkable progress in the last two decades, particularly in the 90s (el Tatawy, no date). As progress is made, and as the questions become more complex, more sophisticated methods will need to be developed.

4. METHODOLOGY

The type of research used to carry out this study and the research design is described in the following lines.

4.1 Type of research

The type of research used in this study is quantitative which is defined according to Creswell (1994) as a type of research that is explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analyzed using mathematically based methods (in particular statistics).

4.2.- Research design

The research design adopted in this study is descriptive research design. Descriptive research can be either quantitative or qualitative. It can involve collections of quantitative information that can be tabulated along a continuum in numerical form, such as scores on a test or the number of times a person chooses to use a certain feature of multimedia program. Descriptive research involves gathering data that describe events and then organize, tabulates, depicts, and describes the data collection (Glass & Hopping, 1984). This kind of research design was used in order to find out the participants attitude and preferences toward corrective feedback.

According to AECT (2001) a descriptive research does not fit neatly into the definition of either quantitative or qualitative research methodologies, but

instead it can utilize elements of both; in this study quantitative data was used.

4.3. Research Site

The research site for the present study was the University of Quintana Roo (UQROO), a young university located in the southeast Mexico, in the state of Quintana Roo. UQROO is one of the most prestigious public universities in the state. The University offers higher education options such as: Social Anthropology, Law, Economy and Finances, Nursing, Pharmacy, Medicine, Humanities, Environmental Engineering, Network Engineering, International Affairs, Natural Resources Management, Public Safety, Commercial Systems, Alternative Tourism, and one of the most sought is the English Language program whose main purpose is to prepare students to become English Foreign Language teachers. Courses relevant to an English proficiency are provided from the first semester to the last semester. The program consists of ten semesters which are mandatory to every student.

Mathematics, Logics, Psychology, Research Methodology in Social and Humanity Sciences, Spanish Reading and Writing are taught in the first semester as general subjects for all the majors that UQROO offers. Therefore, English is not required during this period. Nevertheless, in the following semesters, from second to ninth, English is taught as the main subject. Lastly, to achieve the purpose of preparing students for becoming English Foreign Language teachers, the department offers courses such as

English, Teaching Materials & Methods, Research methodology, and Teaching Practicum.

4.4. Participants

A total of 119 students from the English Language Major (ELM) at the University of Quintana Roo were included in the present study. The group was composed by 44 males and 75 females who were taking English I, III, V and VII in the ELM during the spring course of 2010. Of these students, 116 were taking the course as a requirement for the English as a Foreign Language major, 2 students were taking the class to obtain credits and 1 student needed the course for his job.

A total of 23 were from advanced level (English VII); 20 from an intermediate level (English V), 26 from a pre- intermediate level (English III) and 50 from basic level (English I). All the participants were Mexican. Students were from 18 to 29 years old; English Level presented above is the equivalence in “Centro de Idiomas” (CEI) from UQROO (basic to English I, intermediate to English III, Post-intermediate to English V and advance to English VII). Table 1 provides general information about the students.

Total number of participants	119
Average Age	21
Gender	75 females (63%) 44 males (37%)
English Level	50 English I 26 English III 20 English V 23 English VII
Taking the English course as:	
Requirement	97%
Work	1 %

Other	2 %
Based on 119 participants	

Table 1.-Students' General Information

4.5. Instrument

This study employed a questionnaire developed by Abarca (2008; See appendix A). The questionnaire consists of two parts. In the first part, the students had to answer five questions in which they had to write their comments on some aspects related to oral corrective feedback in class. In the second part of the questionnaire, the students were presented with 18 different correction techniques, illustrated by a dialogue that included the teacher-student, student-teacher, teacher-student-student interaction in which an error took place. In order to show their preferences for these techniques, the students were asked to circle the letter (A) if they strongly agreed with the situation, (B) if they agreed with the situation, (C) if they were neutral about the situation, (D) if they disagreed, and (E) if they strongly disagreed with the situation.

A few changes in the personal information were done since it was necessary to add some items such as age and English level as there were important variables in this study. Furthermore, in the second part of the questionnaire, the order was changed, first the example was given and then the options. Learners had to choose within a Likert scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The change was made in order to force the students to pay more attention to examples.

4.5 Procedures

4.5.1 Piloting

The questionnaire was administered to the students by the researcher in their classrooms. Before students answered the questionnaire, they were informed that their answers were used only for research purposes and their answers were anonymous. Also, the student participants were informed that they should fill all the questions out. The students were asked to read the general instructions in order to understand what it was about. Two groups were chosen from the “Centro de idiomas” (CEI) for the piloting. The groups were 19 from basic (12 females and 4 males) and 13 from post intermediated (8 females and 5 males); 29 in total. Those levels were chosen since this study tries to discover if the proficiency level (English Level) affects the attitudes and preferences toward corrective feedback, and also because students’ age vary from one group to another (another important variable in this study). The questionnaire took around 20 minutes. The questionnaire was presented in Spanish, as the original, in order to be clear enough by all the students. The questionnaire was presented in both levels and then analyzed. Once the answers were checked, few adaptations were done in order to apply it to students from different English Levels form the English Language major in the University of Quintana Roo. Two questions from the original questionnaire were removed because there were not considered corrective feedback techniques.

This questionnaire was selected since the data obtained from it will be considered relevant for this study; also because the cost was low and the time to apply it was reasonable. The instrument was reliable since it was already applied by Abarca in Costa Rica successfully and also because two specialists validated the questionnaire before the application.

Data analysis

The collected data were analyzed in order to answer three research questions: (1) What are the attitudes toward teacher and peer corrective feedback among EFL students from the English teaching program at the University of Quintana Roo? (2) What are the students' preferences for the different techniques of corrective feedback in classroom? (3) Do attitudes and preferences toward corrective feedback students vary according to age, gender, English level?

In order to answer the first research question, the first five questions of the questionnaire were used (see appendix A). Quantitative results were obtained from the 18 techniques presented in second part of the questionnaire which was analyzed with the *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS)*. Descriptive statistics were made in order to obtain the average and standard deviation from the data as well as some crosstabs and ANOVA with variables such as gender; age and English proficiency. In scoring the questionnaire on

preferences for corrective feedback, the data were simplified by reducing the 5-point scale used to elicit responses (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree) into a 3-point scale (strongly agree/ agree, neutral, disagree/ strongly disagree) in order to manage the data better.

Once the instrument was clear enough and a detailed explanation was provided of the steps taken to implement this study. It is convenient to make a review of the results. The following chapter will provide extensive analysis of the data gathered from the instrument.

5.-FINDINGS

This chapter will provide the responses of the three research questions. The first research question presented in this study dealt with students' attitudes toward teacher and peer correction. The first five questions of the questionnaire given to the students were useful to give answer to the first research question (which appears below). The answers to the questions are broken down in the following lines.

5.1 What are the attitudes and preferences toward teacher and peer corrective feedback among EFL students from the English teaching bachelors' program at the University of Quintana Roo?

Students were asked to select either 'yes' or no' (*Do you agree with teacher correction? Yes-No, Why?/¿Está usted de acuerdo con que el profesor corrija sus errores?*) *Sí-No, ¿Por qué?*). The following table shows the responses of the participants. The number in parenthesis indicates the number of students that repeat the statement.

English Class	Women's answers	Men's answers
English I	<p>"Ayuda a mejorar el aprendizaje". (7) "Para no volver a cometer errores". (6) "Para mejorar pronunciación". (5) "Ayuda a saber en que esta mal y lo corrige". (2) "Porque aprendo el uso correcto del idioma". (2) "Ayuda a la pronunciación y escritura". (2) "Para aprender de los errores gramaticales". "Porque es su trabajo y para aprender". "Ayuda a saber en que está mal y lo corrige". "Mejora lo aprendido". "Mejora el vocabulario".</p>	<p>"Ayuda a mejorar el aprendizaje". (10) "Para mejorar pronunciación". (6) "Para no volver a cometer el mismo error". (3) "Ayuda a la pronunciación y escritura". (3) "Darse cuenta del error y mejorar pronunciación".(2) "Mejora el vocabulario". "Es necesario". "Es el que sabe".</p>
English III	<p>"Para no volver a cometer errores". (4) "Ayuda a mejorar el aprendizaje". (3) "Ayuda a saber en que está mal y lo corrige". (4) "Ayuda a la pronunciación y escritura"</p>	<p>"Para no volver a cometer errores". (5) "Para darse cuenta de los errores y corregir". (4) "Ayuda a mejorar el aprendizaje".(3) "Mejora el vocabulario".</p>
English V	<p>"Para mejorar en la pronunciación". (6) "Ayuda a mejorar el aprendizaje del ingles". (6) "De esta manera corrijo mi error". (3)</p>	<p>"Para darse cuenta de los errores". (3) "Ayuda a mejorar mi nivel de inglés". (3)</p>
English VII	<p>"Porque así aprendo y mejoro". (8) "Porque así mejoro mi pronunciación". (3) "Es una forma de crecer en el conocimiento". "Porque es muy importante en mi desarrollo". "Porque es necesario".</p>	<p>"Es su deber y nos ayuda a mejorar". (3) "Es el que debe corregir en el salón". "Por que incrementa mi conocimiento".</p>

Although their responses vary a little; all the responses were positive. As we can clearly see on the table presented above, students from English I and V agreed with teacher correction because they want to "improve their pronunciation"/ "Para mejorar mi pronunciación" in addition students from English I believe that teacher correction helps them to improve their learning/ "Ayuda a mejorar el aprendizaje". On the other hand, students from English III welcome teacher correction because they do not want to repeat errors/

“Para no volver a cometer errors”., Both women and men agree with this statement.

Participants in this study showed a favorable attitude toward teacher correction. Most of the participants assumed that teacher correction is helpful and it is part of the teacher’s job. The positive attitudes showed in this study are similar to those found in Bargiel-Matusiewicz & Bargiel-Firlit (2009), where 65% of the student participants would like their teachers to correct them when they make an error when speaking. In both, teachers were seen as the salient person to correct students’ errors.

Students find corrective feedback necessary and helpful for learning a foreign language for different reasons. *To be aware of their errors and correct them* is one of the justification that they mentioned. This response coincides with what Hendrickson (1978) emphasized: “when students are not able to recognize their own errors, they need the assistance of “someone” more proficient in the language than they are” (p.389). In the EFL (English as a Foreign Language) classroom “someone” is equal to the teacher because students always see him as the one who is proficient in the language, so this may be the main reason why students prefer teacher correction in the first place. Allwright & Bailey (1991) point out that “one way of viewing instruction is that it is the teacher’s job to help learners”. Schmidt (1990) summarizes recent psychological research and theory on the role of consciousness in SL (Second Language) learning and concludes that “noticing is the necessary

and sufficient condition for converting input to intake” (p.129). By “noticing” Schmidt refers to one of the three levels of awareness: perception, noticing and understanding, which in turn is the basis for consciousness to operate.

Regarding peer correction, the following table displays the responses of the participants.

English Class	Women’s answers	Men’s answers
English I	<p>“Porque así todos aprendemos y nos ayudamos unos a otros”. (11)</p> <p>“Algunos saben mas que otros”. (3)</p> <p>“Porque demuestra lo aprendido y ayuda”. (3)</p> <p>“Aprendería mas de pronunciación y escritura”. (2)</p> <p>“Porque a veces no esta cerca el profesor”.</p> <p>“Porque se aprende sin presiones”.</p> <p>“Los maestros a veces no saben y los compañeros ayudan”.</p> <p>Negative statements</p> <p>“Porque quizá también estén en un error”.</p> <p>“No saben”.</p> <p>“Porque a veces lo hacen con mala intención”.</p> <p>“Porque también se equivocan”.</p>	<p>“Para aprender y apoyarnos todos”. (8)</p> <p>“Para ayudarse”. (5)</p> <p>“Es necesario para aprender mas rápido”.</p> <p>“Para tener otra opción”.</p> <p>“Para demostrar lo que han aprendido”.</p> <p>“Algunos saben mas que otros y deben de ayudar”.</p> <p>“Ayudan por si el profesor no se dio cuenta”.</p> <p>“Nos ayudan a darnos cuenta del error”.</p> <p>Negative statements</p> <p>“Porque no saben”.</p> <p>“Para eso esta el maestro”</p>
English III	<p>“Porque algunos saben mas y deben de ayudarnos”. (6)</p> <p>“Toman en cuenta mi error y me ayudan”.</p> <p>Negative statements</p> <p>“Porque se burlan y ya no hay motivación”</p> <p>“No tienen la preparación para corregir”.</p> <p>“No tienen derecho y también tienen errores”.</p> <p>“No deben de intervenir sino se les pide”.</p> <p>“Porque se toma a burla la corrección”.</p> <p>“Porque se burlan”.</p>	<p>“Para ayudarse como grupo”. (5)</p> <p>“Porque a veces se le entiende mejor al compañero”.</p> <p>“Porque así todos nos involucramos”.</p> <p>“Para tener una buena relación y otra opción”.</p> <p>Negative statements</p> <p>“Porque se burlan y ya no hay motivación”.</p> <p>“Intimidan”.</p> <p>“Porque confunden, no se les entiende”.</p> <p>“Porque no tienen porque entrometerse”.</p> <p>“Porque no siempre son acertados”.</p>
English V	<p>“Comparte sus conocimientos y ayuda”. (6)</p> <p>“Es una manera de ayudarnos mutuamente”. (4)</p> <p>“Si el maestro no lo nota ellos podrían ayudarte”.</p> <p>“Por que algunos saben algunas cosas que otros no”. (2)</p> <p>Negative statements</p> <p>“Por que a veces lo hacen de mala fe”.</p>	<p>Por que se crea un apoyo (2)</p> <p>Porque algunos saben mas y nos ayudan (2)</p> <p>Negative statements</p> <p>“También forma parte de nuestra formación”.</p> <p>“Tal vez tenga el mismo error”.</p>
English VII	<p>“Entre todos nos ayudamos a corregir”. (8)</p> <p>“Por que así ellos también aprenden (4)</p> <p>“Todos pueden aportar para mi mejoramiento”.</p> <p>“Por que estimula al que sabe y puede corregir”.</p> <p>Negative statements</p> <p>“Por que no siempre corrigen en la forma correcta”.</p>	<p>Es una manera de ayudarnos unos a otros (5)</p> <p>Por que me ayuda ya que saben mas</p>

Participants in this study believed that peer correction is helpful, useful and even peers provide support to them. From 119 participants; 97 welcomed peer correction. They state that being corrected by a classmate is helpful: *"porque se aprende sin presiones"*, *"porque ayudan y dan apoyo"*. Many students claimed that dealing with errors together may bring good results: *"porque así aprendemos todos"*, *"es necesario para aprender más rápido"*. Additionally, they believed that bringing some errors to students' attention is a good opportunity to discover the correct form like the right way to pronounce or write certain words.

Participants widely accepted peer correction because they believed that the classmates that are better learners should use their knowledge to help them: *"porque algunos saben más que nosotros y pueden ayudarnos"*.

On the other hand, the rest of the participants (22 students) did not welcome being corrected by a classmate. Some of the responses provided were:

"Porque no saben"

"Para eso está el maestro"

"Porque también cometen errores"

Two students answered that peer correction was confusing. They stated:

"Porque confunden al momento de corregir"

As we can clearly see in the table above students from English III were the ones who provided more negative responses toward peer correction.

From 119 students, 22 showed a negative attitude toward peer correction. The answer of the few students is similar to that found in Yoshida (2008) in which she concluded that peer correction may not be sufficiently effective when learners have not understood partners' corrective feedback.

Other answers showed that being corrected by other students might bring the feeling of humiliation: "*Porque se burlan y ya no hay motivación*", "*porque a veces corrigen de mala intención*", especially when the other students correct them in front of the class. This result fits with Bargiel-Matusiewicz & Bargiel-Firlit (2009) in that their participants did not favor peer correction because they feel humiliation when a classmate corrects them.

To sum up, EFL students from UQROO preferred teacher correction in first instance because when students made errors in the classroom, they preferred to be corrected by someone with a high position (in this case the teacher). However, the preference showed toward peer correction is also welcomed since 97 students agree to receive corrective feedback by peers. Therefore both, teacher correction and peer correction were welcomed by the participants in this study. With relation to their attitudes, the 119 learners responded positively. All of them had an excellent attitude of mind in being corrected either by the teacher or by peers.

The second research question intends to find out the students' preferences for the different techniques of corrective feedback in the classroom. Eighteen techniques were presented, principally in dialogue form as they take place in the classroom, along with a brief definition and two or more examples for each type. Under each type of corrective feedback students were asked to rate it. The scoring was done on a five-point Likert scale, in which 5 represents strongly agree, 4 agree, 3 neutral, 2 disagree, 1 strongly disagree. When the response to the statement is 5, it means that the student preferred to be corrected by that certain type of corrective feedback, and so on. The research question discussed in this part of this study is the following.

5.2 What are the students' preferences for the different techniques of corrective feedback in classroom?

In the present study Lyster & Randal (1997) and Yao (2000) types of corrective feedback classification were followed in order to analyze the data obtained from the 119 participants. The techniques were classified into eight types: (1) explicit correction, (2) recast, (3) clarification request, (4) metalinguistic feedback, (5) elicitation, (6) repetition of error, (7) interruption, (8) body language. The preferences toward peer and self correction technique are also analyzed. Every single question is analyzed and the statistics shown with a chart or table.

First, the table below shows the preferences of the students toward the different types of corrective feedback indicated by the highest percentages. The data were simplified by collapsing the 5-point scale used to elicit

responses (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree) into a 3-point scale (strongly agree/ agree, neutral, disagree/ strongly disagree).

	Strongly agree / agree	Neutral	Strongly disagree/ disagree
Explicit correction			
Question 4	86%	10%	4%
Question 6	92%	6%	2%
Question 5	70%	23%	7%
Metalinguistic Feedback			
Question 12	76%	20%	4%
Question 17	66%	24%	10%
Question 11	60%	23%	17%
Clarification request			
Question 13	73%	19%	8%
Repetition of error			
Question 9	68%	19%	13%
Question 1	88%	8%	4%
Elicitation			
Question 15	71%	20%	9%
Question 16	63%	25%	12%
Recast			
Question 14	38%	37%	25%
Question 10	57%	24%	19%
Question 7	74%	5%	21%
Body language			
Question 8	56%	27%	13%
Interruption			
Question 3	15%	17%	68%

Table 2.- Students responses to corrective feedback techniques.

See questions in Appendix “ A”

The results showed above coincide with Abarca (2008) findings where she found that students preferred those techniques by which they are explicitly told what their errors were. In Abarca’s research learners did not favor the recast technique in the classroom, which coincides with the results of this study since participants chose it less than the others. Students from this study prefer the techniques in which they had the opportunity to think about their

answers and then provide the correct form. The Metalinguistic technique was placed secondly, what indicates that participants conform to Katayama (2007) findings in which learners favored the correction technique in which the teacher provides a clue to enable the student to notice the error and self-correct.

In previous studies (Abarca, 2008; Bargiel-Matusiewicz & Bargiel-Firlit, 2009) as in this, “interruption” was seen ineffective since almost anybody wants to be interrupted when they are trying to say something in the classroom.

A general view of all techniques was presented above. Next the distribution of students’ preference of a certain type of corrective feedback is presented. The results show the technique that students prefer the most.

5.2.1 Students preferences toward certain types of corrective feedback

5.2.1.1.-Explicit Correction

With explicit correction, the teacher not only provides the correct form, but also clearly indicates that what the students just said is incorrect. For this technique, three questions were used: Question 4. - This technique is used when the teacher emphasizes the error and provides the correct form. Q.6.- This technique is used when the teacher repeats the student’s error and then he has to correct the student in a similar context. Q.11.- With this technique the teacher explains to the student the reason of his/her error. The statistical results of each are presented below.

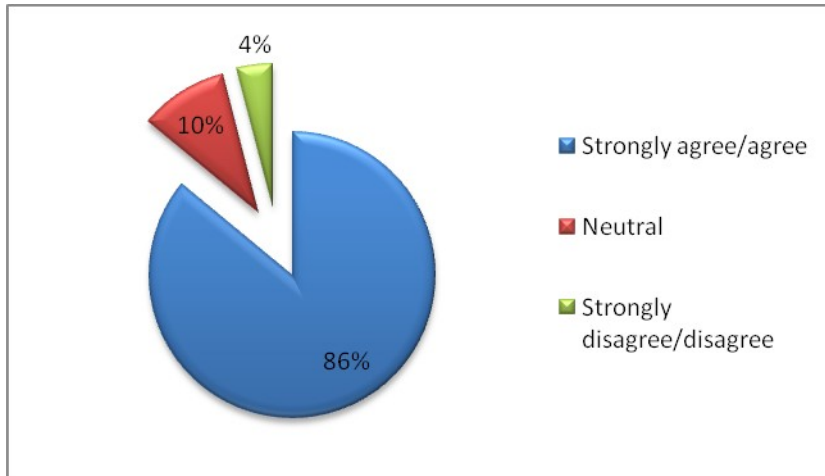


Figure 1.- Students' preferences toward explicit correction (Q.4).

As we can clearly see in figure 1, this technique obtained a higher acceptance with the students. The response shows that for 86 % of the students it is very important to be explicitly told where their errors are and the correct form. This result agreed with the comments provided by some students in the first part of this study where they said that the teacher's job is to correct them in order to achieve a successful learning.

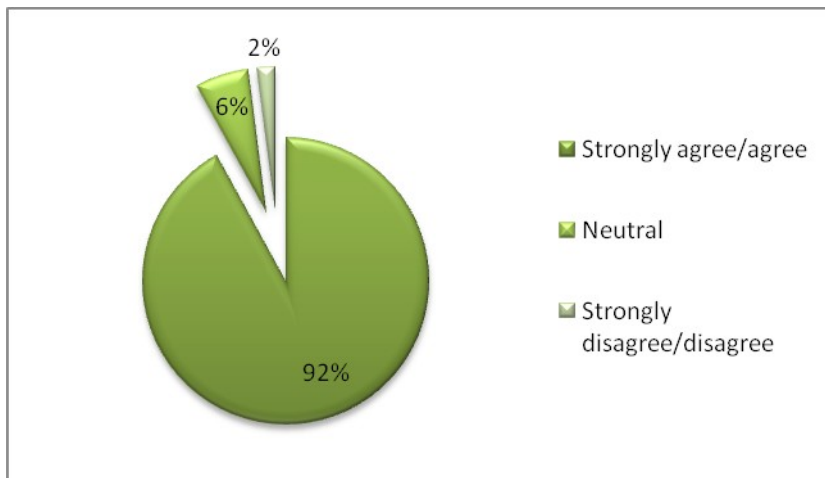


Figure 2. - Students' preferences toward explicit correction (Q.6).

Question 6 corroborates student's preference for explicit correction type. It seems that they welcome any kind of indicator of error. If we compare this

figure with the ones presented previously we can see that the more explicit the correction the more the learners agreed with it.

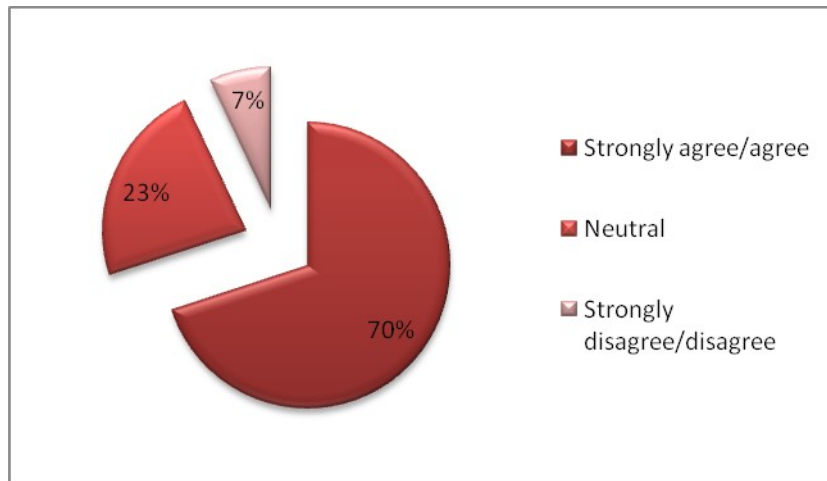


Figure 3. - Students' preference toward explicit correction (Q.11).

Notably see that this technique was favored by the participants. One of the reasons I assume they preferred this kind of correction is that teachers give them an opportunity for successful repair.

Summarizing, I could argue that in relation to this kind of corrective feedback, The students from Uqroo can welcome explicit correction feedback because the teacher not only provides the correct form but also explains to the learners the reason of their errors which bring about a successful repair of their errors. This result coincides with the Abarca (2007) findings, in which learners wanted to be corrected with this kind of corrective feedback (CF) type.

5.2.2 Recast

With recast, the teacher reformulates all or part of the student's utterance, minus the error. In this study three questions fit in this kind of CF; question 7

in which teacher must indicate to the student that he or she has made an error by repeating the sentence to him/her until getting to the word that goes before the error, question 10, the teachers simply correct the student and do not expect the student to repeat, question 14, teacher must translate the incorrect sentence into Spanish so that the student can see how unusual it sounds in English.

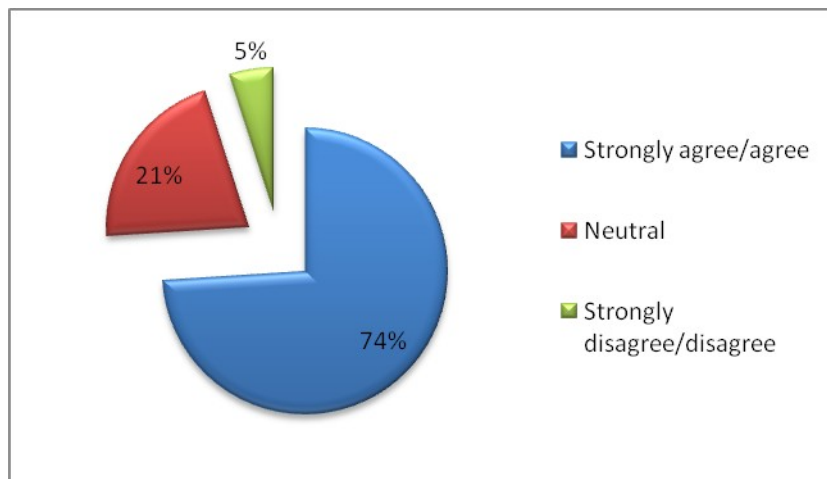


Figure 4- Students' preference toward Recast (Q.7).

This technique was accepted by 74% of all the students which show that not only explicit is preferred by the participants but also the technique in which they were not explicitly told about their errors. This kind of CF maybe was preferred since teachers in the classroom tend to use it more than any other kind of corrective feedback, as in Lyster and Randa (1997) study in which the most preferred by the four teachers was “recast” in spite of its ineffectiveness at eliciting student-generated repair.

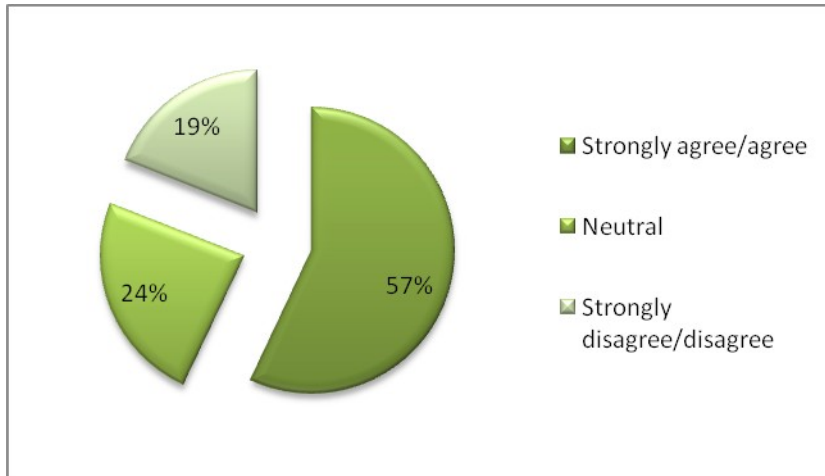


Figure 5. - Students' preference toward Recast (Q.10).

This technique was accepted by more than half of the participants which indicated that students disagree when they don't repeat the correct form provided by the teacher.

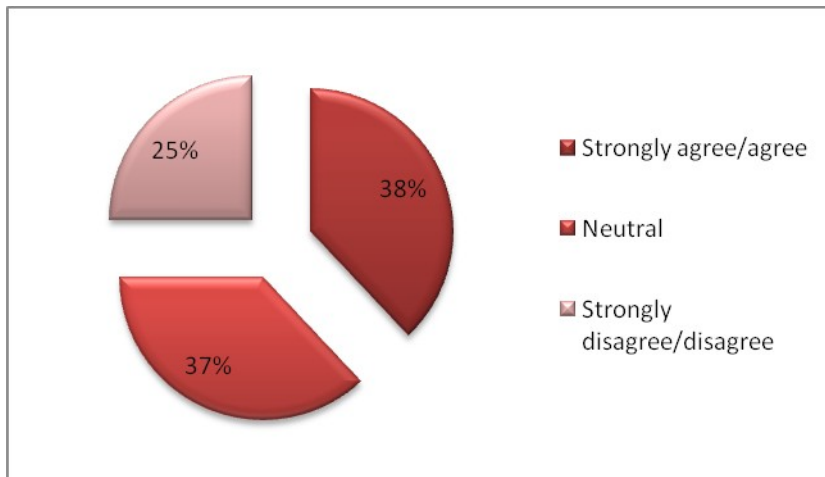


Figure 6- Students' preference toward technique recast (Q. 14).

Using Spanish translation was not very welcome for the participants in this study. Most of them were neutral or disagreed with the translation of their errors into Spanish. It may be concluded that listening to their errors translated into Spanish could be embarrassing.

This kind of corrective feedback was not favored by the participants since it is not effective at all. Following it will be presented *clarification request*.

5.3.3 Clarification Request

With this type of corrective feedback, the teacher, after hearing the learners' utterances, points to the students that their previous utterance was not clearly enough understood or was erroneous and a repetition or reformulation is required. Question 13 referred to when the teacher must repeat the question so that the students can correct his or her error.

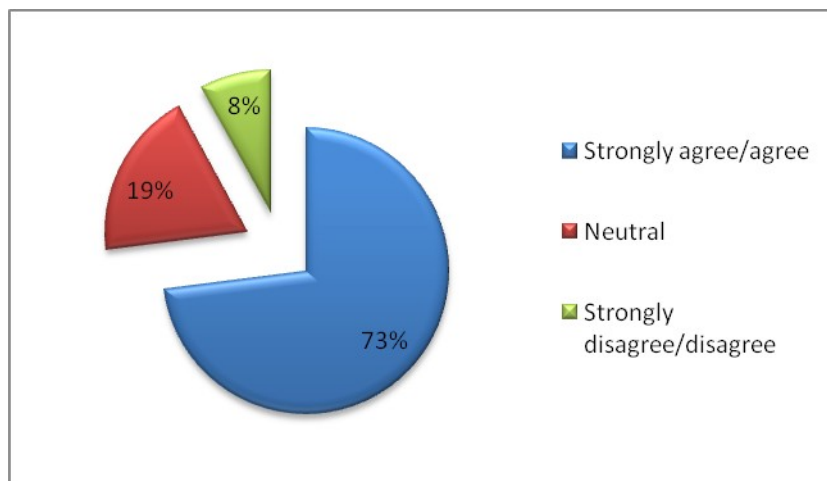


Figure 7. - Students' preference toward clarification request (Q.13).

Question 13 is an interesting example of students' preferences toward corrective feedback. Students manifested their preference toward the kind of technique in which they had the opportunity to repair their errors successfully thus they favored interaction between them and the teacher that may bring improvement in the language. Another reason to prefer this kind of CF is because when teachers ask for a clarification, maybe it is because the teacher did not hear the students very clearly, so students see this kind of CF

polite to respond to their errors and not hurting their feelings at the time of correcting their errors.

5.3.4 Metalinguistic Feedback

In metalinguistic feedback the teacher gives comments, questions or information related to the form of the learner's utterances. In question 11, teacher informs the student the reason of his/her error; In question 12, teacher has to give student a clue on the right form; Question 17 refers to when the teacher has to provide two versions in English, one correct and one incorrect so that students can choose the appropriate form.

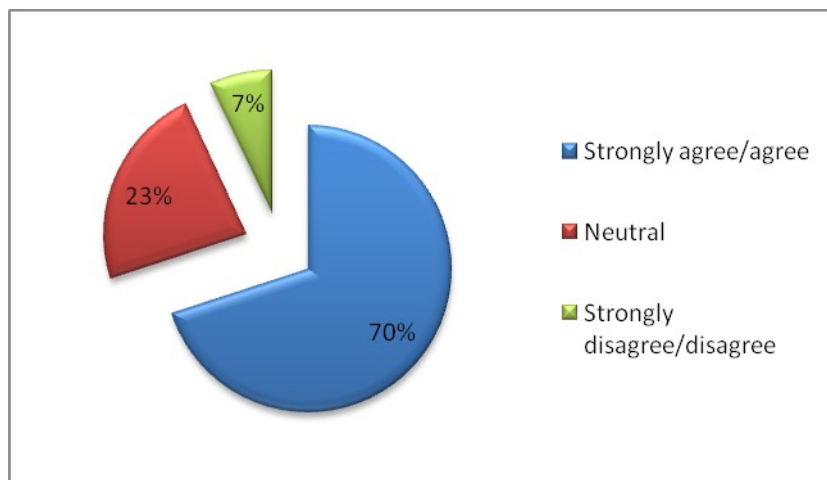


Figure 8. - Students' preference toward Metalinguistic Feedback (Q.11).

Participants strongly agree when teachers informed about the reason of their errors without providing the correct form. . Metalinguistic feedback was welcome because teachers give students the chance to think about their error and correct errors by themselves which is something that students want to do.

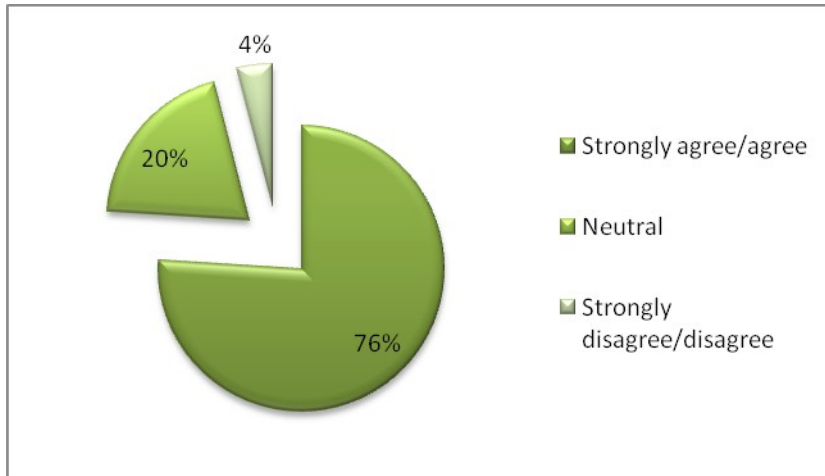


Figure 9. - Students' preference toward metalinguistic feedback (Q.12).

As the correct form is not directly told, students are left to do the job themselves. In this study participants did not mind any negative comment, information or question as long as the teacher does not give them the correct form directly.

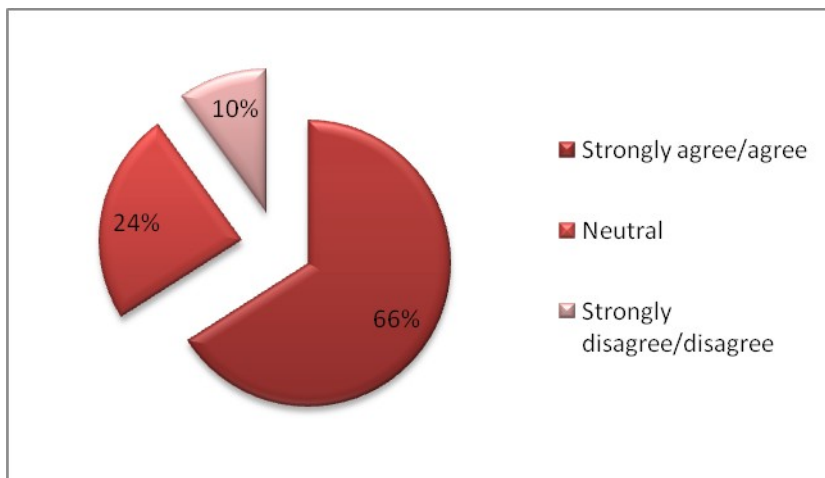


Figure 10. - Students' preference toward metalinguistic feedback (Q.17).

As in question 12, students wanted to participate in the correction of their errors; thus they agree with this kind of technique because they have the opportunity to choose the correct form and to correct their errors by themselves.

Summing up, Students want to participate in the correction of their errors; they do not want the teacher to provide the correct form without giving the chance to try. They prefer to think about the correct form of their errors and have an active role in their correction.

5.3.5 Elicitation

Instead of directly giving the correct form, in this type of corrective feedback, teachers try to elicit it from the learner by either one or three forms: elicit completion (fill-in-the-blank), elicit question, and elicit reformulation. Two questions fit in this kind of corrective feedback; in question 15, teachers have to ask students question so that she/he discovers which word she/he does not how to say. In question 16, the teacher has to provide variations of the same word so that the student can choose the appropriate form.

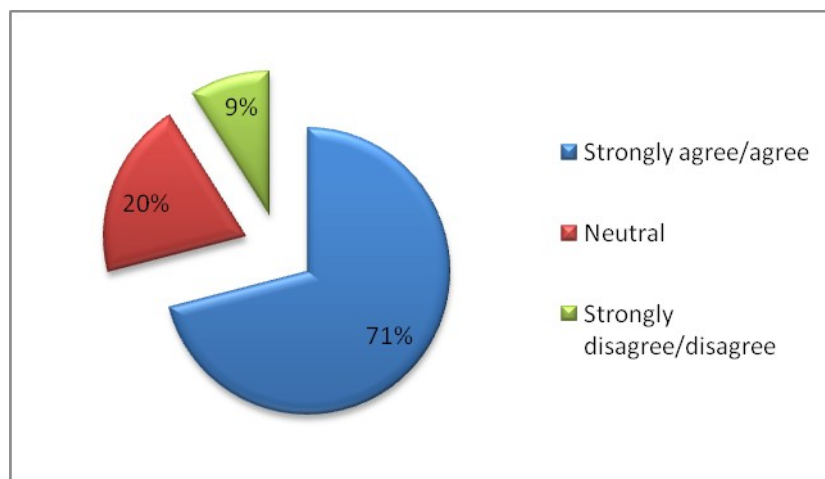


Figure 11. - Students' preference toward Elicitation (Q.15).

In question 15; 71% agree with this technique what indicates that they really want to think about their errors and participate in the correction before teachers do. Another reason of the preference for this kind of CF is maybe because participants found it less embarrassing than the others.

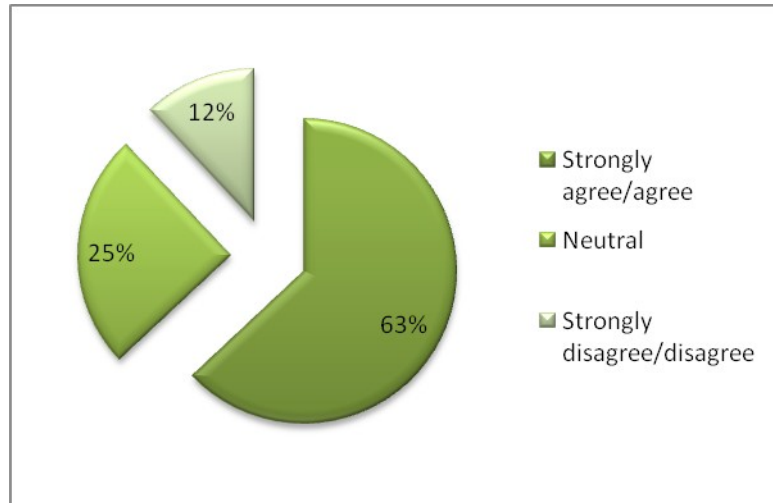


Figure 12. - Students' preference toward Elicitation (Q.16).

Students agree with this kind of corrective feedback maybe because by using elicitation, the teacher does not directly hand out the correct form but instead waits for the students to think about it and try to fix it by themselves. Also I believe that students prefer to have an opportunity to think about the correct form before it is given by the teacher.

5.3.6 Repetition of error

In this type of corrective feedback, teachers repeat only the erroneous part of the learners' utterances, commonly with a raised intonation to emphasize the error; Teachers ask students to repeat after him/her so that the student can correct the answer (Question 1). In question 9, the teacher must repeat the student's errors using emphasis.

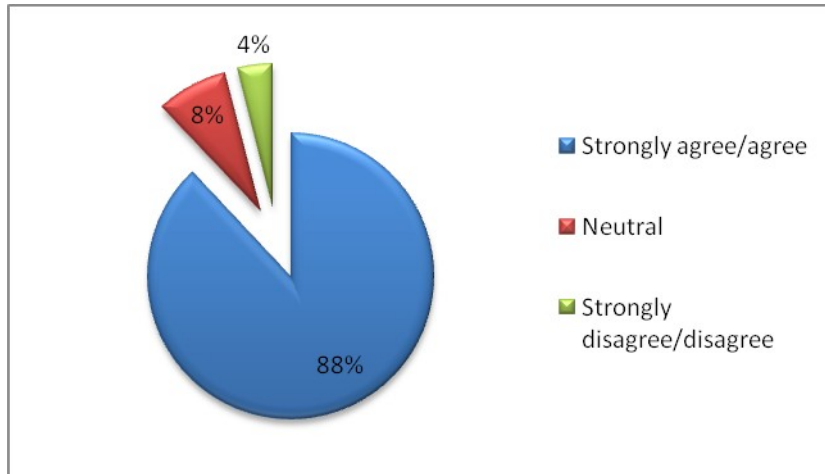


Figure 13. - Students' preference toward Repetition if errors (Q.1).

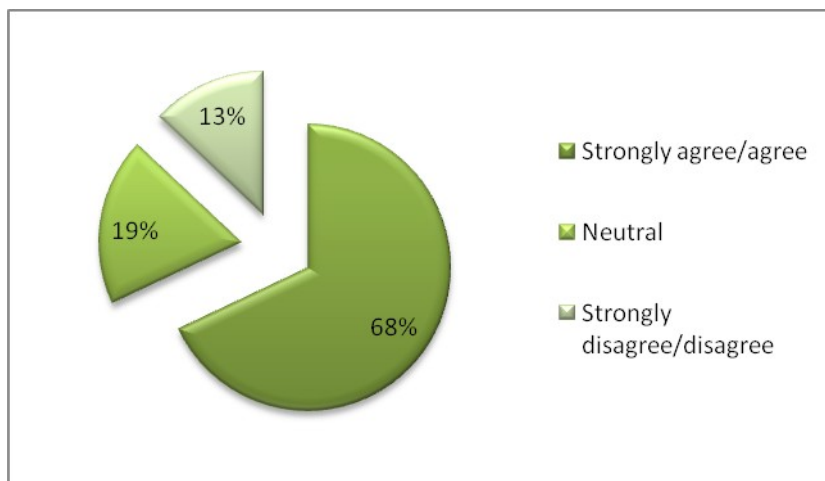


Figure 14. - Students' preference toward Repetition if errors (Q.9).

Participants also agree with this kind of corrective feedback maybe because teachers clearly locate the erroneous part of the students and yet do not directly give out the correct form. As a result, students are able not only to learn that there is something wrong with their utterance and what the error is, but also they are allowed a chance to think and try to repair the error by themselves, not just say what the correct form should be.

5.3.7 Interruption

In this type of corrective feedback, the teachers' jump in to correct students' error in the middle of their utterances without giving the students the chance to finish their utterance. In the technique presented in question 3, teachers interrupt students in the middle of their utterances in order to correct their error immediately.

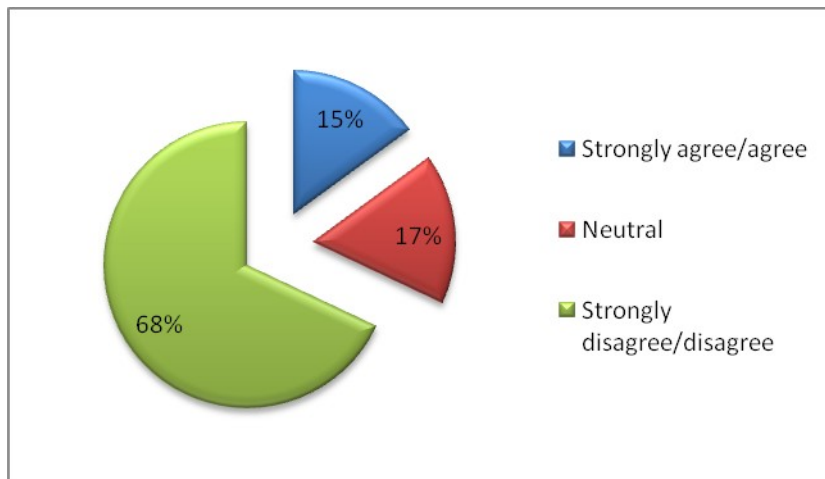


Figure 15. - Students' preference toward Interruption (Q.3).

This kind of corrective feedback had fewer acceptances than others maybe because participants see it as a disagreeable way of corrective feedback. Maybe they believe that interruption makes them *lose the train of thoughts*. Being interrupted in the middle of one's speech, it is highly likely that the students will forget what he/she has in mind to say and thus lose the train of thoughts. From the participants almost anybody wants to be interrupted when they are trying to say something and the participants in this study were not the exception.

5.5.8 Body Language

By definition, with this type of corrective feedback instead of an oral response teachers use either facial or a body movement to indicate that an error was made or what the students has said is incorrect. In question 8 in which this kind of corrective feedback was presented, the teacher must make a gesture to indicate that the student has made an error.

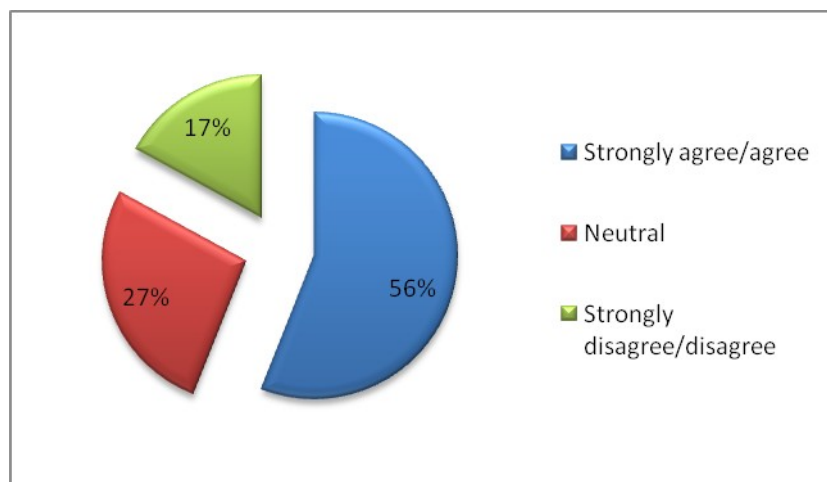


Figure 16. - Students' preference toward Body Language (Q.8).

As we can clearly see, this kind of corrective feedback was preferred by a good number of students. Students found body language agreeable maybe it was because it is a relaxing way to deal with errors; students will not feel nervous or tense about making errors in class. A teacher's less-serious body language can create a relaxing atmosphere in class that is conducive to learning. This could be interpreted by stating that body language is not embarrassing.

Summarizing the previous pages about the techniques preferred by participants, most of the students' answers in this study prefer the types of error correction in which they are given an opportunity to think about the correct form on their own. For that reason, it is understandable that they responded in favor of clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation and repetition of errors, all of them require student attention and provision of the right form by themselves. On the other hand, the students that did not show any agreement about these kinds of corrective feedback is because they do not like to think about the answers by themselves and prefer the teacher to provide the correct form directly.

Most of the students agree when they were told explicitly the reason of their errors. In questions 11, 12 and 13 students favored the interaction that can bring improvement in the language; these techniques are explicit forms presented in the classroom. In question 14, using Spanish translation, does not seem to be interesting for these students; 37% answers were neutral and 25% answered either disagree or strongly disagree, thus it might be concluded that translating the students' utterances into Spanish could cause that students feel embarrassed. In the question 18, 67% of the participants disagreed with the technique in which the teacher made silence to indicate that there was an error. In this situation, it could be said that students are not prepared to be responsible for the correction by themselves.

Among the eight types of error correction, students were less enthusiastic about being corrected by *interruption*. To be interrupted when you are trying

to say something in English could bring frustration, insecurity and could make students stop talking (Bargiel-Matusiewicz & Bargiel-Firlit, 2009). In addressing the issue of language teacher's corrective feedback, Holley & King (1971) suggest that teacher needs "to avoid using correction strategies that might embarrass or frustrate students" (in Hendrickson, 1978, p.392).

Allwright & Bailey (1991) assumed that, in deciding when to treat errors, many teachers solve the problem with immediate corrective feedback which often involves interrupting the students in the middle of their utterance, which are "disruptive and could eventually inhibit the learner's willingness to speak in class at all" (p.103). They maintain that, if their teacher constantly interrupted to correct student errors, students who begin with low self-esteem scores will have sharply lower scores afterwards in performing a task.

In the following pages the results of question 3 are presented.

5.7. - Do attitudes and preferences toward corrective feedback vary according to the age, gender, and English level of the students?

In order to analyze the distribution from one variable with relation to another some crosstabs were made. In this case, the gender and the preferences toward the eight techniques were compared.

- Corrective feedback types and Gender

Gender * Repetition of errors

Crosstab

	Interruption					Total
	Completely disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Completely Agree	
Sex Man	1	6	13	14	11	45
Female	5	10	16	24	19	74
Total	6	16	29	38	30	119

As we can clearly see in the crosstab students proportionally agreed and completely agree with this kind of corrective feedback both genders responded almost similar regarding repetition of error technique.

Sex * Body Language

Crosstab

	Body Language					Total
	Completely disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Completely Agree	
Sex Man	2	3	11	17	12	45
Female	3	12	21	27	11	74
Total	5	15	32	44	23	119

In this case the responses vary from woman to man, males showed a higher agreement with this kind of corrective feedback while woman responses were divided as we can see in the table.

Gender * Clarification Request

Crosstab

	Clarification Request					Total
	Completely disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Completely Agree	
Gender Man	0	4	6	22	13	45
Female	2	4	16	29	23	74
Total	2	8	22	51	36	119

Also in this kind of corrective feedback responses vary a little between males and females. However, both agreed or completely agree with the technique.

Gender * Recast

Crosstab

	Recast					Total
	Completely disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Completely Agree	
Gender Man	0	1	10	20	14	45
Female	1	4	15	42	12	74
Total	1	5	25	62	26	119

This crosstab shows that the responses of both genders are similar since both agree or completely agree with this kind of corrective feedback.

Gender * Metalinguistic Feedback

Crosstab

	Metalinguistic Feedback					Total
	Completely disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Completely Agree	
Gender Man	0	1	8	22	14	45
Female	1	3	16	32	22	74
Total	1	4	24	54	36	119

Most of the students either woman or man agree with this technique which confirm that the gender of the students does not interfere with their preferences toward certain techniques.

Gender * Elicitation

Crosstab

	Elicitation					Total
	Completely disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Completely Agree	
Gender Man	1	4	10	23	7	45
Female	1	8	20	31	14	74
Total	2	12	30	54	21	119

In this type corrective feedback type the responses center in agree and neutral in both genders. The numbers of students that respond are almost the same.

Gender * Explicit Feedback

Crosstab

	Explicit Feedback					Total
	Completely disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Completely Agree	
Gender Man	1	2	3	20	19	45
Female	2	0	9	29	34	74
Total	3	2	12	49	53	119

Explicit was the kind of corrective feedback that students prefer most. The response of the both gender are similar as the other techniques presented before; both agree and completely agree with this technique which indicates that both genders welcome corrective feedback with this kind of corrective feedback.

Gender * Repetition of errors

Crosstab

	Repetition of errors					Total
	Completely disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Completely Agree	
Gender Man	1	1	3	21	19	45
Female	0	3	6	29	36	74
Total	1	4	9	50	55	119

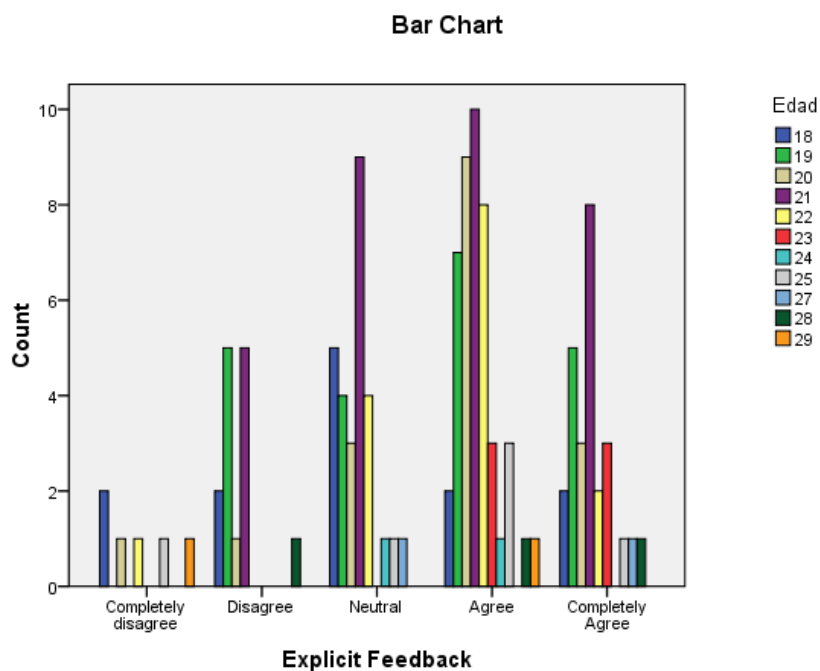
There were not any difference in the response of men and females. Both genders welcome the technique presented in the same proportion as we can see in the table.

The results indicate that there were differences between the genders of the participants in the eighteen corrective feedback techniques they we exposed to, thus the preferences of the students toward corrective feedback techniques did not vary according to their gender. So in a classroom the teacher can use any kind of corrective feedback since both men and women have the same interest in all the techniques. In relation to their attitudes, both

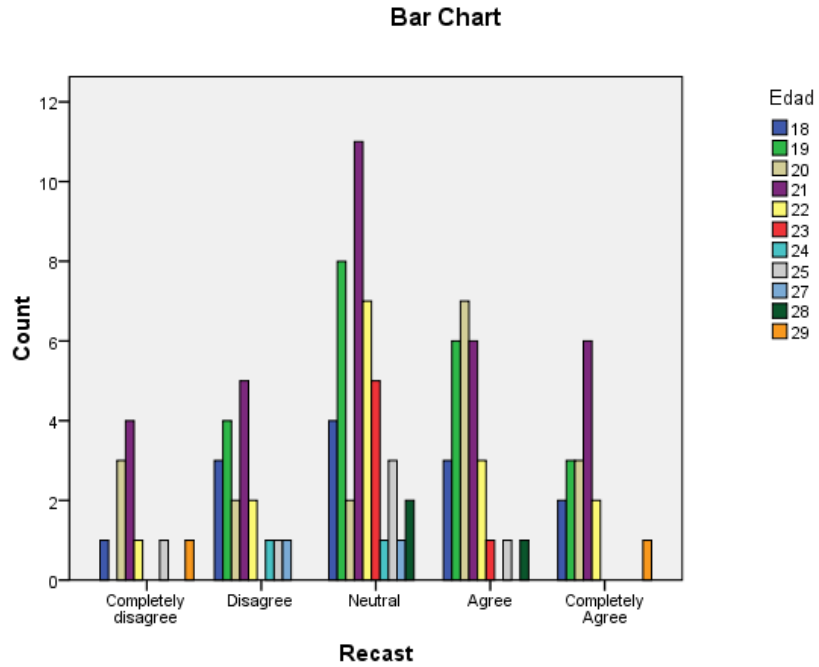
genders had an excellent attitude toward being corrected. Thus attitude was the same in men and in women.

5.3. 2. - Corrective feedback types and Age.

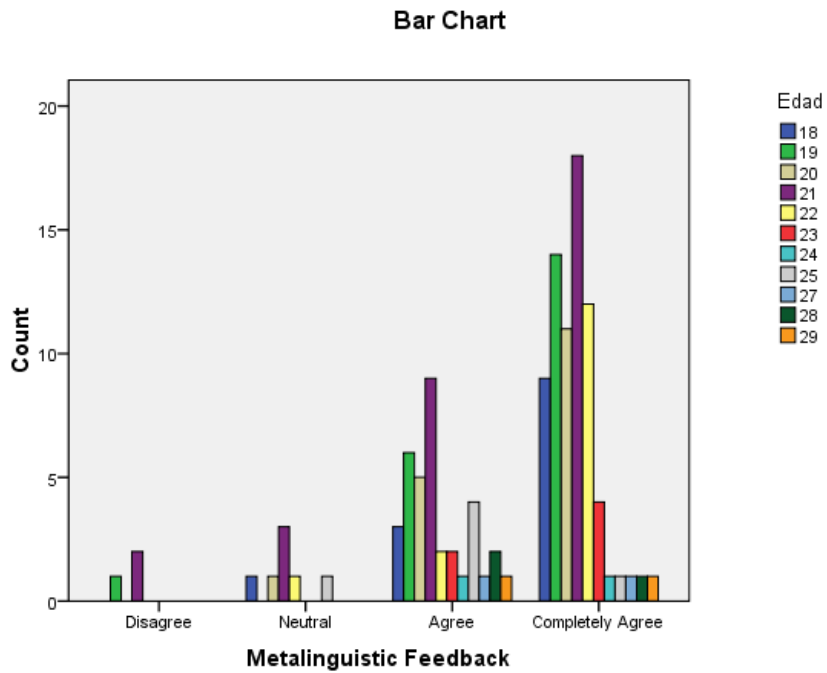
Some crosstabs were made in order to answer if there is any relationship between corrective feedback and students' age and there were presented in a form of charts.



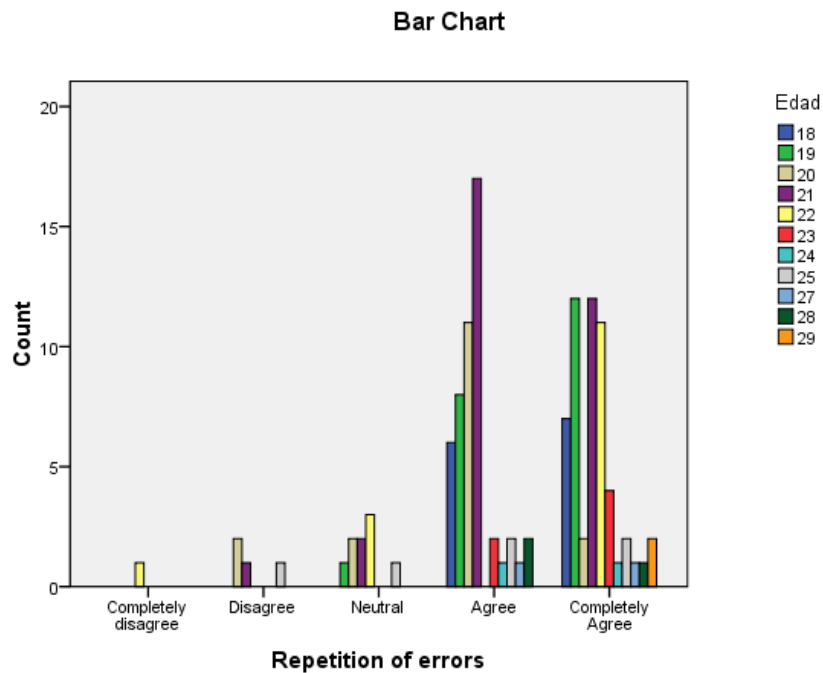
In explicit corrective feedback type as we can clearly see in the chart participants for all ages showed a positive attitude toward being corrected. The age outstanding in the chart is 21 since most of the students were in that age.



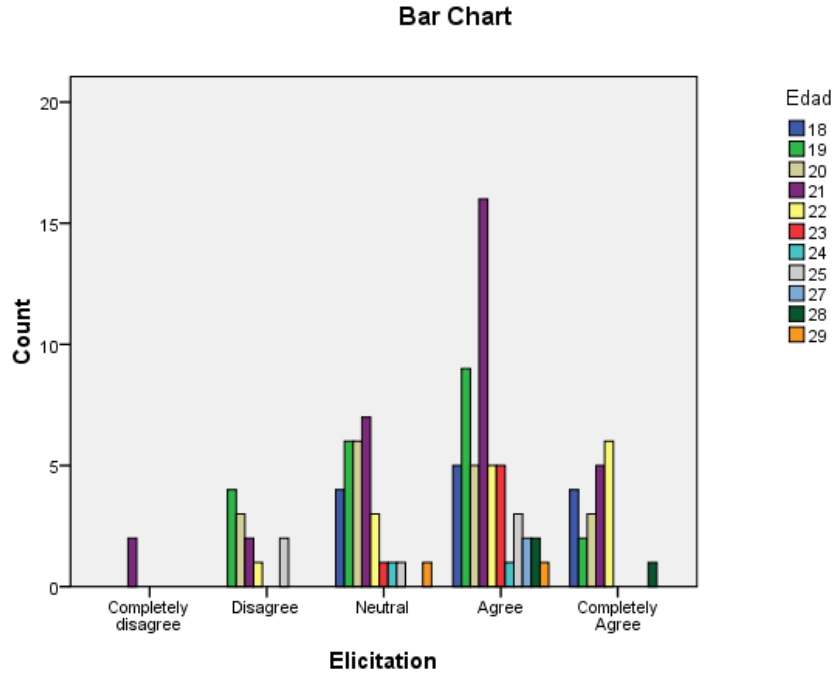
In this kind of corrective feedback, their preferences vary a little bit according their ages. For example, participants to 19, 20 and 21 showed a high acceptance toward this CF type while students from 25 did not favor it at all.



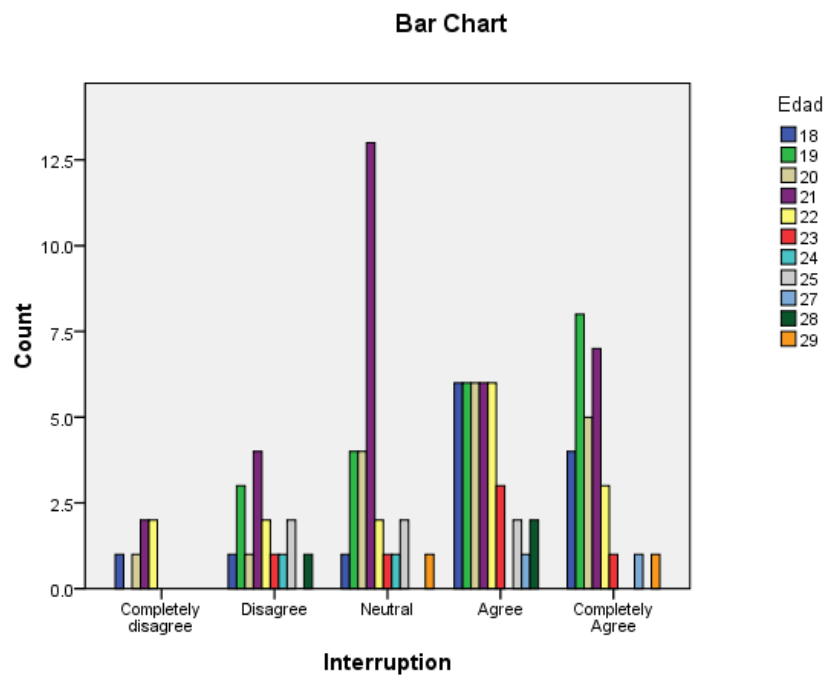
The chart shows that the age of the participants does not interfere with their student's preferences since most of them agree with this kind of corrective feedback without taking into account their age and also that the age range of the subject studied was not very wide.



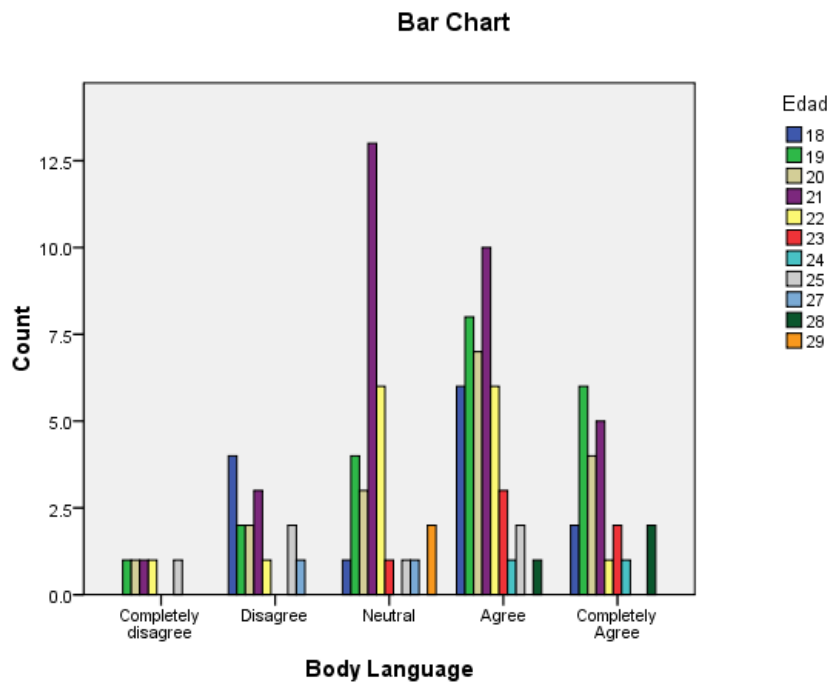
Students from all ages agreed to repeat what teacher said in order to correct their errors. So their preferences toward this kind of corrective feedback do not vary.



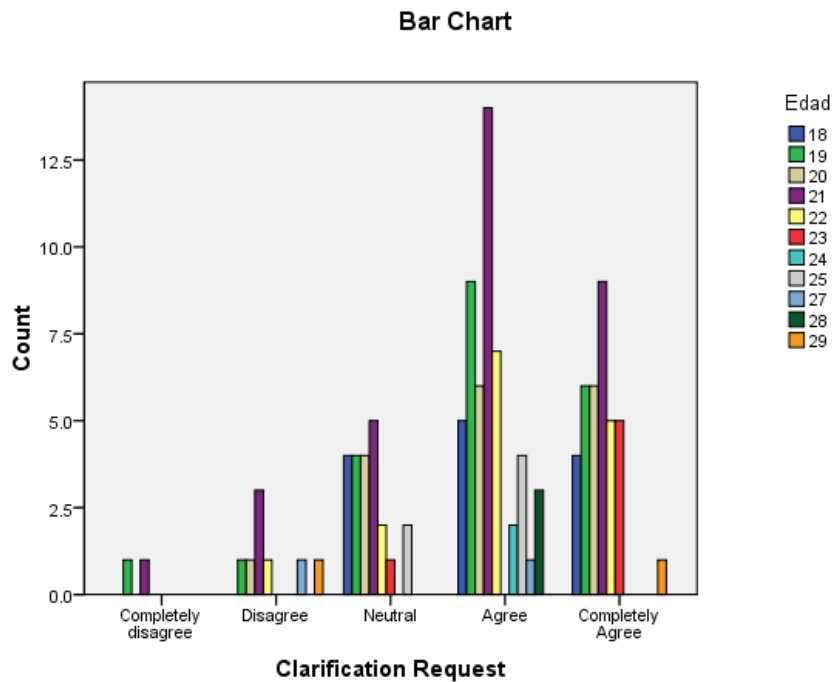
The responses of the students toward elicitation vary a little bit according to their ages. One of the variations for example; the same number of students from 29 years agreed or disagreed with this kind of corrective feedback. The rest of the students do not show any variation in their responses.



In being interrupted almost anybody of the students agreed with the fact that teachers should not interrupt them when they are talking. Half of the students answered agree and the other half neutral which means that for fifty percent of them it does not matter if the teacher interrupts when they are speaking in class.



Regarding body language, the students that did not welcome this kind of corrective feedback were the 25 years students, the rest of the participants showed a higher interest in being corrected with this kind of corrective feedback.



Students' responses toward clarification request did not vary either. Most of them agree in being corrected with this kind of corrective feedback. So age does not vary.

Summarizing, in this study the population does not have a wide variety of ages, therefore it was impossible to make a conclusion regarding this variable. However, based on the data obtained from this study I could assure that students from all the ages showed a high positive attitude toward corrective feedback.

5.3. 3. - Corrective feedback types and English Level.

The following table displays the preference toward the eight corrective feedback types taking into account students' English level. An ANOVA test was made in order to analyze the relationship.

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Repetition of errors	Between Groups	6.220	3	2.073	3.290	.023
	Within Groups	72.485	115	.630		
	Total	78.706	118			
Repetition of errors	Between Groups	2.457	3	.819	.819	.486
	Within Groups	114.955	115	1.000		
	Total	117.412	118			
Explicit Feedback	Between Groups	2.343	3	.781	.986	.402
	Within Groups	91.068	115	.792		
	Total	93.412	118			
Explicit Feedback	Between Groups	.828	3	.276	.221	.882
	Within Groups	143.811	115	1.251		
	Total	144.639	118			
Explicit Feedback	Between Groups	1.278	3	.426	.555	.646
	Within Groups	88.302	115	.768		
	Total	89.580	118			
Recast	Between Groups	.331	3	.110	.162	.922
	Within Groups	78.459	115	.682		
	Total	78.790	118			
Recast	Between Groups	2.734	3	.911	.754	.522
	Within Groups	139.014	115	1.209		
	Total	141.748	118			
Recast	Between Groups	10.945	3	3.648	2.907	.038
	Within Groups	144.349	115	1.255		
	Total	155.294	118			
Metalinguistic Feedback	Between Groups	3.462	3	1.154	2.277	.083
	Within Groups	58.286	115	.507		
	Total	61.748	118			
Metalinguistic Feedback	Between Groups	4.518	3	1.506	2.152	.098
	Within Groups	80.473	115	.700		
	Total	84.992	118			
Metalinguistic Feedback	Between Groups	1.002	3	.334	.326	.807
	Within Groups	117.871	115	1.025		
	Total	118.874	118			
Elicitation	Between Groups	3.711	3	1.237	1.542	.208
	Within Groups	92.272	115	.802		
	Total	95.983	118			
Elicitation	Between Groups	1.271	3	.424	.473	.702
	Within Groups	102.948	115	.895		
	Total	104.218	118			
Interruption	Between Groups	27.019	3	9.006	7.979	.000
	Within Groups	129.805	115	1.129		
	Total	156.824	118			
Body Language	Between Groups	2.372	3	.791	.683	.564
	Within Groups	133.124	115	1.158		
	Total	135.496	118			
Clarification Request	Between Groups	.910	3	.303	.327	.806
	Within Groups	106.552	115	.927		
	Total	107.462	118			

Table 3.-Corrective Feedback students agree more according to their English Level

The table presented above displays the preferences for the participants in this study toward the eight types of corrective feedback. Some of the significant variations (0.05 level) found were in repetition of error with .023; recast with .038 and interruption with .000. The rest of the techniques did not show any relevant significance. So I could conclude that there are no statistical significance between English level and the techniques presented. The preferences toward corrective feedback show a significant level only in three techniques presented (repetition of error, recast and interruption), the rest of the techniques do not have any statistical significance according to the English level of the students as we can clearly see in the table presented above.

6. - CONCLUSION

“The role of feedback has a place in most theories of second language (L2) learning and language pedagogy. In both behaviorist and cognitive theories of L2 learning, feedback is seen as contributing to language learning”. (Pg. 3; *Ellis, 2009*). This study was focused on the cognitive theory which seeks to identify the CF strategies that are most effective in promoting the internal processes responsible for acquisition. The methods that teachers use in the classroom should fit with this kind of theory if they really want to treat error adequately in the classroom. Feedback is still believed to be very important by teachers so they should use it in their classrooms.

Correcting errors in a communicative speaking class needs a serious treatment since every learner will give a different reaction to the feedback given by teachers or classmates. The aim of communicative speaking in class is to make the learners use the language they learn. That is why it is worth considering that teachers should be more tolerant to the students' errors in communicative speaking class. It is hoped that the teachers correct selectively, choose productive items, and correct constructively (Littlewood, 1981)

The findings showed students' positive attitudes toward corrective feedback. Although they believe that they should be corrected by someone with a superior position in the classroom; they also welcomed peer correction.

Students in general agreed with peer correction because they believe that it is a good idea that classmates participate in the correction of their errors. So I could conclude that learners from UQRO think that the teachers are not only the ones who should correct error in the classroom but also peers. They assume that both make a great contribution in the correction of their errors which can bring about a successful learning.

As Klein (1986) declares, “learners vary considerably in their attitudes to the language they are learning and to the people who speak this language, and it is generally thought to be an important factor in second language learning”(p.37). The same is applicable in EFL classrooms. EFL teachers should try to understand their students’ expectations regarding how they wish to be answered to their erroneous utterances. Parrino (1997) proposes that, “if we teachers want to know how to determine when and how to correct, we would find it in our best interest to spend the first few weeks of a course getting to know what our students thoughts and feelings and expectations for themselves” (p.11).

Regarding the types of corrective feedback preferred by the learners, they prefer the ones in which they had the opportunity to think about the correct form as well as the ones in which they are explicitly told about their errors. The students wanted corrective feedback, even on infrequent and individual errors. Explicit correction, repetition and clarification request, metalinguistic feedback were the most favored types of feedback among the participants.

Also students favored those techniques in which the teacher provides clues or chooses for them to correct themselves. Almost nobody of the participants favors to be interrupted without any reason even for the purpose of corrective feedback.

The study concluded that recast, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition of errors provide a type of corrective feedback that encourages students to participate in the correction of their spoken errors which conducted them to acquire a foreign language successfully.

The gender did not play any role in the preferences of the students toward corrective feedback. In this study the population did not have a wide variety of ages, therefore it was impossible to make a conclusion regarding this variable. According to the English level of the students, corrective feedback showed a significant level only in three techniques (repetition of error, recast and interruption), the rest of the techniques did not have any statistical significance so I could conclude that age, gender and English level did not interfere with students' attitudes and preferences toward corrective feedback.

Teachers, therefore, need to understand their students' various needs, concerns, and expectations toward corrective feedback by using a variety of tools, such as questionnaires, interviews, and observations to determine the students' needs (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). In doing so, teachers can promote students' learning. This study aims at becoming a reference of the students'

attitudes and preferences toward oral corrective feedback in EFL so that this information can be used in the teaching of English as a Foreign Language in Mexico.

7.- LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS

Limitations of the study were primarily related to the participants and possible extraneous variables that may have affected their views and attitudes towards corrective feedback. In general just two factors limited my study in my point of view. The questionnaire was short and the responses were more limited than the ones expected; also there was not a wide variety of students' age so it was impossible to conclude if the age is a factor that affects students' preferences toward corrective feedback types.

For further research it is advisable to make a comparison between students' preferences vs. teachers practice in order to know if the teachers practice match with students' preferences regarding to corrective feedback. Future studies should consider corrective feedback from other theoretical perspectives, including Sociocultural.

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APPENDIX A

Students Questionnaire

Universidad de Quintana Roo División de Ciencias Políticas y Humanidades Cuestionario

1.- Muchas gracias por su cooperación al responder el siguiente cuestionario. Sus respuestas son confidenciales y se utilizaran solamente para propósitos de investigación.

2.- Ésta no es una evaluación del curso o del desempeño de su profesor. Éste es un cuestionario sobre sus preferencias respecto a la corrección de errores al hablar en la clase de inglés.

Información general:

Sexo: M ____ F ____

Edad: ____

¿Está usted inscrito en la carrera de Lengua Inglesa?

Sí ____ No ____

¿Por qué esta llevando este curso?

Es un requisito ____

Trabajo ____

Otro ____ Especifique:

¿Qué nivel de inglés se encuentra cursando en este momento?

Inglés ____

Cuando usted comete un error al hablar, ¿Se le corrige en este curso?

Sí ____ No ____

Si la respuesta es sí, ¿Qué tan a menudo lo corrige su profesor?

Siempre ____

Frecuentemente ____

Algunas veces ____

Rara vez ____

Nunca ____

Por lo general, ¿Qué hace usted después de ser corregido (a)?

¿Esta usted de acuerdo con que el profesor corrija sus errores? Sí ____ No ____ ¿Por qué?

¿Deben sus compañeros participar en la corrección de sus errores? Sí ____ No ____ ¿Por qué?

Instrucciones

Encierre en un círculo la letra **A, B, C, D** o **E** al final de cada ejemplo de corrección indicando que tan de acuerdo está usted con lo expresado en ese ejemplo. **Por favor conteste todas las preguntas.** Las

letras siguientes corresponden a las categorías de respuestas.

- A**= Completamente de acuerdo
- B**= De acuerdo
- C**= Neutral
- D**= En desacuerdo
- E**= Completamente en desacuerdo

Nota: El (*) indica un error.

1.- El profesor pide al estudiante que repita lo que él dijo para que el estudiante pueda corregir la respuesta.

Teacher: On the desk, there are...

*Student: *tree books.*

Teacher: Repeat, please.

Student: Three books.

Teacher: Very good.

A B C D E

2.- Cuando un estudiante falla al dar la respuesta correcta, el profesor le pide a otro estudiante que proporcione la respuesta correcta.

T: What is a workaholic?

S1: It's a person that...

T: Can someone help?

S2: Works too much...

T: It's a person that works too much.

A B C D E

3.- El profesor debe interrumpir al estudiante cuando este comete un error para corregirlo.

T: What is your Schedule?

S: My sche...sche...

T: Schedule.

S: Schedule.

A B C D E

4.- El profesor debe enfatizar dónde se encuentra el error y proveer la forma correcta.

T: Where are the keys?

*S: They are * on the backpack.*

T: In the backpack.

A B C D E

5.- El profesor debe modelar la respuesta correcta cuando un error se comete sin hacer la corrección de forma explícita.

T: What did she buy?

*S: She *buy a t-shirt.*

T: She bought a t-shirt.

A B C D E

6.- El profesor debe repetir el error del estudiante y luego corregirlo en un contexto similar.

T: Where was his family?

*S: *on his house.*

T: Not on his house. His family was in his house.

A B C D E

7.- El profesor debe indicar al estudiante que ha cometido un error repitiéndole la oración hasta llegar a la palabra que precede el error.

*S: She wrote an interesting *history.*

T: She wrote an interesting ... ("interesting" precedes the error)

S: Story

A B C D E

8.- El profesor debe usar gestos para indicar al estudiante que ha cometido un error.

*S: I *go to the beach last Friday.*

T: (moving the hand to the back to indicate the past)

S: I went to the beach last Friday.

A B C D E

9.- El profesor debe repetir el error al estudiante usando énfasis.

*S: He had *stole a lot of Money.*

T: Stole? (emphasis)

S: Stolen.

A B C D E

10.- El profesor simplemente hace la corrección y no espera que el estudiante repita.(explicit)

T: Which one do you prefer?

*S: The pants *blue.*

T: *The blue one.*

A B C D E

11.- El profesor debe informarle al estudiante sobre la razón de su error.

S: *She has *a black hair.*

T: *The word "hair" doesn't need an article in this case.*

S: *She has black hair.*

A B C D E

12.- El profesor debe darle al estudiante una pista sobre cuál es la forma incorrecta.

S: *Drinking too much is good for your health.*

T: *Is it good?*

S: *I mean; it's bad.*

A B C D E

13.- El profesor debe repetir la pregunta en la que obtuvo una respuesta incorrecta para que el estudiante sea capaz de corregir su error.

T: *How old are you?*

S: *I *have 20 years old.*

T: *How old are you?*

S: *I am 20 years old.*

A B C D E

14.- El profesor debe traducir la oración incorrecta al español para que el estudiante pueda notar lo extraño que suena en inglés.

S: *The movie was *frightened.*

T: *The movie was asustada.*

S: *The movie was frightening.*

A B C D E

15.- El profesor debe hacer preguntas al estudiante para descubrir cuál es la palabra que el estudiante no sabe cómo decir.

S: *The bank can give him a...*

T: *What for?*

S: *to pay for his debts.*

T: *Ok, the bank can give him a loan for that.*

A B C D E

16.- El profesor debe dar variaciones de una palabra para que el estudiante pueda escoger la forma correcta.

T: *How did she feel?*

S: *She felt very...*

T: *Scared, scary, scare.*

S: *Scared.*

A B C D E

17.- El profesor debe dar dos versiones en inglés, una correcta y una incorrecta para que el estudiante pueda elegir la forma apropiada.

S: *I like to study *in the night.*

T: *How does one say in English? *in the night? Or at night?*

S: *At night.*

A B C D E

18.- El profesor debe permanecer en silencio para indicarle al estudiante que ha cometido un error.

T: *Where are you going tonight?*

S: *I* going to the movies.*

T: *(no response)*

S: *I am going to the movies.*

A B C