

## **ERROR TREATMENT AND PERCEPTION OF CORRECTION DURING THE TRAINING OF SPEAKING SKILL**

**Valeska Escare-Malio**

*ESL Teacher, Language Center, Universidad San Sebastián*  
vescarem@docente.uss.cl

**Dr. María Jesús Inostroza-Araos**

*Faculty of Education, Universidad de Concepción*  
misnostroza@udec.cl

**ABSTRACT:** *This action research study was carried out to identify teacher strategies to address students errors and students' response to and perception on corrective feedback in a group of 11th grade students in Chile. Data was collected through classroom observation, an interview and a questionnaire. The data analysis techniques used were critical incidents for classroom observation and thematic analysis for interview and questionnaire. The results showed the teacher used recasts and prompts to address specific content areas and specific students. Responses from students to corrective feedback were to always self-repair following prompts, but sometimes self-repair following recasts. Their perceptions on the role of error as well as corrective feedback were positive. Through these findings it is expected that the teacher-researcher adjust her practices in order to assist speaking skill training but also provide insights on Chilean context and encourage more teachers to explore further in classroom-oriented settings that are larger and diverse.*

**KEYWORDS:** Speaking skill, Corrective feedback, Perception of correction, Self-repair.

## **INTRODUCTION**

How teachers deal with error during the training of speaking skill was very controversial for many years, there was not agreement whether it was advisable or not to correct errors however from environmental perspectives, i.e. theories that have interaction as the source students learn from, that corrective feedback is a contribution to L2 growth, these perspectives are for instance, interactionist hypothesis (Long, 1983,1996), skill acquisition theory, output hypothesis (Swain, 1985). The concept of corrective feedback (hereafter CF) emerged as a means to assist students in the acquisition of L2 and the aim is to raise awareness or to notice a contrast between what is called positive evidence (utterances that are correct) and negative evidence (utterances that have errors), in the noticing of the error, the learner has the opportunity to repair or correct the erroneous utterance, and “thus, enabling [students] to incorporate the corrected feature more fully into their interlanguage” (Sheen & Ellis, 2011, p. 596). In order to benefit from CF, it is needed a great deal of practice of the language features presented in form-focused classrooms.

In Chile there is scarce information about how teachers train speaking skill and how they assist students while they are performing a speaking task but from standardized tests such as EPI (English Proficiency Index) for adults and SIMCE (Sistema de Medición de la Calidad de la Educación) for 11th grade at schools it can be said that what Chileans know about English language is rather low, hence, what they can produce orally could be less. Last publication of EPI (2019) indicates Chile improved and was labeled as having

“intermediate” proficiency after remaining “low” for five consecutive years. SIMCE results showed in its last edition (2017) that 68% of students are labeled as A1 level according to CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference), the level expected for 8 graders. In Chile, Efforts have been constantly made in terms of updating the national curriculum such as adhering to communicative approach to teaching in 2012 and providing guidelines that are inspired by research literature as the four strand principles of Nation (2007,2012). With these new perspective in mind is that emphasis should be placed to productive skills and to give to the practice of them, especially speaking, the goal of conveying a message. An existing gap is found in the classroom of Chilean context of public schools regarding the practice of speaking skill and the assistance previously mentioned, corrective feedback. This is the case of three students who attend a Chilean public school, they demonstrate high declarative knowledge for their level, 11th grade; however, they are not able to use the contents taught in their English lessons communicatively during speaking opportunities. First, and foremost, there are not many opportunities for speaking in Chilean public schools and when they take part in speaking tasks, in general, a lack of fluency and accuracy at the end of each lesson or unit is observed. In order to help them improve their speaking skills, they decided to participate in this intervention where they were provided with contextualized practice of language features corresponding to the Chilean National Curriculum for their level and corrective feedback strategies.

In response to this concern, the following action research aims at exploring the contribution that oral corrective feedback strategies, prompts and recasts, have upon 11th grade students when performing individual speaking tasks at the end of each lesson. During this intervention, students receive corrective feedback strategies in which the teacher responds to errors repeating students’ erroneous utterances incorporating the correction in it, named “recast”. Another strategy of oral corrective feedback used in this study is called “prompt”, in which the teacher signals an error has occurred but pushes the learner to self-repair. Also, these corrective feedback strategies can be provided implicitly or explicitly, such as simple repetition eliciting the error with emphasis or providing a metalinguistic clue the learner is supposed to know, or finally these strategies can be immediate or delayed. All these strategies of corrective feedback could enable the learners to restructure their interlanguage system and by getting students used to receiving corrective feedback, transform their perception towards it, seeing the errors as an opportunity to learn from instead of something to be ashamed of, next section deals with practice of speaking in classroom settings and all the concepts around corrective feedback, each strategy and effectiveness of the same.

## **LITERATURE**

### **Practice in Form-focused instruction**

In form-focused instruction, which still predominates Chilean classrooms, students are presented with explicit instruction on a grammar spot, when the grammar spot needs to be put into practice, two types of practicing the spot emerge as stated by Lyster & Sato (2013), namely guided practice and communicative practice. In guided practice, the aim is to elicit a specific language feature, the systematic practice of it will “gradually transit from effortful use to more automatic use of the target language” (p.71), it is assumed that the learner is new to those language features so does not have practical experience to reference, hence, they can only access theory and rules. According to an interactionist perspective

(Gass, 2010), the benefit of this type of practice are that learners benefit from negotiation of meaning when errors occur, from the contrast produced by positive and negative evidence during conversational interaction that allows the learner to adjust their language. Other benefits are the ones mentioned in skill acquisition theory by Lyster & Sato (2013) who state that “input-driven approaches trigger noticing and awareness of target languages features” (p.71). During communicative practice, on the other hand, the aim is that learners can engage in meaning-focused tasks where they can express with fewer constraints regarding accuracy, this type of practice promotes a safe environment as well as confidence and motivation to engage to produce the language, the problem arises because “open-ended communicative practice may not engage learners’ language awareness to the same extent as in guided practice”(Skehan 1998 as cited in Lyster & Sato, 2013, p. 79). Presentation of language spot and practice are not enough for L2 learning breakthrough, these two factors are more effective when combined with awareness tasks and feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 2007). In the view of Lyster & Sato (2013), “feedback serves to draw attention to target language forms in ways that contribute to a restructuring of interlanguage representation” (p.82).

### **Corrective feedback in environmental approaches**

During the training of speaking skills is expected that students are going to make errors, this is how students learn, however, if students do not reflect on their errors through feedback they cannot adjust their interlanguage system, this is the reason why feedback is so important, this response from a teacher to those errors is something called corrective feedback (hereafter CF) which “refers to the feedback that learners receive on the linguistic errors they make in their oral or written production” (Sheen & Ellis, 2011, p. 593). Even though Sheen & Ellis included CF in written production, the focus on this action research will be in speaking production due to the interaction it requires that is not produced “when teachers correct and simply return students’ written work” (p. 598). CF is addressed in theories of L2 acquisition, while in some of them it is seen as harmful to L2 learning, others see it as a contribution especially in environmental approaches. According to these approaches it is understood that a “learner builds their knowledge of a language from their linguistic environment” (Gass, 2010, p.1). Four of the approaches that share tenets in interaction are skill acquisition, interaction hypothesis, output hypothesis and noticing hypothesis. Skill acquisition holds that to become better at a skill you need to practice in order to transition from effortful to effortless production; interaction hypothesis indicates that participation in interaction creates affordances for learning; output hypothesis is about noticing a gap between what I want to say, and what I am capable to say, and in the interaction I can get an immediate reaction from an interlocutor that knows more; finally, the noticing approach states that students learning process is enhanced when they are exposed to an input of an interlocutor that provides correct exemplars, linguistic forms, of L2 (Sheen & Ellis, 2011). Therefore, in simple terms and taking into account common features of all these theories, students would be given a speaking task, there is “practice”, “interaction”, “output” and “noticing” happening, suddenly there is a communication breakdown, in this communication breakdown the students are exposed to negotiation of meaning by contrasting positive evidence (correct exemplar of the language) and negative evidence (incorrect exemplars of the language). At this point is when CF appears as the learner might perceive something is wrong, but not necessarily identify which is the correct form so corrective feedback is the tool that provides that missing part. Hence, once the

student recognizes the correction it is expected a response from them, sometimes called modified output (Goo & Mackey, 2012) or uptake (Lyster & Ranta, 2012). Corrective feedback strategies are classified as recasts and prompts, and the response from students to corrective feedback can be repair, when they reformulate their erroneous utterances and not repair, when they ignore or overlook the correction. The strategies, as well as expected responses from students, along with pros and cons of using each one will be addressed in depth in the following sub-sections.

### **Corrective feedback strategies**

The taxonomy of corrective feedback indicated in Sheen & Ellis (2011, p.594) divides strategies into what they call *on-line* (immediate) and *off-line* (delayed) to refer to the moment in which feedback is delivered; *input-providing* (recast, the teacher reformulates learner's utterance); and *output-prompting* (prompts, the learners is pushed to repair) to refer to the agent that provides positive evidence, i.e. the correct version of the erroneous utterance, and a final distinction between implicit and explicit to refer to how evident the correction is made. Strategies considered as input-providing are: conversational recasts, didactic recasts, explicit correction, and explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation. Strategies considered as output-prompting are repetitions, clarification requests, metalinguistic clues, elicitations and paralinguistic signals.

### **Recast**

Recast has been the most preferred strategy by teachers when assisting students' errors (Lyster & Ranta, 1998). This concept has been defined as "utterances from a teacher that rephrase a learner's utterance by changing one or more erroneous components while still referring to its central meanings" (Long, 2007 p.434). Sheen and Ellis referred to two types of recast, conversational and didactic. In conversational recasts, the teacher rephrases an utterance in which the error interferes with communication; while, in didactic recast, the teacher rephrase an erroneous utterance that does not interfere with communication (2011). Teachers may prefer recasts because they have the purpose of allowing students to notice they have made an error when comparing their utterance to the teacher's (Goo & Mackey, 2012), without compromising fluency as with recast the interruption is minimal, they "maintain the flow of communication" (Lyster, 2006, p.290). Even though there are no settled rules over what type of errors to correct using recasts, they could be provided when the errors are related to prior knowledge and the students are training developmental knowledge, but also because the form is provided in a recast, it is not necessary prior knowledge of the form, i.e. knowledge that is presented for the first time and finally recasts could address global errors (i.e. errors that affect comprehension of the message). Following recasts, the response expected on behalf of the learner is repetition of the teacher reformulation, however, some problems that might emerge from this strategy is that students might not process recasts as correction but as "a sign of noticing what was claimed by others" or "to perceive recast as responding to the content rather than the incorrectness, of their utterance or as alternative ways of saying the same thing". (Panova & Lyster, 2002, p.577), as it was mentioned in Goo & Mackey (2012), there are factors such as intonation, length, number of changes in the reformulation can impact the saliency of a recast.

## **Prompts**

Prompts refer to strategies in which the teacher signals to the students “that their utterances are problematic” (Mackey, Park & Tagarelli, 2016, p.503) and pushes the learner to self repair, these prompts strategies are: metalinguistic clues (i.e. which is the action? which is the verb in the sentence?), explicit correction with a metalinguistic clue (i.e. What is the comparative form of that?), clarification request (i.e. when someone responds “sorry?” or “what?”), paralinguistic clues (i.e. make a gesture). The errors that are addressed with these strategies are the ones that need prior knowledge “given that prompts cannot be used to elicit forms students do not know already” (Lyster & Ranta, 2012, p.178). In this regard, “it remains unclear how a learner with zero knowledge of a form could attempt to produce it during meaningful interaction” (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013, p.13). The response that is expected from students is self repair, assuming they have prior knowledge of the form. The main factors affecting prompts might be that students do not receive prior instruction of a form because they are not going to be able to repair their utterances.

## **Effectiveness of feedback**

To start with, evidence has shown that is better to provide corrective feedback than not providing feedback at all, because by receiving corrective feedback “learners can benefit from repeated exposure to positive exemplars as well as from opportunities to infer negative evidence” (Lyster et al, 2003, p. 175) or “Corrective Feedback assists acquisition when learners have the opportunity to repair/correct their initial error following the CF move (known as uptake) this is one type of modified output” (Sheen & Ellis, 2011, p.596). In order to specify to what extent or in which areas corrective feedback is effective, it has been explored selecting one strategy, recasts or prompts, as well as comparing the strategies, recasts versus prompts, being the criteria of effectiveness in both cases, the response from the students to corrective feedback, i.e. if they repair or not. There is evidence in favor and against both approaches (isolation and comparison of CF strategies) considering the aforementioned criteria. However, as Lyster & Ranta (2012) mentioned “it is inadvisable to make generalizations about the benefits of any particular type of CF” (p.181). In this sense, Goo & Mackey (2012) recommend “taking into consideration how CF interacts with some factors such as noticing and attention, individual differences of learners in cognitive capacities, social factors and type of target addressed” (p.159). These two perspectives might help to rethink effectiveness in terms of uptake as it is rather reductionist to compare them, the search could be oriented then to how integrate them, as students benefit from both due to each strategy serves a different purpose that does not exclude the other.

## **METHOD**

### **Type of research**

The type of research approach in this study is qualitative, qualitative approach aims at “exploring and understanding a phenomenon [...]the researcher interprets the meaning of the information drawing on personal reflections, the final report is flexible and displays researcher’s biases and thoughts” (Creswell, 2012, p.626). The design of this study is an action research, which refers to “systematic procedures done by teachers or other

individuals in an educational setting to gather information about, and subsequently improve, the ways their particular educational setting operates, their teaching, and their student learning” (Mills, 2003, as cited in Creswell, 2012, p.577). In this design, teacher-researchers reflect on their teaching practices and use techniques for both collecting and analysing data, generate meaning and understanding from this phenomenon and finally implement changes based on findings to bring about change in teaching practices.

### **Description of participants**

The participants were three female students of eleventh grade, their ages range from 15-16 years. They agreed on volunteering for this intervention because of their level of proficiency and willingness to train oral production skills. The sample chosen is a convenience sample, which is a subgroup intentionally chosen “because they are available, convenient, and represent some characteristic the investigator seeks to study” (Creswell, 2012, p.146).

### **Research question and objectives**

#### Research question

What are students’ response when the teacher provides oral corrective feedback during individual speaking tasks?

#### General objective

To explore the extent to which corrective feedback affects oral production in a group of 11<sup>th</sup> graders during individual speaking tasks.

#### Specific objectives

- SO1: Describe teacher’s strategies in response to students’ errors during speaking tasks
- SO2: Describe students’ response when oral corrective feedback is provided during individual speaking tasks
- SO3: Identify students’ perception on oral corrective feedback during individual speaking tasks

### **Stages of the research study**

This intervention was carried out with the collaboration of three volunteer students, a total of 4 sessions of approximately one hour each that were video recorded, during the implementation phase students received form-focused instruction addressing topics related to natural disasters and the use of conditionals, followed by a speaking task where the students were required to apply the form presented in the context of the topics suggested by the Chilean National Curriculum corresponding to the level. Prior to the actual performance, students were given a planning time and then took part in a conversation with the teacher about the topic discussed in the instruction phase. In the last session students participated in a semi-structures interview and questionnaire with open questions that addressed topics such as speaking skill competence, corrective feedback, and causes of

errors. The questions of the interview were adapted from Kerr (2017), the questions of the questionnaire were adapted from critical incident reflection of Sparke & Skoyles (2002).

### **Data collection techniques**

In order to address specific objectives, three instruments were chosen to gather data: classroom observation, a semi-structured interview and a questionnaire. According to Mason (2002), the criteria for combining these instruments is that “meaningful knowledge cannot be generated without observation, because not all knowledge is articulable, recountable or constructable in an interview” (p.85).

### **Classroom observation**

Observation is a technique used to collect data “which entails the researcher immersing herself or himself in a research ‘setting’ so that they can experience and observe first hand a range of dimensions in and of that setting” (Mason, 2002, p.84). In this action research, the teacher researcher was immersed in the classroom to gather data that will be useful for later analysis. In every lesson, students received an instructional phase where contents were presented, and later put into practice through individual speaking tasks (hereafter IST), all designed with progressive overload in complexity. These IST progress until they cover the most important aspects of the unit and all of them were recorded with the purpose of finding critical incidents. Critical incident is defined by Ferrel (2008, p.3) as “any unplanned event that occurs during class” the importance of the incidents is that they are a source for reflection for teachers about their teaching practice. According to Schön (1983) “reflection begins with some form of surprise followed by perplexity, which stimulates us to understand what surprises us so that we can use what we learn to improve whatever it is we do” (as cited in Tripp, 1993, p.12). The critical incidents in this study refer to the specific moment when a student makes a mistake and receives corrective feedback from the teacher in these individual speaking tasks, focusing on students responses to describe them and turn them into meaningful data. In total, 4 video recordings were carried out in order to find incidents worth analysing. Regarding the error correction criteria, among all the possible mistakes students could make only the ones that were related to the content explained/elicited previous to the main task, were priority for feedback delivery. Errors that were not related to the contents were overlooked in order to avoid interrupting the flow of the speech.

### **Semi structured interview and questionnaire**

During the last session, students took part in a one-on-one semi-structured interview in which they answered a set of open-ended questions combined with questions that go deeper depending on students’ answers. The design of the interview questions were adapted from a research addressing the same topic (Kerr, 2017) , and were validated with two university professors. The topics of the questions were related to the ideas they have about feedback and speaking skills in general, and specific topics like strategies of corrective feedback, explore their perceptions on their own language competence, how they approached speaking tasks and how they feel during these tasks.

Finally, students were asked to express their opinions through a questionnaire of 5 questions (Sparke & Skoyles, 2002) where they expressed their final thoughts regarding the whole intervention, recalling the critical incidents, describing their mental processes

and emotions during and after the critical incidents, to finish with their perceptions on learning from these incidents.

### **Data analysis techniques**

Classroom observation required a critical incident analysis, critical incidents were defined by Tripp (1993, p.8) as “produced by the way we look at a situation: a critical incident is an interpretation of the significance of an event”. For the context of this action research, critical incidents were spontaneous error occurrences in which the teacher provided CF strategies. Once this critical incidents were identified, they were transcribed, the themes that emerged were organized and labeled according to the corrective feedback strategies recast and prompts, and students’ responses whether they repaired or not repaired.

For the interview, the process required a content and thematic analysis, in thematic analysis the steps followed what Creswell indicated in 2012, in which these steps to analyse the data involved, firstly the transcription of information along with the reading of transcripts to generate initial codes. This also included collating these codes to raise potential themes for reviewing the themes to find sub-themes within them. Finally, it these were refined by organizing significant themes and sub-themes. For the interview, the organization was done according to the two dimensions, feedback and speaking, and their sub-themes that came from thematic analysis. Content analysis refers to evaluate the frequency in which a word or phrase appeared, which reflects the importance participants give to them. (Namey, Guest, Thairu & Johnson, 2008, p.138), this technique was used to highlight the most preferred corrective feedback strategies or the time and manner students would prefer to receive feedback.

## **RESULTS**

Three instruments were used to collect data, the results out of the data processing will be presented addressing each specific objective. First, findings regarding how errors were treated will be presented describing the teacher’s oral corrective feedback strategies, then findings regarding students’ response to those oral corrective feedback strategies. In order to address specific objective 3, findings regarding students’ perception on feedback role, preferences and effects will be addressed.

### **SO1: Describe teacher strategies to address students’ error during speaking tasks**

In order to describe the teacher’s strategies when students made errors during speaking tasks, it is necessary to describe the critical incidents found during the five speaking tasks in the intervention. In total, ten critical incidents were identified and selected according to a particular criterion, which specifies that only the mistakes that were related to the content presented previous to the speaking task (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation of the vocabulary) were priority for feedback delivery. The findings regarding these critical incidents reveal that a total of five different strategies of oral corrective feedback were used, and they can be classified into recast (6) and prompts (4). Excerpt (1) shows a sample of didactic recast, the other strategies correspond to prompt such as meta linguistic clue (2), clarification request (3), delayed feedback using the strategy of explicit correction with a metalinguistic clue (4), and finally, one type of feedback with a paralinguistic clue (5). Table 1 illustrates the amount of delivery per category (recast / prompts). The strategies



were delivered according to the mistakes made with a slight predominance of recast over prompts.

(1) Student 1: *Cause my worst nightmare is er...die burnt*

Teacher: *....to die burnt?*[didactic recast]

(2) Student 2: *er...an emergency kit?*

Teacher: *an emergency kit...ok, but what do you do with an emergency kit?*

*What is the action, the verb?* [metalinguistic clue]

(3) Student 1: *and hold on... my parents*

Teacher: *call your parents? Or wait for your parents?* [clarification request]

(4) Student 2: *prepare a emergency kit*

Teacher: *for example if I say prepare a emergency what is wrong with that article?*

[explicit correction with a metalinguistic clue]

(5) Student 1: *if the teacher er... don' t*

Teacher : [Paralinguistic clue]

Student 1: *(student smiles) doesn' t get panicked too*

Table 1 shows the corrective feedback strategies used in the intervention, recasts and prompts, a breakdown of each category as well as the number of occurrences in each one during the intervention.

Table 1

<u>Recast / prompt</u>	<u>Corrective Feedback strategy</u>	<u>N° of incidents</u>
Recast	Didactic recast	6
Prompts	Paralinguistic clue	1
	Explicit correction with metalinguistic clue	1
	Metalinguistic clue	1
	Elicitation	1
Total incidents		10

*Teacher Strategies Used During The Intervention*

## SO 2: Describe students' response when oral corrective feedback strategies, recast and prompts, are provided during individual speaking tasks.

By analysing all the students' responses to corrective feedback strategies it could be identified five categories. Table 2 shows a summary of these responses and specifies the CF strategy in which they reacted to, as well as the number of incidents the response occurred.

Table 2

<u>Response incidents</u>	<u>Corrective feedback strategy</u>	<u>N° of incidents</u>
(a) Confirmation ("yes") without reformulation	Recast	2
(b) Confirmation ("yes") with reformulation	Prompt	1
(c) Overlook / Ignore	Recast	1
(d) Reformulate	Recast (2) / Prompt (2)	4
(e) Smile	Recast (1) / Prompt (1)	2
Total incidents		10

### *Students' Response to Corrective Feedback*

#### **Students' response to recast**

During the ten critical incidents, the teacher provided simple reformulations 6 times (4 times in grammar, 1 in pronunciation, 1 in vocabulary), findings indicate that students' response to recast were either to reformulate their utterances or to overlook them (i.e. when the teacher repeats a sentence said by a student containing an error with the correction in it but the student says "yes" or just continues performing). If the students reformulated and repeated the utterance, it is considered to be effective, during the times recast was provided the teacher made reformulations eliciting an error, in response 50% of the time the students repaired, reformulating their utterances and on the other 50% (3 of 5) of the times students did not repair as shown in figure. During the events in which the teacher provided recast, the error found in the sentences was emphasized when reformulated by the teacher, and the students repaired, conversely, when the teacher did not emphasize the error when reformulating a sentence the students overlooked the mistakes and answered "yes" as if it were a response on behalf of the teacher with the function of showing interest in the conversation.

(6) Student 1: *The earthquake is the best option for survive*

Teacher : *to survive?*

Student 1: ....yes [does not repair]

(7) Student 1: *the tornado scare me*

Teacher: ....*it scares you*

Student 1: (*Smiles*) *the tornado scares me* [Repairs]

### Students' response to prompts

In contrast to recast, the teacher provided fewer prompts, four out of ten incidents (1 for vocabulary, 3 for grammar) corresponding to the 40% of all the strategies used. Findings indicate in this category that students' response when prompts were provided was to repair at all times. Repairing as a response to the use of a corrective feedback strategy, it is considered effective; therefore, in terms of effectiveness, 100% of the times the students reformulated their utterances. In these cases, the teacher provided strategies shown in table 3, such as explicit Elicitation (a), explicit correction with metalinguistic clue (b) correction with metalinguistic clue (c), and finally one type of feedback with a paralinguistic clue (d). In the latest case, the teacher was going to provide feedback, however, when trying to address the error, the teacher made a gesture as if she was going to say something, in response the student repaired immediately. In one of the first incidents, the student smiled because she could come up with the wrong part of her utterance and suddenly smiled and repaired.

Table 3

<u>Type of Prompt</u>	<u>Speaker</u>	<u>Utterances</u>
(a) Elicitation	Student	<i>and hold on... my parents</i>
	Teacher	<i>call your parents? Or wait for your parents?</i>
	Student	<i>mm...yeah wait for my parents [Repairs]</i>
(b) Explicit correction with metalinguistic clue	Student	<i>prepare a emergency kit</i>
	Teacher	<i>for example if I say "prepare a emergency kit" what is wrong with that article?</i>
	Student	<i>it's the "a" article [Repairs]</i>
(c) Metalinguistic clue	Student	<i>an emergency kit</i>
	Teacher	<i>ok, but what is the action, the verb?</i> <i>what is the action? (smiles)</i> <i>ah!..prepare an emergency kit [Repairs]</i>
(d) Paralinguistic clue	Student	<i>if the teacher er... don' t</i>
	Teacher	[Paralinguistic clue]
	Student	<i>(student smiles) doesn' t get panicked too [Repairs]</i>

*Prompts Strategies Provided*

### Identify students' perception on oral corrective feedback strategies, recast and prompts, during speaking tasks

Students expressed their opinions on feedback through questions that covered topics such as: speaking, feedback and the role of errors in learning. From thematic analysis and sumative content analysis emerged the categories as well as topics students valued more as a result of frequency, all the categories are shown in table 4. In the next paragraphs every dimension will be addressed.

A summary of students' views is presented on Figure 4.1 below, which shows participants' most preferred corrective feedback strategies according to sumative content analysis. It can be observed that students prefer delayed and implicit CF strategies.



Figure 4.1 participants' most preferred corrective feedback strategies

Table 4

<u>Dimension</u>	<u>Themes</u>	<u>Sub-themes</u>
Strategy preferences	Time	Immediate Delayed
	Manner	Explicit Implicit In a nice way
	Agent	Teacher Peer
Role in learning	Understanding of concept	Process Relevant Irrelevant Neutral
	Effect of feedback	Promotes self-regulation Effectiveness Prefer corrections Gain confidence Lose confidence

*Perception of Feedback: Dimension, Themes and Sub-themes*

In the first dimension, students' corrective feedback preferences, emerged three themes, the first theme, time, is related to the moment for receiving feedback in this regard one student (S2) emphatically stressed the importance of being corrected on the spot in order to associate the mistake to its correction otherwise she would forget it. The other students (S1, S3), without having received any delayed corrective feedback strategy, expressed to prefer delayed corrective feedback over immediate corrective feedback. One of them (S1) expressed categorically that immediate feedback was annoying because it interrupted her ideas or performance and that in order to learn from mistakes she would like to reflect on what she did wrong. Excerpt (20) shows preference for delayed feedback whereas (21) shows an example for Immediate.

(20) *"prefiero que me den feedback después, para poner más atención en que me equivoqué"*(I prefer to receive feedback afterwards to focus my attention in what I did wrong) [S2, Interview]

(21) *"prefiero que me corrijan en el momento porque se me queda más grabado"*(I prefer to be corrected on the spot because I can remember better) [student 3, interview]

The second theme, the manner, emerged two sub-themes to refer to how evident the correction should be. When asked about implicit v/s explicit feedback, all of them answered implicit in the sense to be allowed to self-repair and promote autonomy, but then also emerged idea of not noticing what the error was and so preferred explicit feedback from the teacher to reflect on the error and avoid making the same mistake again as it is shown in (22) for implicit and (23) for explicit. From students responses emerged a third sub-theme which is not related to the agent but the manner a teacher delivers corrections namely "in a nice way":

(22) *"es mejor pensar si no sería muy fácil y después como que... en otra ocasión después uno igual tiene que pensar y entonces no va a haber nadie que le diga la respuesta correcta."* (It's better to think by myself, otherwise it would be too easy and then it would be like...in another occasion we have to think by ourselves and no one will tell you the correct answer) [student 3, Interview]

(23) *"prefiero mejor explícito, así me doy cuenta de cuál fue mi error"* (I prefer explicit feedback so I can notice what my error was) [student 1, interview]

The third and last theme of feedback preferences dimension, labeled as the agent, addressed students preferences in terms of the agent that is going to come up with the correction, whether the teacher or students themselves, an example is shown in the excerpt (24):

(24) *"entonces en ese sentido creo que (prefiero feedback) de la profesora, ella sabe más"* (so in that sense I think that I prefer feedback from the teacher, she knows more) [Student 2, interview]

In the second and last dimension, the role of error, students referred to the concept of feedback and what they understood by it. Two themes emerged as a result of content analysis, understanding and the role of error in learning, four sub-themes emerged for understanding of feedback and five for the role of errors in learning. In general terms, they agreed on the view that feedback is a process about correcting mistakes and not errors, that it aimed at remembering or reviewing contents. In the sub-themes "promotes regulation" and "effectiveness" students expressed positive view on feedback, they all agreed that it as a process to reflect on current status to move forward in their learning, shown in extract (25), and that at some point they learned more from the corrective feedback move instead

of teacher prior instruction, see extract (26). All agreed on their perception that corrective feedback supports the content that is still developing or that it helps to promote long-term learning. Another positive shows that students perceived feedback as a way to promote self-regulation where they could realize whether mistakes they made or to be more aware or careful when speaking. For the last sub-theme they manifested to prefer being corrected and that feedback made them gain more confidence, a sample is shown (26) about the contribution of CF on developmental knowledge.

(25) entonces es mejor cometer los errores para aprender mejor al final (so it is better to make mistakes to learn more) [student 1, interview]

(26) Cuando pasamos contenidos nuevos y más complicados aprendí muchas más cosas de las correcciones que de la materia en sí, en esos momentos sentía que ser corregida realmente me orientaba mucho porque cuando uno pasa contenidos nuevos la materia está débil aún y con muchos puntos ciegos (when we saw new and more complex contents I learnt more from corrections than the content itself, at those moments I felt that being corrected guided me a lot because when one sees new contents they are still weak and with lots of blind spots) [student 2, questionnaire]

## **DISCUSSION**

Findings regarding the teacher strategies used during the intervention showed that recasts and prompts were delivered with no great difference in terms of frequency when addressing students errors. Conversely, a difference could be noticed in terms of the strategies used at an early stage of the intervention and towards the end of it where the teacher provided more prompts in the first session and predominantly recasts towards the end.

In terms of prompts, during the first session in particular, the students had prior knowledge of the structure due to exposure out of the intervention, particularly at school, therefore, the strategy used to address error occurrences in this session was prompts. The preference for this strategy over recast can be interpreted according to Lyster & Ranta' view, in which "learners need to be provided with opportunities to assimilate and consolidate knowledge as well as become fluent and accurate users of the target language" (2013, p.178). Thus, by using the strategy the students were pushed to self-repair within the contents they already know. Another relevant point that could be related to the use of prompts, it is that it can be a way to address learners' individual differences. In this particular case and content, this strategy was mainly used with student (S2) who showed higher literacy level and low levels of anxiety, hence, this strategy could support her better as she was able to repair and not feel threatened when the teacher elicited an error in her utterances.

During the sessions that followed, recasts were provided in two situations: when learners were presented with forms that addressed developmental knowledge (content they had partially seen before) or difficult grammatical structures that required long-term treatment (other conditional forms). In response to errors made in the first situation, it could be argued that the teacher used recasts with the purpose of assisting speech without compromising fluency, what Goo and Mackey defined in 2012 as an unobtrusive means to assist learners' utterances by making the target form salient when providing reformulations so that the learner can compare both positive and negative evidence. The intended outcome was that

“learners receiving recasts can benefit from repeated exposure to positive exemplars as well as opportunities to infer negative evidence” (Lyster, 2013, p.175).

In terms of corrective feedback strategies and students’ responses, the response of half of the students to oral CF was to repair (70%) most of the times, in contrast to not repair (30%). These findings could be discussed based on how effective the strategies were considering whether students repaired or not. In the case of repairing following prompts, the teacher stopped the flow of communication making evident that something happened, hence the students had time to think and show that the mistake was the result of nervousness or distraction. In fact, some students explicitly mentioned preferring to think by themselves to come up with their mistakes, while others expected the teacher, as “the expert” to provide the answer. This is consistent with Lantolfi’s views (2000) suggesting that CF prompts needed to be tailored to the learners’ needs and provided only when it is necessary (as cited in Li, 2014). Furthermore, to explain recast repair inconsistency, which resulted in half efficiency, Lyster (2004) argued that students may perceive recast as a response to the message that was communicated (as cited in Li, 2014) instead of a mistake, when they for example answered “yes” to the correction.

When asked about the incidents, students mentioned factors such as nervousness and distraction even though they knew the contents. Two of them actually were able to recall some of their mistakes exactly as they occurred. It seems that there is a relation between how they perceive their abilities and the factors they mentioned. For example, one student in particular, manifested to feel very confident in her ability to speak English, she made fewer mistakes, repaired in all of them, and expressed not feeling emotionally affected by corrections or the mistakes themselves. Another point to be made regarding students responses is that they explained those responses differently towards the end of the intervention making them more thoughtful and aware of their learning and seeing mistakes and teacher support as an opportunity instead of a threat. They could even express preferences and label them. This point is consistent with Lantolfi’s (2000) reference, to the importance of considering their personal needs and styles when providing feedback.

There were a few topics in which the whole sample agreed, therefore, these preferences were interpreted as marked by their personalities. In the first theme related to CF preferences, students expressed ideas based on what was important for them, i.e. to say things accurately or with the purpose of communicating something. Two students (S1 and S3) strongly emphasized that repetitive corrections had a negative effect on them (i.e. interrupted flow of communication or becoming insecure) and two (S1 and S2) preferred delayed feedback. This idea is related to what McDonough (2013) stated “Correcting regularly during oral work will tend to inhibit further those learners who may already be rather taciturn in class” (p.179). To finish, all mentioned the importance of reflecting on their mistakes whether it was immediate or delayed, it was more important to reflect in order to learn so that contents were stored in the long run. In regards to the personality aspect it could be argued that it should be taken into account when deciding which strategy works best for a specific student as there is a gap between what teachers assume and what students prefer, in this case it was assumed they all could cope with immediate feedback but two of them (S1 & S2) expressed the opposite idea.

In regard to the second theme related to the manner in which CF was delivered, whether implicit or explicit, students manifested ideas that were confusing and inconsistent. For instance, when asked if they preferred to think by themselves (considered implicit feedback) on what they did wrong instead of the teacher providing the answer (considered explicit feedback), they all agreed on preferring to think by themselves. However, in order to use these strategies labeled as prompts the teacher necessarily needs to interrupt the flow of communication, and as it was mentioned in the preceding paragraph, they perceived interruptions were detrimental for them. A sub-theme that emerged from frequency was the manner in which the teacher provided feedback, all students mentioned at different points during the interview that the teacher hopefully could deliver feedback in a “nice way”

Findings regarding the perception towards the role of the teacher during speaking tasks suggest that they acknowledged the teacher as the agent to support their tasks, and that preferred correction over dismissing their mistakes. In their words, the teacher is there to help them as a source of knowledge and that supports them by reinforcing or confirming what they know as they perform a speaking task and that finally builds confidence on them.

### **IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE AND RESEARCH**

This action research started from a concern regarding teaching practices of a teacher after training speaking skills at a language institution. The implications of this study findings in regards to practice are that they provide, from a theoretical point of view, the justification to make better informed decisions when dealing with students’ errors, i.e. what strategy is better for certain contents or areas (prior knowledge or absence of knowledge), what errors to correct or ignore as well as to be aware of emotional factors that predict or influence performance. Implications from a practical point of view are that they might provide with first insights on what factors to consider when correcting students during speaking practice and how to adapt corrections to students’ personality or preferences, leaving aside possible assumptions about their preferences. It has provided with ideas on how to design better contextualized practice and the importance of devoting time to practice speaking skill if the aim is to help students speak a language instead of knowing a language.

### **CONCLUSIONS**

This action research aimed at exploring the treatment of error in a group of teenagers during the training of speaking skills in order to identify effects and perception of corrective feedback and its contribution to their communicative skills. It was designed an intervention of four sessions adapting a unit from the Chilean National Curriculum in which they had instruction prior to every speaking task to explore critical incidents. To collect the data, classroom observation were carried out every session and interviews and questionnaire were carried out in the last session to identify how the teacher addressed students’ errors, how students reacted to corrections, how students perceived their speaking skills and factors influencing them and finally how students perceived teacher’s assistance. The results showed that for specific objective 1, the teacher used recasts and prompts for two reasons the first reason was to use strategies in response to students’ personality factors when she provided prompts to the student that showed high efficacy levels, assuming she could handle an obtrusive strategy that makes evident there was something



erroneous and push her to self-repair, conversely providing more recasts to the students that demonstrate anxiety and insecurity when speaking or low levels of self-efficacy which proved to be related when students expressed opinions on corrective feedback preferences. The second reason was to address specific areas of content, for instance, prompts were used in the beginning of the intervention in the sessions where the students had prior knowledge and exposure to the contents seen in the sessions. Recasts were used to address errors in contents that were new to them or take longer to develop. Regarding the second specific objective, it aimed at identifying students' response, literature indicates that responses can be repetition, reformulation following recasts and self-repair following prompts. The results showed that in response to recasts students reformulated their utterances in half of the critical incidents found and answered "yes" or overlooked the correction the other half.

The last specific objective which aimed at identifying students' perception on oral corrective feedback during individual speaking tasks gave as result that a common aspect strongly emphasized was that repetitive corrections had a negative effect on them (i.e. interrupted flow of communication or becoming insecure) and 2 out of 3 preferred delayed feedback, when asked if they preferred to think on what they did wrong instead of the teacher providing the answer, they all agreed on preferring to think by themselves, they acknowledged the teacher as the agent to support their tasks, and that preferred correction over dismissing their mistakes. After learning explicitly about their preferences makes me reflect on successful vs unsuccessful actions to adjust my practices, reconsider assumptions about my students so these actions can contribute to an effective outcome during speaking tasks.

## **FUTURE RESEARCH**

Although there is international evidence regarding corrective feedback in classroom settings, I consider that this is an area that has not been explored in Chilean context, perhaps due to the difficulties faced by teachers in terms of implementation of this methodology in large groups, future research in this area could be insightful on how to train speaking skills along with corrective feedback and how they contribute to L2 acquisition in large classes because of the challenge that might arise, for instance, knowing students' preferences in terms of time and manner in which feedback is delivered, maybe the possibility to explore the agent that is going to deliver the feedback as students in this action research mentioned the possibility of receiving peer feedback and lastly explore how familiarized students get when exposed to a specific teacher corrective feedback strategies, will it contribute to more self-repair responses or to habituation in which repeated stimuli decrease response from students.

## **References**

- Bamberger, J., & Schön, D. A. (1983). Learning as reflective conversation with materials: Notes from work in progress. *Art Education*, 36(2), 68-73.
- Bandura, A., Evans, R. I., & Huberman, B. (1988). Albert Bandura. na.
- Brown, H. D. (1994). *Teaching by principles an interactive approach to language pedagogy*. Englewood Cliffs.
- Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching*.
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: planning. Conducting, and Evaluating*.
- Ellis, R. (1991). *The Interaction Hypothesis: A Critical Evaluation*.

- Ellis, R. (2009). Corrective feedback and teacher development. *L2 Journal*, 1(1).
- Farrell, T. S. (2008). Critical incidents in ELT initial teacher training. *ELT journal*, 62(1), 3-10.
- Goo, J., & Mackey, A. (2013). The case against the case against recasts. *Studies in second language acquisition*, 35(1), 127-165.
- Gass, S. (2002). Interactionist perspectives on second language acquisition. In *The Oxford handbook of applied linguistics*.
- Gass, S., Mackey, A. M. (Eds.). (2011). *Research methods in second language acquisition: A practical guide* (Vol. 7). John Wiley & Sons.
- George, H. V. (1972). *Common Errors in Language Learning: Insights from English*.
- Harmer, J. (2008). How to teach English. *ELT journal*, 62(3), 313-316.
- Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of educational research*, 77(1), 81-112.
- Heyde, A. W. (1979). The Relationship Between Self Esteem and the Oral Production of a Second Language. *Second Language: Trends in Research and Practice*. INSTITUTION Teachers on English to Speakers of Other, 226.
- Kerr, P. (2017). *Giving feedback on speaking*. ELT Series. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kerr, P. (2017). *How much time should we give to speaking practice*. ELT Series. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lantolf, J. P. (Ed.). (2000). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (Vol. 78, No. 4). Oxford university press.
- Li, S. (2013). Oral corrective feedback. *ELT journal*, 68(2), 196-198.
- Long, M. H. (1983). Native speaker/non-native speaker conversation and negotiation of comprehensible input. *Applied Linguistics*, 4 (2), 126-141.
- Long, M. H. (1996). The role of linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. Ritchie and T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413-468). San Diego: Academic Press.
- Lyster, R. (2007). *Learning and teaching languages through content: A counterbalanced approach* (Vol. 18). John Benjamins Publishing.
- Lyster, R., & Mori, H. (2006). Interactional feedback and instructional counterbalance. *Studies in second language acquisition*, 28(2), 269-300.
- Panova, I., & Lyster, R. (2002). Patterns of corrective feedback and uptake in an adult ESL classroom. *Tesol Quarterly*, 36(4), 573-595.
- Lyster, R., & Sato, M. (2013). Skill acquisition theory and the role of practice in L2 development. *Contemporary approaches to second language acquisition*, 71-92.
- Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in second language acquisition*, 19(1), 37-66.
- Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (2013). Counterpoint piece: The case for variety in corrective feedback research. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 35(1), 167-184.
- Luoma, S. (2004). *Assessing speaking*. Ernst Klett Sprachen.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1991). Methods and results in the study of anxiety and language learning: A review of the literature. *Language learning*, 41(1), 85-117.
- Mackey, A., Park, H. I., & Tagarelli, K. M. (2016) *Errors, corrective feedback and repair*.
- McDonough, J., & Shaw, C. (2012). *Materials and Methods in ELT*. John Wiley & Sons.

- McDonough, J., Shaw, C., Masuhara, H., & Prowse, P. (2013). *Materials and Methods in ELT: A Teacher's Guide* (third edn.). New Ideas for L2 Materials, 47.
- Mackey, A. J., Park, H. I., & Tagarelli, K. (2016). Error, feedback, and repair: variations and learning outcomes.
- Mason, J. (2017). *Qualitative researching*. Sage.
- Mills, G. F., (2011): *Action research a guide for the teacher researcher* (with MyEducationLab). (4th edition). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson/ Allyn & Bacon.
- Namey, E., Guest, G., Thairu, L., & Johnson, L. (2008). Data reduction techniques for large qualitative data sets. *Handbook for team-based qualitative research*, 2(1), 137-161.
- Nation, I. S., & Newton, J. (2008). *Teaching ESL/EFL listening and speaking*. Routledge.
- Park, H., & Lee, A. R. (2005). L2 learners' anxiety, self-confidence and oral performance. In *Proceedings of the 10th Conference of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics* (pp. 107-208).
- Rosenberg, M., Schooler, C., Schoenbach, C., & Rosenberg, F. (1995). Global self-esteem and specific self-esteem: Different concepts, different outcomes. *American sociological review*, 141-156.
- Scovel, T. (1978). The effect of affect on foreign language learning: A review of the anxiety research. *Language learning*, 28(1), 129-142.
- Sheen, Y., & Ellis, R. (2011). Corrective feedback in language teaching. *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning*, 2, 593-610.
- Spratt, M., Pulverness, A., & Williams, M. (2005). *The TKT course*. Cambridge University Press.
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass and C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 235-253). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Swain, M. (2005). The output hypothesis: Theory and research. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language learning and teaching*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- VanPatten, B., and Williams, J. (2007). Introduction: The nature of theories. In B. VanPatten and J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction* (pp. 1-16). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Teimouri, Y., Goetze, J., & Plonsky, L. (2019). Second language anxiety and achievement: A meta-analysis. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 1-25.
- Thornbury, S. (2005). *How to teach speaking*. Longman.
- Tripp, D. (1994). Teachers' lives, critical incidents, and professional practice. *Qualitative Studies in education*, 7(1), 65-76.
- Tripp, D. (2011). *Critical incidents in teaching* (classic edition): Developing professional judgement. Routledge.