

---

Electronic Theses and Dissertations, 2004-2019

---

2010

## Correct Me If I Am Wrong: Investigating The Preferences In Error Correction Among Adult English Language Learners

Hillary Smith  
*University of Central Florida*

 Part of the [Language and Literacy Education Commons](#)  
Find similar works at: <https://stars.library.ucf.edu/etd>  
University of Central Florida Libraries <http://library.ucf.edu>

This Masters Thesis (Open Access) is brought to you for free and open access by STARS. It has been accepted for inclusion in Electronic Theses and Dissertations, 2004-2019 by an authorized administrator of STARS. For more information, please contact [STARS@ucf.edu](mailto:STARS@ucf.edu).

---

### STARS Citation

Smith, Hillary, "Correct Me If I Am Wrong: Investigating The Preferences In Error Correction Among Adult English Language Learners" (2010). *Electronic Theses and Dissertations, 2004-2019*. 4379.  
<https://stars.library.ucf.edu/etd/4379>

CORRECT ME IF I'M WRONG:  
INVESTIGATING THE PREFERENCES  
IN ERROR CORRECTION AMONG  
ADULT ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

by

HILLARY SMITH  
B.A. UNIVERSITY OF DENVER, 2000

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of Master of Arts  
in the Department of Modern Languages and Literatures  
in the College of Arts and Humanities  
at the University of Central Florida  
Orlando, Florida

Spring Term

2010

Major Professor: Florin Mihai

© 2010 Hillary Smith

## **ABSTRACT**

The purpose of this study was to investigate the existence the educational backgrounds of adult English Language Learners and their preferences in error correction. Fifty participants completed surveys of their educational and demographic backgrounds and beliefs about error correction, and then ranked video clips of different types of error correction in terms of perceived usefulness.

The survey examined the affective impact of oral error correction and students' preferences regarding which errors merited correction and when and how these errors should be corrected.

Participants with differing educational backgrounds expressed similar beliefs concerning the error correction and similar perceptions of the affective impact of CF.

The findings of this study indicated that teachers may run more risk of disappointing students by not meeting their expectations than they do of causing them a negative emotional experience through correction.

For Granddaddy, to whose memory and teachings I will never cease to turn for guidance.

## **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

I would like to express my deep gratitude to my committee chair, Dr. Mihai, without whose patience and guidance this project would not have been possible. My thanks also to Dr. Purmensky, Dr. Vitanova and Dr. Folse, for their support and instruction, and to Dr Thompson, for his kind and invaluable assistance.

I would like to acknowledge the kindness of the GROWS Literacy Council and the Hope Community Center in Apopka, as well as Marilina Viera, Frances Vargas, Sister Maureen White, and Beatrice Beardsworth for their support and enthusiasm during this process.

Finally, my love and thanks go to my family: Jane Smith, Forrester Wyman, John Smith, and Jan Robinson, and my sisters Alexandra Piñon and Rebecca Lee. Your encouragement and support have helped me through this project more than you know. Thank you.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES .....	ix
LIST OF FIGURES .....	x
LIST OF ACRONYMS/ABBREVIATIONS .....	xi
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION.....	1
Statement of the Problem.....	1
Background of the Study .....	3
Purpose of the Study .....	4
Design of the Study.....	4
Organization of the Study .....	6
Limitations .....	7
Assumptions.....	10
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW .....	12
Introduction.....	12
Should Learner Errors Be Corrected?.....	14
If So, When Should Learner Errors Be Corrected?.....	15
Which Learner Errors Should Be Corrected? .....	17
How Should Learner Errors Be Corrected? .....	18
Explicit Corrective Feedback.....	19
Recasts .....	20
Clarification Request .....	22
Metalinguistic Feedback .....	23
Elicitation .....	23
Repetition .....	23
Who Should Correct Learner Errors? .....	23
Affective Factors.....	25
Teacher Preferences .....	26
Student Preferences.....	28

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS .....	30
Purpose of the Study and Research Questions .....	30
Participants.....	31
Demographics .....	31
Proficiency .....	31
Instrumentation .....	33
Survey (Sample in Appendix B) .....	33
Procedure .....	36
Analysis Plan .....	38
CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS .....	40
Introduction.....	40
Description of the Sample.....	40
Research Question One:.....	41
Survey Part 1: Student Preferences Regarding Teacher-Generated Error Correction Strategies.....	42
Survey Part 2: Student Preferences Regarding the How and When of Corrective Feedback .....	48
Research Question Two: .....	49
Survey Part 1: Student Preferences Regarding Teacher-Generated Corrective Feedback Strategies .	50
Survey Part 2: Student Preferences Regarding Which Errors Should Be Corrected, and When, and How, and the Perceived Affective Impact of Corrective Feedback.....	53
Optional Responses.....	54
CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....	58
Introduction.....	58
Discussion.....	58
Question 1 – What are the Preferences of Adult ESL Learners in Oral Error Correction? .....	58
Question 2 – Is There a Relationship Between Educational Background and Student Preferences in Error Correction? .....	62
Implications for Students and Teachers .....	65
Limitations and Recommendations for Future Study .....	65
Conclusions.....	67
APPENDIX A: IRB APPROVAL LETTER .....	70

APPENDIX B: PARTICIPANT SURVEY FORMS.....	72
APPENDIX C: CASAS COMPETENCIES .....	75
APPENDIX D: ADMINISTRATIVE CONSENT FORMS.....	77
LIST OF REFERENCES .....	82

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. CASAS vs. ESL Student Proficiency Ranking.....	32
Table 2. Number of Participants per ESL Level.....	32
Table 3. English Proficiency vs. Years Completed in School .....	41
Table 4. Participant Group Size by Educational Background .....	41
Table 5. Video Rankings by Participant .....	43
Table 6. Video A (Repetition) Rankings by English Proficiency.....	45
Table 7. Video B (Elicitation) Rankings by English Proficiency .....	45
Table 8. Video C (Metalinguistic Information) Rankings by English Proficiency .....	46
Table 9. Video D (Clarification Request) Rankings by English Proficiency .....	47
Table 10. Video E (Recast) Rankings by English Proficiency .....	47
Table 11. Video F (Explicit Corrective Feedback) Rankings by English Proficiency .....	48
Table 12. Item 1: How do You Feel When the Teacher Corrects You?.....	48
Table 13. Item 2: Which Errors do You Prefer that the Teacher Corrects?.....	48
Table 14. Item 3: Do You Prefer to be Corrected Privately, or in Class? .....	49
Table 15. Item 4: Do You Prefer to be Corrected Immediately, or After Class? .....	49
Table 16. Do You Prefer to be Corrected Individually, or as a Group (i.e., Only the Errors that Everybody Makes)? .....	49
Table 17. Video Rankings by Participants Who Completed 0-6 Years of School .....	50
Table 18. Video Rankings by Participants Who Completed 7-12 Years of School .....	51
Table 19. Video Rankings by Participants Who Completed 13+ Years of School .....	52
Table 20. Mean Comparisons of Video Rankings Across Educational Background Groups .....	52
Table 21. Mode Comparison of Video Rankings Across Educational Background Groups.....	53
Table 22. Item 1: How do You Feel When the Teacher Corrects You?.....	54
Table 23. Item 2: Which Errors do You Prefer that the Teacher Corrects?.....	55
Table 24. Item 3: Do You Prefer to Be Corrected Privately, or in Class?.....	56
Table 25. Item 4: Do You Prefer to Be Corrected Immediately, or After Class?.....	56
Table 26. Item 5: Do You Prefer to Be Corrected Individually, or as a Group (i.e., Only the Errors that Everybody Makes)? .....	56

## **LIST OF FIGURES**

Figure 1: Ranking of 6 for Metalinguistic Information vs. English Proficiency Level.....	46
--	----

## **LIST OF ACRONYMS/ABBREVIATIONS**

**CF** Corrective Feedback. Corrective feedback can be oral or written. For the purposes of this study, the terms ‘error correction (EC)’ and ‘corrective feedback (CF)’ refer only to oral CF unless otherwise indicated.

**EC** Error Correction

**ELL** English Language Learner

**ESL** English as a Second Language

**FonF** Focus on Form: A brief focus on grammar within a communicative activity or lesson that may be planned or spontaneous.

**L2** Second Language

**SLA** Second Language Acquisition

The review and discussion will make reference to some hypotheses upon which certain arguments may be contingent. These hypotheses will be explored further in Chapter 2, but for the sake of quick reference will be described here:

**Affective Filter Hypothesis:** Krashen's proposition that affective factors such as attitude, embarrassment, and frustration among many others can create a filter, blocking the effectiveness of L2 input and instruction (Krashen, 2003; p. 6; Mitchell & Myles, 2004).

**Interaction Hypothesis:** Interaction in the L2, by providing the opportunity for practice and providing comprehensible input and feedback, learning from mistakes, can facilitate second language learning (Long, 1983).

**Noticing Hypothesis:** Subliminal language learning is impossible, and intake is what learners consciously notice (Schmidt, 1990). Schmidt proposes consciousness in learning as having varying degrees of extent, of which Noticing is the second. This hypothesis is widely, but not universally accepted (Bitchener, 2004).

**Comprehensible Output Hypothesis:** Comprehensible input alone is insufficient to facilitate SLA, and learners must respond with output to achieve further development (Swain's study as cited in Mitchell & Myles, 2001). This hypothesis is echoed in the common adage, 'practice makes perfect.'

**Pleasure Hypothesis:** Activities that are pleasant will facilitate SLA and those activities which are not conducive to SLA will be experienced by the learner as unpleasant (Krashen, 1994).

Some of the confusion in the study of CF in second language acquisition can be attributed to the changing definitions of certain terms and the consensus (or lack thereof) concerning the impact of the phenomena those terms describe. Below is a list of examples and their operative

definitions for the purposes of this study. The evidence concerning these terms will be discussed in Chapter Two.

**Positive Evidence:** Positive evidence is feedback that includes the corrected form of the erroneous utterance.

**Negative Evidence:** Negative evidence is feedback indicating that the learner has made an error

**Corrective Feedback:** This is also referred to as error correction and negative feedback, not always but often an element of a Focus-on-form (Dekeyser, 1993) event. Chaudron's (1977) definition of CF as any reaction by the teacher that indicates a problem in the student's preceding utterance will be used in this study.

**Uptake:** For the purposes of this study, 'uptake' will be used according to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) definition as a student's utterance immediately following the teacher's feedback and indicating acknowledgement of the teacher's intention to indicate an error in the previous student turn. Subtypes as proposed by Lyster and Ranta include uptake with repair and uptake that needs repair.

**Needs-repair uptake:** According to Lyster and Ranta (1997) this can take the form of a simple acknowledgement of the correction, a repetition of the error, a new and different error, a reformulation that avoids the form that was corrected (presumably from not understanding the correct form, and not being sure how to say the form without bringing further correction), hesitation, or a repair of part of the error.

**Repair:** This study will also maintain Lyster and Ranta's (1997) definition of repair as the correction of an error immediately following the teacher's corrective turn. Under this definition, repair is further divisible into four types: repetition (repetition of the correct form as given by the teacher during CF), incorporation (inclusion of the correct form as provided by the teacher during CF into a longer utterance), self-repair (in which the student, not the teacher, in response to CF, provides the correct form), and peer-repair (in which a student provides the correct form in response to the corrected utterance of another student).

## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

### Statement of the Problem

The role of grammar instruction and error correction in second language (L2) learning has been under debate among teachers and researchers since its usefulness was reevaluated with the rising popularity of the communicative approach. Hendrickson's study in 1978, and many others since, questioned whether or not errors should be corrected at all. Some argue that error correction does not facilitate L2 learning and may even hinder it (Krashen, 1994; Truscott, 1999), some argue that it is a natural part of the L2 learning process (Azar, 2007), and some maintain that error correction can aid L2 learning under the right circumstances (Hendrickson, 1978; Lyster, Lightbown, & Spada, 1999, McDonough, 2005).

Krashen proposed a distinction between 'language learning' and 'language acquisition,' suggesting that language acquisition was a subconscious process that occurred in the same manner as first language (L1) acquisition (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). This stance further proposed that error correction was not only unnecessary, but according to the Affective Filter hypothesis, detrimental to the natural mastery of L2. He proposed that language learning differed from L2 acquisition in that it was conscious and intentional (Krashen, 2003, p. 1; Mitchell & Myles, 2004). His acknowledgement, however, of a conscious route to language learning does not support error correction either, as his Pleasure hypothesis suggests that error

correction, as an unpleasant and anxiety-raising experience, hinders learning (Krashen, 1994). This study did not attempt to contest or support the evidence on either side of the language learning vs. acquisition debate, nor did it attempt to support or contest the value of grammar instruction or error correction, but proceeded with a view of language learning as a conscious process and error correction as an actuality of L2 instructional practice that bears continued investigation.

While teachers and researchers debate the place of grammatical error correction, adolescent and adult L2 learners are reported to present a consistent expectation that their errors should be corrected and that CF is a useful and even necessary tool for successful L2 learning (Schulz, 2001; Rauber & Gil, 2004). Recent research shows that discrepancies between students' perceptions of which instructional practices are conducive to learning and techniques used by their teachers can have a negative impact on motivation, attitude, or estimation of the teacher (Schulz, 2001). According to Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis, such things are a concern as they impact the effectiveness of classroom instruction. Schulz (2001) also warned that teacher credibility and learner attitude can suffer if a teacher's approach did not meet students' expectation of what practices were helpful to L2 learning.

The evidence that the failure of classroom instructional techniques to meet the expectations of an adult student in the L2 classroom could interfere with the learning process supports a call for further research into student perceptions of classroom techniques. If student expectations can support or hinder the effectiveness of instructional practices, then those expectations and what

can influence them bear investigation. In this study, student perceptions of oral error correction and the factors that can influence those perceptions were under investigation.

### Background of the Study

The usefulness, description, taxonomy, context, and efficacy of CF have been under scrutiny for decades, most notably since Hendrickson's groundbreaking study in 1978 in which he questioned the if, which, when, and how of oral error correction. Subsequent studies have investigated types of CF and the use and effectiveness of those types in various contexts, as well as teacher practices and preferences in their use of CF.

Lyster and Ranta's (1997) classification described six types of oral CF: repetition, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, recast, and explicit correction. Since (and even before) this taxonomy was described, studies have sought to describe not only the effectiveness of these types, but also what factors, such as the type of error in question and the L2 proficiency of the learner, can influence the effectiveness of CF (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Havranek, 2002).

Teachers' preferences and opinions regarding error correction have been shown to influence their classroom practices, but within constraints such as time, activity focus, and communicative flow (Yoshida, 2008). Further study is needed to describe and investigate CF from the student perspective.

Individual and affective factors have been shown to affect the efficacy of error treatment (Krashen, 2003, p. 6; Morris & Tarone, 2003; Schulz, 2001) and the influences on these factors

should be taken into account in the study of and decisions regarding classroom practices. It is with this piece of the CF puzzle in mind that this study was proposed.

### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the preferences of adult English language learners (ELLs) in oral CF and the effect of educational background on those preferences. The specific research questions addressed here were:

1. What are the preferences of adult ESL learners in oral error correction?
2. Is there a relationship between educational background and error correction preferences among adult English language learners?

### Design of the Study

To address the research questions, video clips were made demonstrating the six types of oral CF as described by Lyster and Ranta (1997): explicit, metalinguistic, repetition, recast, clarification request, and elicitation. In explicit correction, the instructor indicates that an error has been made and provides the correct form. Metalinguistic feedback provides information concerning the form in question. Repetition is a verbatim repetition of the erroneous utterance. A recast is a repetition of the utterance, replacing the error with the correct form. In a clarification request, rather than assuming the intention of the speaker, the instructor asks what the speaker meant by the erroneous utterance. Lastly, a teacher may elicit the correct form. The participants were

asked to rank these types of error correction on a 1 to 6 scale according to their opinion of the usefulness of each type, with 1 indicating least helpful, and 6 indicating most helpful.

Students were asked about their preferences in error correction in the classroom, and about their demographic data including age, sex, country of origin, educational background, and English proficiency. Survey items included students' preferences in frequency of error correction, types of errors to be corrected, how immediately they preferred to be corrected, whether they wanted to be corrected publicly or privately, and whether they preferred to be corrected in a group or individually. These questions aligned with the first four of Hendrickson's (1978) five questions concerning error correction: if errors should be corrected, which errors should be corrected, when errors should be corrected, and how errors should be corrected. The fifth question, i.e., who should correct student errors, was not broached on the survey instrument because this study concerned itself only with student preferences in correction by the teacher. The survey also asked participants how they felt when being corrected. This question pertained to the supposed negative emotional impact that adult L2 students experience from oral CF, as suggested by Krashen (1994) and Truscott (1999).

Fifty student volunteers from two adult ESL programs in a small Central Florida town participated in the survey. The ESL programs at these schools each have four levels of English proficiency, and participants from all four levels at each school participated. The proficiency levels i.e., beginner, low intermediate, high intermediate, and advanced (1, 2, 3 and 4, respectively) of the students were determined by CASAS testing, a standardized assessment

approved by the Florida Department of Education (FLDOE) as a measure of progress in adult ESL programs.

The study was designed as a quantitative survey, collecting demographic data, preferences in frequency and timing of error correction, and perception of the usefulness of the six types of error correction as described by Lyster and Ranta (1997). Students were invited to participate in the survey based on their status as adult ELLs. Data were shown as a whole, and then grouped by different demographic factors to look for trends. Participants, demographic data, error correction type rankings, and preference survey items were assigned numeric values, and the data were examined using means, modes, and percentages to describe the error correction type rankings, preferences of participants surveyed, and whether or not a relationship to educational background could be found.

### Organization of the Study

The literature described in Chapter Two explores the evidence regarding the nature and impact of oral error correction in the L2 classroom on second language acquisition (SLA). First, the review explores the evidence and approaches concerning the role of grammar instruction and error correction in the L2 classroom. Next, the review focuses on studies concerning the description and efficacy of oral CF as a facet of grammar instruction and, further, oral CF as a facet of grammar instruction as a focus on form (FonF) event within communicative instruction.

Evidence exploring teachers' preferences and practices follows, preceding the description and role of students' preferences and expectations in L2 instruction and oral CF. Finally, the review

describes the evidence concerning factors that influence student preference, as well as the influence of student perception and preference on the efficacy of CF.

Chapter Three, Methods, describes the instrumentation: the design and administration of surveys and videos. The chapter describes the selection, demographic makeup, and English language competencies of the group of participants as well as the setting and procedures of data collection and analysis.

Chapter Four, Results and Discussion, shows and discusses the participant responses and looks for general trends as well as connections between demographic data and the students' preferences in oral CF.

Chapter Five, Conclusions and recommendations, summarizes the findings from Chapter Four, answers the research questions, and suggests avenues for future study.

### Limitations

Because this study was conducted on a small scale with 50 participants from two ESL programs, the applicability of conclusions drawn here was limited. One possible next step could be to repeat the study with a broader (culturally and/or linguistically) and larger group of participants.

Forty-nine of the 50 participants who successfully completed the survey were Hispanic. A similar survey involving a broader cultural range of participants may yield different results. The educational environment to which a learner is accustomed has been shown to play a role in his or

her expectations of what classroom techniques and practices are useful, and these environments have been shown to vary across countries and cultures (Rubenstein, 2006).

The only data collected concerning educational background was the number of years a participant had spent in formal education. The participants were not asked about their prior programs of study, educational practices, academic performance, or personal philosophy regarding education.

While courses of study can be expected to be fairly similar in primary school grades, beginning in high school and more so in college, students have some say in the types of classes they will take. If there is a disparity among the ways in which a student's opinions about language learning, and more specifically, oral grammar correction, are formed by different courses of study, it will not show in the results of this study. The educational practices to which a learner has been exposed can play a role in forming the opinions and preferences of the learner.

Exploring and analyzing these experiences, however, was not part of the scope of this study.

Academic performance was considered as a survey item. Accuracy and applicability in reporting, however, were predicted to be unreliable due to the diversity of academic backgrounds represented among the participants. Elderly participants with only a few years of formal education, for example, could hardly be expected to remember their grades decades later. Not all educational systems use the same grading scales. Further, those participants who have completed certificates or finished high school or other academic levels through equivalency exams or pass/fail methods would not have applicable grades to report. Response validity aside, the participants' grades cannot necessarily be viewed as indicators of their current educational

perspectives without making all manner of unwarranted assumptions and would probably be better left for case studies where a researcher could pursue such factors in depth with one or a small group of participants.

Beyond educational techniques to which learners have been previously exposed and applicable skills gleaned from academic experience, students must be approached as complex individuals and not solely predictable products of their educational experiences. Some students may simply have opinions about language learning that cannot be predicted by their educational experiences. The question this study seeks to answer is whether or not length of educational background can be generally predictive of student preferences in oral CF.

This study only concerned oral, grammatical CF. Inferences cannot be made for other contexts. Written CF, for example, cannot necessarily be viewed in the same way as oral feedback. In a classroom, oral CF is public, whereas written feedback can generally be considered private. In written feedback, a teacher may use non-word visual aids in an explanation, whereas in oral CF, the teacher is limited to speech and gesture. When a grammatical error occurs, there is little question over whether or not the form used was accurate. In areas such as pragmatics, for example, where linguistic decisions between multiple correct forms need to be made strategically, a student may want an erroneous (or unstrategic) utterance corrected differently than in a simple question of form.

The videos that the participants were asked to rank showed one-on-one non-contextualized error-treatment exchanges, which may or may not have had an effect on student responses. Sheen concluded in 2004 that the context in which an error occurs may be related to the effectiveness of

a given type of CF. While this variability has not been conclusively shown in terms of student perception, the possibility should not be overlooked. Type of activity, classroom dynamics (Morris and Tarone, 2003), and even the timing of the error could play a role in students' preferences. An error at the end of an exchange, for example, may leave students more open to a metalinguistic explanation or a correction that would prompt self-correction than an error occurring mid-utterance, for which learners might prefer a recast, allowing them to complete the thought without backtracking.

Participants were instructed to rank teacher-generated CF strategies on an ordinal ranking scale. The data collected from this part of the survey could only be used to illustrate which strategies they thought were more or less helpful than others, as ordinal data shows sequence only and cannot be analyzed arithmetically. No inferences could be made concerning the degree of difference in perceived helpfulness from this type of forced ordinal ranking.

### Assumptions

This study assumed that successful completion of the survey instrument indicated that the participants understood what had been asked of them. A participant may, for example, have misunderstood a question, answering instead what he or she thought was being asked. The creation of a 1-6 scale ranking of error correction types was possibly the most prone to this type of confusion, as a participant could have confused the direction of the scale (1-6 for 6-1).

This study assumed honest responses from the participants. A participant could have indicated the answers that he or she believed were expected rather than his or her actual opinions.

Additionally, during the video ranking, a participant could have failed to see the functional difference between two or more types of CF and assigned numbers to those types at random rather than leave them blank.

This study assumed that participants had a conscious understanding of their own preferences. There are educational systems that do not encourage or elicit preferences or opinions from the students as to the methods and techniques of their instruction. Participants who were unaccustomed to a collaborative learning environment may not have been metacognitively equipped to understand and express their own preferences and expectations.

This study assumes that participants understood that their preferences were being requested only in terms of correction by an instructor. This study concerned itself only with student preferences in terms of CF provided by the teacher. Morris and Tarone (2003) illustrated one factor in peer correction that is absent in teacher correction: that of a peer social dynamic that was generally shown to be unhelpful at best and detrimental at worst. This factor was shown to have an impact on the efficacy of and students' preferences in error correction. This difference between teacher correction and peer correction is enough to warrant them for consideration as separate study areas.

## CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

### Introduction

Grammar instruction has taken on various roles in second and foreign language instruction. In the style in which the classical languages Latin and Greek were taught centuries ago, grammar was at the forefront of instruction, arming students with rules, structure, and extensive vocabulary lists with which to translate texts written in the target language. This style is not unheard of in many classrooms around the world today, and is indeed the style in which many foreign language programs are primarily taught.

In the US, most western countries, and many others, however, the Grammar Translation method has fallen out of favor for a variety of reasons. The Audiolingual method, though not entirely dissimilar, shifted the focus from grammar and translation to drills in the target language.

Grammar still enjoys a central role in the Audiolingual method, as metalinguistic skills and strategies are heavily used during instruction. CF also has an important role in the Audiolingual method, as students are expected to actively and consciously assimilate instructional input into their interlanguage. The Audiolingual method is also called the Army method, as the US military makes extensive use of it in their foreign language training programs (Ellis, 2005).

The Communicative Approach, along with an extensive body of research, has put grammar instruction and the role of error correction on uneven footing. As stated in Chapter One, stances on the importance of grammar instruction and error correction generally fall into three camps: natural and accepted, helpful under the right circumstances, and inadvisable. Krashen's

language acquisition hypothesis (Krashen, 2003, p. 1) casts doubt on the need for explicit grammar instruction and CF, and his Pleasure hypothesis (1994) indicates that they are in fact harmful to the L2 learning process.

As the antigrammar backlash has eased, FonF has emerged as a way to integrate grammar instruction events into a communicative language teaching context and may be proactive (i.e., planned as part of the lesson) or reactive (i.e., an impromptu response to an unforeseen event during the lesson; usually a student error), in which case it is often a CF event (Azar, 2007).

While the purpose of this study was not to debate the helpfulness of error correction, it is important to explore the issue from the perspectives of researchers, teachers, and students. This chapter provides an overview of the evidence to date relative to the scope of this study as stated in Chapter One.

For over 30 years, CF in L2 learning has provided fuel for debate in terms of its usefulness, taxonomy, form, and context. Researchers are still exploring Hendrickson's (1978) five questions concerning CF:

1. Should learner errors be corrected?
2. If so, when should learner errors be corrected?
3. Which learner errors should be corrected?
4. How should learner errors be corrected?
5. Who should correct learner errors?

### Should Learner Errors Be Corrected?

The question of whether or not learner errors should be corrected is not unjustified. Nativists like Krashen and Chomsky have argued that negative evidence, i.e., evidence that tells the learner what does not work in the target language (Kim, 2004), is at best fruitless and at worst counterproductive in L2 learning. It should be noted that not all negative feedback is characterized as negative evidence. Certain types of recasts, particularly if they are highly implicit, can be considered positive evidence. Further, Krashen (1994) states that activities that are experienced by the learner as unpleasant (e.g., error correction and grammar instruction among others) are not beneficial for L2 learning.

From a cognitive perspective, however, a body of literature exists supporting the positive impact of corrective treatment of errors on L2 learning. Hendrickson (1978) states that the correction of L2 learners' errors improves their proficiency more than if their errors are not corrected.

Havranek (2002) finds that the benefit ELLs receive from CF in aiding them to match output to input outweighs any resulting negative feelings they may experience. Rauber and Gil (2004) corroborate student preferences for being corrected over not being corrected, citing student opinions that correction is an important part of the language learning process.

Dekeyser (1993) supports the benefit of CF on L2 learning with the caveat that factors such as individual differences and types of errors may determine the existence or extent of that benefit. McDonough also supports CF as a contributing factor in L2 learning, citing modified output in response to clarification requests as the only significant predictor of question development in her 2005 study.

Truscott (1999) warns that inconsistent correction of grammatical errors could be as bad as or worse than no CF and that the inevitability of inconsistencies in CF are evidence that oral grammar correction should be avoided altogether. Lyster, Lightbown, and Spada (1999) question the need for consistency in CF and argue that the level of classroom rigidity that such consistency would require is unfeasible and limiting and that inconsistency alone does not negate the positive benefits of what CF does occur. Furthermore, Hendrickson's (1978) findings indicate that, in order to create a supportive environment where students can express themselves with confidence, correction of some errors is preferable to correction of all errors.

#### If So, When Should Learner Errors Be Corrected?

The question of when to correct learner errors has been addressed extensively. Havranek (2002) recommends CF in response to grammar errors involving simple rules such as verb endings and the function of the auxiliary *do* in forming questions and negative statements. She states that the correction of grammatical errors resulted in better results in subsequent language testing than lexical rules. Her discussion suggests that when a grammatical error is corrected, a student is both informed or reminded of the applicable rule(s) and given an example of the correct use of the rule(s).

Dekeyser (1993) investigated the developmental readiness of the students in error correction, even suggesting that CF might further divide the high and low achievers if applied indiscriminately. His study showed that the question of student readiness did not just concern student proficiency, but also factors such as motivation and anxiety. Students who were already

shown to be high performers through pretesting received higher scores on grammar post-tests after having been corrected. Students with low anxiety were more successful on grammar post-tests following systematic error treatment.

Evidence tends to support the effectiveness of error correction as a FonF event within a communicative activity. Loewen (2004) studied error correction as a FonF event and found it to result in uptake in 73% of the events observed. If one were to consider uptake (defined by Lyster and Ranta [1997] as an utterance by the learner in response to CF) as an indicator that the learner has noticed CF, and is therefore more likely to benefit from it (Schmidt, 1990) then Loewen's (2004) study of incidental (reactive) focus on form supported CF in the FonF context. Loewen (2003) concluded that Fonf can and does occur in communicative lessons. Leeser (2004) observed, however, that in student dyads high-proficiency learners were more likely to benefit from Fonf events than low-proficiency learners.

The consistency, or need for consistency, in CF has been called into question at times. Fanselow's (1977) findings showed inconsistencies, not only between teachers, but also between different CF events with the same teachers, in types and proportions of errors chosen for correction and types of correction used. It is speculated in Fanselow's (1977) study that these inconsistencies are related to the focus of the activity and the forms to which the teachers are concerned with drawing attention. Truscott (1999) stated that inconsistency in CF was justification for abandoning CF altogether, but Lyster, Lightbown & Spada (1999) disagreed with this extreme stance.

Yoshida's (2008) study showed inconsistencies in oral CF in the L2 classroom. Teachers were inconsistent in when, for whom, and how they corrected errors during the observed lessons. The teachers cited time constraints, their estimation of the learners' capacity to process the feedback, and concerns over negatively impacting the students emotionally with public, explicit feedback as the reasons for their inconsistencies.

### Which Learner Errors Should Be Corrected?

Katayama's (2007) survey of Japanese ELLs found a strong learner preference for correction of pragmatic errors and errors that interfered with communication. Ninety-one percent of the students surveyed in Cathcart and Olsen's (1976) study preferred to be corrected all or most of the time. After having been corrected for every error during an exchange, however, the students reported that it was difficult to produce coherent L2 speech while being interrupted.

Hendrickson (1978) stated that when teachers allow some errors and correct others, students feel more comfortable speaking than if the teachers were to correct every error. Cathcart and Olsen's (1976) observations concerning student-reported preference for correction of most or all errors could be interpreted as an underestimation on the part of the student of the number and extent of their spoken errors, or as simple overzealousness on the part of the student. Hendrickson (1978) concluded that while errors should be corrected, the correction of all errors was undesirable, or at least unfeasible.

Havranek's (2002) suggestion that CF is best for errors concerning simple grammar rules such as verb endings and the auxiliary *do* is an example of the research indicating that the type of error being corrected may determine whether or not it should be corrected.

The teachers themselves can generally be expected to have their own priorities concerning which errors merit correction (Chaudron, 1977; Fanselow, 1997; Yoshida, 2008) and those priorities tend to coincide with the nature of the activity in question. In communicative activities, for example, errors that interfere with communication may receive priority over others.

Hendrickson (1978) observes that errors that interfere with intelligibility, put a learner at risk of social stigma, or occur frequently should receive priority.

### How Should Learner Errors Be Corrected?

Types of error correction and their distribution and effectiveness have been the focus of much study. Corrective feedback may be either oral or written, but this study will focus on oral CF.

Oral CF may be implicit or explicit. Explicit CF calls the learners' attention specifically to their having committed an error. Implicit CF does not. Dabaghi's (2008) study showed that explicit correction was more effective than implicit correction based on student performance in using the same structures 8 days after treatment in tailor-made tests.

While implicit feedback is less abrupt and carries less risk of intimidating or embarrassing the student (Yoshida, 2008), it is by nature ambiguous in that it relies on the student identifying it as CF and identifying the error that prompted it (Ammar & Spada, 2006), and identifying the

correct form with which to replace the error before the correction can be assimilated into the student's interlanguage.

Explicit correction is also more likely than implicit correction to lead to repair (Suzuki, 2004). Uptake, as defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997), is an utterance by the student immediately following teacher CF that indicates any understanding that he or she has been corrected. It is important to note that while not all CF events are followed by uptake, this does not necessarily mean that the student has not realized that his or her utterance contained an error.

Before Lyster and Ranta's (1997) establishment of six types of error correction, Fanselow (1977) had observed 16. His taxonomy, unlike Lyster and Ranta's, included traits such as gesture and vocal emphasis as defining characteristics. Since Lyster and Ranta published their findings in 1997, their six-item taxonomy has widely been used as a guide for considering CF by type. Some studies, such as Rauber and Gil's (2004), used this taxonomy and included one or more additional types, but Lyster and Ranta's (1997) six types, explicit CF, recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition were used in this study. A description of these six CF types follows:

#### *Explicit Corrective Feedback*

In explicit CF, the teacher provides the correct form coupled with a directive, such as "You say..." The only distinguishing factor according to this taxonomy between explicit CF and a recast is the directive. Other studies have demonstrated several subtypes of recasts with further distinguishing factors.

### *Recasts*

Recasts are similar to explicit CF in that the correct form is provided, but they lack a directive. It has been observed in several studies that this lack of directive makes recasts more likely to go unnoticed by the student as correction (Chaudron, 1977; Jensen, 2002; Loewen, 2003; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Rauber & Gill, 2004; Truscott, 1999; Yamamoto, 2003). Sheen (2006) cautions, however, against assuming that all recasts qualify as implicit feedback, stating that recasts can be “made” explicit through factors such as emphasis and repetition.

Recasts have the most chance of success when the student can recognize the recast as CF (Ellis, 2008; Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Loewen & Philip, 2006; Nicholas, Lightbown & Spada, 2001). Mackey (2002) and McDonough (2005), however, indicate that a relationship between a student’s perception of correction as such and the success of that correction remains unconfirmed by empirical evidence.

Chaudron (1977) described recasts (termed in his study as Repetition with Change) as further divisible into subtypes by the following variant features:

- Emphasis: intonation, without which he considered this technique weak
- Reduction: modeling the correct form only of the portion that the student said incorrectly
- Expansion: modeling the correct form with added information; liable to confuse the student by drawing away from the correction. It is unclear from Chaudron’s description whether this variant would further come to be considered explicit CF

or a combined technique involving metalinguistic feedback by Lyster and Ranta's (1997) definitions.

Recasts have received the most examination of all of the CF types. One can surmise that this is partly due to the fact that recasts are the most frequently used type of error correction in the L2 classroom (Cal & Turnbull, 2005; Jensen, 2002; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Sheen, 2004; Suzuki, 2004; Yoshida, 2008).

This frequency may be surprising in light of the finding that the recast is the least likely CF type to lead to learner uptake (Lyster & Ranta 1997). Furthermore, recasts were found to be the least successful in aiding the student to produce the correct form in a subsequent language test in Havranek's 2002 study. Truscott (1999) and Han & Kim (2008) suggested the fact that recasts are not solely used for corrective purposes as one reason that they often go unnoticed as such.

Uptake, as described by Lyster and Ranta (1997) is the first observable indicator that the student has realized that something has happened and is therefore a marker of the possibility of the effectiveness of error treatment. While this alone makes it worth noting, it must not be taken as an indication of notice or effectiveness. While learner uptake does not always lead to repair (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), neither uptake nor repair is necessarily an indication of learning (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Lyster, Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Furthermore, the absence of uptake does not necessarily indicate a lack of notice (Sheen, 2006).

It should additionally be noted that one possible reason for recasts not to lead to repair is that when the recast is part of a FonF event, the focus surrounding the event is on communication and so the student turn successive of the CF turn may be a simple continuation of the conversation.

In this case, there is nothing to indicate whether or not the student has noticed or benefitted from the correction in any way. Teachers have reported that their use of recasts during communicative events is intentional, knowing that recasts generally will not disrupt the flow of communication (Yoshida, 2008). In fact, it is this inherent ambiguity (Morris & Tarone, 2003) that is often credited with their popularity among teachers.

The ambiguity of recasts does not rest solely in the classroom. This is partly due to the lack of consensus as to their classification. Recasts can take on different forms based on varying combinations of their characteristics, and even their function is not limited to that of CF. Sheen (2006) observed that, owing to the lack of consensus in classification or not, studies have used a variety of operational definitions of recasts, leading to difficulties in comparing the conclusions of existing studies. The effectiveness of recasts can vary according to factors such as learner proficiency, learner anxiety, the degree of implicitness, length of the recast, and the degree of difference between the error and the correct form (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Loewen & Philip, 2006; Sheen, 2008).

#### *Clarification Request*

In a clarification request, rather than assume the intention of the student, the teacher asks what the student meant to say, or what the incorrect utterance meant to the learner, as in “What is (incorrect utterance)?”

### *Metalinguistic Feedback*

Metalinguistic feedback is divisible into three subtypes: comments, information, and questions.

A comment may be as simple as, “No.” Information will point out a helpful grammar point, such as, “It’s past tense,” and questions attempt to elicit the correct form, as in, “Is it past tense?”

Metalinguistic questions are so similar to elicitation that further evidence concerning how they differ (if indeed they do) is warranted. As this study does not intend to address the question of crossover between metalinguistic questioning and elicitation, this study uses the metalinguistic information subtype.

### *Elicitation*

In elicitation, the teacher prompts or asks a question to draw the correct form from the student without actually demonstrating it. The teacher may begin a form for the student to complete, or may ask a question such as “What is the (x) form of (y)?” This technique may include simply directing the student to try again.

### *Repetition*

In repetition, the teacher repeats verbatim the student error with rising intonation at the end as in a question to indicate that there is a problem.

### Who Should Correct Learner Errors?

While “the teacher, of course,” may seem like the most intuitive answer, peer correction has received a share of attention. Pair and group communication activities, in which peers are likely

to correct each other, are common in most modern ESL classrooms. In Morris and Tarone's (2003) study on student corrective recasts during pair work, interpersonal conflict between students who considered themselves to be in different groups (high vs. low achievers) consistently interfered with CF in that the student being corrected (usually the self-identified low achiever) often failed to realize he or she was being corrected. Morris and Tarone (2003) suggested that defensiveness on the part of the low achievers and frustration by high achievers generally led to a dynamic that wasn't conducive for effective correction. Mackey's (2002) findings showed that notice of CF as such occurred in less than half of learner-learner context instances, regardless of their relative proficiencies. In the same study, 77% of corrective events between an L2 learner and a native speaker of the target language were recognized by the learner as CF.

Students and teachers have reported a belief that self-correction is preferable to teacher correction (Yoshida, 2008). It is noted in the same study, however, that the student's ability to self-correct was predicted by the teachers to vary by task, error, and learner proficiency. Self-correction has been hypothesized as desirable, but little empirical evidence has indicated whether or not this is actually so (Hendrickson, 1978).

For the sake of clarity, this study was concerned only with teacher-student CF. Peer correction, teacher correction, and self-correction are each such complex topics that it would have been inadvisable to study more than one of them at a time.

### Affective Factors

Affective factors are the emotional and attitudinal factors experienced by the learner during the course of L2 learning and/or acquisition. According to Krashen (1994), these factors are powerful enough to inhibit L2 processing. This is the state in which the Affective Filter is said to be 'up.' The affective impact of CF is a topic of some controversy.

Affective concerns such as anxiety, motivation, and attitude are easy enough to intuit and relate to, but difficult to quantify and have been suggested as factors that affect not only the effectiveness (Dekeyser, 1993; Krashen, 1994; Sheen, 2008; Truscott, 1999) of error correction but also in teacher selection of CF type (Yoshida, 2008), and even whether or not a teacher will choose to correct a student error (Yoshida, 2008). Anybody who has studied a second language can relate to being nervous at having to produce the target language orally or the embarrassment of having made a mistake.

One cannot, however, quantify with any consistency feelings like nervousness or embarrassment, or even motivation or aptitude (although the Modern Language Aptitude Test is generally considered to have made a strong effort towards the latter.) The fact that an unquantifiable factor, then, can make an impact on if, how, and how effectively an error will be corrected in the L2 classroom is a point of concern. The affective impact of CF is a complex and uncertain topic. The likelihood and extent of feelings such as frustration and embarrassment resulting from CF has been debated to no certain conclusion (Lyster, Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Truscott, 1999).

One reason proposed to explain teachers' preference for using recasts and other implicit feedback is concern over intimidating, distracting, frustrating, or embarrassing students

(Yoshida, 2008). These feelings can raise the Affective Filter (Krashen, 2003, p. 6) and make students less willing to participate in speaking activities. Recasts are often chosen as a way to avoid this risk because they are by nature brief and non-threatening (Havranek, 2002; Loewen & Philip, 2006; Yoshida, 2008).

Some studies suggest that students are not as strongly affected as teachers expect, and that even when they are caused a measure of embarrassment, they appreciate correction and believe in its importance in the L2 learning process (Havranek, 2002; Rauber & Gil, 2004).

This finding is important because it has been suggested (Schulz, 2001) that a student's perception of the importance or usefulness of a technique can have an impact on the efficacy of that classroom practice. Whether this is a direct effect on the student's ability to benefit from the technique itself or an indirect effect acting through a medium such as the Affective Filter or perception of teacher credibility has not been determined.

### Teacher Preferences

Teachers have repeatedly been reported to show a practical preference in classroom practice for recasts, although this preference in action may be contrary to philosophical preferences (Jensen, 2002; Loewen & Philip, 2006; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Sheen, 2004; Suzuki, 2004; Cal & Turnbull 2005; Yoshida, 2008). Various reasons have been proposed for this discrepancy, including time constraints, teacher estimation of the cognitive processing limits of the student at time of correction (Yoshida, 2008), and concerns over affective impact (Loewen & Philip, 2006; Yoshida, 2008).

In an ideal situation, classes would be small enough and errors evenly spaced enough that during the course of a lesson, a teacher could provide multiple turn (cited by Havranek [2002] as desirable) meaningful CF to each student. Unfortunately, class size is variable, lesson length is set, and the timing, frequency, and types of errors are unpredictable. Also, the focus of the lesson is variable. Teachers find themselves in the position of having a variety of types of CF to choose from as they see fit. Teachers may, therefore, have a 'nutshell' philosophy that applies to the circumstances from which they feel a student would benefit the most, but have to make compromises depending on several factors (e.g., class size and length, timing, and type and frequency of errors) for each individual instance. If the flow of conversation must be kept up, for instance, a long CF sequence may not be the best strategy.

Learner proficiency and task type are two factors that can play a role in the L2 learner's processing capacity. While producing new forms, a beginning student may be able to take on less additional processing (such as responding appropriately to CF) than an intermediate student practicing a form with which he or she has experience. A teacher, aware of these limitations, may have to make a choice between a feedback type that begs a simple correction (such as explicit CF or a recast) and a type that requires the student to produce a corrected form (such as elicitation or metalinguistic feedback.)

One size does not, unfortunately, fit all. Some students experience more negative emotions on being corrected explicitly than others, and some students experience more nervousness than others. A teacher who is cognizant of the impact that negative emotions can have on a student's ability to process and concentrate will also likely be aware of which students would be less able

for these reasons to benefit from CF types in which they would feel put on the spot than others. For this reason, a teacher may choose two different CF techniques for two different students who make the same error in the same context, regardless of personal philosophy concerning which type would have been the best.

Schulz reported in 2001 that in a questionnaire answered by 1431 L2 students and 210 L2 teachers, only 30% of the teachers agreed that students' L2 speaking errors should be corrected. Compared with the 90% of students who agreed that their oral errors should be corrected, this result indicates a likelihood of discrepancies between student expectations and classroom practices.

### Student Preferences

Literature on learners' preferences and/or beliefs concerning error correction is scarce (Yoshida, 2008), and research investigating the reasons for and the effects of those preferences and/or beliefs even more so. Schulz (2001) found that students' motivation is influenced by their beliefs and perceptions. Schulz's (2001) survey of Colombian postsecondary EFL and FL students found a strong preference for the study of grammar and for error correction.

While students have been reported as wanting most or all of their mistakes corrected (Cathcart & Olsen, 1976), the type of CF that students might prefer and variables that could influence that preference have yet to be investigated conclusively.

In his suggestions, Hendrickson (1978) suggested asking teachers and students which types of error treatments they preferred and why. Yoshida's (2008) study of second-year (of five years) level university students of Japanese in Australia showed that students preferred a CF technique that allowed them to self-correct.

The goal of this study was to contribute to the existing evidence concerning student preferences in and the affective impact of oral CF in the L2 classroom by means of a survey instrument loosely aligned with Hendrickson's (1978) five questions regarding error correction and Lyster and Ranta's (1997) taxonomy of six types of oral CF.

## CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

### Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to investigate the preferences of adult ELLs in oral CF and the effect of educational background on those preferences. The research questions were:

1. What are the preferences of adult ESL learners in oral error correction?
2. Is there a relationship between educational background and error correction preferences among adult English language learners?

This study was designed as a two-part survey. The first part of the survey, addressing the first research question, asked students to view and rank six short videos demonstrating the six types of error correction as described by Lyster and Ranta (1997) in terms of perceived usefulness on a scale of 1 to 6 with 1 being the least helpful and 6 being the most helpful.

The second part of the survey addressed the first research question using survey items designed to align with Hendrickson's (1978) questions applicable to the scope of this study (which errors should be corrected, how often, and when) in terms of student preferences and to address the students' perception of the affective impact of error correction.

The second research question was addressed by the demographic portion of the survey, which included participants' ages, genders, countries of origin, years completed in school, and years of English study.

## Participants

### *Demographics*

Seventy-six adult ESL students volunteered to participate in the survey. Twenty-six surveys were excluded from the study due to technical difficulties during survey administration or unintelligible or incomplete responses by participants. Responses from the remaining 50 (26 female, 24 male) participants were included in the results of this study. Participants were members of adult ESL programs in a small rural town in Central Florida. In this area, immigrant workers are heavily represented in the agricultural and construction industries. As the work allocation in these industries fluctuates seasonally and due to other factors, changing schedules can impact classroom attendance. Many of the immigrants in this area are undocumented, which can lead to unstable schedules and living conditions, making persistence in learning programs problematic.

By coincidence rather than design, all but one of the participants who successfully completed the survey were native Spanish speakers from Colombia (5), Mexico (28), Cuba (5), Nicaragua (2), Puerto Rico (3), Venezuela (1), Peru (2), Guatemala (1), the Dominican Republic (1), or Honduras (1). One participant was from South Korea. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 66, and in educational background from having completed four to 22 years of formal education.

### *Proficiency*

Each program includes four proficiency levels (beginner, low intermediate, high intermediate, and advanced.) Students are placed using CASAS (Comprehensive Adult Student Assessment Systems), a standardized Life and Work English skills test, one of two approved by the FLDOE

for evaluating adult ESL students. CASAS test scores yield six proficiency levels applicable to this study: beginning literacy/pre-beginning ESL (150-180), low beginning ESL (181-190), high beginning ESL (191-200), low intermediate ESL (201-210), high intermediate ESL (211-220), and advanced ESL (221-235). A description of CASAS skill level competencies can be found at [www.casas.org](http://www.casas.org) and in Appendix C. The programs' four class levels are aligned to the CASAS Levels as follows:

**Table 1. CASAS vs. ESL Student Proficiency Ranking**

CASAS Proficiency Level	HCC/GROWS ESL Class Level
150-190	Level 1
191-210	Level 2
211-220	Level 3
221-235 or above	Level 4

Surveys were administered to participants of all four levels of each program. Proficiency distribution is shown below in Table 2.

**Table 2. Number of Participants per ESL Level**

ESL Proficiency Level	Number of Participants
Level 1	6
Level 2	14
Level 3	15
Level 4	15

Participants were selected for participation based on their status as adult ESL students and willingness and availability to participate. Surveys were administered to participants at their schools during class time. Informed consent was obtained from all participants, and no personal identifiers were collected.

## Instrumentation

### *Survey (Sample in Appendix B)*

The survey instrument was written in two versions: Spanish and English. As all participants but one were native Spanish speakers, the surveys were administered in Spanish to avoid a major source of doubts (faulty L2 understanding) regarding the validity of responses. The one non-Spanish speaker was an advanced (Level 4) ELL from South Korea with a strong metalinguistic background and verbally affirmed his understanding of the English version of the survey instrument before completing it.

The demographic section of the survey asked for participants' age, native country, sex, level of English proficiency, number of years completed in formal education, number of years in formal English study, and length of time since coming to the US. The number of years of school completed was used as the defining factor in educational background. As educational systems and cultures may differ from country to country, participants were asked their native country in case this information was needed.

Part 1 of the survey was designed to address Hendrickson's (1978) fifth question concerning how learner errors should be corrected. Six short videos were recorded, each demonstrating one of Lyster and Ranta's (1977) forms of error correction as follows:

Video A:      Repetition

Student: He sitted down.

Teacher: He sitted down? (with rising intonation)

Video B: Elicitation

Student: He sitted down.

Teacher: What is the past form of *sit*?

Video C: Metalinguistic Information

Student: He sitted down.

Teacher: The verb *sit* is irregular, so the past form is *sat*.

Video D: Clarification Request

Student: He sitted down.

Teacher: What is *sitted*?

Video E: Recast

Student: He sitted down.

Teacher: He sat down.

Video F: Explicit CF

Student: He sitted down.

Teacher: You say, "He sat down."

The videos were recorded and edited using a flip camera and its accompanying software, and then recorded on a CD. The videos can be found at

[http://teachertube.com/viewVideo.php?video\\_id=121016&title=Error\\_Correction](http://teachertube.com/viewVideo.php?video_id=121016&title=Error_Correction).

The survey contained instructions to view and rank the videos listed above in terms of perceived usefulness using an ordinal forced ranking scale of 1 to 6 with 1 being the least useful and 6 being the most useful (see Appendix B). Initially, the videos were listed numerically on the survey, but this led to so much confusion among the survey test group that the videos were then relabeled A through F instead.

Part 2 of the survey contained questions concerning student preferences in CF. The first question, “How do you feel when the teacher corrects you?” was asked to gain an idea of the perceived affective impact on the participants. The conflicting reports concerning the affective impact of oral CF on students (Krashen, 1994; Rauber & Gil, 2004; Suzuki, 2004; Truscott, 1999) and the observation that in spite of any negative emotions experienced during error correction, students prefer to be corrected (Rauber & Gil, 2004; Suzuki, 2004) justify this question as a frame of reference in which to consider the participants’ preferences concerning which errors should be corrected as well as when and how often.

Participants were instructed to mark more than one reply if applicable. The responses provided in the survey were: embarrassed, annoyed, confused, reassured, and fine. Embarrassment, annoyance, and confusion were chosen as responses that could indicate a negative emotional impact resulting from CF. Reassurance was chosen as an indication of positive emotion resulting from negative impact. ‘Fine’ was defined for the purpose of this item as indicating a

neutral affective impact. Additionally, participants were given the option to write their own responses.

Item 2 asked if the participants preferred to be corrected every time they made a mistake, only when the mistake was important, or never. The goal of this item was to discover the participants' perception concerning Hendrickson's (1978) question, "Which errors should be corrected?"

Item 3 asked if the participants preferred to be corrected privately or in front (so to speak) of the class. The purpose of this item was to have a comparison to item 1, to verify the degree of embarrassment, if any, experienced by the student on being corrected.

Item 4 asked if participants preferred to be corrected immediately or after class and was similar in purpose to items 1 and 3, as well as addressing Hendrickson's (1978) question, "When should learner errors be corrected?"

Item 5 asked if the participants preferred to be corrected individually or in groups. This item addressed not only the affective impact of CF, but also the question of frequency. Individual error correction carries the possibility of more frequent and specific CF than correction of groups.

### Procedure

The face validity of the survey instrument was confirmed by a professional in the field prior to administration. Additionally, the survey was evaluated by a test group of 3 bilingual volunteer

ESL tutors. Originally, in Part 1 of the survey, the video ranking scale listed the videos numerically. The test group identified this as a likely source of confusion for participants, and so the videos were relabeled A-F. The 1-6 ranking scale for the videos was also anticipated to be a source of confusion for participants. Opinions differed among the testing group as to the best direction of the ordinal scale, and it was decided that neither direction (1-6 vs. 6-1) held any less risk of confusion than the other. The test group approved the questions and response choices provided in Part 2 of the survey without recommendations.

Survey administration took place during class time in September 2009. Participants were informed of the nature and purpose of the study, what they would be asked to do, and the voluntary nature of their participation. The main points in the consent form were also explained orally as it was distributed. Participants were encouraged to take the time to read the form thoroughly before signing.

As signed forms were collected, surveys were distributed and participants were instructed to complete the top (demographic information) portion and Part 2 of the survey first.

Because there was some debate during the planning of the survey over the numerical direction of the ranking scale, the use of the 1-6 scale for the videos was explained and the opportunity was given to ask questions before the videos were presented. Participants were encouraged to watch the videos as many times as they wanted to feel sure of their choices. During the viewing of the videos, the administrator stated the name of each video as it ran, and clarified the functional differences between CF types for participants who were unsure how they differed. Translations of the videos were provided orally for participants who reported that they did not understand

what the teacher was saying in the videos. Participants all completed their surveys within 20 minutes.

### Analysis Plan

Participants were coded numerically, 1-50. To address research question 1, “What are the preferences of adult ESL learners in oral error correction,” data were examined using means, modes, medians, and percentages as a complete group and by English proficiency level to look for preferences concerning feedback strategies from both parts of the survey. Means, medians, and modes were used because they are the three standard measures of averages and locations.

Part 1 of the survey, in which participants ranked teacher-generated CF strategies on an ordinal scale, was analyzed using modes and percentages to determine the frequency of each ranking per video in order to supplement the information given by the mean rankings. As the ordinal data type only yields information regarding sequence of preferences in this case, it could not be analyzed arithmetically, and a p-value would not have been an appropriate measure of the findings. Furthermore, it would be inappropriate to do significance measures in a preliminary study with such small samples.

Part 2 was analyzed only using percentages. Further statistical analysis was not conducted due to the small size of the aggregate sample (50) and those of the educational background groups (25, 14, and 11).

Part 2 survey items 1, 3, 4, and 5 were compared to address the question of affective impact, and the responses to survey items 2 and 5 were compared to address the question of preference in frequency of oral CF and preference of which errors to correct.

Data were then broken into educational background groups of 1-6, 7-12, and 13+ years of school, and then the data were examined in those groups using the same procedure as the aggregate data. To address research question 2, “Is there a relationship between educational background and error correction preferences among adult English language learners,” responses from the groups were compared to look for differences in responses that could be tied to educational background.

## CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

### Introduction

This study was conducted through means of a survey to investigate the following questions:

1. What are the preferences of adult ESL learners in oral error correction?
2. Is there a relationship between educational background and error correction preferences among adult English language learners?

This chapter shows the survey results first from the demographic section in the description of the sample, then from survey Parts 1 and 2 as an aggregate result for all 50 participants using means, modes, and percentages. Next, survey Part 1 and 2 is revisited by comparing the results for each from the participants in groups of 0-6, 7-12, and 13+ years of formal education.

### Description of the Sample

Fifty participants completed the survey. They ranged in age from 18 to 66, and in years completed in school from four to 22. One participant was from South Korea, five were from Colombia, 28 were from Mexico, five were from Cuba, two were from Nicaragua, three were from Puerto Rico, one was from Venezuela, two were from Peru, one was from Honduras, one was from the Dominican Republic, and one was from Guatemala. Of the 50 participants, 26 were female and 24 male. Students from all four program levels of English Proficiency

participated. Six were from Level 1, 14 were from Level 2, 15 were from Level 3, and 15 were from Level 4, as shown in Table 3.

**Table 3. English Proficiency vs. Years Completed in School**

English Proficiency	0-6 years (11)	7-12 years (25)	13+ years (14)
Level 1	3 (27%)	3 (12%)	0 (0%)
Level 2	5 (45%)	9 (36%)	0 (0%)
Level 3	2 (18%)	5 (20%)	8 (57%)
Level 4	1 (9%)	8 (32%)	6 (43%)

It was observed that students with fewer years completed in school were in higher concentration in lower proficiency levels, the middle group was distributed more evenly, with the fewest number of participants in Level 1, and that students with thirteen or more years completed in school were only represented in Levels 3 and 4. Table 4 shows the number of participants in each educational background group.

**Table 4. Participant Group Size by Educational Background**

Years completed in school	Number of Participants
0-6	11
7-12	25
13+	14

Research Question One:

What are the preferences of adult ESL learners in oral error correction?

This section shows the results of the study in two parts: first, student preferences regarding oral CF strategies and, second, student preferences regarding which errors should be corrected, when, how, and the perceived affective impact of error correction in the L2 classroom.

*Survey Part 1: Student Preferences Regarding Teacher-Generated Error Correction Strategies*

In this part of the survey, students were asked to view six video clips demonstrating the six types of oral CF as described by Lyster and Ranta (1997), and to rank the videos on a scale of 1-6 with 1 being the least helpful and 6 being the most helpful. Videos were coded alphabetically as follows:

Video A: Repetition

Video B: Elicitation

Video C: Metalinguistic Information

Video D: Clarification Request

Video E: Recast

Video F: Explicit Corrective Feedback

The following tables show the collected video rankings in aggregate and the mean and mode responses to each video, and a table for each video shows the frequency of each ranking as a function of English proficiency level.

First, video rankings are shown for all participants followed by mean and mode rankings in Tables 5.

**Table 5. Video Rankings by Participant**

Participant	Repetition	Elicitation	Metalinguistic Information	Clarification Request	Recast	Explicit CF
1	3	5	6	2	4	1
2	3	2	1	6	5	4
3	3	1	5	6	2	4
4	3	1	6	2	4	5
5	3	6	2	1	5	4
6	3	1	2	5	4	6
7	2	4	6	1	3	5
8	3	4	5	6	2	1
9	1	3	6	2	4	5
10	4	1	3	2	5	6
11	1	3	4	2	5	6
12	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	2	1	3	6	4	5
14	6	5	1	3	4	2
15	2	4	5	3	6	1
16	4	2	6	1	3	5
17	6	4	5	1	3	2
18	1	5	6	4	3	2
19	2	1	6	3	4	5
20	2	4	6	3	1	5
21	2	4	5	3	6	1
22	1	3	4	2	6	5
23	6	2	1	3	5	4
24	1	4	6	2	3	5
25	2	3	1	4	5	6
26	4	5	6	1	2	3
27	2	5	6	1	3	4
28	2	3	6	5	1	4
29	1	6	2	3	4	5
30	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	1	6	2	3	4	5
32	1	2	5	4	3	6
33	3	2	6	1	4	5
34	1	5	6	3	4	2
35	3	4	5	6	1	2
36	1	5	6	2	3	4

Participant	Repetition	Elicitation	Metalinguistic Information	Clarification Request	Recast	Explicit CF
37	1	4	6	2	3	5
38	3	4	2	5	6	1
39	1	2	6	3	4	5
40	1	2	3	5	4	6
41	3	2	6	1	5	4
42	1	2	4	3	5	6
43	1	2	4	5	3	6
44	6	5	3	2	4	1
45	4	3	6	5	2	1
46	1	2	3	5	4	6
47	6	2	4	5	1	3
48	1	2	4	3	5	6
49	5	4	1	3	6	2
50	2	1	6	5	4	3
Mean	2.46	3.14	4.30	3.24	3.82	4.04
Mode	1	2	6	3	4	5
Mode Size	19	15	20	13	16	14
Median	2	3	5	3	4	5
Ranking scale: 1=least helpful, 6=most helpful						

Table 5 indicates a preference for Metalinguistic Information, followed by Explicit CF and Recasts according to the mean and mode rankings in the group of all 50 participants. The table shows the mean, mode, and median for the aggregate data. These measures are the three standard measures of averages and locations in ordinal data and in this case the placements given per video by each of the three measures are similar.

As it was observed that students with stronger educational backgrounds were more heavily represented in the upper intermediate and advanced English proficiency groups and that those participants who had completed fewer years in school were more heavily represented in the beginner and lower-intermediate levels, it seemed prudent to consider separating the data by

English proficiency level as well. To do this, each video will be given a separate table in order to show video rankings according to English proficiency level as follows.

Tables 6-11, one table per video, show the number of times each ranking was assigned to each video as a function of English proficiency level.

**Table 6. Video A (Repetition) Rankings by English Proficiency**

Participants	1	2	3	4	5	6
Level 1 (6)	3 (50%)	0 (0%)	2 (33%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (17%)
Level 2 (14)	2 (14%)	2 (14%)	3 (21%)	3 (21%)	1 (7%)	3 (21%)
Level 3 (15)	6 (40%)	6 (40%)	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)
Level 4 (15)	8 (53%)	2 (14%)	5 (33%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Ranking Scale: 1=least helpful, 6=most helpful						

Table 6 shows that 53% of participants from Level 4 consider Repetition the least helpful as a CF technique.

**Table 7. Video B (Elicitation) Rankings by English Proficiency**

Participants	1	2	3	4	5	6
Level 1 (6)	1 (17%)	2 (33%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	3 (50%)
Level 2 (14)	3 (21%)	4 (29%)	0 (0%)	4 (29%)	3 (21%)	0 (0%)
Level 3 (15)	1 (7%)	3 (20%)	4 (27%)	4 (27%)	3 (20%)	0 (0%)
Level 4 (15)	3 (20%)	5 (33%)	2 (14%)	3 (20%)	2 (14%)	0 (0%)
Ranking Scale: 1=least helpful, 6=most helpful						

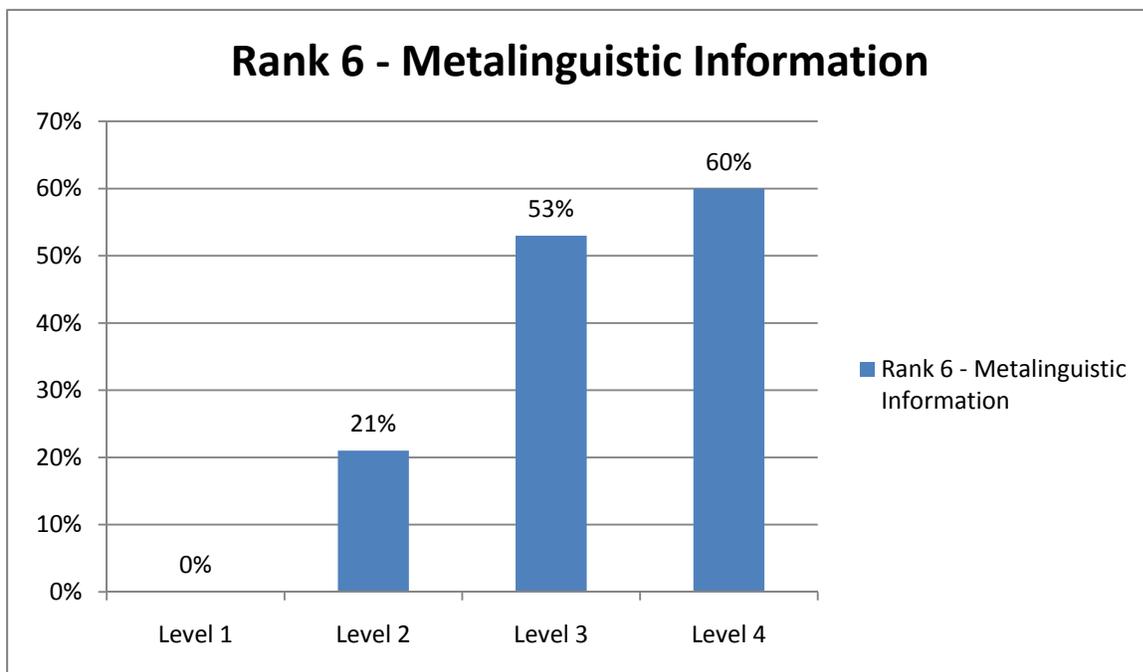
Fifty percent of Level 1 participants assigned a ranking of 6 to Elicitation, but no participants from the other levels did.

**Table 8. Video C (Metalinguistic Information) Rankings by English Proficiency**

Participants	1	2	3	4	5	6
Level 1 (6)	0 (0%)	3 (50%)	1 (17%)	1 (17%)	1 (17%)	0 (0%)
Level 2 (14)	4 (29%)	1 (17%)	4 (29%)	0 (0%)	2 (14%)	3 (21%)
Level 3 (15)	1 (7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	3 (20%)	3 (20%)	8 (53%)
Level 4 (15)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	2 (14%)	2 (14%)	1 (7%)	9 (60%)

Ranking Scale: 1=least helpful, 6=most helpful

Table 8 shows a preference for Metalinguistic Information that is stronger among participants from Levels 3 and 4 (60% and 53% assigned a ranking of 6) than among participants from Levels 1 and 2 (21% and 0% assigned a ranking of 6). The trend is clear in Figure 1.



**Figure 1: Ranking of 6 for Metalinguistic Information vs. English Proficiency Level**

This could be a reflection of stronger metacognitive skills resulting from a stronger educational background, or it could indicate that a higher English proficiency level has equipped them with

the vocabulary and grammatical knowledge to use metalinguistic feedback, whereas participants with lower English proficiency may lack these advantages.

**Table 9. Video D (Clarification Request) Rankings by English Proficiency**

Participants	1	2	3	4	5	6
Level 1 (6)	1 (17%)	0 (0%)	2 (33%)	1 (17%)	1 (17%)	1 (17%)
Level 2 (14)	2 (14%)	3 (21%)	4 (29%)	0 (0%)	2 (14%)	3 (21%)
Level 3 (15)	4 (27%)	1 (7%)	4 (27%)	3 (20%)	3 (20%)	0 (0%)
Level 4 (15)	1 (7%)	6 (35%)	4 (27%)	1 (7%)	3 (20%)	1 (7%)
Ranking Scale: 1=least helpful, 6=most helpful						

Table 9 shows that while three Level 1 participants ranked Clarification Request as unhelpful and three ranked it as helpful, participants from Levels 2, 3 and 4 ranked it as less helpful than helpful, nine to five, nine to six, and 11 to five, respectively.

**Table 10. Video E (Recast) Rankings by English Proficiency**

Participants	1	2	3	4	5	6
Level 1 (6)	1 (17%)	1 (17%)	0 (0%)	2 (33%)	2 (33%)	0 (0%)
Level 2 (14)	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	2 (14%)	5 (36%)	3 (21%)	2 (14%)
Level 3 (15)	2 (14%)	1 (7%)	6 (35%)	2 (14%)	2 (14%)	2 (14%)
Level 4 (15)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	2 (14%)	7 (47%)	4 (27%)	1 (7%)
Ranking Scale: 1=least helpful, 6=most helpful						

Tables 10 shows that participants from all Levels except for Level 3 considered Recasts more helpful than not. Eighty-two percent of Level 4 participants assigned a ranking of 4, 5, or 6, as did 71% of Level 2 participants and 66% of Level 1 participants.

**Table 11. Video F (Explicit Corrective Feedback) Rankings by English Proficiency**

Participants	1	2	3	4	5	6
Level 1 (6)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (17%)	2 (33%)	2 (33%)	1 (17%)
Level 2 (14)	2 (14%)	3 (21%)	1 (7%)	2 (14%)	3 (21%)	3 (21%)
Level 3 (15)	2 (14%)	3 (20%)	0 (0%)	2 (14%)	4 (27%)	4 (27%)
Level 4 (15)	3 (20%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	2 (14%)	5 (33%)	4 (27%)
Ranking Scale: 1=least helpful, 6=most helpful						

Table 11 shows that participants from all Levels found Explicit CF more helpful than not, with 74% of Level 4 participants, 68% of Level 3 participants, 56% of Level 2 participants, and 83% of Level 1 participants assigning a 4, 5 or 6 to that technique.

*Survey Part 2: Student Preferences Regarding the How and When of Corrective Feedback*

**Table 12. Item 1: How do You Feel When the Teacher Corrects You?**

Number of Participants	Embarrassed	Annoyed	Confused	Reassured	Fine
Total (50)	3 (6%)	1 (2%)	3 (6%)	6 (12%)	39 (78%)

Table 12 shows that 90% of the total group experience positive or neutral emotions (reassured or fine) when being corrected in class.

**Table 13. Item 2: Which Errors do You Prefer that the Teacher Corrects?**

Number of Participants	Every Error	Only Important Errors	None of my errors
Total (50)	48 (96%)	2 (4%)	0 (0%)

Table 13 shows that 96% of all participants preferred to have every error corrected in class.

**Table 14. Item 3: Do You Prefer to be Corrected Privately, or in Class?**

Number of Participants	In Private	In Class
Total (50)	2 (4%)	48 (96%)

Table 14 shows a clear preference (96%) across groups for being corrected in class over privately, possibly indicating low affective impact.

**Table 15. Item 4: Do You Prefer to be Corrected Immediately, or After Class?**

Number of Participants	Immediately	After Class
Total (50)	48 (96%)	2 (4%)

Table 15 shows that 96% of the participants preferred to be corrected immediately following their errors.

**Table 16. Do You Prefer to be Corrected Individually, or as a Group (i.e., Only the Errors that Everybody Makes)?**

Number of Participants	Individually	When everybody makes the same mistake
Total (50)	38 (76%)	12 (24%)

Table 16 shows a preference (76%) among participants for being corrected individually rather than as a group.

Research Question Two:

Is there a relationship between educational background and error correction preferences among adult English language learners?

*Survey Part 1: Student Preferences Regarding Teacher-Generated Corrective Feedback Strategies*

Video rankings were divided into groups according to educational background, followed by mean and mode rankings as shown in Tables 17, 18, and 19.

**Table 17. Video Rankings by Participants Who Completed 0-6 Years of School**

Participant Number Code	Repetition	Elicitation	Metalinguistic Information	Clarification Request	Recast	Explicit CF
2	3	2	1	6	5	4
3	3	1	5	6	2	4
4	3	1	6	2	4	5
6	3	1	2	5	4	6
15	2	4	5	3	6	1
21	2	4	5	3	6	1
22	1	3	4	2	6	5
29	1	6	2	3	4	5
30	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	3	4	5	6	1	2
46	1	2	3	5	4	6
Mean	2.09	2.73	3.73	4.09	4.27	4.09
Mode	3	1, 2, 4	5	3, 6	4	6, 5
Ranking Scale: 1=least helpful, 6=most helpful						

Table 17 shows that participants who completed 0-6 years of school assigned the highest mean ranking to Recasts and the highest mode ranking to Explicit CF. This may be a question of vocabulary. The recast shown in the video did not include any additional vocabulary that the student had not already used, aside from the corrected form of the verb. It is possible that the clear and direct nature of Explicit CF makes it more useful to students who may lack advanced metacognitive skills, or that a less developed interlanguage and L2 vocabulary makes Explicit CF seem more accessible than some of the other types (students with weaker educational

backgrounds were found in higher concentration in the beginning and low intermediate proficiency levels).

**Table 18. Video Rankings by Participants Who Completed 7-12 Years of School**

Participant	Repetition	Elicitation	Metalinguistic Information	Clarification Request	Recast	Explicit CF
5	3	6	2	1	5	4
7	2	4	6	1	3	5
10	4	1	3	2	5	6
11	1	3	4	2	5	6
12	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	2	1	3	6	4	5
14	6	5	1	3	4	2
16	4	2	6	1	3	5
17	6	4	5	1	3	2
19	2	1	6	3	4	5
23	6	2	1	3	5	4
24	1	4	6	2	3	5
25	2	3	1	4	5	6
26	4	5	6	1	2	3
31	1	6	2	3	4	5
34	1	5	6	3	4	2
36	1	5	6	2	3	4
37	1	4	6	2	3	5
38	3	4	2	5	6	1
39	1	2	6	3	4	5
44	6	5	3	2	4	1
45	4	3	6	5	2	1
47	6	2	4	5	1	3
48	1	2	4	3	5	6
49	5	4	1	3	6	2
Mean	2.96	3.40	3.96	2.80	3.92	3.96
Mode	1	2, 4	6	3	4, 5	5
Ranking Scale: 1=least helpful, 6=most helpful						

Table 18 shows that in the responses from the participants who completed 7-12 years of school, Metalinguistic Information and Explicit CF received the highest mean and mode rankings.

**Table 19. Video Rankings by Participants Who Completed 13+ Years of School**

Participant	Repetition	Elicitation	Metalinguistic Information	Clarification Request	Recast	Explicit CF
1	3	5	6	2	4	1
8	3	4	5	6	2	1
9	1	3	6	2	4	5
18	1	5	6	4	3	2
20	2	4	6	3	1	5
27	2	5	6	1	3	4
28	2	3	6	5	1	4
32	1	2	5	4	3	6
33	3	2	6	1	4	5
40	1	2	3	5	4	6
41	3	2	6	1	5	4
42	1	2	4	3	5	6
43	1	2	4	5	3	6
50	2	1	6	5	4	3
Mean	1.86	3.00	5.36	3.36	3.29	4.14
Mode	1	2	6	5	4	6
Ranking Scale: 1=least helpful, 6=most helpful						

The participants who completed 13+ years of school assigned the highest mean and mode rankings to Metalinguistic Information (5.36, 6) and Explicit CF (4.14, 6).

**Table 20. Mean Comparisons of Video Rankings Across Educational Background Groups**

	Aggregate (50)	0-6 years (11)	7-12 years (25)	13+ years (14)
Repetition	2.46	2.09	2.96	1.86
Elicitation	3.14	2.73	3.40	3.00
Metalinguistic Information	4.30	3.73	3.96	5.36
Clarification Request	3.24	4.09	2.80	3.36
Recast	3.82	4.27	3.92	3.29
Explicit CF	4.04	4.09	3.96	4.14
Ranking Scale: 1=least helpful, 6=most helpful				

Table 20 shows that the 13+ years group had the strongest preference for Metalinguistic Information based on mean ranking, and that the mean ranking for Metalinguistic Information in this group was the highest of any mean ranking of the other videos, followed by the 0-6 years group's mean ranking for Recasts.

**Table 21. Mode Comparison of Video Rankings Across Educational Background Groups**

	Aggregate (50)	0-6 years (11)	7-12 years (25)	13+ years (14)
Repetition	1	3	1	1
Elicitation	2	1, 2, 4	2, 4	2
Metalinguistic Information	6	5	6	6
Clarification Request	3	3, 6	3	5
Recast	4	4	4, 5	4
Explicit CF	5	6, 5	5	6
Ranking Scale: 1=least helpful, 6=most helpful				

Table 21 shows a comparison of the mode video rankings from each educational background group. A comparison of modes shows that Explicit CF and Metalinguistic Information received a mode ranking of 5 or 6 by all three groups.

*Survey Part 2: Student Preferences Regarding Which Errors Should Be Corrected, and When, and How, and the Perceived Affective Impact of Corrective Feedback*

Survey Part 2 contained five items concerning the affective impact of oral correction on the participants, as well as participants' preferences concerning how and when they should be corrected. In addition to a list of provided responses, Item 1 included an optional space for an individual response or clarification. Optional responses are shown following Table 22.

**Table 22. Item 1: How do You Feel When the Teacher Corrects You?**

Number of Participants	Embarrassed	Annoyed	Confused	Reassured	Fine
Total (50)	3 (6%)	1 (2%)	3 (6%)	6 (12%)	39 (78%)
0-6 years (11)	2 (18%)	0 (0%)	1 (9%)	0 (0%)	8 (73%)
7-12 years (25)	1 (4%)	0 (0%)	1 (4%)	2 (8%)	23 (92%)
13+ years (14)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	4 (29%)	8 (57%)

Table 22 shows that the majority of participants responded that they felt fine when receiving oral CF. Eighteen percent of participants who completed 0-6 years in school felt embarrassed when being corrected, compared to 4% (7-12 years) and 0% (13+ years). Twenty-nine percent of participants who completed 13+ years of school reported feeling reassured when being corrected.

Among participants who completed more than 13 years of school, only 57% felt fine upon being corrected, 29% (the highest percentage of all groups) felt reassured. The only participant that cited annoyance as a response was in the 13+ years group and was a Level 4 student. It should be noted that participants were allowed to choose more than one response per item, accounting for the larger number of responses than participants. The number of participants per group is noted next to the group name in the left column.

#### *Optional Responses*

Five participants elected to write original statements about their preferences. These statements are shown below in order of participant number:

- 8: Participant 8 had completed 14 years of school and wrote that it was better if the correction was respectful.
- 9: Participant 9 had completed 13 years of school and reported needing to be sure that the correction was accurate.
- 33: Participant 33 had completed 15 years of school and reported feeling reassured and fine, and wrote that correction is a safer way to learn.
- 43: Participant 43 had completed 12 years of school and responded that correction is the right thing to do, and that one learns more that way.
- 49: Participant 49 had completed nine years of school and reported feeling reassured when being corrected, and wrote, “Even if I have to be corrected 9 times, but nicely, maybe I will speak correctly the 10<sup>th</sup> time. One learns from errors.”

**Table 23. Item 2: Which Errors do You Prefer that the Teacher Corrects?**

Number of Participants	Every Error	Only Important Errors	None of my errors
Total (50)	48 (96%)	2 (4%)	0 (0%)
0-6 years (11)	11 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
7-12 years (25)	24 (96%)	1 (4%)	0 (0%)
13+ years (14)	13 (93%)	1 (7%)	0 (0%)

Table 23 shows that at least 93% of participants in each group preferred to have every error corrected rather than no errors or only important errors. Only four out of 50 participants preferred to have only certain errors corrected. None of the participants reported not wanting any errors corrected.

**Table 24. Item 3: Do You Prefer to Be Corrected Privately, or in Class?**

Number of Participants	In Private	In Class
Total (50)	2 (4%)	48 (96%)
0-6 years (11)	0 (0%)	11 (100%)
7-12 years (25)	1 (4%)	24 (96%)
13+ years (14)	1 (7%)	13 (93%)

Table 24 shows that at least 93% of participants from each group reported a preference for being corrected in class rather than privately. This result may indicate that participants perceive a low affective impact from CF.

**Table 25. Item 4: Do You Prefer to Be Corrected Immediately, or After Class?**

Number of Participants	Immediately	After Class
Total (50)	48 (96%)	2 (4%)
0-6 years (11)	11 (100%)	0 (0%)
7-12 years (25)	24 (96%)	1 (4%)
13+ years (14)	13 (93%)	1 (7%)

Table 25 shows that at least 93% of participants from each group preferred to be corrected immediately following their errors, rather than after class. Only two of 50 participants indicated a preference for delayed correction.

**Table 26. Item 5: Do You Prefer to Be Corrected Individually, or as a Group (i.e., Only the Errors that Everybody Makes)?**

Number of Participants	Individually	When everybody makes the same mistake
Total (50)	38 (76%)	12 (24%)
0-6 years (11)	10 (91%)	1 (9%)
7-12 years (25)	15 (60%)	10 (40%)
13+ years (14)	13 (93%)	1 (7%)

Table 26 shows that 60% of participants who had completed 7-12 years of school reported wanting to be corrected individually rather than in groups. Ninety-one percent of participants

who had completed 0-6 years of school and 93% of participants who had completed 13+ years of school wanted to be corrected individually.

## CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the existence of a relationship between adult ELLs' educational backgrounds and their preferences in and beliefs about error correction. Fifty participants completed surveys of their educational and demographic backgrounds and feelings about error correction, and then ranked video clips of different types of error correction in terms of perceived usefulness. This study used the Lyster & Ranta (1997) taxonomy of error correction types as the basis for the video choices.

The research questions under investigation in this study were:

1. What are the preferences of adult ESL learners in oral error correction?
2. Is there a relationship between educational background and error correction preferences among adult English language learners?

### Discussion

*Question 1 – What are the Preferences of Adult ESL Learners in Oral Error Correction?*

#### Survey Part 1: Student preferences regarding teacher-generated CF strategies

Metalinguistic Information received the highest overall mean and mode rankings. Explicit CF received the second highest mean and mode rankings. Recasts received the third highest mean

and mode rankings overall. Clarification Requests received the fourth highest overall mean and mode rankings, followed by Elicitation and Repetition.

The high overall ranking for Metalinguistic Information seems to have been driven by the larger population of Level 3 and 4 participants, 70% of whom gave it a ranking of 5 or 6 (the two most helpful rankings,) compared to 17% and 35% from the Level 1 and 2 participants, respectively. This could be a reflection of several factors, including stronger metacognitive and/or metalinguistic skills, better developed interlanguage, a stronger foundation of English grammar and vocabulary with which to use the corrective information, or possibly their own stronger educational backgrounds (it was observed that students in higher English proficiency class levels were more likely to have a strong educational background).

Explicit CF was perceived as helpful (a ranking of 4, 5 or 6) by more than half of the participants from each level except Level 2. Each successive level except Level 2 ranked Explicit CF as more helpful than the proficiency level below it, with 50% of respondents from Level 1, 54% of respondents from Level 3, and 60% of respondents from Level 4 ranking it as either a 5 or a 6.

Recasts were ranked as helpful by 66%, 71%, and 81% of participants from Levels 1, 2 and 4, respectively. Forty-two percent of participants from Level 3 ranked Recasts as helpful. These findings may be difficult to interpret because of the inherent ambiguity of Recasts (Morris & Tarone, 2003). The high frequency with which Recasts are reported to occur in the L2 classroom (Jensen, 2002; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Sheen, 2004; Suzuki, 2004; Cal & Turnbull, 2005; Yoshida, 2008) could lead to a student recognizing and responding favorably to it during the ranking process. Conversely, a student might be less likely to recognize a recast as a form of CF

during the ranking process due to the fact that it is sometimes used for non-corrective purposes (Truscott, 1999) or possibly because it is usually, but not always (Sheen, 2006) implicit.

Clarification Requests were ranked 4, 5, or 6 by 51% of Level 1 participants. Thirty-five percent of Level 2 participants, 20% of Level 3 participants, and 27% of Level 4 participants ranked Clarification Requests as 4, 5, or 6. It is possible that a more advanced student, due to a better developed interlanguage and L2 vocabulary may recognize his or her mistake immediately or as clarification is requested, but be frustrated by not knowing the correct form or by having made a mistake just before recalling the correct form to mind.

Elicitation received the second lowest mean and mode rankings overall, 3.1, and a mode ranking of 2.

None of the Level 4 participants assigned a ranking above 3 to Repetition. Less than half of the participants from the other three Levels ranked Repetition as a 4, 5, or 6 (14% of Level 3 participants, 49% of Level 2 participants, and 17% of Level 1 participants).

#### Survey Part 2: Student Preferences Regarding Which Errors Should Be Corrected, and How, and When, and the Perceived Affective Impact of Corrective Feedback

Part 2 of the survey contained questions concerning student preferences in CF. The first question, “How do you feel when the teacher corrects you?” was asked to gain an idea of the perceived affective impact on the participants. Seventy-eight percent of respondents reported feeling fine, and 12% reported feeling reassured when being corrected by the teacher, compared with 6% reporting feelings of embarrassment, 2% reporting annoyance, and 6% reporting feeling confused. These responses should not be considered mutually exclusive. The survey item

instructed participants to mark more than one response, if applicable. Eight participants did so. The responses to this survey item suggested that adult ELLs do not generally find error correction to be a negative emotional experience.

Item 2 asked if the participants preferred to be corrected every time they made a mistake or only when the mistake was important. Ninety-six percent of all participants preferred for every error to be corrected, in keeping with the findings from Cathcart and Olsen (1994), Rauber and Gil (2004), Schulz (2001), and Suzuki (2004).

Item 3 asked if the participants preferred to be corrected privately or in front (so to speak) of the class. Ninety-six percent of respondents preferred to be corrected in class. This also casts doubt on the degree of negative emotion to which Truscott (1999) stated that students feel subjected during oral CF.

Item 4 asked if participants preferred to be corrected immediately or after class. Ninety-six percent of respondents reported a preference for being corrected immediately, giving a clear response to Hendrickson's (1977) second question concerning when learner errors should be corrected, and also corroborating the responses from items 1 and 3 concerning the affective impact of oral CF.

Item 5 asked if the participants preferred to be corrected individually or in groups. This item addressed not only the perceived affective impact of CF, but also the question of frequency. Individual error correction carries the possibility of more frequent and specific CF than correction of groups. Seventy-six percent of students preferred to be corrected individually, and 24% preferred to be corrected in groups.

*Question 2 – Is There a Relationship Between Educational Background and Student Preferences in Error Correction?*

Survey Part 1: Student Preferences Regarding Teacher-Generated Corrective Feedback Strategies

Participants who had completed 13+ years of school assigned the highest mean and mode rankings (5.36 and 6) to Metalinguistic Information, followed by participants who had completed 7-12 years of school (3.96 and 6). One should guard against the assumption that these rankings were directly related to participants' educational backgrounds, as the students with more years completed in school were also more likely to be found in the higher English proficiency levels. Therefore, while the higher rankings for Metalinguistic Information could have been related to a stronger educational background, they could also have been the result of being equipped with an interlanguage sufficiently developed to recognize and use it.

Explicit CF received a mean ranking of 3.96-4.14 from all three groups. Mode rankings for this technique were 5 or 5 and 6. Explicit CF is short, pointed, and direct. It is possible that while explicit types of CF are sometimes avoided by teachers for fear of affective repercussions (Yoshida, 2008), more than half of the participants surveyed in this study ranked Explicit CF as helpful because of its brevity and directness. A survey study asking students why they perceived certain strategies as helpful or unhelpful could help to clarify this matter.

Mean rankings for Recasts were 4.27, 3.92, and 3.29 from groups 0-6, 7-12, and 13+, respectively. Mode rankings were 4 from groups 0-6 and 13+, and 4 and 5 from participants who had completed 7-12 years of school.

Clarification Requests received a mean ranking of 4.09 and mode rankings of 3 and 6 from participants who had completed 0-6 years of school. Participants who had completed 7-12 years of school assigned a mean ranking of 2.80 and a mode ranking of 3 to this strategy. Participants who had completed 13+ years of school assigned a mean ranking of 3.36 and a mode ranking of 3 to Clarification Requests.

Elicitation received a mean ranking of 2.73 and mode rankings of 1, 2 and 4 from students who had completed 0-6 years of school. This technique was assigned a mean ranking of 3.40 and mode rankings of 2 and 4 from participants who had completed 7-12 years of school.

Participants who had completed 13+ years of school assigned a mean ranking of 3.00 and a mode ranking of 2 to Elicitation.

Repetition received a mean ranking of 2.09 and a mode ranking of 3 from participants who had completed 0-6 years of school. Participants who had completed 7-12 years of school assigned a mean ranking of 2.96 and a mode ranking of 1 to repetition, and participants who had completed 13+ years of school assigned a mean ranking of 1.86 and a mode ranking of 1 to this technique. The lower mode rankings assigned by participants with stronger educational backgrounds could also have been due to their likelihood of having a higher level of English proficiency and therefore a better developed interlanguage and/or stronger metalinguistic skills. The error in this video was an irregular verb form. A student with a stronger educational background, or possibly stronger metalinguistic skills and a better developed interlanguage and L2 vocabulary, might expect a CF technique that includes the correct form or a clue that would help him or her to remember it.

## Survey Part 2: Student Preferences Regarding Which Errors Should Be Corrected, and How, and When, and the Perceived Affective Impact of Corrective Feedback

Participants who had completed 0-6 years in school reported the highest rates of negative emotions upon being corrected: 18% reported embarrassment, and 9% reported confusion, while none reported feeling reassured. One participant from each educational background group reported feeling confused. The 13+ group showed the highest (29%) rate of feeling reassured when being corrected. This group, however, had the lowest percentage of respondents who said they felt fine. One explanation for this could be a simple question of vocabulary. Students with an educational background of 6 or less years cannot necessarily be expected to be comfortable with the use of the word 'reassured' in either language, whereas 'fine' is a much more accessible term.

Similar responses were received from all three groups for survey item 2. At least 93% from each group preferred for all of their errors to be corrected. Responses were similar across groups for survey item 3. At least 93% of participants in each group preferred to be corrected in class. At least 93% of respondents from all groups preferred to be corrected immediately (survey item 4). The majority (at least 60%) of respondents from all 3 groups reported a preference for individual correction over group correction, although 40% (10 people) participants who had completed 7-12 years in school preferred group correction, compared to 9% (1 person) from the 0-6 group and 7% (1 person) from the 13+ group.

### Implications for Students and Teachers

According to Krashen (1994) and Truscott (1999), error correction in the L2 classroom creates a negative emotional experience for students that impedes the learning process. Findings from this study, however, indicated that most students reported a neutral or positive emotional reaction to being corrected, and actually preferred being corrected over not being corrected. Schulz (2001) reported that students whose expectations of practices that are effective were not met were more likely to experience a negative impact on motivation, attitude, or estimation of the teacher. These factors have the potential to negatively impact the effectiveness of classroom instruction according to the Affective Filter Hypothesis.

Havranek (2002), Loewen & Philip (2006), and Yoshida (2008) reported that teachers may choose recasts and other implicit feedback techniques or avoidance of error correction altogether as a way to avoid the risk of intimidating, distracting, frustrating, or embarrassing students. The findings of this study indicate that teachers may run more risk of disappointing students by not meeting their expectations than they do of causing them a negative emotional experience by correcting them.

### Limitations and Recommendations for Future Study

The results of this study indicate that adult ESL students with differing educational backgrounds generally hold similar beliefs about oral error correction. There may be differences concerning perception of error correction types as helpful or unhelpful among groups of differing educational backgrounds and/or English proficiency, but no relationship that could be attributed

only to educational background was found. If this study were to be repeated, a larger population could bring more conclusive data about the cause, nature and extent of those differences.

The data were analyzed using means, medians, modes, and percentages. These are the three standard measures of averages and locations for ordinal data and showed similar placements for each video. Further statistical analysis was not conducted because of the lack of statistical power in the use of groups of such small and varied sizes (25, 14, and 11). A similar study conducted on a larger scale with predetermined group sizes would be more likely to yield results regarding the significance of any differences found between group responses.

Forty-nine of the 50 participants were Hispanic. A broader cultural range of participants would have determined whether or not these data were applicable to adult ESL students in general or only to Hispanic students.

The largest source of confusion for respondents was the 1-6 ranking scale for CF types. Future studies may yield different results by using a Likert scale to elicit opinions about error correction. By allowing participants to decide whether or not they agreed with a statement contained in a survey item, a researcher could avoid ambiguities that present themselves in a forced ranking. A rank ordered scale does not, for example, tell the researcher anything about the relative differences between the rank-ordered items. A participant may perceive a technique ranked as a 3 as slightly more helpful than one ranked as a 2, but far less helpful than one ranked as a 4. Furthermore, these separations may vary from item to item.

Another alternative to the ranking scale used in this study could be a rating scale where each video is given its own value by the participants. A rating scale would lend itself more readily to parametrical analysis and significance measures given a sufficient sample size.

Another limitation of the use of forced ranking in this study is that participants who perceive two different CF techniques as equally helpful or unhelpful must choose to rank one above the other. This type of forced decision may lead to results that do not necessarily reflect the true opinions of the respondents.

During survey administration, some participants expressed confusion about the difference between Recasts and Explicit CF. By using examples of only explicit vs. implicit correction, a researcher could minimize confusion on the part of participants about the differences between superficially similar types such as Recasts and Explicit CF.

Future study regarding the relationship between educational background and preferences in oral CF in the L2 classroom would probably benefit from a more detailed survey, including the collection of information concerning previous foreign language education.

### Conclusions

The questions addressed by this study were:

1. What are the preferences of adult ESL learners in oral error correction?

2. Is there a relationship between educational background and error correction preferences among adult English language learners?

The majority of participants reported that they do not experience a negative emotional impact upon being corrected and prefer being corrected over not being corrected. Participants reported a preference for being corrected individually, in class, and immediately following their errors.

The data show that students with stronger educational backgrounds assigned a higher ranking to Metalinguistic feedback over other types. This preference may be due to having stronger metacognitive skills as a result of a more extensive educational background, or may be due to stronger metalinguistic skills and better developed interlanguage, as most respondents with strong educational backgrounds were also high intermediate or advanced students.

No relationship was found between educational background and adult ELLs' preferences in CF. Due to the distribution of educational backgrounds in the English proficiency levels, even the more striking differences in strategy rankings could as easily be explained by differences in L2 vocabulary, metalinguistic skills, or interlanguage development.

Ninety percent of the participants reported feeling positive or neutral emotions when being corrected. Ninety-three percent or more of respondents from each educational background group preferred to be corrected every time they made a mistake, in class rather than privately, and immediately after making the mistake.

The importance of the comfort and emotional well-being of students to their success in the classroom is under no debate in this study, and indeed both empirical and anecdotal evidence are

available to show that students who experience language learning as uncomfortable or unpleasant are less likely to learn efficiently. The results of this study indicate that CF does not generally create a negative emotional experience for students and that indeed they expect and prefer to be corrected regardless of their educational background or English proficiency.

## **APPENDIX A: IRB APPROVAL LETTER**



University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board  
Office of Research & Commercialization  
12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501  
Orlando, Florida 32826-3246  
Telephone: 407-823-2901, 407-882-2012 or 407-882-2276  
[www.research.ucf.edu/compliance/irb.html](http://www.research.ucf.edu/compliance/irb.html)

## Notice of Exempt Review Status

From: **UCF Institutional Review Board**  
**FWA00000351, Exp. 10/8/11, IRB00001138**

To: **Hillary P. Smith**

Date: **July 22, 2009**

IRB Number: **SBE-09-06241**

Study Title: **Correct me if I'm wrong: Investigating the relationship between educational background and preferences in error correction among adult English language learners**

Dear Researcher:

Your research protocol was reviewed by the IRB Vice-chair on 7/22/2009. Per federal regulations, 45 CFR 46.101, your study has been determined to be **minimal risk for human subjects and exempt** from 45 CFR 46 federal regulations and further IRB review or renewal unless you later wish to add the use of identifiers or change the protocol procedures in a way that might increase risk to participants. Before making any changes to your study, call the IRB office to discuss the changes. **A change which incorporates the use of identifiers may mean the study is no longer exempt, thus requiring the submission of a new application to change the classification to expedited if the risk is still minimal.** Please submit the Termination/Final Report form when the study has been completed. All forms may be completed and submitted online at <https://iris.research.ucf.edu>.

The category for which exempt status has been determined for this protocol is as follows:

2. Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey or interview procedures, or the observation of public behavior, so long as confidentiality is maintained.
  - (i) Information obtained is recorded in such a manner that the subject cannot be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subject, **and/or**
  - (ii) Subject's responses, if known outside the research would not reasonably place the subject at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subject's financial standing or employability or reputation.

All data, which may include signed consent form documents, must be retained in a locked file cabinet for a minimum of three years (six if HIPAA applies) past the completion of this research. Any links to the identification of participants should be maintained on a password-protected computer if electronic information is used. Additional requirements may be imposed by your funding agency, your department, or other entities. Access to data is limited to authorized individuals listed as key study personnel.

On behalf of Tracy Dietz, Ph.D., UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

Signature applied by Janice Turchin on 07/22/2009 09:12:40 AM EDT

## **APPENDIX B: PARTICIPANT SURVEY FORMS**

Date \_\_\_\_\_ Level of English \_\_\_\_\_  
 Country of Origin \_\_\_\_\_ How many school years did you complete? \_\_\_\_\_  
 Age \_\_\_\_\_ How many years of English have you taken? \_\_\_\_\_  
 Sex \_\_\_\_\_ M \_\_\_\_\_ F How long have you been in the US? \_\_\_\_\_

**Part 1: You will see 6 videos showing different types of error correction.**

**Please rank these videos by how helpful you think they are, with**

**1 meaning the least helpful and 6 meaning the most helpful**

Video A \_\_\_\_\_  
 Video B \_\_\_\_\_  
 Video C \_\_\_\_\_  
 Video D \_\_\_\_\_  
 Video E \_\_\_\_\_  
 Video F \_\_\_\_\_

**Part 2: Please answer the following questions:**

- 1.) **How do you feel in general when the teacher corrects you?**  
**(mark all that apply)**  
 \_\_\_\_\_embarrassed  
 \_\_\_\_\_annoyed  
 \_\_\_\_\_confused  
 \_\_\_\_\_reassured  
 \_\_\_\_\_fine  
 \_\_\_\_\_other (please explain)
- 2.) **Do you prefer that the teacher corrects you...**  
 \_\_\_\_\_ every time you make a mistake  
 \_\_\_\_\_ only when the mistake is important  
 \_\_\_\_\_ never
- 3.) **Do you prefer that the teacher corrects you...**  
 \_\_\_\_\_ in private  
 \_\_\_\_\_ in class
- 4.) **Do you prefer that the teacher corrects you...**  
 \_\_\_\_\_ immediately  
 \_\_\_\_\_ after class
- 5.) **Do you prefer that the teacher corrects you...**  
 \_\_\_\_\_ individually  
 \_\_\_\_\_ as a group - just mistakes that everybody makes

Fecha \_\_\_\_\_ Nivel de Clase Inglés \_\_\_\_\_  
 País de Origen \_\_\_\_\_ ¿Cuántos años ha completado usted en cualquier escuela  
 Edad \_\_\_\_\_ (incluyendo primaria, secundaria y universidad)? \_\_\_\_\_  
 Sexo \_\_\_\_\_ M \_\_\_\_\_ F ¿Cuántos años ha estudiado usted inglés? \_\_\_\_\_  
 ¿Cuánto tiempo tiene usted en los Estados Unidos? \_\_\_\_\_

**Part 1: Usted verá 6 videos mostrando diferentes maneras de corrección.**

Por favor, coloca en orden de efectividad (en su propia opinión) estas maneras de corrección, tomando en cuenta que 1 es el menos útil y 6 es lo mas útil

Video A \_\_\_\_\_  
 Video B \_\_\_\_\_  
 Video C \_\_\_\_\_  
 Video D \_\_\_\_\_  
 Video E \_\_\_\_\_  
 Video F \_\_\_\_\_

**Part 2: Por favor, conteste las siguientes preguntas:**

1.) ¿Cómo se siente usted generalmente cuando el maestro le corrija?

(marque todos que se aplican)

\_\_\_\_ avergonzado

\_\_\_\_ molesto

\_\_\_\_ confundido

\_\_\_\_ reasegurado

\_\_\_\_ bien

\_\_\_\_ otro(explica, por favor) \_\_\_\_\_

2.) ¿Prefiere usted que el maestro le corrija...?

\_\_\_\_ cada vez que comete un error

\_\_\_\_ sólo cuando su error es importante

\_\_\_\_ nunca

3.) ¿Prefiere usted que el maestro le corrija...?

\_\_\_\_ en privado

\_\_\_\_ en la clase

4.) ¿Prefiere usted que el maestro le corrija...?

\_\_\_\_ inmediatamente

\_\_\_\_ después de la clase

5.) ¿Prefiere usted que el maestro le corrija...?

\_\_\_\_ individualmente

\_\_\_\_ como un grupo-sólo los errores que todos cometen

## **APPENDIX C: CASAS COMPETENCIES**

## CASAS SKILL LEVEL DESCRIPTORS FOR ESL

Scale Scores	CASAS Level	Skill Level
250	<b>E</b>	<b>Proficient Skills</b> SPL 8 Listening/Speaking: Can participate effectively in social and familiar work situations; can understand and participate in practical and social conversations and in technical discussions in own field. Reading/Writing: Can handle most reading and writing tasks related to life roles; can read and interpret most non-simplified materials; can interpret routine charts, graphs, and labels; fill out medical information forms and job applications. Employability: Can meet work demands with confidence, interact with the public, and follow written instructions in work manuals.
245		
240	<b>D</b>	<b>Adult Secondary</b> SPL 7 Listening/Speaking: Can function independently in survival and social and work situations; can clarify general meaning and communicate on the telephone on familiar topics. Reading/Writing: Can read and interpret non-simplified materials on everyday subjects; can interpret routine charts, graphs, and labels; fill out medical information forms and job applications; and write an accident or incident report. Employability: Understands routine work-related conversations. Can handle work that involves following oral and simple written instructions and interact with the public. Can perform reading and writing tasks, such as most logs, reports, and forms, with reasonable accuracy to meet work needs.
235		
230	<b>C</b>	<b>Advanced ESL</b> SPL 6 Listening/Speaking: Can satisfy most survival needs and social demands. Has some ability to understand and communicate on the telephone on familiar topics. Can participate in conversations on a variety of topics. Reading/Writing: Can read and interpret simplified and some non-simplified materials on familiar topics. Can interpret simple charts, graphs, and labels; interpret a payroll stub; and complete a simple order form; fill out medical information forms and job applications. Can write short personal notes and letters and make simple log entries. Employability: Can handle jobs and job training situations that involve following oral and simple written instructions and multi-step diagrams and limited public contact. Can read a simple employee handbook. Persons at the upper end of this score range are able to begin GED preparation.
225		
220		
215		
210	<b>B</b>	<b>High Intermediate ESL</b> SPL 5 Listening/Speaking: Can satisfy basic survival needs and limited social demands; can follow oral directions in familiar contexts. Has limited ability to understand on the telephone. Understands learned phrases easily and new phrases containing familiar vocabulary. Reading/Writing: Can read and interpret simplified and some authentic material on familiar subjects. Can write messages or notes related to basic needs. Can fill out basic medical forms and job applications. Employability: Can handle jobs and/or training that involve following basic oral and written instructions and diagrams if they can be clarified orally.
205		
200		
190	<b>A</b>	<b>High Beginning ESL</b> SPL 3 Listening/Speaking: Functions with some difficulty in situations related to immediate needs; may have some simple oral communication abilities using basic learned phrases and sentences. Reading/Writing: Reads and writes letters and numbers and a limited number of basic sight words and simple phrases related to immediate needs. Can write basic personal information on simplified forms. Employability: Can handle routine entry-level jobs that involve only the most basic oral or written communication in English and in which all tasks can be demonstrated.
180		
170		
160		
150		
		<b>Low Beginning ESL</b> SPL 2 Listening/Speaking: Functions in a very limited way in situations related to immediate needs; asks and responds to basic learned phrases spoken slowly and repeated often. Reading/Writing: Recognizes and writes letters and numbers and reads and understands common sight words. Can write own name and address. Employability: Can handle only routine entry-level jobs that do not require oral or written communication in English and in which all tasks are easily demonstrated.
		<b>Beginning Literacy/Pre-Beginning ESL</b> SPL 0-1 Listening/Speaking: Functions minimally, if at all, in English. Communicates only through gestures and a few isolated words. Reading/Writing: May not be literate in any language. Employability: Can handle very routine entry-level jobs that do not require oral or written communication in English and in which all tasks are easily demonstrated. Employment choices would be extremely limited.

Note: This chart provides general skill descriptors by level. Level descriptors for reading, math and listening correspond to scale scores on tests in those specific skill areas.

3

## **APPENDIX D: ADMINISTRATIVE CONSENT FORMS**



## **Permission for Administration of Research Procedures**

### **Title of the Study:**

Correct me if I'm wrong: Investigating the relationship between educational background and preferences in error correction among adult Hispanic English language learners

### **Introduction and Investigators**

This study is intended to complete the thesis requirement in the MATESOL (Master of Arts; Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) program in the College of Arts and Humanities at UCF. All procedures will be administered and data collected and analyzed by Hillary Smith ([hpsmithflorida@aol.com](mailto:hpsmithflorida@aol.com), 321-277-3901), MATESOL candidate under the advisement of her thesis committee: UCF faculty members Dr. Florin Mihai (Chair), Dr. Gergana Vitanova, and Dr. Kerry Purmensky.

The research question to be addressed is:

- 1.) Is there a relationship between educational background and error correction preferences among adult Hispanic English language learners?

### **Participants**

The study will include between 50 and 100 participants. Participants will be students in adult ESL programs in Apopka, FL.

There are no anticipated risks or discomforts to the participant during these procedures. There will be no compensation to the participants, but they will be informed that the procedure is voluntary, they may withdraw at any time without consequence, they may refuse to answer any or all questions without consequence, and that their participation or nonparticipation will affect neither their academic standing nor their status in the class.

Participants will be informed that the potential benefits of their participation in this research include a better understanding and heightened sensitivity to their needs on the part of their instructors who will receive the conclusions of the study in aggregate, and a deeper understanding on their part of their learning style and the ways they are affected by different types of correction and why.

### **Procedures**

Participants will receive a description of the procedures and purposes of the study, read, sign, and date a Participant consent form, complete a written survey regarding years of education completed and preferences in error correction, view 6 video clips showing different styles of error correction, and rate those 6 scenarios in terms of perceived helpfulness.

All materials (descriptions, consent forms and surveys, but not videos) will be in Spanish for the sake of data integrity. English translations of these materials are provided for administrative review. In the event that the Principle Investigator seeks translation assistance, the assistant or assistants will be identified and will not have access to any identifying information of the participants'.

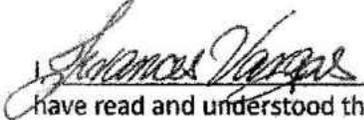
Survey procedures are expected to take place in May '09 during regular class time. Students who prefer not to participate will be given review exercises supervised by a teacher or teacher aide.

### **Use of Data**

The data collected will be analyzed and discussed by the Principal Investigator in her thesis. Conclusions will be shared with the advisory committee and with instructors in the adult ESL programs at both GROWS Family Literacy Council and Hope Community Center for the improvement of teacher understanding. No identifiers will be published or shared.

## Questions

Any questions or concerns regarding this research may be directed at any time to Hillary Smith at the above stated email address and phone number.

 acting as an authorized representative of GROWS Family Literacy Council, have read and understood the above description of research and give permission to Hillary Smith as Principal Investigator to conduct the procedures described herein. I understand that consent is voluntary and that participation or nonparticipation of GROWS Family Literacy Council and its students brings neither tangible benefit nor negative consequence to either.

# Hope CommUnity Center

Office For Farmworker Ministry

Hope CommUnity Center  
1016 N. Park Avenue  
Apopka, Florida 32712



Phone: 407.880.4673 (HOPE)  
Fax: 407.464.0854  
Website: www.offfm.org.

*Where Needs Are Met and Lives are Changed*

## Consent for Administration of Research Procedures

### **Title of Study:**

Correct me if I'm wrong: Investigating the relationship between educational background and preferences in error correction among adult English language learners

### **Introduction and Investigators**

This study is intended to complete the thesis requirement in the MATESOL (Master of Arts; Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) program in the College of Arts and Humanities at UCF. All procedures will be administered and data collected and analyzed by Hillary Smith ([hpsmithflorida@aol.com](mailto:hpsmithflorida@aol.com), 321-277-3901), MATESOL candidate under the advisement of her thesis committee: UCF faculty members Dr. Florin Mihai (Chair), Dr. Gergana Vitanova, and Dr. Kerry Purmensky.

The research question to be addressed is:

- 1.) Is there a relationship between educational background and error correction preferences among adult Hispanic English language learners?

### **Participants**

The study will include between 50 and 100 participants. Participants will be students in adult ESL programs in Apopka, FL.

There are no anticipated risks or discomforts to the participant during these procedures. There will be no compensation to the participants, but they will be informed that the procedure is voluntary, they may withdraw at any time without consequence, they may refuse to answer any or all questions without consequence, and that their participation or nonparticipation will affect neither their academic standing nor their status in the class.

Participants will be informed that the potential benefits of their participation in this research include a better understanding and heightened sensitivity to their needs on the part of their instructors who will receive the conclusions of the study in aggregate, and a deeper understanding on their part of their learning style and the ways they are affected by different types of correction and why.

### **Procedures**

Participants will receive a description of the procedures and purposes of the study, read, sign, and date a Participant consent form, complete a written survey regarding years of education completed and preferences in error correction, view 6 video clips showing different styles of error correction, and rank those 6 scenarios in terms of perceived helpfulness.

All materials (descriptions, consent forms and surveys, but not videos) will be in Spanish for the sake of data integrity. English translations of these materials are provided for administrative review. In

the event that the Principle Investigator seeks translation assistance, the assistant or assistants will be identified and will not have access to any identifying information of the participants'.

Survey procedures are expected to take place in May '09 during regular class time. Students who prefer not to participate will be given review exercises supervised by a teacher or teacher aide.

### **Use of Data**

The data collected will be analyzed and discussed by the Principal Investigator in her thesis. Conclusions will be shared with the advisory committee and with instructors in the adult ESL programs at both GROWS Family Literacy Council and Hope Community Center for the improvement of teacher understanding. No identifiers will be published or shared.

### **Questions**

Any questions or concerns regarding this research may be directed at any time to Hillary Smith at the above stated email address and telephone number.

I, Sister Mauron White, acting as an authorized representative of Hope Community Center, have read and understood the above description of research and give permission to Hillary Smith as Principal Investigator to conduct the procedures described herein. I understand that consent is voluntary and that participation or nonparticipation by Hope Community Center and its students brings neither tangible benefit nor negative consequence to either.

## LIST OF REFERENCES

- Ammar, A., & Spada, N. (2006). One size fits all?: Recasts, prompts, and L2 learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28, 543-574.
- Azar, B. (2007). Grammar-based teaching: A practitioner's perspective. *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, 11(2), 1-12.
- Bitchener, J. (2004). The relationship between the negotiation of meaning and language learning: A longitudinal study. *Language Awareness*, 13(2), 81-95.
- Brown, A. (2009). Students' and teachers' perceptions of effective foreign language teaching: A comparison of ideals. *The Modern Language Journal*, 93, 46-60.
- Cal, A., & Turnbull, M. (2005). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: A comparison between content based language teaching and communicative language teaching. Paper presented at AAAL 2008 Conference, Denver, CO.
- Cathcart, R., & Olsen, J. (1976). Teachers' and students' preferences for correction of classroom and conversation errors. In J. Fanselow & R. Crymes (Eds.), *On TESOL '76* (pp. 41-53). Washington, DC. TESOL.
- Chaudron, C. (1977). A descriptive model of discourse in the corrective treatment of learners' errors. *Language Learning*, 27, 29-46.
- Dabaghi, A. (2008). A comparison of the effects of implicit and explicit corrective feedback on learners' performance in tailor-made tests. *Journal of Applied Sciences*, 8(1), 1-13.
- Dekeyser, R. (1993). The effect of error correction on L2 grammar knowledge and oral proficiency. *The Modern Language Journal*, 77(i), 501-514.
- Ellis, MAJ D. (2005). *Integrating Language and Culture: A monograph*. Fort Leavenworth, KS: United States Army Command and General Staff College.
- Ellis, R. "Cognitive, Social, and Psychological Dimensions of Corrective Feedback" University of Auckland. George Mason University Campus, Fairfax, VA. 28 Oct. 2008.
- Ellis, R., Loewen, S. & Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(2), 339-368.

- Fanselow, J. (1977). The treatment of error in oral work. *Foreign Language Annals*, 10, 583-593.
- Han, Z. & Kim, J. (2008). Corrective recasts: What teachers might want to know. *Language Learning Journal*, 36(1), 35-44.
- Havranek, G. (2002). When is corrective feedback most likely to succeed? *International Journal of Educational Research*, 27, 3-4, 255-270.
- Hendrickson, J.M. (1978). Error correction in foreign language teaching: Recent theory, research, and practice. *Modern Language Journal*, 62, 387-398.
- Jensen, M. (2002). Corrective feedback to spoken errors in adult ESL classrooms. PhD thesis, Faculty of Education. Monash University, Australia.
- Katayama, A. (2007). Learners' perceptions toward oral error correction. In K. Bradford-Watts (Ed.) *JALT2006 Conference Proceedings*, Tokyo: JALT
- Kim, J. (2004). Issues of corrective feedback in second language acquisition. Teachers College, Columbia University Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics, 4(2), 1-24.
- Krashen, S. (1994). The pleasure hypothesis. Georgetown University Roundtable on Languages and Linguistics, 299-322.
- Krashen, S. (2003). *Explorations in language acquisition and use*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Leeser, M. (2004). Learner proficiency and focus on form during collaborative dialogue. *Language Teaching Research*, 8(1), 55-81.
- Lightbown, P. & Spada, N. (1999). Instruction, first language influence, and developmental readiness in second language acquisition. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83(i), 1-22.
- Loewen, S. (2003). Variation in the frequency and characteristics of incidental focus on form. *Language Teaching Research*, 7(3), 315-345.
- Loewen, S. (2004). Uptake in incidental focus on form in meaning-focused ESL lessons. *Language Learning*, 54(1), 153-188.
- Loewen, S. & Philip, J. (2006). Recasts in the adult English L2 classroom: Characteristics, explicitness, and effectiveness. *The Modern Language Journal*, 90(iv), 536-556.

- Long, M.H. (1983). Does second language instruction make a difference? A review of the research. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17, 359-382.
- Lyster, R. & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 20, 37-66.
- Lyster, R., Lightbown, P. & Spada, N. (1999). A response to Truscott's, 'what's wrong with oral grammar correction.' *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 55(4) 457-467.
- Mackey, A. (2002). Beyond production: Learners' perceptions about interactional processes. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 37, 379-394..
- McDonough, K. (2005). Identifying the impact of negative feedback and learners' responses on ESL question development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 27, 70-103.
- Mitchell, R., & Myles, F. (2004). *Second language learning theories*. Great Britain: Hodder Arnold.
- Morris, F. & Tarone, E. (2003). Impact of classroom dynamics on the effectiveness of recasts in second language acquisition. *Language Learning*, 53(2), 325-368.
- Nicholas, H., Lightbown, P. & Spada, P. (2001). Recasts as feedback to language learners. *Language Learning*, 51(4), 719-758.
- Rauber, A. & Gil, G. (2004). Feedback to grammar mistakes in EFL classes: A case study. *Rev. Brasileira de Linguística Aplicada*, 4, 1, 277-289.
- Rubenstein, I. (2006). Educational expectations: How they differ around the world: Implications for teaching ESL college students. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, 30, 433-441.
- Schmidt, R. (1990) The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11(2), 129-58.
- Schulz, R. (2001). Cultural differences in student and teacher perceptions concerning the role of grammar instruction and corrective feedback: USA: Colombia. *The Modern Language Journal*, 85(2), 244-258.
- Sheen, Y. (2004). Corrective feedback and learner uptake in communicative classrooms across instructional settings. *Language Teaching Research*, 8(3), 263-300.

- Sheen, Y. (2006). Exploring the relationship between characteristics of recasts and learner uptake. *Language Teaching Research*, 10(4), 361-392.
- Sheen, Y. (2008). Recasts, language anxiety, modified output, and L2 learning. *Language Learning*, 58(4), 835-874.
- Suzuki, M. (2004). Corrective feedback and learner uptake in adult ESL classrooms. Teachers College, *Columbia University Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics*, 4(2), 1-21.
- Tedick, D. (with de Gortari, B.) (1998). Research on error correction and implications for classroom teaching. *American Council on Immersion Education*, 1(3), 1-4.
- Truscott, J. (1999). What's wrong with oral grammar correction. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 55, 437-456
- Yamamoto, S. (2003). Can corrective feedback bring about substantial changes in the learner interlanguage system? Teachers College, *Columbia University Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics*, 3(2), 1-9.
- Yoshida, R. (2008). Teachers' choice and learners' preference of corrective feedback types. *Language Awareness*, 17, 1, 78-93.