Corrective Feedback: Novice ESL Teachers' Beliefs and Practices

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ABSTRACT

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This study was designed to investigate the relationship between novice ESL teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback and their instructional practices. Ninety-nine teachers-in-training, with little or no teaching experience, completed a questionnaire seeking information about their teaching beliefs in general and their beliefs about corrective feedback, in particular. To see whether beliefs affected classroom performance, ten of these teachers watched videotape scenarios illustrating different language error types and indicated whether and how they would correct them. Later, they were videotaped teaching an authentic ESL class.

The results indicate both consistency and inconsistency in the relationship. While the inconsistency was apparent in that the teachers corrected fewer errors in the classroom than they said they would, the consistency was noted in the same type of corrective techniques (regular and interrogative recasts) the teachers used with the videotaped scenarios as well as in the actual classroom. Complexities of the second language classroom and the challenge of integrating the novice teachers' technical and practical knowledge due to inexperience were suggested as possible reasons for the inconsistency. The consistency in the choice of corrective strategies is argued to be weak for it stems from the participants' limited knowledge about corrective feedback as well as the fact that they behave more as native-speaking interlocutors than as classroom teachers. Education and additional teaching experience are likely to bridge the gap of inconsistency between these teachers' stated beliefs and instructional practices.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

The motivation for this thesis stems from the increased interest in two equally fascinating research issues in the field of general education today: the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their instructional practices, and corrective feedback. In the last two decades, research on teaching and learning has moved from the traditional examination of how teachers' in-class behavior influenced student achievement to an investigation of teacher thought processes (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Fang, 1996, Shulman, 1986; Jackson, 1990). In this new line of research, teachers are perceived as active assessors, interpreters, and decision makers about the intricacies of a language classroom (Brown, 1994, Jackson, 1990). Teachers are now seen not as mere followers of prescribed principles and theories developed for them by pedagogical experts (Basturkmen, Loewen & Ellis, 2004), but as professionals capable of making "reasonable judgments and decisions within complex and uncertain community, school and classroom environments" and whose "thoughts, judgments and decisions guide their classroom behavior" (Fang, 1996, p. 49). Considerable research has been conducted in the field of general education on teachers' beliefs (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Kagan, 1992) as a means of understanding how prospective teachers learn to teach. This increased interest in teachers' beliefs has also spread into the field of ESL (e.g., Richards and Johnson, 1998; Tarone & Allwright, 2005), coinciding with a similar interest in another research area, namely, corrective feedback, as attested by the emergence of numerous studies on this issue (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster 1998; Doughty &Varela, 1998;

Havranek, 1999; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Long, 1996; Long, Inagaki & Ortega, 1998; Ammar, 2003; Trofimovich, Ammar & Gatbonton, in press).

Taking both these interesting developments into account, this thesis investigated the relationship between ESL teachers' theoretical beliefs about corrective feedback and their instructional practices by observing and recording a group of novice teachers teaching an authentic group of ESL learners. The term "novice" is here used to refer to teacher trainees with little, that is a year or less, or no teaching experience, enrolled in their first term of a teacher preparation program. The term is further explained in Chapter 3 of this thesis. The participants were first asked to complete a questionnaire investigating their beliefs about teaching in general and corrective feedback in particular. Then their videotaped lessons were observed in order to see what corrective feedback techniques they employed. It was hoped that data gathered on novice teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback and their classroom behavior would permit a deeper understanding of the thought processes that new teachers engage in prior to receiving any formal theoretical and practical training. Insights derived from such a study would likely in turn inform teacher preparation programs currently in use and lead to some adjustments in the thinking and practices involved.

Research in the field of general education has to date contributed the most to our present understanding of the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices (Nespor, 1987; Kagan, 1992; Kagan & Tippins, 1992). Studies on teacher beliefs in the field of second language teaching and learning have confirmed some of the insights derived from the research done on general education applied to language learning (Johnson, 1994; Borg, 1998; Horowitz, 1985, 1988). While the consensus is that teachers' beliefs

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influence teachers' in-class conduct, the focus of research has largely been on teachers' general pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices (e.g., teachers' beliefs on how learning occurs, how students learn, and beliefs on their efficacy). The beliefs investigated have been about these issues in the areas of reading, literacy, and math (Fang, 1996). In the field of second language teaching, the focus of early research on teacher's beliefs and practices had also been very much on the general issues about pedagogical beliefs (Johnson, 1992). Narrowing down the scope of research on teachers' beliefs and practices to a specific area would make it more possible to follow the development of prospective teachers as well as to see if there is a match between their beliefs and classroom behavior. Several scholars have recently reflected on this need for limited scope in their research designs. For example, Borg (1998) examined the beliefs of English as a second language (ESL) teachers on the teaching of grammar and their use of grammatical terms. Sato and Kleinssaser (1999) investigated the link between teachers' beliefs about communicative language teaching (CLT)[1] and the use of communicative and grammar activities in a second language classroom teaching Japanese. The relationship between three ESL teachers' stated beliefs about focus on form (i.e., pointing out learners' errors through a variety of pre-planned and reactive techniques) and their practices of them in intermediate level ESL communicative lessons have also lately been investigated (Basturkmen et al., 2004). However, to date, there has been no investigation into language teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback in communicative language teaching (CLT).

Although proponents and practitioners of CLT have reduced the focus on overt error correction in language lessons, the general consensus in the field is that corrective

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feedback is important to student achievement. The issue of which corrective feedback

techniques are most effective, however, still eludes the field. Proponents of implicit

corrective techniques (Long, 1996; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Doughty, 2001) claim

that recasts (i.e., teacher's correct reformulation of an erroneous utterance) are effective

in getting learners to notice and focus on the form and meaning of the error without

breaking the communicative flow or raising the affective filter. Recent research, however,

suggests that recasts often carry ambiguous connotations, especially in CLT classrooms,

where fluency takes a front seat to accuracy, and as a result, go unnoticed by learners

(Havranek, 1999; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998; Ammar, 2003). Lyster (1998)

advocates the use of other corrective feedback techniques, namely "negotiation of form"

(detailed in Chapter 2), which promotes noticing and leads to self-correction by the

learner. Regardless of which position one takes, the difficulty with these solutions is that

an average language teacher is seldom exposed to these different corrective practices or

taught how to effectively implement them in their classrooms. Such questions as "Should

learners' errors be corrected?", "When should learners' errors be corrected?", "Which

errors should be corrected?", "How should errors be corrected?" and "Who should do the

correcting?" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 38) have not until recently been explicitly dealt

with in teacher preparation programs. Yet, somehow, teachers deal with their learners'

errors in the classroom in one way or the other, whether or not the strategies they use

conform to what the research literature suggests they should do. The purpose for the

inquiry reported in this thesis is to learn what beginning teachers believe about corrective

feedback in general, if their in-class behavior reflects these beliefs, and whether or not

their practices reflect the underlying assumptions and practices so far unearthed in the literature.

While the field of second language learning and teaching has gained much from mainstream educational research on teacher beliefs and practices, it has still to "establish the instructional considerations that are unique to second language teachers and second language teaching" (Johnson, 1994, p. 440). ESL teachers' attitudes toward corrective feedback is one of such unique issues, whose examination may prove instrumental in understanding the distinctive perspective second language teachers have while planning and executing lessons. Furthermore, since the inclusion of corrective feedback in teacher training programs is on the rise, this type of exploration is needed to determine how novice teachers interpret new information they receive in class and translate it into their classroom practice (Johnson, 1994), which in turn answers the need to study the teacher as an "educational linguist"[2] (Brumfit, 1997). With these considerations in mind, this research was conducted to investigate novice ESL teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback in a second language classroom and to determine how their beliefs shape their instructional practices.

[1] CLT advocates language teaching through a variety of activities aimed to elicit interaction and communication in the target language. The focus is primarily on fluent production of a second/ foreign language and very little is done to take care of form.

[2] Brumfit (1997) has called for a more comprehensive study of teachers as "linguists", suggesting that the inquiry will need to encompass teachers' knowledge and beliefs about language across age levels, subject areas and cultures in relation to their in-class practices and learners' practices (p. 167).

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Teachers' beliefs and practices

Traditionally, observing teachers in their classroom was seen as the best way to

understand teachers. Their behavior was seen as key to their attitudes, thoughts, and

practices (Allwright, 1988). However, in the early 80s to the early 90s, a number of

scholars, first, in the field of general education (Jackson, 1990; Allwright, 1988; Kagan,

1992; Peacock, 2001) and, later, in the field of second language learning (Johnson, 1992,

1994; Borg, 2001), realized that there was much more to know about teachers than their

classroom behaviors could reveal. Jackson (1990), in his *Life in Classrooms*, for

example, suggested that there were mental processes that underlay teacher behavior,

which needed to be identified, described, and carefully considered when trying to

understand what teaching means. He suggested that conversations with teachers about

their experiences would contribute to a more complete understanding of the internal

world of an instructor (see also Allwright, 1988). Jackson's book underscored the need to

investigate teacher beliefs at a closer range, propelling the focus of research to

dramatically shift from the traditional examination of how teacher in-class behavior

influenced student achievement to an investigation of teacher thought processes (Fang,

1996). As a result, teachers began to be seen not as mere followers of prescribed

principles and theories developed for them by pedagogical experts (Basturkmen et al.,

2004), but as professionals capable of making "reasonable judgments and decisions

within a complex and uncertain community, school and classroom environments" and

whose "thoughts, judgments and decisions guide their classroom behavior" (Fang, 1996, p. 49). Johnson, (1994) elaborates on the same theme in suggesting that:

> teachers' beliefs influence both perception and judgment which, in turn, affects what teachers say and do in classrooms; [they also] play a critical role in how teachers learn to teach, that is, how they interpret new information about learning and teaching and how that information is translated into classroom practices; [and that] understanding teachers' beliefs is essential in improving teaching practices and professional teacher preparation programs (p. 439).

However, although the importance of researching teachers' beliefs has been extensively discussed in the field of second language teaching, only a small number of studies have actually empirically examined the link between teachers' assumptions and behavior. These include Borg (1998), Sato and Kleinsasser (1999), and Basturkmen et al., (2004).

The dearth of research on this issue may be due to a number of reasons. Foremost among them is that teachers' beliefs are elusive to definition (Kagan, 1992; Johnson, 1994; Borg, 2001; Peacock, 2001). As a reflection of how the very concept escapes precise definition, researchers have referred to it with many names such as "teachers' principles of practice, personal epistemologies, perspectives, practical knowledge or orientations" (Kagan, 1992, p. 66). Teachers' beliefs are also difficult to observe. For one thing they "cannot be inferred directly from teacher behavior since teachers can follow similar practices for very different reasons" (Kagan, 1992, p. 66). Other reasons could simply be that teachers themselves do not know what their beliefs are, or they may be unwilling to express them publicly.

For the reasons expressed above, a variety of indirect methods to elicit teachers' veritable beliefs have been developed. These include questionnaires (e.g., Horowitz,

1985; Schulz, 1996), interviews, reflective journals, live as well as recorded observations of teachers (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), verbal recalls (i.e. teachers comment on their instructional thoughts and decisions while watching a recording of their own lessons), and many others. However, even if there had been a valid way of measuring teachers' beliefs and interpreting them, establishing their relationship to teachers' classroom behavior remains a challenge (Fang, 1996; Kagan, 1992)

There have been a number of studies examining a match between teachers' beliefs and classroom behavior (e.g., Kagan & Tippins, 1992; Johnson, 1992), but most have produced varied results (Fang, 1996). Studies seeking a link between beliefs and behavior, whether in the field of general education or in the field of second language teaching, share the common assumption that teachers approach and teach their subject area in compliance with their theoretical beliefs about the subject matter. Johnson (1992), for instance, investigated the relationship between ESL teachers' theoretical beliefs about second language learning and teaching and their instructional practices during literacy instruction with non-native speakers of English. Three separate measures were implemented to gather information about teachers' theoretical beliefs. These included a descriptive account of what each teacher believed to constitute an ideal ESL instructional environment, the selection of what each teacher believed to be an appropriate instructional lesson plan, and an inventory of theoretical and pedagogical statements which reflected each teacher's theoretical beliefs about second language teaching and learning (Johnson, 1992, p. 87). She found that the teachers' choice of methodological approach as well as the type of instruction they implemented consistently reflected their theoretical beliefs. For example, in their descriptions of an ideal ESL classroom, the

teachers whose stated beliefs reflected the "function-based"[1] (Johnson, 1992, p. 88) methodological approach were likely to articulate the importance of authentic materials and active communication in the classroom. Similarly, in their instructional practices, the teachers who believed in the importance of grammar in language learning were observed to engage their students in the activities that reinforced the subject matter.

Furthermore, in studying how what ESL teachers' believed about grammar (Knowledge About Grammar or KAG) affected their instructional decisions, Borg (1998) found that the way teachers perceived their knowledge about all aspects of language (such as grammar, vocabulary, phonology, discourse) had a direct impact on how they viewed, approached and, consequently, taught in their classrooms (p. 28). For example, the teacher confident in his KAG was more at ease providing unrehearsed explanations of grammar points, composing rules on the spot, and encouraging impromptu discussions. Uncertainty in the KAG of another teacher, in turn, was evidenced by his direct responses to the students' questions, minimized discussion, and avoidance of questions which he did not know how to answer.

Fang (1996) suggests that researchers who found an inconsistent relationship between teachers' beliefs and behavior might have done so because of the nature of instruments they used. He believes that measuring the relationship through written questionnaires, where the participants "reflect on what should be done rather than what is actually done in class" (Fang, 1996, p. 53), without ever juxtaposing the findings with those derived from the teachers' actual classroom behavior may not capture fully the relationship between these two concepts. Lack of triangulation of the reported data (using multiple measures to collect and confirm findings) may also add to the problem. In an

attempt to overcome these limitations, Wilson, Konopak and Readence (1991) employed interviews, classroom observations, and written records to examine an English teacher's beliefs about reading while she planned and executed her lessons. They found that although the teacher's theoretical beliefs were consistent with her written lesson plans, they lacked that same consistency with her instructional practices. This discrepancy is to be expected, the researchers suggest, because of the numerous contextual factors teachers are forced to deal with in class. Fang (1996) cites the results of Duffy and Anderson's (1984) study of reading teachers, whose theoretical beliefs about reading articulated outside the classroom were not reflected in their in-class behavior. In fact, "their actual instructional practices were governed by the nature of instruction and classroom life" (Fang, 1996, p. 53).

Much of what is known today about the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices comes from research in general education. However, the focus of research in this area has been mostly on beliefs about general pedagogical issues such as beliefs about student learning, about teaching, and teacher efficacy. Research has also targeted teachers' beliefs about general issues in teaching reading, writing, and mathematics (Fang, 1996; Brumfit, 1997). Richardson, Anders, Tidwell and Lloyd (1991), for example, found that Grade 4, 5 and 6 teachers' beliefs related to their classroom practices when teaching reading in L1, with some advocating top-down (i.e., reader-based) or bottom-up (i.e., text-based), and others, whole-language philosophies. Mangano and Allen (1986), also, found that the teaching participants in their study adhered to their theoretical beliefs about writing not only when teaching but only when communicating with their students.

Similarly, the focus of research in ESL has also been largely on teachers' beliefs about general pedagogical issues. Johnson (1992) study, for example, focused on ESL teachers' general beliefs about second language learning and teaching. Although these studies have enriched our understanding of teachers' beliefs in general, they do not clearly give us a picture of how beliefs work. It would be far more informative to examine what teachers believe about a specific aspect of teaching and how their beliefs inform their handling of this specific aspect. This narrower focus would allow better exploration of the link between beliefs and behavior because there would be more tangible and more concrete point of comparison. Seeking for a link between beliefs and behavior in a more limited area would also allow more in depth exploration. Recently, a small number of studies attempted to narrow the scope of the investigation into teachers' beliefs and practices by identifying area-specific issues and practices.

In his attempt to learn about how teachers' perceptions of their Knowledge About Grammar (KAG) affected their instructional decisions, Borg (1998) found that the extent to which teachers teach grammar, their willingness to engage in spontaneous grammar work, the extent to which they promote class discussion about grammar, the way they react when their explanations are questioned, and the nature of the grammatical information they provided to students largely depended on the teachers' confidence level in their KAG. That is, teachers who were more confident in their KAG, exhibited more ease in dealing with grammar issues raised by learners in class than those who were less confident. Sato and Kleinsasser (1999), in their study of ten Japanese second language in-service teachers in Australia, tackled the little-researched issue of what second language teachers understand by CLT and how they implement it in the classroom. The results

suggest that the teachers' in-class practices were not rooted in the literature on CLT they had read or the education they had received about CLT, but in their evolving personal interpretations of and experiences with the approach. That is to say, "participants relied on themselves, and their descriptions and actions reflected their understandings not only about CLT but also about general L2 teaching as well" (Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999, p. 513). Finally, Basturkmen et al. (2004) looked at the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices regarding focus on form and revealed a weak link between the two. The inconsistency in the relationship lay in the teachers' stated beliefs regarding the appropriate time for the focus on form to occur as well as in the preferred corrective feedback technique. To date, however, no one has investigated language teachers' beliefs about a vital component of effective teaching practices, that of corrective feedback.

Corrective Feedback

Since the advent of the communicative language teaching (CLT), especially the strong version in which the focus is on meaning, considerable research has been conducted on the effect of this approach to second language learning. The findings overwhelmingly showed that students enrolled in purely communicative classes, performed much better on reading and listening activities than on writing and speaking tasks, but despite their advanced levels in reading and listening, they failed to achieve native-like accuracy in writing and speaking (Ammar, 2003; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; 1994). This low grammatical competence was attributed to the exclusively meaning-based instruction of the communicative approach, which lacks formal focus on the study of L2 norms. Furthermore, Schmidt (1990; 2001), in his "noticing hypothesis", noted that overt correction of learner errors is one of the ways they gain awareness of the correct

second language forms, which in turn, helps them monitor the accuracy of their language

production.

Thus, many scholars hold a position that focusing on the formal properties of the

second language through negative feedback may be helpful. Defined as "any reaction of

the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement

of the learner's utterance" (Chaudron, 1977, p. 31), negative feedback appears as an all-

encompassing phenomenon whose primary focus is on getting a learner to recognize an

error and consequently, correct it. Of the corrective techniques identified in the literature,

recasts, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, repetition, clarification requests, and explicit

feedback make up the negative feedback "family" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). These

corrective techniques were based on the actual methods Lyster and Ranta (1997)

observed teachers use to correct learners' erroneous utterances. Table 1 outlines these

corrective strategies in detail. While recasts and explicit correction provide the learner

with the target form, the "negotiation of form" strategies (i.e., metalinguistic feedback,

elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests) push learners to find the error on their

own and subsequently, correct it. In other words, "negotiation of form involves corrective

feedback that employs elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, or

teacher repetition of error. A reaction from students, referred to as uptake[2], usually

follows in the form of peer or self-repair, or student utterances still need of repair that

allow for additional feedback" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 58). In Table 1, each of the

corrective feedback techniques are defined and an example is given to illustrate its

meaning.

Of these corrective strategies, recasts are preferred more often by teachers when treating learners' errors than any other corrective feedback technique (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Dubbed "unobtrusive, contingent on the learners' intended meaning, implicit and salient" (Ammar, 2003, p. 2) by some researchers in the field, recasts have sparked much debate as to their effectiveness in communicative classrooms, where fluency and content are focused upon more than accuracy.

In fact, research conducted in highly communicative classrooms (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998) demonstrated that recasts are ambiguous in that they have the same form as non-corrective repetition and are used with the same frequency. As such, recasts may be perceived by learners as another way to say the same thing or as positive reinforcements. Furthermore, the fact that when an error is committed, it is often the teacher who provides the correct form in response to it instead of the learner, adds to the ambiguity of recasts.

Although it has been shown that recasts might lead to uptake and repair when noticed by learners (Philp, 2003; Ishida, 2004; Loewen, 2004), the fact that learners simply repeat the teacher's correction without questioning their own hypothesis about why a given form is erroneous or a way to remedy the inaccuracy, sheds a shadow of doubt on the efficacy of recasts as a corrective technique that leads to large amount of uptake.

Today, based on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) research, the "negotiation of form" strategies are, on the whole, considered effective because they are more successful than recasts alone in increasing "uptake" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998; Ammar, 2003).

Table 1

Corrective Feedback Techniques from Lyster and Ranta (1997)

Technique	Explanation	Example
Recasts	"Teacher's reformulation of all or part of a S's utterance minus the error" (p. 46).	In response to a student's incorrect statement of "I have many *book*", the teacher may recast as follows "Oh, you have many *books*."
Explicit Correction	"Explicit provision of the correct form" by the teacher (p. 46).	Student: "I have many book"; Teacher: "We don't say *book* [stressed]. You should say *books* [stressed].
Metalinguistic Feedback	"Contains comments, information or questions related to the well-formedness of the S's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form" (p. 47).	Student: "I have many book"; Teacher: "No, not *book* [stressed]. It's supposed to be in plural. How do we form plural in English?"
Elicitation	Teachers either: (1) elicit "completion of their own utterance by strategically pausing to allow Ss to "fill in the blank", (2) use "questions to elicit correct forms", or (3) ask Ss to "reformulate their utterance" (p. 48).	Student: "He like coffee"; Teacher: "He *what* [stressed] coffee?"
Repetition	"Teacher's repetition, in isolation, of the S's erroneous utterance" (p. 48).	Student: "I see a movie yesterday"; Teacher: "I *see* [stressed] a movie *yesterday* [stressed]?"
Clarification Requests	"Indicates to Ss either that their utterance has been misunderstood by the teacher or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or reformulation is required" (p. 47).	Student: "He like coffee"; Teacher: "Pardon me?"

Their effectiveness primarily lies in the fact that through cues provided by teachers,

learners are pushed to re-evaluate their utterance and remedy the error on their own, thus

cementing the target form in their interlanguage[3]. Research has, however, shown that

recasts may be more useful to higher than lower proficiency learners (Ammar, 2003;

Philp, 2003) since high proficiency learners, through extended exposure to L2 are more

likely to be attuned to and developmentally ready to notice the linguistic distance

between the intricacies of the target language and their personal interlanguage. In her

research on the extent to which ESL learners notice the changes made to their non target-

like utterances through native speakers' reformulations, Philp (2003) found that high-

level learners noticed more recasts than their low-level counterparts. This was attributed

to the advanced learners' familiarity with the input and developmental readiness to notice

and recall details of the recasts. In describing the effectiveness of recasts, it must be noted

that the fact that recasts do not lead to uptake does not necessarily mean they are not

effective. Uptake, as defined in the literature, is simply the learner's overt reaction to

corrective feedback. The fact that learners do not react to the recast does not mean that it

has no effect on them. As long as recasts are noticed (one way or the other), their

effectiveness may lie simply in providing learners with a model of how the erroneous

utterance should have sounded. This issue, however, has as yet not been subjected to

investigation.

 As mentioned earlier, some teachers prefer either to provide implicit correction in

the form of recasts or not to correct at all for fear of interrupting the communicative flow

or evoking negative reactions in the learners. These teachers are not alone in seeing

correction (especially the "negotiation of form" variety) as potentially upsetting to

fluidity in communication. Truscott (1999) claims that:

> Correction, by its nature, interrupts classroom activities, disturbing the ongoing
> communication process. It diverts the teacher's attention from the essential tasks
> involved in managing a communicative activity. It moves students' attention
> away from the task of communicating. It can discourage them from freely
> expressing themselves, or from using the kinds of forms that might lead to
> correction (p. 442).

Similarly, Krashen (1981) maintains that correction impedes transmission of

message by a learner and that such explicit correction strategies as the

"negotiation of form" are likely to endanger the communicative flow. Krashen

maintains that errors should not be pointed out when they occur to allow learners

to sustain focus on the message transmission. Should an utterance require a

corrective treatment, this, according to Krashen, should be done in a separate

lesson or as part of homework. In reaction to this, Lightbown (1998) claimed

that immediate correction increases the chances of the learners noticing the gap

between their incorrect and the target form, and that

> explicit correction can be given without stopping the flow of interaction. It may
> be sufficient to intervene for less than a minute before resuming the task or
> conversation at hand. But the explicit focus on form will have been provided at
> precisely the moment when the learner is able to see the relationship between
> what was meant and how it should be said. The goal is to ensure that the learner
> notices a difference between his or her own utterances and the target form.
> (p.193).

To address the issue of anxiety, Krashen (1994) warns against corrective feedback

and form-focused instruction because they raise the learners' "affective filter", which

may slow down or negatively affect language learning. Truscott (1999) echoes Krashen's

concerns, saying that "there is a serious danger that correction will produce

embarrassment, anger, inhibition, feelings of inferiority, and a negative attitude toward

the class (and possibly toward the language itself)" (p. 441). Research on students' views about corrective feedback, however, has shown that second language learners not only find corrective feedback useful in their language learning (Schulz, 1996), but actually, expect it in the L2 classroom . In fact, Schulz (1996) compared attitudes of 824 students and 92 teachers of various languages toward the role of explicit grammar study in foreign language learning in general and error correction in particular. The results indicated that while the students overwhelmingly (94%) welcomed negative feedback, 67 percent of the teachers believed that the students did not feel favorable toward error correction. What is more, the students wanted their spoken (90%) and written (97%) errors to be treated and felt cheated if the teacher did not correct their written work (65%). Schulz (1996) warns that "students whose instructional expectations are not met may consciously or subconsciously question the credibility of the teacher and/ or the instructional approach in cases where corrective feedback is not provided" (p. 349), which may further lead to a decrease in learners' motivation.

In light of the above arguments, teachers should correct and need not worry about breaking the communicative flow or instilling fear in their learners. The type of correction, however, should depend on the learners, and teachers must be sensitive in choosing the corrective strategies that work best for their students. Regardless of the chosen strategies, correction should not be excessive, long or convoluted, warn Lightbown and Spada (1999), for it may lead to arrest in learner motivation. A signal or brief explanation from a teacher is often enough to help learners realize and subsequently, remedy non target-like utterances of their interlanguage (Lightbown & Spada, 1990).

To summarize, an average language teacher is rarely overtly exposed to the theoretical and practical implications of corrective feedback. To identify what teachers do with corrective feedback, studies have been conducted to see what they correct, when, and with what techniques (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999; S. Borg, 1998). However, to date, the research in the two areas discussed herein has yielded very little on teachers' beliefs and corrective feedback as well as a limited number of studies relating beliefs and in-class practices (but see Basturkmen et al, 2004). Furthermore, there have been no studies on training teachers to use corrective feedback in the classroom.

Due to the importance of corrective feedback in acquisition of L2, particularly in communicative classrooms, it is important to learn what teachers believe about the matter. Hence, the purpose of this research is to investigate novice ESL teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback in a second language classroom and to ascertain how their beliefs shape their instructional practices.

The following questions guided the current investigation:

(1) What do novice ESL teachers believe about corrective feedback in a second language classroom?

(2) What are the sources of these beliefs?

(3) Are these teachers' pedagogical beliefs about corrective feedback consistent with their corrective feedback practices in their classrooms?

[1] Function-based protocols "mentioned the use of realistic materials and emphasized instructional procedures such as interactive communication and cooperative learning. The ability to communicate with others was cited as the goal for second-language learners, whereas language growth was viewed in terms of the ability to function in real social situations" (Johnson, 1992, p. 88).

[2] "Uptake" refers to a learner's reaction to the correction and has been defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997) as "a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance" (p. 49).

[3] Gass and Selinker (2001) define interlanguage as "the language produced by a nonnative speaker of a language (i.e., a learner's output)" (p. 455).

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

Setting

The purpose of this study was to discover what teachers believe about corrective

feedback and whether there is, in fact, a match between their beliefs and in-class

practices. Since "the ultimate goal of qualitative research is to discover phenomena [...]

not previously described, [...] to understand those phenomena from the perspective of

participants in the activity" (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989, p. 120) and to do so in the

participants' natural environment, such type of research (i.e., qualitative) was seen as

best-suited for this type of inquiry.

This research included two studies. The first study (Study 1) investigated the

beliefs that 99 pre-service ESL teachers had about teaching and learning a language in

general and corrective feedback in particular. Ten teachers, whose beliefs were

representative of the first group (N=99), took part in the second study (Study 2). The ten

teachers were drawn from the 99 surveyed in Study 1 and displayed similar patterns of

beliefs as the 99. A t-test conducted on the responses of these two sets of teachers

indicated that the ten novice ESL teachers and the remaining 89 were not significant on *t*-

tests. The goal of this study was to test the behavioral manifestations of the stated beliefs

in an authentic adult ESL classroom to see if there is a match between the teachers'

beliefs and in-class actions. There were three steps to the investigation: first, to elicit

teachers' beliefs by way of questionnaires, then, to observe them teach an authentic group

of adult ESL learners and finally, to analyze their teaching for signs of the belief-action

consistency[1]. The use of a variety of means to collect data (i.e., data triangulation) was seen as a way to facilitate its validation[2] and present a holistic view of the matter at hand.

Participants

Ninety-nine novice teachers (84 females and 15 males) with little or no teaching experience participated in Study 1. The teachers were recruited from three Montreal universities. They were enrolled in their first (n=79) or second (n=20) year of the four-year Bachelor of Education teacher-training programs offered by the participating institutions.

The term "novice" was selected in this thesis instead of others used in the literature (such as "pre-service", "prospective teachers", "teacher trainees", etc.) to refer to the participating teachers. The decision to use this term finds support in the Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986) five-stage model of skill acquisition from novice to expert, summarized in Tsui (2003). In this model, "novices" are described as those whose actions hold limited consideration for the context and are "guided by rules and a set of objective facts and features related to the skill" (Tsui, 2003, p. 10). Furthermore, novices are "not taught the circumstances under which the rules should be violated, and they often judge their own performance by how well they follow the rules" (Tsui, 2003, p. 11). Since this description closely matched the level of expertise of the participants in the present study, the term "novice" was favoured to others commonly employed in the literature.

Each participant was asked to complete two questionnaires: a Background Questionnaire and Part 1 of the Beliefs Questionnaire (see Appendix A and Appendix B). The questionnaires were administered in the first two weeks of the semester to ensure that the expressed opinions were not influenced by the materials covered in the participants'

classes. The two questionnaires were administered in one sitting, with the Background Questionnaire preceding the Beliefs one.

Ten first-year teacher trainees (7 females and 3 males) from the ninety-nine participants described above participated in Study 2. All ten were enrolled in their first pedagogy class of the four-year Bachelor of Education program. The participants (henceforth Novice Teacher Focus Group participants (NT Focus Group)) were volunteers selected on the basis of the following criteria: they (1) consented to take part in the investigation, (2) had little (i.e., one year or less) or no teaching experience upon entering the course, and (3) had not been overtly exposed to information on corrective feedback (determined through their answers to the Background Questionnaire).

Each participant taught a one-hour lesson to a group of ESL learners and completed a set of two questionnaires (Parts 2 and 3 of the Beliefs' Questionnaire). The teaching took place outside of course hours, and the participants were remunerated for their efforts. The research team sought the participants' written consent to observe and record their lessons. The teaching portion of the study was intentionally scheduled for the beginning (i.e., the third week) of the pedagogy course to ensure that the results were not influenced by the course contents or students' experiences in the course.

Two classes of ESL learners (N=24) participated as the students the teachers taught. They were selected on the basis of the following criteria: the students (1) were willing to participate in the study, and (2) were assessed in a short phone or oral interview to be at an intermediate level of proficiency. This meant that they understood a fair amount of vocabulary in English but were able to use only a limited range of common everyday vocabulary and idiomatic expressions in their speech. The classes met

twice a week for two hours each time over a period of three weeks (i.e., each group received 12 hours of classes). The participants volunteered to take part in the experiment in exchange for 12 hours of ESL instruction. Effort was taken to ensure that the class composition included learners who spoke different languages and represented different countries. The ESL learners were told that they were taking part in a teacher training experiment and that some of their instructors would be teachers who had not had much teaching experience. The teachers however, taught under the guidance of the researcher and her supervisor, who assisted them in planning their lessons. To ensure that the learners benefited from the experience, they were also taught by the researcher and supervisor (both very experienced teachers), who took turns in teaching them for one hour each class. In other words, in a two-hour lesson, one hour was generally taught by a novice ESL teacher. The remaining hour was taught either by the researcher or her supervisor.

Materials

The data for the study were gathered by means of: (1) a background questionnaire, (2) a beliefs' questionnaire – Parts 1, 2, and 3, and (3) an analysis of the participants' video recorded one-hour lessons.

Background Questionnaire

The Background Questionnaire was designed to elicit the following information: demographic (e.g., age, gender), educational background, training, and any teaching experiences the participants might have had. It was also designed to gather information about the courses the participating teachers were registered in at the time of the study.

Since the focus of the experiment was to discover novice teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback, it was imperative that they not have much exposure to the literature on corrective feedback. Thus, a list of courses (eight, in total), which were assumed to deal with corrective feedback either as a major or as a peripheral concern, was also included in the questionnaire. From this list, the participants were asked to specify the course(s) they had already completed. Only those teachers who had not taken any of the eight courses listed became part of the NT Focus Group, who taught an authentic class of students (i.e., Study 2). That is, none of the ten teachers who were involved in Study 2 had taken any of these eight courses prior to participation in the investigation.

Beliefs Questionnaire

Created to uncover teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback, the Beliefs Questionnaire was divided into three parts. The first presented seven categories of statements (43, in total), which expressed various opinions on language learning and teaching. One category dealt with corrective feedback, the others with teaching grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation work, classroom techniques, role of native language (L1) and the role of teachers in language learning. Since corrective feedback was the focus of this study, the majority of statements (19, in total) dealt with this issue. The other categories were presented for two reasons: to get a general perspective on teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning a language, and to distract the participants' attention away from the theme of the investigation. For each statement, the participants were asked to indicate how strongly they agreed with it, using a scale of one to nine, where 1 indicated strong disagreement and 9, strong agreement. Here is an example of a statement used in Part 1 of the Beliefs Questionnaire.

	STRONGLY	
	DISAGREE	*AGREE*

Second language (L2)/ foreign language (FL) learners fear being corrected by their language teachers.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Since "teachers' theoretical beliefs are situational and are transferred into instructional practices only in relation to the complexities of the classroom" (Fang, 1996, p. 55), Parts 2 and 3 of the beliefs questionnaire were designed to recreate the classroom environment by placing the ten (10) teaching participants in the shoes of a language teacher whose task it is to deal with students' spoken errors. These questionnaires, administered one to two weeks after the actual teaching, explored further the participants' beliefs about corrective feedback. While Part 2 of the Beliefs Questionnaire surveyed the teachers' beliefs in the need for correction, Part 3 investigated the corrective techniques they deemed useful.

In Part 2, the NT Focus Group participants were presented with twelve video-recorded scenarios showing the same ESL participants in a lesson taught by either the researcher or supervisor. Each scenario featured the students committing errors. After watching each scenario, the participants were asked to indicate whether or not they would correct the errors and to explain their choices. This was done in order to learn the extent to which corrective feedback was important and was used by the participants when teaching. Care was taken to ensure that the selected erroneous statements represented the most common errors produced by learners of English, regardless of their linguistic backgrounds. These included six types of grammatical errors: plural, third person singular agreement, simple past tense, question formation, prepositions, and articles. Accompanying transcripts of the excerpted scenarios were given to the NT Focus Group

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participants so that they could follow on paper the errors depicted in the scenarios as they were watching each of them.

In Part 3 of the Beliefs Questionnaire, the participants were asked first, to watch a video clip of an error (the same twelve errors were employed here as in Part 2) and then, listen to an audio recording of six possible ways a teacher could correct it. Both the context of a given error and corrective strategies for it were written down to facilitate the task for the participants. They were then asked, on a scale from one to nine, where 1 implied complete ineffectiveness ("not at all useful") and 9, total effectiveness ("very useful"), to indicate the usefulness of each corrective strategy. Among the six possible correction strategies based on the Lyster and Ranta (1997) study and described in detail in Chapter 2, four were recasts. In addition to regular recasts (the error-free reformulation of the utterance), Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified three other types: isolated, integrated and interrogative. While isolated recasts focus only on the erroneous word (e.g. "Many books."), the integrated variety corrects the statement and adds a qualitative comment to it (e.g. "He likes coffee. What else does he like?"). Interrogative recasts are somewhat leading in the sense that they implicitly attract student's attention to the error (e.g. Student: "I see a movie yesterday"; Teacher: "What did you say you saw yesterday?"). It is important to note that only five instead of six corrective strategies were presented for errors in questions. Interrogative recasts were not used as a corrective option for the errors in question formation because they were seen as repetitive and redundant. Table 2 provides an example of six corrective techniques suggested to treat an error in the usage of plurals – "I have one children".

To address the issue of construct validity[3], the questionnaire did not, at any time, display or allude to the researcher or literature-determined statements; instead clear language was used and examples were given for items which may have been judged ambiguous. All the corrective feedback jargon had been removed from the questionnaire prior to its administration.

Table 2
Suggested Six Corrective Feedback Strategies for "I have one children".

Corrective Strategy	Not at all useful								Very useful
"One child." *(Isolated recast)*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"No, what is the singular form of "children"?" *(Negotiation of form)*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"Oh, you have only one child." *(Regular recast)*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"You have one child. Is it a boy or a girl?" *(Integrated recast)*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"We don't say *one children* [stressed]. You should say: *one child* [stressed]." *(Explicit correction)*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"How many children did you say you have?" *(Interrogative recast)*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

As mentioned earlier, the Beliefs Questionnaire was designed to focus on such aspects of corrective feedback as importance of error correction, learner anxiety and motivation, extent of error correction, disruption of communication, and delay of feedback. Both the choices of what to focus on as well as which items to use in testing the novice teachers' beliefs were made on the basis of a careful reading of what had been highlighted as important in the literature.

[1] Belief-action consistency refers to teachers showcasing those in-class practices that infer their beliefs on a given matter.

[2] Internal validity in heuristic research is concerned with "the ability to demonstrate unambiguously that phenomena have been observed and that the interpretation of these data is not dependent on the subjective judgment of an individual researcher" (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989, p. 104).

[3] Construct validity "is used when the researcher needs to examine whether the data collection procedure is a good representation of and is consistent with current theories underlying the variable being measured" (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989, pp. 188-189). Fang (1996) warns against "researcher-determined statements or categories, which [if different from] those of the participants involved in the [study], may put the subjects in a position of choosing [statements representing ideas/ concepts that] do not in fact exist in their beliefs' systems" (p. 55).

Chapter 4

RESULTS

Three questions were investigated in this study.

(1) What do novice ESL teachers believe about corrective feedback in the classroom?

(2) What are the sources of these teachers' beliefs?

(3) Are these teachers' pedagogical practices consistent with their beliefs about corrective feedback?

Two studies were conducted to answer these questions. Research questions one and two were addressed in Study 1, which examined novice teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback and their sources. The relationship between teachers' beliefs and their instructional practices (i.e., research question three) was examined in Study 2. This chapter presents the results of the two studies by individually addressing each research question.

Study 1: Research Question 1

To answer the first research question - What do pre-service ESL teachers believe about corrective feedback in the classroom? - a factor analysis with an Alpha Factoring extraction method and Varimax with Kaiser Normalization rotation was performed on the responses of the 99 novice teachers in Part 1 of the Beliefs Questionnaire. This analysis was conducted to examine what possible common themes would emerge in the participants' beliefs about corrective feedback. The factor analysis revealed that out of the 19 statements specifically designed to focus on corrective feedback included in the

questionnaire, 16 clustered onto six factors. As indicated in Table 3, five statements

loaded onto the first factor, three statements each on factors two and three, two

statements on factor four, one statement on factor five, and finally, two statements on

factor six.

Table 3
Factor Analysis Results

| Statements | Varimax rotation | | | | | |
	1	2	3	4	5	6
No. 09 Correction instrumental to understanding how L2 works	.807					
No. 08 Persistent errors must be systematically corrected	.638					
No. 36 Correction essential in promoting L2 learning	.623					
No. 33 Correction promotes noticing match b/w error and correct forms	.534					
No. 40 Correction leads to self-correction	.475					
No. 26 Correct at END of lesson		.692				
No. 21 Correct in separate lesson or as homework		.559				
No. 31 Correct immediately		-.432				
No. 28 Correction raises anxiety			.790			
No. 12 Signaling error keeps Ss' anxiety level low			.430			
No. 19 Ss like to be corrected			-.415			
No. 05 Ts should correct ALL errors				.745		
No. 42 Correct only most important errors				-.486		
No. 24 Correction disrupts the flow of Ss' speech					.602	
No. 03 Ss fear being corrected						-.499
No. 17 No correction decreases motivation						.484

Five statements loaded onto the first factor. The first statement was concerned

with the idea that error correction is essential in promoting L2/ FL learning (statement

36). The second statement dealt with teacher correction as being instrumental in the

learners' understanding of how their L2/ FL works (statement 9). The third suggested that

teacher signaling the presence of an error and vocally stressing the correct form allows

learners to notice the difference between what they know and what they don't know in

the target language (statement 33). The fourth was concerned with teachers' systematic

correction of only persistent errors in learner language production (statement 8). Finally,

the fifth statement expressed the belief that pointing out learner errors will push them to

self-correct (statement 40). A closer investigation of these statements revealed a

common theme, namely, that the participants saw error correction as important to

promote language learning (henceforth, "learning").

Three statements loaded onto the second factor. While the first statement

suggested that errors are best treated in a separate lesson or as part of homework

(statement 21), the second statement advocated for error treatment at the end of a lesson

(statement 26), rejecting the notion of immediate correction put forth by the third

statement (statement 31). Based on the nature of the items that loaded on this factor, a

common theme emerged across the statements, namely, that timing played a role in error

correction (henceforth, "timing").

Similarly to the second factor, three statements loaded onto the third factor. The

first statement was concerned with the idea that pointing out learner errors raises their

anxiety level (statement 28). The second statement suggested that having teacher provide

the correct form without signaling the presence of an error keeps learner anxiety level

low (statement 12). And finally, the third statement alleged that most learners like being

corrected in class (statement 19). Based on the nature of the items that loaded on this

factor, a common trait that emerged across the statements was the affective impact of

error correction. Henceforth, this factor was labeled "affective".

Two statements loaded onto the fourth factor. While the first statement affirmed

that teachers should correct all errors that learners make in class to ensure spoken

accuracy (statement 5), the second statement suggested that it is not necessary to correct all errors if the important ones are dealt with at the right time (statement 42). Although there seems to be a contradiction between these two statements, a closer investigation of their intent suggested a common element. Both address the extent to which teachers should correct. In other words, they both deal with the amount of correction learners should receive in class. This factor was labeled "extent of correction".

Only one statement (statement 24) loaded onto the fifth factor bringing to the fore the issue concerning the disruption of the communicative flow during correction. In particular, the statement alluded to the fact that error correction during communicative activities is disruptive to the flow of learner speech. "Flow" was given as a label to this factor.

Finally, two statements loaded onto the sixth factor. The first statement claimed that learners fear being corrected by their teachers (statement 3). The second statement expressed concern that if not corrected, learners' motivation to continue the study of the language will decrease (statement 17). Due to the diverse nature of these items, the labeling of this factor proved problematic. In the end it was decided that the participants saw fear of correction and learner motivation as other affective factors in error correction (henceforth, "other affects"). Table 4 presents the different factors again, appropriately labeled and the specific items that loaded onto each of them.

Table 4
Belief Factors

Factor 1 LEARNING	Factor 2 TIMING	Factor 3 AFFECTIVE	Factor 4 EXTENT	Factor 5 FLOW	Factor 6 OTHER AFFECTS
Correction instrumental to understanding how L2 works *(No. 09)*	Correct at END of lesson *(No. 26)*	Correction raises anxiety *(No. 28)*	Ts should correct ALL errors *(No. 05)*	Correction disrupts the flow of Ss' speech *(No. 24)*	Ss fear being corrected *(No. 03)*
Persistent errors must be systematically corrected *(No. 08)*	Correct in separate lesson or as homework *(No. 21)*	Signaling error keeps Ss' anxiety level low *(No. 12)*	Correct only most important errors *(No. 42)*		No correction decreases motivation *(No. 17)*
Correction essential in promoting L2 learning *(No. 36)*	Correct immediately *(No. 31)*	Ss like to be corrected *(No. 19)*			
Correction promotes noticing match b/w error and correct forms *(No. 33)*					
Correction leads to self-correction *(No. 40)*					

To summarize, from the possible 19 statements dealing with error correction presented to the participants in Part 1 of the Beliefs Questionnaire, 16 emerged most salient in the novice teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback. These sixteen statements loaded onto six factors identified as Language Learning, Timing, Affective, Extent, Flow and Other Affects (see Table 3 for details). The mean regression factor score of all the

items that loaded onto each of five Beliefs Factors (Language Learning, Timing, Affective, Extent, and Other Affects) was calculated and these scores were used in the analyses explained below. One Beliefs Factor (Factor 5, "flow") was not included in this and any subsequent analyses because only one item loaded onto it. It was felt that this factor was unlike the others, which had at least two factors that loaded onto each of them.

This pattern of results suggested that the novice teachers believed that corrective feedback promotes learning, carries affective consequences, disrupts communicative flow, and affects motivation or interest in learning a second language. Timing and extent of correction were also seen as important aspects of corrective feedback.

Study 1: Research Question 2
To answer the second question of this research - What are the sources of the pre-service teachers' beliefs? - background information on the participants' age, gender, university attended, teacher training, own language learning and teaching experience gathered from the Background Questionnaire (henceforth, "biodata") were each investigated for their possible contribution to the novice teachers' beliefs system. This was done with the help of analyses of variance (ANOVAs) with repeated measures design.

In each ANOVA, the within-subjects variables were the participants' regression factor scores on each of five factors (Learning, Timing, Affect, Extent, Other Affects) that emerged from the factor analysis. These five shall, henceforth, be referred to as the Beliefs Factors. The between-subjects factors consisted of two (or three) levels of participants distinguished from each other on the basis of one piece of biodata information derived from the Background Questionnaire. These included two (or three)

groups of participants distinguished from each other in terms of age, gender, language

acquisition courses taken, university attended, teaching experience, amount of correction

received on errors in writing, in speaking, and in listening during their own language

learning experiences. Participants were also divided into groups based on their exposure

to such experiences as being exposed to instruction on grammar and pronunciation, being

encouraged to engage in oral interaction, and being led to participate in reading and

listening activities. Other details about how the participants were grouped are explained

in connection with each between-subjects variable employed in the ANOVAs.

University attended

To determine if the participants' responses on any of the five belief factors

identified in the factor analysis varied as a function of the university the participants were

attending at the time of the study, a two-way repeated-measures ANOVA was conducted

with university (University 1, n=48; University 2, n=31; University 3, n=20) as the

between-subjects variable and the five Belief Factors (Learning, Timing, Affect, Extent,

and Other Affects) as the within-subject variable. This analysis yielded no significant

main effect of University, no significant main effect of Beliefs Factor ($F(2, 96) = 4.888$,

n.s.) and no significant University x Beliefs Factor interaction $F(5, 480) = .286$, n.s).

These findings suggest that the differences in teacher-training programs in the three

universities from which the participants were drawn had no effect on the participants'

beliefs about corrective feedback. In subsequent analyses, the participants from all three

universities were collapsed into one group.

Age

To determine if the participants' age affected their responses to the five Beliefs

Factors identified in the factor analysis, a two-way repeated-measures ANOVA was

conducted, with age (younger, n=69; older, n=30) as the between-subjects variable and

the five Beliefs Factors (Learning, Timing, Affect, Extent, and Other Affects) as the

within-subject variable. The participants were divided into two groups using the median

age value for the entire sample (median = 26), with participants whose age was greater

than the median grouped together as older participants ("older") and those whose age was

less than the median grouped together as younger participants ("younger"). This analysis

yielded no significant main effect of Age or Beliefs Factors (F (1, 97) = .146, n.s), and no

significant Age x Beliefs Factor interaction (F (5, 485) = .906, n.s). These findings

suggest that the younger participants did not differ from older participants in their

reported beliefs about corrective feedback.

Gender

To determine if the participants' gender affected their scores on any of the five

Belief Factors identified in the factor analysis, a two-way ANOVA was conducted with

Gender (male, n=15; female, n=84) as the between-subject variable and the five belief

factors (Learning, Timing, Affect, Extent, and Other Affects) as the within-subject

variable. This analysis yielded a significant main effect of Gender, $F(1, 97) = 4.00, p <$

.05, a significant Gender x Beliefs Factor interaction, $F(5, 485) = 2.30, p < .05$, but no

significant main effect of Beliefs Factors . A further exploration of the significant Gender

x Beliefs Factor interaction revealed a statistically significant difference between male

and female participants' scores for Factor 2 (timing) only, $p < .001$. These findings

suggest that the male participants, when compared to the female participants, were more

likely to provide corrective feedback within the same lesson (as opposed to in separate lessons).

Own teaching experience

To examine the possible effects of the participants' prior teaching experience on their beliefs about corrective feedback, the participants who reported some teaching experience (n=30) were asked to estimate (using a 0-100% scale) the amount of correction they provided to their learners on their writing errors and speaking errors, as well as the amount of self-correction they encouraged their learners to produce when teaching a foreign/second language.

Three -way repeated-measures ANOVAs were conducted. In each ANOVA, the reported Amount of Error Correction (either a lot or small amount) given to students' errors in writing and in speaking, or the reported Amount of Self-correction they encouraged their students to have were used as the between-subject variable. The five Beliefs Factors (Learning, Timing, Affect, Extent, and Other Affects) were used as the within-subject variables. For each test, the participants were divided into two groups using the median value for the entire sample (amount of correction given on writing median = 60), on speaking (median = 50), and self-correction (median = 30)). Participants whose scores were equal to or greater than the median were placed together as one group of subjects and those whose scores were less than the median were grouped into another.

The result of the ANOVAs yielded no significant main effects of the Beliefs Factors (F (2, 96) = .316, n.s.). Nor was there any significant effects of the Amounts of Error Correction given, be it in teaching, in writing, or in speaking (F (2, 96) = .145,

n.s.). There was no significant main effect of the Amount of self-correction (F (2, 96) = .166, n.s.) encouraged by the teachers. These findings suggest that the participants' experience in correcting their learners' errors in writing and speaking, as well as the amount of self-correction they encouraged in their students had no relationships with their beliefs about corrective feedback.

Teacher training

Although the participants in this study were novice teachers, some of them were in the first year while others were in their second year of a four-year B.Ed. program. To find out the effects of training they have received to date, the participants were asked to indicate the amount of exposure they had had, if at all, to theoretical principles underlying the use of corrective feedback in L2 interaction such as they would, for example, receive from courses such as language acquisition, error correction, and/or methodology. To determine their exposure to such theoretical principles, the participants were given a list of eight courses ranging from introductory phonology to language acquisition (see the Background Questionnaire for a complete list of the courses) that could have exposed them to the theory and the practice of corrective feedback. From this list, the participants were asked to indicate the courses they had completed or were in the process of completing.

An analysis of the completed background questionnaires revealed that the vast majority of the participants either did not take any of the courses listed or were still in the process of completing one or two of these. Interestingly, language acquisition was the only course reported as completed by a large number of the surveyed participants (n=20).

Based on this, a decision was taken to determine whether the language acquisition course completed by the participants influenced their beliefs about corrective feedback.

A two-way ANOVA, with repeated-measures design was conducted with completion of a language acquisition course (henceforth Language Acquisition) as the between-subjects variable. The five Beliefs Factors (Learning, Timing, Affect, Extent, and Other Affects) were again the within-subjects variable. For the between-subjects variable, participants were divided into two groups, with one group made up of those who had taken the course (n=20), and another made up of those who had not (n=79).

The ANOVA yielded no significant main effect of Language Acquisition or Beliefs Factors, but there was a significant Language Acquisition × Beliefs Factor interaction, $F(5, 485) = 2.375$, $p < .052$. Post-hoc tests comparing the two groups of participants' scores for each Factor revealed a statistically significant difference between the two groups on Factor 2 (Timing) only, $p < .014$. These findings suggest that those who had not taken a language acquisition course felt more strongly than those who had about the timing of when the corrective feedback should be delivered. More specifically, those who had not taken a language acquisition course prior to the study appeared to believe that error correction should not be done at the moment when an error was committed. Rather, they believed, error correction should be done at the end of a lesson or in a separate lesson.

Own learning experience
To find out the possible effects of the participants' own learning experiences on their beliefs about corrective feedback, the participants' were asked to estimate the amount of correction they received on their errors (speaking, listening, or reading) when

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they were learning their foreign or second language. Their scores were subjected to a series of two-way ANOVAs, with repeated-measures design, in which Corrections received on their Writing, Corrections received on their Listening, and on their Speaking, served as between-subjects variables and the five Beliefs Factors (Learning, Timing, Affect, Extent of Correction, and Other Affects) as the within-subjects variable. For each ANOVA, the participants were divided into two groups using the median score on correction received on writing errors for the entire sample (median = 70), on speaking errors (median = 40), and on listening errors (median = 20). Participants whose score on each of these variables was greater than the median were grouped together as the participants who received more corrections on this variable and those whose score was less than the median grouped together as the participants who received less correction.

The analysis showed no significant effects of correction on errors in Writing and Listening. However, the amount of correction received on speaking errors had a significant interaction with Beliefs Factor 4 (extent of correction), $p < .05$. This finding suggests that those who received more correction in speaking errors believed more strongly that all errors should be corrected than those who received less correction in speaking, $p < 05$.

Possible effects of other learning experiences in the classroom were also investigated. These included exposure to instruction on grammar and pronunciation, amount of oral interaction engaged in, and amount of participation in reading and listening activities. To determine if any of these affected the responses on any of the five Beliefs Factors identified in the factor analysis, a series of two-way ANOVAs, with repeated-measures design, was conducted with two levels of Exposure (e.g., exposure to

grammar, pronunciation work, oral interaction, reading activities and listening tasks) as

the between-factors and the five Belief Factors (Learning, Timing, Affect, Extent, and

Other Affects) as the within-subject variable. For each test, the participants were again

divided into two groups using the median as the dividing point (median for exposure to

grammar = 50%, to pronunciation = 20%, to oral interaction = 42.5%, to reading

activities = 30%, and to listening tasks = 65%). Participants whose score was equal to or

greater than the median were grouped together as the participants who were more

exposed to a given type of instruction and those whose score was less than the median

grouped together as participants who were less exposed to the type of instruction

received. Although these analyses yielded no significant main effects of Exposure to

pronunciation work, oral interaction, reading, grammar or listening instructions and no

significant main effects of Beliefs Factor, there was a significant Grammar x Beliefs

Factor interaction, $F(5,480) = .906$, $p = .011$. Further exploration of this significant

interaction suggests that the amount of exposure to instruction on grammar had a

significant relationship with only one of the Beliefs Factors, namely, the extent of

correction, $p = .011$. In other words, it appears that those who were exposed to more

grammar instruction, as opposed to those who were exposed to it less, believed more

strongly that all errors or persistent errors, at least, should be corrected.

Study 1: Summary

To summarize the results for Study 1: 16 out of the 19 statements on teachers'

beliefs about corrective feedback clustered onto six factors identified as Language

Learning, Timing, Affective, Extent, Flow, and Other Affects. The participants' beliefs

on the timing and extent of correction were influenced by several variables. These

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variables were: gender, completion of a Language Acquisition course, the amount of corrective feedback received in speaking when learning a foreign/second language, as well as exposure to instructions on grammar during their own learning.

Study 2: Research Question 3

To answer the third research question - Are the pre-service ESL teachers' pedagogical practices consistent with their beliefs about corrective feedback? - Study 2 looked at the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their instructional practices. Ten of the 99 novice teacher participants (henceforth the Novice teachers (NTs)) whose beliefs about error correction were surveyed above were asked to teach a one-hour lesson to a group of ESL learners as well as to complete Parts 2 and 3 of the Beliefs Questionnaire (see Chapter 3 for a detailed description of the Beliefs Questionnaire). The NTs' responses on Parts 2 and 3 of the Beliefs Questionnaire are discussed first.

In Part 2 of the Beliefs Questionnaire, NTs were presented with video clips of 6 types of student errors (plural, third person singular agreement, simple past tense, question formation, prepositions, and articles; 2 errors per type, 12 errors in total) extracted from the lessons taught by the researcher and her supervisor to another group of adult ESL learners. Each error was first played to the NTs, and then they were asked to indicate whether or not they would correct the error and explain their choices. The number of errors they would correct per error type was noted for each NT. The percentage of errors they would correct per error type were then calculated by taking the number of errors the NTs said they would correct divided by the total number of errors committed per error type. The overall percentage of errors corrected was also calculated by taking the number of errors corrected across error types divided by the total number of

errors committed over all. Table 5 presents the ten NTs in the focus group, the types of

errors presented to them, the number and percentage of errors they said they would

correct per error type. The table shows that all ten NTs as a whole indicated they would

correct 54% of errors all together. The error types they said they would correct most

were plural errors and 3rd person singular verb errors (16% and 15%, respectively)

followed by errors in auxiliary verbs and prepositions (11% and 13%, respectively). The

errors they would least correct were errors in questions and errors related to simple past

verbs.

Table 5

Number of Errors the NTs Claimed They Would Correct per Error Type

Teacher	Error Types						Would correct total/ 12	
	Plurals	Auxiliary	3rd. pr. sg.	Prepositions	Questions	Past Simple		
1	2	2	2	1	0	0	7	58
2	2	0	0	2	1	0	5	42
3	1	2	2	1	0	0	6	50
4	1	2	2	1	0	2	8	67
5	2	1	2	1	0	0	6	50
6	2	1	1	2	0	2	8	67
7	2	2	2	0	0	0	6	50
8	2	1	2	2	0	2	9	75
9	1	0	1	1	1	0	4	33
10	1	0	1	2	1	1	6	50
Totals	**16**	**11**	**15**	**13**	**3**	**7**	**65**	**54%**

In Part 3 of the Beliefs Questionnaire, the NTs were again asked to watch the

video clips showing the same errors presented to them in Part 2. After watching each

clip, they were asked to listen to a voice suggesting various corrective feedback strategies

that could be used to correct each error. They were asked to indicate how useful each

strategy would be in treating the error.

Table 6 shows the six different types of errors presented to the NTs (Column 1), the amount of errors per error type they said they would correct (Column 2), and four corrective feedback strategies that they said they would choose to correct the error. Like Table 5, Table 6 also shows that the NTs would correct all together 54% of all the errors presented. For the 54% of errors the NTs said they would use recasts the most (66%), followed by explicit correction (17%) and negotiation of form (8%). In 9% of the cases there were no strategies selected.

Table 6

Corrective Feedback Strategies the NTs Would Use to Treat Errors per Error Type

Error type	Would correct*	Corrective Strategies**			
		Recast	NF	Explicit	No strategy
Plurals	16	12	1	3	0
Auxiliary	11	10	0	0	1
3rd pr. sg.	15	11	1	2	1
Prepositions	13	7	1	3	2
Questions	3	1	1	0	1
Past Simple	7	2	1	3	1
Totals	***65**	****43**	****5**	****11**	****6**
	***(54%)**	****(66%)**	****(8%)**	****(17%)**	****(9%)**

NF refers to "negotiation of form" corrective strategies
*Calculated out of 120 possible errors (12 errors x 10 teachers)
**Calculated out of 65 errors the teachers said they would correct

In order to see whether there were preferred corrective feedback strategies per error type the NTs' scores for each error type were subjected to a series of two-way ANOVAs, one per error type. In these ANOVAs, the within-subject variables were six Error Types (Plurals, Auxilliary, 3rd Person, Prepositions, Questions and Past verbs) and five or six corrective feedback strategies (Regular recasts, Interrogative recasts, Isolated recasts, Negotiation of form (NF), and Explicit correction) were the between-subject factors.

The results indicate that significant differences among the chosen error correction strategies per error types occurred only with respect to the correction of plurals and questions. In both cases, the teachers overwhelmingly chose recasts (regular and interrogative) as the most useful way to correct than any other strategy. When correcting errors in plurals, for example, regular recasts (6.1) were significantly preferred over negotiation of form (3.95) and over explicit (4.1) error correction strategies, $p < .05$, Benferroni adjusted (see Figure 1).
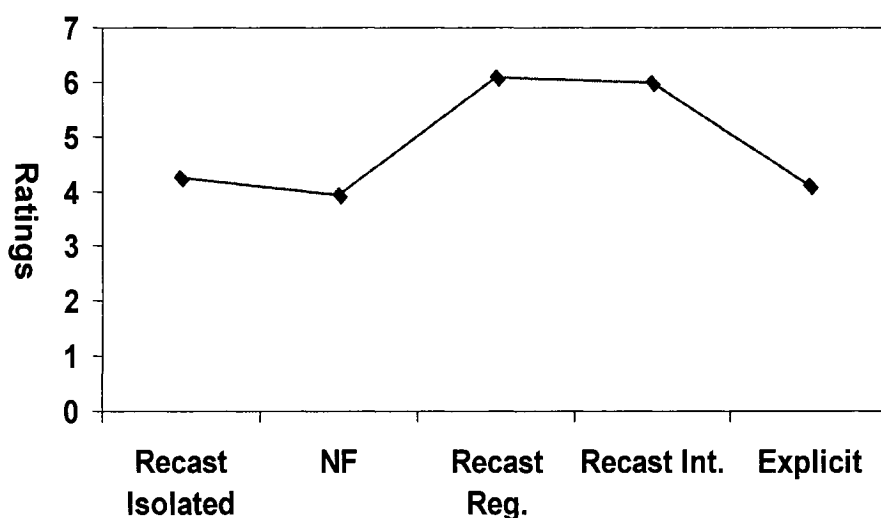
Figure 1. Corrective feedback strategies on plural errors

Regular recasts (7.0) were also significantly preferred over isolated recasts (1.9), over negotiation of form (3.4), and over explicit correction (3.6), $p < .05$, Benferroni adjusted, for the second "question" error (see Figure 2).
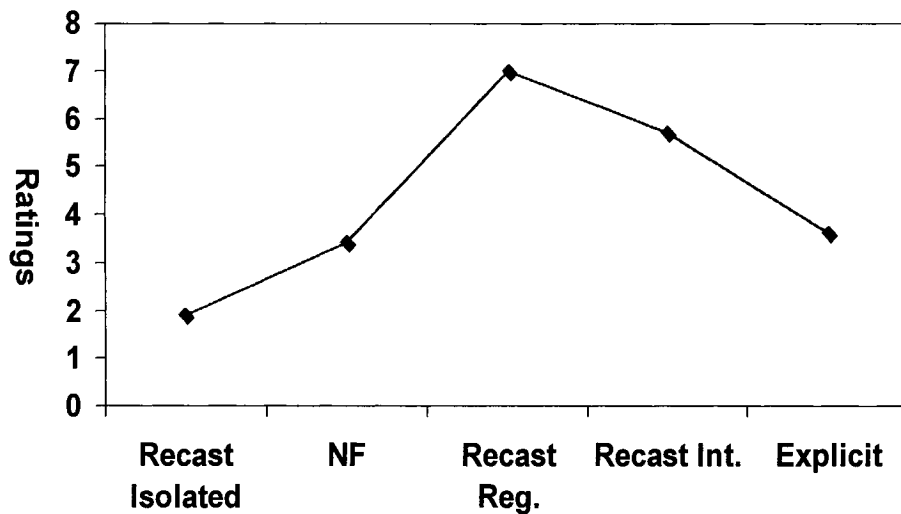
Figure 2. Corrective feedback strategies on question error 2

Comparison between correcting errors in imagined and in real teaching contexts

To analyze the teaching component of the study, a 30-minute communicative

segment for each of the NTs was selected and transcribed verbatim. The selected

communicative segments consisted solely of teacher-fronted activities and no group

work. This was done to clearly identify learner errors in verbal discourse and the

teachers' reaction to them, if any. The transcribing of learner-teacher interactions helped

to identify the number of errors committed per learner per type as well as any teacher

feedback provided. The researcher and an independent rater marked learner errors and

instances of teacher feedback. Prior to scoring the transcripts, the raters met to come to

consensus on the procedure to follow. They agreed not to consider one-word or short

phrases (e.g., "Hanging?"; "Bring revolution."; "And power.") and false starts (e.g.,

"What is... what is breakthrough?"; "I think I have rea... I think... I will introduce a good

book I have read..."; "I am confi... I am confident that I can find a good job after I

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graduate.") as instances of error. Both raters thus considered only full sentences in their analyses. For practice, the raters independently scored a transcript of an authentic lesson similar to the ones used in this study, a lesson that was recorded and transcribed as part of a different research project. Although some discrepancies between the two raters' scoring occurred, these were discussed and reconciled in several sessions. This agreed-upon procedure was subsequently applied by both raters in their analyses of 10 NTs' transcripts. A test of inter-rater reliability was conducted on the two independent raters' error scores on a segment of the transcribed data yielded a .76 reliability coefficient

From each 30-minute segment of each NT's lesson, the total number and percentages of all errors committed by the students for each of the six error types focused upon in Parts 2 and 3 as well as for other errors outside these types were calculated. These percentages were used in the comparisons between what the NTs claimed they would correct when given hypothetical scenarios and what they actually corrected in their real lessons. The type of strategies used per error type was also determined and used in the comparisons.

Table 7 presents the results of this portion of the analysis. Table 7 shows the error types focused upon in the hypothetical scenarios as well as other types of errors the students committed, the number and percentage of errors per type they committed, the number and percentages of errors the NTs corrected, and the corrective feedback strategies they actually employed in correcting their student errors.

Table 7

Number and Percentage of Errors Committed per Error Type, Number and Percentage of Errors Corrected by the NTs, and the Corrective Feedback Strategies Frequently Employed

Error type	Errors		Corrective Feedback Strategies*		
	Committed by students	Corrected by the NTs	Recast	NF	Explicit
Plurals	27	5	5		
Auxiliary	19	4	3		1
3rd pr. sg.	27	2	2		
Prepositions	72	7	4		3
Questions	20	2	2		
Past Simple	36	4	3		1
Sub-total	*201*	*24*	*19*	*0*	*5*
		(12%)	**(79%)*	**(0%)*	**(21%)*
Other Types of Errors	167	39	35	1	3
		(23%)	**(90%)	**(2%)	**(8%)
Total Number	**368**	**63**	**54**	**1**	**8**
Percentage	**NA**	**17%**	***(86%)	***(1%)	***(13%)

NF refers to "negotiation of form" corrective strategies
*Calculated out of 24 (sub-total) errors the NTs corrected
**Calculated out of 39 other types of errors the NTs corrected
**Calculated out of 63 (total) errors the NTs corrected

Table 7 shows that the NTs participants, as a group, corrected only 17% of the total errors (both the errors on the targeted utterances and other errors) committed by their students during the segment of their lesson examined here. This finding shows that the NTs were correcting only a small portion of the errors committed by the students. Of the error types focused upon in Parts 2 and 3 (whether plural, 3rd person singular errors, etc.), about only 24 out of 201 errors (12%) were corrected by the NTs. Of the other errors, 39 (23 %) were corrected. These findings suggest that nearly all the errors committed were ignored by the teachers. Of those that were corrected, no particular error type was singled out by the NTs. In terms of the corrective feedback strategies employed,

recasts were used in 86% when the NTs corrected errors. Explicit correction strategies were only used in correcting 13% of the errors.

Table 8 breaks down the total number of errors corrected (63) by type and by teacher. Teacher 1 and Teacher 5 corrected the most errors in total, with the former correcting 17 and the latter, 16. These teachers corrected the "other" errors significantly more than those of the six types targeted in this study. While the remaining eight teachers corrected very few errors in general, when they did correct, they chose to focus more on the "other" errors as well.

Table 8
Number of Errors Corrected per Error Type per NT

Teacher	Errors corrected							
	Plurals	Auxiliary	3rd pr. sg.	Prepositions	Questions	Past Simple	Other	Total
1	0	0	0	3	0	0	14	17
2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
3	3	0	0	0	0	0	2	5
4	1	1	0	2	0	0	3	7
5	0	3	0	0	0	1	12	16
6	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	3
7	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	3
8	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	3
9	1	0	1	0	1	0	2	5
10	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Totals	**5**	**4**	**2**	**7**	**2**	**4**	**39**	**63**

Table 9 summarizes the total number of errors the teachers said they would correct and the actual number of errors they treated in the classroom. It is clear that the teachers corrected fewer errors (17%) than they said they would (54%).

Table 9

Number of Errors the NTs Would Correct and Actually Treated in Class

Teacher	Would correct total/ 12		Corrected/ 368	
1	7	58	17	4.6
2	5	42	2	0.5
3	6	50	5	1.4
4	8	67	7	1.9
5	6	50	16	4.3
6	8	67	3	0.8
7	6	50	3	0.8
8	9	75	3	0.8
9	4	33	5	1.4
10	6	50	2	0.5
Totals	**65**	**54%**	**63**	**17%**

Study 2: Summary

To summarize, when asked to indicate the number of errors the teachers would correct, they claimed they would treat more than half the errors (54%) in the hypothetical scenarios. They also indicated that they would use recasts (regular and interrogative) to address the inaccuracies. However, when their actual classroom behavior was observed, they were seen to deal with only a small portion (17%) of the errors committed by their students.

This means either that the novice teachers found it difficult to implement correction in the class or that their very limited knowledge about the advantages of correction and when correction should be done prevented them from treating a larger number of the learners' errors. In terms of the corrective feedback used by the novice teachers, they used the same two corrective strategies (regular and interrogative recasts) that they said they would use. This means that either these teachers had no knowledge of other corrective strategies or, if they did, they did not know how to implement them in their lessons.

Summary of results

Analyses of the data revealed that novice ESL teachers have certain beliefs about corrective feedback prior to training. The tested sample demonstrated particular beliefs on when to correct (timing) and how much (extent) of learners' errors to address. These seemed to depend on gender, whether the teachers have taken a course in language acquisition, if they had their own errors corrected in speaking, and whether they were exposed to formal grammar instruction in their own language learning. Finally, the participants' behavior did not systematically reflect their beliefs because they corrected a smaller percentage of errors than they said they would. They did, however, use the same corrective techniques in their hypothetical and real lessons.

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION

This chapter will highlight the findings regarding the six Belief Factors that

emerged as important for novice teachers as well as the sources of these beliefs (Study 1).

It will also address the match between the teachers' expressed beliefs about corrective

feedback and their classroom behavior (Study 2). This will be followed by a discussion of

the implications as well as the limitations of this research. The chapter concludes with a

discussion of future research on the issue of beliefs about corrective feedback.

Study 1

Six beliefs factors and their sources

In Study 1, the factor analysis conducted on the novice teachers' (N=99)

responses on the beliefs questionnaire identified six beliefs factors about corrective

feedback (Language Learning, Timing, Affective, Extent, Flow, and Other Affects) that

the participants deemed important in learning a language. These beliefs were that

corrective feedback promotes learning, that there is an appropriate time for correction to

occur, and that all or certain errors, at least, are important to address. Correction also

carries affective consequences, disrupts communicative flow, and affects motivation or

interest in learning a second language.

Sources of beliefs:

What makes the set of beliefs endorsed by the novice teachers interesting is that

most seem to be based on the participants' experience as language learners and do not

reflect insights gathered from any language teaching experience. They also do not seem

to have been influenced by teacher training. This seems true in three, possibly five, out of

the six beliefs factors (Affective, Flow, Other Affects and possibly, Extent and Timing) that they considered important. In three of these factors (Affective, Flow, and Other Affects) the beliefs are concerned with the feelings the learners have while being corrected.

For example, they were concerned with the effects of anxiety and fear of correction and recognized the importance of corrective feedback in promoting motivation to learn a language. When correction was deemed necessary, the teachers appeared to worry about interrupting learners' flow of speech, suggesting that the error had to be signaled, not overtly pointed out, to allow learners to notice the difference between their statement and the target form in a non-threatening manner, which would, in turn, impel them to self-correct. The manifestation of this belief was later observed in the teachers' lessons, suggesting a link between their beliefs and instructional practices (see below).

Although the beliefs about the extent and timing of correction could have been influenced by teaching experience and teacher training activities, the items that loaded onto these two factors reflect the novice teachers' ambiguity and ambivalence. With regard to how much to correct, one item they chose as important suggests that they want all errors to be corrected, while the other item suggests that they want correction to be conducted only on persistent errors. Similarly, the items that loaded onto timing factor were also contradictory - correct errors immediately, correct errors at a separate time and correct at the end of the lesson. Their ambivalence about these issues reflects their lack of experience in dealing with correction. Although it appears from the items that loaded onto the first factor that they have a more consistent and in the case of one item, at least, a relatively more "sophisticated" view of the role of errors in language learning

(correction leads learners to see a gap between their utterances and the target ones) it is also possible to interpret, because of lack of evidence to the contrary, that this view derives from their learning experiences.

That the novice teachers would draw a great deal from their past language learning experience, of course, should not come as a surprise. The novice teachers in this study had very limited teaching experience, and they were just in the initial stages of their teacher training when they participated in this study. As such, they had to base most of their ideas about effective language learning on their own experiences as language students more than on any other experiences. This tendency of novice teachers to draw from their experiences as students can be explained in what Lortie (1975) calls the "apprenticeship of observation". This apprenticeship occurs as learners, throughout their academic life, come into contact with many different kinds of teachers and form their own ideas about what constitutes effective teaching and learning from these contacts. Their exposure to these teachers, which goes on over a number of years, cements (for them) the validity of their views, making them resistant to change (Johnson, 1994; Richardson, 1997; Crandall, 2000; Weinstein, 1990; Calderhead and Robson, 1991). A number of studies in the field of general education confirm that teachers' prior learning experiences do influence their classroom behavior and beliefs (Calderhead & Robson, 1991; Fang, 1996, Kagan, 1992). Researchers in the field of second language learning also provide evidence that "student beliefs about language learning originate from their second language learning experiences (Horowitz, 1985; Roberts, 1992; Kern, 1995; Peacock, 1999; Richards, 1998; Almarza, 1996), particularly in secondary school" (Peacock, 2001, p. 187).

Although the statements about corrective feedback in the beliefs questionnaire encompassed a variety of issues because they were pooled from research on both language students and teachers over many years, the novice teacher participants seemed to have rated as important only the items that dealt with affective matters as well as the feelings about corrective feedback that language learners are likely to experience when learning a language.

In terms of the specific learning experiences that may have influenced their beliefs, their experiences of having been corrected while learning emerged as a significant factor. For example, those who received more corrections on speaking errors when learning a second/ foreign language held significantly stronger beliefs that all errors should be corrected than those who received less correction. On other matters, participants who were exposed to more grammar instruction had significantly stronger beliefs that all errors should be corrected than those who received less exposure to grammar[1] in their own language learning. These findings confirm that teachers generally teach as they were taught (Lortie, 1975), at least at the beginning stages and prior to teacher training.

Modifying teachers' beliefs

Some scholars have suggested that, despite teacher training and field experiences, novice teachers' beliefs are resistant to change (Weinstein, 1990; Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Johnson, 1994; Richardson, 1997; Crandall, 2000). However, one finding in this study suggests that some courses the students take may help alter their preconceptions about some aspects of correcting errors. Change can occur with a development of awareness of prior learning, theoretical and practical education about and

in the teaching profession as well as conscious and guided reflection upon teacher education practice (Brown and McGannon, 1998; Breen, 1991; Freeman and Richards, 1996; Johnson, 1994; Richards and Lockhart, 1996; Wallace, 1991; Liou, 2001). The current study provides some evidence of a possible shift in beliefs about corrective feedback between first and second-year teacher trainees. The participants (n=20) who reported having taken a "language acquisition" course (usually undertaken at the end of year one/ beginning year two of teacher training programs) felt more strongly about correcting errors immediately after they were committed rather than at the end of the communication or in a separate lesson than those (n=79) who had not taken the course. Although not measured in the study, it may be speculated that a possible "change" in the novice teachers' opinion about when to correct learners may have occurred as a function of having taken the language acquisition course. This change may be attributed to the nature of the course. As described in course outlines, the language acquisition course typically introduces novice teachers to the science of how languages are learned, to individual differences in language learning, to error correction, and to other issues in teaching and learning. An important component of this course is usually exposing the students to research on corrective feedback as well as to the role it plays in language learning. An examination of the most commonly used textbook in language acquisition, at least in the institutions where the novice teachers are doing their teacher training (e.g, Lightbown and Spada, 1999) confirms an important place of the issue of corrective feedback in the course. Those who had taken the course were likely to have been engaged in discussions regarding when correction is most efficient and were likely to have been exposed to the opinions of the advocates of implicit form-focused instruction

during communication (Long, 1996; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Doughty, 2001) as well

as the opinions of those who hold the opposite viewpoint (i.e., advocates of more salient

NF techniques; e.g., Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Lightbown, 1998; Lyster & Ranta,

1997). A similar conclusion was reached by Brown and McGannon (1998), who

investigated a change in beliefs about second language learning in 35 teacher trainees

with some previous language teaching experience. In the span of three weeks, the

participants were asked to complete a 12-statement survey[2] dealing with language

learning issues (namely, effects of imitation, intelligence, motivations, error correction,

early learning, first language interference, grammatical sequencing and group work on

second language acquisition) once before and then again after a teaching practicum to

track any changes in the beliefs. Although differences were found between student

teachers' and teacher trainer's beliefs at both times, a change in beliefs for the trainees

was apparent in the second testing; interestingly, the change in beliefs was on error

correction.

Study 2

Teachers' reported beliefs and in-class behavior

   Study 2 addressed the extent to which teachers' beliefs were consistent with their

actions in the classroom. As described earlier, ten of the 99 novice teachers were singled

out to participate in the study exploring further their beliefs and comparing it to their

actual behavior in the classroom. In this study, these selected novice teachers were

presented with actual classroom data depicting situations in which students committed

different types of errors and were asked whether, in each situation, they would correct the

error(s) or not. Later, these same novice teachers' recorded classroom teaching data,

which were examined to see whether and how often they corrected errors in their own

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students' utterances. The results revealed a discrepancy between how often the teachers' reported they would correct and the actual amount of correction they did in their own classrooms.

The novice teachers corrected fewer errors in the classroom than they said they would in their responses to the videotaped scenarios, a ratio of 3:1. One possible explanation for this discrepancy may be derived from Basturkmen et al. (2004), who in their research on three teachers' beliefs about focus on form and their in-class practices also found a mismatch between what teachers believed in and what they did in the classroom. Basturkmen et al. (2004) attributed the discrepancy to a gap between teachers' technical and practical knowledge (Ellis, 1997). Technical knowledge "denotes the body of explicit ideas derived by a profession from deep reflection or empirical investigation (Basturkmen et al., 2004, p. 246), but practical knowledge represents decisions teachers make during teaching. Because of lack of experience, novice teachers often have trouble integrating their practical and theoretical knowledge. Basturkmen et al. (2004) found that the teachers had more knowledge about the importance to address errors but failed to integrate it into their lessons, maintaining that correction would interrupt communicative flow.

Taking Basturkmen et al's (2004) frame of reference, one can speculate that the novice teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback found in this study reflected their very limited knowledge about the advantages of correction and when correction should be done. At the time of the study their exposure to corrective feedback had simply been basically what they had had as language learners and their knowledge of different ways of correcting had been simply those they had observed from their own teachers. As

mentioned earlier, many had not taken the language acquisition course, and their general pedagogy course up to this point had only exposed them to communicative language teaching (CLT) and had not yet begun any formal discussions on corrective feedback. Additional teaching experience (Basturkmen et al., 2004; Woods, 1996) and consistent reflection (Brown and McGannon, 1998; Breen, 1991; Freeman and Richards, 1996; Liou, 2001) might serve as a possible remedy for this problem.

Another reason for the mismatch between teacher's beliefs and behavior may simply be the complexity of the language classroom (Fang, 1996; Tsui, 2003) and the novice teachers' lack of experience in dealing with this complexity. Experiencing for the first time the simultaneous demands of attending to the students' errors while at the same time figuring out how to implement their planned lesson, novice teachers may have felt so overwhelmed that they simply blocked access to their beliefs. In fact, research suggests that many new teachers are so influenced by what happens in the classroom that they often find it challenging to maintain "a productive flow of activities while faced with a variety of implicit and explicit mandates that define and limit their instructional options" (Fang, 1996, p. 55). In their study of reading teachers, for instance, Duffy and Anderson (1984) discovered that while the teachers expressed certain beliefs about reading outside the classroom, their in-class behavior was dominated by the nature of classroom life and did not reflect the technical theories they advocated beforehand. Although in the present study, the teachers were not asked to comment on their lessons, it was evident from the transcripts that being in front of a group of learners for the first time had an effect on their performance. For example, one of the teachers shared her inexperience with the class by saying, "This is my first class. I am very nervous".

Another teacher in an attempt to discipline the learners "threatened" them with his inexperience - "So, this is my first night over here, so listen to what I want you to do, OK?" Interestingly, the literature has noted that in a busy classroom, inexperienced teachers often (albeit inadvertently) give classroom management priority over student learning. In fact, Gatbonton (In preparation), in her study of underlying pedagogical knowledge of novice and experienced ESL teachers reported that novice teachers were more concerned with student behavior and reactions as well as self-critique than their experienced counterpart. The experienced teachers, she found, paid more attention to the management of student output and the language input they wanted the students to be exposed to than observing student behavior. In their reports of what they were thinking of while teaching, the experienced teachers' mention of their noticing student reactions and behavior ranked low in importance. The novice teachers, on the other hand, reporting how the students reacted or behaved was foremost in their minds, ranked this category as their number one pre-occupation (see also Book and Freeman, 1983; Akyel, 1997; Fuller, 1969; Prawat, 1985; Weinstein, 1990). This preoccupation with student behavior and reactions on the part of the novice teachers may be seen as a manifestation of their still undergoing what is called the "survival" stage that beginning teachers go through. Teacher education scholars agree that at this stage, the novice teachers' main task seems literally to survive in the classroom (Tsui, 2003). Tsui (2003) suggests that at this stage novice teachers are preoccupied with issues such as "reconciling educational ideals and realities, maintaining classroom discipline, establishing an appropriate relationship with students, playing the role of a teacher, and having an adequate mastery of knowledge as well as instructional methods" (Tsui, 2003, p. 79).

Positive experience at this survival stage usually leads to the "stabilization" phase, in which teachers gain confidence in themselves and their teaching. Only then do they move away from concerns about self to concerns about instruction and student achievement (Kilgore, Ross and Zbikowski, 1990). It is hoped that through teacher education and additional hands-on teaching experience, the participants of this study will gain the necessary skills to develop expertise in their chosen profession as well as continue to draw satisfaction from it. The latter is possible, according to Huberman's (1993) predictors of career satisfaction, if teachers seek diversity in classroom teaching, experiment with and systematically revise their instructional repertoire, push themselves beyond the accepted norms and propel their students' towards improvement in learning.

Teachers' reported choice of corrective feedback techniques and the techniques they actually used in the classroom.

The other main finding of this study was a match between the students' choice of corrective feedback technique for the theoretical situations and what corrective feedback technique they actually used in the classroom. As described earlier, in the third component of the study, the focus group of novice teachers (n=10) were again presented with the same videotaped hypothetical scenarios they saw in an earlier component of the study and were asked to indicate what corrective feedback technique they would choose to correct the student errors presented there. The actual corrective techniques they employed when they were teaching their lessons were recorded and compared to their earlier claims

It is interesting to note that in the instances when the novice teachers corrected student errors during their own teaching they employed most often the same corrective feedback technique as the one that they had chosen in the hypothetical scenarios, namely,

recasts. In contrast to the amount of correction that they did, where there was a mismatch between their beliefs and their actual performance, there was a match between the type of corrective feedback they chose most and the ones they actually used in the classroom.

In discussing this finding, one notes first, that recasts are popular among teachers (Lyster and Ranta, 1997) and the fact that the novice teachers frequently employed this corrective feedback technique suggests that they are behaving as many teachers do. Since the reason for their use has not been directly examined in studies on corrective feedback, it is not clear at this point why teachers employ recasts. In the literature on recasts, scholars (Long, 1996) see their benefits in that they offer learners both negative feedback (i.e., they reformulate an utterance containing an error so the gap between what the learner has said and what is expected becomes clear) and positive feedback (i.e., they provide a model of the targeted utterance, e.g., Leeman, 2003). In this study, it was not clear what propelled novice teachers to use recasts, but they employed this form of correction almost every time they dealt with their students' errors. Some examples of recasts from the teachers' lessons include:

Student	Teacher
* Uh…my question is, uh, introduce a good book I have read.	* So, you have to tell us about a good book you have read. Ok?
** On Friday evening, he is going to go to disco.	** Going to the disco.
*** My interviewee is Sarah.	***You interviewed Sarah?

It must be pointed out that when the novice teachers in this study employed recasts, their learners did not explicitly display either the noticing or the learning of the

form in question that was expected had there been learner uptake (Lyster and Ranta, 1997). The students either simply agreed with the teacher (as in "Yeah" or "O.K.") or continued with the conversation, altogether seemingly ignoring the correction (Student: "Um, it it, uh, it appear some new technology some new technology and, give… give more job job opportunity."; Teacher: "O.K., so, um technology revolution and you are connecting that to more job opportunities."; Student: "Yeah."). What is of greater interest is that the teachers themselves often ignored students' ill-formulated utterances, responding to the meaning of the utterance rather than to a problem with the form (Student: "Why some holes blue, some holes red? What is different?"; Teacher: "It's because these are the only dice I could find.").

The fact that the novice teachers overwhelmingly favored recasting learners' errors instead of others, when they did corrections, may be indicative of three things. First, that this was the only corrective feedback technique in their repertoire. Second, that they had other corrective feedback techniques in their repertoire but they preferred this over the others because they thought it was the most effective. Third, they felt discomfort in disturbing the communicative flow and this was the corrective feedback technique that they felt disturbed the flow the least. Given the fact that, at the time of the study, the novice teachers, serving as a focus group, had not taken their language acquisition course or any other courses that would have exposed them to the research on corrected feedback conducted by researchers like Lyster and Ranta (1997), it is very likely that they did not know many corrective feedback techniques other than recasts. They were also tested and observed before the topic of corrective feedback was dealt with in the general pedagogy course they were currently taking. It is possible then that the

main reason for their use of recasts was due to it being the only corrective feedback strategy they had control of at the time. However, since, as was discussed earlier, novice teachers draw a great deal from their past experiences as learners, it is possible that they were also exposed to other corrective feedback techniques. In fact, the majority of the novice teachers in this study indicated a certain amount of feedback they received in writing and speaking errors when learning a second language (see the Background Questionnaire). This feedback is likely to have been varied (i.e., it included more types of corrective strategies than just recasts) for it was noticed by the participants. The uptake was evidenced by the finding herein that those participants whose grammar errors were corrected in own language learning felt more strongly about correcting errors in grammar than those whose were not (see Chapter 4). Furthermore, 17% of errors corrected by the teachers were done using explicit correction. Despite this, they still overwhelmingly resorted to recasts as the corrective technique of choice.

The reason they only used recasts may also be explained by other factors. For example, when queried about whether they would correct errors presented in the scenarios, a majority of the 99 novice teachers in this study expressed caution in treating learners' errors for the fear of breaking the communication flow ("[I would not correct this error] because it would disrupt the conversation."). It is possible that recasts, due to their unobtrusive nature, were seen by the teachers as a "natural" way to correct without hindering communication. Furthermore, with limited knowledge of corrective techniques and language acquisition theory, recasts may have been seen by the teachers as the only way to attract learners' attention to the error while maintaining the communicative flow.

The novice teachers' desire to avoid using corrective techniques that risk the chance of disrupting communication will meet the approval of Truscott (1999) and Krashen (1981) who support the notion that teachers should not point out errors during communication so that learners could maintain focus on the transmission of message while engaged in communicative interaction. When utterances require corrective treatments, the remedy, according to Krashen (1981), should be to do so in a separate lesson or as part of homework. Interestingly, when asked when corrections should be employed (during communication or after communication?), the majority of the 99 novice teachers surveyed in this study chose dealing with student errors in separate lessons or as part of homework rather than dealing with errors soon after they have been committed. The participants who did not share the opinion of postponing corrections to a later time included the students who were in their second year of training and who reported having taken a language acquisition course (n=20). This latter group of participants felt that immediate provision of correction would increase the chance of uptake (that is, the corrected students would modify their behavior in response to the correction) and disagreed with Truscott and Krashen in that correcting at the moment of need does not stop the flow of communication (Lightbown, 1998).

To summarize, when asked what corrective feedback they would employ for certain errors, the focus group of novice teachers (n=10) in this study indicated they would use recasts for many of the errors presented to them. When their actual classroom behavior was examined, a match was found between their claimed favored corrective feedback technique and what they actually employed. The corrective feedback

techniques they employed most often, if they corrected at all, were the same two types of recasts they claimed they would use.

At first glance, the match between the focus group of novice teachers' beliefs and practices in terms of claiming to use recasts as a corrective technique in the hypothetical scenarios and what they actually implemented in their lessons may appear to be a good deliberate choice. But, in fact, their choice may be more a function of their' limited knowledge about corrective feedback as well as the fact that they behaved more as native-speaking interlocutors than as classroom teachers.

ESL teachers have a responsibility to help learners achieve mastery of the L2. With this, comes the necessity to correct learners to ensure achievement and continuation of learning. Selecting corrective techniques that are not only conducive to language learning, but are also effective in increasing uptake are essential objectives for teachers to strive for. Since feedback given exclusively in the form of recasts often passes unnoticed, especially in communicative classrooms (Lightbown and Spada, 1999), teachers should diversify their corrective feedback portfolio to include a variety of techniques that would benefit learners regardless of proficiency.

Implications of the study

Three major findings have emerged from the current study. First, novice teachers carry beliefs from their own language experience into their teaching. Second, as a group, novice teachers possess limited knowledge of corrective techniques. Third, novice teachers behave more as native-speaking interlocutors than classroom teachers. The overwhelming conclusion one gets from this study of novice teachers is that although they bring certain beliefs about teaching and error correction, in particular, to their

teaching that they have gathered from their experiences as learners, these experiences are limited and they require more training in corrective feedback pedagogy. This conclusion will be focused upon next.

Although it has been suggested that education and additional teaching experience would allow novice teachers to gain the necessary expertise in their profession, what is deemed necessary to become experts in teaching is not as easy to determine as it may at first appear. Tsui (2003) discusses the notion of expertise in her recent book, drawing on major theories of what constitutes expertise as well as the characteristics of experts across skills and disciplines. In terms of characteristics that differentiate expert and novice teachers in processing information in the classroom, Tsui (2003) outlined four such traits, which are efficiency, selectivity, ability to improvise, and ability to "offer interpretations and solutions that are guided by principles" (p. 39). Efficiency in processing information refers to a teacher's ability to make sense of a multitude of events that simultaneously take place in a classroom at a very fast pace. The second characteristic deals with selectivity in information processing. That is, expert teachers are selective about events they choose to attend to as well as to ignore in a classroom. They tend "to maximize time on-task, to make sure that students [are] engaged in meaningful activities, to minimize off-task time [and choose to] ignore minor interruptions and in attention, [attending] to only major disruptions" (Tsui, 2003, p. 35), thus making student learning the principle selection. The ability to improvise is also an important characteristic of an expert who is able to be flexible and creative in dealing with unpredicted events that are commonplace in a classroom. These unpredicted events usually take the shape of questions, which can either serve as "springboards for further discussion and keep the lesson on track at the

same time" (Tsui, 2003, p. 36), as is often the case with experienced teachers, or throw the lesson out of balance as is often the fear of the novice teachers. The fourth and final characteristic of expert teachers is their ability to analyze problems on a deeper level and base their solutions on principles of teaching. That is to say that experienced teachers are able to provide "sophisticated and principled" representations of a given problem (Tsui, 2003).

Viewing the focus group of novice teachers in the light of Tsui's (2003) framework, it is obvious that these teachers lacked training in ESL pedagogy in general and corrective feedback in particular. From a general perspective, these teachers appeared to be more preoccupied with student behavior and less with student learning, focusing on discipline ("Can we just listen here?"), guiding students every step of the way without allowing them to experiment with the language, "teaching" them how to use a dictionary[3], and giving them unnecessary information ("I don't think I'm going to remember all your names, but it's just a way of getting to know you a bit - it's called an ice-breaker.") as well as confusing explanations ("This particular question: where would you like to be 5 years from now...this form of question is what we call the future tense"). Although at times the teachers chose to answer students' questions, this was done to focus attention on themselves and maybe even to stall for time (*Student:* "Yeah. And to be a teacher is your second profession? 'Cause you already have..."; *Teacher:* "Yes. I'm already working and I'm gonna be retiring in three years. I just want...I've always wanted...Well, no, I have not always wanted to do it, but maybe for the past five years I thought I would do that because I had never heard of the TESL program before. It's only recently that it's gained in popularity. So I thought, you know, I'd like to have a goal

because I'm goal-oriented. So I thought I would go into that part time when I finish. But I'm taking one subject at a time at night."). In terms of corrective feedback, these teachers resorted mostly to recasts when correcting learners, acting as native-speaking interlocutors rather than language teachers. To gain the necessary expertise in teaching ESL and in particular, with corrective feedback, the novice teachers will need to be exposed to both theoretical and practical applications on the subject matter. Theoretical applications will come in the form of learning what constitutes an error, the role of correction in promoting learning, whether learner errors should be corrected, and which kinds of learner errors should be corrected (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Through peer and self-evaluation, the novice teachers will gain the practical knowledge about the types of corrective feedback and their applications as well as the extent and proper timing for correction.

Limitations of the study

The smaller (N=99) than targeted (125 or more) number of respondents combined with the imbalance between the number of male and female participants presents a problem for any claims which could be drawn from this research. As a rule, a large sample makes research less susceptible to the concerns of *size of subject population*, i.e. it ensures that the sample is representative of the population as whole and reduces the effect of individual variability[4] (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989). Recruitment of participants for this study proved more difficult than originally anticipated. This was true not only of the larger group, but also of the focus group of novice teacher participants (n=10), who were remunerated for their participation. Since these were paid volunteers, the question of *subject variability*, that is, the assurance that the population used in the study was

representative of the general population of novice language teachers (Seliger and

Shohamy, 1989), needs to be raised. This type of variability is usually achieved through

random sampling (participants are chosen at random) and/ or random assignment

(random assignment of participants to different groups), which was clearly not the case

here. In the case of ESL learners, these were volunteers solicited by way of advertisement

posted at Concordia University. Since the advertisement was posted only at one location,

the volunteers for the most part represented graduate engineering and computer science

students enrolled at the University. It may be argued that a larger variety among the ESL

learners would have produced a richer array of errors for teachers to treat. Furthermore,

the sporadic attendance among some of the learners challenged the demographic make up

of the lessons.

Another limitation of the study lies in the materials employed. As mentioned

earlier, the validity of results of some studies on teacher beliefs have been called into

question (Fang, 1996). Methodologies based on written questionnaires, in particular the

short-answer type (Kagan, 1990), fail to capture the subliminal beliefs of the teachers for

they are believed to represent ideas of the researcher and not of those under investigation

(Munby, 1984). Furthermore, these studies are often satiated with the results yielded by

the questionnaires alone, thus, failing to test the findings in a real classroom (Fang,

1996). The present study strived to present a holistic view of teachers' beliefs about

corrective feedback by first, investigating their thoughts on the matter by way of the

questionnaires and then, watching some of them teach an authentic group of ESL

learners. Although the fact that questionnaires were used to get at teachers' beliefs may

be questioned, it is important to consider the reasons for this. Part 1 of the beliefs'

questionnaire was made of statements expressing opinions on various aspects of language learning and teaching documented in the literature, with those dealing with corrective feedback being the focus. For each of the statements, the participants had to indicate on a scale of one to nine (where 1 indicates strong disagreement and 9 strong agreement), how strongly they agreed or disagreed with the statement. These were presented in the statement form to allow for easy completion and administration of the questionnaire to a large number of novice teachers (N=99). Part 2 of the questionnaire consisted of open-ended items, where a smaller number of participants (n=10) elaborated on their reasons for choosing to treat the learner's error or not. Similarly to Part 2, Part 3 of the questionnaire employed examples of corrective strategies the selected ten teachers could potentially use when treating a learner's error. These were specific out of the need to learn of the teachers' preferences for types of corrective techniques observed in the teachings of experienced teachers by Lyster and Ranta (1997). Although the design of the questionnaires was thought to access beliefs indirectly, some may argue that such access is better achieved through interviews and simulated recalls (Kagan, 1990; Woods 1996; Gass and Mackey, 2000). Perhaps, a follow-up study may incorporate these and/ or other methodologies to uncover teachers' "real" beliefs in more depth.

Another variable that the study did not control were the lessons teachers planned. Since they were free to plan their own lessons, the research team provided no input into the lessons unless the novice teachers asked for help. When requested, the assistance was provided in the form of ideas and materials but not in the actual planning of the lessons. It may be argued that, had the participants used the same communicative task as they did in the Basturkmen et al. (2004) study, an opportunity to investigate the participants' stated

beliefs and practices in relation to their use of the same task would have been possible.

Teaching style was also not controlled for and may present another limitation to the

study.

Conclusion

This study was designed to investigate a possible relationship between novice

teachers' theoretical beliefs about corrective feedback and their instructional practices.

The results indicate both consistency and inconsistency in the relationship. While the

inconsistency was apparent in that the teachers corrected fewer errors in the classroom

than they said they would, the consistency was noted in the type of corrective techniques

(regular and interrogative recasts) the teachers chose to use in the videotaped scenarios as

well as in the actual classroom. Complexities of the second language classroom and the

challenge of integrating the novice teachers' technical and practical knowledge due to

inexperience were suggested as possible reasons for the inconsistency. The consistency

in the choice of corrective strategies is argued to be weak for it stems from the

participants' limited knowledge about corrective feedback as well as the fact that they

behave more as native-speaking interlocutors than as classroom teachers. Education and

additional teaching experience are likely to bridge the gap of inconsistency between these

teachers' stated beliefs and instructional practices. Supplementary and continued research

on the topic will bring the field closer to understanding how teachers perceive, process

and apply the information they are exposed to in and outside of class.

Future research

The findings of this research suggest there is still a lot of ground to cover when

investigating the link between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. Future research

on the topic may study different populations (i.e., experienced teachers) and draw comparisons between them (i.e., novice versus experienced teachers). The issues outlined here may also be examined in other contexts (such as the EFL context) and by way of other methodologies (i.e., experimental and introspective studies).

Another consideration for future investigation may be the effects of teacher training on beliefs. Questions such as (1) Can we change teachers' beliefs and if so, how?, (2) Can we make these beliefs match teachers' in-class behavior?, and (3) What are the contributions to these of supervised and additional teaching experience?, as well as others await empirical investigation.

[1] This finding coincides with Horowitz's (1988) and later, Peacock's (1999) conclusion that students who believe that language is learnt through memorization of grammar and vocabulary are likely to engage their students in the same type of activities.

[2] The 12-item survey was taken from Lightbown and Spada's 1993 edition of How Language are Learned, which is also available in their 1999 edition.

[3] Interestingly, this desire on the part of the teacher to "instruct" learners on how to use a dictionary may stem from his uncertainty about how to use it himself. In fact, Grossman, Wilson, and Shulman (1989), quoted in S. Borg (2001), suggest that "in teaching material they are uncertain of, teachers may choose to lecture rather than soliciting student questions, which could lead them into unknown territory" (p. 28).

[4] "Variability provides information on the spread of the behaviors of the phenomena among the subjects of the research. Specifically, it indicates how heterogeneous or homogeneous subjects are with regard to behavior" (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989, p. 216).

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

STUDENT BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for agreeing to complete this questionnaire. Please answer ALL the questions.
Thank you for your time.

STUDENT ID# _____

FIRST NAME: _____   **LAST NAME:** _____

AGE: _____   **SEX:** Male ☐   Female ☐

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND (TO DATE):

a)   **Program currently enrolled in:** _____

       Years in the program: _____

b)   **Courses currently registered in** (please list *ALL*): _____

_____

c)   **Have you taken any of the following courses? If YES, please specify when you took the course(s).**

COURSES	YES	NO	WHEN?
Phonology for Teachers – TESL 221			
Language Acquisition – TESL 341			
Methodology I – TESL 324			
Methodology II – TESL 424			
TESL Pedagogy: General – TESL 326			
Practicum – TESL 433			
Error Analysis – TESL 434			
Testing, Evaluation and Course Design – TESL 415			

d) **Other degrees already completed (e.g., B.A. – psychology):**

_____

LANGUAGE LEARNING EXPERIENCE (TO DATE):

a) **Mother tongue(s):** _____

   Second/ Foreign language(s): _____

b) **Second/ Foreign language(s) learned in a classroom:** _____

_____

   How many years _per language_? _____

c) **HOW MUCH of the following activities did your class engage in when you were learning your second/ foreign language(s)?** Pease estimate to the best of your ability the amount of time your class spent on each of these per lesson. _Please circle the **closest percentage** that corresponds to your answer._

   1.   Listening to teacher's explanation of grammar rules

   0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

   2.   Learning and practising grammar rules

   0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

   3.   Participating in grammar drills

   0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

   4.   Working on tasks in pairs or groups

   0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

   5.   Working on tasks as a class

   0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

6.   **Vocabulary learning**

0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

7.   **Using a dictionary in class**

0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

8.   **Writing in the second/ foreign language**

0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

9.   **Having your errors in WRITING pointed out and corrected**

0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

10.   **Reading in the second/ foreign language**

0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

11.   **Listening to tapes in the second/ foreign language**

0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

12.   **Watching videos/movies in the second/ foreign language**

0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

13.   **Working on pronunciation**

0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

14.   **Going out as a class to practise the second/ foreign language**

0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

15.   **Practising orals skills through interactive tasks (e.g., role plays, simulations, etc.)**

0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

16.   **Being corrected on your SPEAKING errors**

0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

17. **Finding your own errors and correcting them yourself**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

18. **Using your second/ foreign language in genuine communication of any sort**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

19. **Other (Specify):** _____

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

TEACHING EXPERIENCE (TO DATE):

a)   **How much teaching experience do you have so far? Indicate the number of _YEARS_. If your experience is less than a year, indicate the number of _MONTHS_.**

Teaching English as a Second Language (ESL):   _____

Teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL):   _____

Teaching another language (please specify the language):   _____

Teaching subjects other than language (e.g., math, science):   _____

Others (sports, music, CPR, etc.):   _____

b)   **If you have taught English as a Second or Foreign Language before, estimate HOW MUCH TIME you spent on any of the following activities in a typical day in your classroom.** _Please circle the **closest percentage** that corresponds to your answer._

1.   **Explaining rules of grammar**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

2.   **Making your students learn and practise grammar rules**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

3.   **Giving students drills to practice grammar rules**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

4. **Asking students to work on tasks in pairs or groups**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

5. **Asking students to work on tasks as a class**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

6. **Teaching vocabulary**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

7. **Encouraging students to use a dictionary in class**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

8. **Asking students to write in the second/foreign language**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

9. **Correcting your students' errors in WRITING**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

10. **Asking students to read in the second/foreign language**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

11. **Having students listen to tapes in the second/ foreign language**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

12. **Having students watch videos/movies in the second/ foreign language**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

13. **Making students work on their pronunciation**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

14. **Taking students out as a class to practise their second/ foreign language**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

15. **Asking students to practice their oral skills through interactive tasks such as role plays and simulations**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

16. **Correcting student errors in SPEAKING**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

17. **Letting your students find and correct their own errors**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

18. **Asking students to use their second/ foreign language in genuine communication in the classroom**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

19. **Other (Specify): _____**

    0%   10%   20%   30%   40%   50%   60%   70%   80%   90%   100%

Thank you for filling out this questionnaire!

Appendix B

BELIEFS QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for agreeing to complete this questionnaire. The information you provide will be very useful in helping us understand your views on language learning and language teaching. We ask you to feel free to express what you really think and to answer ALL the questions. Thank you for your time.

STUDENT ID# _____

FIRST NAME: _____   LAST NAME: _____

AGE: _____   SEX: Male ☐   Female ☐

Part 1

Indicate how well you agree with each of the following statements. *Please circle your answer on the scale to the right of each statement, where 1=STRONGLY DISAGREE and 9= STRONGLY AGREE.* Please use the *entire scale* in making your decisions.

		STRONGLY DISAGREE								*STRONGLY AGREE*
1.	The study of grammatical rules is essential to learning a second language (L2)/ foreign language (FL).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2.	Learners can pick up accurate stress and intonation by simply being exposed to a L2/FL.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3.	Second language (L2)/ foreign language (FL) learners fear being corrected by their language teachers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4.	Teaching pronunciation in a language classroom is a waste of time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5.	Teachers should correct ALL errors that learners make in class, so that they learn to speak accurately.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6.	The use of a bilingual (L1-L2) dictionary promotes learners' success in learning L2.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7.	Before learners begin to complete a communicative task, they should be formally taught all the vocabulary items they need in order to complete this task.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8.	Teachers should systematically correct PERSISTENT errors in their learners' language production.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9.	Teacher correction is instrumental in the learners' understanding of how their L2/FL works.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

10. Working in pairs or in groups with classmates who do not speak English well is detrimental to learners.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

11. Teachers should never use the learners' native language in the classroom.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

12. Having the teacher provide the correct form without signalling the presence of an error keeps the learners' anxiety level low.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

13. Errors are signals of what a learner CURRENTLY knows about his/ her L2/FL.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

14. Learners can pick up good pronunciation habits by simply being exposed to a L2/FL.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

15. Language drills (e.g., making students repeat language items) do not have a place in a communicative classroom.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

16. Teachers should leave learners alone during group work.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

17. If NOT corrected, L2/FL learners' motivation to continue the study of the language will decrease.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

18. Reading is the best way to increase one's vocabulary in L2/FL.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

19. Most learners like being corrected in class.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

20. Some pedagogical guidance is required to acquire grammar.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

21. Teachers should treat learners' mistakes in separate lessons or as part of homework.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

22. Good teachers are born, not made.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

23. Repeating the student's utterance minus the error enables teachers to draw their learners' attention to the error while maintaining the flow of communication.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

24. Error correction during communicative activities is disruptive to the flow of learners' speech.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

25. Incidental teaching of vocabulary items while learners are engaged in communication tasks is useful in promoting learning.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

26. Teachers should deal with learners' errors at the END of a lesson.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

27. The goal of teaching pronunciation is to eliminate any trace of foreign accent in learners' speech.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

28. Pointing out learners' errors raises their anxiety level.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

29. Learners like the study of grammar.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

30. Learners benefit more from studying vocabulary alone rather than in a class.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

31. Teachers should correct a learner's error IMMEDIATELY after the error has been made.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

32. Teacher training is essential in preparing effective teachers.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

33. Telling the learner that there is an error and vocally stressing the correct form helps learners notice the difference between what they know and what they don't know in a L2/FL.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

34. Explaining grammar rules helps learners gain the competence they need to communicate in their L2/FL.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

35. Although they speak English fluently, teachers whose mother tongue is not English cannot be as effective as teachers who are native speakers of English.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

36. Error correction is essential in promoting L2/FL learning.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

37. Memorizing dialogs is an effective technique in helping learners develop communication skills.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

38. Rephrasing the learner's statement minus the error is less intrusive than telling the learner that there is an error and providing the correct form.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

39. Many of the errors learners make in L2/FL can be traced back to elements found in their native language (L1).

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

40. Pointing out learners' errors will push them to self-correct.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

41. Teachers teach the way they were taught.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

42. It is NOT necessary to correct all errors if the important ones are dealt with at the right time.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

43. Non-native speakers of a L2/FL usually make better language instructors than the native speakers of that language.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Thank you for filling out this questionnaire!

STUDENT ID# _____

FIRST NAME: _____   LAST NAME: _____

Part 2

In this section, you will read a dialogue, which is actually a transcript of a video clip that you will watch right after. You will note that one statement the students say contains an error that we highlighted.

As you watch the video, pay attention to the error. There are 12 errors in total.

*Please note that the **underlined** words in the statements below indicate the error.*

LEGEND:
T – teacher
S – student

Thank you for filling out this questionnaire!

NOW READ DIALOGUE 1

T: Do you have any children?
S: Yes, I have.
T: How many children do you have?
S: I have only **one children**.

NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 1

NOW, HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 1: **"I have only one children".**

Would you correct the above error?

☐ **Yes**

☐ **No**

If your answer is "Yes", please indicate below what you would say to the student.

I WOULD SAY:

_____

_____

If your answer is "No", please explain why you would NOT correct the error.

_____

_____

NOW READ DIALOGUE 2

T: OK, Lilia's 28 years old. Ask next question!
S1: What does she do?
T: Who…
S1: Arkadiy.
S2: She is a factory worker.
T: Next question!
S2: Where is Lilia from, [ah] Mustafa?
S3: **Lilia from** Guatemala.
T: Good.

NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 2

NOW, HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 2: **"Lilia from** Guatemala".

Would you correct the above error?

☐ **Yes**

☐ **No**

If your answer is "Yes", please indicate what you would say to the student.

I WOULD SAY:

_____

_____

If your answer is "No", please explain why you would NOT correct the error.

_____

_____

NOW READ DIALOGUE 3

T: How many of these people have children?... How many of these people have children, [pause, then points to one of the students] Emil?
S: Just one.
T: Just one? Who?
S: Cynthia.
T: [Teacher signals to the student that a full sentence is needed].
S: In our class...
T: Complete sentence!
S: In our class ... In my [ah]...
T: On my sheet...
S: On my heet?
T: On my sheet!
S: On my sheet, there is just Cynthia are
T: is
S: is [pause] married
T: Only Cynthia is married. Oh, no! Only Cynthia....
S: Only **Cynthia have** children.

NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 3

NOW, HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN (please turn the page):

Statement 3: "Only <u>Cynthia have</u> children."

Would you correct the above error?

☐ Yes

☐ No

If your answer is "Yes", please indicate what you would say to the student.

I WOULD SAY:

_____

_____

If your answer is "No", please explain why you would NOT correct the error.

_____

_____

NOW READ DIALOGUE 4

S1: The space shuttle is made by American or by the Russian?
S2: I didn't understand...
S1: Because you take the space shuttle to the Moon, right?
S2: Yeah.
S1: But the space shuttle is made by the USA or by the Russian?
S2: We didn't understand who made the shuttle. We just **seated** in the shuttle and **fly** to the Moon.
S3: What...?
T: Ok, Mars then Sandu.

NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 4

NOW, HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 4: **"We just seated in the shuttle and fly to the Moon."**

Would you correct the above error?

☐ **Yes**

☐ **No**

If your answer is "Yes", please indicate below what you would say to the student.

I WOULD SAY:

_____

_____

If your answer is "No", please explain why you would NOT correct the error.

_____

_____

NOW READ DIALOGUE 5

T: [...] Put a hole in their argument. Ok, we'll ask Mustafa. Sandu, first question.

S1: What did you do last Saturday?

S2: Last Saturday, we arranged [eh] with 2 friends [pronounced *frendez*], Ek and another friend is not... who's not..., arranged to go **for Switzerland**.

S3: Switzerland?

S2: Yeah, Switzerland, yeah.

S1: Where in Switzerland?

S2: Geneva.

NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 5

NOW, HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 5: **"We arranged to go <u>for</u> Switzerland."**

Would you correct the above error?

☐ **Yes**

☐ **No**

If your answer is "Yes", please indicate below what you would say to the student.

I WOULD SAY:

_____

_____

If your answer is "No", please explain why you would NOT correct the error.

_____

_____

NOW READ DIALOGUE 6

S1: Who saw first the monster?
S2: I think we saw it together.
S3: **How many legs has the monster?**
S2: We didn't see his… its legs.
S3: OK, the place where the…

NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 6

NOW, HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 6: **"How many legs has the monster?"**

Would you correct the above error?

☐ **Yes**

☐ **No**

If your answer is "Yes", please indicate below what you would say to the student.

I WOULD SAY:

_____

_____

If your answer is "No", please explain why you would NOT correct the error.

_____

_____

NOW READ DIALOGUE 7

T: So, what do you think – how many people are from Europe?
S1: From Europe, I think 3.
T: I think 3, very good! Who are they?
S1: Dimitriy, me, myself, and...
T: Complete sentence, please!
S2: And me...
T: How many... Who are from Europe?
S2: Dimitriy is from Russia. I'm from Romania and...
S1: **Arkadiy from** Ukraine.
S2: **Arkadiy from** Ukraine.

NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 7

NOW, HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 7: "**Arkadiy from Ukraine.**"

Would you correct the above error?

☐ **Yes**

☐ **No**

If your answer is "Yes", please indicate below what you would say to the student.

I WOULD SAY:

_____

_____

If your answer is "No", please explain why you would NOT correct the error.

_____

NOW READ DIALOGUE 8

T: But I am OK. [pause] Any other questions?

S: How often do you visit your home country?

T: Very good question! How often do I visit ... Not as often as I want...

I think on the average [ah] every 3 years. On average.

S: Do you [ah] have **relative** in the Philippines?

T: Yes, I do. My mother is in the Philippines and my brothers and sisters

are in the Philippines. I have brothers and sisters here too. My family

is divided into two – the people in Canada and the people in the Philippines. [pause] and I have one sister in Saudi Arabia.

NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 8

NOW, HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 8: **"Do you have relative in the Philippines?"**

Would you correct the above error?

☐ **Yes**

☐ **No**

If your answer is "Yes", please indicate below what you would say to the student.

I WOULD SAY:

_____

_____

If your answer is "No", please explain why you would NOT correct the error.

_____

_____

NOW READ DIALOGUE 9

S1: A training?
T: A training.
S1: So, you rent the plane?
S2: No, not that plane. We rent the plane from Montreal to Houston, and…
S1: And when you arrived there you **rent** another plane?
S2: There, no, no, no, no. There it was a training.
S1: Training…
T: A training plane – they didn't have to pay.
S1: It's a special plane.
S2: OK, OK.
T: OK?
S2: OK.

NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 9

NOW, HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 9: **"And when you arrived there you rent another plane?"**

Would you correct the above error?

☐ **Yes**

☐ **No**

If your answer is "Yes", please indicate below what you would say to the student.

I WOULD SAY:

_____

_____

If your answer is "No", please explain why you would NOT correct the error.

_____

_____

NOW READ DIALOGUE 10

T: When you tell us about your partner, please stress the most important words. Emil, could you tell us about your partner? Just listen… Just the most important information – not everything – what you think is important.

S: Is Mars, is single, is student

T: This is…

S: This is Mars

T: Mars!

S: Yes, it is from China. Sh/ He's from China. He is an international student [pause] at full time.

T: He is a full-time international student.

S: He is a full-time international student.

S: **He speak** Chinese and English.

NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 10

NOW, HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 10: **"He speak Chinese and English."**

Would you correct the above error?

☐ **Yes**

☐ **No**

If your answer is "Yes", please indicate below what you would say to the student.

I WOULD SAY:

_____

_____

If your answer is "No", please explain why you would NOT correct the error.

_____

_____

NOW READ DIALOGUE 11

S1: Oblique should be like this?... Yeah.
S2: How much is the angel?
T: Angle.
S2: Yeah, angle. **How much** is the angle?
S3: 20 degrees.
S2: 20 degrees. From right side or left side? [pause] From right side or left side?
S3: From left.
S2: Pardon me?
S3: From left.
T: From the left side.
S2: Left side.
S4: Which is the left side?
T: His left!

NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 11

NOW, HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 11: **"How much is the angle?"**

Would you correct the above error?

☐ **Yes**

☐ **No**

If your answer is "Yes", please indicate below what you would say to the student.

I WOULD SAY:

_____

_____

If your answer is "No", please explain why you would NOT correct the error.

_____

_____

NOW READ DIALOGUE 12

T: Common! [pause] There!
S1: Me?
T: Next! Next!
S1: Next…
T: Sandu!
S1: Sandu, come here.
T: Sandy will give us great instructions. Maybe our bridge will collapse.
S2: Maybe.
S2: Now, separate of what you designed over there, you must take a green cube and… Yes, take a green cube. That's a good one. And put it in [eh] … Just thinking…
You better to put it **in the back of** the green bridge.

NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 12

NOW, HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 12: **"You better to put it <u>in the back of</u> the green bridge."**

Would you correct the above error?
☐ **Yes**
☐ **No**

If your answer is "Yes", please indicate below what you would say to the student.

I WOULD SAY:

_____

_____

 If your answer is "No", please explain why you would NOT correct the error.

_____

STUDENT ID# _____

FIRST NAME: _____   LAST NAME: _____

Part 3

The statements in this section were taken from the video prompts that you have just watched of an English class of adult learners. The statements correspond to errors in the prompts.

For every statement containing an error, you are given five or six audio corrections of the given error. The corrections are also given below. For every correction listed, state the usefulness of that correction on a scale of 1 to 9, 1 being "NOT AT ALL USEFUL" and 9 "VERY USEFUL". Please use the entire scale in making your decisions.

Please note that the <u>underlined</u> words in the statements below indicate the error. The words in italics in the correction strategies denote stress placed on the word(s) in speech.

LEGEND:
T – teacher
S - student

Thank you for filling out this questionnaire!

NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 1

T: Do you have any children?
S: Yes, I have.
T: How many children do you have?
S: I have only **one children**.

HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 1: **"I have only one children"**.

NOW, LISTEN TO THE AUDIO CORRECTIONS OF THE ERROR AND STATE THE USEFULNESS OF EACH OF THE CORRECTIONS ON A SCALE OF 1 TO 9, 1 BEING "NOT AT ALL USEFUL" AND 9 "VERY USEFUL". PLEASE USE THE ENTIRE SCALE IN MAKING YOUR DECISIONS.

	NOT AT ALL USEFUL								*VERY USEFUL*
"One child."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"No, what is the singular form of "children"?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"Oh, you have only one child."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"You have one child. Is it a boy or a girl?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"We don't say *one children* [stressed]. You should say: *one child* [stressed]."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"How many children did you say you have?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 2

T: OK, Lilia's 28 years old. Ask next question!
S1: What does she do?
T: Who…
S1: Arkadiy.
S2: She is a factory worker.
T: Next question!
S2: Where is Lilia from, [ah] Mustafa?
S3: **Lilia from** Guatemala.
T: Good.

HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 2: **"Lilia from Guatemala".**

NOW, LISTEN TO THE AUDIO CORRECTIONS OF THE ERROR AND STATE THE USEFULNESS OF EACH OF THE CORRECTIONS ON A SCALE OF 1 TO 9, 1 BEING "NOT AT ALL USEFUL" AND 9 "VERY USEFUL". PLEASE USE THE ENTIRE SCALE IN MAKING YOUR DECISIONS.

	NOT AT ALL USEFUL								*VERY USEFUL*
"No, this is not correct. You should say: 'Lilia *is* [stressed] from Guatemala'."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"Where is Lilia from?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"Lilia *what* [stressed] from Guatemala."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"She is from Guatemala. From what city?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"Is from."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"OK, Lilia is from Guatemala."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

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NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 3

T: How many of these people have children?... How many of these people have children, [pause, then points to one of the students] Emil?
S: Just one.
T: Just one? Who?
S: Cynthia.
T: [Teacher signals to the student that a full sentence is needed].
S: In our class...
T: Complete sentence!
S: In our class ... In my [ah]...
T: On my sheet...
S: On my heet?
T: On my sheet!
S: On my sheet, there is just Cynthia are
T: is
S: is [pause] married
T: Only Cynthia is married. Oh, no! Only Cynthia....
S: Only **Cynthia have** children.

HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 3: **"Only Cynthia have children."**

(Please turn the page)

NOW, LISTEN TO THE AUDIO CORRECTIONS OF THE ERROR AND STATE THE USEFULNESS OF EACH OF THE CORRECTIONS ON A SCALE OF 1 TO 9, 1 BEING "NOT AT ALL USEFUL" AND 9 "VERY USEFUL". PLEASE USE THE ENTIRE SCALE IN MAKING YOUR DECISIONS.

	NOT AT ALL USEFUL							*VERY USEFUL*	

"Only Cynthia has children. Wow!" 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

"Only Cynthia *have* [stressed] children?" 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

"Cynthia has." 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

"Only Cynthia has children. Really? How many does she have?" 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

"We don't say: 'Only Cynthia *have* [stressed] children'. You should say: 'Only Cynthia *has* [stressed] children'." 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

"Who has children?" 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 4

S1: The space shuttle is made by American or by the Russian?
S2: I didn't understand…
S1: Because you take the space shuttle to the Moon, right?
S2: Yeah.
S1: But the space shuttle is made by the USA or by the Russian?
S2: We didn't understand who made the shuttle. We just **seated** in the shuttle and **fly** to the Moon.
S3: What…?
T: Ok, Mars then Sandu.

HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 4: **"We just seated in the shuttle and fly to the Moon."**

NOW, LISTEN TO THE AUDIO CORRECTIONS OF THE ERROR AND STATE THE USEFULNESS OF EACH OF THE CORRECTIONS ON A SCALE OF 1 TO 9, 1 BEING "NOT AT ALL USEFUL" AND 9 "VERY USEFUL". PLEASE USE THE ENTIRE SCALE IN MAKING YOUR DECISIONS.

	NOT AT ALL USEFUL							*VERY USEFUL*	
"When did you sit and fly? What are the past forms of these verbs?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"We sat and flew."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"Did you say you sat in the shuttle and flew to the Moon?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"No, not *seated* and *fly*. We *sat* [stressed] in the shuttle and *flew* [stressed] to the Moon."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"So, you just sat in the shuttle and flew to the Moon."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"You sat in the shuttle and flew to the Moon. How did that feel?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

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NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 5

T: [...] Put a hole in their argument. Ok, we'll ask Mustafa. Sandu, first question.
S1: What did you do last Saturday?
S2: Last Saturday, we arranged [eh] with 2 friends [pronounced *frendez*], Ek and another friend is not... who's not..., arranged to go **for Switzerland**.
S3: Switzerland?
S2: Yeah, Switzerland, yeah.
S1: Where in Switzerland?
S2: Geneva.

HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 5: **"We arranged to go for Switzerland."**

NOW, LISTEN TO THE AUDIO CORRECTIONS OF THE ERROR AND STATE THE USEFULNESS OF EACH OF THE CORRECTIONS ON A SCALE OF 1 TO 9, 1 BEING "NOT AT ALL USEFUL" AND 9 "VERY USEFUL". PLEASE USE THE ENTIRE SCALE IN MAKING YOUR DECISIONS.

	NOT AT ALL USEFUL							*VERY USEFUL*
"Where did you arrange to go to?"	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
"No, we don't say that. It's: 'We arranged to go *to* [stressed] Switzerland'."	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
"You arranged to go to Switzerland. Why Switzerland?"	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
"Oh, you arranged to go to Switzerland."	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
"We arranged to go *for* [stressed] Switzerland?"	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
"To Switzerland."	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 6

S1: Who saw first the monster?
S2: I think we saw it together.
S3: **How many legs has the monster?**
S2: We didn't see his… its legs.
S3: OK, the place where the…

HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 6: **"How many legs has the monster?"**

NOW, LISTEN TO THE AUDIO CORRECTIONS OF THE ERROR AND STATE THE USEFULNESS OF EACH OF THE CORRECTIONS ON A SCALE OF 1 TO 9, 1 BEING "NOT AT ALL USEFUL" AND 9 "VERY USEFUL". PLEASE USE THE ENTIRE SCALE IN MAKING YOUR DECISIONS.

	NOT AT ALL USEFUL								*VERY USEFUL*
"How many legs did the monster have? Great question!"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"Did the monster have."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"How many legs *has* [stressed] the monster – what's wrong with this question?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"How many legs did the monster have?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"You can not say: 'How many legs has the monster?' It's 'How many legs *did* [stressed] the monster *have* [stressed]'."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 7

T: So, what do you think – how many people are from Europe?
S1: From Europe, I think 3.
T: I think 3, very good! Who are they?
S1: Dimitriy, me, myself, and…
T: Complete sentence, please!
S2: And me…
T: How many… Who are from Europe?
S2: Dimitriy is from Russia. I'm from Romania and…
S1: **Arkadiy from** Ukraine.
S2: **Arkadiy from** Ukraine.

HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 7: "**Arkadiy from Ukraine.**"

NOW, LISTEN TO THE AUDIO CORRECTIONS OF THE ERROR AND STATE THE USEFULNESS OF EACH OF THE CORRECTIONS ON A SCALE OF 1 TO 9, 1 BEING "NOT AT ALL USEFUL" AND 9 "VERY USEFUL". PLEASE USE THE ENTIRE SCALE IN MAKING YOUR DECISIONS.

	NOT AT ALL USEFUL							*VERY USEFUL*	
"Ehm. Arkadiy is from Ukraine. OK."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"Arkadiy is from Ukraine. What city in Ukraine are you from?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"Is from"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"No, you should say: 'Arkadiy *is* [stressed] from Ukraine'."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"What's wrong with this sentence? Is there something missing?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"Where is Arkadiy from, again?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 8

T: But I am OK. [pause] Any other questions?
S: How often do you visit your home country?
T: Very good question! How often do I visit … Not as often as I want… I think on the average [ah] every 3 years. On average.
S: Do you [ah] have **relative** in the Philippines?
T: Yes, I do. My mother is in the Philippines and my brothers and sisters are in the Philippines. I have brothers and sisters here too. My family is divided into two – the people in Canada and the people in the Philippines. [pause] and I have one sister in Saudi Arabia.

HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 8: **"Do you have relative in the Philippines?"**

NOW, LISTEN TO THE AUDIO CORRECTIONS OF THE ERROR AND STATE THE USEFULNESS OF EACH OF THE CORRECTIONS ON A SCALE OF 1 TO 9, 1 BEING "NOT AT ALL USEFUL" AND 9 "VERY USEFUL". PLEASE USE THE ENTIRE SCALE IN MAKING YOUR DECISIONS.

	NOT AT ALL USEFUL								*VERY USEFUL*
"No, it's: 'Do you have *relatives* [stressed] in the Philippines?'"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"Relatives."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"Do you have relatives in the Philippines? Interesting question!"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"You have more than one relative. It's supposed to be in plural. How do we form plural in English?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"Do you have relatives in the Philippines?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

S1: A training?
T: A training.
S1: So, you rent the plane?
S2: No, not that plane. We rent the plane from Montreal to Houston, and…
S1: And when you arrived there you **rent** another plane?
S2: There, no, no, no, no. There it was a training.
S1: Training…
T: A training plane – they didn't have to pay.
S1: It's a special plane.
S2: OK, OK.
T: OK?
S2: OK.

HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 9: **"And when you arrived there you <u>rent</u> another plane?"**

NOW, LISTEN TO THE AUDIO CORRECTIONS OF THE ERROR AND STATE THE USEFULNESS OF EACH OF THE CORRECTIONS ON A SCALE OF 1 TO 9, 1 BEING "NOT AT ALL USEFUL" AND 9 "VERY USEFUL". PLEASE USE THE ENTIRE SCALE IN MAKING YOUR DECISIONS.

	NOT AT ALL USEFUL	*VERY USEFUL*

"You *what* [stressed] another plane?" 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

"Oh, you rented another plane when you arrived there?" 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

"*Rent* [stressed] is incorrect. When you *arrived* [stressed] there you *rented* [stressed] another plane." 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

"You rented another plane. What kind was it?" 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

"OK, so when you arrived there you rented another plane." 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

"Rented." 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 10

T: When you tell us about your partner, please stress the most important words. Emil, could you tell us about your partner? Just listen... Just the most important information – not everything – what you think is important.
S: Is Mars, is single, is student
T: This is...
S: This is Mars
T: Mars!
S: Yes, it is from China. Sh/ He's from China. He is an international student [pause] at full time.
T: He is a full-time international student.
S: He is a full-time international student.
S: **He speak** Chinese and English.

HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 10: **"He speak** Chinese and English."

NOW, LISTEN TO THE AUDIO CORRECTIONS OF THE ERROR AND STATE THE USEFULNESS OF EACH OF THE CORRECTIONS ON A SCALE OF 1 TO 9, 1 BEING "NOT AT ALL USEFUL" AND 9 "VERY USEFUL". PLEASE USE THE ENTIRE SCALE IN MAKING YOUR DECISIONS.

	NOT AT ALL USEFUL							*VERY USEFUL*	
"He speaks Chinese and English."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"What languages did you say he speaks?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"He speaks."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"He speaks Chinese and English. Great job!"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"He *speak* [stressed] Chinese and English?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"We don't say: 'He speak'. It's 'He *speaks* [stressed] Chinese and English.'"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

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NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 11

S1: Oblique should be like this?... Yeah.
S2: How much is the angel?
T: Angle.
S2: Yeah, angle. **How much** is the angle?
S3: 20 degrees.
S2: 20 degrees. From right side or left side? [pause] From right side or left side?
S3: From left.
S2: Pardon me?
S3: From left.
T: From the left side.
S2: Left side.
S4: Which is the left side?
T: His left!

HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 11: **"How much is the angle?"**

NOW, LISTEN TO THE AUDIO CORRECTIONS OF THE ERROR AND STATE THE USEFULNESS OF EACH OF THE CORRECTIONS ON A SCALE OF 1 TO 9, 1 BEING "NOT AT ALL USEFUL" AND 9 "VERY USEFUL". PLEASE USE THE ENTIRE SCALE IN MAKING YOUR DECISIONS.

	NOT AT ALL USEFUL							*VERY USEFUL*	
"What."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"What is the angle? That's an important question – great!"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"We don't say: 'How much'. It's '*What* [stressed] is the angle?'"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"*How much* [stressed] is the angle?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"What is the angle?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

NOW WATCH VIDEO CLIP 12

T: Common! [pause] There!
S1: Me?
T: Next! Next!
S1: Next...
T: Sandu!
S1: Sandu, come here.
T: Sandy will give us great instructions. Maybe our bridge will collapse.
S2: Maybe.
S2: Now, separate of what you designed over there, you must take a green cube and... Yes, take a green cube. That's a good one. And put it in [eh] ... Just thinking...
You better to put it **in the back of** the green bridge.

HERE IS THE ERROR AGAIN:

Statement 12: **"(You better to) put it in the back of the green bridge."**

NOW, LISTEN TO THE AUDIO CORRECTIONS OF THE ERROR AND STATE THE USEFULNESS OF EACH OF THE CORRECTIONS ON A SCALE OF 1 TO 9, 1 BEING "NOT AT ALL USEFUL" AND 9 "VERY USEFUL". PLEASE USE THE ENTIRE SCALE IN MAKING YOUR DECISIONS.

	NOT AT ALL USEFUL								*VERY USEFUl*
"We should put it behind the green bridge?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"You should say '*behind*' [stressed]. Put it *behind* [stressed] the green bridge."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"Put it *where* [stressed]?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"Put it behind the green bridge. Why not in front of the bridge?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"Behind."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
"Put it behind the green bridge."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9