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The Effectiveness of Corrective Feedback in Language

Learning

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be accepted in partial fulfillment for the requirements of the degree of

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Dedication
To my TOEFL Teacher
Nara Avtandilyan

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List of Abbreviations

EFL - English as a Foreign Language.....	11
EEC - Experimental English Classes.....	11
DEP - Department of English Programs.....	11
L2 – Second Language	13
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EEC - Experimental English Classes

DEP - Department of English Programs

L2 – Second Language

CF –Corrective Feedback

SLA - Second Language acquisition

SLL – Second Language Learning

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Abstract

One of the fundamental issues in EFL education concerns how a teacher can best respond to his/her students' errors and the extent to which teacher's feedback may promote students achievement. A significant issue in error correction addresses the types of corrective feedback that will help students to develop and improve language skills. Therefore this study was designed to investigate the effect of teacher's corrective feedback on student's achievement on speaking skills. The data was collected through pre and post tests and observations, which served as the basis of the study. The purpose of the pre and post tests and observations was to find out the type and frequency of corrective feedback that teachers use in their classroom.

The research was conducted in the Experimental English classes (EEC) in the Department of English Programs (DEP). The aim of experiment was to investigate the impact of the corrective feedback on students learning in Experimental English Classes. Two groups of students were given a pretest (oral proficiency test) to assure their proficiency level before the treatment. Then the group received its respective treatment. One group received immediate feedback and the other group delayed feedback. At the end of the experiment the participants were given a posttest in order to measure the effects of the feedback techniques.

The statistical data analysis suggests that there was same change in scores over time for the two different groups, and there was no significant difference between the effectiveness of immediate and delayed methods, though both of these methods (immediate and delayed) caused significant and positive change in speaking test scores across the two different time periods. The analysis of observation showed that *recast* was the most frequently used type of feedback in the Armenian EFL classroom.

Chapter 1: Introduction

“Learning is a process in which success comes by proceeding from mistakes, by using mistakes to obtain feedback from the environment and with that feedback to make new efforts which successively more closely approximate desired goals”.

(Brown, 1994, p. 204)

1.1 Justification

Lightbown and Spada, 2002, p. 172 state that, “Feedback is any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect” Feedback is an essential part of education and training programmers. It helps learners to raise their awareness of strengths and areas for improvement, and identify actions to be taken to improve performance. Error correction is one way of providing feedback. When a language learner makes an error in the target language, the instructor has two choices: to address it or to ignore it and continue.

Over the last few decades corrective feedback has been the center of interest in classroom language learning (Lightbown and Spada, 2002). It is a reacting pedagogical strategy that emerges when the teacher identifies an error. Different scholars give different justification of providing corrective feedback. According to Brown feedback must be more than encouragement. He believes that feedback should be responsive, which may allow learners experience the effect of what they taught (Brown, 1998).

1.2 Significance

There are legitimate arguments both for and against addressing errors. By having their errors addressed on the spot, students realize that an error has been made, and may even desire such correction (Cathcart & Olsen, 1976). However, there is certainly no guarantee that the learners have grasped the meaning nor understood the gravity of the error. At the same time, when the learners acknowledge the error, listen to an explanation by the teacher, and repair the error, the flow of communication in the target language might be interrupted (Chaudron, 1988). Furthermore, if language learners constantly receive corrective feedback, they may become discouraged, frustrated, and even lose enthusiasm for speaking in the Target Language (TL). On the other hand, for the sake of communication, a question arises whether errors should be ignored or not. Schmidt and Frota (1986) suggest that, interrupting L2 dialogue in the classroom to correct an error is an influential feedback, which allows errors to go uncorrected. The problem of this issue is that the students may assume that the spoken L2 is accurate. At the same time, if errors are going to be corrected, then the language teacher should approach errors with a reasoned and consistent strategy that is to use consistent and reasonable method, and have a defined plan in mind.

1.3 Statement of the Purpose

What type of feedback is used in the Armenian EFL classroom? What is the relationship between corrective feedback and students' achievement in language learning? What kind of corrective feedback has an impact on student's achievement?

These are some of the questions addressed in the following research study. Therefore the purpose of this study is to investigate the types and the frequency of corrective feedback being used in the Armenian classroom, to investigate the extent to which corrective feedback may help students to improve and develop speaking skills, and finally to see what kind of corrective feedback is more effective (immediate vs. delayed).

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The purpose of this literature review is to examine the theory and research that have addressed the issue of corrective feedback on students' achievement in a second language (L2) classroom context and the effectiveness of some selected types of corrective feedback in oral language learning. The most commonly used term for identifying errors and providing feedback is corrective feedback.

Before discussing feedback and its types, it is important to discuss language learning process and making mistakes, especially in oral production. Since they are tightly woven with giving and receiving feedback, this is presented in the first section. The second section deals with the discussion of feedback and its role in language learning. The third section is concerned with defining errors, their sources and the process of fossilization. Corrective feedback and its types are presented in the fourth and fifth sections. Finally, studies on teachers' corrective feedback conclude the literature review. This will bring us to the purpose of the present study.

2.1 Language Learning Process and Making Mistakes in Oral Production

Before defining the concept of corrective feedback and its types, it will be appropriate to understand what human learning is, since this is where the answers to all the questions on language acquisition are. It is necessary for language teachers to be aware of second language acquisition; they need to recognize errors and their types as well as to know the sources of errors.

Second Language Learning (SLA) is a complex phenomenon. There are many factors that can influence successful language learning, e.g. academic or special training. However, very few people achieve fluency in a foreign language within the classroom context. SLA deals with the nature of learning a second language, with the process of learning, and with learner and social practice. Teachers may have a good practical understanding of learning second languages, but practice and activities, which help learners to learn language, are not enough to help teachers and other professionals understand the process of learning. No one can tell us “how to learn a foreign language without trying” (Brown, 1994, p. 204).

According to Brown (1994, p. 204), “human learning is fundamentally a process that involves the making of mistakes”. In general human beings learn by making mistakes and learning from those - at first from big and more frequent ones, then by gradually decreasing their number and by the feedback obtained from the environment. Language learning is not an exception; all learners go through the same process. First, they produce unacceptable forms of the target language and then step by step correct themselves before mastering the target language. Not making mistakes “indeed will even impede that process if they do not commit errors and then benefit in turn from various forms of feedback on those errors” (Brown, 1994).

2.1.1 Oral Production

Luoma (2004) sees speaking skills as an important part of the curriculum in language teaching. The focus of foreign language education is communication, and oral language is central to the teaching of foreign languages at all levels. For many years now, teachers have been moving away from teaching language in isolation in favor of teaching

language through authentic tasks reflecting real-life situations. However, the issues surrounding how a teacher should give feedback on second language learners' speaking abilities have not been explored in depth. Thus, oral language in the foreign language classroom is the most problematic of all the skills to give feedback on (National Communication Association, 2005; Assessment Resource Library, 1998). That's why this research gives due place to giving feedback on speaking skills.

Speaking a foreign language entails making errors, and their number and nature depend on students' proficiency level and the stage they are at while studying. Therefore, making mistakes is an acceptable and useful part of the learning process. And if making mistakes is a necessary part of language learning, then feedback is an inseparable part of the teaching process. In support of this idea, Gipps (1995) believes that learning is supported by a whole range of processes, but an important one is feedback. He also argues that feedback is a critical element or strategy that supports learning.

From the discussion above it becomes clear that mistakes and errors are inseparable parts of learning a foreign language, especially in oral production. Feedback related to those mistakes, also has an important role in teaching a second or foreign language. Therefore the next section will discuss what feedback is.

2.2. Feedback

“Feedback is any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect”.

(Lightbown and Spada, 2002, p. 172)

In relation to the feedback, Celce - Murcia (2001) holds that “In any communicative exchange, speakers derive from their listeners information on the

reception and comprehension of their message...”. She noted that according to language teachers, feedback informs learners about the accuracy of both their formal target language production and their other classroom behavior and knowledge. As for learners, they find that feedback repeats their utterances, and involves in repeating their interlocutors’ utterances, which can be seen as the source of improvement in both target language development and other subject matter knowledge.

Based on Chaudron’s (1988) definition, “feedback is any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance”. When a language learner says, “He go to school every day”, corrective feedback can be explicit, for example, “no, you should say goes, not go” or implicit “yes he goes to school every day”, and may or may not include metalinguistic information, for example, “don’t forget to make the verb agree with the subject” (Lightbown and Spada, 2002, 171-172).

Brookhard, (2008) pinpoints that probably the hardest decision to make about feedback is the amount to provide. A natural inclination is to want to ‘fix’ everything you see. That’s the teacher’s eye view, where the target is perfect achievement of all learning goals. However, for real learning, what makes the difference is a usable amount of information that connects with something students already know and takes them from that point to the next level. She suggests that teacher’s feedback should give students a clear understanding of what to do next on a point or points that they can see they need to work on. This requires that the teachers know their students. That is, the teacher should try to see things from the students’ viewpoint.

Brown (1988) aptly notes that feedback has to be fully responsive, which may allow students to be aware of their strengths and weaknesses in the learning process. He also believes that feedback must be more than encouragement, since the blank automatic

encouragement is often pointless. He supports the idea that an authentic response from the teacher provides some indication to learners of the effectiveness of their utterances. One of the successful keys to successful learning lies in the feedback. The effective feedback allows the learner to continue attempting to get a message.

However, the language teacher needs to know that too much negative feedback - a stream of interactions, corrections and overt attention to malformations often leads learners to minimize their attempts at communication. Students decide that so much is wrong with their production that there is little hope to get anything right. Alternatively, too much positive cognitive feedback – willingness of the teacher – hearer to let errors go uncorrected, to indicate understanding when understanding may not have occurred-serves to reinforce the errors of the speaker-learner. The result can be fossilization of such errors (Brown, 1994). From the discussion above it becomes obvious that different scholars define feedback in their own way. Though they have almost similar viewpoints about feedback and its importance in the language learning I am going to follow the Brown's discussion about feedback and its importance in the language learning. As he states feedback may allow students to be aware of their strengths and weaknesses. The most important point that he mentions is that the feedback must be more than encouragement that is the teacher's feedback should not be automatically provided. It should be effective and meaningful. He also speaks about the amount of positive and negative feedback and their results on students' language learning. Based on his discussion, I came to a conclusion that before entering the classroom language teacher should prepare not only his/her lesson for that particular day but also the type and the amount of feedback which he/she is going to use during the lesson. That is why this study is concentrated only on two types of feedback (immediate vs. delayed), the amount of which is planned and organized by the researcher before getting to the classroom.

2.3 Errors

2.3.1 Defining Errors

‘...errors are no sin, but an integral part of language development’.
(Hendrickson 1978, as cited in McDonough, 2002).

Brown (1994) makes clear distinctions between a slip, a mistake and an error. He thinks a mistake is “a performance error that is either a random guess or a slip in that it is a failure to utilize a known system correctly” (p.124). In other words, a mistake is a divergence from an accepted form in Standard English. Making this kind of mistake does not imply that the student did not know the correct equivalent. Brown considers mistakes by native speakers “some sort of breaking down in speech”. Slips are different from errors of a second or foreign language learner. An error is “a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a speaker reflecting the inter-language competence of the learner” (Brown, 1994, p.205). Edge (1989, cited in Harmer, 2003) expresses a similar point of view. According to Edge, mistakes can be divided into three distinct categories:

1. Slips: mistakes that can be easily corrected by students themselves once they are pointed out to them.
2. Errors: mistakes which students cannot correct themselves and which require explanation from the teacher.
3. Attempts: occurrences when students try to say something but fail since they do not yet have the required knowledge to produce the correct form in the target language.

Corder (1967) was among the first applied linguists who pointed out the significance of the learner’s errors for teachers (as cited in Trapped-Lomax, 2002). One of his key

insights was that learners' errors are evidence of learning. Errors are defined as a system of language and are themselves systematic. Another insight was that teachers unconsciously monitor learners' error almost continuously to construct a mental image of each learner's language learning process. Based on the above discussion, Corder identified four ways in which teachers can make use of learners' errors:

1. indicators of the difficulty level of an activity or an exercise.
2. indicators of learning success or failure: fewer errors of a specific kind may signal to the teacher that learning has taken place.
3. diagnostic devices: By paying attention to the types of errors made and classifying them, teachers develop an image of learners' interlanguage: This may enable teachers to sort individual learners into groups of roughly similar proficiency, and to decide what to teach next.
4. means of assessment: Part of teacher's evaluation of a learner's language proficiency is based on their errors (Corder, 1967, p.188).

Corder claims that teachers may categorize the errors they perceive in different ways, such as errors of omission (where some element is missing), addition, (where some extraneous element is present), ordering (where the elements are in the wrong order) and selection (where the wrong item has been chosen). Teachers also may use linguistic categories - phonological, grammatical and lexico-semantic in order to classify the errors they perceive. In other words they may classify errors as part of the learner's interlanguage system.

Another interesting division of how we can distinguish errors from mistakes is proposed by Ellis (2003). He suggests distinguishing errors and mistakes by checking the consistency of learners' performance. For example, if a learner constantly uses 'go' instead of 'went', this shows lack of knowledge, which Ellis calls an error. However if a

learner uses 'went' sometimes and other times 'go' we can assume that he/she has the knowledge of the correct form and is slipping up occasionally. In this case, this is a mistake. Another way to identify whether the deviation is a mistake or an error is by directly asking learners to correct their own utterance. If they are unable to do so, then the deviations are errors, but if learners are successful, then the deviations are mistakes (Ellis, 2003). Errors can also be classified in accordance with their seriousness. Some errors are considered more serious than others. Errors that impede understanding require more profound treatment and attention from teachers.

Based on the above definitions by Brown (1994) and Ellis (2003), it is possible to classify errors into two categories: errors, which show gaps in the learners' knowledge, and mistakes, which reflect occasional lapses in utterance. The former occur because the learner is unable to utilize the correct form, the latter occur since at particular instances the learner is unable to perform what he/she knows.

In a number of studies (King Tsang, 2004, Lyster and Ranta, 1997, Panova and Lyster, 2002) errors made by students have been classified into three major groups according to their meaning: grammatical (utterances containing any kind of grammatical or structural errors), pronunciation/phonological (utterance containing errors in pronunciation, stress or intonation) and vocabulary/lexical (utterances containing any kind of vocabulary or lexical error). In this section, several scholars define errors and their differences. The next section will discuss the sources of errors. It will address the question 'where all these errors or mistakes come from'.

2.3.2. Sources of Errors

In the early stages of second language learning, learners' errors are transferred from their native language and are called *inter-lingual transfer*. It is not always clear whether the error is the result of transfer from the native language or not. However, if the teacher is familiar with the native language, it can help him/her to identify the source of errors, the error which is transferred from the native language into the target language is called an interlingual error (Brown, 1994).

Brown (1994, p. 214) has found that the early stage of language learning is characterized by an *interlingual transfer*. However when learners have begin to acquire the new system of a new language, *intralingual* transfer takes place, such as transfer within the target language itself. When learners progress in the second language their previous experience begins to include structures within the target language itself.

Another major source of error is the *context of learning*, such as classroom with the teacher. In the classroom the teacher or the textbook may give wrong directions or instructions. That is to say, students often make errors because of the teacher's incorrect use of language or because of faulty presentation of a structure or word in the textbook. It is very important to know what the sources of errors are. If errors are not corrected they become fossilized. In the next section the fossilization of errors will be discussed.

2.3.3. Fossilization of Errors

“Fossilization is the state of affairs that exists when the learner ceases to elaborate the interlanguage in some respect, no matter how long there is exposure, new data or new technique”.

(Salinker in McLaughlin, 1991, p.61)

McLaughlin states that fossilization is the result of language transfer. However, there are other factors that can result in fossilization. For example, when someone learns how to communicate he may develop the wrong impression that what he learnt is enough and may stop learning a language. According to Vigil and Oller (1976 in Brown 1994) fossilization is a factor of positive and negative effect and cognitive feedback. They claim that there are two types of information transfer. The first refers to the information about the affective relationship between source and audience and the second is the cognitive information, such as fact, beliefs, and suppositions. Affective information refers to kinesic mechanisms, such as gestures, tone of voice and facial expression, whereas cognitive information refers to linguistic devices, such as sounds, phrases, structures and discourse. Vigil and Oller gave good examples of affective and cognitive feedback:

Affective feedback: 1. Positive: I like it (more of the same); 2. Neutral: waiting.... (reaction undecided); 3. Negative: I don't like it (try something else)

Cognitive feedback: 1. Positive: I understand (message and direction are clear); 2. Neutral: still processing... undecided; 3. Negative: I don't understand (message and direction are not clear) (as cited in Brown, 1994, p.218).

The combination of these two major types of feedback is possible. For example, the audience can indicate positive affective feedback but give neutral or negative cognitive feedback in order to indicate that the message itself is clear. Vigil and Oller suggest that a positive affective response is imperative to the learner's desire to continue attempts to communicate. Negative or neutral feedback with the positive affective feedback encourages learners to 'try again', to restate and to reformulate. Positive feedback in the cognitive dimension will result in reinforcement of the forms used and a conclusion on the part of the learners that their speech is well-formed. Brown (1994, p. 218). States that, "Fossilized items are those grammatical items in the speech of a learner

that gain first positive affective feedback then positive cognitive feedback, reinforcing an incorrect form of language”

As Brown states it is important for a language teacher to know all the issues concerning feedback, such as difference between error and mistakes, sources of errors, as well as why the errors may be fossilized.

After describing feedback in general, it is also important to define corrective feedback. The next section will define corrective feedback as well as discuss whether learners’ errors should be corrected or not.

2.4. Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback is defined as “any utterance, produced by a teacher or learner, that either initiates repair of an incorrect utterance, or contrast with a learner’s incorrect utterance” (Snyder 2000). Repair is a process through which trouble sources in interaction are determined. Corrective feedback has been viewed as other-initiated repair. Without corrective feedback, the individual might engage in behavior which he or she feels is appropriate, but which actually is viewed as unacceptable.

Corrective feedback is significant for L2 development because it provides the learner with an opportunity to reflect on the utterance and consider other possibilities. When corrective feedback provides the correct form, learners have the opportunity to contrast their own production with that of another. Corrective feedback that does not provide the correct form may prompt learners to utilize their own resources. In both cases, corrective feedback may facilitate L2 development. However there are always debates among scholars concerning the role and necessity of corrective feedback. The debate about corrective feedback focuses, on the one hand, on concerns about whether errors

should be corrected, and if so, how and when they should be treated, and on the other, on whether feedback is of any use in language learning. As Brown states (1994) feedback has to be responsive. It should give students an opportunity to experience the effect of what they learn. Brown believes that feedback must be more than encouragement. One of the explanations that he gives is that corrective feedback may serve the function of making learners notice the mismatch between the input they are exposed to and their output. The mismatch may be enhanced in an implicit or explicit way. Implicit corrective feedback refers to ways which indicate that the learner's output is somehow incorrect, and needs to be reformulated. Explicit corrective feedback involves the explanation of a formal aspect after an error has been made. In light of this, Lightbown and Spada (2002) analyzed the effect of explicit corrective feedback in an L2 classroom. The results showed that teaching of formal aspects in a communicative setting positively contribute to the learners' linguistic accuracy.

Another point of view can be found in Doff (1988, in Ancker 2000). He argues that with error correction there is no best way: teachers must be flexible and sensitive in their approach, taking into account the ability of each student. In addition to these, Ancker (2000) states that error correction remains one of the most contentious and misunderstood issues in the second and foreign language teaching profession. The role error correction plays in foreign language teaching and learning has remained controversial and variable treated at different times and by different teaching methodologies. The emphasis has shifted depending on the learning objectives, the educational and cultural background of a learner, and the approach and teaching methodology utilized by the teacher. For example, "in the natural approach where there is an emphasis on creating a friendly and interesting classroom atmosphere with low affective filter learning" (Nunan, 2001, p.188), teachers are not supposed to correct

students' errors. In this approach, where students may respond in either the first or second language, their errors are not corrected.

Hendrickson (1978, in McDonough, 2002) believes that one of the strongest issues of language pedagogy in the language classroom is correction and the question 'How to offer correction?' is the frequent topic of many language teachers. He gives a clear explanation of the question and summarizes methodological principles and the research done on corrective feedback. He raised five important questions about corrective feedback, which remain as important today as they were then. The questions are as follows:

1. Should learners' errors be corrected?
 - Premium on accuracy;
 - Cost in terms of stopping communicative focus;
 - Provision of correct forms.
2. When should errors be corrected?
 - Immediate?
 - Delayed?
3. Which errors should be corrected?
 - Are some more debilitating than others?
 - Are some more lucrative than others in terms of learning outcomes?
 - Are some more significant than others?
4. How should errors be corrected?
 - On-record and off-record correction;
 - Giving the correct form;
 - Inviting the correct form;

- Waiting;
- Giving progress clues.

5. Who should do the correcting?

- Teacher/coach
- Person who committed the error
- Another student
- Some combinations (Hendrickson, 1978, in McDonough, 2002, p. 145).

After his paper was published, the attitude towards error correction has changed. Maturational view of interlanguage development suggests that “errors are no sin, but an integral part of language development” (McDonough, 2002, p.146). In other words “learners will grow out of errors”. On the other hand, such a maturation view may not imply imperviousness to feedback: an interactional view of maturation would see a role for knowledge of results. There are other researchers who support this view. For example, Piaget’s theory of cognitive development suggests that various kinds of encounters with intellectual problems encourage a maturation timetable of development to the stage of being able to handle formal logical representations of problems. On the other hand Cohen (in McDonough, 2002, p.146) defines situations in which correction could be either useful or not.

As current research is concentrated on oral feedback, and the researcher needs to assess students spoken language, it is also appropriate to talk about the assessment of spoken language. Therefore the next section will consider the issues concerning the assessment of spoken language.

2.4.1. Debates Over Corrective Feedback

There has been considerable interest in CF in SLA on both theoretical and pedagogical grounds. On the theoretical side there has been a debate over whether CF, which is a type of negative evidence, is necessary, or even beneficial, for language acquisition. Those who argue against CF claim that positive evidence alone is sufficient for learners to acquire a second language (Krashen, 1982, Schwartz, 1993) and that negative evidence has no use and may even have a harmful effect on interlanguage development (Truscott, 1996). Krashen (1982) suggests that the language which is truly useful to the learner is unconsciously acquired by understanding language to which the learner is exposed. It has even been suggested that formally “learned” language is often not of use in real situations later and that concentration on formal correction and learning may be counter-productive. Krashen suggests the following methodological principle: if a student makes a mistake, the teacher should respond, not necessarily with a “correction”, but should try to expose the student to language just above the student’s current level of English – language which, he suggests, is exactly the language which they are ripe to add to their own language reserve. What Krashen is suggesting is that, if the teacher responds naturally, reformulating, students are exposed immediately to language which they will understand, and which is on the edge of their own current repertoire. Based on Krashen’s affective filter hypothesis, learners should be relaxed, self-confident and motivated in order for learning to take place. He claimed that error correction can create tension, demotivate students, and thus may disturb the natural flow of learning (Harhady & Delshad, 2006, p.39).The satisfaction of successful communication will relax the students and open the student to real, long-term learning. Based on the above mentioned facts, Krashen’s recommendations can be summarized as follows:

1. The teacher should focus on the meaning rather than the form of language.
2. Structural grading and error correction should be avoided.
3. The “lowering of the affective filter” or the establishment of positive attitude in the classroom atmosphere will facilitate learning.

Those who advocate CF, on the other hand, argue that negative evidence plays a facilitative and perhaps even crucial role in acquisition. Long’s (1996) “Interaction hypothesis” claims that implicit negative feedback, arising from negotiation for meaning, provides an opportunity for learners to attend to linguistic form. Schmidt’s (1995) “noticing hypothesis” suggests that negative feedback helps learners to notice the gap between interlanguage forms and target forms, and ‘noticing the gap’ has been hypothesized to assist interlanguage development.

From the pedagogical standpoint, CF has been the focus of a number of inquiries into classroom teaching and learning. The earliest studies in the 1970s present purely descriptive findings of teachers’ error treatment in a variety of classroom settings (Chaudron, 1988). One common finding among these earlier studies is that teachers’ error correction occurs frequently, irrespective of pedagogical focus and classroom setting (Hendrickson, 1978), and that error treatment is desired by most L2 learners (Chaudron, 1988). These studies, however, also reveal that teachers’ provision of CF is often arbitrary, individual, ambiguous and unsystematic, which in turn invites the question as to whether error correction in the classroom is of any value (Long, 1977, cited in Han, 2001). Therefore, the task of the teacher is to differentiate the optimal tension between positive and negative feedback: providing enough positive feedback to encourage students to continue communication, but not so many that crucial errors remain unnoticed. A language teacher also should call attention to those crucial errors, but at the same time he/she should avoid discouraging the learner from attempting to speak at all.

In this paragraph we have discussed and analyzed the role and usefulness of corrective feedback, and so now let us address the issue of the types of corrective feedback.

2.4.2. Oral Correction

As this study is based on oral correction, let us look at what Cohen (1992, p. 147) suggests for oral correction. He thinks correction of oral errors would have limited or no effect if:

1. Learners are not focused on the form of their message because they are busy communicating its content.
2. Learners do not have enough time to consider the correction since such consideration would be at the expense of the activity the class is engaged in.
3. Learners do not have adequate knowledge of the area being corrected to benefit from the correction, and the teacher or peer doing the correction is unaware of this.
4. Learners have too little knowledge about how the language works to know what question to ask to get clarification, or the teacher asks for clarification but find that they do not understand the response.
5. Learners' current level of proficiency is not high enough to understand the teacher's explanation of what they did wrong.

On the other hand, McDonough thinks oral correction would be most likely to have an impact when:

1. Learners are ready for them and have adequate knowledge about the structures involved.

2. Learners have time to digest the corrections.
3. Learners write down the correct form in a notebook – possibly in a special section for that kind of information.
4. Learners verify the correct form with an informant at a later time (2002, p.147).

Recent theories on language acquisition and teaching methodology support the position that not all errors should be corrected and the ones that are corrected should be corrected with care in order not to demotivate learners but help them get rid of those errors (Krashen, 1982).

SLA research into Corrective Feedback has been primarily concerned with oral CF in relation to theoretical claims about the role of input and interaction (Gass & Mackey, 2007) and focus on form (Long, 1996). There is now growing evidence that oral CF, as a focus-on-form technique, facilitates interlanguage development, although there is less agreement about the effects of different types of oral CF (Ellis, 2006). At the same time Long's interaction hypothesis (Long, 2006) proposes that second language learning is assisted through interactional processes. Long (1996, p.451) suggests that this is because of the role of interaction in connecting "input, and output in productive ways". The negotiation of meaning and recasts are some tools for interactional feedback. These two processes can supply corrective feedback which will help learners know that their utterances were problematic.

Within classroom research on feedback there are also differences: in some classrooms the primary focus is on form, while others are more meaning-focused. Over the past few decades, the focus of classroom instruction has shifted from an emphasis on language forms to attention to functional language within communicative contexts. Focus on form has been defined by Long (1998) as interactional moves directed at raising

learner awareness of forms, including linguistic elements (words, collocations, grammatical structures, pragmatic patterns, and so on), in context, as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning, or communication. Form-focused instruction can indeed increase learner's levels of attainment, and here the grammatical explanation, discussion of rules is not justified. Based on Long's definition of focus on form, feedback provided during focus on form occurs in response to specific learner errors or concerns in meaning-focused communication. When triggered by learners' comprehension and production problems, interactional feedback such as recasts and negotiation fall under Long's definition of focus on form. Ellis (2001) also provides a definition of form-focused instruction. Ellis describes form-focused instruction as "any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form" (2001, p.1-2) and notes that incidental focus on form has received relatively little research attention.

According to Long, Lightbown and Spada (cited in Brown, 1990) error treatment and focus on language forms appear to be most effective when incorporated into a communicative, learner-centered curriculum and least effective when error correction is a dominant pedagogical feature, occupying the focal attention of students in the classroom. Here, there arises a question, how should the language teacher approach error treatment in the communicative classroom? And the question of the place of error correction has become more and more important.

In the last three paragraphs we have defined and analyzed the role and usefulness of corrective feedback, and now let us turn to the types of corrective feedback.

2.5. Types of Feedback

2.5.1. “Recast” as the most popular feedback strategy

Lyster and Ranta (1997), working in French school classes in Canada, conducted a series of observational studies comparing the forms of oral class correction by teacher with the only available indication of whether the students had taken the correction on board, which was their uptake of it in their next turn of speech (as cited in McDonough, 2002). They classify feedback into seven categories:

1. Explicit correction-teacher gives correct form
2. Recast- teacher reformulates student’s attempt
3. Clarification request-teacher asks a follow up question
4. Metalinguistic feedback - teacher talks about the error, perhaps using grammatical language
5. Elicitation – teacher stops and asks the student to say correct form
6. Repetition-sometimes with highlighting by intonation
7. Multiple – a mixture of the above (Lyster and Ranta, 1997 in McDonough, 2002).

They also cover six different kinds of uptake, which is...:

1. Repetition
2. Incorporation
3. Self-repair
4. Peer-repair
5. Hesitation
6. Partial repair.

The results of their study showed that the most popular feedback strategy was recasting (taking the student's utterance and reformulating it). The researchers came to a conclusion that recast is more natural and less forceful. They believe that learners benefit when there is less disruptive reformulation, which allows the learners to use more language. This is the aim of many teachers, because otherwise the lesson can become a confusing series of interruption. Another possible conclusion that the researchers suggest is that the teachers do not accept the immediate uptake measure as an indication of learning. However the types of feedback that most often provoked an indication of uptake were elicitation, metalinguistic discussion, clarification request and repetition. All these types together can be called 'negotiation of form', leading for more frequently student-generated repair. (Lyster and Ranta, 1997 in McDonough, 2002). The researcher divided the errors into three types: Grammatical, Lexical, and Phonological. Types involving negotiation of form were superior to recasts.

2.5.2. Positive vs Negative Feedback

According to Askew (2000) feedback can be positive or negative. He states that positive feedback refers to judgments implying satisfaction with the learner's performance and negative feedback implies criticism and the need for changes. The impact of positive feedback may be to motivate students, for example by increasing understanding. Negative feedback may demotivate students, for example, by discouraging and giving unclear messages. He claims that "positive feedback" may prove to be helpful. Bostron (1963) reported that the positive or negative nature of feedback given to a learner after his or her speech affected the attitudes the speaker had toward that speech. Bostron concludes that while "good learners experience more positive changes than poor

learners...if our purpose is to build more positive attitudes, then feedback should be positive in nature” (p.57). This finding supports a point made by Dedmon (1967) that considerable evidence may be found which seriously questions the worth of overly negative criticism. Thus, while negative criticism may be needed to correct inappropriate speech behavior, it should be presented in such a way which does not punish students. Dedmon (1967) recommends that the teacher should begin with a good points first, then give possibilities for improvement and end on note of praise. At the same time feedback should be positive, constructive, and incisive and students should be made aware that constant improvement is required and should be verbally rewarded for unexpected improvement. The present study concentrates on two types of corrective feedback, which are discussed in the next paragraph more thoroughly.

2.5.3. Immediate vs. Delayed Feedback

We have just given instructions for some communicative task and are now ready to listen to the students and right away we hear a mistake. What to do? Should we ignore it or provide correction and explanation immediately? Or maybe it is better to draw everybody’s attention to it later, when everybody has finished talking. The outcomes of either ignoring or providing feedback can be controversial. Schachter (1994) has noted that lack of feedback may imply to a learner that a non-target like utterance was accurate, which in its turn can result in the fossilization of a mistake. On the other hand, if we stop and provide feedback in mid-speech when the learner is in the process of constructing and producing an utterance, we might disturb the flow of thought and discourage the student from continuing.

According to McClenaghan (1991), feedback has two important functions. First, it can motivate students, and second, it can provide information that they can use to correct or improve their learning. As Brookhard (2008) states the purpose of giving immediate feedback is to help students hear it and use it. Feedback needs to come while students are still mindful of the topic, assignment or performance in question. It needs to come while they are still thinking of the learning goal - as a learning goal, that is, something they are still striving for, not something they already did.

During the speech, the teacher will not want to interrupt each speaker every time an error is made, so it is useful to keep written notes of errors for later correction. The teacher may keep track of errors on a separate piece of paper. In this way the speaker can be alerted to any noticeable patterns of errors. The learner should be encouraged to make use of this feedback. This technique has proved to be effective in helping students to locate systematic errors, review corrective input, direct their own learning and note progress over time.

Dedmon (1967) makes the argument for immediate feedback after a speech or at the end of a class period based on the principle of learning that “learners learn best when they have immediate and valid knowledge of success or failure”. Zahorik (1987), for example, states that when students are told about the correctness of their answers, it helps them to alter their studying style, which then leads to improved achievement. Furthermore, according to Zahorik, immediacy of feedback is important because it provides students with information about how well they are doing. If the behavior is incorrect, the immediate feedback allows the learner to make corrective modifications and prevents continued practice of the incorrect behavior. On the other hand, if the behavior is correct, immediate feedback can motivate students to continue.

In general the teacher's principal role is to call attention to errors - on the spot or later - as inconspicuously as possible, giving learners the opportunity to progress on their own. However very often students do not remember the feedback that teacher gives during the class time. That is why Celce-Murcia (2001) suggests that teachers use audiocassette recorder. One advantage of recordings is the opportunity for peer and teacher feedback. This allows the students to review their own performance and try to progress by themselves. However the most useful feedback comes when the teacher and student listen to the recording and go over the errors together. The students can take cassette recordings home and review them.

Delayed feedback, may use audio or video tape. Celce-Murcia (2001) appeals to teachers to use the tape recorder as a means of allowing a student to progress on his own ... by listening to himself and testing his own diction, voice, quality and phrasing as he projects the thought, feeling and imagination involved in the selection.

After the discussion above, it becomes clear that the feedback is an essential part of education. It helps learners to maximize their potential at different stages of learning, raise their awareness of strengths and weaknesses, and identify actions to be taken to improve performance. Feedback can be seen as informal (for example in day-to-day encounters between teachers and students) or formal (for example as part of written text). However, "there is no clear dividing distinction between assessment and teaching in the area of giving feedback on learning" (Ramsden, 1992, p. 193).

2.6 Studies on Teacher's Corrective Feedback

A number of studies of classroom interaction have examined different aspects of corrective feedback provided by teachers. The question of whether there is a direct

relationship between feedback and L2 development has been the focus of recent interaction research, with generally positive results (Ellis, 2003). The majority of these studies have reported learning outcomes for interaction. A few studies have suggested that certain types of interactional feedback are more effective than others at promoting modified output by learners, although it should be noted that most of these studies have explored only the immediate effects of interactional feedback, and have not focused on longer-term learning. Lyster (1997), for example, investigated the relationship between teacher feedback and learner uptake. They suggested that among the feedback types they studied, recasts were the most frequently used but led to the least uptake.

Another study related to the issue of providing corrective feedback was done by Lyster and Ranta (1997). The study revealed that research questions for corrective feedback have not changed over the past 20 - 30 years. The questions are: "Should errors be corrected? If yes, how and when they should be corrected?" The data analysis revealed that teachers provide corrective feedback for 62% of all the errors produced by students. Of all utterances produced by the teacher in response to learner errors, 55% were found to lead to uptake of some type on the part of the learner. However, only 27% of the feedback utterance led to student repair. The total number of errors produced by students and the total number of repairs they produced; only 17% of total errors made by students was repaired in some way. The study also revealed that the most frequently type of feedback was reacts, whereas the most productive technique of students was elicitation which led to 43% of student-generated repairs.

2.7 Purpose of the Present Study

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the types and frequency of corrective feedback used in the Armenian classroom. Furthermore, the study will try to signpost the types of corrective feedback, as well as to investigate the extent to which corrective feedback may help students to improve and develop speaking skills.

The concept of corrective feedback theoretically and practically is familiar to Armenian teachers and students, but there is not enough evidence about the extent to which it promotes learners' achievement in language learning. I hope that my research will answer the following questions:

1. What is the relationship between corrective feedback and students' achievement in improving speaking skills?
2. Which type of feedback is more effective (immediate vs. delayed)?

The research hypothesis is:

- 1: There is no relationship between corrective feedback and students' achievements in improving speaking skills.
- 2: There is some relationship between corrective feedback and students' achievements in improving speaking skills.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide as detailed information as possible about the educational context of the study, the participants, materials used in the study, the data collection and the description of the procedure of the study.

3.1 Educational Context

The research was conducted in the Experimental English Course (EEC) at the AUA, the duration of which is ten weeks, two hours per session. The purpose of this course is to develop students' communicative abilities. During the course of the instruction, the students have covered 9 units, which have provided topics for reading, listening, speaking and writing skills.

The study examined the types and the frequency of corrective feedback used during class in Armenian classrooms. This helped to determine what kind of corrective feedback is more effective (immediate vs. delayed) and revealed the extent to which corrective feedback may help students to improve and develop their speaking skills.

3.2 Participants

The participants of this study were all from the EEC at AUA: two teachers and 30 students. The teachers, who were observed by me, were female Armenian teachers. Both of them had either a Certificate or Master's degree in Teaching English as a Foreign/Second Language. Two groups of students were chosen for this experiment. One

group included 14 students: 5 boys and 9 girls and the other group included 16 students (9 male and 7 female students). The students' age ranged from 10 to 14. Their first language is Armenian. All the students are highly motivated as studying in the EEC provides new experiences with respect to the predominantly student-centered classes, intensive use of modern technology in language learning, and a learning environment where the language of instruction is exclusively English.

3.3 Materials

The textbook used for the class in this research is 'New Parade 5' by Herrera M. and Zanetta T. (2000). New Parade is a set of seven – level, communicative language program that features rhymes, songs, pair work, cooperative learning, and hands on projects (Herrea and Zanetta:2000). Each set includes a textbook accompanied by a workbook. The textbook covers all four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), but special emphasis is put on maximizing opportunities for discussion and promoting the development of both linguistic and communication skills (Herrea and Zanetta:2000). The textbook consists of nine units, each unit focusing on one selected topic (shopping, what a trip, communication, etc.). Each class session consists of grammar and vocabulary and listening exercises. The workbook contains assignments accompanies the textbook. The workbook enables students to practice materials for writing, grammar and language practice covered on the textbook. After each three units, students take a test. Units covered for this research were Units 4, 5 and 6.

3.3.1 Instrumentation

Data for this study were collected through:

- ❖ Observations
- ❖ Speaking test:
 - Pre test on speaking skills
 - Post test on speaking skills

3.3.2 Observations

Feedback is defined as “any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance” Chaudron (1988). There are several types of corrective feedback, which are Repetition, Incorporation, Self-repair, Peer-repair, Hesitation, Partial repair, Recasting, Immediate, Delayed, etc. (Lyster and Ranta, 1997). In order to see which of these types of feedback are used in the classroom, several classes were observed. The main focus was on how the teachers corrected their students’ mistakes as well as what kind of errors were corrected. The observation checklist was used while observing the sessions.

3.3.3 Experiment

Two groups of students were given a pretest on speaking in order to see their proficiency level of English. Their level was determined by a placement test administered by the DEP in the EEC. Based on the result of the test, the students were placed in

intermediate level groups. The post-test was administered after an instruction of 10 weeks in order to see the progress the students made during the course of instruction.

3.3.4 Description of Speaking Test

The speaking test was developed exclusively for the purpose of this study by the researcher and was checked by the supervisor two – three times (Appendix B). The test format was taken from the IELTS speaking test. The IELTS speaking test takes around 15 minutes in the form of interview and is divided into three parts. As the study was done with children, the researcher and supervisors adopted the test and separated it into two parts, each of which takes about 4 minutes.

In Part 1, the examiner asked the candidate some simple questions on the topics: ‘Shopping’, ‘What a trip’ and ‘Communication’. The examiner read these questions from a script. The topics were based on the units that students had to cover during the course: e.g. ‘Shopping’, ‘What a trip’ and ‘Communication’.

In Part 2, the examiner gave the candidate a topic on a card and the candidate needed to speak about it for about 2 minutes. Before speaking, the candidate had one minute to make notes of the topic. The task was to talk about a personal experience, or description of something. The students were asked to justify opinions and express preferences, for example: Teacher: “Where do you like to shop for clothes?” Student: “I like to shop in X, because the prices are reasonable there and the clothes are of high quality” or Teacher: “How do you communicate with your friends?” Student: “I prefer communicating with my friends through internet, since it’s cheap and quick”. This was followed by a quick question, which the candidate gave a short answer to. After the pretest, students received the treatment. One group received immediate feedback and the

other group received delayed feedback. At the end of the term students were given a posttest, which was the same test given at the beginning of the experiment.

3.3.5 Description of Scoring Rubric Checklist

The scoring rubric-checklist used in this study is a common institutional IEP evaluation form used to assess student speaking skills. The scoring rubric-checklist includes scoring rubrics for evaluating students' speaking skills. The criteria consist of scoring rubrics for "Fluency", "Content", "Vocabulary", and "Accuracy". A 5 point grading scale of 4=Very Good, 3= good 2=Satisfactory, 1=Weak, is used.

3.4 Procedures

3.4.1. Procedure during the Observation

To better understand the teacher's use of any type of corrective feedback, teachers were asked to be observed. Two teachers showed willingness to participate in these observations, which were based on teachers' and students' behavior in the classroom. During these observations, some of the happenings, concerning the research, were recorded. Each teacher was observed three times. During the session, the teachers tried to cover all communicative skills: reading, listening, speaking and writing.

All ethical rules were followed by the research process demands. The teachers' identities were not revealed in the study, and the data obtained from the observations did not include personal relationships or questions. Before starting the observations, the purpose of the present research and the purpose of the observations, were partially

explained to the teachers. I did not reveal all the issues that I was paying attention to during the observation in order to keep the natural behavior of teachers and students.

I prepared a checklist (Appendix A) which included the items that were relevant to my study. I had one checklist for each session, thus six checklists for both sessions. The checklist was categorized into six sections: immediate feedback, delayed feedback, recasting, no feedback, explicit feedback and clarification request. While the teachers were providing feedback to their students, I was completing the checklists. Therefore, the checklist helped me to objectify the observation and to provide uniform classification of the data.

3.4.2 The Experiment

A) Piloting: The speaking test was piloted in the English classroom. The results showed that the test was properly designed and appropriate for the research aim.

B) Pretest: Before starting the course, in the first day of their class, students were given speaking test to evaluate their proficiency level of English. The test was administered in the classroom during the class time. The supervisor and coordinators were informed about the date of the test. Two rooms were reserved in advance in order to control student's behavior. Students entered the classroom one by one at an appointed time. A coordinator helped me to control the students in the second classroom. Students were not informed of the topics in advance. Cards with the topics were face down on the examiner's desk. Paper was provided for the candidates to take notes. Each candidate picked a card with a topic, took some paper for notes and sat down at the desk facing the examiner. When students were ready they took turns presenting their monologs.

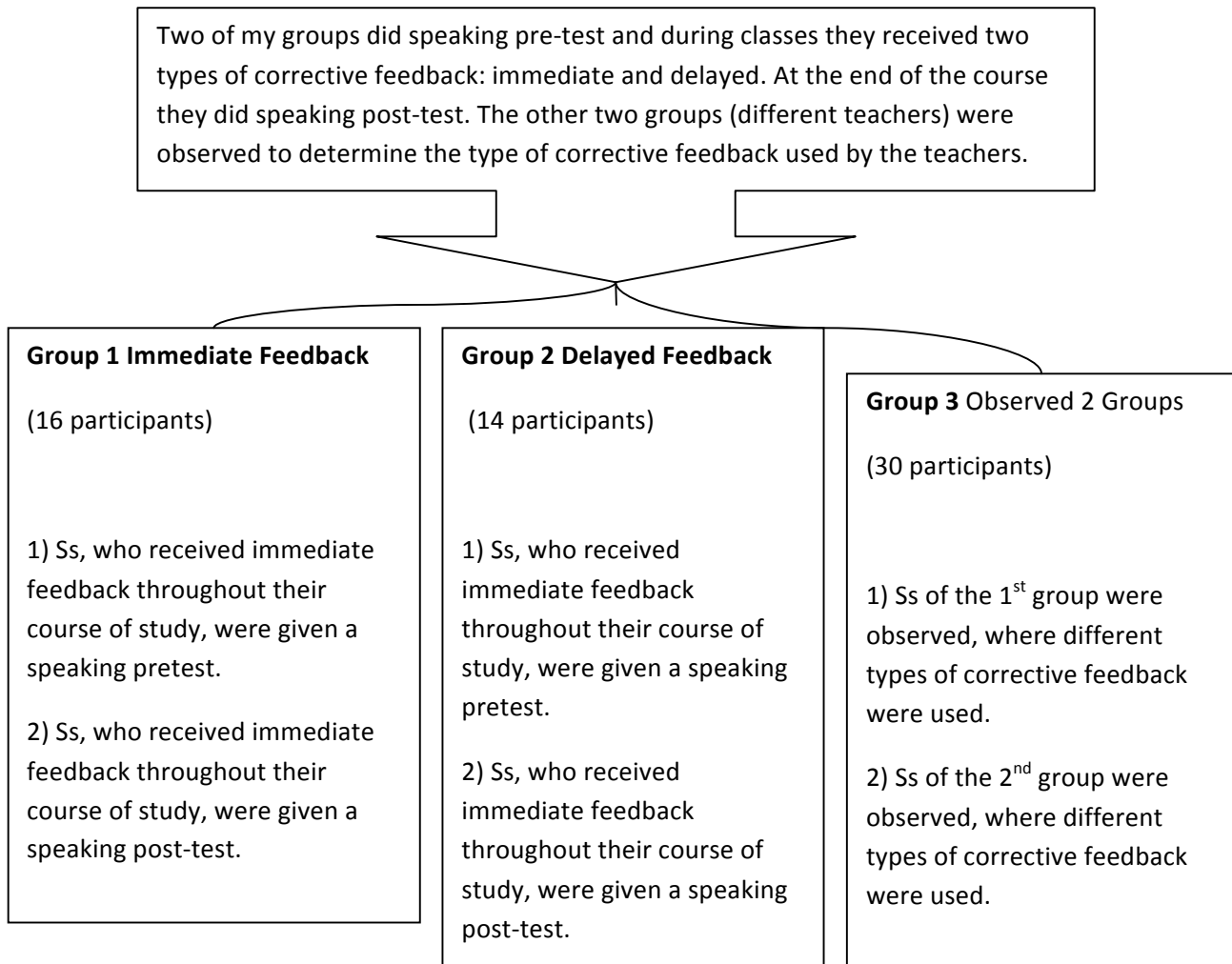
The test was conducted for individual candidates by two examiners. The test was recorded on tape and assessed by two examiners. The test lasted a maximum of 10 minutes.

C) Treatment: After the pre-test students received their respective treatment. One of the groups received immediate feedback. Based on the textbook materials and units, students had presentations and discussions. The immediate feedback was given after the speech or at the end of the class period. During the lesson teacher took notes of students' errors made during their speech. At the end of the lesson the class had a small discussion on their own errors. The teacher either wrote their errors on the board or had small discussions with examples. Sometimes the teacher gave students a chance to find and solve their problems and mistakes (AppendixE).

The other group of students received delayed feedback. Students' presentations and discussions were recorded. After each recording students were given a chance to progress on their own by listening to themselves and testing their own diction, voice and quality and then later the teacher analyzed the errors in the tape with the whole class. During ten weeks of instruction, five lessons were recorded and other lessons were based on the analysis.

D) Posttest: In order to see the students' achievement in improving their speaking skills, students were given the same test which they had taken at the beginning of the course. The steps and rules were the same.

Figure 1: Flow Chart of procedure used



Chapter 4: Results and Discussion

Introduction

This chapter reports on the findings of the research on types and the frequency of corrective feedback being used in the Armenian classroom to determine whether corrective feedback may help students to improve and develop speaking skills. It also aims to see what kind of corrective feedback is more effective (immediate vs. delayed). The chapter provides details on the quantitative and qualitative analyses of the pre- and post-test results and observations, respectively, and concludes with a summary of findings. The pretest and posttest results were analyzed using mixed between-within-subjects ANOVA. Qualitative data based on observations were analyzed via a constant comparison process.

4.1 Quantitative Analysis

The quantitative analysis was performed on the two test scores in each of the two groups using mixed between-within-subjects ANOVA (Pallant, 2007, p. 266), also referred to as two-way ANOVA (Hatch & Farhady, 1981, p.151). The purpose of this analysis is to compare the effects of the providing feedback on the students' speaking progress.

In the design of this study, there were one continuous dependent variable and two categorical independent variables. The dependent variable was 'post-test score' in both immediate and delayed of feedback groups administered at the end of the program to

determine the extent to which speaking ability has been improved depends on method. Scores ranged from 0 to 20. The descriptive terms for independent variables were “time” (pre-test and post-test) and “group” (immediate group 1 and delayed group 2). The operational definition of the variables follows: the dependent variable of this study, ‘post-test score’, was the final speaking test results of the students from both groups, and the independent variables, ‘time’, was using pre-test at time 1 and post-test at time 2, and ‘group’ is using immediate method in one group and delayed in another group.

In order for the mixed between-within-subjects ANOVA to be valid the following assumptions must be taken into consideration:

1. The dependent variable is distributed normally in the population for each combination of levels of the Within-Subject factors.
2. The population variances of the Different Variables are equal.
3. Scores associated with different individuals are not related. The only type of dependence that should exist among dependent variable scores is the dependency introduced by having the same individuals produce multiple scores (Pallant, 2007).

All the assumptions stated above have been met and the results of the mixed between-within-subjects ANOVA can be considered valid (See Appendix 8: Statistical Assumptions for more detail).

Descriptive statistics of the study measures is presented in Table 4.1.1

Table 4.1.1 Descriptive Statistics

Time 1 and 2	Group					
	1 (Immediate group)			2 (Delayed group)		
	Median	Mean	Std Deviation	Median	Mean	Std Deviation
Pre-test	8	7.9	2.03	7	7.7	2.76
Post-test	11	11.5	2.85	11	11.2	2.19

N= 20

Table 4.1.1 provides the descriptive statistics for the two sets of scores. It can be observed the speaking test scores increased from pre to post tests for both types of feedbacks. The means of group 1 for the two tests are 7.9 and 11.5, and the means of group 2 for pre and post tests are 7.7 and 11.2. This means the arithmetic average of immediate group is slightly higher than that of the delayed group.

The dispersion of scores for two groups is estimated by the standard deviation. As shown in Table 4.1.1, the standard deviations of group 1 for pre and post tests are 2.03 and 2.85. The standard deviations of group 2 for pre and post tests are 2.76 and 2.19. The average of the differences of all scores from the mean for the pre and post tests is bigger in group 1 than it is group 2. This means that the test scores in the delayed group did not vary as widely from each other, as they did in the immediate group.

It should be determined whether these differences are large enough to be considered statistically significant.

To compare the effects of the two corrective feedbacks (immediate and delayed) on the students' progress on the materials taught mixed between-within-subjects ANOVA was carried out . This analysis tests whether there are main effects for each of the independent variables and whether the interaction between the two variables is significant (Pallant, 2007). In the case of this experiment, there were two methods (immediate and delayed) and to evaluate their effect on learning process different tests (pre and post) were

carried out. It compared the two interventions in terms of their effectiveness in increasing speaking skills (main effect for the group). Finally, it indicated whether the change in speaking scores over pre and post test periods was different for the two groups (interaction effect).

Before looking at the main effects, the interaction should be examined in order to determine whether there is the same change in scores over time for the two different groups or not. This will help to determine which type of feedback is more effective. As shown in Table 4.1.2, Wilk’s Lambda test for ‘time/group interaction’ is $p=.878$ at the .05 significant level (two-tailed). This means that interaction effect is not statistically significant and factor ‘time/group interaction’ does not lead to significant change in the performance of the learners. In other words, it doesn’t cause any change in scores over time for the two different groups (immediate group/delayed group).

Table 4.1.2 Results of Wilk’s Lambda Tests for Interaction and Main Effect (Within-Subjects)

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Time*Group	.999	.024	1.000	28.000	.878	.001
Time	.266	77.329	1.000	28.000	.000	.734

Wilk’s Lambda test for the main effect ‘time’ is $p=.000$ at the .05 of significance level (two-tailed). Because the p value is less than .05, we can conclude that there is a statistically significant effect for time. This suggests that there was a change in speaking test scores across the two different time periods. Although we have found a statistically significant difference between the tests, we also need to assess the effect size of this

result, which is Partial Eta Squared (Table 4.1.2). The value obtained for time in this study is .734. Using the guidelines proposed by Cohen (.01=small effect, .06=moderate effect, .14=large effect), this result suggests a very large effect size. Consequently, the main effect for ‘time’ was really significant and there was a change in speaking test scores across the two different time periods due to learning process, which is the effect of the teacher’s instruction.

Further, the main effect of between-subjects variable (type of class: immediate method/delayed method) should be investigated. The results are in the Table 4.1.3. The probability value is .786, which is not less than required alpha level of the .05, so we can conclude that the main effect for group is not significant. There was no significant difference in the post –test scores for the two groups (those who received immediate type of feedback and those who received the delayed type of feedback intervention). The effect size of the between-subject effect is also given in the Tests of Between-Subject Effects table. The Partial Eta Squared value for group in this case is .003. This is very small. It is therefore not surprising that it did not reach statistical significance.

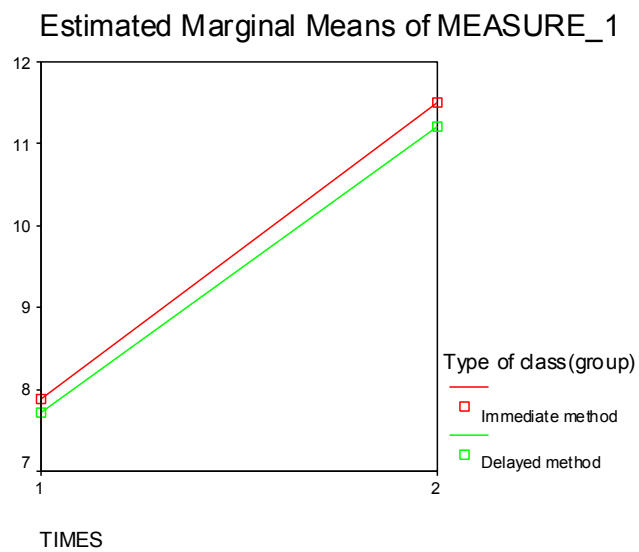
Table 4.1.3 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Effect	F	Hypothesis df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Group	.075	1.000	.786	.003

The statistical data analysis suggests that there was similar change in scores over time for the two different groups. There was no significant difference between the effectiveness of immediate and delayed methods. However, both of these methods (immediate and delayed) caused significant and positive change in speaking test scores across the two different time periods.

In summary, there was no significant interaction between corrective feedback type and time, with both groups showing an increase in Speaking Test scores across the two time periods (Figure 2). The main effect comparing the two types of feedback was not significant, suggesting no difference in the effectiveness of the two teaching approaches.

Figure 2



4.2 Qualitative Analysis

4.2.1. Treatment Effect

Since the aim of this research was to determine which kind of corrective feedback was more effective, analyses of the pre tests for both groups were carried out to determine the common mistakes and to treat these mistakes in two groups using techniques of both types of corrective feedback.

The analyses of the pre tests of both groups showed that while speaking students had difficulties in the following things:

- *using correct tenses*

The most common mistake that the students made was the usage of correct tenses and disagreement between them. For example, one student was telling about his last trip. He started his story in the past tense then immediately, in the same sentence he switched from the past tense into the present tense. He repeated the same mistake in different sentences. They had difficulties with the continuous tenses as well.

- *using auxiliary verbs*

At the same time, some of the students would miss auxiliary verbs while speaking.

- *speaking fluently*

The students' fluency was also very poor. The majority of students' speech was full of hesitations, repetitions and pauses.

- *using correct structure of the sentences*

Another very common mistake which is worth mentioning was the structure of the sentences. Many of the students did not produce sentences with a right word (subject,

verb and complement) and they started their sentences, for example, with a verb.

Sometimes, the noun was missing in the sentence or it was in the wrong place.

■ *using appropriate vocabulary*

Students also had difficulties with using appropriate vocabulary. They did not differentiate, for example, between nouns and adjectives, or adverbs and adjectives (e.g. “I like comfortable” instead of “I like comfort” or “My friends are not interesting” instead of “My friends are not interested in”).

■ *developing ideas logically*

Some of the students couldn’t develop their ideas logically and formed loosely connected thoughts.

■ *using prepositions*

Students also misused prepositions, for example: “I communicate with my friends from telephone at last year”.

After analyzing the students’ pretest mistakes, attempts were made to concentrate on them and correct them through corrective feedback techniques employed by immediate and delayed feedback.

In group one, where immediate feedback was employed, I started to correct their grammar, especially the usage of tenses, prepositions, and vocabulary. I also helped them improve their fluency through some exercises, like advising them to listen to themselves via tape or I played a game with them called ‘Who can speak faster!’. During these activities, I directed them to speak with less hesitation and pauses and to use clear and logically developed ideas. During the class, I collected their mistakes by taking notes and then at the end of the lesson I explained them to the students. From the results of post tests, it was obvious that the students had improved their speaking skills:

- their speech became relatively fluent and clear,

- it was relatively easy to follow their speech, because they tried to develop their ideas logically with sufficient vocabulary and with accurate grammar,
- mistakes on accuracy, fluency and vocabulary were not as ‘harsh’ as they used to be during the post test.

The students from another group (delayed feedback) had the same problems. They had also difficulties with:

- *accuracy*,
- *vocabulary*,
- *content*,
- *fluency*.

In this group, I also concentrated on the mistakes that students made during pre test. With the help of delayed feedback techniques, such as tape recording, I tried to help them improve their mistakes. Students had a chance to take the tape home to listen to it and to find their mistakes on their own. During subsequent classes, we listened to the recordings and made corrections together. The analyses of the pre and post tests showed that the delayed method implemented in this group also had an effect on students’ development of speaking skills. The students relatively improved their fluency, accuracy, vocabulary and content.

4.2.2 Frequency of Errors

According to the mistake type, the students’ errors were broken down into three groups:

1. Grammatical
2. Vocabulary
3. Pronunciation

Table 4.2.1

Grammar	Pronunciation	Vocabulary
30	13	11

N=54

From the table 4.2.1 it is obvious that the most frequent type of error that students made during the class were grammar errors. The second frequent types of errors were pronunciation errors. And the least frequent types of errors were vocabulary errors. The data analysis revealed that most grammatical errors were corrected by using either recasting or short explanations. Pronunciation and vocabulary errors were corrected by using recast and explicit feedback.

4.2.3 Analyses of Observations

As explained in Chapter 3, the observations were carried out with the purpose of finding the most frequently utilized corrective feedback in Armenia. After the observation checklists were transcribed, the data analysis showed the following results:

Table 4.2.2

Feedback type	Recast	No feedback	Explicit	Immediate	Delayed
No	18	15	11	0	0

N= 44

From the table 4.2.2, it is evident that “recast” was the most frequently used feedback type in the Armenian classroom. The second was “no feedback”. That is, in the

classroom mostly students' errors were ignored by the teachers. In the last place is the explicit feedback.

Most grammatical error repairs followed from negotiation, and phonological repairs followed from recast and explicit correction. From the table it is obvious that teachers did not use either immediate feedback or delayed one.

It is worth discussing the three most frequently made types of corrective feedback used in the Armenian classrooms.

1. **Recast**, involves the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error. Chaudron (1988) included such moves in the categories of 'repetition with change' and 'repetition with change and emphasis'.

S: my brother go to school (grammatical error)

T: my brother goes... (feedback - recast)

2. **No feedback**: involves the teacher's ignorance of students' errors.
3. **Explicit correction**: is the explicit provision of the correct form. The teacher clearly indicates that what the student has said was incorrect ('oh, you mean' or 'you should say') and provides the correct form.

In summary, identification of five different types of feedback and analysis of their frequency of distribution showed that *recast* was the most frequently used type of feedback. However, the findings did not indicate any use of immediate or delayed feedback. The analysis of the data showed that Armenia teachers use different types of feedback during their instruction. It became obvious that they, similar to many other teachers, do not have one specific method for correcting students' errors.

Chapter 5: Conclusion

This study was set out to address the following questions:

1. What type of corrective feedback teachers use in the classroom?
2. What is the relationship between corrective feedback and students' achievement in improving speaking skills?
3. Which type of feedback is more effective (immediate vs. delayed)?

In particular, the analysis first focused on finding out the patterns of corrective feedback utilized by the teacher. Second, it focused on the students' achievement in improving speaking skills by using corrective feedback. And finally the study tried to see which type of feedback is more effective (immediate vs. delayed).

5.1 Summary of Findings

The research findings can be summarized in accordance with the research questions.

1. What type of corrective feedback teachers use in the classroom?

The overall picture that emerged from the finding was that teachers do not have one specific method for treating students' errors. The analysis of the study showed that during the class, teachers used different types of corrective feedback. At the same time, the study showed that the most frequently used type of corrective feedback used by the teachers was recasting which involves the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error. The further study showed that the teacher corrected students' errors by repeating the correct form of the word, structure or pronunciation. The

study revealed that grammar errors were the most frequently made type of. The analysis of data from observations indicated that both teachers did not use immediate or delayed feedback which was chosen for this study.

2. What is the relationship between corrective feedback and students' achievement in improving speaking skills?

The study showed that corrective feedback had an influence on students' achievement in improving speaking skills. The whole teaching process was concentrated on corrective feedback, more specifically on two types of corrective feedback (immediate vs delayed). The results of pre and post tests indicated that students improved their speaking.

3. Which type of feedback is more effective (immediate vs. delayed)?

Based on the results we can conclude that both types of feedback had a positive effect on students' achievement in speaking skills.

Based on these findings, it can be suggested that this study might serve as a good base for exploring other aspects of corrective feedback in English language classes in Armenia. Little has been done to explore the issue of corrective feedback in Armenia. Therefore, this study can serve as a starting point for further research on increasing language teachers' awareness on corrective feedback. It can help them to fully realize the role that feedback on speaking errors plays in the development of learners' oral production.

5.2 Pedagogical Implications

There are several implications that can be drawn from the research findings. First, as the data analysis revealed, the teacher mostly used those feedback techniques that already provided the correction, such as recast. The data also revealed that teachers do not

have one specific feedback technique that may help them to provide corrections. Therefore, they should try to construct one specific feedback technique that will serve as a tool for correcting students' errors and helping students improve their language learning. Teachers should try to employ those feedback techniques which allow students to see their progress and failure by themselves.

5.3 Limitations of the Research

The researcher was the teacher of both classes. There were some disadvantages for the teacher: to teach and conduct the research in the same classes. For example, it was inconvenient for the teacher to conduct a lesson and take notes at the same time.

The study is not in a large-scale: it included only 30 students. Thus, the findings of this research are limited to AUA and its results cannot be generalized to other educational institutions. AUA provides a unique learning environment due to the facts that the language of instruction is English and modern technology is widely used in the language learning process.

5.4 Future Research

Several areas are suggested for the future.

There is clearly room for more extensive research in the local and other settings, including similar studies on a larger scale. This means that, my discussion of the present findings remains essentially exploratory in spirit.

There is also need to investigate students' perception of error correction: how helpful they find their teachers' feedback, and which type of feedback they find more

effective and finally to examine how educational settings of other countries correct their students' errors and whether pragmatics plays role in it.

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Appendix A: Observation checklist

Level: Intermediate

Number of students: 15

Grammar		Pronunciation	Vocabulary
Immediate feedback			
Delayed feedback			
Recasting			
No feedback			
Explicit Feedback			
Clarification Request			

Appendix B: Test for speaking

Unit 4 Shopping

Part 1: Interviewing

1. Where do you like to shop for clothes?
2. What kind of clothes do you like to wear?
3. What clothes are fashionable now?

Part 2: Student's card

Describe what you are wearing now.

Tell me:

1. Why do you prefer exactly this style?
2. What were the most expensive clothes you have ever bought?

Explain:

1. Where did you buy them?
2. How much did they cost?

Unit 5 what a trip!

Part 1: Interviewing

1. Where is your favorite place to go?
2. Which kind of transportation do you like to use for a trip?
3. What do you like to do on a trip?

Part 2: Student's card

Describe a trip that your family and you have taken.

Tell me:

1. Where did you go?
2. When did you go?

Explain:

1. The worst thing that happened in that trip.
2. The funniest thing that happened.

Unit 6 communication

Part 1: Interviewing

1. What is the main topic you and your friends prefer to talk about every day?
2. How do you communicate with your friends (by telephone, internet, Odnaklassniki or face book)?

Part 2 :Student's card

Describe a situation where you are talking about a TV program and your friends are not interested at all.

Tell me:

1. How would you feel?
2. What would you do?

Explain:

1. The funniest story you told your friends recently.
2. The most boring story you heard from somebody.

Appendix C: Specifications for speaking test

1. Purpose of the test

The purpose of this test is to help teachers to:

- Create a measure of foreign language proficiency in productive skills
- Assess the students' ability to express opinions, communicate their ideas in the area of language for study and social life
- Use information from the assessment as a basis for MA thesis

Program description

The course program is called Experimental English Classes (EEC), which lasts ten weeks, two hours a week. The purpose of the course is to develop students' reading, writing, speaking and listening skills. During the course of the instruction the students covered 3 units: 'Shopping', 'What a trip' and 'Communication'.

Textbook description

The textbook is 'New Parade 5' by Herrera M. and Zanetta T. (2000). New Parade is a seven – level, communicative language program that features rhymes, songs, pair work, cooperative learning, and hands on projects. The textbook cover all four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), but special emphasis is put on maximizing opportunities for discussion and promoting the development of both linguistic and communication skills. A workbook which contains assignments accompanies the textbook. The textbook consists of nine units, each unit focusing on one selected topic (shopping, what a trip, communication, etc.). Each class session consists of grammar and vocabulary and listening exercises. The class session also consists of reading and writing tasks. For the grammar part students have already covered the following structures: superlative and comparative adjectives, past tense, past progressive and modal verbs. For the writing part students have been required to write free writing, compositions and letters. For the reading they have learnt how to find the main idea of the text, how to order scrambled text, answer T/F questions. For listening students have been introduced with native like pronunciation, listen and act out the conversation, listen for information and listen and fill in missing words.

Description of test takers

Students in the EEC are intermediate level students. Test takers are 11-15 year old pupils of the 7-8 grades. Their first language is Armenian; therefore English is viewed as foreign language. The proficiency level of English is appropriate for the course objectives. They are able to communicate with each other in English and they are mature enough to raise questions, to get solutions for questions that seem problematic.

Operationalization

Test structure

The test organized around 3 units, to obtain the necessary information for teacher on students' productive skills. The test is conducted for individual candidates by two examiners. It is recorded on tape and assessed by two examiners. The test has two parts and last a maximum of 10 minutes.

Part 1: Interviewing (5 minutes)

This part is a face – to –face interview with the examiner where candidates are expected to answer questions about shopping, trip and communication. The purpose of interview was to test interviewees' language use while expressing their opinion.

Part 2: Presentation (5 minutes)

The candidate is given a topic and has two minutes to prepare a short presentation on the topic. This is followed by some questions in the presentation.

Administration

Physical conditions

- In the classroom
- For the monologue cards are face down on the examiner's desk
- Paper is provided for the candidates to take notes.

- Candidates enter one by one at an appointed time.
- Each candidate picks a card with a topic, takes some paper for notes and sits down at the desk facing the examiner.
- While examined the candidates sit facing the examiner.
- Candidates may take notes while preparing (not obligatory).
- When ready the candidates take turns at presenting the monologues (2 min for preparation, 3 min for presentation).
- Only examiners have access to the examination tasks. Examination materials are stamped and kept at the department
- Candidates must not be informed of the sub-topics in advance

Assessment

Candidates are assessed by the examiner conducting the test and by another examiner who listens to a recording of the test. They are assessed on:

- How accurately and appropriately they use the language (grammar and vocabulary)
- How well they develop the conversation and organise their ideas
- How fluently they speak
- How comprehensible their pronunciation is

Appendix D: Scoring Rubric Checklist

FORMAL PRESENTATION EVALUATION FORM

Student _____ *Teacher* _____

Topic _____ Grade _____

5=Excellent 4=Very good 3= Good 2= Satisfactory 1=Weak

_____ **Fluency**

- _____ Spoke clearly and coherently
- _____ Spoke fluently, without too much hesitation or repetition
- _____ use appropriate tone and pronunciation
- _____ Easy to follow
- _____ spoke loudly and clearly

_____ **Content**

- _____ Fulfilled assignment
- _____ Developed topic with sufficient reasons, examples, and details
- _____ Organized ideas logically
- _____ Met time limit
- _____ Made clear transitions

_____ **Vocabulary**

- _____ use appropriate vocabulary for the task and the topic
- _____ avoids translations into the native language

_____ **Accuracy**

- _____ use accurate tenses (different forms of present and past)
- _____ Adjectives (the digress of comparison)
- _____ Nouns (plural forms, countable and non countable)
- _____ use correct modal verbs
- _____ control of basic English structures

Comments...

(Adopted from DEP, AUA, 2004)

Appendix E: Recordings of delayed feedback

Treatment: Delayed feedback during the course

Student 1

Student retelling the story that she had read right that moment.

It was Saturday. Saturday was a shopping day for boy's family and her mother read advertisement about the an anniversary there at the department store and she decided to go there with her sun and she decided that she must boughs t some clothes for his son, her son and they went by bus to the mall and the bus was stopped at the six block near the mall and after they go to the mall the boy sow a lot of shoppes in the mall hhnenn he came into the music hnnn he went to his favorite stores. It was guitar shop and he want to, he wanted to bye a CD for him and after but his mother can't stop because he was Then they went to the department store and her his mother sow there a lot of T shirt and trousers for his son but son didn't like that because he think that his older clothes suites with him more than the new clothes and they didn't but anything.

Student 2 About a trip

Last Summer I spent my holiday in Batumy. I sent it with my family and with our friends. Our family consist of 4 members and than family that came with us they were their consist of 4 members too. The worst thing that happened with me that time in the hotel I felt down and I had a very bad ache and I thought maybe I broke my leg and the funniest thing that happened with me there at the first night we drank a lot of red bull and our mood went up and in that night we didn't sleep all time we laughing.

Student 3 - retelling story

It was a Saturday. Saturday is a day hnn Saturday was shopping day in their family. The mother wants to, mother wants to but for his for her sun new clothes and they decided to go to the mall and mother sow that there is a sale in the biggest department store. But there is one Hnnn one shirt's cleaves are too short for her child.

What a trip!

With my class I went to burakan. There we, we went there in June. We spent our time very good. We played there many different games and everything was funny in our trip. There was, was noting worst and in evening we come back with funny face.

Students 4 and 5 - Dialog

S4: How to get to Kaskad?

S5:First you must take a taxi and go to the AUA and then you must go straight to the Academy and then you must turn left and go to the street across the academies. Go straight and then must see shoos shop and when you see this shop turn left and go to the street, second street turn left and go. And there you must see a one shop and when you see go straight and turn right, there is a Kaskad.

S4: thank you very much.

Student 6

I had a trip last year. I spent my summer holidays in Diligan. I went for camping. There was very nice, beautiful. The funniest story that happened was it in the night I got u p, and hn turn on the lamp and I saw the mouse. I began to hnn shout and everybody came, everybody heard

my voice and came to see what happened but the mouse went away. I spent very good my time. We play very interesting games. It was my lovely trip.

Student 7

T: What type of communication would you like to use?

S: Now I am using communication with my friend by internet.

T: Which type of communication would you like to use in order to express yourself?

S: Telephone

T: I read newspaper or magazine when it is interesting.

Student 8

T: Where do you like to shop for clothes?

S: In big shops.

T: What kind of clothes do you like to wear?

S: I like to wear jeans, sport clothes.

T: why do you prefer exactly this style?

S: because it's very comfort ` able and much better.

T: can you give me a direction to your favorite shop from AUA.

S: I like to go to Teraniva in Komitas and you have to go ahead and then turn to right and go ahead too.

Student 9

T: Where is your favorite place to go?

S: My favorite place to go is Rome.

T: What is the weather like there?

S: The weather like there rain and may be sunny.

T: What do you like to do there?

S: I like to shopping there and go t interesting places.

T: What do you do in the hottest or coldest day of the month?

S: I go to home and play my favorite game.

Student 10

T: What is your favorite part in the newspaper or magazine?

S: About interesting programs or another interesting news.

T: What kind of communication would you like to use?

S: Internet, telephone, and I communicate in the school.

Student 11

T: Tell me about the article that you have recently read.

S: Always I read news in newspapers. Another ... I like that

hasmik11.T: what you usually do on a rainy and sunny days?

S: I usually read books or newspapers.

T: What do you like to do on a trip?

S:I like to go to interesting places and take photos.

T: Where is your favorite place to go?

S: My favorite place IsDilidgan

T: What is the weather like there?

S: There hnn rainy.

Student 12

T: Where do you like to shop for clothes?

S: I like hnnnnn in Komitas street.

T: What kind of clothes do you like to wear?

S: I like to wear beautiful dresses. Jeans, Comfortable clothes.

T: Why do you exactly prefer this style?

S: Because it's comfortable.

Student 13

T: What kind of communication do you know?

S: Internet, computer, telephone, letters, TV and newspapers.

What kind of communication would you like to use.

S: Only internet and telephone.

T: Do you read newspapers and do you have your favorite part there?

S: I am not reading newspapers.

Student 14

T: What do you do in the hottest or coldest days?

S: On the hottest day walking or swimming in the swimming pool. And in the cloudy [clody] day there is a snow I think, we came outside and play.

T: What is your favorite place to go?

S: Dilidgan

T: What is the weather like there?

S: Some days is rainy or hot.

15. Can you tell me what kind of communication do you know?

S: Sell-phone, internet, fax Tv

T: What kind of communication would you like to use.

S: I like to use internet and sell-phones.

Appendix F: Immediate Feedback

Common Mistakes

Lesson 1

S7: viding-wedding

S7: selisperson- salesperson

S7: rilitive –relative

S4: nice- niece

Hour- hour

Viding –wedding

Lesson2

S2: viding – wedding

S1: riletive – relative

S3: viding – wedding

Coot- cut

S7: She has read the book

S7 Monday half past seven(without prep)

S1: they has washing a car

S1: Monday and Friday I have lessons

S3: to seven o'clock

S4: in 2 o'clock, in 13 past seven, in 3 o'clock

Lesson3

S3: I learn homework- I do homework

S3: stody- study

S3: firday –Friday

S5: I and my mother

Flowers is very beautiful

S1: She eating

My mother wash

S6: I am take care

Flowers is very beautiful

S2: I, my brother and father

My brother and father takes care

S3: I makes my bad

Lesson 4

S2: in Monday

Grandpa give me

I learn in school

He have

She cook

My brother go

S6: my father working

She is study

S5: in Sunday

S7: my hobby swimming

He name is Karen

He boy

My mother work

Lesson 5

Comfo`rtable

My brother and I very like to swim.

I swim and the scrub was on my foot.

Last summer we went to Sevan. We play games.

Appendix G: Lesson plan

Level: intermediate

Primary aim: practice in speaking

Secondary aim: practice to know about shopping and giving directions

Time: 60m

Aids: handouts, blackboard, picture, book

Procedure:

Introduction (5m)

Teacher enters the class and greets.

Activity1 (10min)

1. Show the pictures of different clothes on the board
2. Distribute students handouts with the list of men's and women's clothes
3. Read and discuss them

Activity 2 (10min)

1. Have the students describe what they are wearing now. Teacher gives an example "I'm wearing blue jeans and white jacket..."
2. Give students directions to follow 'turn left/right...'
3. Ask students 'where do you shop for clothes?'
4. Ask students to draw the maps of the area and describe the way.

Activity 3 (10min)

1. Make students listen a tape and find out 'what do the boy and girl need? Where does the boy want to go?'
2. Have the students listen to the conversation and read along, then have the students work in groups and act it out.
3. For checking comprehension ask the following questions:
 1. Where is the sale?
 2. Why does the girl need a new jacket?

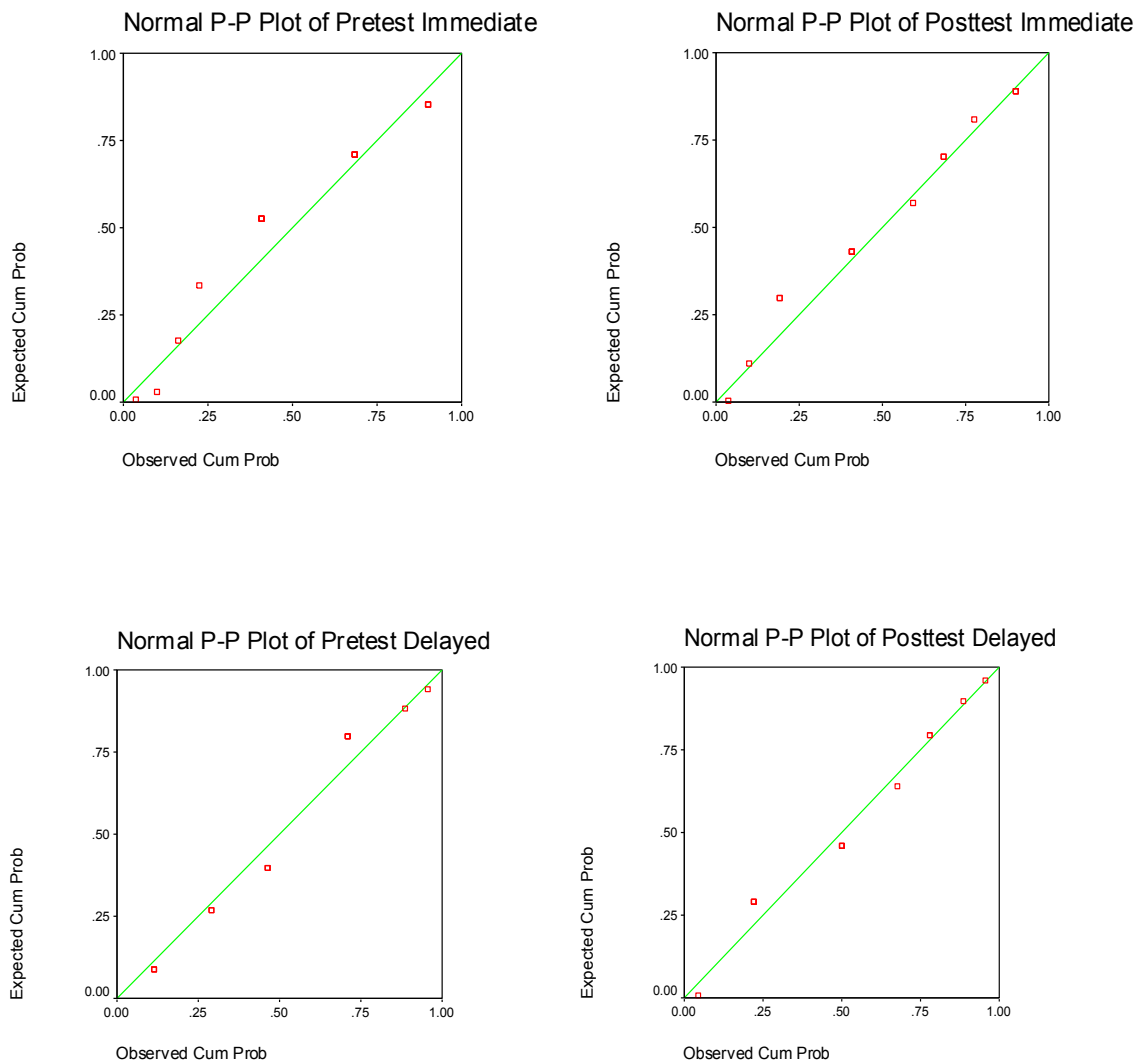
Activity 4 (10min)

Students should look at the map of the mall and help the people find the stores, using words and phrases from the direction box.

Appendix H: Statistical Assumptions

For the first assumption to be met the researcher should consider P-P Plot of scores (Table 8.1, P-P Plot), which is used to see if the given set of data follows some specified distribution.

Table 8.1 P-P Plot



Each plot shows the distribution of one of the tests with each of the groups (immediate group 1 and pre-test, immediate group 1 and post-test, delayed group 2 and pre-test, delayed group 2 and post-test).

The red dots are closely distributed around the green line in all 4 cases, which is approximately linear. This means that the specified distribution is the correct model and the scores on both tests were normally distributed.

To meet the second assumption the Pearson correlation is run to show whether and how strongly pairs of variables are related (Table 8.2, Correlations).

Table 8.2

Correlations

		Total Pretest	Total Posttest	Pretest Immediate	Posttest Immediate	Pretest Delayed	Posttest Delayed
Total Pretest	Pearson Correlation	1	.604**	1.000**	.599*	.318	.014
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.	.014	.268	.961
	N	30	30	16	16	14	14
Total Posttest	Pearson Correlation	.604**	1	.599*	1.000**	.290	-.047
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.014	.	.315	.873
	N	30	30	16	16	14	14
Pretest Immediate	Pearson Correlation	1.000**	.599*	1	.599*	.318	.014
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.014	.	.014	.268	.961
	N	16	16	16	16	14	14
Posttest Immediate	Pearson Correlation	.599*	1.000**	.599*	1	.290	-.047
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.014	.	.014	.	.315	.873
	N	16	16	16	16	14	14
Pretest Delayed	Pearson Correlation	.318	.290	.318	.290	1	.660*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.268	.315	.268	.315	.	.010
	N	14	14	14	14	14	14
Posttest Delayed	Pearson Correlation	.014	-.047	.014	-.047	.660*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.961	.873	.961	.873	.010	.
	N	14	14	14	14	14	14

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

In order to claim that the correlation is significant between the groups null hypothesis should be stated, which is:

Ho: There is no correlation of scores within the groups.

Ha: There is correlation of scores within the groups.

If the p-value is less than α 0.05, we can reject the null hypothesis. The correlation output within the groups shows the correlation between the pre-test with the post-test, and the post-test with the pre-test (Table 8.3, Correlation). As $p=.000$, which is less than the

significance level .05, H_0 is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted: there is correlation between the tests within the groups, which means that students performed in a similar way on the two measures within their groups.

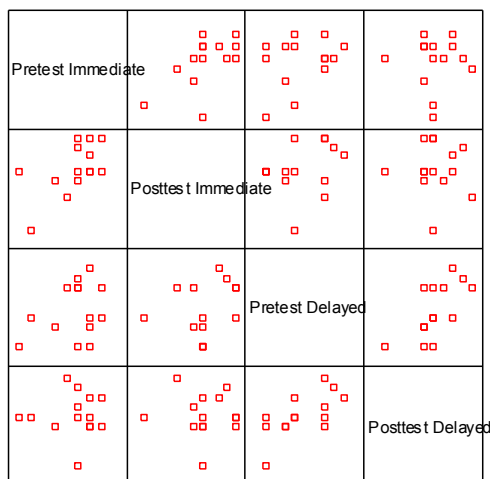
Table 8.3

		Correlations	
		Posttest Immediate	Posttest Delayed
Posttest Immediate	Pearson Correlation	1	-.047
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.873
	N	16	14
Posttest Delayed	Pearson Correlation	-.047	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.873	.
	N	14	14

The significant correlation between the tests within the groups is also shown through the correlation graph (Figure 1, Correlation Graph), where the more significant the correlation is, the closer the dots are located to the line. This means that students performed in a similar way on the two measures between the groups.

Figure 1

Correlation Graph



As shown in Figure 1, Immediate and Delayed groups have significant correlation within the groups because the dots are located close to the lines. Pre and posttests have a higher correlation because the dots are closer located to the line, whereas both post tests are not located similarly, i.e., close to the line. The scores are more homogenous in the delayed group than in the immediate group. Correlation shows that students performed in a similar way in the delayed group, whereas, in the immediate group students did not perform in a similar way because their scores widely vary from each other.

Now that the correlation output showed a significant correlation between the tests within the groups, the null hypothesis should be stated to see if there is correlation between the groups:

Ho: There is no correlation of tests between the groups.

Ha: There is correlation of tests between the groups.

If p-value is less than $\alpha=0.05$ we can reject the null hypothesis. The correlation of scores between the groups shows there is a correlation between the Posttest Immediate and Posttest Delayed tests; thus, the p-value is .873. As the p-value is higher than the significance level of .05, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. There is no significant correlation of test scores between the groups.

The correlation analysis showed that there is a significant correlation of scores within the groups which proves that the scores of the pre and post tests are dependent. On the other hand there is no significant correlation of the test scores between the groups.

The third assumption is sometimes referred to as the sphericity assumption or as the homogeneity-of-variance-of-differences assumption (Pallant, 2007). Sphericity is checked while applying mixed between-within-subjects ANOVA, whose output also includes ***Levene's Test of Equality of Error of Variances*** and ***Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices*** (Table 8.4, Levene's Test of Equality of Error of Variances) .

Table 8.4

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Total Pretest	3.956	1	28	.057
Total Posttest	.639	1	28	.431

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a.

Design: Intercept+GROUP

Within Subjects Design: TIMES

“The sphericity assumption requires that the variance of the population difference scores for any two conditions are the same as the variance of the population difference scores for any other two conditions” (Pallant, 2007, p. 271). To see if we violated the assumption on homogeneity of variances, we have to check the *Levene's Test of Equality of Error of Variances* box (Table 8.4). We want the **Sig. value** to be non-significant (bigger than .05). In this research, the value for each variable is greater than .05 (.06, 0.4); therefore we are safe and sound and can proceed.

The next thing to check is **Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices**. We want a Sig. value that is bigger than .001. In this research, the value is .333; therefore we have not violated this assumption (Table 8.5).

Table 8.5

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices

Box's M	3.694
F	1.135
df1	3
df2	397445.5
Sig.	.333

Tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups.

a.

Design: Intercept+GROUP

Within Subjects Design: TIMES