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**In what ways can teacher feedback motivate English learners
to speak Spanish?**

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to improve student's motivation to develop their speaking skills regarding the acquisition of a second language by analyzing teacher's motivational strategies, especially on teacher's feedback to English students when they attempt to speak Spanish.

Therefore, the methodology chosen will conduct a cross-sectional research by using a combination of both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The procedure will encompass a series of second language class observations and questionnaires to students with different level of mastery of the target language.

We believe that by improving teacher's feedback, both positive and negative/corrective feedback, it will create positive effects on L2 learners. This interaction between teacher and students would seem likely to directly affect students' motivation to speak to a great extent.

Keywords: Motivation, speaking skills, feedback, second language.

RESUMEN

El siguiente estudio tiene como objetivo desarrollar la adquisición de las destrezas orales de aquellos alumnos que estudian una lengua extranjera incrementando, a su vez, su motivación. Asimismo, se realizará un análisis de las estrategias motivacionales que utilizan los profesores de alumnos ingleses cuando tartan de hablar español.

La metodología elegida llevará una investigación transversal utilizando una combinación de técnicas tanto cualitativas como cuantitativas. El procedimiento llevará a cabo una serie de observaciones y cuestionarios a alumnos con diferente nivel de dominio de la lengua objeto de estudio.

Creemos que al mejorar el feedback de los profesores hacia sus alumnos, tanto feedback positivo como correctivo/negativo, creará efectos positivos en los estudiantes de L2. Esta interacción entre profesor y alumno podría afectar directamente y en gran medida a la motivación de los estudiantes para hablar una segunda lengua.

Palabras clave: Motivación, destrezas orales, feedback, segunda lengua.

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1. INTRODUCTION

English learners are often said to not be very good at speaking in Spanish. One of the main reasons is that Spanish in England is mainly taught as a subject like mathematics or science, not as a vehicle for communication, as it mainly is in a Spanish speaking environment. In England, students rarely, or at least not often, speak much Spanish in class.

As a private Spanish tutor, I feel the difficulty of managing classes in a communicative way, because the students do not get many chances to realise the importance of Spanish as a communication tool through their daily lives and hence are not very motivated to speak Spanish actively.

In fact, many teachers in England struggle to motivate their students to speak Spanish. The reasons could be insufficiency of not only of knowledge and skills, but also of teacher training in conducting lessons which are effective in improving students' motivation and speaking skills. Besides the aforementioned factors, various characteristics which are typical in the Second Language Acquisition context may make it difficult for English learners to speak Spanish as a foreign language (henceforth, SFL) in their classrooms; for example, to avoid making mistakes they are likely to hesitate to speak the target language, and prefer planned speaking activities (e.g. prepared script and memorization).

Based on the fact above, in this research, I will focus on students' motivation, which is considered to be an important factor in developing the learner's ability to speak in Spanish. Dörnyei (2001b:5) states 'in the vast majority of cases, learners with sufficient motivation can achieve a working knowledge of an L2, regardless of their language aptitude or other cognitive characteristics'. If we take motivation as one of the central aspects that contributes to learning foreign languages, teachers should make efforts to enhance learners' motivation in a classroom.

I assume that, by stimulating the student's motivation to speak, their speaking skills can be facilitated.

Since teacher's motivational strategies are a broad area to research, I decided to focus especially on teacher feedback to students when they attempt to speak Spanish. This interaction between teacher and students would seem likely to directly affect students' motivation to speak to a great extent. By researching in what ways teacher feedback can motivate the learners to speak in Spanish, I hope to contribute to developing the learners' motivation to speak and, as a result, the Spanish speaking skills of English learners. Therefore, the aim of this research is, by improving teacher feedback, to create positive effects on speaking skills that English learners are not traditionally good at.

There are a variety of possible patterns of interaction in the language lesson, for instance, teacher to the whole class, teacher to the individual student, pairs of students, groups of students (Harmer 2001:315), but this research looks particularly at teacher feedback in the classroom interaction between the teacher and the students. This research also encompasses classroom interaction which focuses on improving both the students' accuracy and fluency in their speaking.

This study examines how teacher feedback in the interaction between the teacher and the students will lead to foster learner's motivation to speak Spanish in oral responses to questions and exercises, speaking activities and oral presentations in the classroom. Thus, this research includes both positive feedback and negative/corrective feedback. In terms of the importance of my study, Wong and Waring (2009) have noted that there has been insufficient research about positive feedback.

Based on the points mentioned above, my research questions therefore are:

1. What kinds of teacher positive feedback can motivate English learners to speak Spanish?
2. When is the appropriate timing for the teacher to give positive feedback to English learners to motivate them to speak Spanish?

3. What kinds of teacher negative/corrective feedback can motivate English learners to speak Spanish?

4. When is the appropriate timing for the teacher to give negative/corrective feedback to English learners to motivate them to speak Spanish?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The main study areas that I will refer to in this chapter are: (i) definitions of ‘speaking skills’ and ‘speaking Spanish’ in the English context, (ii) motivation in second language acquisition, (iii) teacher feedback in relation to speaking skills, and (iv) the relationship between teacher feedback and students’ motivation.

2.1 Definition of ‘speaking skills’

First of all, ‘learning to speak Spanish’ in this research should be defined. Generally, ‘speaking skills’ involve a variety of knowledge about the target language, such as grammatical and semantic rules and discourse patterns (Shumin, 2002). In addition, learners are required to acquire the ability to use the language fluently and appropriately ‘in a range of different genres and situations’ and apply various conversational strategies (Harmer, 2007: 343). ‘Speaking’ also involves proper pronunciation and using social paralinguistic elements such as stress, pitch and intonation (Shumin, 2002). On the whole, Shumin (2002), referring to Canale and Swain (1980)’s ‘*communicative competence*’ model, explains that speaking proficiency consists of ‘Grammatical competence’ (knowledge of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar, and ‘the ability to use and understand English-language (Spanish-language in our case) structures accurately and unhesitatingly’), ‘Discourse competence’ (knowledge of the rules of cohesion and coherence in discourse and the ability to manage a variety of structures of the language), ‘Sociolinguistic competence’ (knowledge of ‘the rules and the norms governing the appropriate timing and realization of speech acts’, which are accepted socially and culturally) and ‘Strategic competence’ (‘the ability to know when and how to take the floor, how to keep a conversation going, how to terminate the conversation, and how to clear up communication breakdown’) (Shumin, 2002 :207-208).

When learners acquire speaking skills in Spanish as a foreign language in Spanish-speaking countries, ‘learning to speak competently in Spanish is a priority’ (Hedge, 2000: 261) for many students, because they need speaking skills in their daily lives for a variety of reasons, such as, to maintain good relationships and to have negotiations with the Spanish speaking people around

them (Hedge, 2000). Thornbury (2005) also describes different speaking genres and events, and one of the differences is between planned and unplanned speech. Thus, learners learning Spanish in Spanish-speaking countries (e.g. Spain, Panama or Colombia) are frequently required to use unplanned speech (e.g. speaking face to face in real time and responding spontaneously to the often unpredictable demands of interactive talk) in Spanish with their usually native speaker teachers in their classrooms and in their daily lives outside the classroom.

On the other hand, the way English learners learn speaking skills in Spanish in their own country is quite different from the way the SFL learners in Spanish speaking countries or SSL (Spanish as a second language) learners, who are usually planning to settle in the Spanish speaking countries, learn. Most English learn Spanish as a foreign language, the same way they study another subject, e.g. mathematics. Harmer (2007) states that SFL (Spanish as a foreign language) students usually study Spanish in their own country, anticipating using it with Spanish speakers like tourists or business people, or for examinations. However, in most cases, SFL learners like those in the English context in this study have little exposure and communication in the target language in their daily life. Therefore, it is difficult for English students to imagine themselves speaking Spanish in their future lives or working in certain jobs where the use of Spanish is needed.

2.2 Motivation in Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

The following point to be studied tends to explain and define both the concepts of motivation and demotivation as one of the main factors that may affect learners in their process of acquiring a second language.

2.2.1 Definition of motivation in SLA

As many researchers mention, motivation in SLA is a complex, multifaceted factor and no single theory has yet been able to comprehensively explain it (Dörnyei, 1998a). Indeed, it has been interpreted through the recent decades from various perspectives, such as *Social-psychological*, *Cognitive and Process-oriented* approaches. In 1970s and 1980s, research about motivation was first focused on Gardner's 'Socio-educational model' (1985), which attributed individual differences of the students to a learning of a L2 (Dörnyei, 2001a). In the following decade,

Cognitive approaches appeared, such as Schmidt (1991), who examined classroom motivation. More recently, Process-oriented approaches focus on the dynamic role of motivation, which is regarded as changeable over time (Dörnyei, 2005). Ellis (1997: 75) defines it as ‘the degree of effort that learners make to learn an L2’. Gardner (1985) defines L2 motivation as ‘the extent to which an individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity’ (Dörnyei, 1998:122). Thanks to all these investigations, it is generally believed now that ‘motivation involves four aspects, a goal, effortful behaviour, a desire to attain the goal and favourable attitudes toward the activity in question’ (Gardner, 1985:50; cited in Gass and Selinker,2008:426). Therefore, improving learners’ motivation has been regarded as being positively related to the success in L2 learning.

2.2.2 Definition of demotivation in SLA

In order to search for methods to increase and sustain learners’ motivation, it is also important to consider which factors in the classroom can demotivate students. Demotivation refers to various negative factors that reduce or diminish motivation. Dörnyei (1998b) explores several possible factors to reduce motivation and reveals that the teacher (their dedication, skills, teaching method, etc.) is the most frequent of the nine major factors in students’ demotivation. This means that a teacher has the most influential role to motivate and demotivate learners by, for example, giving appropriate and timely feedback to learners when they speak in Spanish, and that teachers should make efforts to maintain and increase learners’ motivation.

Based on these aspects, we need to think carefully about what kinds of teacher’s motivational techniques can be offered to encourage learners to gain speaking skills in Spanish in the classroom.

2.3 Teacher feedback in relation to speaking skills

As this study is about teachers’ feedback to English learners on their spoken Spanish, a definition of feedback should be provided. Generally, feedback is ‘information that is given to the learner about his or her performance of a learning task, usually with the objective of improving this performance’ (Ur, 1996:242). Also, according to Dörnyei (2001b), teacher feedback is one of the

most influential elements on learner's behaviours, and he quotes Ford's 'Feedback Principle', that is, 'people simply cannot continue to make progress toward their personal goals in the absence of relevant feedback information'. (Ford, 1992; cited in Dörnyei, 2001b:123). Feedback has two major components: positive feedback and negative feedback (Nunan, 1991). Positive feedback is 'praise and affirmative acceptance' (e.g. teachers may say "Good", or nod approvingly) (Harmer 2007:139), and has two main functions: 'to let students know that they have performed correctly and to increase motivation through praise' (Nunan, 1991:195). On the other hand, when it comes to negative feedback, teachers show that something is wrong with the student's answer and performance, by saying 'No' or shaking their heads. Negative feedback is frequently followed by error correction, and, in corrective feedback, 'some specific information is provided on aspects of the learner's performance: through explanation, or provision of better or other alternatives, or through elicitation of these from the learner' (Ur, 1996:242). For instance, 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*' (Lightbown and Spada, 1999:171).

Now I will look at each of these kinds of feedback. Several authors note important points about positive, negative and corrective feedback.

2.3.1 Positive feedback

Positive feedback on learners' spoken Spanish is considered to be a necessary element to promote students' motivation and progress. However, overused praise may lead to a negative influence on their productiveness (Ur, 1996; Thornbury, 2005; Harmer 2007).

Brophy (1981) lists the 12 characteristics of effective praise, and among them 'specifying the particulars of the accomplishment' and 'using student's own prior accomplishments as the context for describing present accomplishments' appear related to the motivation of students to speak (Brophy, 1981; cited in Nunan, 1991:196). He also points out that teachers sometimes give unnecessary praise to students' incorrect answers. Therefore, he argues that praise should be used for reinforcement of favourable behaviours (Brophy, 1981; cited in Wong and Waring, 2009:196).

Hellermann (2003) analyses teachers' voice pitch when they provide positive feedback, and shows that teachers' positive assessment is typified by 'falling pitch contour' and 'mid-level pitch' (Hellermann, 2003; cited in Wong and Waring 2009:195-196). Meanwhile, Wong and Waring (2009), who pay attention to the use of explicit positive feedback such as 'very good', discuss the possibilities that these kinds of positive feedback may prevent students' learning opportunities in certain classroom contexts. Is it, perhaps that, contrarily to what might have been expected positive feedback may lead to effects that were not expected or sought and could somehow decrease student's motivation towards the target language.

One example which they suggest may inhibit students' learning opportunities is that "the teacher's 'very good' is delivered immediately and emphatically along with the encouraging nods, the smiley voice, a repetition of the response as well as a second 'very good'" (Wong and Waring, 2009:198). The researchers point out that even this kind of 'perfect-looking' praise can have a 'finale-like' or 'case-closed' function that does not allow any attempts to utter problems or alternative answers in a particular context. One of their suggestions is that teachers can offer explicit positive feedback sparingly especially to more advanced learners, whose answers are highly likely to be correct, even though "'very good' may be necessary or even essential to encourage the participation ... of some children, lower- and intermediate-level learners ... or any student in need of more 'stroking' or confidence building measures" (Wong and Waring, 2009: 202). Also, teachers should use praise such as 'very good' carefully according to the classroom contexts not to disturb students' learning, as we can see that more experienced teachers may be more skilful in managing the classroom complexities. Another suggestion is to 'conduct action research' (Wong and Waring, 2009:202). The focus will be on when, where, how, and what positive feedback is provided, and the items will be categorised as verbal aspects and non-verbal aspects in observation forms in order to explore their use and appropriateness in one's teaching context (Wong and Waring, 2009).

On the whole, providing positive feedback is not a straightforward job but requires skills, considering the fact that 'praising would not simply give affirmation and encouragement to learners' (Wong and Waring, 2009). Teachers need to take into consideration aspects such as

what, how, where to give praise, and be aware of the context (e.g. types of words, teacher's voice pitch, students' proficiency levels, cultural background etc.).

2.3.2 Negative and corrective feedback

From a motivational point of view, negative/corrective feedback, if provided supportively and gently, will not always be demotivating (Ur, 1996; Harmer 2007), and hence, during speaking activities, teachers as feedback providers should consider the effect of different approaches (Harmer, 2007). For instance, in a communicative activity where the pupil utters "Her father were an astronaut", the teacher could reply "Oh! That is very interesting. Do you mean that her father *was* an astronaut? Also, according to Li (2014), 'oral corrective feedback (CF) can facilitate L2 development but its effects may be constrained by contextual factors and individual learner differences' (Li, 2014:196) such as the learner's level of the target language, the heterogeneity of the group of learners or individual aspects concerning attitude, aptitude or motivation. Teachers have been interested in 'whether, when, and how to incorporate CF in classroom instruction' (Li, 2014: 196).

According to Lee (2013), there are six major types of ways to provide negative/corrective feedback

1. Explicit correction (alerting the learner to the error and providing the correct form). E.g. 'S: On May. T: Not on May, In May. We say, "It will start in May."'

2. Recast (reformulating the incorrect word or phrase). E.g. 'S: I have to find the answer on the book?, T: In the book'

3. Clarification request (asking for clarification). E.g. 'S: What do you spend with your wife? T: What? (Or, Sorry?)'

4. Meta-linguistic feedback (making a metalinguistic comment). E.g. 'S: There are influence person who. T: Influence is a noun.'

5. Elicitation (eliciting the correct form). E.g. 'S: This tea is very warm. T: It's very...? S: Hot.'

6. Repetition (repeating the wrong sentence). E.g. ‘S: I will showed you. T: I will SHOWED you? S: I’ll show you.’

Based on the strategies aforementioned, my research participants will be asked about some of the above tactics in Chapter 3.

2.3.3 Timing of teacher feedback

Teachers should know about when to provide positive feedback and negative/corrective feedback (Hedge, 2000). Scrivener (2005) considers appropriate timing to correct errors and states that, when the main objective of a speaking activity is accuracy, immediate correction is likely to be favourable, and that, if the focus is fluency, the feedback frequently tends to be delayed.

Li (2014:197) identifies two types of the timing of corrective feedback: ‘online corrective feedback’ and ‘offline corrective feedback’. *Online corrective feedback* refers to error corrections during a task. This provides opportunities for a short break from the task in progress, especially in the form of recasts, and enables students to see (or hear) the wrong and correct forms immediately, which is an exemplary form-focusing device. On the other hand, error correction, when it happens after a task has been completed, is called *offline corrective feedback*. Teachers usually write down major errors during the task, and then look through them during the post-task stage. The advantage of offline corrective feedback is that learners will not be interrupted by having to focus on a particular form but they can concentrate on meaning during the task.

On the whole, therefore, among the various approaches to feedback which I have outlined above, the advice given to teachers in the literature review is that they should decide what strategies to use and when to use them, and these decisions may relate to the students’ levels of proficiency, the kinds and frequency of the students’ errors and their confidence or anxiety (Hedge 2000) and to whether they are focusing on developing students’ accuracy or fluency in spoken Spanish (Scrivener, 2005). This means that giving feedback, either positive or negative/corrective feedback, is believed to be a very complicated part of the teaching strategies as a great level of expertise and decision making is required by teachers.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, I will first explain the aims of this research and the research questions, then the participants and their learning context, the research design and approaches, the research instruments used and finally the procedure.

3.1 The aims of my study and the research questions

Based on the aforementioned literature review, it appears to be a need for teachers to know how to provide effective feedback in relation to English students' motivation to speak Spanish. The aims of this research are, by deepening into how teacher feedback affects motivation to speak, to suggest some appropriate and effective ways to manage teacher feedback in Spanish teaching in England, and to contribute to the development in foreign language teaching. To investigate the topic, I aim to find out the answers to the following questions in my research.

1. What kinds of teacher positive feedback can motivate English learners to speak Spanish?
2. When is the appropriate timing for the teacher to provide English learners with positive feedback?
3. What kinds of teacher negative/corrective feedback can motivate English learners to speak Spanish?
4. When is the appropriate timing for the teacher to provide English learners with negative/corrective feedback to motivate them to speak Spanish?

3.2 The participants and their learning context

The participants of my research are eleven English learners studying Spanish in the UK (United Kingdom). Their Spanish levels vary from B1, B2, C1 and C2 according to CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages). There are three students whose level corresponds to B1, three students whose level is B2, three students whose got a C1 level and two students with a C2 level, respectively. They are learning Spanish in their school/ university for 3-4 hours per week. Two of them are preparing for A- level in Spanish and the rest of the subjects

are university students in Canterbury Christ Church University in Canterbury, Kent (England).

3.3 Research design and approaches

In my study, two kinds of research instruments were employed: observation and questionnaires. In this section, I will explain the theoretical backgrounds of these instruments and why they are suitable for answering my research questions.

To begin with, how can motivation be researched? According to Dörnyei (2001a), one of the main problems of motivational research is that motivation is ‘not directly observable’ and hence that it ‘must be inferred from some indirect indicator, such as the individual’s self-report accounts’ (2001a:185). Following the steps proposed by Dörnyei (2001a), the researchers initially need to choose the motivational aspects to target, select the methods, and then decide the research instruments.

Firstly, in order to narrow down the motivational factors to target, I collected different kinds of teacher’s positive and negative/corrective feedback. I first referred to several articles to find teacher feedback strategies, and then, to get more precise data, I observed actual classes to see how teachers give students feedback.

Secondly, concerning the methodology, the investigators need to consider research design and issues such as longitudinal/cross-sectional research and quantitative/qualitative research. My research is a cross-sectional rather than a longitudinal research, for this study is interested in ‘participants’ thoughts and emotional stances at a particular point in time’ (Dörnyei, 2001a, p.188). Also, a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches has been chosen, because this combination enables the researcher to analyse the data statistically in order to determine the most popular feedback strategies and to look at the individual differences of the participants.

Thirdly, to obtain sufficient data for answering the research questions, I have chosen observation and questionnaire as suitable research instruments. Typically, a questionnaire is described as an instrument of quantitative research and observation is a tool of qualitative research. The

observations were used to design the questionnaires, and were also used to gather qualitative data. I will now explain these instruments in the sequence of my research process.

3.4 Research instruments used

First, as stated above, I observed Spanish language classes to collect data about various kinds of teacher's positive/negative feedback to create the questionnaires. This is a suitable research instrument because observation allows us to obtain information about how people act and how things look like. Fraenkel and Wallen (2003) introduce four roles of an observer: complete participant, participant-as-observer, observer-as-participant and complete observer. The difference between *participant-as-observer* and *observer-as-participant* is that, for the former, the researcher 'participates fully in the activities in the group being studied, but also makes it clear that he is doing research' (2003:450), while, for the latter, he/she is present at the scene but does not join in the activities (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2003). Moreover, 'the presence of an observer can have considerable effects on the behaviour of those being observed, and hence on the outcomes of a study', as Fraenkel and Wallen (2003) state. Therefore, we need to carefully choose a style of observation, considering the observation effects.

I observed the classes mainly as an 'observer-as-participant' so that I could concentrate on collecting data during the observations, but in one class I was asked by the teacher to participate in a speaking activity, which was so-called 'moderate participation' at that time.

Furthermore, Dörnyei (2007:179) mentions a dichotomy: 'structured' and 'unstructured' classroom observation. My research particularly looks into the relationship between teacher feedback and students' motivation to speak, hence 'structured' observation is more suitable, because this kind of observation has 'a specific focus and with concrete observation categories'.

Secondly, as mentioned before, motivation cannot be seen directly. Therefore, the questionnaire was constructed to ask the students how their motivation to speak is affected by teacher's feedback. Generally, in a questionnaire, respondents write their answers to the questions or mark an answer sheet (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2003). Meanwhile, there are disadvantages that

ambiguous questions do not allow respondents to answer them properly and that the data can become unreliable. Dörnyei (2001a) introduces a self-report motivation questionnaire and several methods have been developed to ‘make self-report of attitudes reliable and valid’ (2001a:199). These techniques include closed questions with scales (Dörnyei, 2001a). One of the popular scaling techniques is *Likert scales*. This scale ‘consists of a series of statements’ and ‘respondents are asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree’ (2001a:200) by marking one of the responses. (‘Each response option is assigned a number for scoring purposes’ (Dörnyei, 2001a, p.200).) Based on the above, my research applied Likert scales in the questionnaire, because it enables respondents to answer the questionnaire more straightforwardly by checking one choice which reflects their idea to each of the questions.

In my research, combining these two kinds of research instruments allows each of them to compensate for the disadvantages of the others (Dörnyei, 2001a) and can make this research more reliable and valid.

3.5 The procedure

3.5.1 Observation

Observations were conducted to collect qualitative data of various kinds of teacher feedback to create a questionnaire.

3.5.1.1 Observation sheet (see Annex 3)

Following the idea of Dörnyei (2007) regarding how to design an observation sheet, a ‘structured’ observation sheet was created. Concerning the design of this observation form, the following was considered: firstly, this table has ‘time’ as the vertical axis, therefore it is easier to fill out the form, since we can follow the time flow. Secondly, the section of ‘the timing of feedback’ was made, and in this section two choices are given: ‘prompt’ or ‘delayed’, so that the researcher could quickly judge and fill in the blanks. Thirdly, the section of ‘kinds of feedback’ appeared, and here the choices were positive or negative/corrective feedback. Fourthly, there was

the section of 'kinds of students' remarks', in order to write down what the student utters before feedback is provided. Following this section, two sections were prepared so that 'verbal aspects' and 'non-verbal aspects' could be noted down. As the final section, 'other comments' was included to write down any other things that the researcher thought was important to note.

3.5.1.2 Actual observation

I observed six speaking lessons devoted to speaking skills in a Spanish Language service offered by CCCU (Canterbury Christ Church University) in England to collect data about various kinds of teacher's positive and negative/corrective feedback. The classes were multilingual and each class had 13-15 students in the classrooms. Among the six classes, two were 90-minute lessons called 'Speaking Skills', which focused on speaking and had many speaking activities. One of them was with B1 level of CEFR students and the other was with B2 and C1 levels mixed. Apart from the 'Speaking skills' lessons, four lessons were the 'Public Speaking' classes, which lasted 60 minutes. The Public Speaking classes included a variety of activities, presentations, seminars and any activity in which the students had to speak in front of a small audience, including games. The teachers focused on aspects such as pronunciation, rhythm and fluency in the Public Speaking classes. There were four different levels of classes: B1, B2, C1 and C2.

Since I wanted to observe various levels of classes and different teachers' feedback to collect a variety of kinds of teacher feedback, the proficiency levels varied from B1 to C2, and five different teachers cooperated with the observations (the teacher C1 and C2 class and class of 'Public Speaking' was the same teacher). (See Annex 3 for an example of note-taking of observation.).

3.5.2 Questionnaire

Secondly, the questionnaire was constructed to ask English students how their motivation to speak Spanish was affected by teacher's feedback.

3.5.2.1 Design of questionnaire

The questionnaire proposed consists of 'scale' questions with Likert scales. Firstly, verbal aspects and non-verbal aspects corresponding either to positive feedback or negative/corrective feedback were listed and categorized. Verbal aspects of positive feedback, the words which the teachers used in the observations were classified into several groups. Furthermore, in non-verbal aspects of positive feedback, nine features that were observed in the classes were included (smile, eye contact, nodding, thumb ups, pointing to the student, snapping fingers, okay sign, clapping and gestures). These items were measured by the Likert scale quantitatively. Thirdly, the participants were asked about the appropriate timing of positive feedback. There were not only two choices of 'prompt' or 'delayed', but more concrete descriptions of four timings were given. Also, verbal and non-verbal aspects of negative feedback were categorised according to the data of the observation sheets, which became questions afterwards.

3.5.2.2 Actual questionnaire

The participants took the questionnaire for about 10-15 minutes. (See Annex 1 for an example of the questionnaire).

In this chapter, I have drawn the research questions, the research pattern and the choices I made with regards to the research. I have also explained the procedure and the participants. In the next chapter, I report on the data in view of the research questions and discuss the findings.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter, I will refer to the results and discuss them first, and then interpret the findings more deeply in relation to the previous literature and research.

4.1. Positive feedback

I will now report on each item of positive feedback, both in quantitative terms and giving examples of the qualitative comments made by respondents.

4.1.1. Verbal aspects of positive feedback

Table 1

Positive feedback <i>Verbal aspects</i>	Mean score
1. Using simple language to say 'you are right'	3.64
2. Using stronger praise with 'very'/'pretty' and a noun	4.27
3. Thanking you	3.82
4. Using extreme adjectives	4.27
5. Praise your answer or performance concretely.	4.55
6. With your name	4.00
7. With repeating your answer	3.73
8. With the teacher's comment on the content of your answer	4.27
9. Teacher's voice tone	4.27
10. Teacher's speaking speed	3.27

I now report on the verbal aspects of positive feedback which seemed to motivate learners. Among the 10 items in verbal aspects of positive feedback, the highest average was marked by '5. Praise your answer or performance concretely' (Mean=4.55). This means that concrete praise has a strong positive co-relationship with the students' motivation to speak Spanish. Following

this, both ‘2. Using stronger praise’ and ‘4. Using extreme adjectives’ marked the second highest average (M=4.27), so these techniques are also positive in promoting motivation. Although the former two items have little difference in their figures, they have a far higher average than ‘1. Using simple language’ (M=3.64) which does not seem to be as effective in motivating English learners to speak. Likewise, ‘8. With comments on the content of the student’s answer’ and ‘9. With raised voice tone’ had noticeable scores (M=4.27). In addition, ‘6. With the student’s name’ showed positive co-relationship with the student’s motivation (M=4.0). ‘3. Thanking you’ (M=3.82) and ‘7. With repeating your answer’ (M=3.73) had relatively positive impact on students’ motivation. However, four students out of eleven answered ‘neither motivated nor not motivated’ to each of the items, which means these two elements might depend on the individuals.

4.1.2. Non-verbal aspects of positive feedback

Table 2

Positive feedback <i>Non-verbal perspectives</i>	Mean score
1. Smile	4.09
2. Eye contact	4.00
3. Nodding	3.64
4. Pointing to you	3.36
5. Snapping fingers	3.45
6. Thumbs up	4.00
7. Okay sign	3.82
8. Clapping	3.91

Among the eight items of non-verbal aspects of positive feedback, ‘1. Smile’ had the highest average (M=4.09), followed by both ‘2. Eye contact’ and ‘6. Thumbs up’ (M=4.0). The third most popular non-verbal aspect of positive feedback was ‘8. Clapping’ (M=3.91). ‘7. Okay sign’ had a relatively high mark (M=3.82), followed by ‘3. Nodding’ (M=3.64). ‘5. Snapping fingers’ (M=3.45) and ‘4. Pointing to you’ (M=3.36) showed a lower average than the other items above. These two items appear to be relatively less effective to motivate the students than the other items.

4.1.3. Timing of positive feedback

Table 3

<i>Timing of Positive feedback</i>	Mean score
1. While you are speaking	2.64
2. Just after you speak	4.27
3. Just after your presentation/activities	4.45
4. At the end of the class	3.82

The results showed that the motivating timing of positive feedback are ‘3. Just after the student’s presentation/activities’ (M=4.45) and ‘2. Just after the student speaks’ (M=4.27). Six students answered that ‘1. While the student speaks’, even if it is a positive feedback, can be demotivating. Concerning the reasons, Student 1 said, ‘when I receive positive feedback while I am speaking, I cannot continue speaking well’, and Student 9 said, ‘if the teacher interrupts me while I am speaking, the idea in my mind will slip out’. Also, Students 8 and 10 commented that, when teachers say ‘good’ while they are speaking, they feel teachers stop their utterances, which implies their utterance is not necessary any more. Also, Student 11 said, ‘I would like teachers to wait for my whole utterance’. Considering the aforementioned, appropriate timing to giving feedback could be *after* the student speaks. However, the average of ‘4. At the end of the lesson’ (M=3.82) was slightly less than ‘3. Just after the student’s presentation/activities’ and ‘2. Just after the student speaks’, which means ‘just after the speaking’ is preferred to ‘sometime after the speaking’.

4.2 Negative/Corrective feedback

I now turn to look at the findings of negative/corrective feedback, commenting on each item.

4.2.1 Verbal aspects of negative feedback

I now report on the verbal aspects of negative feedback which seemed to motivate learners to speak in class.

Table 4

Negative feedback	Mean score
1. Using simple language to say 'your answer is wrong.'	2.82
2. Using softer language	3.27
3. Implying that your answer is not correct but close	4.00
4. Praising before giving negative feedback	4.27

Among the four items of verbal aspects of negative feedback, '4. Praising before giving negative feedback' showed the highest mark (M=4.27) which means that providing praise to students' attempt (e.g. saying 'good try' or 'good guess') before giving negative feedback appears to be very effective to motivate the students. Following this item, '3. Implying that the student's answer is not correct but close' had the second highest score (M=4.00), so the words such as 'close' or 'nearly there' appear to have positive effect on the students' motivation when giving negative feedback. Meanwhile, '1. Using simple language to say 'your answer is wrong'' showed a remarkably low mark (M=2.82). This means direct negative feedback, such as 'no', somehow may lead to the students' demotivation. '2. Using softer language' such as 'not really' or 'not quite' showed a higher mark (M=3.27).

This suggests that, when teachers give negative feedback, it tends to be more motivating to use softer words than saying things directly. Also, based on the above findings, 'saying that the student's answer is close' appears to have more positive effect than using softer language. Furthermore, a much more important thing is for teachers to praise the student's try before providing negative feedback.

4.2.2 Non-verbal aspects of negative feedback

Table 5

Negative feedback <i>Non-verbal perspectives</i>	Mean score
1. Frowning face	2.36
2. Shaking their heads	2.36
3. So-so gesture	2.73
4. Uttering 'Umm'	2.91

Among the four items concerning non-verbal aspects of negative feedback, prepared in the questionnaire, both '1. Frowning face' and '2. Shaking their heads' showed the lowest score. '3. So-so gesture' had a relatively low score (M=2.73), and '4. Uttering 'Umm'' showed a slightly higher mark (M=2.91). On the whole, the average scores of each of the four items concerning non-verbal aspects of negative feedback were under 3.00, which means that every item may somehow lead to the students' demotivation to speak. Also, the scores of the four items of non-verbal aspects were relatively lower than the scores of the items of verbal aspects. The reason for this could possibly be that the teacher's face expressions or gestures may reflect more on learners' feelings than their words, so if the teacher has such a non-verbal negative feedback, s/he could demotivate his or her students more easily.

4.2.3 Corrective feedback

Table 6

Corrective feedback (teacher's production)	Mean score
1. Say the correct answer.	3.27
2. Say the correct answer and make the student repeat it.	3.00
3. Repeat the wrong answer and then pause to wait for the student's self-correction.	4.18
4. Repeat the wrong answer, say "or", and then the correct answer.	4.00

5. Give hints for the student's self-correction.	4.27
6. Ask the other students to correct the student's answer.	2.82
7. Whisper the correct answer to the student, so that the other students will not hear.	2.55
8. After the activity, write the errors on the board and ask the students what is wrong with these sentences.	3.55
9. Praise first, and then correct the student's answer.	4.09
10. After correcting several errors, say something positive so that your students won't worry about making mistakes.	3.64

I now report on the findings of how to provide corrective feedback from the questionnaire. Among the 10 prepared items of corrective feedback, the highest score was marked by '5. Give hints for your student's self-correction' (M=4.27). Likewise, '3. Repeat the student's wrong answer and then pause to wait for their self-correction' showed the second highest mark (M=4.18). These two items have something in common with each other in so far as that they include the key word *self-correction*. Student 5, who replied 'highly motivated' to both the two items, said, 'this is a motivating way because I can correct my errors voluntarily'. It appears that the ways of corrective feedback which promote self-correction have positive effects on the students' motivation to speak. Also, giving hints rather than just pointing out the errors for self-correction appears to be a more motivating way of corrective feedback.

The third highest score was marked by '9. Praise first, and then correct the student's answer' (M=4.09). As well as the findings in verbal aspects of negative feedback, praising students' attempts (e.g. saying 'good try' or 'good guess') before giving corrective feedback tends to be rather effective to motivate the students. Following this, '4. Repeat the student's wrong answer, say "or", and then the correct answer' showed a relatively higher mark (M=4.00). Student 11, who answered 'highly motivated' to this item, said, 'this kind of corrective feedback enables me to notice the correct answer immediately'. However, Student 10, who is the only respondent choosing 'rather demotivated' to the same item, said 'I feel that this way of corrective feedback forces me to say the correct answer. This does not allow autonomy.' This implies that the

majority of the students regarded this corrective feedback as rather motivating but some students think it demotivating.

The scores of ‘1. Say the correct answer’ and ‘2. Say the correct answer and repeat it’ were around neutral (item 1 (M=3.27) and item 2 (M=3.00), respectively). This basically means that some respondents are motivated by receiving the correct answer instantly but some are not.

The items whose average scores were under 3.00 were ‘6. Ask the other students to correct the student’s answer’ (M=2.82) and ‘7. Whisper the correct answer to the student close to you, so that the other students will not hear’ (M=2.55). ‘6 Ask the other students to correct the student’s answer’ showed that this corrective technique can be motivating or demotivating depending on the individuals, and in most occasions this may lead to students’ demotivation to speak. ‘7. Whisper the correct answer to the student close to you, so that the other students will not hear’ showed the lowest mark. Three respondents chose ‘rather demotivated’, and two replied ‘highly demotivated’. Student 8, who answered ‘rather demotivated’, said, ‘this way of corrective feedback is not fair as, for example, I do mind my errors being corrected in front of the classmates.’ Student 4, who chose ‘highly demotivated’, said ‘I feel that I am not competent and I feel depressed’. This corrective technique does not appear to influence the majority of the students’ motivation, but for some it can be demotivating.

4.2.4 Timing of negative/corrective feedback

Table 7

<i>Timing of Negative/Corrective feedback</i>	Mean score
1. While you are speaking	2.64
2. Just after you speak	3.91
3. Just after your presentation/activities	4.09
4. At the end of the class	3.64

The results showed that the motivating timing of positive feedback appears to be '3. Just after your presentation/activities' (M=4.09). Two students chose 'highly motivated' and eight answered 'rather motivated'. Following this, '2. Just after you speak' had the second highest mark (M=3.91). These findings mean that the students can be more motivated when negative/corrective feedback is given after the whole activity is done rather than just after they speak. '4. At the end of the class' showed a lower score (M=3.64) than the two items above. One reason for this is explained by Student 11 when she uttered: 'if a teacher provides negative/corrective feedback at the very end of the class, I cannot remember when and what kinds of errors I have made.' Therefore, '4. At the end of the class' seems to be a little late for the appropriate timing of negative/corrective feedback.

The lowest score was marked by '1. While you are speaking' (M=2.64). Some students uttered that they could not concentrate on their speaking after receiving the feedback. Thus, we can say that '1. While you are speaking' can be somewhat demotivating to some students.

4.3 Global discussion

In this section I will discuss the findings in relation to the literature consulted.

4.3.1 Positive feedback

Firstly, regarding verbal aspects of positive feedback, we saw before that 'praising the student's answer or performance concretely' showed a strong positive effect on the student's motivation. This corresponds to Brophy (1981)'s idea, that is, 'specify[ing] the particulars of the accomplishment' (Brophy, 1981; cited in Nunan, 1991, p.196). This is also true for the idea of Dörnyei (2007), that is, effective praise for students' motivation is 'offering praise for effort or achievement that is sincere, specific and commensurate with the student's achievement.' This leads us to conclude that it can be said that concrete positive feedback is very important for students' motivation.

Concerning the timing of positive feedback, some students commented that, when teachers say ‘good’ while they are speaking, they feel teachers stop their utterances, which implies their utterance is not necessary any more. This feeling appears to be related to the ideas of Wong and Waring (2009) that teacher’s ‘good’ has ‘case-closed’ and ‘finale-like’ functions (p.198).

4.3.2 Negative feedback

There have been few studies which focus only on negative feedback, but as Harmer (2007) states, if provided supportively, negative feedback is not always demotivating and also can even be motivating. For example, ‘praising before giving negative feedback’ and ‘implying that the student’s answer is close’ showed high average marks.

4.3.3 Corrective feedback

The result that the ways corrective feedback which promotes self-correction can be motivating corresponds to Li’s (2014:197) idea that ‘feedback encouraging self-correction is relatively motivating and makes classes more dynamic and interactive’, and consequently leads to the idea of ‘encouraging students to correct their own mistakes’.

Concerning the appropriate timing of corrective feedback, Lee (2013) concluded that immediate corrective feedback was preferred by most of the respondents, but the result of this research was different as the English students in my research answered they are motivated when corrective feedback is given just after the activity or just after the student speaks. Perhaps further research could be done regarding this issue that could be related, possibly, to their level of mastery of the language, age or other characteristics that have not been accounted within this study.

In this chapter, I have discussed the findings concerning positive feedback and negative/corrective feedback in terms of verbal aspects and non-verbal aspects. In the next chapter, I will summarise the answers to my research questions and then suggest how teachers can apply these findings to their classroom teaching to motivate English students to speak Spanish.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND FINDINGS

In this chapter, first I will attempt to answer the four research questions from the data I gathered, and then suggest how this research can contribute to the SFL classrooms in England and teacher training/development. Finally, limitations to this research and implications to further research will be discussed.

5.1 Answers to the research questions

5.1.1 What kinds of teacher positive feedback can motivate English learners to speak Spanish?

Teachers need to consider verbal and non-verbal aspects of positive feedback to motivate English learners to speak Spanish. Firstly, concerning the verbal aspects, the results show that ‘praising the student’s answer or performance concretely’ can be a highly motivating way for learners to speak. It can be said the students will be more motivated when they receive specific positive feedback, such as ‘good idea’, ‘good pronunciation’, ‘very good argument’ or ‘fantastic grammar’ rather than when a teacher merely says ‘good’ or ‘very good’. It appears to be important for students to know the exact aspect that is being praised. Also, it was found that ‘using stronger praise’ (e.g. ‘very good’, ‘well done’ or ‘good girl/boy’) and ‘using extreme adjectives’ (e.g. ‘great’, ‘excellent’, ‘definitely’ or ‘perfect’) are more motivating than ‘using simple language’ (e.g. ‘yes’, ‘okay’, ‘right’, ‘good’ or ‘nice’).

Along with using the aforementioned kinds of words in positive feedback, it can be also effective to ‘add the teacher’s comment on the content of the student’s answer’ (e.g. ‘that’s interesting’ or ‘I think so too’), because this kind of feedback focuses on the message and is regarded as ‘natural’ and ‘communicative’ (Cullen, 1998:180).

Also, it is more effective to motivate learners to speak by using a variety of kinds of words to praise than with limited kinds of words. One interesting finding of verbal aspects of positive feedback in relation to the learner’s proficiency levels is that the students whose proficiency levels are relatively low and who have had little success in speaking Spanish appear to have

negative feelings towards the extreme adjectives when they receive positive feedback with those adjectives. This might happen especially among the English learners who are not very confident in their Spanish speaking skills.

Regarding non-verbal aspects of positive feedback, the results show that ‘smile’, ‘eye contact’, ‘thumbs up’, and ‘clapping’ are motivational factors. Therefore, if a teacher combines several aspects of the gestures, multiple positive effects can be expected.

5.1.2 When is the appropriate timing to give teacher positive feedback to English learners to motivate them to speak Spanish?

The results reveals that the most appropriate timing of positive feedback to motivate the English learners to speak is ‘just after the student’s presentation/activities’, followed by ‘just after the student speaks’. On the other hand, ‘while the student speaks’, even if it is a positive feedback, can lead to learners’ demotivation. This is because some students feel that teachers stop their utterances by saying ‘good’, which implies their utterance is not necessary any more (Wong and Waring, 2009). Most learners can be motivated when positive feedback is given after they speak.

5.1.3 What kinds of teacher negative/corrective feedback can motivate English learners to speak Spanish?

In this section, I will answer this question by distinguishing between negative feedback and corrective feedback on oral utterances when dealing with accuracy.

Concerning negative feedback, verbally it can be said that it is quite effective ‘to praise the student’s attempt before providing negative feedback’ to motivate the English learners to speak Spanish. Teachers can say first ‘good try’ or ‘good guess’ and then ‘but it’s not quite’ to the students, which can encourage their risk-taking (Dörnyei, 2008). Also, the results show that the students are motivated when a teacher implies the student’s answer is not correct but close (e.g. saying ‘close’ or ‘nearly there’). On the other hand, ‘using direct words’ to provide negative feedback can be demotivating. Saying ‘no’ or ‘we don’t say that’ sounds strong to the English students, and therefore some learners might feel depressed. Rather than using these kinds of

direct, simple words, it is advisable to ‘use softer language’ such as ‘not really’ or ‘not quite’ in order not to demotivate the students to speak. In relation to the students’ proficiency level, relatively low-level students might be more influenced negatively by teacher’s direct negative feedback. Hence, teachers might need to carefully use direct words to provide negative feedback with relatively low-level students.

In terms of non-verbal aspects of negative feedback, the results show that teachers’ ‘frowning face’ and ‘shaking their heads’ can be quite demotivating factors in negative feedback. Also, ‘so-so gestures’ might slightly demotivate the English students. However, whether ‘uttering ‘umm’’ would be motivating or demotivating depends on the individuals. One of the reasons why the gestures used to show negative feedback are relatively demotivating is that teachers’ face expression and gestures may reflect their feelings more than their words, and therefore learners might feel more disappointed.

Regarding corrective feedback about utterances that are incorrect when the teacher is looking for accuracy, the key point is whether corrective feedback is promoting *self-correction* or not. The results reveal that ‘giving hints for the student’s self-correction’ and ‘repeating the student’s wrong answer and then pausing to wait for self-correction’ are quite motivating ways of corrective feedback, no matter if giving hints rather than just pointing out the errors for self-correction appears to be more motivating. Meanwhile, ‘asking the other students to correct the student’s answer’ is found to be demotivating. These findings mean that the English learners are motivated when they are given an opportunity for self-correction (Li, 2014). Another way of corrective feedback that can be motivating is ‘praising first and then correcting the error’. As well as the results in verbal aspects of negative feedback, praising students’ attempt before giving corrective feedback tends to be rather effective to motivate the students. Moreover, ‘repeating the wrong answer, saying ‘or’ and then giving the correct answer’ can be a rather motivating way. On the other hand, ‘whispering the correct answer close to the student so that the other students will not hear’ proved to be quite demotivating, perhaps because the student feels separated, incompetent or because correcting is not done in communicative ways. Therefore, teachers should not use this kind of corrective feedback in the classroom.

On the whole, the results reveal that differences among individuals are significant in the other

kinds of corrective feedback. Hence, teachers need to carefully choose suitable corrective strategies according to their students.

5.1.4 When is the appropriate timing to give teacher negative/corrective feedback to English learners to motivate them to speak Spanish?

The most effective timing to motivate the English learners to speak Spanish is 'just after the student's presentation/activities'. Also, 'just after the student speaks' is found to be rather motivating, but 'at the end of the class' is a little late for the appropriate timing of negative/corrective feedback. On the other hand, 'while the student is speaking' can be a demotivating timing because some students might not be able to concentrate on their speaking and may feel nervous.

5.2 Suggestions for the SFL classrooms in England

Based on the aforementioned, teachers should be careful to choose the appropriate ways and kinds of positive feedback and negative/corrective feedback to motivate English learners to speak Spanish. For example, these findings should be presented to teachers through teacher's manuals, workshops and conferences. Also, it is very important to know the effective timing to provide positive and negative/corrective feedback.

Teachers need to pay close attention to students' characteristics, especially to low proficiency level students, who might be more demotivated when they receive extreme adjectives as positive feedback and when given direct negative feedback than higher level students.

Another suggestion is that, since teachers in England struggle to motivate the students to speak Spanish in their classes, there is an urgent need to organise teacher training and teacher education systems to teach how and when to provide effective positive feedback and negative/corrective feedback. Through this training, teachers can improve their feedback and students can be more motivated to speak and improve their speaking skills. It can be also suggested that each teacher

should conduct action research to find more specific feedback methods to motivate their own students in their teaching contexts. (Wong and Waring, 2009).

Furthermore, although this research has been focusing on teacher feedback to motivate the English learners to speak Spanish, there are a great number of possible elements to help them to want to speak, the kinds of teacher's questions, teacher's silence, teacher's personality, atmosphere in the class, the choice of topic, etc. Teachers need to take into consideration those factors to improve their students' motivation as well.

5.3 Limitations to this research and implication for the further research

This study can be regarded as important empirical research in the English context in the sense that it investigates effective ways (verbal and non-verbal feedback communication) and the appropriate timing of teacher positive feedback and negative/corrective to motivate English learners to speak. Also these findings refer to the possibility that teachers can apply different kinds of feedback suitable for the students' proficiency levels.

However, there are some limitations to the research. This study depended on the English students who attended the Spanish lessons that I researched. Because of this, one drawback is that the researcher could not have the same number of participants for each English proficiency level, and hence the Spanish proficiency levels of the participants were unbalanced. Consequently, when comparing the differences of the findings among the proficiency levels, this did not allow simply counting the number of people to analyse the data. Furthermore, there was no class under B1-level. Therefore, this study could not deal with the motivation of students whose level was below B1, although this could also be an area to be further explored.

Also, there is still need for better understanding of the research area. Firstly, this study was conducted with a small number of subjects (11 students), but it would be useful to replicate a similar study with a greater number of participants to ascertain to what extent this small scale work is generalizable to a wider group. Secondly, the Spanish classes observed in this research were all taught by native and non-native Spanish speaker teachers who gave all their feedback in Spanish. Therefore, the results may be different with the students in the Spanish lessons

conducted by English teachers who may not give all feedback in Spanish. It may be interesting to differentiate the motivational aspects of Spanish-only feedback compared to the motivational aspects of bi-lingual teachers who may sometimes use both languages.

Finally, this research reminds researchers and teachers of the importance for each teacher to observe their students carefully and find effective and appropriate ways of providing feedback to the students. I would like to emphasise the need for further research for individual teachers to improve their students' motivation to speak Spanish.

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ANNEXES

1. Questionnaires

Survey of teachers' positive feedback

Positive feedback is the feedback that teachers give you when you answer correctly or do something well, for example, the teacher says 'Good' or 'Well done'.

Please tell me how motivated you are to speak Spanish when teachers give you the following kinds of feedback.

The feedback is followed by numbers, 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1, and each number means the following:

- "5" means that "I am highly motivated to speak Spanish."
- "4" means that "I am rather motivated to speak Spanish."
- "3" means that "I am neither motivated nor demotivated."
- "2" means that "I am rather demotivated to speak Spanish."
- "1" means that "I am highly demotivated to speak Spanish"

Please circle the number (5, 4, 3, 2 or 1) which applies to you.

Verbal aspects

1	Using simple language to say 'you are right' (E.g. Yes/ yeah/ Okay/ fine/ right/ nice/ good etc.)	5 4 3 2 1
2	Using stronger praise with very/ rather and a noun or adjective (E.g. Good boy/ good girl/ you got it/ very good/ pretty good/ well done/ lovely etc.)	5 4 3 2 1
3	Thanking you (E.g. thank you. Thank you very much.)	5 4 3 2 1

4	Using strong qualifiers (E.g. Great/ brilliant/ fantastic/ excellent/ absolutely/ definitely / exactly/ perfect/ marvellous etc.)	5 4 3 2 1
5	Praise your answer or performance concretely. 5 4 3 2 1 (E.g. Good idea/ good pronunciation/ good intonation/ good argument/ fantastic grammar etc.)	5 4 3 2 1
6	In addition to the teacher's word, when the teacher gives positive feedback in the following situations, with your name (E.g. "Very good, Paloma")	5 4 3 2 1
7	Repeating your answer (e.g. "(Repeat your answer), very good)	5 4 3 2 1
8	Regarding the teacher's comment on the content of your answer	5 4 3 2 1
9	Teachers' voice tone	5 4 3 2 1
10	Teachers' speaking speed	5 4 3 2 1

Non-verbal aspects

1	Smile	5 4 3 2 1
2	Eye contact	5 4 3 2 1
3	Nodding	5 4 3 2 1
4	Thumbs up	5 4 3 2 1
5	Pointing to the student	5 4 3 2 1
6	Snapping fingers	5 4 3 2 1
7	Okay sign	5 4 3 2 1

8	Clapping	5 4 3 2 1
9	Gestures	5 4 3 2 1

Timing to give positive feedback

1	While you are speaking	5 4 3 2 1
2	Just after you speak	5 4 3 2 1
3	Just after your presentation/activities	5 4 3 2 1
4	Sometime after your presentation/activities	5 4 3 2 1

Survey of teachers' negative and corrective feedback

Negative feedback is the feedback that teachers show that something is wrong with your answer.

Corrective feedback is the feedback that teachers give when they want to correct your answers.

Please indicate how far you were motivated by the following aspects.

Each statement is followed by five numbers, 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1, and each number means the following:

- “5” means that “I am highly motivated to speak Spanish”
- “4” means that “I am rather motivated to speak Spanish”
- “3” means that “I am neither motivated nor demotivated.”
- “2” means that “I am rather demotivated to speak Spanish”
- “1” means that “I am highly demotivated to speak Spanish”

Please circle the number (5, 4, 3, 2 or 1) which applies to you.

Verbal aspects

1	Using simple language to say ‘your answer is wrong’. (e.g. No. / We don’t say that. / Be careful. etc.)	5 4 3 2 1
2	Using softer language (e.g. Not really. / Not quite. etc.)	5 4 3 2 1
3	Implying that your answer is not correct but close. (e.g. Close. / Nearly there.)	5 4 3 2 1
4	Prasing before giving negative feedback (e.g. Good try. / good guess. But not quite.)	5 4 3 2 1

Non-verbal aspects

1	Teacher’s frowning face	5 4 3 2 1
	<i>When teachers give corrective feedback, they can:</i>	
2	Stop you speaking and say the correct answer.	5 4 3 2 1
3	Give hints for your self-correction.	5 4 3 2 1
4	Repeat your wrong answer, say “or”, and then the correct answer. (e.g. “The manager do nothing? Or, the manager does nothing?”)	5 4 3 2 1
5	Repeat your wrong answer and then pause to wait for your self-correction	5 4 3 2 1
6	Say the correct answer and repeat it	5 4 3 2 1
7	Whisper the correct answer behind you, not in front of the other	5 4 3 2 1

	students.	
8	Ask the other students to correct your answer.	5 4 3 2 1
9	The teacher doesn't understand and asks you "What did you say?" The teacher waits for you to correct yourself.	5 4 3 2 1
10	Move their head to indicate error, give the correct version, and ask you to repeat it.	5 4 3 2 1
11	Praise first, and then correct your answer.	5 4 3 2 1
12	After the activity, write your errors on the board and ask what are wrong with these sentences.	5 4 3 2 1
13	After several errors, say something so that you do not worry about making mistakes. (e.g. "Don't worry about making mistakes. Communicating is important.")	5 4 3 2 1

Timing to give negative/corrective feedback

1	While you are speaking	5 4 3 2 1
2	Just after you speak	5 4 3 2 1
3	Just after your presentation/activities	5 4 3 2 1
4	Sometime after your presentation/activities	5 4 3 2 1

Thank you very much for your cooperation and assistance.

2. Tabulated participants' answers to questionnaires

Student number	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	S11	distribution					average
Gender (M=male, F=female)	F	M	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	5	4	3	2	1	
CEFR	C2	C2	C1	C1	C1	B2	B2	B2	B1	B1	B1						
Positive feedback																	
<i>Verbal perspectives</i>																	
1. Using simple language to say 'you are right'	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	5	1	5	5	0	0	3.64
2. Using stronger praise with 'very'/'pretty' and a noun	4	3	4	5	4	5	5	4	5	3	5	5	4	2	0	0	4.27
3. Thanking you	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	5	4	5	4	2	5	4	0	0	3.82
4. Using extreme adjectives	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	4	4	3	4	4	6	1	0	0	4.27
5. Praise your answer or performance	4	4	4	5	5	4	5	4	5	5	5	6	5	0	0	0	4.55
6. Using limited kinds of language	3	3	3	2	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	0	1	9	1	0	3.00
7. Using a variety of language	3	3	3	5	5	4	4	4	4	3	5	3	4	4	0	0	3.91
8. With your name	4	3	3	4	4	5	4	4	5	4	4	2	7	2	0	0	4.00
9. With repeating your answer	4	3	3	5	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	1	6	4	0	0	3.73
10. With the teacher's comment on the content of your answer	5	4	4	5	5	4	5	4	4	3	4	4	6	1	0	0	4.27
11. Raised voice tone	4	4	3	4	5	5	4	4	4	5	5	4	6	1	0	0	4.27
11. Normal voice tone	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	4	4	0	3	8	0	0	3.27
<i>Non-verbal perspectives</i>																	
1. Smile	4	3	3	4	4	5	4	4	5	4	5	3	6	2	0	0	4.09
2. Eye contact	4	3	4	4	4	5	4	3	4	4	5	2	7	2	0	0	4.00
3. Nodding	4	3	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	3	5	1	5	5	0	0	3.64
4. Pointing to you	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	5	1	2	8	0	0	3.36
5. Snapping fingers	3	3	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	5	1	3	7	0	0	3.45
6. Thumbs up	4	3	3	4	5	5	3	4	4	4	5	3	5	3	0	0	4.00
7. Okay sign	4	3	3	4	5	5	3	4	4	3	4	2	5	4	0	0	3.82
8. Clapping	5	4	4	3	4	5	4	5	3	2	4	3	5	2	1	0	3.91
<i>Timing of Positive feedback</i>																	
1. While you are speaking	2	2	4	4	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	0	2	3	6	0	2.64
2. Just after you speak	4	4	4	5	5	4	5	4	4	4	4	3	8	0	0	0	4.27
3. Just after your presentation/activities	4	4	4	5	5	4	5	4	4	5	5	5	6	0	0	0	4.45
4. At the end of the class	4	4	4	3	5	4	4	4	3	4	3	1	7	3	0	0	3.82
Negative feedback																	
<i>Verbal perspectives</i>																	
1. Using simple language to say 'your answer is wrong.'	3	3	3	2	3	2	2	3	3	2	5	1	0	6	4	0	2.82
2. Using softer language	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	0	3	8	0	0	3.27
3. Implying that your answer is not correct but close	4	3	4	4	5	4	4	4	4	5	3	2	7	2	0	0	4.00
4. Praising before giving negative feedback	4	3	4	5	5	5	5	5	4	3	4	5	4	2	0	0	4.27
<i>Non-verbal perspectives</i>																	
1. Frowning face	3	3	2	1	3	2	2	3	3	1	3	0	0	6	3	2	2.36
2. Shaking their heads	2	3	2	1	3	3	2	3	2	2	3	0	0	5	5	1	2.36
3. So-so gesture	3	3	2	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	0	0	8	3	0	2.73
4. Uttering 'Umm'	3	3	2	4	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	0	1	8	2	0	2.91

Observation form

Date:		Time:		No.	
Nrgative/Corrective Feedback					
Timing	to what kinds of students' errors	how?	verbal aspects	non-verbal aspects	
No	prompt=P delayed=D	kinds of errors eg/vocab/ grammar/ pronunciation	words/ voice tone/ speed etc.	gestures/ face expressions/ eye contact/ materials etc.	
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					

Positive Feedback					
Timing	to what kinds of students' answers	how?	verbal aspects	non-verbal aspects	
No	prompt=P delayed=D	correct answer/ good idea etc.	words/ voice tone/ speed etc.	gestures/ face expressions/ eye contact/ materials etc.	
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					

Observation form		Date: 19.05.2015	Time: 11:30	No. 2
Positive Feedback				
6	D After the task	good performance of the whole class	“That was actually pretty good.”	Clapping
7	P	the content of the student's answer	“Okay, brilliant.”	
8	P	correct answer	“Very good.” & “See. She is doing well. She is very clever. (S' s name).”	
9	P	the content of the student's answer	“Excellent.” & “Okay.” & “Brilliant.”	Nodding & Smile & Eye contact
10	P	the content of the student's answer	“Thank you very much.”	
Negative/Corrective Feedback				
6	P	grammar error	Repeat your wrong answer and then pause to wait for self-correction	“She was old lady? ... She was an old lady. Yes.”
7	P	grammar error	After correcting your several errors, say something so that you do not worry about making mistakes.	“It' s perfectly normal when you start speaking fluently, just to slip things. Don' t ever worry about it. But my job is just to pick up and correct.”
8	D After the activity	pronunciation error	Praise first, and then correct the answer.	“I noticed, during your interview, lots of really good connected speech, like 'I was/ we z /' . Let' s just remind us of some questions. So 'Do you' becomes ...”
9	D After the activity	pronunciation error		“Do you /dʒu/ Yes.”
10	D After the activity	pronunciation error		“Would you /dʒu/” Strain her ears & Smile

Observation form		Date: 19.05.2015	Time: 11:30	No. 3
Positive Feedback		Negative/Corrective Feedback		
11	P the content of the student's answer	"Yes, Okay."	P grammar error	Whisper the correct answer close to the student, so that the other students will not hear. Say the correct answer and repeat it.
12	P the content of the student's answer	"Okay, alright, that's fine."	P P	Say the correct answer. "next door"
13	P correct answer	"You are doing brilliant."	P grammar error	Praise first, and then correct the answer. Repeat your wrong answer and then pause to wait for self-correction
14	P correct answer	"Yeah, (S's name), pretty good."		
15	P the content of the student's answer	"Very good. Thank you."		"Good, I come from ... Japan. Yeah."
16	P correct answer	"I think she is doing pretty well."		

Observation form		Date: 19.05.2015	Time: 11:30	No. 4
		Negative/Corrective Feedback		
17	P good performance to the task	"She is a lovely CEO."		
18	P the content of the student's answer	"I always think (S' s name) sounds so convincing. I really believe she is an accountant"		
19	P good performance to the task	"Excellent, thanks (S' s name), that' s brilliant."		
20	P correct answer	"Perfect."		
21	P good pronunciation	"I love your stress. I love it."		
22	D After the task good performance of the whole class	"Well done, everybody."		
23	D After the task good performance of the whole class	"Brilliant. Fantastic work."	Clapping	
24	D At the end of the class all the performances	"I' m really happy with your speaking."		