



저작자표시-비영리-변경금지 2.0 대한민국

이용자는 아래의 조건을 따르는 경우에 한하여 자유롭게

- 이 저작물을 복제, 배포, 전송, 전시, 공연 및 방송할 수 있습니다.

다음과 같은 조건을 따라야 합니다:



저작자표시. 귀하는 원저작자를 표시하여야 합니다.



비영리. 귀하는 이 저작물을 영리 목적으로 이용할 수 없습니다.



변경금지. 귀하는 이 저작물을 개작, 변형 또는 가공할 수 없습니다.

- 귀하는, 이 저작물의 재이용이나 배포의 경우, 이 저작물에 적용된 이용허락조건을 명확하게 나타내어야 합니다.
- 저작권자로부터 별도의 허가를 받으면 이러한 조건들은 적용되지 않습니다.

저작권법에 따른 이용자의 권리는 위의 내용에 의하여 영향을 받지 않습니다.

이것은 [이용허락규약\(Legal Code\)](#)을 이해하기 쉽게 요약한 것입니다.

[Disclaimer](#)

문학석사학위논문

Oral Corrective Feedback

- Its effects on the acquisition of Spanish in
ELE classrooms in Korea -

구술적 수정 피드백

- 한국 ELE 수업에서 스페인어 습득에 미치는
영향 -

2019 년 2 월

서울대학교 대학원
서어서문학과 어학전공

모 니 카

Oral Corrective Feedback

- Its effects on the acquisition of Spanish in
ELE classrooms in Korea -

지도 교수 이만기

이 논문을 문학석사 학위논문으로 제출함

2019 년 12 월

서울대학교 대학원
서어서문학과 어학전공
모 니 카

모니카의 문학석사 학위논문을 인준함

2019 년 2 월

위 원 장 _____ 이병민 (인)

부위원장 _____ 이만기 (인)

위 원 _____ 김경희 (인)

Abstract

Oral Corrective Feedback – Its effects on the acquisition of Spanish in ELE classrooms in Korea –

Effective language learning has always been a struggle, and globalization increases that need. In Korea, the interest in learning Spanish as a foreign language is continuously increasing. The need of providing students with an effective and fast learning experience has made teachers study the best ways in which to better their teaching strategies.

One crucial point in any language class is the way in which the teacher corrects the student. Corrective feedback (CF) is one method that is currently being studied in language learning effectiveness. There is a wide range of possibilities. The major divisions that have been made are distinguishing between *prompts*, where the student is encouraged to self-correct his erroneous utterance, and *reformulations*, where the teacher will provide the correct sentence. Inside these two categories there are different types of corrective feedback that range from implicit to explicit.

This study focuses on oral corrective feedback and examines the effectiveness of dichotomy prompts and reformulations in their most explicit ways, that is, metalinguistic clue and explicit correction respectively. While metalinguistic clues will provide the student with some information to help them correct their utterance, explicit corrections will directly give the correct answer to the student. The

examination of the data was done through the analysis of student uptake, repair and intake. We refer to *uptake* when the student realizes that there is an error in his utterance. *Repair* shows that the student attempts the correction of the error after receiving corrective feedback. Finally, *intake* means that the grammar has been internalized by the student and is ready for future production.

The research focuses on the distinction between Spanish indefinite and imperfect past tenses. Neither English nor Korean have two different past tenses, which makes it difficult and confusing when learning Spanish. The fact that the use of indefinite or imperfect depends in many occasions on the meaning the speaker wants to convey makes it even more challenging.

The study was conducted with Korean university students who are taking Spanish level Basic 2 as an optional subject. The results show that metalinguistic clue is more effective than explicit correction in reducing learner error. This is in line with the recent literature dealing with the issue of oral corrective feedback in foreign language classrooms.

The present work has several weak points that are worth mentioning. Among them stands out the reduced number of students, which prevented the data from being generalizable and completely reliable. Moreover, the lack of time to obtain more data forced the sessions to center on the point of study. This made the students pay more attention to the choice of the verb tense. Also, these students had just learned about the indefinite and imperfect tenses. Although this could be a positive point, showing whether the students were advancing with the help the corrections, they still did not know most of the irregular past tense forms, which made it difficult for them to

get the correct form. Another issue was that the condensation of each session forced the speed of the activities, which might have caused stress to the students and might, consequently, have lowered their performance. Finally, the student data show that the students belonging to the metalinguistic clues group were studying majors related to languages and linguistics. On the other hand, the explicit correction group showed more variety of university degrees. Nonetheless, this study can give a first insight to these matters, which can be taken into consideration for a future research. Then, the experience obtained in this investigation will help us solve these limitations.

Keywords: corrective feedback (CF); learner uptake, intake and repair; imperfect and indefinite; metalinguistic clue; explicit correction.

Student Registration: 2016-26809

Table of Contents

INTRODUCTION -----	1
I. Corrective feedback: background theories -----	4
1.1. Krashen's Monitor Model -----	5
1.2. Long's Interaction Hypothesis -----	9
1.3. Swain's Output Hypothesis -----	9
1.4. Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis -----	10
II. Corrective Feedback -----	11
2.1. Explicit vs. implicit -----	12
2.1.1. Reformulations -----	13
2.1.2. Prompts -----	14
2.2. Uptake, repair, and intake -----	16
2.3. Studies related to oral corrective feedback -----	18
III. Spanish past tense: imperfect vs. indefinite -----	21
3.1. Tense -----	22
3.2. Aspect -----	23
IV. Empirical study -----	30
4.1. Research questions -----	30
4.2. Method -----	30
4.2.1. Participants -----	31
4.2.2. Instructional setting -----	31
4.2.3. Data collection procedures -----	33
4.3. Data analysis -----	37
4.3.1. Indefinite vs. imperfect -----	38
4.3.2. Error -----	39
4.3.3. Corrective Feedback -----	39
5.3.3.1. Prompts -----	41
5.3.3.2. Reformulations -----	42
4.4 Results -----	44
4.4.1. Uptake, repair, intake -----	45
4.4.2. Effects on acquisition: explicit knowledge -----	49

V. DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION -----	52
BIBLIOGRAPHY -----	56
Annexes -----	61
Summary in Korean -----	85

FIGURES

1. CF Types -----	12 (40)
2. Fairytale example pictures -----	36
3. Grammar tests example questions -----	37

TABLES

1. Comparison between Spanish imperfect and indefinite ---	27
2. Summary of student data -----	32
3. Summary of corrective feedback used -----	33
4. Summary of dynamics of the study -----	35
5. Summary of instances of intake and repair -----	45
6. Group 1: repetition or repair of errors -----	46
7. Group 2: repetition or repair of errors -----	46
8. Summary of tables 6 and 7 -----	47
9. Type of errors -----	48
10. Group 1, grammar test -----	50
11. Group 2, grammar test -----	50

APPENDIX

1. Consent Form -----	61
2. Personal Information -----	62
3. Pre and post-tests -----	63
4. Materials used in the sessions -----	71

INTRODUCTION

The present work focuses on oral corrective feedback where Spanish language teachers in Korea address student errors in conversation classes.

Language is the primary means for social human interaction through which social relations are built and maintained. Globalization has caused an enormous growth in the interest to learn languages and continues to grow with the intermingling of economies. In Korea, Spanish is one of the languages that has gained more interest due to the increased exportations and dialogue that is taking place with Spanish-speaking countries, especially in Latin America.

Even though it is true that Spanish is not the most requested language as an optative subject in schools —its competition with Chinese and Japanese is strong— it does have a wide demand, especially among private institutions. The growth in learning Spanish is most clearly reflected on the continuous increment of the number of candidates for the DELE exams (*Diploma de Español como Lengua Extranjera*),¹ where each year there are more applicants (cf. Kwon 2007:148-149). With this demand, there is a constant search for the best way in which to help students learn in the most efficient way possible. There are several factors that influence the learning process, including student motivation and the teaching method. *Corrective Feedback* (CF) is a teaching method and the focus of the present study.

I became very interested in the area of applied linguistics when I first became a language teacher. I believed it would help me become

¹ Certificate of Spanish as a Foreign Language.

a better teacher and help my students take more advantage of my classes and better learn the language. Among all the possible areas of study regarding applied linguistics, corrective feedback has regained interest in the past years. Even though several studies have been conducted concerning CF, there are very few that have addressed its use in the Spanish language class in the Korean context.

The study focuses on the application of CF to two Spanish past tenses, imperfect and indefinite. The fact that they can be many times used indistinctively—in some cases their use is only subjected to the meaning the speaker wants to convey— may lead to confusion in situations in which only one of them can be used.

The thesis is divided into five sections. After this introduction, three sections will be devoted to setting the theoretical frame of the study. These will be followed by a practical study. To conclude, the last chapter will deal with the results of the study and their discussion.

In chapter 1, I will give an overview of the background theories regarding the issue of oral corrective feedback, to set the framework that lead to the study of the effectiveness of in-classroom feedback. Chapter 2 aims to answer the question of what CF exactly is, as well as to explain the main concepts related to corrective feedback, relevant to the present study. It also presents relevant CF studies that examine the effectiveness of oral CF and the effectiveness of specific types of CF. Chapter 3, also theoretical in nature, is literature review related to the differences in use of the ‘imperfect’ and ‘indefinite’ simple past tenses.

After reviewing all the relevant literature, Chapter 4 describes the empirical study. I state the materials and the methods used for the data collection. Chapter 5 shows the results of the study. I also address

discussion points from the data. First, I answer the research questions raised in this study based on the results obtained. I then relate these results to those reflected in other studies, including those mentioned in the literature review.

Chapter 1. CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK: BACKGROUND THEORIES

The second language acquisition studies started to arise in the early decades of the twentieth century with the development of Behaviorism. It was not until the second half of the century that the issue of error correction was at the center of attention. Two major works can be used as landmarks for this change: Cordesr's *The Significance of Learners Errors*, an essay written in 1967; and Selinker's *Interlanguage*, an article which was published in 1972. It was then that research related to error analysis started.

Another important turning point came with Krashen (2009), who proposed in his *Input Hypothesis* that the mere exposure to language was enough to acquire it, just as it seems to happen in the acquisition of the mother tongue in children. In fact, he even affirmed that, according to this hypothesis, *input* which is given in a deliberate way would not only not influence the learning of a language, but that it could even be detrimental for it (cf. Ibid, p. 21-22). In this way, Krashen generalized the way in which the mother tongue is developed to the acquisition of a second language. Other researchers have argued how explicit instruction can be transformed into implicit knowledge, making of instruction and corrective feedback two points in favor during the process of the acquisition of a second language.

The 1980s and 1990s were decades which flourished with various theories, such as Swain's *Output Hypothesis* (1985), Schmidt's *Noticing Hypothesis* (1990), or Long's *Interaction Hypothesis* (1996), all of which deal with the issue of language learning.

Before discussing them, I will briefly describe one theory that might have been the antecedent of these: Krashen's *Monitor Model*.

1.1. Krashen's Monitor Model

Building on Chomsky's proposal,² Krashen developed a theory on second language acquisition, which is composed of five hypotheses. Even though his proposal was refuted by some authors (see, for example, McLaughlin, 1978), his theory undoubtedly had a huge importance and, as for the present investigation, these theories set the basis for the coming ones related to learner error and error correction, *i.e.* corrective feedback.

In his first hypothesis, *learning vs. acquisition*, Krashen distinguished between acquisition and learning. He maintains that the *acquisition* of a second language by an adult learner is similar to the way in which children learn their mother tongue. This system is "implicit [and...] of underlying character [...]. Speakers do not pay attention to form, but to meaning" (McLaughlin, 1978:310). He suggests an adult learner can also acquire that 'intuition' which the native speaker has. In the latter, a learner without knowing the formal rules that construct language knows whether or not a sentence is grammatical, through intuition.

² The theory known as 'Innatism' is one which affirms that there are certain pieces of knowledge that we have from the moment we are born, and it will be on them that we will build our own language. The most important linguist inside this current is Noam Chomsky who, from the perspective of mentalism, proposed two theories: Universal Grammar (UG) on the one hand, and the Language Acquisition Device (LAD) on the other. This theory proposes that children are born with a mechanism with which they will be able to develop their own language thanks to the input that is present around them.

In contrast, the *learning* of a language differs in which learners develop the competence in a second language through an explicit way. This learning refers to the conscious knowledge of the grammar rules, or lack of it, of the sentences on a specific language. Krashen (1977) sustains that both processes are present in the adult who is learning a second language.

For Krashen (1977), acquisition is something fundamental to obtain competence in a foreign language. According to this author, “learning is never transformed into acquisition” (in Callegari, 2007:2). One of the main differences between the learning of a first and of a second language is the role played by error —and its correction— for the development of competence. This has been widely investigated, reaching the conclusion that error correction does not have any effect on the acquisition of language by children and, therefore, it would not have any effect on the acquisition of an L2. However, corrective feedback does have a major role in regard to formal instruction, that is, in the learning of a second language.

His second hypothesis, known as the *Natural Order Hypothesis*, deals with the order in which grammar is acquired. It proposes that the student will learn a specific grammatical aspect only when the previous stages have been internalized. According to this hypothesis, error correction would not have a positive outcome, for the learner will only be able to learn a piece of grammar after completing the previous step. In a second language classroom, certain grammar points are taught at the same time. However, there is always a chance a student may have not internalized a specific grammatical aspect. This is why professors should look at their students individually trying, as much as possible, to adapt the class to their individual needs.

With the *Input Hypothesis*, Krashen tried to answer the question that arose after the proposal of the *natural order hypothesis*. He defined it as an answer to the problem of how to move from one stage of the natural order to the next. First of all, it is important to note that the input hypothesis is related to acquisition, not to learning. Acquisition happens through the understanding of the language that contains a structure which goes beyond the current competence level ($i+1$) of a student. This understanding is achieved through context or the extralinguistic information. When communication is satisfactory, such that input is understood, $i+1$ will automatically happen. Krashen (2009) believes that the ability to produce language ‘emerges’, that is, it cannot be taught directly (cf. pp. 16–17), proposing that error correction cannot have any effect on the learner’s achievements.

The *Monitor Hypothesis* is related to the acquisition of an L2 by adult learners. It is based on the distinction between *acquisition* and *learning*, which puts them together so that “they will be available as only one monitor for the adult who learns an L2” (McLaughlin, 1978). Each of the parts that form this model has a role to play. In this way, acquisition starts the utterance while learning will be in charge of making the necessary changes to produce a correct sentence (cf. Krashen, 1982:15). However, “the *monitor* hypothesis establishes that conscious learning has a very limited function in the linguistic behavior of the learner” (Escobar, 2001:2) because this system only acts as a corrector and should, at the same time, fulfill certain conditions. McLaughlin (1978) criticizes this theory claiming that the distinction between *acquisition* and *learning* is not as clear, and he proposes the

use of the terms *conscious* and *unconscious* as more advantageous than those proposed by Krashen (1977).

Krashen (1977), and authors like Schwartz (1993), proposed a hypothesis known as the *Comprehensible Input Hypothesis*. It claims that input is not only necessary, but it is enough for the adequate development of the linguistic competence. However, it is compulsory for this input to be comprehensible since, if not, acquisition would be impossible. Input should also adapt to the level of the learner, in line with the $i+1$: comprehensible input must be just one stage ahead from the current level of the student. Authors who defend this position also talk about a fixed order in which the student learns grammar, process which, they say, is impossible to alter. In this way, they propose that corrections are superfluous, as they will not help the student advance in the process of learning a second language. With this statement, they cancel the use of negative evidence as a tool for correction inside the classroom. In contrast, scholars such as Long (1981) or Swain (1985) seem to have found evidence of the presence of positive effects in the use of these corrections, being even necessary when input seems insufficient while learning certain grammatical structures.

With his last hypothesis, the *Affective Filter Hypothesis*, Krashen declared “motivated students, confident and with low levels of anxiety obtain better results in the learning of languages” (in Escobar, 2001:3). Otherwise, it would be a filter or barrier, responsible for the comprehensible input not being able to penetrate and preventing, therefore, the correct learning on the part of the student. According to this hypothesis, corrective feedback would contribute to a decrease in the student’s motivation and confidence, while increasing the student’s anxiety.

1.2. Long's Interaction Hypothesis

In Long's 1981 paper "Input, interaction, and second-language acquisition", he explored the benefits of both modified input and modified interaction between native speakers and non-native ones. His publication "The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition" (1996), is considered the starting point of this hypothesis. The interaction hypothesis sustains that input which takes place within face-to-face interaction and communication has a very positive effect in the acquisition of a second language. This perspective is in line with Krashen's comprehensible input, that input must be understood to have a successful interaction. As Loewen (2007) notes, "some error correction methods, such as prompting, make up a very necessary and essential component of the interaction" (p. 4).

1.3. Swain's Output Hypothesis

Swain's 1985 study showed that the students had enough input but lacked output, which was detrimental for their accuracy. According to this linguist, output is a central aspect in the acquisition of a language. Output helps test and put into practice everything that has been learned. Swain divided output into three separate functions.

First, through the *noticing function* the student may "notice the gap between what they want to say and what they really can say, leading them to recognize what they do not know, or only know partially" (Swain, 1985:125). Uttering a sentence in the target language may help the student notice leaks in some aspect of the language. Secondly, the *hypothesis testing function* enables students to put their knowledge to the test by experimenting with their language. In this way, they can

conclude whether certain aspects work or should be eliminated. Finally, the *metalinguistic function* is the actual learning of the target language's rules and usage.

While some researchers maintain that it is not important for the student to produce the correct form after receiving corrective feedback, others, based on this hypothesis, “argue that it is beneficial for students to be stretched to produce language that is somewhat beyond their current ability” (Loewen, 2007:4). As we will see in section 2.2. this after-correction learner production is also known as repair, which can serve as an indicator of correction awareness.

1.4. Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis

Schmidt (2010) defines this hypothesis, which was first introduced in the 1980s, stating that “input does not become intake for language learning unless it is noticed, that is, consciously registered” (p. 722). Contrarily to other theories, for example, Krashen's theory (1978), “most empirical studies have been supportive of the Noticing Hypothesis” (Schmidt, 2010:726). However, there have certainly been some objections that he admitted as being well founded. Certainly, corrective feedback helps students ‘notice’ the correct grammar and, in that way, internalize it.

To sum up this chapter, we have seen different theories that led to the establishment of corrective feedback as a field of study. From Corder's (1967) defense of the importance of errors, through Krashen's (1982) rejection of these as a means for language acquisition, this topic is still being studied. Some of these studies will be discussed in the following section. I will focus on the ones that are relevant to the study that was conducted.

Chapter 2. Corrective Feedback

Input is considered positive evidence. It is received through the correct use of the language in the interaction with a native speaker. Krashen (1994) claims that this type of feedback will enhance and facilitate the learning of a language. He states, however, that “error correction does not help subconscious acquisition” (Brown *et al.*, 1973, as cited in Krashen, 1994:52). On the other hand, negative evidence, also known as corrective feedback, are corrections made by the teacher after some error made by the learner. It can be described as “information following an error produced by the language learner” (Ayoun, 2001:226).

Lightbown and Spada (1999, quoted in Büyükbay 2007:10) define corrective feedback as indications to student to help them realize they have made a mistake. Moreover, Ellis et al. (2006) added that corrective feedback takes the shape of answers or reactions to student’s erroneous utterances. These answers may consist of an indication that an error was made; pointing out the error itself, providing the student with metalinguistic information about the nature of the error, or a combination of these (cf. Ellis et al. 2006:340). Several studies were conducted, trying to prove the use of error correction methods in the language classroom. I will describe some of these in chapter 3. Corrective feedback types have been arranged in several classifications and for the present study I will follow the one proposed by Lyster, Saito & Sato (2013: 5).

2.1. Explicit vs. implicit

Feedback is divided into two categories, *implicit* and *explicit*. When implicit feedback is applied, the student is not told in an obvious way that he has made an error. In contrast, an explicit correction implies that the error indication is clearly noted by the student. As Sheen & Ellis (2011:13) suggest, this distinction is not a drastic cut but a continuum, that is, there is a grading.

Furthermore, feedback can be split into two more categories, which are *prompts* and *reformulations*. Prompts consist of making an indication to allow the students to correct the error by themselves. Reformulations, on the other hand, entail the direct correction of the error by the professor.

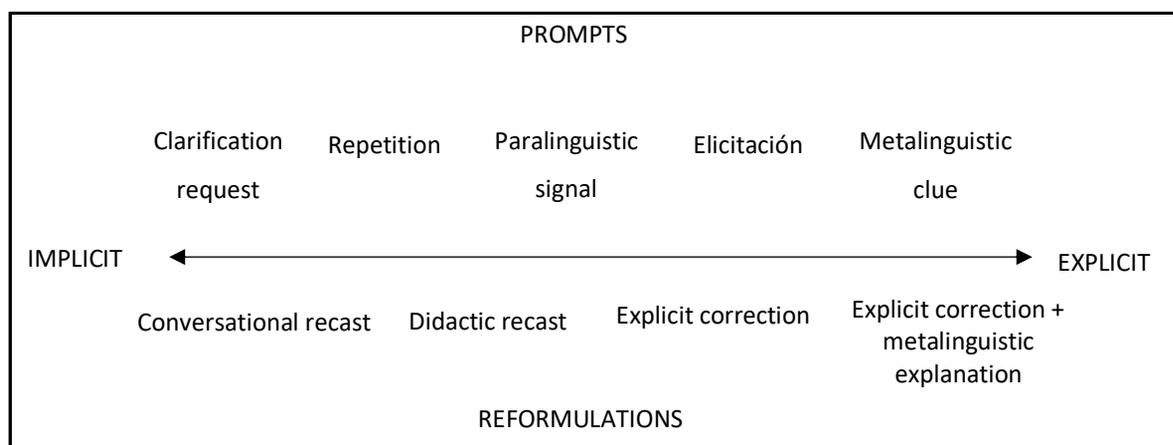


Figure 1. CF Types [Adapted from Lyster & Saito (2010); Sheen & Ellis (2011) done by Lyster, Saito & Sato (2013: 5)]

Figure 1 illustrates the continuum of corrective feedback, from the most implicit to the most explicit. The distinction between prompts and reformulations is also shown.

I will now illustrate examples of corrective feedback from previous studies to instill a better understanding of the different types³.

2.1.1. Reformulations

With reformulations, the professor, after hearing an error, gives the correct sentence to the student. The correction can be presented in two ways, one more implicit and the other more explicit.

1. *Recast*. It is a reformulation of a sentence that contains an error. The professor either repeats the sentence without the error or makes a new sentence that maintains the original meaning. This type of CF is implicit, since the student may or may not realize that he is being corrected.

(1) S: Why he want this house?

P: Why does he want this house?

(Gass & Selinker, 2008:335)

There are two types of recast:

- *Conversational*. The reformulation of the erroneous utterance of the student, which aims to solve a conversational breakdown.
- *Didactic*. It consists of a reformulation of the student's utterance without provoking any conversational breakdown. (cf. Kirkgöz et al. 2015:92)

³ Some of the examples that were originally in French were translated by me.

2. *Explicit Correction*. This is characterized by making clear to the student that an error has been committed, through the identification of the error and the provision of the correct sentence (cf. Lee, 2013. As cited by Gu, 2016). In these corrections, there tends to be a cut in the conversation flow.

(2) S: On May.

P: Not on May. In May. We say, “It will start in May”.

(Gu, 2016:291)

2.1.2. Prompts

Prompts aim to encourage the student to search in his memory and find the correct answer by himself. As with reformulations, prompts can also be done explicitly or implicitly.

1. *Clarification request*. The professor points out that the utterance was not understood, and that a reformulation is required (cf. Lee, 2013. As cited by Gu, 2016).

(3) S: Et le coccinelle...

“And the [masc.] ladybug...”

P: Pardon?

“Sorry?”

S: La coccinelle...

“The [fem.] ladybug...”

(Gass & Selinker, 2008:336)

2. *Repetition*. The professor repeats the erroneous utterance, pointing it out with emphasis on the error (cf. Lee, 2013. As cited by Gu, 2016).

(4) S: La chocolat.

“The [fem.] chocolate.”

P: La chocolat?

“The [fem.] chocolate?”

S: Le chocolat.

“The [masc.] chocolate.”

(Gass & Selinker, 2008:336)

3. *Paralinguistic signal*. There is an attempt on the part of the professor to stimulate, in a non-verbal way, the correct form from the student (cf. Kirkgöz *et al.* 2015:91).

(5) S: Yesterday I go to the cinema.

P: (gestures with right forefinger over left shoulder to indicate past).

4. *Elicitation*. It encourages the students to correct the erroneous utterance by themselves (self-correction) by starting the sentence and pausing before the error, so that the student may complete with the correct word or sentence. (cf. Lee, 2013. As cited by Gu, 2016).

(6) P: Where does your pet live? Where does it live?

S: In house.

P: In...? Careful.

S: In a house.

(cf. Gass & Selinker, 2008:336)

5. *Metalinguistic clue*. The professor supplies the student with linguistic information related to the error, without explicitly providing the correct answer (cf. Lee, 2013. As cited by Gu, 2016). This is the most explicit type of prompt.

(7) S: Parece qu'elle cherche, euh, son, son, carte.

“Because she’s looking for, um, her, her [masc.] letter.

P: Pas son carte.

“Not her [masc.] letter.”

S: Eu, sa carte?

“Er, her [fem.] letter?”

(Gass & Selinker, 2008:336).

From the above-mentioned forms of corrective feedback, I center my study on metalinguistic clue and explicit correction. These are the most explicit types of prompts and reformulations respectively.

2.2. Uptake, repair and intake

Uptake, repair and intake are the tools to measure the success of corrective feedback. These variables are the ones used for the present research. I will now define each of them to set the parameters and present a clear idea of the terms in which these were used.

Lyster & Ranta (1997) describe *uptake* as “a student’s utterance that immediately follows the teacher’s feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher’s intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student’s initial utterance” (p. 49). In this study I will use uptake in the same terms. Therefore, I will consider uptake as an instance of the student having noticed and understood the error in his utterance, regardless of his repairing it or not. With reference to *repair*, I will refer to it as the attempt the student makes to repair that error, either by repeating the professor’s utterance in the case of the ‘reformulation’ group (G2) or in his effort to provide the correct form, regardless of his success or lack of it, in the case of the ‘prompt’ group (G1). When there is repair it can be assumed that there has been uptake. The aforementioned researchers propose a distinction between “other-initiated repair” and “needs-repair” (cf. p. 50). However, because of the low knowledge of Spanish of the students who participated in our research, I decided not to take this distinction into account. Finally, *intake* has been described as “what is actually internalized [...] by the learner” (Corder 1967. Cited in Gass and Selinker, 2008: 305), that is, the language that has been correctly incorporated into the student’s grammar and is ready for output production.

In summary, the sequence of error correction would be, first, the corrective feedback on the part of the professor, which might be followed by the student noticing that correction being made (uptake) and, therefore, leading in some cases to an explicit correction of his own error (repair). If that correct form is successfully internalized (intake), then the student is ready to use it as output.

2.3. Studies related to oral Corrective Feedback⁴

All the theories that have been described in Chapter 2 made many researchers eager to see and prove whether these were right, or they should be modified. In the area of oral corrective feedback, different kinds of studies were conducted. Some researchers wanted to find out if oral corrections are effective or not; others tried to distinguish among the different possible ways of correcting the student, as well as to reflect on any of those being more effective than another. A thorough summary of some of these studies can be found in Ellis, Loewen & Erlam (2006:344-347). I will focus this section on the studies relevant for the purpose of the present work, especially, those which deal with the prompts vs. reformulations dichotomy, as well as those referring to metalinguistic clue.

Jafarighoar & Gharbavi (2014) conducted a study with forty-five Iranian students of English comparing recasts and prompts, to study their effectiveness in the students' grammar development. Their results showed that "prompt was more effective than recast in leading to L2 grammar development" (p. 702). These researchers discuss that the possible reason for this is that prompts invite the students to self-repair, which helps them process further and, in that way, learn faster.

Ammar & Spada's study (2006) shows the effectiveness of prompts over recast with Canadian French students of English. Their results show that low proficiency level students seemed to benefit only from prompts, while both prompts and recast proved helpful in the case of advanced learners (p. 566).

⁴ For a general view of these studies, see Ellis *et al.*, 2006: 344-347.

In a study done by Carroll & Swain (1993), their “results show a learning effect that [they] claim is due to negative feedback”⁵ (p. 369), confirming its effectiveness in second language learning classroom. They also claim that both implicit and explicit feedback types were useful (p. 372).

Another research was conducted by Sánchez Calderón (2014), which found that reformulations were the most used strategy. She claims that there is no strategy more helpful than another, since the effectiveness of corrective feedback will depend on the students’ individual differences (cf. p. 309). Contrarily, Sheen (2004) concluded in her study that “recasts are the most dominant type of feedback” (p. 294). However, they “resulted in less uptake (...) [and] repair” (p. 286) than other types of feedback, such as elicitation, which resulted in 100% uptake, according to the data obtained by the researcher. Moreover, she claims that other forms of corrective feedback, such as metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, or repetition, “also resulted in high levels of uptake” (p. 286).

The data align with the findings of Lyster & Ranta (1997), who found recasts to be the type of feedback most used, being however the least effective in regard to uptake (cf. p. 56). Their study showed a 50% of uptake with explicit correction, while metalinguistic clue obtained 86%. With regards to student-generated repair, metalinguistic clue proved to be one of the most successful types. On the other hand, “explicit correction (...) elicited no repairs other than repetition” (p. 56), and these, no more than 18% (p. 57).

⁵ Negative feedback is also known as Corrective Feedback or Negative Evidence.

Researchers Lyster, Saito & Sato (2012) concluded that, while they might be useful during the beginning stages, recasts can be counterproductive after students reach a point in which they are “likely to benefit more from being pushed to self-repair by means of prompting” (p. 30).

As stated in the previous section, my study focuses on the comparison between two types of corrective feedback, metalinguistic clue and explicit correction. My aim is to see which of these is more effective and to compare my results with the above studies.

Chapter 3. Spanish past tense: imperfect vs. indefinite

Most languages —Korean being one of them— have one verb form to express absolute past tense.⁶ However, Spanish has two simple past tenses: *pretérito indefinido* and *pretérito imperfecto*. The selection among the two tends to be problematic for students who are learning Spanish as a second language. Due to this, it has been an area of study for the past decades, as researchers have been trying to find ways in which to help students with the different use of these two tenses.

In Spanish, there is a close relationship between tense and aspect which is a crucial factor in the distinction between imperfect and indefinite past (cf. De Miguel, in Delgado-Díaz, 2014:13). Many linguists have researched about this dichotomy aiming to find the differences in form and use. Some consider tense a fundamental part of this distinction, while others are more inclined to think that aspect is the most crucial factor (cf. Mao, 2009).

⁶ Korean past tense is formed by adding *았/었다* to the verb root. In this way, *corrí* and *corría* (I ran) have the same verb construction: *뛰었다*. For example:

- (1) a. Juan corría muy rápido. (Spanish)
b. Juan corrió muy rápido. (Spanish)
c. John ran very fast. (English)
d. 존 매우 빨리 뛰었다. (Korean)

3.1. Tense

Tense is always deictic, for it locates an action or state in relation to the moment in which the speaker expresses the utterance (cf. Moreno Cabrera, 1991:292). In other words, the essential aspect of the category *tense* is that it connects the time of the action, event, or state that refers to the sentence, with the time of the utterance, that is, 'now' (cf. Abraham, 1981). In this way, the action or state can be past, present, or future, depending on the perspective of the speaker. In order to clarify them, I made use of a two-dimensional system: the moment of speech (S) and the event described by the verb (E). Bosque & Gutiérrez-Rexach (2009:649) represent these in a very graphic way, that we reproduce bellow:

Present: E
 ____S____
Past: E____S____
Future: ____S____E

With these representations we can see how the present tense deals with events which are simultaneous with the moment of speech; in the same way, the past tense would be stating events which happened before the utterance time; finally, future talks about situations which take place after the time of speech.

(8) a. Estudié matemáticas en la universidad. (past)

I studied math at the university.

b. Estudio matemáticas en la universidad. (present)

I study math at the university.

c. Estudiaré matemáticas en la universidad. (future)

I will study math at the university.

To these two dimensions, Hans Reichenbach (cf. Carrasco Gutiérrez, 1994:70) added a third one: that of the point of reference (R). In the case of the two Spanish simple past tenses —imperfect and indefinite— R and E coincide, and both precede, therefore, the moment of speech. As we can see, in relation to time, there seems to be no difference between these two verb tenses,⁷ situation which made researchers turn to aspect in search of an answer.

Tense and aspect are two categories which are intrinsically related, but are, however, very different. We will now turn to describe the concept of aspect.

3.2. Aspect

Contrarily to tense, aspect does not make any connection between the expressed issue and the speaker, but it deals with the internal structure of the event itself (cf. Moreno Cabrera, 1991:305), being seen, in this way, from the subjective point of view of the speaker (cf. Abraham, 1981).

⁷ However, Rojo (1990) believes that it is the characteristic of time what explains the differences between imperfect and indefinite tense.

There are two main types of aspect: lexical, also known as *Aktionsart*, and grammatical. Although they are different, the two are very much intertwined. However, it is the latter one that helps make some differentiation between the two past tenses I am analyzing in this investigation.

Lexical aspect refers to the way in which an event happens (cf. Bosque & Gutiérrez-Rexach, 2009:299): it describes the type of event or action. If we take, for example, the verb *andar* ('to walk') in the indefinite tense we would have *anduvo*, and *andaba* as the imperfect. Comparing the two we can say that while grammatical aspect indicates that the action is complete in the first case and in process in the second, lexical aspect tells us that 'to walk' is an activity.

There are four categories of *Aktionsart* according to Bach (1986, as cited in Bosque & Gutiérrez-Rexach, 2009:299): states, activities, accomplishments, and achievements. The following representation can help us explain the differentiation among them:

(9) States
Activities	>>>>>>
Accomplishments	>>>>>>●
Achievements	●

As can be seen, both accomplishments and achievements have an end, represented by '●'. On the contrary, states and activities do not contemplate that end but are in a continuum. This leads us to think that accomplishments and achievements may be indefinite tense, while states and activities are representations of the imperfect.

- (10) a. Juan era guapo de pequeño. (State)
John was handsome when he was young.
- b. Juan jugaba al fútbol todos los días. (Activity)
John played football every day.
- c. Juan corrió la maratón. (Accomplishment)
John ran the marathon.
- d. Juan marcó un gol. (Achievement)
John scored a goal.

Verbs are associated to these categories. For example, the verb *medir*⁸ ('to measure') is a state, while the verb *escribir* ('to write') is an activity. However, any verb, regardless of its imperfective or perfective nature, can be conjugated in any of the two tenses: imperfect or indefinite, as we can see in the following examples:

- (11) a. Juan midió la mesa. (State > Achievement)
 "John measured the table"
- b. Juan escribió un libro. (Activity > Accomplishment)
 "John wrote a book"

As we can see in (11), the lexical aspect of a verb can vary depending on the context in which it is used. Examples in (12) show the same variation:

⁸ For example, in the sentence "Esta mesa mide 2 metros" ("This table is 2 meters long").

- (12) a. Pepe dibujaba círculos. (Activity)
“Pepe drew circles”
b. Pepe dibujó un círculo. (Accomplishment)
“Pepe drew a circle”

Viewpoint aspect is a term that was coined by Smith (1997). The researcher claims that:

Aspectual viewpoints function like the lens of a camera, making objects visible to the receiver. Situations are the objects on which viewpoint lenses are trained. And just as the camera lens is necessary to make the object available for a picture, so viewpoints are necessary to make visible the situation talked about in a sentence. (p. 61)

According to this definition, there can be different angles from which we may look at a certain event. The main aspectual differentiation would be that of perfective vs. imperfective. The former refers to events that have been completed, and which have a beginning and an end. Imperfective, on the other hand, refers to those events which do not consider their beginning or their end as something relevant. These events are, therefore, deemed as incomplete; or rather, their completion is not accounted for. This is shown in the following examples:

- (13) a. Llovió anoche.
It rained last night.
- b. Llovía cuando salí de casa.
It was raining when I left the house.

Example (13a) represents a finished action: *it rained last night*, and it is no longer raining. On the other hand, example (13b) does not consider whether it is raining or not, but that it was raining in the moment of leaving the house. In other words, the same event, in this case the one conveyed by the verb *llover* (to rain), can be seen as a finished and complete event, like that of (13a) or, on the other hand, it can express a stage in the middle, in which the speaker is focusing, as is the case of (13b). For this reason, any consideration about the beginning or the end is irrelevant. In this sense, some linguists consider the imperfect past tense as “a present in the past”, due to its imperfect aspect.

Lee (2006:116) makes a classification of the different possible uses of these verb tenses, as shown in table 1 (cf. García Santos, 1993).

	Usos (용법)	Ejemplos (예문)
pretérito imperfecto (불완료 과거)	An action that is repeated or habitual in the past	Las clases <i>comenzaban</i> a las nueve. Classes started at nine.
	Description	La casa <i>era</i> vieja. The house was old.
	Politeness with present use	<u>Quería</u> que lo viera usted cuanto antes. I would like you to see it as soon as possible.

	Conditional	Si pudiera, me <u>iba</u> ahora mismo. If I could, I would leave right now.
	Emotional state and mental activities in the past	<u>Era</u> muy feliz. <u>Creía</u> que nada malo <u>podía</u> ocurrirle. He was very happy. He thought that nothing bad could happen to him.
pretérito indefinido (부정과거)	Timely action	<u>Nació</u> el 19 de abril de 1931. He was born on 19 April 1931.
	Fixed time	<u>Estuve</u> trabajando allí durante 10 años. I worked there for 10 years.
	Narration	<u>Entró, dio</u> un beso a su hijo... He entered, kissed his son...
Both together	Passed action that lasts in time	Cuando <u>salía</u> esta mañana de casa, <u>cayó</u> algo del tejado y le <u>dio</u> en la cabeza. When he was leaving his house this morning, something fell from the roof and hit him on his head.
	Future related to the past	Me <u>dijo</u> que al día siguiente <u>salía</u> para Madrid. He told me that the next day he would go to Madrid.
	Copresent in the past	No <u>quise</u> pararme porque <u>tenía</u> mucha hambre. I didn't want to stop because I was very hungry.

Table 1. Comparison between Spanish imperfect and indefinite tenses.

To summarize, what I have explained in this chapter is that Spanish has two past tenses which express different moments in the past, unlike other languages such as English or Korean, which make use of

a single past tense. The differentiation can be explained through the category 'aspect'. Table 1 can be very useful to understand the different uses of imperfect and indefinite past tenses in Spanish.

Chapter 4. Empirical study

In order to see whether oral corrective feedback is effective and, if so, whether there are some types that are more efficient than others, an empirical study was carried out.⁹ In this section I present the data collection methods, as well as the data analysis methods and results.

4.1. Research questions

For this research we focused on three major questions, as follows:

- Which type of corrective feedback is more effective with regards to uptake and repair, and which one seems to lead to intake?
- Does the student improve in the accurate selection of the verb tense?
- Which type of corrective feedback shows more improvement with regards to explicit knowledge?

4.2. Method

In the following section, I will proceed to specify the method used for the development of the study. First, I will delineate the participants who took place in the research. This will be followed by a description of the instructional setting, finally concluding with the data collection procedures.

⁹ A previous study on this topic was presented at NZALT conference (New Zealand) on July 9, 2018. (Colás, 2018)

4.2.1. Participants

This study was performed in two different Spanish conversation classes for university students. The background of the students —as can be seen in table 2 (4.2.2)— was quite varied, for the Spanish course was an elective one. In order to carry out the research, permission from the head of the department was granted, and the students signed a consent form, which stated that they would be audio-recorded (see appendix 1).

All the students, studying Spanish Basic 2, had completed the prerequisite of passing Spanish Basic 1. Through a background questionnaire it was confirmed that their experience in a Spanish immersion context was similar, since only one student reported having been in Spain as an exchange student for 5 months (see Table 2).

4.2.2. Instructional setting

The study took place in an ELE class (*Español como Lengua Extranjera*, in English: Spanish as a foreign language) in South Korea. It was conducted in two separate classes at a university in Seoul. The students have a grammar-based class with a Korean teacher. The instruction is in Korean and it is a two hour and a half class, which they attend twice a week (one hour and fifteen minutes per class). In addition, the students have a 50 minutes conversation class with a native professor, which was the focus of the study. Regarding the present investigation, there were 7 students in Group 1 and 5 in Group 2, with ages ranging from 18 to 24. Their proficiency level was Beginner 2 (beginner levels are divided into Beginner 1 and 2). The conversation class program emphasizes dialogue among the students, and the teacher is required to practice the contents studied in the

grammar-based class. Conversation between the teacher and the student is minimized, being preferred that the students interact with each other. Table 2 shows a summary of the student's data obtained from the background questionnaire, handed in prior to the study (see appendix 2).

St.	Age	Age started	Time studying	Been abroad	Other languages	Undergrad Studies
M1	20	19	14 m.	No	English.	Aeronautics
M2	20	14	3 y. & 2 m.	No	Eng, Jap. Chin.	Oriental studies
F3	21	20	1 y.	5 m. Sp.	English, Ger.	Sociology
F4	18	16	2 y.	No	English	Hisp. lg. and lit.
M5	24	24	6 m.	No	English	Linguistics
F6	18	15	3 y.	No	English	Eng. lg. and lit.
F7	18	16	2 y.	No	English	Eng. lg. and lit.
F1	19	17	2 y.	No	English	Liberal arts
F2	20	19	7 m.	No	English	Fashion design
M3	20	19	1 y.	No	English	-
F4	21	20	1 y. & 6m.	No	English	Statistics
F5	19	19	4 m.	No	English, Chinese	Premed. studies

Table 2. Summary of student data [m = month / y = year; F: fem. /M: masc.]¹⁰

¹⁰ As professor Byungmin Lee pointed out, students belonging to the metalinguistic clue group (G1) were majoring in fields related to languages, which might make them more eager and motivated on the study of Spanish. On the other hand, explicit correction group students (G2), were not in the field of languages. This difference might have altered the results.

4.2.3. Data collection procedures

Four sessions of the Spanish conversation class (two per group) were audio-recorded over a period of two weeks (this class takes place only once a week. Group 1 was on Tuesday and group 2 on Monday). The researcher herself recorded the sessions and transferred the obtained data to a computer in order for it to be transcribed. All the four sessions were transcribed by the researcher, and the error treatment sequences were identified so that they may be analyzed. The background data from the students were collected through a questionnaire that was handed in at the beginning of the first session. Also, pre and immediate post-tests were done (appendix 3).

The two treatment groups received different kinds of CF. Group 1 was corrected through *prompts*, while Group 2 was corrected through *reformulations* (see section 2.1). Table 3 shows a summary of the instances in which each were used.

Group 1 [prompts]		Group 2 [reformulations]	
Repetition	13	Recast	19
Elicitation	1	Explicit correction	41
Metalinguistic clue	8	Explicit corr. + met. explanation	4
Repetition + met. Clue	17		
Clarification request + met. clue	3		
Elicitation + met. clue	2		
Repetition + met. clue + elicitation	1		

Table 3. Summary of corrective feedback used

The class dynamic was based on the study conducted by Roothfooft (2014).¹¹ Like her, we also distributed a pre and post-test and used fairytales. Due to the reduced time available for each session I focused only on fairytales, through which I could obtain abundant data. Fairytales facilitate the use of the past tense, being therefore an ideal activity through which I could obtain material for the study. The disadvantage was that, because of the low proficiency of the students and considering the characteristics of this activity itself, the language was not spontaneous. The stories were developed specifically to fit the purpose of this study, and the language was adapted to the level of the students. This study was performed as follows:

Day 1. After handing in the pre-test, the students were split into two groups: Group A and Group B. The stories were divided in paragraphs and the script was distributed among the students for them to read (see appendix 4). Then it was substituted with pictures and notes to help them tell the story. They did this in turns, each student focusing on one paragraph. The group that was listening was given some pictures of the story, which they had to put in order, according to the story that their classmates were telling.¹² After Group A, the same was done with Group B.

¹¹ In her study she used fairy stories, as well as a pre and post-test. Because of the good results she obtained I decided to use this dynamic. However, her materials were in English, so new materials were developed to fit the present study.

¹² This is done in order to foster attention, have them engaged, and make them potential passive recipients of the corrective feedback.

Day 2. Since the students were familiar with the story used in this treatment session, and also due to the lack of time, on this occasion the students were given the pictures and notes directly. The story, *Little Red Riding Hood*, had two versions, each one given to one group. Hence, Group A had version 1, and Group B had version 2. The story had five differences, which they had to find by listening to their classmates. After the two groups had finished telling their corresponding stories and the five differences were found, a post-test was done. Table 4 depicts a summary of the two treatment sessions that I have just described.

Day 1	Day 2
Pre-test	Fairytale Group A: <i>Little Red Riding Hood</i> , version 1 Group B: <i>Little Red Riding Hood</i> , version 2
Fairytale Group A: <i>Rumplestitsking</i> Group B: <i>Jack and the beanstalk</i>	Post-test

Table 4. Summary of the dynamics of the study

Figure 2 shows an example of the materials that were given to the students.

Versión 1



- Hace mucho tiempo, haber una niña que querer mucho a su abuelita
- Por Navidad, la Abuelita regalarle una caperucita roja
- Por eso la gente empezar a llamarla Caperucita Roja
- Su Abuelita vivir en una casa en el bosque

Versión 2



- Hace mucho tiempo, haber una niña que querer mucho a su abuelita
- Por su cumpleaños, la Abuelita regalarle una caperucita roja
- Por eso la gente empezar a llamarla Caperucita Roja
- Su Abuelita vivir en una casa en el bosque

Figure 2. Fairytale pictures example

These two pictures represent *Little Red Riding Hood*. As can be seen, there is one difference between the two stories, which has been underlined (differences were not underlined in the original that was handed in to the students). Each student of group A had at least one difference in the text, with respect to Group B. Some students had two, depending on how many came to the session.

As for the pre and post-tests, these took the form of written grammar tests. Students were given a list of sentences. Their task was to point out the error, if there was, and write the correct answer. The following figure shows an example of these.

<p>Hace años que Irene no hizo una comida tan rica.</p> <p>Correcta → 규칙이나 느낌? _____</p> <p>Incorrecta → <i>correcta</i>? _____</p>
<p>Mi madre era cocinera durante muchos años.</p> <p>Correcta → 규칙이나 느낌? _____</p> <p>Incorrecta → <i>correcta</i>? _____</p>

Figure 3. Grammar tests example questions.¹³

These questions included some distraction grammar points, such as feminine or masculine adjectives or irregular verbs in the present tense (see appendix 3). There was an attempt to have a similar number of imperfect and indefinite examples, as well as an even number of regular and irregular verbs. However, in the case of imperfect tense this last point could not be put into practice, for only three verbs are irregular, namely, *ser* (be), *ir* (go) and *ver* (see). Additionally, there was no repetition of one same verb in a specific verb tense for one test (for example, the verb ‘go’ in imperfect tense was used only once in the pre-test).

4.3. Data analysis

After stating the background of the research, in the following section we will analyze the data that was obtained from this in-class study. The main areas of study were, first, the Spanish past tense;

¹³ The complete tests can be found in appendix 4. Students can choose between two options. If they think it is correct they have to say whether they know the rule (규칙) or if they have a feel (느낌). If they think it is incorrect, they have to write the correct form (not the whole sentence but just the incorrect part).

second, the instances of error; finally, the moments in which those errors were followed by some corrective feedback.

4.3.1. Indefinite vs. imperfect

These two verb tenses are very much confused by the students. In many cases, this happens due to the fact that they are frequently interchangeable, since the difference in meaning does not affect understanding: it is a matter of the perception that the speaker has about what is being said.

- (14) a. Esa película me hizo llorar.
b. Esa película me hacía llorar [cuando era pequeña].
That movie made me cry [when I was little].

In the examples shown in (14), both verb tenses can be used. There is a variation in meaning that depends on the speaker's point of view. In that way, (14a) would imply that the speaker cried when he watched the movie. On the other hand, (14b) conveys that the speaker used to cry when he watched that movie (for example, when he was little).

However, as example (14b) shows, one of the two options can be forced through inductors. This is what we did, in order for our data to be reliable. If the inductor is added, the result would be as follows:

- (15) a. El mes pasado ví esa película.
b. *El mes pasado veía esa película.
I watched that movie last month.

With the temporal inductor *el mes pasado* (last month) we can force the obligatory use of indefinite tense, since it is a finished action. Moreover, used in fairytales, this forced selection is even clearer:

- (16) a. Hace mucho tiempo había un molinero que era muy pobre.
b.* Hace mucho tiempo hubo un molinero que fue muy pobre.
Long time ago, there was a miller that was very poor.

4.3.2. Error

The four recorded sessions were transferred into a computer and all the error instances followed by corrective feedback were transcribed. The cases in which the students ‘self-corrected’ the erroneous utterance without the intervention of any kind of feedback were also transcribed, for they might be possible instances of learner intake.

All these ill-formed utterances were classified as belonging either to the *indefinite* or to the *imperfect* tense and, inside these two categories, according to whether they were regular or irregular. It is important to note that imperfect tense in Spanish only has three irregular verbs, namely *ser* (be), *ir* (go) and *ver* (see).

4.3.3. Corrective Feedback

As it was mentioned in the literature review (section 2.1), the corrective feedback classification that this study is based on is the one proposed by Lyster, Saito & Sato (2013:5). These authors divide the different types of feedback in either *prompts* or *reformulations*. We reproduce Figure 1 shown in 3.2. Lyster & Ranta (1997) were the ones who established a distinction between the two. Just as a reminder,

4.3.3.1. Prompts

1. *Clarification request.* This refers to the questions addressed to the student to indicate that either the utterance was not correct, or the teacher did not understand it (cf. Lee, 2013. As cited by Gu, 2016).

(17) S: Y subió lo más alto que poder [infinitive instead of indefinite]

“And he climbed as high as he can.”

P: ¿Qué?

“Sorry?”

2. *Repetition.* The teacher repeats the error made by the student and, in some cases, changes the intonation (cf. Lee, 2013. As cited by Gu, 2016).

(18) S: El hombre llevó una bolsa [indefinite instead of imperfect]

“The man brought a bag.”

P: ¿llevó?

“Brought?”

3. *Elicitation.* In order to obtain the correct form from a student without directly stating it, the teacher starts the sentence so that the student may complete the utterance (cf. Lee, 2013. As cited by Gu, 2016).

(19) S: Después de comer tanto, el lobo se sintió muy cansado
[wrong construction of an irregular]

“After eating so much, the wolf feeled tired.

P: Se...

“the wolf...”

S: sintió muy cansado.

“felt very tired”

4. *Metalinguistic clue.* This refers to the teacher providing some kind of information about the student’s error without giving the correct form (cf. Lee, 2013. As cited by Gu, 2016).

(20) S: Entonces Caperucita Roja tenió una idea. [wrong construction of irregular verb]

“Little Red Riding Hood haved an idea.”

P: Irregular.

“Irregular.”

(21) S: Y subió lo más alto que poder. [use of infinitive]

“And he climbed as high as he can.”

P: Eso es infinitivo.

“That is an infinitive.”

4.3.3.2. Reformulations

1. *Recast.* In this case, the teacher either reformulates the student’s ill-formed utterance or repeats the utterance without the error. In other words, by using recast there is a reformulation of an

erroneous utterance that still maintains, however, the original meaning of the sentence (cf. Gass & Selinker, 2008:334). This type of corrective feedback is implicit, as it continues the flow of the conversation without interrupting it. In this way, the student may or may not notice that he is being corrected.

(22) S: ...y no poder comprar comida. [infinitive instead of imperfect]

“...and they to can’t buy food”

P: no podían comprar comida.

“they couldn’t buy food”

2. *Explicit correction.* The teacher explicitly shows the student that there is an error in the utterance and provides the correct form (cf. Lee, 2013. In Gu, 2016). Being a clear correction, the conversation is interrupted, and the student is more likely to realize that the professor is pointing out an error regarding his or her utterance.

(23) S: Entonces el lobo saltaba [imperfect instead of indefinite]

“Then the wolf was jumping”

P: Esto es una acción puntual. Decimos ‘saltó’.

“This is a momentary action. We say the wolf jumped”

(24) S: Que tra...tra...

“The br...br...”

P: Trajera.

“Brought”

There were cases in which multiple feedback types were applied, as shown in Table 4. In these cases, metalinguistic clue and explicit correction were taken into account, regardless of whether it happened together with other types of corrective feedback. This was done in order to increase the number of instances in which metalinguistic clue and explicit correction were used.

Regarding repair, it is important to note the unavoidable difference among the possible responses. This is due to the fact that *prompts* aim to elicit the correct form from the student, something that most likely will lead to a type of self-repair;¹⁵ on the other hand, *reformulations* can only convey to repair through repetition of the teacher's utterance.

4.4. Results

This section contains the main results of the study with regards to the answering of the three research questions:

- Which type of corrective feedback is more effective with regards to uptake and repair, and which one seems to lead to intake?
- Does the student improve in the accurate selection of the verb tense?
- Which type of corrective feedback shows more improvement with regards to explicit knowledge?

¹⁵ Not to be confused with 'self-repair' that happens without corrective feedback.

4.4.1. Uptake, repair, intake

Table 5 shows a summary of the instances of uptake and repair. As has been indicated before, this classification does not include the instances where more than one type of feedback was used. Instead, only the ones that got the correct response on the part of the student were studied. Most of the corrections were done through *metalinguistic clues* as for Group 1 (prompts group) and *explicit correction* in the case of Group 2 (reformulations group). Because of the small number of examples, I found it more meaningful to compare just these two.

As can be seen in Table 5, *metalinguistic clue* shows a higher percentage of uptake (100%), when compared to that of *explicit correction*. The latter remains always several points behind, 92.3% being the highest it reaches. However, *explicit correction* appears to be more effective in obtaining repairs. As depicted in the tables, *metalinguistic clue* has a percentage of just 77, while *explicit correction* obtains 88.5% of repairs.

	CF Type	Uptake	Repair		CF Type	Uptake	Repair
	Study 1	Met. clue	13 (100%)		10 (77%)	Study 2	Met. clue
Repetition		10 (100%)	8 (80%)	Repetition	5 (100%)		4 (80%)
Cla. request		1 (100%)	1 (100%)	Elicitation	3 (100%)		1 (33.3%)
Recast		12 (100%)	7 (58.3%)	Recast	6/7 (85.7%)		5 (71.4%)
Expl. Corr.		17/19 (89.4%)	16 (84.2%)	Expl. Corr.	24/26 (92.3%)		23 (88.5%)
No CF G1 ¹⁶			2	No CF G1			4
No CF G2			3	No CF G2			6

Table 5. Summary of instances of uptake and repair

¹⁶ This stands for “self-correction without feedback”. The instances in which the students are able to correct by themselves without any corrective feedback from the teacher.

These are interesting data, but they should not be taken as conclusive due to the limited number of cases. Looking at Tables 6 and 7, we can see the students' reaction upon the recurrence of a certain verb in the same tense. Although we cannot make a generalization, these data might give an insight to student intake. Group 1, although having shown less repair, seems to have a better intake.

Legend	Correct form
	Error
	Self-correction without CF
	S= session
	T= tale

	S1, T1			S1, T2		S2, T1			S2, T2					
	estar	tener	ver	estar	cantar	entrar	pensar	decir	pensar	sentirse	tener	pasar	ayudar	sentarse
Ind.			1			2	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1
			1			1	1	4	1					
Imp.	1	1		1	1									
	2	1		1	1									

Table 6. Group 1: repetition or repair of errors

	S1, T1							S1, T2						
	ponerse	poder	haber	tener	dormirse	coger	vivir	haber	ser	saber	estar	dar	ponerse	sentir
Ind.	1	2			1	3	3					1	1	1
	1				1	1							1	1
Imp.			1	1				2	1	1	1			
			1	1					1	1	1			
									1		1			

	S2, T1								S1, T2		
	estar	ver	mirar	comerse	esperar	decir	meterse	regalar	decir	estar	ver
Ind.		1	1	2	1	3	1	1	4		2
		1	1	1		1	1		1		
						1					
Imp.	1									1	
	1									1	

Table 7. Group 2: repetition or repair of errors

Table 8 shows a summary of the data observed in Tables 6 and 7. The number of occasions in which students correct their errors after receiving corrective feedback are the same in both groups, *i.e.* 5. However, there is a considerable difference in the total number of errors counted in this table: while Group 1 (prompts) made 9, Group 2 (reformulations) made a total of 26. Data grouped under ‘error repetition’ and ‘error correction’¹⁷ can also be enlightening: Group 2 has a higher percentage in the former, which might be an instance of lack of intake, as it shows that students were not internalizing the correct grammar and, therefore, kept on repeating the same errors. On the contrary, Group 1 surpassed the other group in regard to error correction, which manifests that students were interiorizing the grammar.

The table also shows the cases in which a correct form was followed by an error. The percentage is higher in the case of the reformulations group (Group 2). This means that Group 1 (prompts) was more constant in obtaining the correct verb form.

	Group 1	Group 2
Error correction	5 (55.5%)	5 (19.23%)
Error repetition	0	9 (34.6%)
Error after correct form	4 (44.4%)	12 (46.1%)
Self-correction	5	7
Total n ^o of errors	9	26

Table 8. Summary of Tables 6 and 7

¹⁷ ‘Error repetition’ refers to the recurrence of an error. On the other hand, ‘error correction’ are the occasions in which instead of repeating the error when the same verb in the same tense appears again, the student is able to state it correctly.

Finally, Table 9 presents the different types of errors. At the beginning of the study it was hypothesized that the majority of the errors which the students would make would be those regarding verb tense confusion. This was proved right, as the data in Table 9 show. However, these errors diminished considerably and, in the case of Group 1, by Session 2 most of the errors were related to a wrong construction of the verb form.

	S1. G1	S1. G2	S2. G1	S2. G2
Tense error	16	14	3	9
<i>Ind. for imp.</i>	9	7	1	5
<i>Imp. for ind.</i>	6	4	2	2
<i>Others</i>	1	3	0	2
Wrongly constructed	5	4	9	0
<i>Irr. Ind.</i>	3	1	6	4
<i>Reg. Ind.</i>	1	3	2	4
<i>Irr. Imp.</i>	0	0	1	0
<i>Reg. Imp.</i>	1	0	0	0
Person error	1	3	7	4
Use of infinitive	1	8	2	7
Verb error	2	2	1	2
No inversion	2	0	0	5
Does not know	0	4	1	0
Total errors ¹⁸	24	30	21	33

Table 9. Type of errors

Summarizing what I have said until now, data displayed in Table 5 show that while reformulations group (G2) gave more repair, prompts group

¹⁸ Some error types occurred within one same verb. ‘Total number of errors’ shows the number of erroneous verbs, not the type.

(G1) performed better in their uptake. In regard to intake, table 8 shows that the percentage of error correction is higher in the case of metalinguistic clue (G1). This information was completed with the written test, where the explicit knowledge was examined. This will be explained in the next section.

4.4.2. Effects on acquisition: explicit knowledge

The students who participated in this study had learnt the *indefinite* verb tense two weeks before, and the *imperfect* one on the previous week. Due to this, they were not very familiar with them at the moment this study took place. For this reason, the cases in which the student got the correct tense but did not manage to correctly form it, were counted as correct in the grammar pre and post-tests.¹⁹ As was shown in Table 2, the total number of students in group 1 was 7, and 5 as for group 2. However, some of the students were only present in one of the sessions. This, together with the fact that there were only two sessions, made me decide to eliminate the pre and post-test results of the students who were absent in one of the sessions.

¹⁹ For example, if the student wrote *tenió* instead of *tuvo* (from the verb *tener*, *to have*). If the correct verb tense for that sentence is indefinite this will be considered correct, even though the irregular was wrongly constructed.

	Pre-test results			Post-test results			Progress
	Reg. 6	Irreg. 6	Total 12	Reg. 11	Irreg. 1	Total 12	
E1	1	0	1	1	1	2	1
E3	4	2	6	5	1	6	0
E4	5	3	8	9	1	10	2
E5	1	0	1	4	0	4	3
E6	6	4	10	8	1	9	-1
E7	2	1	3	7	1	8	5
	4.8/12 (40.3%)			6.5/12 (54.2%)			1.7

Table 10. Group 1, grammar test

	Pre-test results			Post-test results			Progress
	Reg. 6	Irreg. 6	Total 12	Reg. 11	Irreg. 1	Total 12	
E1	5	3	7	6	1	7	0
E2	2	0	2	3	1	4	2
E3	3	2	5	4	0	4	-1
E4	5	2	7	8	1	9	2
	5.25/12 (43.75%)			6/12 (50%)			0.75

Table 11. Group 2, grammar test

The number of students that attended the three sessions was quite reduced. Therefore, the results should be analyzed cautiously. However, they can give us some insight on the matter. Tables 10 and 11 show that there was an improvement from the pre to the post-test; nonetheless, Group 1 shows more improvement in the test results. Though the numbers cannot be conclusive, Group 1, *metalinguistic*

clue, gave an average improvement of 1.7 points. On the other hand, Group 2, *reformulation*, had an average improvement of 0.75.²⁰

²⁰ These data do not attempt to be conclusive, but only a guide for future study. It is important to note, and it was pointed out by professor Kuyng Hee Kim during the thesis presentation, that some students did not advance, and some others got worse.

Chapter 5. Discussion & Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to see which type of corrective feedback was more effective regarding, on the one hand, learner uptake, intake and repair and, on the other hand, in relation to their explicit knowledge. In order to obtain more generalizable data, the study should be performed in different contexts and to a wider number of students. Nevertheless, the present study tries to answer the research questions as follows:

1. *Which type of corrective feedback is more effective with regards to uptake and repair, and which one seems to lead to intake?*

The data show that *metalinguistic clue* (G1), with 100%, seem more effective than *explicit correction* (G2) (S1: 89.4%; S2:92.3%) in the uptake process. Even though the latter obtained more cases of repair (S1: 84.2%; S2: 88.5%), *metalinguistic clue* (which obtained a repair of 77% in both studies) seem to facilitate intake more effectively. It is also important to remember that repairs which are obtained after *explicit correction* are always a repetition of the teacher's utterance, contrarily to those obtained through *metalinguistic clue*. As for *intake*, Table 8 shows how *metalinguistic clue* get a better performance. In 55.5% of the cases, these students were able to correct their erroneous past tense constructions when verbs reoccurred, while *explicit correction* obtained just a 19.23% of error correction. Moreover, *metalinguistic clue* group made no error repetition, as opposed to the 34.6% of error repetition instances made by *explicit*

correction group. These data evidence a deeper intake by the *metalinguistic clue* group.

2. Does the student improve in the accurate selection of the verb tense?

The initial hypothesis was that of the student making errors principally in the tense selection. This proved to be true (see Table 9). However, Group 1 considerably reduced these kind of errors (from 16 in S1, to 3 in S2). By session 2, the majority of the errors made by Group 1 were related to wrong verb forms, especially regarding irregular verbs. Group 2 also reduced the number of mistakes regarding tense selection (from 14 to 9); nevertheless, this type of error was still predominant. These data show that *metalinguistic clue* (G1) was more effective in obtaining the correct verb tense.

3. Which type of corrective feedback shows more improvement with regards to explicit knowledge?

The results of the pre and post-tests can give us a first glance at the matter. As can be seen in Tables 10 and 11, both groups improved. However, Group 1 (*metalinguistic clue*) made a progress of 1.7 points, while Group 2 (*explicit correction*) improved in 0.75 points, data that, again, favor *metalinguistic clue*.

In conclusion, the data gathered from this study show that *metalinguistic clue* seem to be more effective in the processes of *uptake* and *intake*. It also showed more improvement in the correction of past verb tense confusion. Finally, the *metalinguistic clue* group

(G1), got better scores in the grammar tests than the *explicit correction* group (G2). This shows the effectiveness of oral corrective feedback done through metalinguistic clues in regard to explicit knowledge.

The results obtained from this study are in line with those mentioned in section 2.3. Researchers such as Jafarighoar & Gharbavi (2014) and Ammar & Spada (2006) reach the conclusion that prompts are more effective than reformulations. The latter add that prompts are more effective for basic levels, but that both prompts and reformulations are useful for more advanced learners.²¹ As we saw, the present study also reaches this conclusion regarding basic levels: However, we do not have data regarding advanced level students and cannot, therefore, reach any conclusion in this regard. In addition, Sheen (2004) and Lyster & Ranta (1997) agree in that recast—a type of reformulation corrective feedback—is the most used type, but the least effective in regard to uptake. Although this type of feedback was not the focus of this study, the fact that it leads to less uptake is also reflected in the data shown in Table 5. Moreover, Lyster & Ranta (1997) also point out the effectiveness of metalinguistic clue in relation to uptake, conforming to our results. Finally, Lyster, Saito & Sato (2013) believe that recasts can be counter-productive. The students reach a stage in which self-repair is more beneficial for their learning. Prompts are the type of corrective feedback that lead to self-repair, that is, the student will attempt to correct the error looking into the grammar he knows.

²¹ Researchers have tried to give an explanation to this, one of them being the ambiguous nature of reformulations, as the student may perceive them as another option for their utterance and not as a correction (for more hypothesis on this issue, see Jafarighoar & Gharbavi (2014:701-702))

Although the students participating in this study had not enough resources to effectively self-correct, they attempted to do so. Therefore, it can be said that this data is also in accordance with the previous studies.

The study described in this work has some weak points that are worth mentioning. First of all, the reduced number of students makes it impossible to have reliable data that can be generalized. Secondly, the lack of time to obtain more data, forcing the in-class activity to revolve around the point of study, made the students more aware and attentive to the corrections they were receiving. Also, being students of basic Spanish, they had just learnt the grammar points that were analyzed. This could be a positive point, for it really shows whether the students advanced thanks to the feedback. However, they do not know most of the irregular past tense forms, which makes it difficult for them to get the correct form. Lastly, the briefness of each session forced the speed of the activities, possibly making the students stressful and, therefore lowering their performance. Nonetheless, this study can give a first insight to these matters, which can be taken into consideration for a future research. Then, the experience obtained in this investigation will help us solve these limitations.

Bibliography

- Abraham, W. (1981). *Diccionario de terminología lingüística actual*. Madrid, Spain: Gredos.
- Ammar, A., & Spada, N. (2006). One size fits all? Recasts, prompts, and L2 learning. *SSLA*, 28, 543–574.
- Ayoun, D. (2001). The Role of Negative and Positive Feedback in the Second Language Acquisition of the *Passé Composé* and *Imparfait*. *The Modern Language Journal* 85(2), 226–243.
- Bosque, I. & Gutiérrez-Rexach, J. (2009). *Fundamentos de sintaxis formal*. Madrid: Akal.
- Büyükbay, S. (2007). The Effectiveness of Repetition as Corrective Feedback (unpublished master's thesis). Bilkent University. Ankara.
- Callegari, M. O. V. (2007). Reflexiones sobre el modelo de adquisición de segundas lenguas de Stephen Krashen – Un puente entre la teoría y la práctica. *Revista electrónica E/LE Brasil*, 5, February.
- Carrasco Gutiérrez, A. (1994). Reichenbach y los tiempos verbales del español. *DICENDA, Cuadernos de Filología Hispánica*, 12, 69–86. Complutense, Madrid.
- Carroll, S. & Swain, M. (1993). Explicit and Implicit Negative Feedback, An Empirical Study of the Learning of Linguistic Generalizations. *SSAL*, 15, 357–386.
- Colás Aparicio, M. (2018). *Corrective Feedback: Novel Approaches to the Second Language Learning Conversation Class*. Poster presented at NZALT, New Zealand July.
- Corder, S. (1967). The significance of learner's errors. *IRAL*, 5(4), 161–170.

- Delgado-Díaz, G. (2014). Teoría versus uso: análisis sobre el pretérito y el imperfect. *Boletín de Filología*, 49(1), 11-36.
- Ellis, R., Loewen, S. & Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and Explicit Corrective Feedback and the Acquisition of L2 Grammar. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(2), 339-368.
- Escobar Urmeneta, C. (2001). *Teorías sobre la adquisición y el aprendizaje de segundas lenguas*. Nussbaum, L. y Bernaus, M. (Eds.). Didáctica de las lenguas extranjeras en la educación secundaria obligatoria. Madrid: Síntesis. 39-77.
- Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (2008). *Second Language Acquisition: an introductory course*. Routledge, New York, 3rd edition, [1st edition, 1994].
- García Santos, J. F. (1993). *Sintaxis del español -Nivel de perfeccionamiento*, Santillana, Universidad de Salamanca.
- Gu, B. J. (2016), Is Recast the Most Effective Type of Corrective Feedback? —Under Cognitive and Sociolinguistic Approach. *Sino-US English Teaching*, April, 13(4), 284-291.
- Jafarigohar, M. & Gharbavi, A. (2014). Recasts or Prompts: Which One Does the Trick? *Social Behavioral Sciences* 98, 695 – 703.
- Kirkgöz, Y., Babanoğlu, M. P. & Ağçam, R. (2015). Corrective Feedback in Primary EFL Classrooms in Turkey. *American International Journal of Social Science*, 4(3), June.
- Krashen, Stephen D. (1977), The Monitor model for adult second language performance, as cited in M. Burt, H. Dulay & M. Finocchiaro (eds.) *Viewpoints of English as a second language*. New York: Regents C. 152-161.
- _____ (1994). Bilingual Education and Second Language Acquisition Theory. In Lyeba, C. (ed.). *Schooling and Language Monitoring*

- Students: A Theoretical Framework Evaluation*. Dissemination and Assessment Center, California State University, Los Angeles.
- _____ (2009). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. *Pergamon*. Retrived from:
http://www.sdkrashen.com/content/books/principles_and_practice.pdf [first ed.1982]
- Kwon, E. (2007). El español en el Corea del Sur. *Anuario 2007 del Instituto Cervantes: El español en el Mundo. Anuario del Centro Virtual Cervantes*, Jan., 146–149. Retrived from:
https://cvc.cervantes.es/lengua/anuario/anuario_06-07/pdf/paises_26.pdf
- Lee, E. J. (2013). Corrective feedback preferences and learner repair among advanced ESL students. *System*, 41(2), 217–230.
- Lee, M. K. (2006). *Introducción a la lingüística española*. Hankookmunhwasa.
- Loewen, S. (2007). Error correction in the second language classroom, *Clear News*, 11(2), 1–8.
- Long, M. H. (1981). Input, Interaction and Second Language Acquisition. *Annals New York Academy of Sciences*, 379, 259–278.
- _____ (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W.R. Ritchir & T.K. Bhatia (eds), *Handbook of Second Language Acquisition*. San Diego: Academic Press, 413–68.
- Lyster, R. & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake. *Studies in Second Langauge Acquisition*, 20, 37–66.
- Lyster, R. Saito, K. & Sato, M. (2012). Oral corrective feedback in second language classrooms. *Language Teaching* 46(1), 1–40.

- Lyster, R. & Saito, K. (2010). Oral feedback in classroom SLA. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32, 265–302.
- Mao, E. P. (2009). La aspectualidad en la interlingua de estudiantes taiwaneses de E/LE. Un estudio empírico sobre la dicotomía pretérito indefinido/pretérito imperfecto. *Revista Nebrija de Lingüística Aplicada*, 5.
- McLaughlin, B. (1978). The monitor model: some methodological considerations. *Language Learning*, 28(2), 309–332.
- Moreno Cabrera, J. C. (1991). *Curso universitario de lingüística general*. T. 1. Madrid: Síntesis
- Rojo, G. (1990). Relaciones entre temporalidad y aspecto en el verbo español, in Bosque, Ignacio (ed.). *Tiempo y aspecto en español*. Madrid: Cátedra. 17–43.
- Roothfooft, H. (2014). *Oral Corrective Feedback: Its effects on the acquisition of English, teaching practices and teachers' and students' beliefs*, Pamplona: Tesis doctoral.
- Sánchez Calderón, S. (2014). Los efectos de las estrategias de retroalimentación oral en la adquisición de segundas lenguas. *Colindancias*, 5, 283–311.
- Schmidt, R. (1990). The Role of Consciousness in Second Language Learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11(2), 129–158.
- Schwartz, T. P. (1993). On explicit and negative data effecting and affecting *competence* and *linguistic behaviour*, *SSLA*, 15, 147–163.
- Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage, *IRAL*, 10(1–4), 209–232.
- Sheen, Y. H. (2004). Corrective feedback and learner uptake in communicative classrooms across instructional settings, *Language Teaching Research*, 8(3), 263–300.

- Sheen, Y. H. & Ellis. (2011) Corrective feedback in language teaching. *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning*. 2. 593-610.
- Smith, C. (1997). *The Parameter of Aspect*, in *Studies in Linguistics and Philosophy*. V. 43. Springer Science+Business Media Dordrecht. [2nd ed.]
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative Competence: Some Roles of comprehensible Input and Comprehensible Output in its Development. In Liming, Y. (1990). *The Comprehensible Output Hypothesis and Self-directed Learning: A Learner's Perspective*, *TESL Canada Journal*, 8(1), 9-26.

Appendix 1: consent form

이 연구에 참여하는 것에 동의

학생들에게,

제 이름은 모니카입니다. 저는 스페인 사람이고 스페인어를 가르치고 있습니다. 지금 서울대학교에서 서어서문학과 석사를 하고 있습니다. 제 석사 학위의 주제가 외국어를 가르치고 배우는 것을 향상시킬 수 있는 방법을 찾는 것입니다. 그러기 위해서 여러분의 도움이 필요합니다.

이 프로젝트에 참여하면 의사 소통 기술을 향상시킬 수 있고 새로운 활동을 시도하며 경험을 즐길 수 있는 기회를 제공 받을 수 있습니다.

프로젝트는 다음과 같은 정상 수업 시간에 진행됩니다 :

- __ 월 __ 일 화요일
- __ 월 __ 일 화요일

__월 __일과 __일 두 수업시간에 참석해야 정규 과정으로 간주되기 때문에 모두 참석하는 것이 매우 중요합니다. 이 수업들은 오디오 녹음이 될 예정입니다. 하지만 이 녹음은 연구 목적으로만 사용될 것입니다. 저를 제외한 그 누구에게도 이 녹음을 들을 수 있는 권한이 주어지지 않을 것입니다. 수집된 모든 정보는 기밀로 유지되며 익명으로 유지됩니다. 만약에 이 연구의 데이터가 발표된다면 여러분의 이름은 사용되지 않을 것입니다.

이러한 조건에 동의한다면 아래에 서명하십시오.

학생의 동의

본 연구에 대한 정보를 읽고 이해했으며 오디오 녹음에 동의합니다.

이름 : _____

서명 : _____

Appendix 2: personal information

학생의 배경 설문지

일음: _____

모국어와 국적: _____

남 / 여

이메일 주소: _____

년월일: ____/____/____

전공: _____

1. 다른 언어를 할 줄 압니까? 언어 능숙도 인증서가 있습니까?

2. 얼마 동안 스페인어를 배웠습니까? _____

3. 몇 살 때 스페인어 공부를 시작했습니까? _____

4. 어디서 스페인어 공부 했습니까? 얼마 동안?

초등학교 (기간) _____

언어 교육관 (기간) _____

중학교 (기간) _____

학원 (기간) _____

대학교 (기간) _____

가정 교사 (기간) _____

다른 _____

5. 무엇을 더 공부 했습니까?

주로 문법과 단어 주로 말하기와 듣기 문법과 단어,

말하기와 듣기 특정 분야에

치우치지 않았음

6. 수업 시간 외에 스페인어 공부하고 있습니까? 어디서? 무엇을 공부 합니까?

7. 스페인어 하는 나라에서는 살거나 공부했습니까 (멕시코, 페루, 스페인 등)? _____

8. 경험이 있다면, 얼마 동안? 여기서 무엇을 했습니까?

9. 수업 외에서 스페인어를 사용합니까? 누구랑? 일주일에 몇 번이나?

이 정보는 기밀로 취급됩니다

Appendix 3: pre and posttest

Pre-test: ¿Correcto o incorrecto?

Mi abuelo escucha el radio todos los días. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____
Ana está comentando las noticias con Juan. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____
Mi profesora siempre bebe café con leche. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____
Mi padre tiene una mapa muy grande en su habitación. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____
En Navidad, se reunirá toda la familia. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____
Ayer estudiaba español en la universidad. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____
Quiero viajar Japón en verano. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____
Inés ha ido al mercado esta mañana. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____
Hace años que Irene no hizo una comida tan rica. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____

<p>El bolso rojo es más mejor que el verde. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Esta tarde pasearé con mi perro por el parque. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Mi madre era cocinera durante muchos años. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>María no comió verdura de pequeña Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Elena tiene los ojos negras. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Mi sobrino está dormiendo la siesta (낮잠). Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Juan, ¿te gusta el chocolate? Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Mi hermana entiende nada español. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Ellos dormen diez horas todos los días. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Mis primos tenen el pelo rubio. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>

<p>El año pasado Irene hacía una fiesta de cumpleaños. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta</i>? _____</p>
<p>Carla y mi hermano se pelean todo el rato. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta</i>? _____</p>
<p>Esta celular es más elegante que aquella. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta</i>? _____</p>
<p>Mi padre leyó todas las noches antes de dormir. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta</i>? _____</p>
<p>¿Te ha gustado la película? Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta</i>? _____</p>
<p>¿Aprobabas el examen de español? Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta</i>? _____</p>
<p>Este año ha nevado más que el año pasado. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta</i>? _____</p>
<p>Ana se despierta a su hijo a las 8 de la mañana. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta</i>? _____</p>
<p>Juan supo mucho sobre música <i>country</i>. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta</i>? _____</p>
<p>Estoy oyendo la risa de Pedro. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta</i>? _____</p>

<p>Esta camisa es demasiada grande. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Yo viajaba a España hace diez años. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>El taxista quiere descansar este fin de semana. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>De joven, Antonio siempre pintó un cuadro cada día. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Juan corriendo por el parque. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>El chico tenía un accidente de tráfico. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Ese chico me parece muy guapísimo. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Todos los domingos cantaron en el coro de la universidad. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>

Post-test: ¿Correcto o incorrecto?

Mi abuelo tiene un habitación llena de vino. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____
Ana está comiendo con Juan. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____
Mi profesora siempre termina la clase muy tarde. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____
Mi padre tiene un radio muy viejo en su habitación. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____
La semana que viene celebraremos Chuseok con toda mi familia. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____
Los niños recibían muchos regalos estas Navidades. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____
Quiero visitar la isla de Jeju en primavera. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____
Inés no ha tomado su medicina esta mañana. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____
De pequeño, mi hermano montó en bicicleta todos los días. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____

<p>La zapatilla es mucho cómoda que el zapato de tacón. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Esta tarde llamaré a mi hermana. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>El año pasado, Pedro ganaba el concurso de matemáticas. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>El profesor conoció muy bien este tema. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Elena tiene un moto rojo. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Mis hermanos pequeños están dormiendo la siesta (낮잠). Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Ana, ¿te gusta el sushi? Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Mi hermana entiende no español. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Los niños dormen diez horas todos los días. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Mi mejor amiga tene el pelo moreno. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>

<p>Los chicos visitaban ayer a su abuelita. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Carla y mi hermano se quieren mucho. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Este televisión es más elegante que aquel. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>De pequeños les encantó jugar en la calle todos los días. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>¿Les ha gustado la cena a tus amigos? Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>¿Recibías el paquete de tu madre? Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Hoy he llovido más que ayer. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Ana se peina a su hija cada mañana. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Al principio, el español me pareció un idioma muy difícil, pero me parece muy fácil. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>
<p>Estoy pidiendo un libro en la biblioteca. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta?</i> _____</p>

<p>Esta blusa es demasiada estrecha. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta</i>? _____</p>
<p>Yo viajaba por Asia hace diez años. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta</i>? _____</p>
<p>El abogado no quiere trabajar este fin de semana. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta</i>? _____</p>
<p>El sábado volví a casa cuando me encontré a Juan en el café. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta</i>? _____ _____</p>
<p>Juan comiendo en el bar. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta</i>? _____</p>
<p>La profesora tenía un accidente de tráfico. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta</i>? _____</p>
<p>Ese chico me parece demasiado muy aburrido. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta</i>? _____</p>
<p>Ellos siempre llegaron tarde a clase de español. Correcto → 규칙이나 느낌? _____ Incorrecto → <i>correcta</i>? _____</p>

Appendix 4: materials used during the sessions

Rumpelstiltskin: story and vocabulary

Parte 1

Hace mucho tiempo había un molinero que era muy pobre pero muy orgulloso. Un día tenía que ir a visitar al rey y quiso impresionarle, así que le dijo que su hija podía hilar paja y transformarla en oro. El rey quiso descubrir si era verdad, y le pidió al molinero que trajera a su hija al palacio. Al día siguiente, el molinero llevó a la chica al rey. Él la llevó a una habitación llena de paja y le dio una rueda para hilar. El rey le dijo: “Si no puedes transformar esta paja en oro te mataré.” Luego cerró la puerta y la dejó sola. La chica empezó a llorar, porque no sabía cómo hacerlo.

Molinero:
제분업자
Ser orgulloso:
자존심이 강하다
Hilar: 실을 잣다
Paja: 짚

Parte 2

De repente, la puerta se abrió y entró un hombre pequeño. Le preguntó por qué lloraba. Cuando ella se lo contó, él contestó: “Yo lo hago por ti si me das a tu primer hijo.” La chica aceptó esta oferta y por la mañana toda la habitación estaba llena de oro. Cuando el rey lo vio quería hacerla su mujer. Así que se casaron y ella se convirtió en reina. Un año después, su primer hijo nació. La reina estaba tan feliz que se olvidó del hombrecito. Pero un día el hombrecito entró en la habitación y dijo: “Dame lo que prometiste.” La reina se sintió muy triste y le ofreció todo el dinero del reino, pero él solo quería el bebé.

Oferta: 제안
Prometer:
약속하다
Ofrecer dinero:
돈을 내다

Parte 3

Entonces ella empezó a llorar tanto que el hombrecito sintió lástima de ella. Por eso le dio tres días para averiguar su nombre. “Si puedes hacer eso, podrás quedarte con tu hijo”, dijo el hombrecito. La reina pensó

Dar lástima:
슬프게 하다
Averiguar:
조사하다
Mensajero: 사신
Intentar: 시도하다

durante toda la noche sobre todos los nombres que conocía, y envió mensajeros a todas partes para buscar posibles nombres. Al día siguiente ella le dijo al hombrecito todos los nombres que sabía. Pero él siempre contestaba: “Ese no es mi nombre.” Al segundo día ella lo intentó otra vez, pero la respuesta fue la misma. Ella empezó a preocuparse.

Parte 4

Al tercer día, uno de los mensajeros volvió y le contó a la reina que no había encontrado nombres nuevos. Pero le contó una historia curiosa. Cuando llegó a una montaña muy alta, vio una casa pequeñita y había un fuego encendido delante de ella. Había un gracioso hombrecito bailando alrededor del fuego. El hombrecito cantaba: “Nadie conoce mi nombre. Mi nombre es Rumpelstiltskin.”

Cuando la reina escuchó esto se puso muy contenta. Un poco después, el hombrecito llegó y le preguntó otra vez: “¿Cuál es mi nombre?”

Al principio ella preguntó: “¿Te llamas Pedro?”, Pero él contestó “no”. Luego le preguntó: “¿Te llamas Juan?” Pero él dijo “no”. Finalmente, la reina dijo: “quizás tu nombre es Rumpelstiltskin.” Él gritó: “¿Quién te ha dicho eso?” Y se enfureció tanto que huyó y nunca volvió. Y el rey y la reina vivieron felices para siempre.

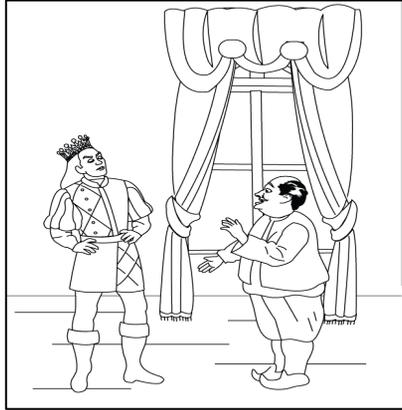
Montaña: 산
Fuego: 불
Huir: 도망치다

Rumpelstiltskin: pictures

Pictures taken from:

<https://www.kids->

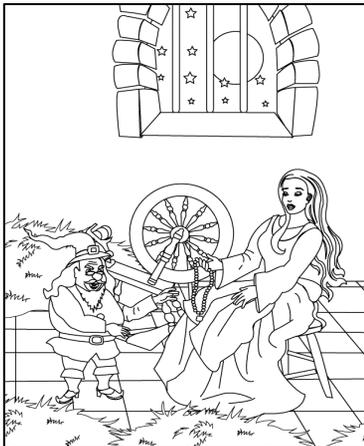
[pages.com/folders/colpages/Rumpelstiltskin/index.htm](https://www.kids-pages.com/folders/colpages/Rumpelstiltskin/index.htm)



- Hace mucho tiempo, haber un molinero
- Ser muy pobre pero muy orgulloso.
- Un día, tener que ir a visitar al rey, y querer impresionarle.
- Decir que su hija poder hilar paja en oro.
- Rey querer descubrir si ser verdad.
- Rey pedir molinero que traer a su hija al palacio.



- Al día siguiente, el molinero llevar a la chica al rey.
- El rey llevar a la chica a una habitación llena de paja
- Y darle una rueda para hilar.
- El rey decir: "Si no puedes transformar esta paja en oro te mataré."
- Luego cerrar puerta y dejar a la chica sola. La chica ponerse a llorar, porque no saber cómo hacerlo.



- De repente, la puerta abrirse y entrar un hombre pequeñito.
- El hombrecito preguntarle: "¿Por qué lloras?".
- Ella contárselo.
- El hombrecito contestar: "Yo lo hago por ti si me das a tu primer hijo."
- La chica aceptar.



- Por la mañana, la habitación estar llena de oro. Cuando el rey ver, hacerla su mujer.



- El rey y la chica casarse.
- Ella convertirse en reina.
- Un año después, nacer su primer hijo.
- La reina estar tan feliz que olvidarse del hombrecito.



- Pero un día, el hombrecito entrar en la habitación
- El hombrecito decir: “Dame lo que prometiste.”
- La reina sentirse muy triste y ofrecerle todo el dinero del reino.
- Pero el hombrecito solo querer el bebé.



- Entonces la reina empezar a llorar.
- El hombrecito sentir lástima.
- Por eso darle tres días para averiguar su nombre. El hombrecito decir: “Si puedes hacer eso, podrás quedarte con tu hijo”.
- La reina pensar durante toda la noche todos los nombres que conocer.
- La reina enviar mensajeros para buscar nombres.
- Al día siguiente, la reina decir al hombrecito todos los nombres que saber.
- Pero hombrecito siempre contestar: “Ese no es mi nombre.”
- Al segundo día, ella intentarlo otra vez, pero la respuesta ser siempre la misma.



- Al tercer día, un mensajero volver y contar que no encontrar nombres nuevos.
- Pero contar una historia curiosa.
- Cuando llegar a una montaña muy alta, ver una casa pequeña y haber un fuego encendido.
- Un hombrecito bailar alrededor del fuego.
- El hombrecito cantar: “Nadie conoce mi nombre. Mi nombre es Rumpelstiltskin.”



El rey y la reina ser felices para siempre



- Cuando la reina escuchar esto ponerse muy contenta.
- Un poco después, el hombrecito llegar.
- El hombrecito preguntar: “¿Cuál es mi nombre?”
- Al principio la reina preguntar: “¿Te llamas Pedro?”
- El hombrecito contestar: “no”.
- Luego ella preguntar: “¿Te llamas Juan?”
- Y el hombrecito decir: “no”.
- Finalmente, la reina decir: “quizás tu nombre es Rumpelstiltskin.”
- El hombrecito gritar: “¿Quién te ha dicho eso?”
- El hombrecito enfurecerse y huir.

Jack y las habichuelas mágicas [Jack and the beanstalk]: story

Parte 1

Jack vivía con su madre en una casa en el bosque. Eran muy pobres y habían vendido todo lo que tenían, para poder comprar comida. Con el tiempo, se les gastó todo el dinero. La madre decidió mandar a Jack a la ciudad. Allí debía vender la única vaca que tenían. El niño se puso en camino con el animal. Después de un rato, se encontró con un hombre que llevaba un saquito de habichuelas. “Son mágicas”, explicó aquel hombre. “Si te gustan, te las doy a cambio de la vaca”. Así lo hizo Jack, y volvió muy contento a su casa. Pero su madre, muy triste, empezó a llorar, cogió las habichuelas y las lanzó a la calle. Habían perdido la vaca y ya no podían comprar comida. Al día siguiente, cuando Jack se levantó, se sorprendió mucho. Cuando abrió la ventana, **vio que las habichuelas habían crecido** tanto que sus ramas subían hasta el cielo.

Bosque: 숲
Vaca: 소
Animal: 동물
Habichuela: 강낭콩
Mágico: 마술의
Rama: 가지
Cielo: 하늘

Parte 2

Muy rápido, Jack trepó por la planta, y subió lo más alto que pudo. Cuando estaba por encima de las nubes encontró un país desconocido. Entró en un castillo donde vivía un **gigante**. Escondido detrás de una cortina, observó cómo el gigante contaba las monedas de oro que sacaba de una bolsa. Cuando el gigante se durmió, **Jack cogió la bolsa que tenía el dinero**. Jack

Trepar: 기어오르다
Desconocido: 모르는
Cortina: 커튼
Moneda: 돈
Gallina: 암탉
Huevo: 달걀

corrió a las ramas de las habichuelas, bajó y volvió a la casa. Su madre se alegró mucho. Con el dinero que había en la bolsa los dos vivieron tranquilos por mucho tiempo, hasta que el dinero se terminó. Jack trepó otra vez por la planta y volvió al castillo. **El gigante tenía una gallina que ponía huevos de oro.** Jack pensó que con aquella gallina podían comprar mucha comida.

Parte 3

Jack vio que el gigante se tumbaba en un sillón, mientras un arpa mágica tocaba una música muy bonita. Con el sonido del arpa el gigante se durmió. Entonces, **esperó hasta que el gigante se durmió, y muy despacio, cogió a la gallina. Pero antes de salir, decidió llevarse el arpa, porque la música era muy bonita. Así que tomó el arpa y empezó a correr.** Pero el arpa estaba encantada. Cuando Jack la tocó, el arpa gritó: “¡Eh, señor amo, despierte usted, que me roban!” El gigante se despertó y persiguió a Jack, que corrió tan rápido como pudo. Al llegar a la planta, Jack vio que el gigante también bajaba por ella. Así que gritó a su madre: “¡trae un hacha, rápido!” Su madre llegó con el hacha **y Jack cortó el tronco de la habichuela.** El gigante calló al suelo y nunca más apareció. Y desde entonces, Jack y su madre vivieron felices para siempre.

Arpa: 하프
Tocar música: 연주하다
Encantada: 마법에 걸린
Hacha: 도끼
Tronco: 나무의 몸통

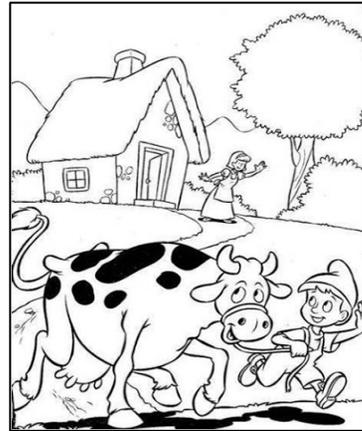
Jack and the beanstalk: pictures

Pictures taken from:

<http://pintandoaprendo.blogspot.com/2016/08/jack-y-las-habichuelas-magicas.html>



- Jack vivir con su madre en una casa en el bosque
- Ellos ser pobres y vender todo para comprar comida
- Con el tiempo, gastarse el dinero



- La madre decidir mandar a Jack a la ciudad para vender la vaca.
- Jack, ponerse en camino



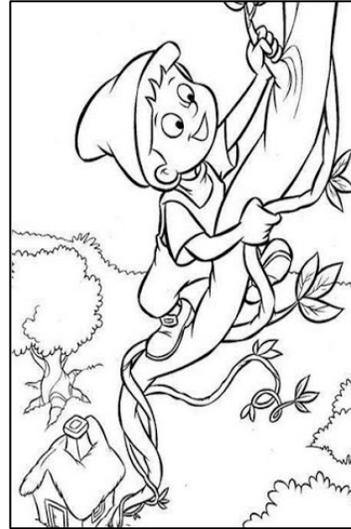
- Después de un rato, encontrarse con un hombre
- El hombre llevar un saquito de habichuelas
- El hombre decir: "Son mágicas. Te las doy a cambio de la vaca"
- Jack hacerlo y volver a casa muy contento



- Pero su madre, ponerse muy triste y empezar a llorar
- La madre coger las habichuelas y lanzarlas a la calle
- Ellos haber perdido la vaca y no poder comprar comida



- Al día siguiente, cuando Jack levantara, sorprenderse mucho
- Las habichuelas haber crecido
- Sus ramas subir hasta el cielo



- Jack trepar por la planta y subir lo más alto que poder.



- Cuando estar por encima de las nubes, Jack encontrar un país desconocido
- Entrar en un castillo, donde vivir un gigante



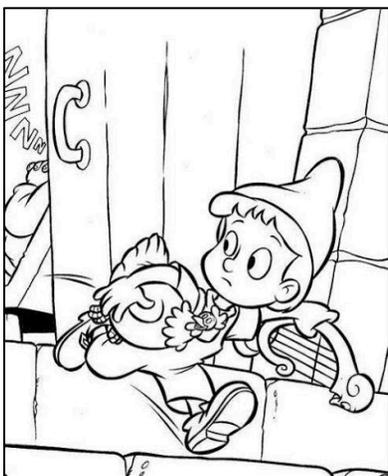
- Jack observar detrás de la cortina
- El gigante contar monedas de oro
- El gigante tener monedas en una bolsa
- Cuando el gigante dormirse, Jack coger la bolsa



- Jack correr a la planta
- Bajar y volver a casa
- Su madre alegrarse mucho
- Jack y su madre, vivir tranquilos. Hasta que el dinero terminarse



- Jack otra vez trepar por la planta y volver al castillo
- El gigante tener una gallina.
- La gallina poner huevos oro
- Jack pensar que con la gallina ellos poder comprar mucha comida



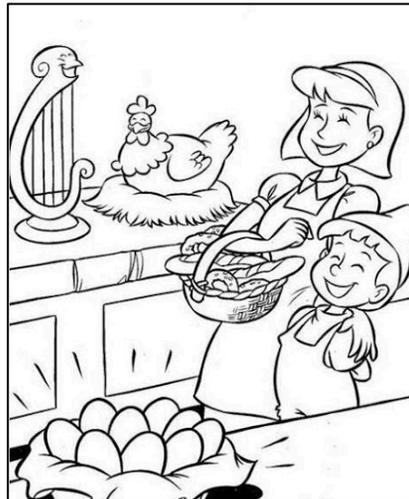
- Jack ver que el gigante tumbarse en un sofá
- Un arpa mágica tocar música
- El gigante dormirse
- Entonces, Jack coger la gallina
- La música del arpa ser muy bonita
- Jack coger también el arpa



- Pero el arpa estar encantada
- Cuando Jack tocar el arpa:
- El arpa gritar: “¡Eh, señor amo, despierte usted, que me roban!”
- El gigante despertar y perseguir a Jack
- Jack correr



- Cuando Jack llegar a la planta ver que al gigante
- El gigante también estar bajando por la planta
- Jack gritar a su madre: “¡trae un hacha, rápido!”
- Jack cortar la planta
- El gigante caer al suelo y nunca más aparecer



Jack y su madre vivir felices
para siempre

Caperucita Roja [Little Red Ridding Hood]: pictures

Pictures taken from:

<http://www.pintohablaingles.es/cuentos/caperucita%20roja/index.html>

Version 1 / Version 2



- Hace mucho tiempo, haber una niña que querer mucho a su abuelita.
- Por Navidad / Por su cumpleaños, la Abuelita regalarle una caperucita roja, caperucita roja
- Por eso la gente empezar a llamarla Caperucita Roja
- Su Abuelita vivir en una casa en el bosque



- Un día, su mamá decirle: “Por favor, lleva esta cesta con galletas / pastel y vino a tu abuelita. Ve rápido y no hables con extraños”



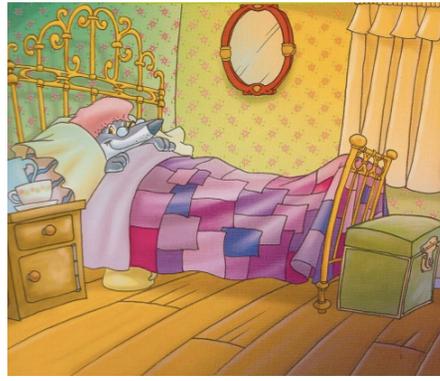
- Caperucita Roja entrar en el bosque
- De repente, ver un lobo
- El Lobo preguntar: “¿A dónde vas?”
- Ella contestar: “Voy a casa de mi abuelita a llevarle estas galletas.”



- El Lobo pensar: “si soy inteligente, puedo comerlas a las dos”
- El Lobo decir: “mira, allí hay unas flores muy bonitas. Puedes recogerlas para tu abuelita.”
- Caperucita mirar las flores y decidir coger algunas.



- Mientras tanto, el Lobo correr a la casa de la Abuelita
- El Lobo llamar a la puerta
- La abuelita preguntar: “¿Quién es?”
- El lobo contestar: “Soy yo, Caperucita Roja”
- La Abuelita decir: “por favor, entra. Estoy muy débil / **enferma** y no me puedo levantar.”



- El Lobo entrar en la casa y comerse a la Abuelita.
- Después ponerse su ropa y meterse en la cama.
- Luego, esperar a Caperucita.



- Un poco después, llegar Caperucita Roja
- Caperucita llamar a la puerta.
- El Lobo decir: “por favor, entra. Estoy muy débil y no me puedo levantar.”
- Cuando la niña entrar, mirar al lobo vestido con ropa de su abuelita.
- Ella pensar que su abuelita estar un poco diferente.



- Por eso, Caperucita preguntar: “Abuelita, ¿por qué tienes unas orejas tan grandes?”
- El Lobo contestar: “Para oírte mejor”.
- La niña exclamar: “¡Qué ojos tan grandes tienes!”
- El Lobo responder: “Son para verte mejor”.
- Finalmente, la niña decir: “tu boca es muy grande.”
- El Lobo gritar: “¡Es para comerte mejor!”



- Entonces el Lobo saltar de la cama y comerse a Caperucita.
- Después de comer tanto, el lobo sentirse muy cansado, y otra vez en la cama y dormirse.



- Un poco después, un cazador pasar por delante de la casa.
- Escuchar un ruido extraño y decidir entrar.
- Cuando ver al Lobo en la cama, tomar unas tijeras y abrir el estómago del lobo



- En estómago, el cazador encontrar a Caperucita y su abuelita.
- Entonces, Caperucita Roja tener una idea. Salir al jardín y recoger piedras grandes.
- El Cazador ayudarle a poner las piedras en estómago del lobo.
- Cuando lobo despertar querer correr /**estar muy sediento. Ir al río a beber agua.** Pero las piedras ser tan pesadas que caerse y morir.
- Los tres estar muy felices
- El Cazador tomar la piel del lobo / **Caperucita regalar el vino al cazador**
- La Abuelita y Caperucita Roja sentarse y comerse las galletas/el **pastel**.
- Caperucita pensar: “siempre escucharé a mi madre y nunca volveré a hablar con extraños.”

구술적 수정 피드백

- 한국 ELE 수업에서 스페인어 습득에 미치는 영향-

모니카
서어서문학과
서울대학교 대학원

우리는 지금껏 효과적인 언어 학습을 위해 부단히 노력해왔고, 세계화는 그 필요성을 더욱 증대시켰다. 한국에서는 스페인어를 외국어로서 배우는 것에 대한 관심이 지속적으로 증가하고 있다. 학생들에게 효과적이고 빠른 학습 경험을 제공하고자 하는 필요성은 교사들로 하여금 교수 전략을 더 잘 수행하기 위한 최선의 방법을 연구하도록 하였다.

모든 언어 수업에서 가장 중요한 점은 교사가 학생의 오류를 교정하는 방법이다. 수정적 피드백(corrective feedback)은 언어 학습의 효과(성) 부분에서 현재 연구되고 있는 방법이다. 그 가능성은 광범위하다. 지금까지 이루어진 주요 구분은 학생이 학생 스스로 잘못된 발음을 교정하는 자극(prompts)과 교사가 올바른 문장을 제공하는 재구성(reformulations)을 구별하는 것이다. 이 두 범주 안에는 묵시적(implicit)인 것부터 명시적(explicit)까지 다양한 유형의 수정 피드백이 있다.

본 연구는 구술 교정 피드백(oral corrective feedback)에 초점을 맞추고, 이분법적 자극과 재구성의 효과를 가장 명백한 방법, 즉, 메타언어적 단서(metalinguistic clue)와 명시적 교정(explicit correction)으로 각각 검토한다. 메타언어적 단서가 학생들에게 그들의 말을 교정하는 것을 돕기

위한 약간의 정보를 제공하는 반면, 명시적 교정은 학생들에게 직접적으로 정확한 대답을 제공한다. 자료에 대한 검사는 학생의 이해력, 수정, 수용을 분석함으로써 이루어졌다. 우리는 학생이 본인의 발언에 오류가 있다는 것을 깨달았을 때를 수용(uptake)이라고 언급한다. 수정(repair)은 학생이 교정 피드백을 받은 후 오류를 수정하려고 시도하는 것을 보여준다. 마지막으로, 내재화(intake)는 문법이 학생에 의해 습득되었고, 앞으로 사용할 준비가 되어있는 경우를 뜻한다.

이 연구는 스페인어의 부정 과거와 불완료 과거 시제 사이의 구분에 초점을 맞추고 있다. 영어도 한국어도 두 가지 다른 과거 시제를 가지고 있지 않기에 이 점이 스페인어를 배울 때 어렵고 혼란스럽게 만든다. 대부분의 경우, 화자가 전달하고자 하는 의미에 따라 부정 과거와 불완료 과거 시제의 사용이 좌우된다는 사실이 시제 사용을 훨씬 더 어렵게 만든다.

이 연구는 스페인어 베이직 2 레벨을 선택 과목으로 수강하고 있는 한국 대학생들을 대상으로 실시되었다. 이 연구를 통해, 학습자의 오류를 줄이는데 있어서 메타언어적 단서가 명시적 수정보다 더 효과적이다 라는 결론이 도출되었다. 이 점은 외국어 교실에서의 구두 수정 피드백의 문제를 다루는 최근의 문헌과 일치한다.

현재의 연구는 언급할 만한 몇 가지 단점이 있다. 한가지 예로 학생 수가 많지 않았기에 그로 인해 자료의 신빙성과 일반화를 구축하는 데 어려움을 겪었다. 더욱이, 더 많은 데이터를 확보할 시간이 부족하여 실험 세션이 연구 시점을 중심으로 진행되었다. 이를 통해 학생들이 동사 시제 선택에 더 많은 관심을 기울이게 되었다. 또한, 이 학생들은 이제 막 부정 과거와 불완료 과거를 배웠기에, 학생들이 도움을 받아 교정을 진행했는지 여부를 보여주는 긍정적인 점이 될 수 있지만, 여전히 학생들은 불규칙한 과거 시제 형식의 대부분을 완벽하게 표현해내지 못했다. 또 다른 문제는 각 세션의 응축(condensation)되어 있어서 학생들의 활동 속도가 제한되었고, 결과적으로 학생들의 수행 능력을 떨어뜨렸을 수도 있다. 마지막으로, 학생 자료에 따르면, 메타언어적 단서 집단에 속한 학생들은 언어와 언어학과 관련된 전공을

공부하고 있다. 그와 달리, 명시적 교정 집단은 더 다양한 대학 학위를 가지고 있다. 그럼에도 불구하고, 이 논문은 향후 연구에서 고려될 만한 문제점들에 대한 첫 통찰력을 제공할 수 있다. 이 조사에서 얻은 경험은 우리가 이러한 한계점들을 해결하는 데 도움이 될 것이다.

주요어: 수정 피드백, 학습자 수용, 수정과 내재화; 과거와 불완료 과거; 메타언어적 단서; 명시적 교정.

학번: 2016-26809