



UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL DE LOJA

FACULTAD DE LA EDUCACIÓN, EL ARTE Y LA COMUNICACIÓN

ENGLISH LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT

TITLE

**THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE
THROUGH DIRECT CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK AMONG NINTH-
YEAR A STUDENTS AT LA DOLOROSA HIGH SCHOOL OF THE
CITY OF LOJA DURING THE 2016-2017 SCHOOL YEAR**

Thesis as a previous requirement to obtain the
Bachelors' Degree in Sciences of Education,
English Language Specialization

AUTHOR

DEICE NATALI MONTAÑO ORDOÑEZ

THESIS ADVISOR

LIC. MARÍA PATRICIA RODRÍGUEZ LUDEÑA. MG. SC

LOJA-ECUADOR

2018

CERTIFICATION

Lic. María Patricia Rodríguez Ludeña. Mg. Sc.

**PROFESSOR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CAREER OF THE
UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL DE LOJA**

CERTIFIES

The present research work entitled **THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE THROUGH DIRECT CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK AMONG NINTH-YEAR A STUDENTS AT LA DOLOROSA HIGH SCHOOL OF THE CITY OF LOJA DURING THE 2016-2017 SCHOOL YEAR.**, under the responsibility of the undergraduate student **Deice Natali Montaña Ordóñez**, has been thoroughly revised and fully analyzed. Therefore, I authorize its presentation for the pertinent legal aims.

Loja, August 31st, 2017.

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to be 'M. Patricia Rodríguez Ludeña', written over a faint circular stamp or seal.

Lic. María Patricia Rodríguez Ludeña. Mg. Sc.

THESIS ADVISOR

AUTORÍA

Yo, DEICE NATALI MONTAÑO ORDÓÑEZ declaro ser autora de este trabajo de tesis y eximo expresamente a la Universidad Nacional de Loja y a sus representantes jurídicos de posibles reclamos o acciones legales, por el contenido de la misma.

Adicionalmente, acepto y autorizo a la Universidad Nacional de Loja, la publicación de mi tesis en el Repositorio Institucional-Biblioteca Virtual.

Autor: Deice Natali Montaña Ordoñez

Firma: 

Cédula: 1103314298

Fecha: Loja, 14 de agosto de 2018

CARTA DE AUTORIZACIÓN DE TESIS POR PARTE DE LA AUTORA PARA LA CONSULTA, REPRODUCCIÓN PARCIAL O TOTAL Y PUBLICACIÓN ELECTRÓNICA DEL TEXTO COMPLETO.

Yo, Deice Natali Montaña Ordóñez declaro ser autora de la tesis titulada: **THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE THROUGH DIRECT CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK AMONG NINTH-YEAR A STUDENTS AT LA DOLOROSA HIGH SCHOOL OF THE CITY OF LOJA DURING THE 2016-2017 SCHOOL YEAR.**; como requisito previo para obtener el grado de: Licenciada en Ciencias de la Educación; mención: Idioma Inglés; autorizo al Sistema Bibliotecario de la Universidad Nacional de Loja para que con fines académicos, muestre al mundo la producción intelectual de la Universidad, a través de la visibilidad de su contenido en el Repositorio Digital Institucional.

Los usuarios pueden consultar el contenido de este trabajo en el RDI, en las redes de información del país y del exterior; con las cuales tenga convenio la Universidad.

La Universidad Nacional de Loja, no se responsabiliza por el plagio o copia de la tesis que realice un tercero.

Para constancia de esta autorización, en la ciudad de Loja, a los catorce días del mes Agosto de dos mil dieciocho.

Firma: 

Autora: Deice Natali Montaña Ordóñez

Cédula: 1103314298

Dirección: Loja, Cdla Época, calles: Av. De los Paltas entre Francia y Estados Unidos.

Correo electrónico: natalicenloja@gmail.com

Teléfono: 072-10-79-17

Celular: 0990681709

DATOS COMPLEMENTARIOS:

Director de tesis: Lic. María Patricia Rodríguez Ludeña. Mg. Sc.

Tribunal de Grado:

Presidente: Dra. Carmen Enith Dávila Vega. Mg. Sc.

Primer Vocal: Lcda. Karina Alexandra Celi Jaramillo. Mg. Sc.

Segundo Vocal: Lcda. Rosa Paola Moreno Ordóñez. Mg. Sc.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Foremost, I would like to express my gratitude to Universidad Nacional de Loja for giving me the opportunity to be part of this prestigious educational institution and providing me with all the necessary facilities to successfully finish my career.

My eternal recognitions to my thesis advisor Mg. Patricia Rodríguez, her invaluable guidance helped me in all the time to develop my research work and effectively complete this research work. I could not have imagined having a better advisor and mentor for my research work. Besides my advisor, I would like to thank to Mg. Marcia Balcazar for offering me the opportunity to apply my intervention plan in her group of students and leading me working on this research.

My honest thanks also go to Canonigo Socrates Chinchay, Principal of La Dolorosa High school, for giving me the opportunity to develop and apply the instruments and the intervention plan in this institution. Last but not the least, I would like to express gratitude to the participants in my intervention plan, who have willingly shared their precious time during the process of this research.

THE AUTHOR

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my beloved family and friends. A special feeling of gratitude to my loving parents Julio and Laura, who have always loved me unconditionally and whose good example have taught me to work hard for the things that I aspire to achieve.

This work is also dedicated to my dear children Laura and Steven, who inspire me every single day to be a better mother and a human being, their love gave me the courage to make this dream come true. To my brothers Jonathan and Julio, and sister in law Gabriela, who have been a constant source of support and encouragement during the challenges of university and life. I also dedicate this thesis to my good friends who have supported me throughout the process. I will always appreciate all the things they have done.

Finally, I would like to dedicate this thesis to my thesis advisor Mg. Patricia Rodríguez who assisted me with this research, she guided me with expertise and patience. I am deeply indebted for her valuable feedback, insightful comments and perspicacious suggestions. I am blessed to have a mentor like her.

DEICE NATALI

MATRIZ DE ÁMBITO GEOGRÁFICO

ÁMBITO GEOGRÁFICO DE LA INVESTIGACIÓN											
BIBLIOTECA: FACULTAD DE LA EDUCACIÓN, EL ARTE Y LA COMUNICACIÓN.											
TIPO DE DOCUMENTO	AUTORA / TÍTULO DE LA TESIS	FUENTE	FECHA / AÑO	ÁMBITO GEOGRÁFICO						OTRAS DESAGREGACIONES	OTRAS OBSERVACIONES
				NACIONAL	REGIONAL	PROVINCIA	CANTÓN	PARROQUIA	BARRIO O COMUNIDAD		
THESIS	Deice Natali Montaña Ordóñez THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE THROUGH DIRECT CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK AMONG NINTH-YEAR A STUDENTS AT LA DOLOROSA HIGH SCHOOL OF THE CITY OF LOJA DURING THE 2016-2017 SCHOOL YEAR.	UNL	2018	Ecuador	Zona 7	Loja	Loja	El Sagrario	Central	Cd	Licenciada en Ciencias de la Educación; mención: Idioma Inglés

MAPA GEOGRÁFICO Y CROQUIS

UBICACIÓN GEOGRÁFICA DEL CANTÓN LOJA



CROQUIS DE LA INVESTIGACIÓN COLEGIO LA DOLOROSA



THESIS OUTLINE

- i. COVER PAGE
- ii. CERTIFICATION
- iii. AUTORÍA
- iv. CARTA DE AUTORIZACIÓN
- v. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS
- vi. DEDICATION
- vii. MATRIZ DE ÁMBITO GEOGRÁFICO
- viii. MAPA GEOGRÁFICO Y CROQUIS
- ix. THESIS OUTLINE
 - a. TITLE
 - b. RESUMEN
ABSTRACT
 - c. INTRODUCTION
 - d. LITERATURE REVIEW
 - e. MATERIALES AND METHODS
 - f. RESULTS
 - g. DISCUSSION
 - h. CONCLUSIONS
 - i. RECOMMENDATIONS
 - j. BIBLIOGRAPHY
 - k. ANNEXES

a. TITLE

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE
THROUGH DIRECT CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK AMONG NINTH-
YEAR A STUDENTS AT LA DOLOROSA HIGH SCHOOL OF THE
CITY OF LOJA DURING THE 2016-2017 SCHOOL YEAR.

b. RESUMEN

Esta investigación se centró en el desarrollo de la competencia gramatical a través de la retroalimentación correctiva directa en el colegio La Dolorosa entre 37 estudiantes durante 8 semanas. Los siguientes métodos fueron utilizados para llevar a cabo esta investigación: el método analítico/sintético; el método estadístico; el método científico y el método descriptivo. Los instrumentos utilizados fueron un pre y post examen y un pre y post cuestionario. Los resultados indicaron que la retroalimentación correctiva directa proporcionó un refuerzo positivo en el mejoramiento de las habilidades gramaticales de los estudiantes. El estudio concluyó que, el uso de la retroalimentación correctiva directa es una estrategia efectiva para que los estudiantes reconozcan y reduzcan sus errores gramaticales, logrando de esta manera una mejora satisfactoria en su competencia gramatical.

ABSTRACT

This research was focused on the development of the grammatical competence through the direct corrective feedback at La Dolorosa high school amongst 37 students for 8 weeks. The following methods were used to carry out this investigation: the analytic/synthetic method; the statistic method; the scientific method and the descriptive method. The instruments used were a pre-and post-test and a pre-and post-questionnaire. The results indicated that direct corrective feedback provided a positive support on the improvement of the students' grammatical skills. The study concluded that, using direct corrective feedback is an effective strategy for students to recognize and reduce their grammatical errors, achieving a satisfactory improvement in their grammatical competence.

c. INTRODUCTION

Improving students' writing accuracy is an essential factor in effective writing. Effectiveness of a piece of writing will be determined in part by its accuracy. This is the reason why grammar correction has received so much attention in the recent decades. Studies on grammar correction claim that using direct corrective feedback technique could significantly improve students' writing accuracy. The role of direct corrective feedback has a place in most theories of second language learning and language pedagogy. In both behaviorist and cognitive theories of L2 learning, direct corrective feedback is seen as contributing to language learning.

For that reason, the researcher considered important to focus on the main problem: How does the direct corrective feedback develop the grammatical competence. This theme was chosen because several previous studies suggested that improvements in grammar competence could at least in one respect be attributed to the type of feedback provided. The following specific objectives were determined: to research the theoretical and methodological references about the direct corrective feedback; to diagnose the issues that limit the development of the grammatical competence; to design an intervention plan based on the direct corrective feedback as corrective strategy in order to improve the grammatical competence; and to reflect upon the effectiveness that the direct corrective feedback as a corrective strategy had amongst students of nine year A at La Dolorosa high school.

The main methods that helped to carry out this research work were: the scientific method, which was used to obtain and analyze theoretical referents; the descriptive method, which was used to describe the current situation of the researched object; the analytic-synthetic method, was used to analyze and interpret the obtained results through the tests. It also helped to draw up the conclusions; the statistical method was used to make the quantitative statistical analysis of the data obtained from the pre-and post-test and the qualitative data from the pre-and post-questionnaires.

The present research includes the following parts: The Abstract, contains a summary of the most relevant aspects of the thesis; the Introduction, presents the main problem that motivated the researcher to do this work, the reasons, the specific objectives, the methodology and contents of the research work. The Literature Review consists of the main theoretical referents in relation to the two variables, followed by Materials and Methods which includes different techniques, methods, instruments that had been applied during the intervention. The Results section, presents the description of the information organized in tables and figures, each table and figure has its respective interpretation and analysis. The Discussion describes the results, considering the ones that are the most representative. Furthermore, it presents the Conclusions and Recommendations according to the objectives and results.

d. LITERATURE REVIEW

Grammatical Competence

All human has an innate capacity to acquire languages, some level grammar is required when learning vocabulary, word formation and meaning sentence formation because it focuses on the skills and knowledge necessary to be accurate. Furthermore, grammatical competence is defined as the ability to recognize and produce the distinctive grammatical structures of a language and to use them effectively in communication. (Chomsky 1965).

According to Canale & Swain (1980), grammatical competence is concerned with mastery of the linguistic code (verbal or non-verbal) which includes vocabulary knowledge as well as knowledge of morphological, syntactic, semantic, phonetic and orthographic rules. This competence enables the speaker to use knowledge and skills needed for understanding and expressing the literal meaning of utterances.

The CEF Council of Europe (2001), states that competence is defined as knowledge of, and ability to use, the grammatical resources of a language. Formally, the grammar of a language may be seen as the set of principles governing the assembly of elements into meaningful labeled and bracketed strings (sentences). Grammatical competence is the ability to understand and express meaning by producing and recognizing well-formed phrases and sentences in accordance with these principles (as opposed to memorizing and reproducing them as fixed formulae).

Grammatical competence focuses on command of the language code, including such things as the rules of word and sentence formation, meanings, spelling and pronunciation Gao (2001). Grammatical competence acts to promote accuracy and fluency in second language production and increases in importance as the learner advances in proficiency (Diaz, Rico & Weed 2010).

As Larsen-Freeman (2001) points out, we need to pay attention to the three dimensions of grammar: form, meaning and use. Simply teaching grammar rules or having student memorize verb conjugations will not help students acquire grammatical competence.

In addition to form, meaning and use Cotter (2009), comments that there is also another important and necessary aspect: the receptive and productive levels of students. They can recognize a word if they read or listen (receptive level), and at the same time, they cannot use actively the word in their own writing or speaking (productive level). Students can understand the meaning of a word, but not knowing how using it.

Grammatical competence is always focused on concept that includes expertise in grammar, for instance: vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, letters relationship, intonation, stress, meaning, spelling, and sentence formation, grammatical competence has been traditionally associated with language learning, to acquire knowledge and abilities, furthermore to use the form express correctly, and understand the structure of English accurately, which contributes to their fluency. (Canale & Swaim 1980)

Based on Canale & Swain definition on Grammatical Competence, the present study will explore four different indicators: vocabulary, sentence structure, parts of speech and subject-verb-agreement.

Vocabulary

Vocabulary can be defined as being “all the words that someone knows or uses”, “all the words in a particular language”, “the words that are typically used when talking about a particular subject” and “a list of words with explanations of their meanings, especially in a book for learning foreign languages” (The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English 2003)

However, Schmitt (2000), explains that the term word is not specific enough to cover the complexity of vocabulary and to capture different aspects of lexis. Single words, phrasal verbs and idioms can all carry the same meaning, for instance. A few examples that Schmitt uses are “die” (single word), “pass away” (phrasal verb) and “kick the bucket” (idiom). The meaning of these is to die, but different words and combinations of words are used in each case.

Sentence structure

Sentence structure, is a mechanical aspect of grammar, includes numerous elements, such as clauses, verbs, subjects, transitional words, nominals, and much more. By joining these elements into well-constructed sentences, the ideas will be more clear and coherent. (Lunsford & Lunsford 2008)

A sentence is a collection of words accumulated in such an order that they present a complete thought or idea. A sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a punctuation mark. The type of punctuation mark terminating the sentence

indicates the kind of sentence. A sentence contains a subject and a predicate (Kierzek & Gibson 1965)

Whereas sentence structure refers to the form of sentences in a language, sentence purpose refers to the function of sentences. Four types of sentence purposes exist in the English language: declarative sentences, interrogative sentences, imperative sentences, and exclamatory sentences. (Brinton 2010).

Parts of speech

Doughty (2001). explains that the part of speech in sentence elements work together to make up a sentence. Doughty mentions that parts of speech must work together accurately for a writer to take his or her proposed ideas. The basic parts of speech include: noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, and article.

Croft (2001), proposes that parts of speech (noun, adjective, and verb) can be explained as prototypes that emerge from the use of broad semantic classes of words -objects, properties, and actions- in basic propositional act functions of discourse - reference, modification, and predication.

Subject-Verb-Agreement

Eastwood (1994), states that subject-verb agreement means choosing the correct singular or plural verb after the subject. Without such mastery, they are likely to have many problems with basic sentence structure, with the formation of questions and negatives, and with the marking of tense and of number agreement.

According to Eastwood, there is an agreement in present tense. He adds that a third-person singular subject takes a verb in s or es. In verbal form the subject is followed by verb and do or does is used as auxiliary for all of subject in negative or

question sentence. Whereas nominal form the subject is followed by adjective, noun or adverb.

When writing and speaking in present tenses, the subjects and verbs in a sentence need to be in the same form, or, “agree” with each other, and that is called subject-verb agreement (SVA). Subjects and verbs have single and plural forms, and it is important not to mix them up. All sentences need a subject and a verb to be complete, but if they do not match, the sentence won’t make sense. (Azar Betty 2014)

Ways to Approach Grammar in the Second or Foreign Language Classroom

Radford (1998), says that grammar is the study of how words, phrases and sentences are formed. The grammar of a language is a description of how words, phrases and sentences are formed in the relevant language. Therefore, Patricia Murrow (2002), says that all languages have structure, strings of words have little or no meaning unless they are ordered in a way recognizable to the listener or reader.

Sesnan (2001), points out that English is perhaps the school subject with the largest number of different methodologies. And if we consider the teaching of grammar, it has evolved as new methodologies have appeared, with the appearance of the communicative approaches, the way to deal with grammar has changed even more.

Mendoza (2005), have conducted research studies to explore alternatives to develop grammar. This author studied the effects of implicit vs. explicit instruction

of grammar and concluded that learners taught in explicit instruction achieve better results than those taught in implicit instruction.

Hedge (2002), emphasizes that “the ability to communicate effectively in English is now a well-established goal in English Language Teaching. Considering this idea, one can ask whether the term effectively does not necessarily mean accurately or properly. In other words, it is not correct or logical to expect a person who is said to communicate effectively to do it accurately, using the appropriate vocabulary, pronunciation, tense form and word order among some other conditions to express his or her ideas. ¿Does grammar not play an active and elementary role in successful and effective communication? “In the discussion for and against grammatical instruction, there is a growing acknowledgment nowadays that grammar must be taught and this must be done in context”.

From applied linguistics’ point of view, cited by Richards (1992), grammar is a basic description of the structure of a language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language.

Pollock (1998), maintains that “the grammatical rules of a language do not tell us what to do. Rather, they tell us how to respond correctly within the structural system of the language”. The development of accuracy in grammar is a complex issue, so that becoming a proficient speaker or writer in a second language entails mastering elements of structure, form, as well as sentence organization.

The Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics (1992), defines accuracy as the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences. Therefore, the emphasis on accuracy deals with the production of structurally correct instances of second

language. On the other hand, inaccuracy is a sign of erroneousness and results in the production of structurally wrong sentences which violates the goals of any language curriculum.

Sesnan (2001), uses a metaphor to describe the negative effects of speaking a language without paying attention to its grammar. He claims that “if we see language as a “building” then the words are the “building blocks or bricks” and grammar will be “the architect’s plan”. It can be concluded that “if a person knows thousands of words in English but does not know how to organize them or what to do with them, then that person cannot speak English”.

Direct Explicit Grammar Instruction (DEGI)

Grammar can be taught deductively through direct instruction. Deductively refers to the form of explicit explanations of grammatical structures provided to learners orally or in writing Ellis (1997). It helps the teacher save time for the class, but a major disadvantage is that the repeated rule presentations of grammar structures may make students lose their sense of discovery, and that easily leads to the state of boredom. In this method, “students are supplied with a rule or part of a rule, which they then apply, complete or modify in a task that requires them to analyze information that illustrate its use” For example, students may be given a rule about the simple past tense with a number of sentences and instructed to use the rule to recognize which of the sentences are grammatical and which are ungrammatical. Learners are therefore quite dependent on the teacher’s explanations or provision of grammar rules. (Ellis 1997).

Indirect Explicit Grammar Instruction (IEGI)

While direct explicit grammar instruction refers to the use of deduction, indirect explicit grammar instruction favors induction or the learners' discovery of the grammatical rules through tasks and therefore does not involve giving grammatical explanations Ellis (2006). It implies a problem-solving approach in which "students are provided with information which illustrates the use of a specific grammatical structure which they analyze to arrive at some generalization that accounts for regularities in the data, for example, students may be given a reading passage containing some illustrations of the use of the simple present and the present continuous tenses and are required to identify the verbs in both tenses and then build a rule to explain their different functions (Ellis 1997).

Briefly, from the given input and tasks, learners have to construct the grammar rules for themselves. The tasks commonly used in this approach are indirect consciousness-raising tasks which aim: "to help learners construct their own explicit grammar of the target language and to encourage communication in the second language between learners" (Ellis 1997)

Feedback

Macdonald states that feedback is "the process of providing some commentary on student work in which a teacher reacts to the ideas in print, assesses a student's strengths and weaknesses, and suggests directions for improvement" (McDonald 1991).

McLaughlin & Kelley (2012), show that feedback is the reinforcement in which students' responses and teachers giving feedback occur closely at the same time.

That is teachers must provide feedback during students' responses, this will help them to correct their errors easily.

Feedback encompasses not only correcting students, but also offering them an assessment of how well they have done. The way we assess and correct students will depend not only upon the kind of mistakes being made, but also on the type of activity the students are taking part in (Harmer 2011).

Schmitt (2002), specifies that feedback seen to be a necessary part of grammar instruction. Feedback mechanism extends the range from direct correction by the teacher to recasts, in which the teacher reformulates correctly what the learner has just said erroneously, for giving the students the space to correct themselves. Moreover, Tomasello and Herron (1989), cited by Schmitt (2002), claim that in a total turnaround from the view that learner's errors are to be prevent, some applied linguistics have even suggested that students should be encouraged to make errors. Students might be given a rule without telling them it has an exception. It is assumed that when students do overgeneralize the rule and commit an error, the negative feedback they receive will be more successful in their acquiring the exceptions than if they were given a list of exceptions in advance.

Mohr (2010), notes that feedback should encourage students to reflect, think critically, state a clear argument, and improve communication skills. To be effective, quality feedback, in the form of valuable information, comments, and suggestions given to learners, must be provided on a regular basis as it is essential for learner growth.

Types of feedback

Types of feedback include: Corrective, summative, formative, formal, informal, intrinsic, extrinsic, internal, instructional, and appreciative. Feedback may involve activities and strategies such as: participation, interaction in discussion, reflection, collaboration, group, or individual work (Costello & Crane 2009).

Feedback can be positive or negative. Positive feedback affirms that a learner response to an activity is correct. It may signal the veracity of the content of a learner utterance or the linguistic correctness of the utterance. In pedagogical theory, positive feedback is viewed as important because it provides affective support to the learner and fosters motivation to continue learning. (Costello & Crane 2009).

Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback mainly comprises feedback on language form. It ranges from comments on the use of vocabulary items to corrections over grammatical mistakes and mechanical errors. It can be explicit or implicit in terms of identification and correction of errors. It can be coded or uncoded while it can be applied comprehensively or selectively. These will be discussed in forthcoming sections about their importance of promoting language accuracy among students' writings. (Chandler 2003)

Corrective feedback constitutes one type of negative feedback. It takes the form of a response to a learner utterance containing a linguistic error. The response is another initiated repair and can consist of an indication that an error has been committed, provision of the correct target language form, metalinguistic

information about the nature of the error, or any combination of these (Loewen & Erlam 2006).

Despite the fact that there has been research evidence on error correction in L2 writing classes which shows that students who receive error feedback from teachers improve in accuracy over time, some claim that error correction does not facilitate language learning and can be potentially harmful for students' writing ability. (Ferris & Roberts 2001)

Ferris & Roberts (2001), distinguish two modes of corrective feedback; direct and indirect. Direct (or explicit) feedback is when the exact correct form is provided for the learner by the teacher, and if revision is asked, the learner just has to transfer the correct form into the final draft.

Another form of direct feedback is "written meta-linguistic explanation the provision of grammar rules and examples at the end of a student's script with a reference back to places in the text where the error has occurred and/or oral meta-linguistic explanation" (Bitchener & Knoch 2008).

The direct and indirect corrective feedback are the most common methods used by the instructors to respond, comment and correct grammatical errors on students' written works. Direct corrective feedback is provided when the teacher writes the correct form on the student's paper, while indirect feedback is provided when the teacher indicates the location of the error on the paper by underlining, highlighting or circling it without providing the correct form (Lee 2008).

The term "corrective feedback" is used as an umbrella term to refer to both implicit and explicit negative feedback in natural and instructional settings. Russell

& Spada (2006), define corrective feedback as “any feedback provided to learners, from any source, that contains evidence of learner error of language form. It may be oral or written, implicit or explicit”.

Error correction was the commonly used term until Lyster & Ranta (1997), use the terms feedback on error or corrective feedback. Corrective feedback takes the form of responses to learner utterances that contain error. “The responses can consist of an indication that an error has perceptions and preferences of English Second Language students regarding the effectiveness of Corrective Feedback in been committed, provision of the correct target language form, or metalinguistic information about the nature of the error, or any combination of these”.

Teachers and researchers can learn a lot from learners’ errors by discovering the common learning difficulties and problems that most learners experience when discovering the new language as well as identifying the cognitive strategies or mechanisms employed when processing the new language data. Additionally, learners’ errors reveal how far they have progressed over the time and what remains to be learned. Therefore, the learners’ errors should not be seen as signs of failure or serious obstacles to be learning, because they actually constitute an important aspect of language learning. It should, on the contrary, be considered as a sign of achievement or progress in language learning and as part of language creativity as well. Given that learning takes time and that nobody learns a language without making mistakes, errors are then viewed as a developmental phenomenon and are consequently unavoidable in the discovery of a new language and as such they should be treated in a flexible and rational manner. (James 1998)

Brown (2000), claims that errors, “far from being bad, represent a natural, indispensable and even necessary phase of Second Language learning. He further adds that it needs to be remembered that L2 learning, like L1 learning, is a process of trial and error, because learners need to constantly make inferences and guesses about the functioning of the new language. Generally, Second Language acquisition constitutes a slow, gradual and often arduous process”.

Direct Feedback

Bitchener, Young & Cameron (2005), argue that direct feedback occurs when teachers identify errors and provide correct form. Direct corrective feedback has the advantage that it provides learners with explicit guidance about how to correct their errors.

Ferris & Roberts (2001), suggest that direct corrective feedback is probably better than indirect corrective feedback with students having low levels of proficiency in writing. A recent study by Sheen (2007), indicates that direct corrective feedback can be effective in promoting acquisition of specific grammatical features.

Learners can eventually notice their errors and create connections between form and meaning during the process of negotiation for meaning, thus improve language accuracy. In other words, corrective feedback has a reflective function which intrigues students to use L2 to ponder over the language produced by themselves (Swain 2007).

There are some types of errors that might prove that direct feedback is better than indirect feedback. For example, if student writes ‘I goed to the school’ instead

of 'I went to the school' and teacher has introduced only the formation of regular past tense verb rules in the class but he has not taught yet irregular past tense verbs. So, in such a situation it is better to provide the direct feedback with explanation of the unknown concept. (Lan Anh 2011).

For example, learners may consult a grammar book, the Internet or a teacher to inform themselves about specific grammatical or lexical rules. These responses, including learner-generated repairs, eventually become learner uptake and are likely to benefit the development of language accuracy. (Ellis 2007)

There are three arguments in favor of direct modes of feedback Chandler (2003), first, it has been stressed that direct feedback is more helpful to learners because of the reduction of misunderstanding and confusion. Second, learners are provided with more information for resolving the complex errors. And third, immediate feedback is provided to learners based on their hypotheses.

Research evidence on direct corrective feedback in L2 classes shows that students who receive direct corrective feedback on grammar in second language writing classes from teachers improve accuracy over time (Ferris & Roberts 2001). Moreover, Fungula (2013), claims "direct corrective feedback is one of the most powerful and effective influences on students' achievement as it can provide doing in class and where improvement is needed if they are not on the right track."

Indirect Feedback

According to Lee (2004), indirect correction refers to situations when the teacher marks that errors have been made but does not supply the correct forms,

requiring the learners to diagnose and correct their errors. The teacher indicates that an error exists but does not provide the correction.

Lalande (1982), argues that indirect feedback occurs when the teacher indicates in some way that an error exists but does not provide the correction, thus leaving it to the student to find it. Language acquisition theorists and ESL writing specialists alike argue that indirect feedback is preferable for most student writers, because it engages them in “guided learning and problem solving”

Indirect feedback is provided to indicate that there is an error, but it is not corrected, leaving the learner to discover and to solve it. Generally, the different forms of providing indirect feedback might be: underlining errors and specifying what type they are and noting the number of errors in the margins of each line (Bitchener & Knoch 2008).

Guénette (2007), states that indirect feedback mentions the teacher’s indication of errors by underlining, highlighting or coding them and then letting learners do the indirect corrective feedback indicates that in some way an error has been made. This may be provided in one of four ways: underlining or circling the error; recording in the margin the number of errors in each line; or using a code to show where the error has occurred and what type of error it is rather than the teacher providing an explicit correction, students are left to resolve and correct the problem that has been drawn to their attention corrections.

Effect of direct vs indirect feedback

Direct feedback involves providing students with the correct form immediately, this can be done by either crossing the wrong or unnecessary word out, inserting a

missing word or writing the right form above or close to the wrong form. The bright side of this type of feedback, according to Ellis (2009), is that it provides the learner with explicit information and guidance about how to correct errors. If learners are unable to self-correct their own errors, this is the best technique to apply.

Ferris & Roberts (2001), argue that research evidence on error correction in L2 writing classes showed that students who receive error feedback from teachers improve in accuracy over time. Moreover, that research evidence proves that students are eager to receive error feedback and they recognize that it helps them improve their writing skill in the target language.

Ferris & Roberts (2001), suggest using direct feedback instead of indirect one with learners of low levels of proficiency, who usually do not know how to correct the erroneous forms.

Some studies conclude that direct corrective feedback is superior to indirect corrective feedback over time. Chandler (2003), for example; in a study with intermediate ESL college students, reported significant gains in writing accuracy for the students who received direct corrective feedback over those who received one of three forms of indirect corrective feedback (underlining with and without codes) after 10 weeks of treatment on five essays. Students preferred direct correction because it was the fastest and easiest way for them.

Two studies which also measured the effects of feedback for revision of texts were carried out by Chandler (2003). These studies involved 31 ESL students in the first and 36 students in the second. These studies showed that direct feedback was the more effective feedback form.

Lyster (2013), argues that teachers should know when and how to correct errors and, above all, should consider learners' sensitiveness and personality. Despite the fact that most learners find corrective feedback highly helpful and, thus, need and wish to be corrected regularly in class. Many students also find corrections embarrassing to varying degrees; what language teachers should actually avoid is to make learners feel embarrassed or frustrated when being corrected in class-fronted situations. Most importantly, the teacher should be positive and kind.

Jokar & Soyooof (2013), state direct corrective feedback to be the most effective in grammar learning, since the individual learner's understanding plays an important role, a teacher only giving learners direct corrective feedback cannot expect the learners' proficiency level to increase without the learners' having understood the feedback given, how well the students understand grammar instructions may be an important factor in the student's accuracy level.

Van Beuningen (2008), carried out an experimental study investigating the long-term effects of direct and indirect feedback on second language learners (SL) of Dutch. Three classes with a total of 62 students were divided into four groups. The results of this study show that student's accuracy in writing can be effectively improved by corrective feedback. The study showed short-term effects for both the direct and indirect feedback groups.

Havranek (2002), finds that direct corrective feedback is not expected to affect the learners' motivation or willingness to perfect language skills. He suggests that students are not as strongly affected as teachers expect, and that even when they are

caused a measure of embarrassment, they appreciate correction and believe in its importance in the L2 learning process.

Ellis (2009), argues that although feedback on error can be provided in a wide variety of ways, the fact that learners also perceive and respond to corrective feedback in different way, teachers need to adapt and adjust flexibly a wide variety of corrective feedback techniques to the particular learner's cognitive and affective needs. As it is evident, it does not necessarily mean that teachers can correct all students in the same way. In fact, direct corrective feedback on errors should be individualized, even though this evidently involves an enormous challenge for teachers.

Catering for individual differences and addressing learner diversity

Many researches have shown that different students respond differently to feedback strategies. The best example for illustration is the Colombian research on four students who differ from the majority and made more mistakes after receiving corrective feedback for a month. Some take more time to adapt to the system and some resist the system because of individual learning factors, for instance motivation and special learning needs. Therefore, it is suggested that teachers should deepen the understanding of their students learning style, respect each individual uniqueness and select the appropriate strategy to adopt, thus catering for learning diversity. (Ferris & Roberts 2001)

e. MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

In this research, the employed resources were: the human, the material and the technical resources. The human resources were the students of ninth year A at La Dolorosa high school who were the fundamental component to carry out the study. The material resources; such as worksheets, the student's book and workbook helped students to perform specific task to improve the process of the development of grammar skills. The teacher's book served as a guide to practice revision of grammar. Electronic materials like laptop, printer, projector and internet connection, pen drives were used to develop the lesson plans, without the aid of these resources the research would not have been done successfully. In order to carry out the lessons the researcher used Audio CDs, CD player and charts to get from students a better understanding.

Design of the Research

Action research allowed the researcher became a participant to study aspects in the problematic situation, analyze and reflect on the results that were derived from the application of direct corrective feedback learning strategy to improve the grammatical competence in the English Foreign Language amongst ninth-grade students at La Dolorosa high school.

Action Research assisted the researcher to conduct this study and find immediate solution to the issue of grammatical competence in which the students showed some

problems due to the lack of implementation of a corrective strategy such as the use of direct corrective feedback.

Methods, techniques and instruments

Methods

In this research work the researcher used different methods which helped to carry out this investigation. The following general methods were applied along the descriptive research:

The analytic/ synthetic method helped the researcher to analyze all the information found through of the observation checklist, questionnaires and the pre and post-test and then to make the interpretation and logical analysis of the data and to draw up the conclusions.

The statistic method through which the researcher collected and analyzed all the answers which were represented in graphs. It was used to make the quantitative and qualitative statistical analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaires and tests.

The Scientific method facilitated the study of the direct corrective feedback learning strategy to improve the basic grammatical skills in English. It helped the researcher to develop the phases in the observation before and during the intervention. This method was also assisted during the prediction of the possible solution; it was assisted with gathering data to make relevant predictions and the analysis of it.

The Descriptive method was useful to describe the different stages of the study and the kind of resources used by the researcher. It served to explain and analyze the objectives of the investigation.

Techniques and instruments

Data collection

Since this work is an action research, elements of both quantitative and qualitative research were selected for data collection. Quantitative research considered variables and statistics whereas qualitative research considered an understanding of words and action. Qualitative and quantitative instruments were self-developed by the researcher considering the principles of question construction. The researcher gathered the necessary information from paper and pencil methods (tests) which were quantitative and qualitative data instruments came from questionnaires and observations sheets.

Tests: The test allowed students to perform cognitive tasks in relation to the basic grammatical skills. Therefore, tests yielded a numerical score by which the researcher calculated the mean to compare the pre-and post-test result.

Pre-test and Post-test were given at the beginning and at the end of the intervention plan; at the beginning it was given to measure the performance grammatical skills that students had; and, at the end to measure the performance of the grammatical skills achieved by the students after the intervention plan designed in this research work with the activities applied with the direct corrective feedback learning strategy in order to make a pre-test and post-test comparison of the cognitive dimension of the performance of grammatical skills of the participants being treated.

Questionnaires were given to the participants to answer questions related to their attitudes and feelings toward the direct corrective feedback learning strategy. A pre

and posttest questionnaire was given to make a comparison between the results. Furthermore, the data collected by the questionnaires supported the test results.

Observation let the researcher to know the facts in a participative and non-participative way. The observation was developed through an observation sheet and a field note sheet. It occurred in a natural environment as lived by the students at during their English classes. There were two types of observation as detailed below.

Observation sheet. During the nonparticipant observation, the researcher needed an observation sheet to record the participants' behaviors shown on the performance of the grammatical competence. This observation sheet was a self-developed instrument that described accurately and comprehensively the indicators all the relevant aspects of the dependent variable.

Participant observation. In the participant observation, the researcher became a part and a participant in the situation being observed. The researcher participated deliberately in the problematic situation by means of the direct corrective feedback learning strategy in order to improve the basic grammatical skills amongst the ninth-grade students. The instrument of this participant observation was the field note sheet.

Field notes. The researcher recorded a description of the events, activities, and people (e.g., what happened). The researcher recorded the participants' behaviors, attitudes and feelings toward the treatment to improve the grammatical competence (the issue), that was the direct corrective feedback learning strategy.

Participants

The participants of this research work were the ninth-year students at “La Dolorosa” high school, they were thirty-seven students who were about thirteen to fourteen years old; all of them boys.

f. RESULTS

This section discloses how the specific objectives of this research were achieved, throughout the results gotten from the application of the pre-post tests and pre-post questionnaires.

The first objective was accomplished with the Literature Review on the two variables grammatical competence and direct corrective feedback, which facilitated the elaboration of the data collection instruments, lesson plans and the analysis of the results obtained.

The second objective was fulfilled with the pre-test results that are showed below in table and figure 1, this information permitted to diagnose students' limitations in English grammar.

The third objective was achieved with the design of the intervention plan that was applied in two months, it contained twenty-four lessons, focused on grammar and feedback as a corrective strategy in order to improve students' grammar skills.

The fourth objective was demonstrated with the results gathered from questionnaires presented below in tables and graphs from 2 to 8, the questions were directly addressed to the principles of direct corrective feedback.

The fifth objective was verified with the post- test findings that are showed below in table and figure 8, to evaluate the effectiveness of direct corrective feedback on grammar learning.

Pre- test results

Objective two.

To diagnose the issues that limit the development of the grammatical competence amongst ninth-year A students at La Dolorosa high school during the 2016 – 2017 school year.

a. Table 1

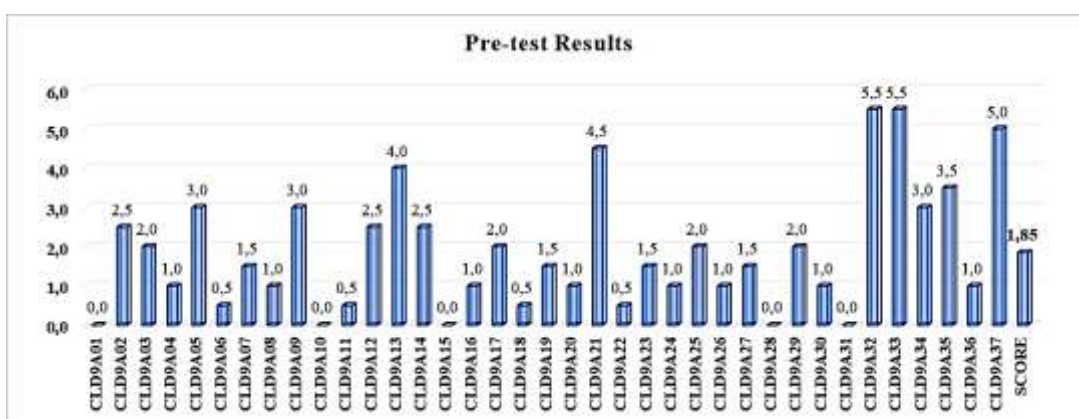
Pre-test Results

Student code	D (2)	Wh (2)	Y/N (2)	S (2)	P (2)	Score
CLD9A01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
CLD9A02	0.00	0.50	1.25	0.25	0.50	2.50
CLD9A03	0.00	0.50	1.50	0.00	0.00	2.00
CLD9A04	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
CLD9A05	0.00	1.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	3.00
CLD9A06	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.50
CLD9A07	0.00	0.50	0.50	0.00	0.50	1.50
CLD9A08	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
CLD9A09	0.00	1.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	3.00
CLD9A10	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
CLD9A11	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.50
CLD9A12	0.00	1.50	1.00	0.00	0.00	2.50
CLD9A13	0.50	1.00	1.00	0.00	1.50	4.00
CLD9A14	0.00	0.50	2.00	0.00	0.00	2.50
CLD9A15	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
CLD9A16	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
CLD9A17	0.00	0.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	2.00
CLD9A18	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.50
CLD9A19	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.50
CLD9A20	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
CLD9A21	0.50	1.00	2.00	0.00	1.00	4.50
CLD9A22	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.50
CLD9A23	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.00	1.00	1.50
CLD9A24	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.50	1.00
CLD9A25	0.00	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	2.00
CLD9A26	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
CLD9A27	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.00	1.00	1.50
CLD9A28	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
CLD9A29	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.00	0.50	2.00
CLD9A30	0.00	0.50	0.50	0.00	0.00	1.00

CLD9A31	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
CLD9A32	0.00	2.00	2.00	0.50	1.00	5.50
CLD9A33	1.00	1.00	2.00	0.50	1.00	5.50
CLD9A34	0.00	0.50	2.00	0.00	0.50	3.00
CLD9A35	0.00	1.00	2.00	0.00	0.50	3.50
CLD9A36	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.50	1.00
CLD9A37	0.50	1.00	1.50	0.00	2.00	5.00
SCORE	0.08	0.46	0.91	0.03	0.36	1.85

Note. CLD: Colegio La Dolorosa; 9A= ninth year parallel A; 01= students' code; D= Declarative sentences; Wh= Information questions; Y/N= Yes/No questions; S= Subject-Verb-Agreement; P= Parts of speech.

b. Figure 1



c. Interpretation and Analysis

A pre-test was conducted to create a starting point of the prior knowledge of grammar skills. The mean score 1.85/10 showed grades below the average level 7/10. It indicates a real poor level in all aspects of grammar, students could not answer simple grammatical exercises based on their previous knowledge. The highest mean score 0.91/2 was for the question about yes/no questions and the lowest mean score 0.03/2 was for the parameter subject – verb agreement. It is clear all students faced serious limitations using declarative sentences, wh-questions, yes/no questions, subject-verb-agreement and parts of speech. Students made a lot of mistakes, showing that their vocabulary knowledge was really limited that is,

they did not know expressions to indicate daily routines. Moreover, students showed they did not know how to complete a basic dialogue or answer yes/no questions. The findings clearly demonstrated the lack of grammatical competence on the students. This was the problem which motivated the researcher to conduct this action research, and to design and execute an intervention plan to improve their grammatical competence.

Canale & Swain (1980), mention that grammatical competence is always focused on concept that includes expertise in grammar, for instance: vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, letters relationship, intonation, stress, meaning, spelling, and sentence formation. Furthermore, according to Chomsky (1965), all human has an innate capacity to acquire languages, some level grammar is required when learning vocabulary, word formation and meaning sentence formation because it focuses on the skills and knowledge necessary to be accurate.

Comparison of the Pre and Post Questionnaire Results

Objective Four.

To apply the most suitable techniques of the direct corrective feedback as a corrective strategy in order to improve the grammatical competence amongst ninth-year A students at La Dolorosa high school during the 2016 – 2017 school year.

Statement 1.

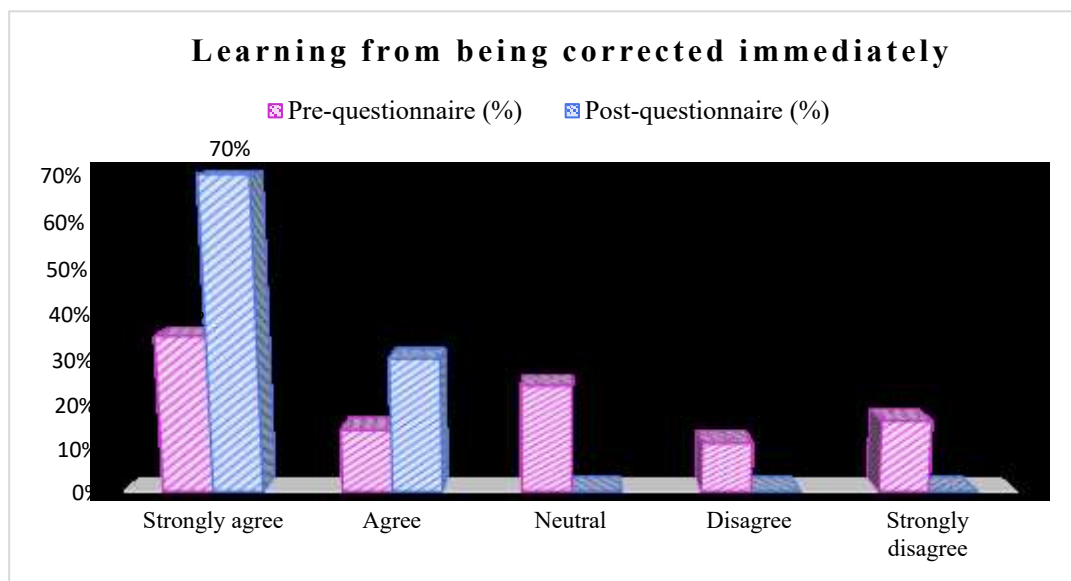
I feel I have learnt a lot from being corrected immediately.

a. Table 2

Learning from being corrected immediately.

	Pre-questionnaire		Post-questionnaire	
	f	%	f	%
Strongly agree	13	35	26	70
Agree	5	14	11	30
Neutral	9	24	0	0
Disagree	4	11	0	0
Strongly disagree	6	16	0	0
TOTAL	37	100	37	100

b. Figure 2



c. Interpretation and Analysis

As displayed in table 2 and illustrated in figure 2, before the intervention plan most students (35%) answered they felt strongly agree of being corrected immediately, which means students recognized they were learning from being

corrected by their teacher. These results changed substantially after the intervention plan, almost all learners (70%) known the need and usefulness of being corrected immediately, these findings are greatly superior to the first ones, the results confirmed that using direct corrective feedback immediately when learners made mistakes, helped them to develop their grammatical competence.

Jokar & Soyooof (2013), state direct corrective feedback to be the most effective in grammar learning, since the individual learner's understanding plays an important role, a teacher only giving learners direct corrective feedback cannot expect the learners' proficiency level to increase without the learners' having understood the feedback given, how well the students understand grammar instructions may be an important factor in the student's accuracy level.

Statement 2.

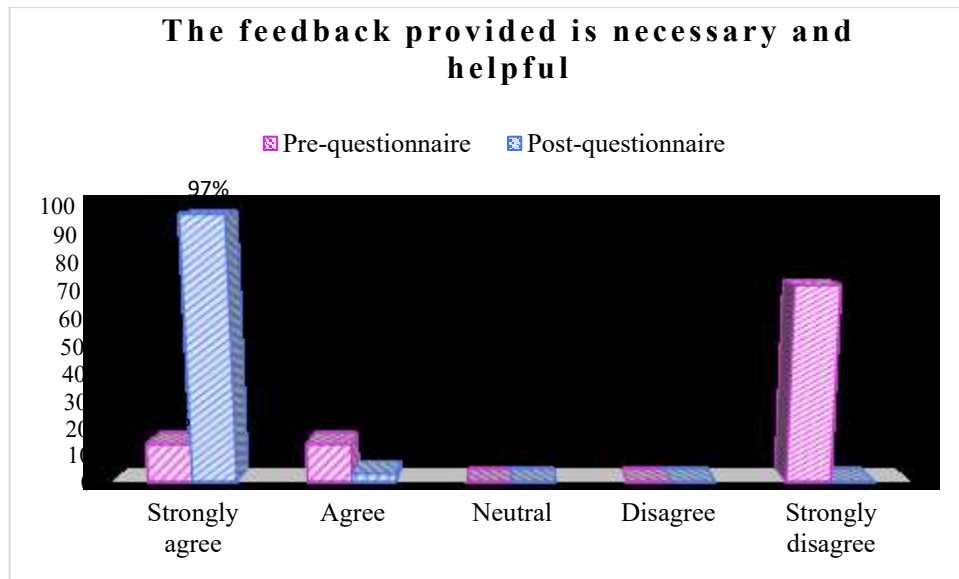
I think that the feedback provided is necessary and helpful.

a. Table 3

The feedback provided is necessary and helpful

	Pre-questionnaire		Post- questionnaire	
	f	%	f	%
Strongly agree	5	14	36	97
Agree	5	14	1	3
Neutral	0	0	0	0
Disagree	0	0	0	0
Strongly disagree	27	72	0	0
TOTAL	37	100	37	100

b. Figure 3



c. Interpretation and Analysis

As can be seen in table 3, results obtained before the intervention plan, a vast majority of students (72%) assumed that the direct corrective feedback was not necessary and helpful in their English classes. It shows students felt the feedback provided did not help them to improve their learning. On the other hand, after the intervention plan, there was a noticeable increment, almost all students (97%) indicated the feedback provided was necessary and helpful, whereas, nobody manifested felt disagree to this statement. It was demonstrated the recognition of the direct corrective feedback as a helpful and necessary corrective strategy.

Ferris & Roberts (2001), argue that research evidence on error correction in L2 writing classes showed that students who receive error feedback from teachers improve in accuracy over time. Moreover, that research evidence proves that

students are eager to receive error feedback and they recognize that it helps them improve their writing skill in the target language.

Statement 3.

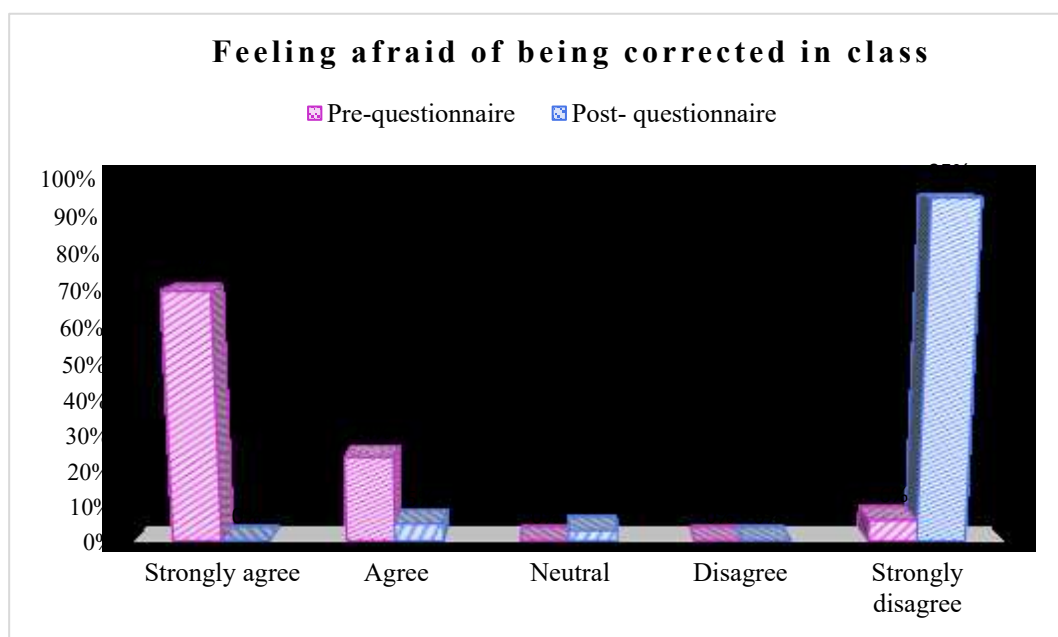
I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake that I make in class.

a. Table 4

Feeling afraid of being corrected in class

	Pre- questionnaire		Post-questionnaire	
	f	%	f	%
Strongly agree	26	70	0	0
Agree	9	24	2	5
Neutral	0	0	0	3
Disagree	0	0	0	0
Strongly disagree	2	6	35	95
TOTAL	37	100	37	100

b. Figure 4



c. Interpretation and Analysis.

As shown in table 4, before the intervention plan, results reported that the majority of students (70%) answered they strongly agree, which determined a very high level of students who were afraid of being corrected in class. It indicates students lack confidence on their teacher and they felt embarrassed when they made a mistake. However, after the intervention plan, the results changed exceptionally, nobody felt afraid of being corrected in class, which means, students showed acceptance to be corrected in class. Findings reveal a considerable positive variation that is, almost all respondents (95%) considered they did not feel afraid of being corrected immediately. Therefore, it can be seen that the results after the intervention plan have been significantly positive. Hence, students displayed learning better when they were corrected in class at the same moment they made the mistake.

Havranek (2002), finds that direct corrective feedback is not expected to affect the learners' motivation or willingness to perfect language skills. He suggests that students are not as strongly affected as teachers expect, and that even when they are caused a measure of embarrassment, they appreciate correction and believe in its importance in the L2 learning process.

Question 4

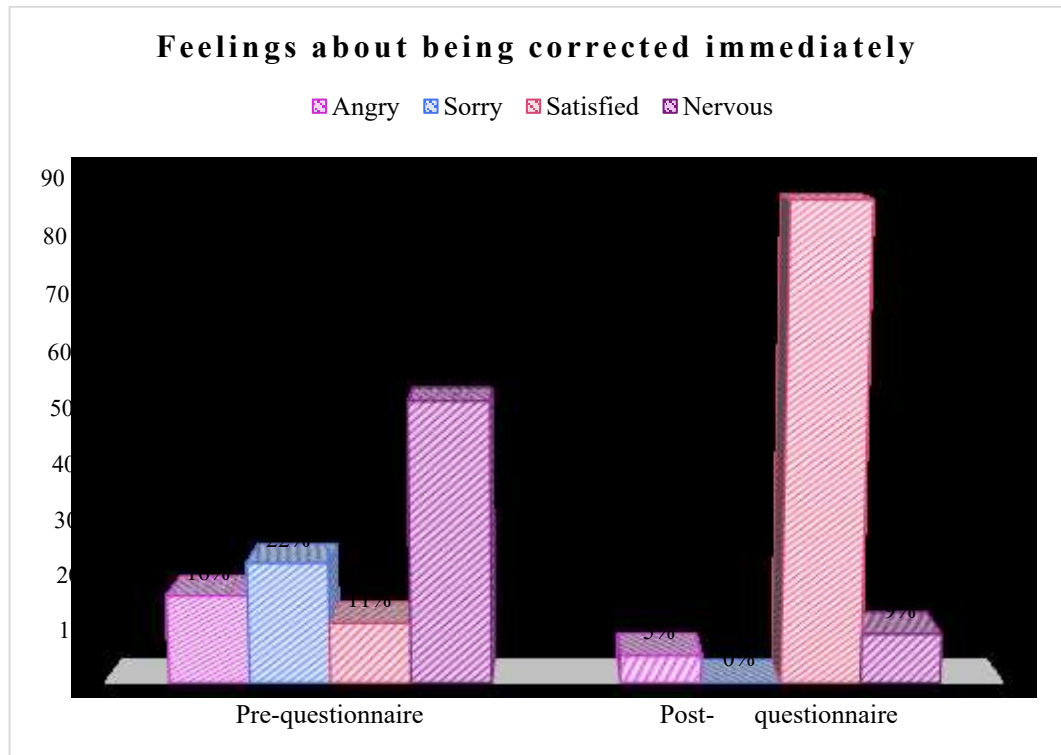
How do you feel when the teacher immediately corrects your mistake?

a. Table 5

Feelings about being corrected immediately

	Pre - questionnaire		Post - questionnaire	
	f	%	f	%
Angry	6	16	2	5
Sorry	8	22	0	0
Satisfied	4	11	32	86
Nervous	19	51	3	9
TOTAL	37	100	37	100

b. Figure 5



c. Interpretation and Analysis

As showed in table and figure 5, with respect to the emotional responses derived of being corrected immediately by their teachers, it can be seen that before the intervention plan most students (51%) answered they felt nervous about their teacher's immediate correction. It shows the provided feedback was not causing a positive impact on the students learning. These results changed meaningfully at the end of the intervention plan, the findings showed that a vast majority of students (86%) were satisfied of being corrected immediately by their teacher. This result shows that applying an effective feedback helps the students to gain self-confidence and improve their learning process. Consequently, the gotten data showed the strategy applied was well accepted by the students.

Lyster (2013), argues that teachers should know when and how to correct errors and, above all, should consider learners' sensitiveness and personality. Despite the fact that most learners find corrective feedback highly helpful and, thus, need and wish to be corrected regularly in class. Many students also find corrections embarrassing to varying degrees; what language teachers should actually avoid is to make learners feel embarrassed or frustrated when being corrected in class-fronted situations. Most importantly, the teacher should be positive and kind.

Question 5:

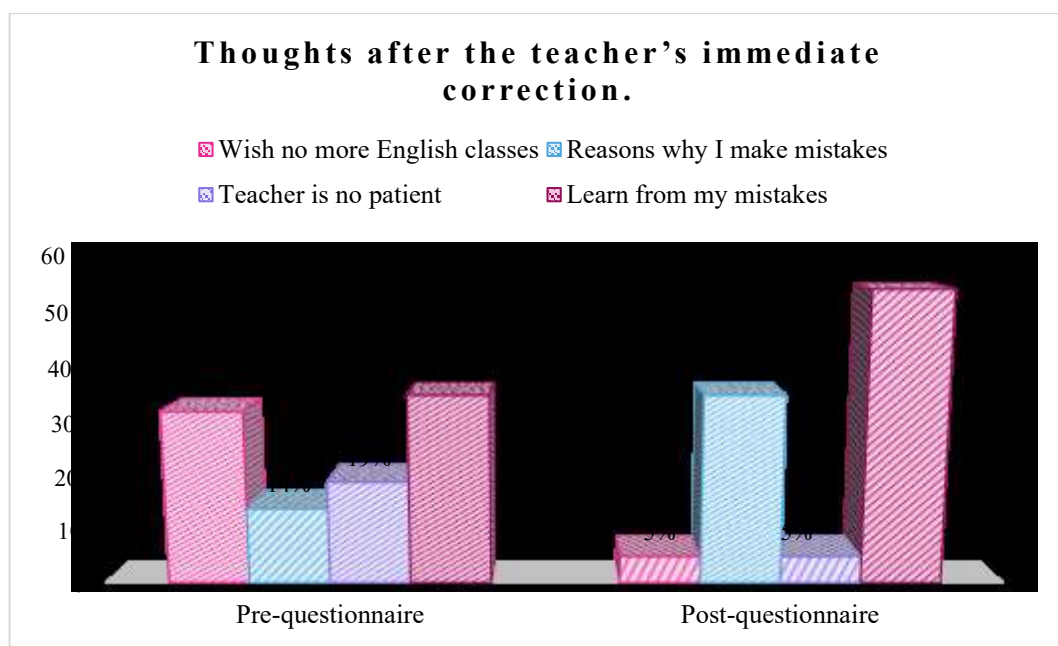
What do you think and what do you do after the teacher’s immediate correction?

a. Table 6

Thoughts after the teacher’s immediate correction

	Pre-questionnaire		Post-questionnaire	
	f	%	f	%
Wish no more English classes	12	32	2	5
Reasons why I make mistakes	5	14	13	35
Teacher is no patient	7	19	2	5
Learn from my mistakes	13	35	20	55
TOTAL	37	100	37	100

b. Figure 6



c. Interpretation and Analysis

Table 6 illustrated the responses to the question of what learners thought after the teachers’ immediate correction, several options were also assessed. As we can

see most students (35%) indicated they learnt from their mistakes. It was evidenced that when the teacher corrected the mistakes, students realized they improve their learning. Nevertheless, after the intervention plan, the majority of participants (55%) answered they learnt from their mistakes. This data indicated that almost all students were more willing to work learning from their mistakes; besides, the reasons why they made their mistakes, it was demonstrated that direct corrective feedback as a corrective learning strategy had supported meaningfully to the students, they recognized the teacher's immediate correction reinforced their learning to avoid making errors.

Ellis (2009), argues that although feedback on error can be provided in a wide variety of ways, the fact that learners also perceive and respond to corrective feedback in different way, teachers need to adapt and adjust flexibly a wide variety of corrective feedback techniques to the particular learner's cognitive and affective needs. As it is evident, it does not necessarily mean that teachers can correct all students in the same way. In fact, direct corrective feedback on errors should be individualized, even though this evidently involves an enormous challenge for teachers.

Objective Five.

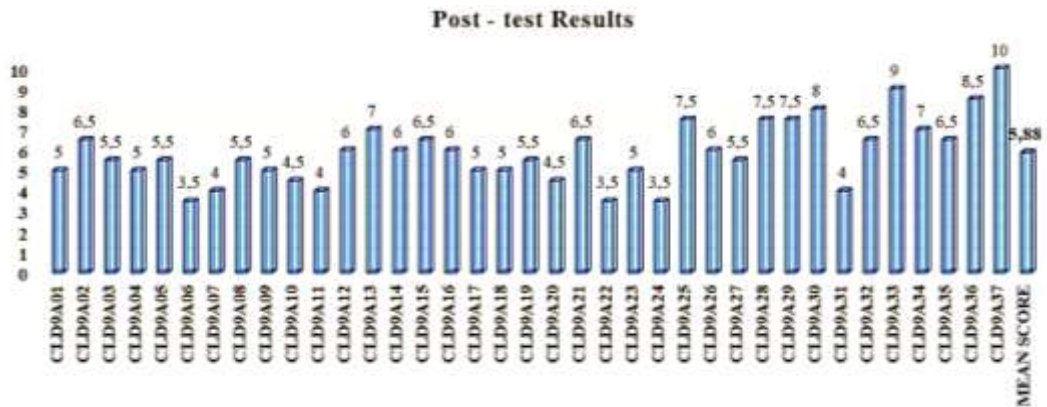
To validate the results obtained after the application of direct corrective feedback interaction to develop grammatical competence with the ninth-year A students at La Dolorosa high school during the 2016 – 2017 school year.

Table 7**Post - test Results**

Students code	D (2)	Wh (2)	Y/N (2)	S (2)	P (2)	Score
CLD9A01	1.00	1.00	1.50	1.00	0.50	5.00
CLD9A02	1.00	1.50	2.00	1.00	1.00	6.50
CLD9A03	0.50	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	5.50
CLD9A04	1.00	0.50	1.00	1.00	1.50	5.00
CLD9A05	1.00	1.50	2.00	0.50	0.50	5.50
CLD9A06	1.00	0.50	1.00	0.50	0.50	3.50
CLD9A07	0.50	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.50	4.00
CLD9A08	1.00	0.50	2.00	1.00	1.00	5.50
CLD9A09	0.50	1.00	2.00	1.00	0.50	5.00
CLD9A10	0.50	1.50	1.00	0.50	1.00	4.50
CLD9A11	0.00	0.50	2.00	1.00	0.50	4.00
CLD9A12	2.00	1.00	2.00	1.00	0.00	6.00
CLD9A13	0.50	2.00	2.00	1.00	1.50	7.00
CLD9A14	1.00	0.50	2.00	1.00	1.50	6.00
CLD9A15	1.00	1.50	2.00	1.00	1.00	6.50
CLD9A16	1.00	1.00	2.00	1.50	0.50	6.00
CLD9A17	0.50	0.50	2.00	1.00	1.00	5.00
CLD9A18	1.00	0.50	2.00	1.00	0.50	5.00
CLD9A19	0.50	1.50	2.00	0.50	1.00	5.50
CLD9A20	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.50	4.50
CLD9A21	1.50	1.00	2.00	1.00	1.00	6.50
CLD9A22	0.50	0.50	2.00	0.00	0.50	3.50
CLD9A23	1.50	1.00	0.50	1.00	1.00	5.00
CLD9A24	1.00	0.50	0.50	1.00	0.50	3.50
CLD9A25	1.50	1.00	2.00	2.00	1.00	7.50
CLD9A26	2.00	0.50	1.00	1.00	1.50	6.00
CLD9A27	1.00	1.00	0.50	2.00	1.00	5.50
CLD9A28	1.50	1.50	1.00	1.50	2.00	7.50
CLD9A29	1.50	1.00	1.50	2.00	1.50	7.50
CLD9A30	2.00	1.50	1.50	1.00	2.00	8.00
CLD9A31	0.50	1.00	1.50	0.50	0.50	4.00
CLD9A32	1.00	2.00	2.00	0.50	1.00	6.50
CLD9A33	1.50	2.00	2.00	1.50	2.00	9.00
CLD9A34	1.00	1.50	2.00	2.00	0.50	7.00
CLD9A35	2.00	1.00	2.00	1.00	0.50	6.50
CLD9A36	2.00	2.00	1.50	1.50	1.50	8.50
CLD9A37	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	10.00
MEAN	1.09	1.14	1.59	1.08	0.97	5.88
SCORE						

Note. CLD: Colegio La Dolorosa; 9A= ninth year parallel A; 01= students' code; D= Declarative sentences; Wh= Information questions; Y/N= Yes/No questions; S= Subject-Verb-Agreement; P= Parts of speech.

a. Figure 7



b. Interpretation and Analysis

After the intervention plan, a post-test was given in order to observe the effects of direct corrective feedback strategy on their grammar skills. As exhibited in table and figure 7, the total mean score was 5.88 out of 10. Students improved in all aspects of grammar, the highest advance was in Yes/No questions whose mean score was (1.59/2), it indicates that learners understood how write simple questions correctly. In Wh-questions, they got the score of (1.14/2), which was considered a satisfactory result. In Declarative statements the mean score was (1.09/2) it shows students improved on how to write affirmative and negatives statements. In Subject-Verb-Agreement the mean score was (1.08/2), it demonstrates that students know to write in accordance to the subject with its corresponding verb. On the other hand, the lowest mean score was in Parts of speech at 0.97/2, because mainly they were still not able to recognize adjectives, adverbs, nouns and verbs. These results demonstrated that students increased their grammatical skills. Based on the findings of the post-test, results revealed an important progress in all aspects as learners accomplished the given tasks. Bearing this in mind, learners improved considerably

their grammar skills, it was demonstrated that the direct corrective strategy applied throughout two months helped the learners to develop their grammatical knowledge focused on using wh-questions, yes/no questions, declarative statements, subject-verb-agreement, as well as trying to write new key words in context as in the case of the parts of speech. Although, the mean score was below the expected level 7/10, these results shown that students were able to accomplish their tasks with an acceptable level on grammatical competence. Therefore, it was demonstrated the success of using direct corrective feedback as a corrective strategy to teach grammar, these findings revealed an important positive improvement of the students' grammatical skills taking into account their prior knowledge and the low mean score gotten (1.85/10) before the intervention plan.

Bitchener (2008), suggests that many of those scholars, without exclusivity, believe that direct corrective feedback is and will be valuable in developing students' writing proficiency. The primary argument supporting this claim is that direct corrective feedback can and should promote the development of the most studied area, including fluency and grammatical accuracy in writing in a second language; it also applies to foreign language learning.

Comparison of the Test Results.

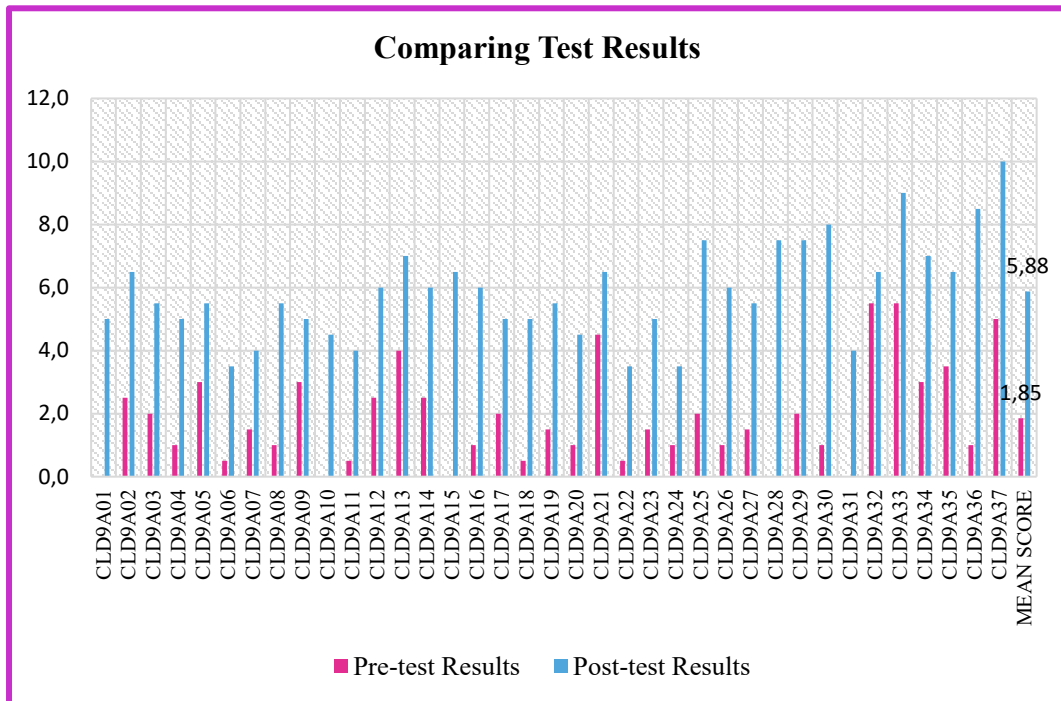
a. Table 8

Comparing Test Results

Student code	Pre-test Results	Post-test Results
CLD9A01	0.00	5.00
CLD9A02	2.50	6.50
CLD9A03	2.00	5.50

CLD9A04	1.00	5.00
CLD9A05	3.00	5.50
CLD9A06	0.50	3.50
CLD9A07	1.50	4.00
CLD9A08	1.00	5.50
CLD9A09	3.00	5.00
CLD9A10	0.00	4.50
CLD9A11	0.50	4.00
CLD9A12	2.50	6.00
CLD9A13	4.00	7.00
CLD9A14	2.50	6.00
CLD9A15	0.00	6.50
CLD9A16	1.00	6.00
CLD9A17	2.00	5.00
CLD9A18	0.50	5.00
CLD9A19	1.50	5.50
CLD9A20	1.00	4.50
CLD9A21	4.50	6.50
CLD9A22	0.50	3.50
CLD9A23	1.50	5.00
CLD9A24	1.00	3.50
CLD9A25	2.00	7.50
CLD9A26	1.00	6.00
CLD9A27	1.50	5.50
CLD9A28	0.00	7.50
CLD9A29	2.00	7.50
CLD9A30	1.00	8.00
CLD9A31	0.00	4.00
CLD9A32	5.50	6.50
CLD9A33	5.50	9.00
CLD9A34	3.00	7.00
CLD9A35	3.50	6.50
CLD9A36	1.00	8.50
CLD9A37	5.00	10.00
MEAN SCORE	1.85	5.88

b. Figure 8



c. Interpretation and Analysis

The table and figure 8 displayed the contrast between the pre-and post-tests. The results have shown a considerable difference in comparison with the pre-test. It is evident that the treatment of direct corrective feedback strategy improved the knowledge on grammar of the students in a significant positive way. As a result, the post-test displayed a real substantial progress of the whole group. In Declarative sentences the mean score changed from (0.08/2) to (1.09/2); in Yes/No-question from (0.91/2) to (1.59/2); in Wh-questions from (0.46/2) to (1.14/2); in Subject-Verb- Agreement from (0.03/2) to (1.08/2) and in Parts of speech from (0.36/2) to (0.97/2). Consequently, the total mean score changed meaningfully from (1.85/10) to (5.88/10). Findings showed a clear success taking into account the difference between the pre and post– tests mean scores. Therefore, it was demonstrated an

important students' improvement in their grammatical competence, attributed to the implementation of direct corrective feedback as a corrective strategy, these results without doubt represent a meaningful increase on students' grammatical competence.

Research evidence on direct corrective feedback in L2 classes shows that students who receive direct corrective feedback on grammar in second language writing classes from teachers improve accuracy over time (Ferris & Roberts 2001). Moreover; Fungula (2013), claims "direct corrective feedback is one of the most powerful and effective influences on students' achievement as it can provide guidance and assurance to the students along with an explanation of how they are doing in class and where improvement is needed if they are not on the right track."

g. DISCUSSION

This investigation was carried out with ninth year A students at La Dolorosa high school during the academic period 2016-2017. The findings revealed the use of direct corrective feedback as a corrective learning strategy was a suitable strategy to develop meaningfully their grammatical skills.

The gotten data was statistically important for the researcher. The results of the pre-test, demonstrated that students had serious limitations in their grammatical competence. Whereas, the findings of the post-test, after the intervention plan showed that grammatical competence in students was significantly improved. To illustrate, the pre-test mean score was 1.85/10; on the contrary, the posttest mean score was 5.88/10. Consequently, after the intervention plan the mean score was greatly superior to the first result; which means, students were able to use appropriately basic grammatical structures. It was proved, when teachers apply the direct corrective feedback strategy in daily lessons there will be a substantial improvement in students' grammatical competence.

Additionally, this action research was based on a pre and post questionnaire with five questions related to direct corrective feedback strategy; findings based on the total data, showed a vast majority of students agreed when their teacher gave them direct corrective feedback. They did not feel embarrassed, annoyed, or confused. Furthermore, almost all students agreed when their teacher gave direct corrective feedback immediately after the mistake was made. It means most of students showed positive attitude toward direct corrective feedback which was given by the

teacher. It showed that the students wanted to know all the mistakes they made. So that, they could learn from the error they have made. It has the similar result as a study made by Catchart & Olsen (1976), which also found that students want their mistakes being corrected.

At the beginning of the intervention plan the results gotten from the pre questionnaire were between 35% and 50% of students acceptance to the direct corrective feedback as a useful strategy for being corrected at the same moment they made the mistake, whereas; in the post questionnaire the results changed meaningfully to 95% of students recognition of direct corrective feedback as a helpful strategy used to correct immediately a mistake after it was made, these results showed a highly positive influence of direct corrective feedback in ninth grade students.

Starting the intervention plan, the group presented a certain level of shyness at seeing a new teacher giving the lesson but throughout the time, most of students gain confidence and showed more interest in the planned activities. A positive classroom environment was possible because the majority of students' strength was discipline and good behavior. On the other hand, as in all classroom studies there are inevitable restrictions, the factors that impeded better results are the limitations that the researcher had to face: first, the number of students which was too big to develop different activities with all of them; second, very few learners did not show interest in the English subject, so they did not demonstrate a good attitude to carry out the activities planned by the researcher; third, the time periods for the classes were very short approximately 40 minutes; besides, the time spent for the

intervention was two months, it is possible that better results will be obtained with long time period for the intervention plan, considering the students' prior low grammatical competence in English language.

The use of direct corrective feedback as a strategy to develop grammatical skills, contributed substantially to achieve the research's objective. Once finished the intervention plan the results allowed recognizing the improvement of the grammatical proficiency in ninth year A students. It was verified that the activities applied throughout the direct corrective feedback strategy allowed to develop students' grammatical competence meaningfully.

Lastly, it is important to mention, the researcher realized that action research is an essential process to find out solutions to problems in the classroom, as the present study to develop grammatical competence in the students through the direct corrective feedback. But it is indispensable to understand that not all problems can be solved overnight; consequently, results are not as immediate as the researcher might expect. Furthermore, this action research was really empowering, it could be considered as an authentic professional development.

h. CONCLUSIONS

Based on the findings, the researcher can make the following conclusions:

- The issue that limited the grammatical competence of ninth year A students was the lack of exposure of a corrective strategy that facilitate the learning of it. The pre-test revealed that students had problems in writing correctly short sentences, students were not able to use appropriately basic grammatical structures as in the case of declarative statements, questions, subject-verb-agreement and parts of speech, as was demonstrated in the table 1 in the Results section.
- The implementation of the direct corrective feedback in classroom activities reduced the students' limitations significantly. They learnt the basic structures to make affirmative and negative statements as well as they were able to ask questions and recognize some parts of speech, showing an important improvement in their language knowledge. Students accepted direct corrective feedback as part of their learning process and their performance developed significantly their grammatical competence.
- The use of direct corrective feedback as a strategy was effective, the variation of the scores from the pre and post-tests are essential evidences that demonstrated the significant impact that direct corrective feedback had in developing their grammatical competence. This strategy helped teachers to motivate students through active involment in their learning, students felt more confident and participated enthusiastically in the activities performed in classes.

i. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the conclusions stated above, the researcher can make the following suggestions:

- Teachers should be aware of the students' limitations at the beginning of the academic period; to help them to develop their grammatical competence, applying a corrective strategy such as the direct corrective feedback. It helps to motivate the students to learn and participate actively in class, creating a comfortable environment to learn the language without feel afraid of being corrected by their grammatical mistakes.
- Teachers should apply direct corrective feedback in their daily lessons, incorporating interesting activities in their lesson plans. Moreover, when teachers apply direct corrective feedback it is suggested to correct the students with moderation, in this way they will hopefully remain engaged to the learning process. Furthermore, teachers should assess the students frequently to verify if the direct corrective feedback is being useful, the results are really important to make teaching decisions and analyze whether the applied strategy is contributing to improve their grammatical skills.
- Teachers should be aware of the potentials of the different types of corrective feedback, employ them appropriately, and take advantage of the benefits of these strategies in improving the students' knowledge. The findings suggest that direct corrective feedback strategy is effective to develop the grammatical competence, the beneficial role of direct corrective feedback cannot be ignored

since it encourages to the students to identify their errors and make the difference between their error forms and the standard forms.

j. BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Akakura, M. (2012). Evaluating the effectiveness of explicit instruction on implicit and explicit L2 knowledge. *Language Teaching Research*, 194–204.
- Andersen, S., & Spring. (2014). *sentence types and function*. San José State University Writing Center.
- Anderson, J. R., & Pelletier, R. (1995). Cognitive tutors: Lessons learned. *Journal of the Learning*, 4, 167-207.
- Anderson, L. (1990). Educational psychology for teachers: Reforming our courses, rethinking our roles. *Educational Psychologist*, 30: 143–157. Cambridge: University Press.
- Anh Le, P. (2011) Feedback in teacher education: mentor discourse and intern perceptions, *Teacher Development*, 15:4, 453-470, DOI: 10.1080/13664530.2011.635264
- Azar, B. (2004). *Understanding and using english grammar*. Longman. United States.
- Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bachman, L., & Palmer, A. (1996). *Language testing in Practice; Designing and Developing Useful Language Tests*. Oxford. OUP.
- Bitchener, J. & Knoch, U. (2008). *The value of written corrective feedback for migrant and international students*. *Language teaching research*, 2008. journals.sagepub.com
- Bitchener, J., Young, S., & Cameron, D. (2005), *The effect of different types of corrective feedback on ESL student writing*. *Journal of Second Language Writing*. Volume 14.
- Boud, & Associates. (2010). *Assessment 2020. Seven propositions for assessment reform in higher education*.
- Boud, D. (1988). *Moving towards autonomy. Developing Student Autonomy in Learning*. London: Kogan Page.
- Brinton, D. (2010). *Teaching Pronunciation Hardback with Audio CDs*. Cambridge University Press, 16 abr. 2010.
- Brown. (1997). *Assessing Student Learning in Higher Education*. Routledge.
- Cantor, J. (2008). *Delivering Instruction to Adult Learners (3rd ed.)*. Toronto: Wall & Emerson.
- Canale, M. (1983). *From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy*. In J. C. Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.). *Language and communication*. New York: Longman.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). *Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. Applied Linguistics*. Cambridge: MIT Press.

- Cathcart, R. L. & Olsen, J. E. (1976). *Teachers' and students' preferences for correction of classroom conversation errors*. In Fanselow, John F. and Crymes, Ruth H. (Eds.), *On TESOL '76*. 41–53. Washington: TESOL.
- Chandler, J. (2003). The efficacy of various kinds of error feedback for improvement in the accuracy and fluency. *Journal of second Language Writing*, 267-296.
- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge, Mass.: M.I.T. Press
- Coady, J., & Huckins, T. (1997). *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Connor, W. R. (1993). Liberal Arts in Education in the Twenty-First Century. *AALE Occasional Papers in Liberal Arts* #2.
- Costello, J., & Crane, D. (2009). *Providing learner-centered feedback using a variety of technologies*. St. John's, Newfoundland.
- Cotter, C. (2009). *Better Language Teaching*. London: Chris Cotter.
- Croft, W. (2001). *Radical Construction Grammar: Syntactic Theory in Typological Perspective*. Oxford University Press.
- Díaz-Rico, L., & Weed, K. Z. (2010). *The crosscultural, language, and academic development handbook: A complete K-12 reference guide*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Driscoll, D. (8 de October de 2012). *Parallel structure: Purdue Online Writing Lab*. Obtenido de <http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/623/01/>
- Doff, A. (1990). *Teach English: A training course for teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press in association with the british council.
- Doughty, C. (2001). *Cognitive underpinnings of focus on form*. In Robinson, P. (Ed.), *Cognition and Second Language Instruction* (pp. 206-257). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Eastwood, J. (1994). *Oxford guide to English grammar*. Oxford University Press. Walton Street.
- Ellis, R. (1997). *SLA Research and language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. .
- English, T. L. (2003).
- Ellis, R. (2006). Current issues in the teaching of grammar. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(1): 83-107.
- Europe, C. o. (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Fazio, L. (2001). The effect of corrections and commentaries on the journal writing accuracy of minority -and majority-language. *Journal of second language writing*, 235-249.
- Ferris, D. (2006). *Feedback in Second Language*. Cambridge: Does error feedback help student writers? New evidence on short- and long-term.

- Ferris, D. R., & Roberts, B. (2001). *Journal of Second Language Writing*. Error feedback in L2 writing classes: How explicit does it need to be?
- Furneaux, C. (1999). 'Reviews', *ELT Journal* 53(1).
- Gao, C. Z. (2001). *Second language learning and the teaching of grammar*. Education.
- Guénette, D. (2007). Is feedback pedagogical correct? Research design issues in studies of feedback on writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 16, 40–53.
- Harmer, J. (2011). Mistakes and feedback. In *The practice of English language teaching* (7th ed., pp. 137-138). Cambridge: Pearson Longman.
- Havranek, G. (2003). When is corrective feedback most likely to succeed? *International Journal of Educational Research*, 255-270.
- Hedge, T. (2002). *Teaching and learning in the language classroom*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Hedge, T. (2002). *Teaching and learning in the language classroom*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Herrera, S. G., Kavimandan, S. K., & Holmes, M. A. (2011). *Crossing the vocabulary bridge: Differentiated strategies for diverse secondary classrooms*. New York, NY: Teacher College Press.
- James, D. (1998). *Systematic review of the literature on assessment, feedback and physicians' clinical performance*. journals.sagepub.com
- Jokar, M. & Soyooof, A. (2013). *The Influence of Written Corrective Feedback on Two Iranian Learners' Grammatical Accuracy*. International Conference on Current Trends in ELT.
- Kierzek, M. & Gibson, W. (1965). *The Macmillan Handbook of English*. New York: Macmillan.
- Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. London: Longman.
- Lalande, J. F. (1982). *Reducing composition errors: An experiment*. *Modern Language Journal*, 140-149.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2001). Language Emergence: Implications for Applied Linguistics: *Introduction to the Special Issue, Applied Linguistics*, Volume 27.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2001). Teaching grammar. *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* (pp. 251-266). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Lee, I. (2008). *Student reactions to teacher feedback in two Hong Kong secondary classrooms*. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 2008. Elsevier.
- Loewen, E. & Ellis, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in second language acquisition*, 2006 - cambridge.org
- Lunsford, A. L. (2008). "Errors are a fact of life: A national comparative study".

- Lyster, R. & Ranta, L. (1997). *Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms*. Studies in second language acquisition, 1997. cambridge.org
- McDonald, R. (1991). 'Developmental students processing of teacher feedback in composition construction'. *Review of Research in Developmental Education*, 3-7.
- McLaughlin, A.C & Kelley, C. M. (2012) *Individual Differences in the Benefits of Feedback for Learning*. Human factors, 2012 - journals.sagepub.com
- Mendoza, E. (2005). *Implicit and explicit teaching of grammar: An empirical study*. PROFILE.
- Mohr, D. (2010). *Providing effective feedback in online courses for student learning*. Sloan C Foundation.
- Murrow, S. E. (2002) Charting "Unexplored Territory" in the Social Foundations: *Pedagogical Practice in Urban Teacher Education, Educational Studies*.
- Nassaji, H., & Fotos, S. (2011). *Teaching Grammar in Second Language Classrooms*. London: Routledge.
- Paiva, K. (2011). *Brazilian English as foreign language teachers' beliefs about grammar-based feedback on L2*. Iowa State University, USA.
- Pollock, J.Y. (1989) 'Verb movement, universal grammar and the structure of IP'.
- Radford, L. (1998). *Journal of Research in Science Teaching: The role of teachers' practical knowledge*. Wiley Online Library.
- Rambo, R. (2012). *Identifying and eliminating common errors in writing: English Composition I*. Obtenido de http://www2.ivcc.edu/rambo/eng1001/eng1001_identifying_errors.htm
- Richards, J. C. (1992). *The language teaching matrix*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Russell, J. Spada, N. (2006). *The effectiveness of corrective feedback for the acquisition of L2 grammar*. Synthesizing research on language, 2006. books.google.com
- Savignon, S. J. (1883). *Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom Practice*. Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Savignon, S. J. (2001). *Communicative language teaching for the twenty-first century*. Boston: MA: Heinle and Heinle.
- Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in language teaching*. Cambridge.
- Schmitt, N. (2002). *Admission control based on packet marking and feedback signalling-mechanisms, implementation and experiments*. Report TR-KOM-2002-03, disco.informatik.uni-kl.de
- Sentence fragments. Purdue Online Writing Lab. (s.f.). Obtenido de <http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/620/1>
- Sesnan, B. (2001). *How to teach English*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

- Sheen, Y. (2006). Exploring the relationship between characteristics of recasts and learner uptake. *Language Teaching Research* 10, 361-392.
- Sheen, Y. (2007). The effect of focused written corrective feedback and language aptitude on ESL learners' acquisition of articles. *TESOL Quarterly*, 41, 255- 283.
- Swain, H. (2007). Nip double trouble in the bud. *The Times Higher Education Supplement* 1676 (January 28): 58.
- Tomasello, M & Herron, C. (1989). *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 1989 - cambridge.org.
- Tode, T. (2007). Durability problems with explicit instruction in an EFL context: the learning of the English copula 'be' before and after the introduction of the auxiliary 'be'. *Language Teaching Research* 11, 1, 11-30.
- Truscott, J. (1999). The case for "the case for grammar correction in L2 writing classes". *A response to Ferris. Journal of Second Language Writing*, 111-122.
- Van Beuningen, C.G. (2008). The effect of direct and indirect corrective feedback on L2 learners' written accuracy. *ITL International Journal*, 2008 - academia.edu.

k. ANNEX



UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL DE LOJA

ÁREA DE LA EDUCACIÓN, EL ARTE Y LA COMUNICACIÓN

ENGLISH LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT

THEME

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE THROUGH DIRECT CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK AMONG NINE- A YEAR STUDENTS AT LA DOLOROSA HIGH SCHOOL OF THE CITY OF LOJA DURING THE 2016-2017 SCHOOL YEAR.

Thesis Project as a previous requirement to obtain the Bachelor's Degree in Sciences of Education, English Language Specialization.

AUTHOR

DEICE NATALI MONTAÑO ORDÓÑEZ

LOJA – ECUADOR

2016

a. THEME

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE
THROUGH DIRECT CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK AMONG NINE-
A YEAR STUDENTS AT LA DOLOROSA HIGH SCHOOL OF
THE CITY OF LOJA DURING THE 2016 -2017 SCHOOL YEAR

b. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Background

This research project will be developed at La Dolorosa high school during the academic year 2016 – 2017. This prestigious and traditional high school is located on the corner of José Antonio Eguiguren and Olmedo street, was founded in 1980, the Ministry of Education declared fiscomisional the establishment with the name of La Dolorosa, this institution had been started with the night section only but, because of its big demand, the afternoon and the morning section were added some years later.

Presided in its beginning by Dr. Victoriano Granda, for the people who in one way or another have wished to study, but by his work and responsibilities have not been able to be participants of the education. From 2004 until the present, has been under the regency of Canonigo Socrates Chinchay Cuenca.

The mission of this establishment is working efficiently and effectively by means of involving teachers to the society demands and necessities research so that, the future high-school graduated be able to respond to the current challenges, and its vision is to provide students with a top education, who can easily access into the labor and university fields.

Current situation of the research problem

One of the goals of the Education Curriculum for English as Foreign Language for Educación General Básica Media (2016) is “To develop the personal, social, and intellectual skills needed to achieve their potential to participate productively

in an increasingly globalized world that operates in English”. in addition, students are expected to reach a certain level of English when graduating from Educación General Básica Media, in this case from 10th EGB with an A2 level.

Consequently, learners in their 8th, 9th and 10th grades will be taught what they have already learned in terms of grammar and vocabulary, with new, context-specific vocabulary being added. One of the main reasons for this, is the gap between learners with different levels of English proficiency, due to the students come from different primary schools. Moreover, they also experience important changes in methodology and teaching approaches, as primary learners, they are instructed mainly through games, songs, rhymes, and playful activities.

In response to this problem, this research project proposes to investigate several options for making the Ninth-A year students aware of the importance of the grammatical competence which will allow them to communicate better using grammatical structures such as declarative sentences, interrogative sentences, subject-verb agreement and parts of speech. The researcher will consider some effective feedback strategies such as direct corrective feedback that will enhance students learning in order to ‘close the gap’ and take learning forward and improve their performance.

Research problem

Considering the aforementioned elements, it is essential to research the following problem:

HOW DOES THE DIRECT CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK DEVELOP THE GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE AMONG NINTH-A YEAR STUDENTS AT LA

DOLOROSA HIGH SCHOOL OF THE CITY OF LOJA DURING THE 2016- 2017 SCHOOL YEAR?

Delimitation of the research

Timing

This research will be developed during the 2016 – 2017 school year.

Location

The present project will be applied at La Dolorosa high school which is a fiscomisional school located in the city of Loja at José Antonio Eguiguren and Olmedo street.

Participants

The participants of this research work are the ninth year A students at “La Dolorosa” high school who are all about thirteen to fourteen years old; they are thirty – seven students, all of them boys and the teacher candidate of this study who is going to take part in the intervention plan.

Subproblems

- What theoretical and methodological references about feedback as strategy are adequate for improving grammatical competence amongst ninth-grade students at La Dolorosa high school during the 2016 – 2017 school year?
- What are the issues that limit the development of the grammatical competence amongst ninth – grade students at La Dolorosa high school during the 2016 – 2017 school year?
- What are the phases of the intervention plan that help the current issues to achieve a satisfactory outcome on developing the grammatical competence

amongst ninth – grade students at La Dolorosa high school during the 2016 – 2017 school year?

- Which feedback strategy is implemented to improve grammatical competence amongst ninth – grade students at La Dolorosa high school during the 2016 – 2017 school year?
- How does the direct corrective feedback as a corrective strategy reduce the difficulty to develop the grammatical competence amongst ninth – grade students at La Dolorosa high school during the 2016 – 2017 school year?

c. JUSTIFICATION

Grammatical competence is a pre-requisite factor of communicative competence. It involves knowing how to use the grammar and vocabulary of the language to achieve communicative goals and knowing how to do this in a socially appropriate way. Therefore, the role of grammar in second language teaching is that it enables the teacher to breakdown the language into many pieces; That is to say, basic, fundamental rules and structures, for the student to pick up and understand, so that the learner could reassemble them in real communication.

This is the reason why grammar correction has received so much attention on the part of researchers, and teachers in the recent decades. In the classroom, teacher feedback on grammar may be a useful pedagogical device to enhance the accuracy of grammatical competence. Consequently, the objective of this project is to use the direct corrective feedback as a learning strategy to develop the grammatical competence amongst Ninth-A year students at La Dolorosa high school during the school year 2016 – 2017.

In addition to this, the implementation of this strategy during this investigation will let the researcher collect data in order to demonstrate how direct corrective feedback can be used to create a relaxing environment in the classroom in which students are willing to learn without feeling afraid to be corrected.

Finally, it is a previous requirement, in order to get the Bachelor's Degree in Sciences of Education, English Language specialization.

d. OBJECTIVES

General

- To improve the grammatical competence through the direct corrective feedback as a corrective strategy amongst ninth – grade students at La Dolorosa high school during the 2016 – 2017 school year.

Specific

- To research the theoretical and methodological references about the direct corrective feedback as corrective strategy and its application on the grammatical competence.
- To diagnose the issues that limit the development of the grammatical competence amongst ninth – grade students at La Dolorosa high school during the 2016 – 2017 school year.
- To design an intervention plan based on the direct corrective feedback as corrective strategy in order to improve the grammatical competence amongst ninth – grade students at La Dolorosa high school during the 2016 – 2017 school year.
- To apply the most suitable techniques of the direct corrective feedback as a corrective strategy in order to improve the grammatical competence amongst ninth – grade students at La Dolorosa high school during the 2016 – 2017 school year.
- To reflect upon the effectiveness that the direct corrective feedback as a corrective strategy had amongst ninth – grade students at La Dolorosa high school during the 2016 – 2017 school year?

e. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Communicative Competence

Currently, English is the most commonly used language among foreign language speakers. In the world, when people with different languages come together they commonly use English to communicate, as a result, learn English as a second language offers to the learners many possibilities such as: travel and communicate across cultures, study in other countries, open up employment opportunities, and so on. Persons who can communicate effectively can be considered as the one who has communicative competence. So, communicative competence is the ability to interact well with others.

Therefore, communicative competence has to do with the social, cultural, and psychological rules that define the use of a particular language in a particular situation. Furthermore, communicative competence deals with linguistic terms which refers to second language's learner ability. It does not only refer to a learner's ability to apply and use grammatical rules, but also to form correct words, and know how to use these words appropriately.

Savignon (2001) mentions that there are five characteristics of communicative competence and those characteristics are: Communicative competence is dynamic rather than static concept. It depends on the negotiation of meaning between two or more persons who share to some degree the same symbolic system. Moreover, communicative competence applies to both written and spoken language, as well

as too many other symbolic systems. Also, communicative competence is context specific. Communication takes place in an infinite variety of situations, and success in a particular role depends on one's understanding of the context and on prior experience of a similar kind.

More recently Hedge (2002) states that communicative competence is related to the knowledge of a language and to the ability to put that knowledge into practice by using it to communicate with others in different contexts and situations.

There is no a specific definition yet that can be claimed as the most suitable meaning in defining what does communicative competence means. According to George Yule (2006) in his book "The study of language", mentioned that communicative competence can best be defined as the general ability to use language accurately, appropriately and flexibly. However, the degree of such competencies can be measured in three different components. It consists of the grammatical competence, sociolinguistics competence and the strategic competence.

Grammatical Competence

The first component is grammatical competence, which involves the accurate use of words and structures George Yule (2006). Noam Chomsky definition of grammatical competence takes into account phonological competence as part of the components. One good example of this component is learners need to learn and understand the different time references of sets of words such as "he takes", "he took" and "he has taken", and to be able to make appropriate time reference when

speaking or writing the words. In short, it can be interpreted as the ability to recognize and produce the distinctive grammatical structures of a language and to use them effectively in communication.

Sociolinguistic Competence

The second component, called sociolinguistic competence, provides the learner with the ability to interpret or produce second language expressions appropriately. It enables the learner to know when to say “Can I have some water? Versus “Give me some water” according to the social context. Much of the discussion on the pragmatics aspect has to become familiar in the cultural context of the second language if the learner is to develop sociolinguistic competence. (George Yule; 2006)

Strategic Component

The third component is called strategic competence. This is the ability to organize a message effectively and to compensate, via strategies, for any difficulties. In second language use, learners inevitably experience moments when there is a gap between communicative intent and their ability to express that intent. George Yule (2006) The implications might either be good as well as bad. The good thing is when learners try to express themselves using a communication strategy. Example: When a learner uses the vocabulary that already known to them in referring to things that they have no idea of its English word.

In "Theoretical Bases of Communicative Approaches to Second Language Teaching and Testing" Canale & Swain (1980) identified these four components of communicative competence:

Grammatical competence includes knowledge of phonology, orthography, vocabulary, word formation and sentence formation (Lit; Verlag, 2005)

Sociolinguistic competence includes knowledge of sociocultural rules of use. It is concerned with the learners' ability to handle for example settings, topics and communicative functions in different sociolinguistic contexts. In addition, it deals with the use of appropriate grammatical forms for different communicative functions in different sociolinguistic contexts (Lit; Verlag, 2005)

Discourse competence is related to the learners' mastery of understanding and producing texts in the modes of listening, speaking, reading and writing. It deals with cohesion and coherence in different types of texts (Lit; Verlag, 2005)

Strategic competence refers to compensatory strategies in case of grammatical or sociolinguistic or discourse difficulties, such as the use of reference sources, grammatical and lexical paraphrase, requests for repetition, clarification, slower speech, or problems in addressing strangers when unsure of their social status or in finding the right cohesion devices. It is also concerned with such performance factors as coping with the nuisance of background noise or using gap fillers (Lit; Verlag, 2005)

In the late 1980s, Bachman proposed a new model of communicative competence or, more precisely, the model of communicative language ability. That model was, however, slightly altered by Bachman and Palmer in the middle 1990s. According to Bachman & Palmer (1996), many traits of language users such as some general characteristics, their topical knowledge, affective schemata and language ability influence the communicative language ability. The crucial

characteristic is their language ability which is comprised of two broad areas: Language knowledge and strategic competence. Language knowledge consists of two main components: Organizational knowledge and pragmatic knowledge which complement each other in achieving communicatively effective language use.

In Bachman and Palmer's model, organizational knowledge is composed of abilities engaged in a control over formal language structures, i.e. of grammatical and textual knowledge. Grammatical knowledge includes several rather independent areas of knowledge such as knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, phonology, and graphology. They enable recognition and production of grammatically correct sentences as well as comprehension of their propositional content.

Pragmatic knowledge refers to abilities for creating and interpreting discourse. It includes two areas of knowledge: knowledge of pragmatic conventions for expressing acceptable language functions and for interpreting the illocutionary power of utterances or discourse (functional knowledge) and knowledge of sociolinguistic conventions for creating and interpreting language utterances which are appropriate in a particular context of language use (sociolinguistic knowledge).

Strategic knowledge is conceived in the model as a set of metacognitive components which enable language user involvement in goal setting, assessment of communicative sources, and planning. Goal setting includes identifying a set of possible tasks, choosing one or more of them and deciding whether or not to attempt to complete them.

Regarding communicative competence, the Common European Framework

(CEF) of Reference for Languages, Learning, Teaching, Assessment Council of Europe (2001) states that “for the realization of communicative intentions, learners bring to bear their general capacities together with a more specifically language-related communicative competence. Communicative competence in this narrower sense has the following components: linguistic competences, sociolinguistic competences, and pragmatic competences”

The Common European Framework Council of Europe (2001) describes the following categories as very useful for the linguistic description and analysis of a language and can therefore be regarded as linguistic competences. It is interesting, however, that each component of language knowledge is explicitly defined as knowledge of its contents and ability to apply it. For instance, language competence or linguistic competence refers to knowledge of and ability to use language resources to form well-structured messages. The subcomponents of language competence are lexical, grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic and orthoepic competences.

Sociolinguistic competence refers to possession of knowledge and skills for appropriate language use in a social context. The following aspects of this competence are highlighted; language elements that mark social relationships, rules of appropriate behavior, and expressions of peoples’ wisdom, differences in register and dialects and stress.

The last component in this model; pragmatic competence, involves two subcomponents: Discourse competence and functional competence. A part of both of these competences is called planning competence which refers to sequencing of

messages in accordance with interactional and transactional schemata. Strategic competence is mentioned in the part the CEF dedicated to a discussion of communicative language use. This competence is conceived as strategy use in the broadest sense. Thus, the stress is put not only on the use of communication strategies which can help to overcome the lack in a particular area of language knowledge but on the use of all types of communication strategies.

According to Diaz and Rico communicative competence is a feature of a language user's knowledge of the language that allows the user to know "when, where, and how to use language appropriately". Grammatical competence is one of four areas of the communicative competence theory put forward by Canale and Swain. (Diaz, Rico & Weed, 2010).

The purpose of this study will be focus on grammatical competence. According to the CEF Council of Europe (2001), this competence is defined as knowledge of, and ability to use, the grammatical resources of a language.

Formally, the grammar of a language may be seen as the set of principles governing the assembly of elements into meaningful and connected sentences. Grammatical competence is the ability to understand and express meaning by producing and recognizing well-formed phrases and sentences in accordance with these principles. The grammar of any language in this sense is highly complex and so far, challenges definitive or exhaustive treatment.

According to Canale & Swain (1980) grammatical competence, remains concerned with mastery of the language code, including knowledge of vocabulary, rules of word and sentence formation, linguistic semantics, pronunciation and

spelling. This competence focusses directly on the knowledge and skill required to understand and express accurately the literal meaning of utterances; as such, grammatical competence will be an important concern for any second language programme.

Grammatical competence focuses on command of the language code, including such things as the rules of word and sentence formation, meanings, spelling and pronunciation Gao (2001). The goal is to acquire knowledge of, and ability to use, forms of expression that are grammatically correct and accurate Diaz, Rico & Weed (2010); Gao (2001). Grammatical competence acts to promote accuracy and fluency in second language production Gao (2001) and increases in importance as the learner advances in proficiency (Diaz, Rico & Weed, 2010).

Diaz-Rico and Weed imply “this type of competence focuses on the skills and knowledge necessary to speak and write accurately and becomes increasingly important to the English learner in more advanced stages of proficiency,” Diaz, Rico & Weed (2010). As students travel through the stages of language proficiency, grammatical competence becomes more important.

Freeman and Freeman suggest grammar is “a set of prescriptive rules they were taught in school” Freeman & Freeman (2004). Herrera and Murry state “grammatical competence “calls for curriculum and instruction that prepares the CLD student to incorporate and apply the language code” Herrera & Murry (2005). Grammar is the glue that binds the English language together.

Teachers need to realize that grammatical forms need to be explicitly taught for students to reach higher levels of academic language proficiency. However,

grammar needs to be taught in context. As Larsen-Freeman (2001) points out, we need to pay attention to the three dimensions of grammar: form, meaning and use. Simply teaching grammar rules or having student memorize verb conjugations will not help students acquire grammatical competence.

In this way, we are going to mention two components of grammatical competence, these are vocabulary and sentence formation.

Vocabulary

Vocabulary can be defined as being “all the words that someone knows or uses”, “all the words in a particular language”, “the words that are typically used when talking about a particular subject” and “a list of words with explanations of their meanings, especially in a book for learning foreign languages” (The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003)

However, Schmitt (2000) explains that the term word is not specific enough to cover the complexity of vocabulary and to capture different aspects of lexis. Single words, phrasal verbs and idioms can all carry the same meaning, for instance. A few examples that Schmitt uses are “die” (single word), “pass away” (phrasal verb) and “kick the bucket” (idiom). The meaning of all of these is to die, but different words and combinations of words are used in each case. There are numerous other examples which highlight the complexity of vocabulary, such as how base words are manipulated to affect their meanings to greater or lesser degrees, or even completely change their original meanings.

Referring to Stewart (2012), there are two tactics for teaching vocabulary:

Implicit vocabulary: are words that teacher teach "in the moment". This kind of

terms refer to words that are taught when it wants working a specific content, for instance, the parts of the body or food. For teaching of implicit vocabulary, the teacher has to plan short definitions to give the students a correct scaffold.

Explicit vocabulary: refer to use of different kind of words that it uses to learn new specific vocabulary. These words are taught in order to favoring this acquisition. Thus, students can dominate the new vocabulary with ease, and, at the same time, the teacher can build strategies to favor vocabulary acquisition. It is usual the use of visuals, semantic and mnemonic strategies to work in class.

Some linguists consider individual morphemes as words, other can include a sentence as a single word... For this reason, it uses lexemes for being more specific. Vocabulary is a necessity for students because if they not know it, they cannot speak. But, it not only is important to know de vocabulary, besides, students should understand when, how, why and where using vocabulary. Of this form, Cotter (2009) refers that there are three important points required for a successful vocabulary comprehension.

Form

It refers to the mechanics of the language which include grammar and vocabulary terms. In grammar, it is important to know the specific grammar rules to form sentences. In vocabulary, students must learn how pronounce a word, how write a word, using prefixes, suffixes and roots, and recognize a noun, adjective, adverb o verb.

Meaning

This is the mental image that students acquire when they have understood

grammar or vocabulary. They connect the grammar structure learnt with its meaning. For instance, in teaching vocabulary, students connect the form of the word with its meaning. This happens both micro and macro levels. At the first level, the word appears alone and immediately after they form the image of this word in their mind. At the macro level, this word may have different meanings depend on the sentence in which it appears.

Use

It refers to use of grammar and vocabulary. It means that students have to learn that a structure or a vocabulary term may appear in different contexts depend on the situation. They have to understand these points to correct use of vocabulary, especially at the higher-levels.

In addition to form, meaning and use, Cotter (2009) comments that is also another important and necessary aspect: the receptive and productive levels of students. They can recognize a word if they read or listen (receptive level), and at the same time, they cannot use actively the word in their own writing or speaking (productive level). Students can understand the meaning of a word, but not knowing how using it.

Sentence structure

Referring to sentence structure, it is a mechanical aspect of grammar, includes numerous elements, such as clauses, verbs, subjects, transitional words, nominals, and much more. By joining these elements into well-constructed sentences, the ideas will be clearer and more coherent. Lunsford & Lunsford (2008) in their study, identified three of the most common sentence structure errors: sentence

fragments, run-on sentences, and faulty construction.

Whereas sentence structure refers to the form of sentences in a language, sentence purpose refers to the function of sentences. Four types of sentence purposes exist in the English language: declarative sentences, interrogative sentences, imperative sentences, and exclamatory sentences.

Declarative Sentences

The first type of sentence in the English language is the declarative sentence. Declarative sentences, or declarations, convey information or make statements. Periods indicate declarative sentences in written English.

Example: My cat plays with its tail.

The declarative sentence is the most important type. People can, and often will write entire essays or reports using only declarative sentences and should always use them far more often than any other type. A declarative sentence simply states a fact or argument, without requiring either an answer or action from the reader.

Interrogative Sentences

The second type of sentence in the English language is the interrogative sentence. Interrogative sentences, or questions, request information or ask questions.

For example:

When does the train leave?

Imperative Sentences

The third type of sentence in the English language is the imperative sentence. Imperative sentences, or imperatives, make commands or requests. Periods indicate

imperative sentences in written English.

For example: Bring me some sugar.

Exclamatory Sentences

The fourth type of sentence in the English language is the exclamatory sentence. Exclamatory sentences, or exclamations, show emphasis. Unlike the other three sentences purposes, exclamatory sentences are not a distinct sentence type. Instead, declarative, interrogative, and imperative sentences become exclamatory through added emphasis.

For example: You broke the lamp!

(declarative) How did you break your leg?!

(interrogative)

Do not open the presents until the morning! (imperative)

Exclamatory sentences are common in speech and (sometimes) in fiction, but over the last 200 years they have almost entirely disappeared from academic writing. People will probably never use one in any sort of academic writing, except where you are quoting something else directly. An exclamation mark can also appear at the end of an imperative sentence.

Subject-Verb Agreement

The subject and verb must agree in person and number both must be singular, or both must be plural. Problems occur in the present tense because one must add an - s or -es at the end of the verb when the subjects or the entity performing the action is a singular third person: he, she, it, or words for which these pronouns could substitute.

Rules for subject-verb agreement.

- In the present tense, third person, use verbs ending in –s with singular subjects.

I require attention. (1st person, singular, no –s is needed.)

A dog requires attention. (3rd person singular, an –s is needed.)

Dogs require attention. (–s indicates a plural subject, but the verb does not need an –s.)

- The verb must agree with its simple subject even though modifying phrases or clauses come between the simple subject and its verb. For example:

The recommendation of two policemen, a judge, and three lawyers was accepted.

- When two nouns are connected by some form of the verb to be, the first noun is the grammatical subject, and the verb agrees with it.

The first [thing] we noticed was the [shoes]. The shoes were the first thing we noticed.

- If the verb precedes the subject, determine the subject and make the verb agree with it.

Above a cluster of convents rises the Cathedral of St. John.

- In sentences beginning with here is/are or there is/are, look for the subject after the verb.

There are a hundred jokes in this comedy.

- Subjects connected by and are generally plural.

San Marcos and San Antonio are in Texas.

Parts of Speech

In every language we find groups of words that share grammatical characteristics. These groups are called “parts of speech,” many writers on language refer to “the eight parts of speech” (e.g., Weaver 1996: 254), the actual number of parts of speech distinguish are nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs (the major parts of speech), and pronouns, wh-words, articles, auxiliary verbs, prepositions, intensifiers, conjunctions, and particles (the minor parts of speech).

Verbs

Verbs are often known as ‘doing words’. They can also show ‘having’ or ‘being’. For example: The horse jumped the fence.

Nouns

Nouns are the names of people, places, things and ideas. There are four kinds of noun:

- Common nouns – dog, computer, river, biscuit
- Collective nouns (names of a group of something) – a herd of cows, a flock of sheep.
- Proper nouns (the names of people, places and so on) – London, Anne, Plain English Campaign

Abstract nouns: names of things we can’t see or touch for instance love, hope, fear, decision, poverty.

Adjectives

Adjectives describe nouns. For example: She wore a blue dress.

Adverbs

Adverbs give us extra information about how, where or when a verb happens. For example: He drove slowly.

Pronouns

Pronouns are usually small words which stand in place of a noun, often to avoid repeating the noun. They include words such as I, you, he, we, hers, they, it.

Prepositions

Prepositions come before nouns or pronouns and usually show a connection.

For example: Your pen is on the desk.

Conjunctions

Conjunctions link words, sentences or parts of a sentence together. The rug is blue and cream.

Articles

There are two kinds of article: definite and indefinite. The definite article is 'the'. It is used to identify a specific thing. The indefinite article is 'a' and 'an'. It is used to refer to something in general.

For example: The cat sat on the mat. (We know which cat and which mat.)

Ways to Approach Grammar in the Second or Foreign Language Classroom

When discussing the place of grammar in English Language Teaching, it is important to acknowledge the existing impression among many English teachers who believe that communicative language teaching and grammar are two worlds apart and that it is unacceptable to care about grammar if you are working with a communicative methodology.

All the opposite, as Hedge (2002) claimed that it is wrong to believe that communicative language teaching does not pursue “a high standard of formal correctness,” and defends the idea of promoting accuracy while being tolerant to errors and risks as crucial steps for developing communicative competence.

Sesnan (2001) uses a metaphor to describe the negative effects of speaking a language without paying attention to its grammar. He claims that if we see language as a “building” then the words are the “building blocks or bricks” and grammar will be “the architect’s plan”. From the previous, one can ask whether an architect would be able to make a building just with a million bricks and without any plan, and the answer is likely to be negative; in the same way it can be concluded that if a person knows thousands of words in English but does not know how to organize them or what to do with them, then that person cannot speak English.

The same author advocates the importance of correction in the process of learning another language, and just with this position there may be a clash with experienced teachers who are convinced that correcting students’ grammatical errors are just a way to traumatize or “stigmatize” them and that these corrections must be forbidden.

In dealing with communicative language teaching, Savignon (2001) emphasizes the necessity to care about form in communicative acts. That is why it is vital to find ways to integrate grammar teaching—where the focus is on form—with practical activities focusing on meaning, in other words, we have to promote the use of the language in a meaningful but at the same time accurate way.

Sesnan (2001) points out that English is perhaps the school subject with the

largest number of different methodologies. And if we consider the teaching of grammar, it has evolved as new methodologies have appeared. With the appearance of the communicative approaches, the way to deal with grammar has changed even more.

In the Colombian context for example, authors such as Mendoza (2005) has conducted research studies in order to explore alternatives to develop grammar.

This author for instance studied the effects of implicit vs. explicit instruction of grammar and concluded that learners taught in explicit instruction achieve better results than those taught in implicit instruction.

For many other English Language Teaching (ELT) professionals however, what matters today is to promote in our students to communicate but not necessarily an accurate one, and this is how grammar has been relegated in the English Language Teaching field.

Hedge (2002) is an author who emphasizes that “the ability to communicate effectively in English is now a well-established goal in ELT”. Considering this idea, one can ask whether the term “effectively” does not necessarily mean accurately or properly. In other words, is it not correct or logical to expect a person who is said to communicate effectively to do it accurately, using the appropriate vocabulary, pronunciation, tense form and word order among some other conditions to express his or her ideas. In the discussion for and against grammatical instruction, there is a growing acknowledgment nowadays that grammar must be taught and this must be done in context.

Direct Explicit Grammar Instruction (DEGI)

Grammar can be taught deductively through direct instruction. Deductively refers to the form of explicit explanations of grammatical structures provided to learners orally or in writing Ellis (1997). It helps the teacher save time for the class, but a major disadvantage is that the repeated rule presentations of grammar structures may make students lose their sense of discovery, and that easily leads to the state of boredom. In this method, “students are supplied with a rule or part of a rule, which they then apply, complete or modify in a task that requires them to analyze information that illustrate its use” Ellis (1997). For example, students may be given a rule about the simple past tense with a number of sentences and instructed to use the rule to recognize which of the sentences are grammatical and which are ungrammatical. Learners are therefore quite dependent on the teacher’s explanations or provision of grammar rules.

Indirect Explicit Grammar Instruction (IEGI)

While direct explicit grammar instruction refers to the use of deduction, indirect explicit grammar instruction favors induction or the learners’ discovery of the grammatical rules through tasks and therefore does not involve giving grammatical explanations Ellis (2008). It implies a problem-solving approach in which “students are provided with information which illustrates the use of a specific grammatical structure which they analyze to arrive at some generalization that accounts for regularities in the data” Ellis (1997). For example, students may be given a reading passage containing some illustrations of the use of the simple present and the present continuous tenses and are required to identify the verbs in

both tenses and then build a rule to explain their different functions.

Briefly, from the given input and tasks, learners have to construct the grammar rules for themselves. The tasks commonly used in this approach are indirect consciousness-raising tasks which aim: “to help learners construct their own explicit grammar of the target language and to encourage communication in the second language between learners” (Ellis, 1997).

In Tode’s 2007 study, the author investigated the effectiveness of explicit and implicit instruction on three groups of Japanese beginning-level high school learners’ acquisition of the auxiliary verb “to be.” Each group consisted of approximately 30 learners. In this study, the learners were exposed to the auxiliary verb “to be” in various ways. The first group received explicit instruction, the second group received implicit instruction through exposure to exemplars and the third group did not receive either explicit or implicit instruction. The results indicated that learners made significant short-term gains through explicit instruction while learners did not make any gains through implicit instruction. Moreover, learners who received implicit instruction did not outperform learners who did not receive any instruction.

Additionally, the results indicated that despite learners’ short-term gains from explicit instruction, learners were not able to retain this knowledge, especially after the present continuous form was introduced; thus, the gains were not found to be durable. The author attributed this result to the lack of follow-up instruction and then concludes from this finding that explicit instruction of the auxiliary verb “to be” must continue while the present continuous form is introduced in order to avoid

creating confusion in learners. The author also suggests exposing learners to numerous opportunities to use this auxiliary verb following extensive instruction as well as corrective feedback directed at learners' errors of this target structure.

Thus, findings from this study conclude that explicit instruction can be effective but that this knowledge must continuously be reinforced through activities such as collaborative output tasks where learners must collectively use the correct target features in order to accomplish the task appropriately (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011).

Additionally, the issue of retention of grammatical forms relates to the extent to which explicit instruction affects learners' explicit and implicit knowledge. Akakura (2012) investigated the effects of explicit instruction on 94 advanced English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners' implicit and explicit knowledge of English definite and indefinite articles and discovered that explicit instruction can have a positive impact on both implicit and explicit knowledge of non-salient forms on Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) activities. In this study, learners were exposed to proactive form-focused instruction of articles, where learners were exposed to the form in advance of doing activities, and they were then assessed by a separate set of tests designed to elicit both kinds of knowledge.

Overall, these findings contribute to research about the benefits of explicit instruction as they demonstrate how explicit instruction can contribute to the development of both implicit and explicit knowledge in certain settings. Both of these studies regarding explicit instruction and retention indicate that retention of explicit knowledge may be dependent on the kind of instructional methodology used.

Since the focus of the present study is the development of grammatical competence through an effective feedback, it is necessary to mention in this literature review some concepts and researches made on feedback.

Feedback

Feedback is essential in learning. Learners need to know what they do well, where and how they can improve, and be aware of any misconceptions they may have. Feedback is provided to learners through comments or grades on formal assessments, as well as through body language, facial expressions, tone, and comments made during the learning process. Effective feedback aids learners to “progress with confidence and skill as lifelong learners”, while enhancing motivation and self-esteem. Mohr (2010).

Macdonald states that feedback is “the process of providing some commentary on student work in which a teacher reacts to the ideas in print, assesses a student’s strengths and weaknesses, and suggests directions for improvement” (McDonald, 1991). McLaughlin & Kelley (2012) shows that feedback is the reinforcement in which students' responses and teachers giving feedback occur closely at the same time. That is teachers must provide feedback during students’ responses, this will help them to correct their errors easily. The system of teaching feedback emerged worldwide, especially in the field of language teaching and it improves students' written drafts. (Furneaux, 1999)

Boud (1988) argued that “assessment methods and requirements probably have a greater influence on how and what students learn than any other single factor” and higher education is moving steadily toward an increasingly technology-enriched environment, then it behooves educators to understand how these technologies may be used for providing feedback. Assessment “powerfully frames how students learn

and what students achieve” Boud & Associates (2010). This impacts students’ quality of learning.

Like any form of communication, feedback requires interaction between a sender and a receiver. Cantor (2008) advises that the learner and instructor may take on both roles at different times. Providing feedback benefits the instructor by affording the opportunity for growth of personal, professional, and communication skills. Providing this progress for learners contributes to satisfaction for the instructor (Mohr, 2010).

Connor (1993) notes that feedback should encourage students to reflect, think critically, state a clear argument, and improve communication skills. To be effective, quality feedback, in the form of valuable information, comments, and suggestions given to learners, must be provided on a regular basis as it is essential for learner growth (Mohr, 2010)

The role of different types of corrective feedback in language learning has already been investigated by a considerable number of researchers. Cohen and Robin are known as the first researchers who addressed this issue in 1976. They conducted an error analysis of verb forms of written drafts of three advanced ESL university students. Their goal was to investigate the effect of error correction done by the teachers on the accuracy and eradication of errors. They found no relationship between the provision of the teacher feedback and improvement of the students’ accuracy in writing. The study showed that correction in written drafts was neither systematic nor enlightened enough to influence the students’ accuracy.

Similarly, as mentioned before, Truscott (1999) not only rejected the efficacy

of teacher feedback but also stated that this type of feedback should be abandoned since it is harmful. In addition, he believed that grammar correction limited the students to surface level structures of their written drafts, diverged the students from development of ideas and deviated their attention from focusing on the content and organization of their writings.

Furthermore, Fazio (2001) in an experimental study, investigated the effect of providing the minority and majority students with corrections, commentaries and a combination of correction and commentary. The researcher's goal was to see the effect of these types of feedback on the journal writing accuracy of the students. The two groups were randomly assigned to different feedback conditions. For both student groups, results indicated no significant difference in accuracy due to feedback conditions.

Grammar feedback on L2 writing does not necessarily help learners write well but can help them write accurately. Grammar correction in L2 writing is useful because students expect it from teachers. Paiva (2011) found that the teachers considered corrective feedback on grammar in writing classes a useful activity. However, empirical evidence regarding the effectiveness of grammar-based corrective feedback on L2 writing was not provided in the study. Thus, the researcher expressed doubts about whether grammar correction actually contributes to learners' writing development. In an attempt to shed more light on the issue, more recent studies have sought to provide empirical evidence regarding effectiveness of corrective feedback in improving writing accuracy and accurate use of grammatical structures.

Types of feedback

Types of feedback include: summative, formative, formal, informal, intrinsic, extrinsic, internal, instructional, corrective, and appreciative. Feedback may involve activities and strategies such as: participation, interaction in discussion, reflection, collaboration, group, or individual work Costello & Crane (2009).

The role of feedback has a place in most theories of second language (L2) learning and language pedagogy. In both behaviorist and cognitive theories of L2 learning, feedback is seen as contributing to language learning. In both structural and communicative approaches to language teaching, feedback is viewed as a means of fostering learner motivation and ensuring linguistic accuracy.

Feedback can be positive or negative. Positive feedback affirms that a learner response to an activity is correct. It may signal the veracity of the content of a learner utterance or the linguistic correctness of the utterance. In pedagogical theory positive feedback is viewed as important because it provides affective support to the learner and fosters motivation to continue learning.

In second language acquisition (SLA), however, positive feedback (as opposed to negative feedback) has received little attention, in part because discourse analytical studies of classroom interaction have shown that the teacher's positive feedback move is frequently ambiguous (e.g., "Good" or "Yes" do not always signal the learner is correct, for they may merely preface a subsequent correction or modification of the student's utterance). Negative feedback signals, in one way or another, that the learner's utterance lacks veracity or is linguistically deviant. In other words, it is corrective in intent. Both SLA researchers and language educators

have paid careful attention to corrective feedback (CF), but they have frequently disagreed about whether to correct errors, what errors to correct, how to correct them, and when to correct them.

Corrective feedback

Corrective feedback constitutes one type of negative feedback. It takes the form of a response to a learner utterance containing a linguistic error. The response is another initiated repair and can consist of an indication that an error has been committed, provision of the correct target language form, metalinguistic information about the nature of the error, or any combination of these (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006). CF episodes are comprised of a trigger, the feedback move, and (optionally) uptake, as in this example of a CF episode from Ellis and Sheen (2006), where the teacher first seeks clarification of a student's utterance containing an error and then recasts it, resulting in a second student up taking the correction.

(1) S1: What do you spend with your wife?

T: What?

S1: What do you spend your extra time with your wife? T: Ah, how do you spend?

S2: How do you spend

Corrective feedback episodes can be simple, involving only one corrective strategy, or complex, involving a number of corrective moves (as in the example above) and also further triggering moves. In addition to recast which is the most frequently used feedback, six different corrective strategies have been identified: explicit correction, clarification requests, metalinguistic information, elicitation,

repetition, and translation (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002). All of these techniques are placed in an explicit-implicit continuum. The following section elaborates on each of these corrective feedback techniques.

Recast

The term recast was initially used in the literature of L1 acquisition to refer to responses by adults to children's utterances Nelson, Carskaddon, & Bonvillian, (1973); as cited in Nicholas (2001); afterward it merged into the domain of L2 acquisition in which different definitions were utilized for this term. Lyster and Ranta (1997) define recast as 'teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error'. According to Ellis & Sheen (2006), recasts are of various types including corrective recasts Doughty & Varela (1998), corrective/non-corrective recasts Farrar (1992), full/partial recasts, single/multiple recasts, single utterance/extended utterance recasts, and simple/complex recasts Ellis & Sheen (2006).

Nelson, Denninger, Bonvillian, Kaplan, and Baker (1983) also propose two further classifications of recasts, i.e. simple and complex recasts; the former deals with minimal changes to the child's utterance while the latter is concerned with providing the child with substantial additions. It is also mentioned that in terms of their linguistic development, children benefit from simple recasts more than complex ones (Nelson et al, 1983)

Explicit feedback

As the name suggests, explicit feedback falls at the explicit end of corrective feedback spectrum. This kind of error correction therefore, is characterized by an

overt and clear indication of the existence of an error and the provision of the target-like reformulation and can take two forms, i.e. explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam (2006). In explicit correction, the teacher provides both positive and negative evidence by clearly saying that what the learner has produced is erroneous, while in metalinguistic feedback he or she only provides students with “comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness” of their utterances (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

The communicatively intrusive nature of explicit feedback amplifies the provision of both negative and positive evidence, potentially aiding learners in noticing the gap between their interlanguage and the target-like form. However, in providing the target-like reformulation, explicit error correction reduces the need for the learner to produce a modified response. Thus, explicit error correction, because it supplies the learner with both positive and negative evidence, facilitates one type of processing, the noticing of an interlanguage/target language difference, but reduces another type of processing, the modified production of an interlanguage form to a more target-like form.

Clarification Requests

Feedback that carries questions indicating that the utterance has been ill-formed or misunderstood and that a reformulation or a repetition is required are identified as clarification requests. This kind of feedback encapsulates “problems in either comprehension, accuracy, or both” Lyster & Ranta (1997). Clarification requests, unlike explicit error correction, recasts, and translations, can be more consistently relied upon to generate modified output from learners since it might not supply the

learners with any information concerning the type or location of the error.

Metalinguistic Feedback

Much like explicit error correction, metalinguistic feedback- because it diverts the focus of conversation towards rules or features of the target language- falls at the explicit end of the corrective feedback spectrum. Lyster and Ranta (1997) categorize metalinguistic feedback as “comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form”. Unlike its name, the inclusion of metalanguage is not its deterministic characteristics; rather the encoding of evaluations or commentary regarding the non-target-like nature of the learner's utterance is considered as the defining feature. Metalinguistic feedback is divided into three subcategories: metalinguistic comments, metalinguistic information and metalinguistic questions (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Elicitation

Elicitation is a correction technique that prompts the learner for self-correct Panova & Lyster, (2002) and may be accomplished in one of three following ways during face-to-face interaction, each of which vary in their degree of implicitness or explicitness. One of these strategies is request for reformulations of an ill-formed utterance. The second one is through the use of open questions. The last strategy which is the least communicatively intrusive and hence the most implicit is the use of strategic pauses to allow a learner to complete an utterance. Therefore, elicitation falls in the middle of explicit and implicit continuum of corrective feedback. This kind of corrective feedback is not usually accompanied by other feedback types.

Prompt

In the related literature two other terms are used interchangeably to refer to this kind of feedback, i.e. negotiation of form Lyster, (2002); Lyster, (1998) and Lyster & Ranta, (1997) and form-focused negotiation Lyster, (2002), Lyster and Mori (2006) introduce prompts as a range of feedback types, consisting of four prompting moves: elicitation, metalinguistic clue, clarification request, and repetition. All these moves offer learners a chance to self-repair by withholding the correct form.

Repetition

Another approach to provide corrective feedback is repetition which is less communicatively intrusive in comparison to explicit error correction or metalinguistic feedback and hence falls at the implicit extreme on the continuum of corrective feedback. This feedback is simply the teachers or interlocutors' repetition "of the ill-formed part of the student's utterance, usually with a change in intonation" (Panova & Lyster, 2002).

Translation

Translation was initially considered as a subcategory of recast Lyster & Ranta, (1997) but what distinguishes it from recast is that the former is generated in response to a learner's ill-formed utterance in the target language while the latter is generated in response to a learner's well-formed utterance in a language other than the target language.

What translation and recast have in common is that they both lack overt indicators that an error has been produced. This shared feature places both toward the implicit end of the corrective feedback spectrum, though the degree to which

translations are communicatively obtrusive can also vary. Translations also have another feature in common with recast as well as explicit error correction that is they all contain the target-like reformulation of the learner's error and thus provide the learner with positive evidence.

Corrective feedback and Second Language Acquisition: A Review of Major Studies.

The importance of corrective feedback in SLA theory has devoted an increasing number of studies to examining the relationship between feedback and L2 learning. Though early studies on this issue cast doubt on its application and efficacy e.g., Brock (1986); as cited in Kim, (2004); Chaudron, (1986); Chun, Day, Chenoweth, & Luppescu, (1982) recent studies yield positive evidences for its usability and effectiveness e.g., Carroll, Roberge, & Swain, (1992); Carroll & Swain, (1993); Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, (2001); Long, (1998); Oliver, (2000).

A study conducted by Chun (1982) revealed that corrective feedback rarely occurred. Further investigations of teachers' corrective feedback in classrooms also suggested that feedbacks were provided erratically and often went unnoticed by students e.g. Chaudron, (1988); Fanselow, (1977). However, it should be noted here that the weakness of the most of these studies e.g., Briadi, (2002); Ellis, (2001); Morris, (2002); Oliver, (2000) is that the efficacy of corrective feedback has been only assessed in terms of the learners' immediate responses to the feedback.

Other studies on error correction e.g. Allwright, (1975); Hendrickson, (1978) claim that pushing learners in their output rather than providing them with correct forms could benefit their interlanguage development. Other researchers Allwright

& Bailey, (1992) also argue that the use of corrective feedback should be delayed to trigger learners' self-repair. While some experimental studies e.g. Carroll, Roberge, & Swain, (1992) found that feedback group outperformed the no-feedback group in acquiring the targeted form under the study.

Lots of studies have been done to investigate the effectiveness of different types of corrective feedback. In this vein, lots of studies have been devoted to recast, as the most frequently used corrective feedback. The results of these surveys Carroll & Swain, (1993; Lyster & Ranta, (1997); Panova & Lyster, (2002) revealed that although recast is the most frequent used corrective feedback, it resulted in the lowest rate of uptake whereas elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests, and repetition of error led to higher rates of uptake. However, application of recasts has its own benefits as Mackey & Philp (1998) reported a positive effect of recasts on the acquisition of question formation in English and suggested that in order for a recast to be effective, learners must have reached a stage of developmental readiness. Han (2002) also identified four conditions that may affect the utility of recasts: (1) individualized attention, (2) consistent linguistic focus, (3) learners' developmental readiness, and (4) intensity of the treatment.

Few studies Kepner, (1991); Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, (1986); Sheppard, (1992) attempted to investigate whether receiving written corrective feedback on the errors improve the accuracy of students' writing and proposed that there was no significant difference in the writing accuracy of the students, though Fathman & Whalley (1990) recognized that fewer grammatical errors were made by students who received error feedback.

Current research has moved from addressing whether corrective feedback actually works for language acquisition to examining what type of corrective feedback strategy works best in classroom settings Ellis, (2009). In this respect, Farrokhi & Sattarpour (2012) claim that “It is not just a question of whether CF is effective but also which type is effective”.

The fact is that it is still unclear which feedback strategy is more effective in classroom settings, that is, the findings are not yet conclusive Ellis, 2010; Farrokhi & Sattarpour, (2012). There is still debate over what types of corrective feedback are more effective Russell & Spada, (2006); Loewen & Erlman, (2006); Loewen & Nabei, (2007); Mackey & Goo, (2007); Bitchener & Knoch, (2009) and, therefore, it is not easy to decide which type of feedback is best for all learners in all contexts. Although there does not actually exist any “ideal corrective feedback recipe”, the fact is that how teachers provide corrective feedback makes the difference. In this respect, considerable disagreement seems to exist over how best to handle corrective feedback and, accordingly, it is not still possible to specify general guidelines for corrective feedback that are appropriate for all instructional contexts (Ellis, 2011).

While feedback on error can be provided in a wide variety of ways, the fact is that learners also perceive and respond to corrective feedback in different ways Lyster, (1999). In this sense, Ellis (2009) makes clear that what is best for one learner in one context will not necessarily be best for the same learner (or another learner) in a different context. Thus, Ellis (2009) and Lyster & Saito (2010) remind us that teachers need to adapt and adjust flexibly a wide variety of corrective

feedback techniques to the particular learner's cognitive and affective needs. As is evident, this does not necessarily mean that they can correct all students in the same way. In fact, feedback on errors should be individualized, even though this evidently involves an enormous challenge for L2 teachers.

What SLA research reveals is that corrective feedback strategy should be non-intrusive and embarrassing to learners. Certainly, the effects of corrective feedback strategies have received a great deal of attention in SLA research Lyster and Ranta, (1997); Iwashita, (2003); Lyster, (2004); Loewen, (2004); Sheen, (2004); Truscott, (2007); Bitchener, (2005); Ellis & Sheen, (2006); Ellis, (2008); Ellis (2009), Farrokhi & Sattarpour, (2012).

Bearing in mind the considerable effort and time devoted to corrective feedback, the fact is that we know so little about it. Differences in opinions are evident in responses to the key issues facing teachers and teacher educators, such as whether corrective feedback contributes to L2 acquisition, which errors to correct, who should do the correcting (the teacher or the learner him/herself), which type of corrective feedback is the most effective, and what is the best timing for corrective feedback -immediate or delayed- Ellis, (2009). In fact, there does not exist a unifying view of corrective feedback in SLA research due mainly to theoretical disputations and different research findings.

Although most SLA research studies suggest evidence of the efficacy of corrective feedback Han (2002); Chandler, (2003); Lyster, (2004); Bitchener, (2005); Sheen, (2007); Bitchener & Knoch, (2009); Hyland & Hyland, (2006) claimed that "it is difficult to draw any clear conclusions and generalizations from

the literature as a result of varied populations, treatments and research designs". Particularly, limitations in the design Guenette, (2007); Bitchener, (2008) and differences in their contexts and in the proficiency level of their participants make it difficult to assess the value of the claims made Farrokhi & Sattarpour, (2012). In short, further research on the emotional damage or impact associated with oral corrective feedback in L2 classrooms is actually needed.

Effectiveness of the corrective written feedback is a really important issue to make students proficient in the foreign languages. Sometimes foreign language instructors become disappointed with students' results and performance in the target language. But it is also true that the methods of providing feedback to the students affect their performance in the target language.

The direct and indirect corrective feedback are the most common methods used by the instructors to respond, comment and correct grammatical errors on students' written works. Direct corrective feedback is provided when the teacher writes the correct form on the student's paper, while indirect feedback is provided when the teacher indicates the location of the error on the paper by underlining, highlighting or circling it without providing the correct form (Lee, 2004).

Several studies have been conducted in this area to know the impact and effectiveness of the direct and indirect feedback on students' writing ability but it is still not possible to adjudge which feedback is the most beneficial and effective for improvement of students' writing skills.

Direct feedback

The teacher provides the student with the correct form (Lalande, 1982 and Robb

et al. 1986). Direct corrective feedback has the advantage that it provides learners with explicit guidance about how to correct their errors. (Rod Ellis). Ferris and Roberts (2001) suggest that direct corrective feedback is probably better than indirect corrective feedback with students having low levels of proficiency in writing.

A recent study by Sheen (2007) indicates that direct corrective feedback can be effective in promoting acquisition of specific grammatical features. Guenette (2007) defines direct feedback that it refers to the teacher's correction of errors. According to Lee (2004), direct or explicit feedback occurs when the teacher picks out errors and gives the correct forms. (Lan Anh, 2008).

There are some types of errors that might prove that direct feedback is better than indirect feedback. For example, if student writes 'I goed to the school' instead of 'I went to the school' and teacher has introduced only the formation of regular past tense verb rules in the class but he has not taught yet irregular past tense verbs. So, in such a situation it is best to provide the direct feedback with explanation of the unknown concept.

Indirect Feedback

The teacher indicates that an error exists but does not provide the correction. Lalande (1982) suggests that indirect feedback is indeed more effective in enabling students to correct their errors but others, for example, Ferris and Roberts' own study found no difference between direct and indirect corrective feedback.

f. METHODOLOGY

Design of the research

Action research in education involves finding out immediate solutions in the teaching-learning environments. According to Burns (2010) the main aim of action research is to identify a problematic situation that the participants consider worth looking into more deeply and systematically. Action research can be undertaken by undergraduate and postgraduate students assisted or guided by professional researchers, with the aim of improving their strategies, practices and knowledge of the surroundings within which they practice.

This action research has as aim to develop the grammatical competence through direct corrective feedback. Action Research will allow the teacher candidate become a participant to study aspects in the problematic situation, analyze and reflect on the results that will be derived from the application of direct corrective feedback learning strategy to improve the grammatical competence in the English Foreign Language amongst ninth-grade students at La Dolorosa high school during the school year 2016-2017.

Action Research assists the teacher candidate, who is the researcher conducting this investigation, to find immediate solution to the issue of grammatical competence in which the students have showed some problems on grammar due to the lack of implementation of a feedback learning strategy such as the use of direct corrective feedback.

Methods, techniques and instruments

Methods

In this research work the researcher will use different methods which will help her to carry out this project. The following general methods will be applied along the descriptive research:

The analytic/ synthetic method will help the researcher to analyze all the information found through of the observation checklist, questionnaires and the pre and post-test, and then to make the interpretation and logical analysis of the data and to draw up the conclusions.

The statistic method through which the researcher will collect and analyze all the answers which will be represent in graphics to indicate the percentages and results got in the questionnaires, checklist and tests applied to students to then give a quantitative and qualitative analysis and interpretation according to the theoretical reference and draw up the respective conclusions.

The Scientific method will facilitate the study of the direct corrective feedback learning strategy to improve the basic grammatical skills in English Foreign Language. It will help the researcher to develop the phases in the observations before and during the intervention. This method will also assist during the prediction of the possible solution; it will assist with gathering data to make relevant predictions and the analysis of it.

The Descriptive method will enable to describe the different stages of the study and the kind of resources used by the researcher. It will serve to explain and analyze the object of the investigation.

Techniques and instruments

Data collection

Since this work is an action research, elements of both quantitative and qualitative research will be selected for data collection. Quantitative research considers variables and statistics whereas qualitative research considers an understanding of words and action. Qualitative and quantitative instruments are self-developed by the researcher considering the principles of question construction. The researcher will gather the necessary information from paper and pencil methods (tests) which are quantitative and qualitative data instruments will come from questionnaires and observations sheets.

Tests: The test will allow students to perform cognitive tasks in relation to the basic grammatical skills. Therefore, tests will yield a numerical score by which the researcher will calculate the mean to compare the pre and post-test result.

Pretest- Posttest will be given at the beginning and at the end of the intervention plan; at the beginning it will be given to measure the performance grammatical skills that students have; and, at the end to measure the performance of the grammatical skills achieved by the students after the intervention plan designed in this research project with the activities applied with the direct corrective feedback learning strategy in order to make a pretest-posttest comparison of the cognitive dimension of the performance of grammatical skills of the participants (ninth-grade students at La Dolorosa high school) being treated.

Questionnaires will be given to the participants to answer questions related to their attitudes and feelings toward the direct corrective feedback learning strategy. A pre

and posttest questionnaire will be given to make a comparison between the results. Furthermore, the data collected by the questionnaires will support the test results. **Observation** will let the researcher to know the facts in a participative and non-participative way. The observation will be developed through an observation sheet and a field note sheet. The observation will be during a natural environment as lived by the ninth-grade students at La Dolorosa high school during their English classes. There will be two types of observation as detailed below.

Nonparticipant observation *in nonparticipant observation*, the researcher is not involved in the situation being observed. The researcher observes and records behaviors but does not interact or participate in the setting under study. The objective of this nonparticipant observation is to identify the issue for this action research project which will be supported through the participant observation (Gay, Mills, Airasian, 2012). The instrument for the nonparticipant observation is the observation sheet.

Observation sheet. During the nonparticipant observation, the researcher will need an observation sheet to record the participants' behaviors shown on the performance of the grammatical competence. This observation sheet is a self-developed instrument that describes accurately and comprehensively the indicators all the relevant aspects of the dependent variable.

Participant observation. In the participant observation, the researcher will become a part and a participant in the situation being observed. The researcher will participate deliberately in the problematic situation by means of the direct corrective feedback learning strategy in order to improve the basic grammatical

skills amongst the ninth-grade students at La Dolorosa high school during the 2016- 2017. The instrument of this participant observation is the field note sheet.

Field notes. The researcher will record a description of the events, activities, and people (e.g., what happened). The researcher will record the participants' behaviors, attitudes and feelings toward the treatment to improve the grammatical competence (the issue), that is the direct corrective feedback learning strategy.

Pilot Testing the questions once the questions for both the test (pre and post) and questionnaire (pre and post) have been developed under the principles of question construction, the researcher will test the questions in order to evaluate the instruments and to make the necessary changes based on the feedback from a small number of individuals who will evaluate the instruments. Because the pilot group will provide feedback on the questionnaire or test, the researcher will exclude them from the final sample or population for the study.

Participants

The participants of this research work are the ninth-year students at “La Dolorosa” high school who are all about thirteen to fourteen years old; they are thirty – seven students, all of them boys and the teacher candidate of this study who is going to take part in the intervention plan.

Intervention plan description

The intervention plan is designed based on a lesson plan model that contains three stages: Activation (before), Connection (during), and Affirmation (after) (Herrera, Holmes, & Kavimandan, 2011). These lesson plans will cover 40 hours of instruction in 8 consecutive weeks of treatment.

Activation

In the Activation phase, the teacher uses activities that have been designed to access to the topic and key vocabulary of the lesson. During the Activation phase, the teacher primarily performs the role of an observer. Students have opportunities to apply their knowledge through games, reviewing the last class, answering questions or giving opinions. The importance of activating this existing knowledge is well documented (Herrera, Murry, & Cabral, 2007).

Connection

In the Connection phase, the teacher serves as a facilitator for student learning. The teacher promotes the engagement of students and supports their retention of new material by highlighting connections between the content and background knowledge. (Herrera, Kavimandan, & Holmes, 2011). The Connection phase allows students to confirm or disconfirm predictions about the topic, concepts, and key vocabulary that were made in the activation phase. During this phase, students interpret, question, analyze, discuss, evaluate, synthesize, and create. It will be done through personalizing, questioning, analyzing and discussing the grammatical structure.

Affirmation

In this phase, the teacher uses authentic assessment (Diaz- Rico & Weed, 2006) to document student progress. The teacher supports students in recognizing ways in which their background knowledge provided a foundation for their construction of new learning and understanding. This phase will be done by creating their own grammatical skills completing their workbook and exercises in their student books.

Week 1

RESEARCH PROBLEM	How does direct corrective feedback develop the grammatical competence among Ninth-A year students at La Dolorosa high school during 2016 - 2017 school year?
GOALS	By the end of this intervention plan, students will be able to communicate producing distinctive grammatical structures such as declarative sentences, interrogatives in order to use them effectively in communication.
LEARNING OBJECTIVES	By the end of this lesson students will be able: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Describe people’s personality. ▪ Talk about lifestyles and free time activities. ▪ Express likes and dislikes.
CONTENTS	<p>UNIT 1. My family and me. Pages 10-13</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Personal Information ▪ Routines ▪ Free Time Activities ▪ Vocabulary Words related to personality and free time activities ▪ Grammar Simple Present tense with the verbs to be, love, like and prefer
INSTRUCTIONAL FOCUS	<p>Activation: Warm up. (5 min) Ask students to describe the pictures on page 9. Ask a couple of questions like: How many people are there? How old are they? What are they doing? Do you like karaoke? Do you like to cook? Do you like soccer? and so forth. Write their answers on the board.</p> <p>Connection: (30 min) Match the antonyms. Use the glossary if necessary. Before tackling the exercise, scramble the letters of the ten adjectives and write them on the board. Have students unscramble and spell them. Listen and complete the descriptions. Prepare students for the reading and listening exercise by helping them focus their attention on the Useful Expressions. Give them additional examples like: She is relaxed / She is a relaxed person. Complete the survey with the verbs in the Word Bank. Then, answer it by selecting one option. Ask students to raise their hands if these questions address their personalities: Are you a hobbyist?</p>

	<p>Are you quiet? Are you energetic? Are you artistic? Now, focus students' attention to the Word Bank by asking them to read each word after you to practice pronunciation. Encourage some volunteers to come up to the board and draw a picture representing each verb. After that, invite students to work on the survey.</p> <p>To help students internalize the newly learned vocabulary, divide the class into two big teams and give each one 25 small white pieces of paper. Ask each team to write 10 vowels and 15 consonants on the back of the papers. Encourage them to form as many verbs as they can with the letters they have and invite them to stick them on the board.</p> <p>Ask for a volunteer to read the instructions. Focus students' attention on the photograph and encourage them to speculate about their ages, origins and professions. Let students know the importance of using imagery to predict both the topic and the content of a text/reading passage. Emphasize that a topic is a subject, an issue or a matter that people write, study or discuss. For example, if we talk about rap, pop and reggae, then the topic is music</p> <p>Affirming: (5 minutes)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teacher asks questions randomly. Students answer orally. ▪ Students have to complete their workbook exercises 1-2.
<p>CLASSROOM RESOURCES</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teachers' guide ▪ Student's notebook ▪ Student's book. ▪ Student's workbook. ▪ Board, markers. ▪ Cd player. ▪ Class audio Cd.
<p>DATA COLLECTION SOURCES</p>	<p>Data source 1: pretest Data source 2: pre-questionnaire Data source 3: field notes</p>
<p>SUPPORT</p>	<p>Coaching and guidance from our thesis advisor</p>
<p>TIME</p>	<p>Week 1: October 10-14</p>

Adapted from D'Ann Rawlinson & Mary Little. (2004). Improving Student Learning through Classroom Action Research. Daytona Beach. Project CENTRAL.
Herrera, S., Holmes, M. & Kavimandan, S. (2011). Crossing the vocabulary bridge. New York: Teacher college press.

Week 2

RESEARCH PROBLEM	How does direct corrective feedback develop the grammatical competence among Ninth-A year students at La Dolorosa high school during 2016 - 2017 school year?
GOALS	By the end of this intervention plan, students will be able to communicate producing distinctive grammatical structures such as declarative sentences and interrogatives in order to use them effectively in communication.
LEARNING OBJECTIVES	By the end of this lesson students will be able: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Describe people’s personality. ▪ Talk about lifestyles and free time activities. ▪ Express likes and dislikes
CONTENTS	UNIT 1. My family and me. Pages 14-17 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Words related to personality and free time activities. ▪ Simple Present tense with the verbs to be, love, like and prefer.
INSTRUCTIONAL FOCUS	<p>Activation: Warm up. (5 min) Before students arrive to class, hide magazines cutouts of people carrying out actions related to the vocabulary from exercise 1 like: watching TV, doing housework, talking on the phone, working on the computer, watching movies, As soon as they show up, distribute pieces of paper with these activities written on them among students. Then, ask them to stick the magazine cutouts on the board and label them with the matching cards.</p> <p>Connection: (30 min)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Cover the dialogue and listen the audio, then ask for the students to complete the activity A. ▪ Elicit the meaning of each expression or the situation in which it is used. Play the audio, pausing for students to repeat. Encourage students to mimic the intonation. ▪ Complete the conversations. Use the expressions from the previous exercise. ▪ Divide the class into two groups, A and B. Tell them they will take part in a competition. With their books closed, assign a conversation to each team.

	<p>Remind them to read the corresponding conversation as quickly as possible to label the kind of person it describes. Likewise, tell them to shout</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Check the answers and congratulate the winners. ▪ Read the grammar chart aloud and have students repeat the example questions and statements after you. ▪ Have students work individually to complete the exercise. Check orally. ▪ Use the board to elicit other key points about the grammar chart, such as the sentence structures for statements, Yes/No questions, and information questions. ▪ Read the direction aloud. Then read the activity verbs aloud and have students pronounce each after you. Depending on students' abilities and level, you may want to teach some of the new vocabulary at this point, or you may want to wait and let students guess the meanings of the terms as they complete the exercise. ▪ Teacher must use direct corrective feedback by writing the correct forms in the place of the errors. ▪ Play the audio. Have students listen and repeat once more, then take turns practicing the questions and answer. ▪ Tell students to stand and interview classmates to find a student who can do each activity. Tell them they need to write one name in the blank next to the activity. Model with several students if helpful. <p>Affirming:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Assign students an A and B letter so that they get into in pairs. Tell them that they will work on a Gap Activity by asking appropriate questions and writing it down in the spaces given.
<p>CLASSROOM RESOURCES</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teachers' guide ▪ Student's notebook ▪ Student's book. ▪ Student's workbook. ▪ Board, markers. ▪ Cd player. ▪ Class audio Cd.

DATA COLLECTION SOURCES	Data source 1: Field notes.
SUPPORT	Coaching and guidance from our thesis advisor
TIME	Week 2: October 17 - 21

Adapted from D'Ann Rawlinson & Mary Little. (2004). Improving Student Learning through Classroom Action Research. Daytona Beach. Project CENTRAL.

Herrera, S., Holmes, M. & Kavimandan, S. (2011). Crossing the vocabulary bridge. New York: Teacher college press.

Week 3

RESEARCH PROBLEM	How does direct corrective feedback develop the grammatical competence among Ninth-A year students at La Dolorosa high school during 2016 - 2017 school year?
GOALS	By the end of this intervention plan, students will be able to communicate producing distinctive grammatical structures such as declarative sentences, interrogatives in order to use them effectively in communication.
LEARNING OBJECTIVES	<p>By the end of this lesson students will be able:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Identifies people’s customs from around the world. ▪ Recognizes nationalities, greetings, clothing, food, and celebrations from diverse cultures. ▪ Distinguishes between people’s habitual actions, routines and temporary actions that are marked with time expressions.
CONTENTS	<p>UNIT 2. Cultures around the world Pages 22-24</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Greetings ▪ Clothes ▪ Food ▪ Celebrations and Holidays ▪ Grammar Simple Present Tense with adverbs of frequency. Present Progressive.
INSTRUCTIONAL FOCUS	<p>Activation: Warm up. (5 min)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ask students if they know any greetings that people use in other parts of the world. Write on the board the greetings they mention. Draw a table with two columns and fill it with the rest of greetings by mimicking, naming and writing them on the board. <p>Connection: (30 min)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Complete the text with the corresponding country. Use the Word Bank. Then, listen and check. To promote the interpersonal, linguistic and visual-spatial intelligences, invite students to work in pairs to take part in a swift contest. Ask them to identify the picture that shows: A church, utensils people use to eat, a special celebration, a present or a gift, greeting,

	<p>and special clothes or clothing. Then, ask students: Do you go to church? When do you go to church? What utensils do you use to eat? Do you celebrate Christmas Eve and New Year? What do you do on New Year's Eve?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Invite students to follow the example given on the board to write their own sentences about a celebration they know of, making use of the adverbs of frequency and other time expressions. ▪ Bring in some pictures in which people from different cultures are celebrating with temporary actions and stick them on the board. ▪ Tell them you will point at the picture and dictate some sentences for completion ▪ Draw students' attention to the example given in Andres and Nicole's conversation, by calling on two volunteers to read the short dialogue. ▪ <p>Affirming:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Students have to make sentences describing different things that their classmates are doing in the moment.
CLASSROOM RESOURCES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teachers' guide ▪ Student's notebook ▪ Student's book. ▪ Student's workbook. ▪ Board, markers. ▪ Cd player. ▪ Class audio Cd.
DATA COLLECTION SOURCES	Data source 1: Field notes.
SUPPORT	Coaching and guidance from our thesis advisor.
TIME	Week 3: October 24 - 28

Adapted from D'Ann Rawlinson & Mary Little. (2004). Improving Student Learning through Classroom Action Research. Daytona Beach. Project CENTRAL.

Herrera, S., Holmes, M. & Kavimandan, S. (2011). Crossing the vocabulary bridge. New York: Teacher college press.

Week 4

RESEARCH PROBLEM	How does direct corrective feedback develop the grammatical competence among Ninth-A year students at La Dolorosa high school during 2016 - 2017 school year?
GOALS	By the end of this intervention plan, students will be able to communicate producing distinctive grammatical structures such as declarative sentences, interrogatives in order to use them effectively in communication.
LEARNING OBJECTIVES	By the end of this lesson students will be able: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Talk about how often they do things. ▪ Practice inserting the adverbs of frequency in sentences. ▪ Plan their weekly and daily activities.
CONTENTS	UNIT 2. Cultures around the world Pages 25 – 28 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Simple present tense ▪ How often? Positions of frequency adverbs. ▪ Daily routines.
INSTRUCTIONAL FOCUS	<p>Activation: Warm up. (5 min) Show flashcards of people doing typical everyday activities, such as brushing their teeth, eating breakfast, getting on a bus go to school. Then have students open their books and look at the picture. Ask questions to help students create a context for the reading passages: Who do you see in the picture? Where is Brian? Is it morning or evening?</p> <p>Connection: (30 min)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Have students read the directions and then work individually to complete the exercise. Check the answers orally. ▪ Tell students to write short answers to the questions. You may want to ask students to challenge themselves by answering the questions in this exercise without looking back at the text. ▪ Ask students if they could guess the meanings of some of the new vocabulary. Ask which words were new to them. ▪ Read the instructions aloud. Then read the labels on the pictures and have students say them after you. Point out that either eat or have can be used to talk about meals and snacks. ▪ As a model, call on a student to tell the class what he or she does first, second, and third. Then have student work individually

	<p>to number the activities. Number the pictures to match their own routine in preparation for Exercise B.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Direct students' attention to the grammar chart. Call on students to read the sequence aloud. Make sure students understand that first and finally come at the beginning and the end of the sequence, but that then, after that, and next are interchangeable. ▪ Have student look at the graph in the grammar chart. Tell them that the words on the left are adverbs of frequency; that is, words that tell us how often something is done or how often something happens. Read each adverb aloud and have the class repeat. ▪ Read the instructions aloud and elicit the answers to the first two items. Then have students work in pairs to take turns reading their sentences aloud. ▪ Teacher must use direct corrective feedback by writing the correct forms in the place of the errors. <p>Affirming: (10 minutes) Students have to plan their daily activities.</p>
CLASSROOM RESOURCES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teachers' guide ▪ Student's notebook ▪ Student's book. ▪ Student's workbook. ▪ Board, markers. ▪ Cd player. ▪ Class audio Cd.
DATA COLLECTION SOURCES	Data source 1: Field notes
SUPPORT	Coaching and guidance from our thesis advisor
TIME	Week 4: October 31 – November 04

Adapted from D'Ann Rawlinson & Mary Little. (2004). Improving Student Learning through Classroom Action Research. Daytona Beach. Project CENTRAL.

Herrera, S., Holmes, M. & Kavimandan, S. (2011). Crossing the vocabulary bridge. New York: Teacher college press.

Week 5

RESEARCH PROBLEM	How does direct corrective feedback develop the grammatical competence among Ninth-A year students at La Dolorosa high school during 2016 - 2017 school year?
GOALS	By the end of this intervention plan, students will be able to communicate producing distinctive grammatical structures such as declarative sentences, interrogatives in order to use them effectively in communication.
LEARNING OBJECTIVES	By the end of this lesson students will be able: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Talk about the frequency of routines or daily activities. ▪ Describe their typical day.
CONTENTS	UNIT 3: Amazing abilities Pages: 36– 38 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Simple present tense ▪ Adverbs of frequency: always, usually, often, sometimes, rarely, seldom, never ▪ Daily routines
INSTRUCTIONAL FOCUS	Activation: Warm up. (5 min) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teacher shows flash cards about how often activities or routines people do daily. ▪ Students role play a short dialogue about what the students do weekly. ▪ Teacher writes about daily routines on the board. Connection: (30 min) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teacher will review useful connectors such as: first, then, after that, next and after that and finally. ▪ Students will answer teacher’s questions: How often does the student do several activities using the connectors. ▪ Students will complete a chart. (Page. 18). Then in pairs, they have to write a short paragraph about their partners’ daily routines. ▪ Students will think about a famous person that they like to interview, students have to write some questions using frequency adverbs. ▪ Teacher must use direct corrective feedback by writing the correct forms in the place of the errors. ▪ Students will complete some questions of a bar graph about their typical day: How

	<p>many hours do they sleep on weekend? pag19.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Students will complete the bar graph of their typical school day, pag.19 ▪ Students will discuss their bar graph with a partner. ▪ Students will listen to the description of a typical day and then complete the chart, pag.20 <p>Students will listen and complete the information about Dory's routine.</p> <p>Affirming: (10 minutes)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Students will write a short paragraph about their typical day or week.
CLASSROOM RESOURCES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teachers' guide ▪ Student's notebook ▪ Student's book. ▪ Student's workbook. ▪ Board, markers. ▪ Cd player. ▪ Class audio Cd.
DATA COLLECTION SOURCES	Data source 1: Field notes
SUPPORT	Coaching and guidance from our thesis advisor
TIME	Week 5: November 07 - 11

Adapted from D'Ann Rawlinson & Mary Little. (2004). Improving Student Learning through Classroom Action Research. Daytona Beach. Project CENTRAL.
Herrera, S., Holmes, M. & Kavimandan, S. (2011). Crossing the vocabulary bridge. New York: Teacher college press.

Week 6

RESEARCH PROBLEM	How does direct corrective feedback develop the grammatical competence among Ninth-A year students at La Dolorosa high school during 2016 - 2017 school year?
GOALS	By the end of this intervention plan, students will be able to communicate producing distinctive grammatical structures such as declarative sentences, interrogatives in order to use them effectively in communication.
LEARNING OBJECTIVES	By the end of this lesson students will be able: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ask and answer about favorite leisure and introduce them by using informal greetings. ▪ Talk about their daily routine. ▪ Express preferences using their information.
CONTENTS	UNIT 3: Amazing abilities Pages: 39 - 41 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Simple present tense ▪ How often? Preposition of frequency adverbs ▪ Daily routines
INSTRUCTIONAL FOCUS	<p>Activation: Warm up. (5 min)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The teacher presents the test to evaluate knowledge - grammar. ▪ The teacher presents the first's project a snapshot of a class classmate about daily routine. ▪ The researcher tells students that for this project they will work with a partner. <p>Connection: (30 min)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The teacher gives to the students the instruction about the unit test and the learners develop it. ▪ The teacher divides the class in groups and explains the tasks; the students will interview each other about their leisure activities. ▪ The teacher monitors students and finally, the researcher will give students a clear explanation and clarify all questions. ▪ Teacher must use direct corrective feedback by writing the correct forms in the place of the errors. <p>Affirming: (10 minutes) Students will present in front of the class their activity and tell what happen in their favorite leisure.</p>

CLASSROOM RESOURCES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teachers' guide ▪ Student's notebook ▪ Student's book. ▪ Student's workbook. ▪ Board, markers. ▪ Cd player. ▪ Class audio Cd.
DATA COLLECTION SOURCES	Data source 1: Field notes Data source 2: Test unit 1
SUPPORT	Coaching and guidance from our thesis advisor
TIME	Week 6: November 14 - 18

Adapted from D'Ann Rawlinson & Mary Little. (2004). Improving Student Learning through Classroom Action Research. Daytona Beach. Project CENTRAL.

Herrera, S., Holmes, M. & Kavimandan, S. (2011). Crossing the vocabulary bridge. New York: Teacher college press.

Week 7

RESEARCH PROBLEM	How does direct corrective feedback develop the grammatical competence among Ninth-A year students at La Dolorosa high school during 2016 - 2017 school year?
GOALS	By the end of this intervention plan, students will be able to communicate producing distinctive grammatical structures such as declarative sentences, interrogatives in order to use them effectively in communication.
LEARNING OBJECTIVES	By the end of this lesson students will be able: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Talk about abilities. ▪ Compare people’s attributes and abilities. ▪ Express opinions. ▪ Talented People Vocabulary
CONTENTS	UNIT 3. Amazing Abilities <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Words related to multiple intelligences ▪ Adjectives related to physical description ▪ Grammar ▪ Modal verb Can ▪ Comparative and Superlative Adjectives
INSTRUCTIONAL FOCUS	<p>Activation: Warm up. (5 min)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Write the word Intelligences right in the middle of the board. Around of the board make a list of these words (making sure you mix them up): songs, music, piano, melodies, radio, rhythm, words, poems, stories, speak, novels, languages, dance, act, mimic, sporty, athletic, body movements, paint, draw, decorate, architecture, pictures, photographs, calculations, numbers, experiments, logic, strategy, science, interact, outgoing, speak in public, sociable, relationships. Make students realize that these words are all related to people’s multiple intelligences and that everybody develops. Divide the class in two groups. Ask them to associate the words with the intelligences by classifying them according to the intelligence on a piece of paper. <p>Connection: (30 min)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Prepare the students to listen by calling on two volunteers to read the Listening Strategies I and II. Make them realize that details or specific information help us make inferences (something that is not

	<p>mentioned directly, but we are given hints to understand what is written between the lines. E.g. You are good with numbers and words. = It means that you have the mathematical and the verbal intelligences. As students are already aware of the two tasks, focus the students 'attention on the Reflect on Grammar 2 on page 37 and for the time being let them know that we use can to express ability. Model by saying: We can speak Spanish. You can sing songs. Invite them to work individually.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ As students are already prepared to handle the affirmative and negative forms of the verb can, have them immediately complete the sentences. Then, center students' attention to the word order for the interrogative form of the verb can to ask about people's abilities. Ask additional questions relevant to the students' real life like: Can you play soccer/basketball? Can you read quickly? Can you dance? Can you jump high? and the sort. Write complete questions and answers on the board. Finally, have students work in pairs to ask each other questions about their abilities. <p>Affirming: (10 minutes)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Students have two write three affirmative sentences and change them into negative and interrogative. ▪ Teacher must use direct corrective feedback by writing the correct forms.
CLASSROOM RESOURCES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teachers' guide ▪ Student's notebook ▪ Student's book. ▪ Student's workbook. ▪ Board, markers. ▪ Cd player. ▪ Class audio Cd.
DATA COLLECTION SOURCES	<p>Data source 1: Field notes Data source 2: Test unit 2</p>
SUPPORT	Coaching and guidance from our thesis advisor
TIME	Week 7: November 21 - 25

Adapted from D'Ann Rawlinson & Mary Little. (2004). Improving Student Learning through Classroom Action Research. Daytona Beach. Project CENTRAL.
Herrera, S., Holmes, M. & Kavimandan, S. (2011). Crossing the vocabulary bridge. New York: Teacher college press.

Week 8

RESEARCH PROBLEM	How does direct corrective feedback develop the grammatical competence among Ninth-A year students at La Dolorosa high school during 2016 - 2017 school year?
GOALS	By the end of this intervention plan, students will be able to communicate producing distinctive grammatical structures such as declarative sentences and interrogatives in order to use them effectively in communication.
LEARNING OBJECTIVES	By the end of this lesson students will be able: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Compares people’s attributes abilities. ▪ Expresses personal opinions about people’s attributes and abilities.
CONTENTS	UNIT 3. Amazing Abilities <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Adjectives related to physical description ▪ Modal verb Can ▪ Comparative and Superlative adjectives
INSTRUCTIONAL FOCUS	<p>Activation: Warm up. (5 min) Look for some radio or TV news clips about sportsmen like Rafael Nadal, Ussain Bolt and Asafa Powell or Tyson Gay. Ask students: Why are they unique? Why are they famous for? Where are they from? How old are they? and so on. Elicit as much information as you can and write it down on the board. Finally, praise them for their contributions.</p> <p>Connection: (30 min)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teacher divides the students into groups of four and on the teacher’s signal, each group should write as many comparative and superlative statements about the people in the room as they can. At the end of the time period, have one group share their sentences. If another group has the same sentence as the first group, both groups should cross that statement off their list. Continue until all groups have read all of their statements and any duplicates are eliminated. The group with the most statements remaining wins. ▪ On page 40. Have students look at the grammar chart. Call on students to read each section aloud. ▪ Have students work individually to complete grammar on page 40 exercise 4. Check answers orally. ▪ Use the board to explain other key points about the grammar chart, such as the use

	<p>comparative and superlative adjectives and how to use them in a sentence.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Have students work individually in their workbooks and write their sentences. Walk around and monitor as they write; look for common errors in the sentences, such as comparatives and superlatives adjectives. ▪ Teacher must use direct corrective feedback by writing the correct forms in the place of the errors. ▪ On page 41. Read the instructions aloud. Allow students a minute to look at the pictures and complete the missing words in a sentence on the example 5 remember as many superlatives as they can. ▪ In pairs, student A has to look at his map and ask three questions about the places on the map. Student B answer the questions. Then change rolls. ▪ On page 41. Read the instructions aloud and then go over the useful language with the class. On the board write What can you do ____? You can ____ Give some examples such as What can you do at the zoo? You can see lions and bears. ▪ Students have to complete the grammar exercises of the page. <p>Affirming: (15 minutes) Have students to complete workbook Exercises 9-13 and grammar Builder Exercises 4-5</p>
CLASSROOM RESOURCES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teachers' guide ▪ Student's notebook ▪ Student's book. ▪ Student's workbook. ▪ Board, markers. ▪ Cd player. ▪ Class audio Cd.
DATA COLLECTION SOURCES	<p>Data source 1: posttest. Data source 2: postquestionnaire. Data source 3: Field notes.</p>
SUPPORT	Coaching and guidance from our thesis advisor
TIME	Week 8: November 28 – December 02

Adapted from D'Ann Rawlinson & Mary Little. (2004). Improving Student Learning through Classroom Action Research. Daytona Beach. Project CENTRAL. Herrera, S., Holmes, M. & Kavimandan, S. (2011). Crossing the vocabulary bridge. New York: Teacher college press.

ORGANIZATIONAL AND MANAGEMENT OF THE RESEARCH

Human

- The researcher
- The 9th year of Basic Education
- The teacher
- The thesis advisor

Material

- Book
- Scripts
- Paper
- Tape
- Cardboard and flash card

Technical

- Computer
- Projector
- Printer
- Internet
- CD player

h. BUDGET AND FINANCING

Budget

RESOURCES	COST
Internet connection	\$140.00
Print of reports	\$ 80.00
Print of the project	\$ 50.00
Print of the report and thesis	\$200.00
Unexpected expenses	\$150.00
Total	\$620.00

Financing

The financing of the expenses derived from the present research work will be assumed by the research author. All expenses related to the present work will be assumed entirely by the researcher conducting the investigation.

i. BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Andersen, S., & Spring. (2014). sentence types and function. San José State University Writing Center.
- Anderson, J. R., & Pelletier, R. (1995). Cognitive tutors: Lessons learned. *Journal of the Learning*, 4, 167-207. Anderson. (1990).
- Anderson, & Stephen, R. (1992). *Amorphous Morphology*. Cambridge: University Press.
- Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bachman, L., & Palmer, A. (1996). *Language testing in Practice; Designing and Developing Useful Language Tests*. Oxford. OUP.
- Bitchener, J. & Knoch, U. (2008). The value of written corrective feedback for migrant and international students. *Language teaching research*, 2008. journals.sagepub.com
- Bitchener, J., Young, S., & Cameron, D. (2005), *The effect of different types of corrective feedback on ESL student writing*. *Journal of Second Language Writing*. Volume 14.
- Boud, & Associates. (2010). *Assessment 2020. Seven propositions for assessment reform in higher education*.
- Boud, D. (1988). *Moving towards autonomy. Developing Student Autonomy in Learning*. London: Kogan Page.
- Brinton, D. (2010). *Teaching Pronunciation Hardback with Audio CDs*. Cambridge University Press, 16 abr. 2010.
- Brown. (1997). *Assessing Student Learning in Higher Education*. Routledge.
- Cantor, J. (2008). *Delivering Instruction to Adult Learners (3rd ed.)*. Toronto: Wall & Emerson.
- Canale, M. (1983). *From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy*. In J. C. Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.). *Language and communication*. New York: Longman.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). *Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. Applied Linguistics*. Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Cathcart, R. L. & Olsen, J. E. (1976). *Teachers' and students' preferences for correction of classroom conversation errors*. In Fanselow, John F. and Crymes, Ruth H. (Eds.), *On TESOL '76*. 41–53. Washington: TESOL.
- Chandler, J. (2003). The efficacy of various kinds of error feedback for improvement in the accuracy and fluency. *Journal of second Language Writing*, 267-296.
- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge, Mass.: M.I.T. Press
- Coady, J., & Huckins, T. (1997). *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Connor, W. R. (1993). Liberal Arts in Education in the Twenty-First Century. *AALÉ Occasional Papers in Liberal Arts #2*.
- Costello, J., & Crane, D. (2009). *Providing learner-centered feedback using a variety of technologies*. St. John's, Newfoundland.
- Cotter, C. (2009). *Better Language Teaching*. London: Chris Cotter.
- Croft, W. (2001). *Radical Construction Grammar: Syntactic Theory in Typological Perspective*. Oxford University Press.
- Díaz-Rico, L., & Weed, K. Z. (2010). *The crosscultural, language, and academic development handbook: A complete K-12 reference guide*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Driscoll, D. (8 de October de 2012). *Parallel structure: Purdue Online Writing Lab*. Obtenido de <http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/623/01/>
- Doff, A. (1990). *Teach English: A training course for teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press in association with the british council.
- Doughty, C. (2001). *Cognitive underpinnings of focus on form*. In Robinson, P. (Ed.), *Cognition and Second Language Instruction* (pp. 206-257). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Eastwood, J. (1994). *Oxford guide to English grammar*. Oxford University Press. Walton Street.
- Ellis, R. (1997). *SLA Research and language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. .
- English, T. L. (2003).
- Ellis, R. (2006). Current issues in the teaching of grammar. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(1): 83-107.
- Europe, C. o. (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Fazio, L. (2001). The effect of corrections and commentaries on the journal writing accuracy of minority -and majority-language. *Journal of second language writing*, 235-249.
- Ferris, D. (2006). *Feedback in Second Language*. Cambridge: Does error feedback help student writers? New evidence on short- and long-term.
- Ferris, D. R., & Roberts, B. (2001). *Journal of Second Language Writing*. Error feedback in L2 writing classes: How explicit does it need to be?
- Furneaux, C. (1999). 'Reviews', *ELT Journal* 53(1).
- Gao, C. Z. (2001). *Second language learning and the teaching of grammar*. Education.
- Guénette, D. (2007). Is feedback pedagogical correct? Research design issues in studies of feedback on writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 16, 40–53.
- Harmer, J. (2011). Mistakes and feedback. In *The practice of English language teaching* (7th ed., pp. 137-138). Cambridge: Pearson Longman.

- Havranek, G. (2003). When is corrective feedback most likely to succeed? *International Journal of Educational Research*, 255-270.
- Hedge, T. (2002). *Teaching and learning in the language classroom*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Hedge, T. (2002). *Teaching and learning in the language classroom*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Herrera, S. G., Kavimandan, S. K., & Holmes, M. A. (2011). *Crossing the vocabulary bridge: Differentiated strategies for diverse secondary classrooms*. New York, NY: Teacher College Press.
- James, D. (1998). *Systematic review of the literature on assessment, feedback and physicians' clinical performance*. journals.sagepub.com
- Jokar, M. & Soyooof, A. (2013). *The Influence of Written Corrective Feedback on Two Iranian Learners' Grammatical Accuracy*. International Conference on Current Trends in ELT.
- Kierzek, M. & Gibson, W. (1965). *The Macmillan Handbook of English*. New York: Macmillan.
- Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. London: Longman.
- Lalande, J. F. (1982). *Reducing composition errors: An experiment*. *Modern Language Journal*, 140-149.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2001). Language Emergence: Implications for Applied Linguistics: *Introduction to the Special Issue, Applied Linguistics*, Volume 27.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2001). Teaching grammar. *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* (pp. 251-266). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Lee, I. (2008). *Student reactions to teacher feedback in two Hong Kong secondary classrooms*. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 2008. Elsevier.
- Loewen, E. & Ellis, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in second language acquisition, 2006* - cambridge.org
- Lunsford, A. L. (2008). "Errors are a fact of life: A national comparative study".
- Lyster, R. & Ranta, L. (1997). *Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms*. *Studies in second language acquisition*, 1997. cambridge.org
- McDonald, R. (1991). 'Developmental students processing of teacher feedback in composition construction'. *Review of Research in Developmental Education*, 3-7.
- McLaughlin, A.C & Kelley, C. M. (2012) *Individual Differences in the Benefits of Feedback for Learning*. *Human factors*, 2012 - journals.sagepub.com
- Mendoza, E. (2005). *Implicit and explicit teaching of grammar: An empirical study*. PROFILE.
- Mohr, D. (2010). *Providing effective feedback in online courses for student learning*. Sloan C Foundation.

- Murrow, S. E. (2002) Charting “Unexplored Territory” in the Social Foundations: *Pedagogical Practice in Urban Teacher Education, Educational Studies*.
- Nassaji, H., & Fotos, S. (2011). *Teaching Grammar in Second Language Classrooms*. London: Routledge.
- Paiva, K. (2011). *Brazilian English as foreign language teachers' beliefs about grammar-based feedback on L2*. Iowa State University, USA.
- Pollock, J.Y. (1989) ‘Verb movement, universal grammar and the structure of IP’.
- Radford, L. (1998). *Journal of Research in Science Teaching: The role of teachers' practical knowledge*. Wiley Online Library.
- Rambo, R. (2012). *Identifying and eliminating common errors in writing: English Composition I*. Obtenido de http://www2.ivcc.edu/rambo/eng1001/eng1001_identifying_errors.htm
- Richards, J. C. (1992). *The language teaching matrix*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Russell, J. Spada, N. (2006). *The effectiveness of corrective feedback for the acquisition of L2 grammar*. Synthesizing research on language, 2006. books.google.com
- Savignon, S. J. (1883). *Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom Practice*. Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Savignon, S. J. (2001). *Communicative language teaching for the twenty-first century*. Boston: MA: Heinle and Heinle.
- Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in language teaching*. Cambridge.
- Schmitt, N. (2002). *Admission control based on packet marking and feedback signalling-mechanisms, implementation and experiments*. Report TR-KOM-2002-03, disco.informatik.uni-kl.de
- Sentence fragments. Purdue Online Writing Lab. (s.f.). Obtenido de <http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/620/1>
- Sesnan, B. (2001). *How to teach English*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Sheen, Y. (2006). Exploring the relationship between characteristics of recasts and learner uptake. *Language Teaching Research* 10, 361-392.
- Sheen, Y. (2007). The effect of focused written corrective feedback and language aptitude on ESL learners’ acquisition of articles. *TESOL Quarterly*, 41, 255- 283.
- Swain, H. (2007). Nip double trouble in the bud. *The Times Higher Education Supplement* 1676 (January 28): 58.
- Tomasello, M & Herron, C. (1989). *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 1989 - cambridge.org.
- Tode, T. (2007). Durability problems with explicit instruction in an EFL context: the learning of the English copula ‘be’ before and after the introduction of the auxiliary ‘be’. *Language Teaching Research* 11, 1, 11-30.

- Truscott, J. (1999). The case for ‘‘the case for grammar correction in L2 writing classes’’.
A response to Ferris. Journal of Second Language Writing, 111-122.
- Van Beuningen, C.G. (2008). The effect of direct and indirect corrective feedback on L2
learners' written accuracy. *ITL International Journal*, 2008 - academia.edu.

OTHERS ANNEXES

Annex 1: Observation sheet



OBSERVATION SHEET GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE

Indicators: Sentence formation

Researcher

Year: Ninth Year of Basic Education (Thirteen- Fourteen years old)

Type of observation. Nonparticipant

Things to be observed		Levels of Acceptability				Remarks
		Perfectly Acceptable	Acceptable	Unacceptable	Totally Unacceptable	
SENTENCE FORMATION	Declarative sentences: Affirmative & Negative.					
	Interrogative questions: Who & Yes/ No questions					
	Subject - Verb Agreement					
	Parts of Speech					

Annex 2: Field notes



UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL DE LOJA
ÁREA DE LA EDUCACIÓN, EL ARTE Y LA COMUNICACIÓN
ENGLISH LANGUAGE DEPARMENT

DATA COLLECTION SOURCE: FIELD NOTES

FIELD NOTES		
Observation #: Topic: Objective of the session:	Date/Time: Class size: Participants: ninth-grade students & The researcher	Role of the researcher: Participant observer Duration of the observation:
Description of the event		Reflective Notes

Annex 3: Pre and Posttest & Scoring Guide (Rubric)



UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL DE LOJA
ÁREA DE LA EDUCACIÓN EL ARTE Y LA COMUNICACIÓN
ENGLISH LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT

DATA COLLECTION SOURCE: PRE-TEST/ POST-TEST

Pre/ Posttest

Data collection source: Test

Researcher: Natali Montaña

Code:

Year: Ninth Year of Basic Education

Date:

1.- Look at the pictures. Write what the boy does every day. (1 point)



Ex: He gets up.



1. _____



2. _____



3. _____



4. _____

2.- Unscramble the questions. Then write a short affirmative or negative answer. (2 points)

Ex: German/ he/ speak / Can /?

a) *Can he speak German?*

b) *(Yes) Yes, he can.*

A. she / Can / piano / the / play /?

a) _____

b) (No) _____

B. board / I / erase / the / Can /?

a) _____

b) (No) _____

C. I / pen / your / Can / use /?

a) _____

b) (Yes) _____

D. Sing / English / Can / they /?

a) _____

b) (Yes) _____

3.- Complete the questions with questions from the box. (2 points)

<p>What do you do on Sundays?</p> <p>What time do you get up?</p> <p>What time do you usually go to bed?</p> <p>What do you usually eat for breakfast?</p> <p>How many hours of TV do you watch each day?</p>

Example: Tim: What do you do on Sundays?

Maria: Nothing much. I usually get up late.

Tim: (1) _____

Maria: Oh, I never get up before 11 a.m.

Tim: (2) _____

Maria: I usually have cereal and orange juice.

Tim: (3) _____

Maria: Not many. About two hours.

Tim: (4) _____

Maria: I usually go to bed at ten.

4.- Complete the chart with the comparative and superlative form of the adjectives. (2 points)

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
slow	slower than	the slowest
strong		
attractive		
good		
fat		

5.- Complete the message. Use the expressions in the box. (2 points)

- How is school going
- I hope you're doing well.
- Talk to you soon,
- Hello

- a. _____ Pete,
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____, Jane

THANKS FOR YOUR COLLABORATION ☺

Annex 4. Pre and Post Questionnaire



**UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL DE LOJA
DATA COLLECTION SOURCE: PRE-POST QUESTIONNAIRE**

Dear student, answer the following questionnaire with sincerity about the English subject. Your answers will be anonymous and confidential.

Student's Code:

Date:.....

Read the following statements and rate them from 1 to 5, 1 standing for “I strongly disagree” and 5 standing for “I strongly agree” with 3 being the neutral rating.

() 1. I feel I have learnt a lot from being corrected immediately.

1 = I strongly disagree	2 = I disagree	3 = I neutral	4 = I agree	5 = I strongly agree
-------------------------	----------------	---------------	-------------	----------------------

() 2. I think that the feedback provided is necessary and helpful.

1 = I strongly disagree	2 = I disagree	3 = I neutral	4 = I agree	5 = I strongly agree
-------------------------	----------------	---------------	-------------	----------------------

() 3. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake that I make in class.

1 = I strongly disagree	2 = I disagree	3 = I neutral	4 = I agree	5 = I strongly agree
-------------------------	----------------	---------------	-------------	----------------------

4. How do you feel when the teacher immediately corrects your mistakes?

- a. I feel angry
- b. I feel sorry
- c. I feel satisfied
- d. I feel nervous

5. What do you think and what do you do after the teacher's immediate correction?

- a. I believe that "I wish I had not more English classes".
- b. I think the reasons why I make mistakes.
- c. I think the teacher is not patient enough to wait for the end of my sentences.
- d. I think "I can learn from my mistakes"

THANKS FOR YOUR COLLABORATION ☺

Annex 5: Research Matrix

Theme. The development of grammatical competence through direct corrective feedback among ninth-A year students at La Dolorosa high school of the City of Loja during the school year 2016-2017.

Problem	Objectives	Theoretical frame	Methodological design (Action Research)	Techniques and instruments
<p>General How does the direct corrective feedback develop the grammatical among ninth- A year students at La Dolorosa high school of the City of Loja during the 2016-2017 School Year?</p> <p>Specific</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What theoretical and methodological references about the direct corrective feedback as strategy are adequate for improving grammatical competence among Ninth-A year students at La Dolorosa high school of the City of Loja during the 2016-2017 School Year? • What are the issues that limit the development of the grammatical among Ninth-A year students at La Dolorosa high school of the City of Loja during the 2016-2017 School Year? • What are the phases of the intervention plan that help the current issues to achieve a satisfactory outcome on developing the grammatical competence among Ninth-A year students at La Dolorosa high school of the City of Loja during the 2016-2017 School Year? 	<p>General</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To improve the grammatical competence through the direct corrective feedback among Ninth-A year students at La Dolorosa high school of the City of Loja during the 2016-2017 School Year. <p>Specific</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To research the theoretical and methodological references about the direct corrective feedback and its application on the grammatical competence. • To diagnose the issues that limit the development of the grammatical competence among Ninth-A year students at La Dolorosa high school of the City of Loja during the 2016-2017 School Year 	<p>Dependent variable</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grammatical Competence • Sentence Formation (Declarative sentences: Affirmative & Negative. Interrogative questions: Who & Yes/ No questions. Subject - Verb-Agreement. Part of speech. <p>Independent variable</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Feedback and English • Foreign Language teaching. • Principles and strategies of corrective feedback. • Types of corrective feedback. • Direct corrective feedback. 	<p>Preliminary Investigation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Observing the English Classes • Stating the back- ground of the problem • Describing current situation • Locating and re- viewing the literature • Creating a methodological frame- work for the re- search • Designing an inter- vention plan <p>Intervention and Observation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Administering test and questionnaires • Observing and monitoring students' performance according to the intervention plan. • Presentation of research findings. • Reflecting, analyzing and answering the proposed inquires. • Organizing the final report. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Observation sheet • Pre and Post test • Pre and Post questionnaires • Field Notes

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Which direct corrective feedback is implemented to improve grammatical competence among Ninth-A year students at La Dolorosa high school of the City of Loja during the 2016- 2017 School Year? • How does the direct corrective feedback reduce the difficulty to develop the grammatical competence among Ninth-A year students at La Dolorosa high school of the City of Loja during the 2016- 2017 School Year? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To design an intervention plan based on the direct corrective feedback in order to improve the grammatical competence among Ninth-A year students at La Dolorosa high school of the City of Loja during the 2016- 2017 School Year. • To apply the most suitable techniques of the direct corrective feedback in order to improve the grammatical competence among ninth- A year students at La Dolorosa high school of the City of Loja during the 2016- 2017 School Year. • To validate upon the effectiveness that the effective corrective had among Ninth-A year students at La Dolorosa high school of the City of Loja during the 2016- 2017 School Year? 			
--	--	--	--	--

Annex 6. Grading Scales

Grammatical Competence

Quantitative score range	Qualitative score range
10	Superior
9	Excellent
7-8	Average
5-6	Below average
4-0	Failing

Direct corrective feedback strategy

Quantitative score range	Qualitative score range
81-100	High level of direct corrective feedback practice
61-80	Expected level of direct corrective feedback practice
41-60	Moderate level of direct corrective feedback practice
21-40	Unexpected level of direct corrective feedback practice
01-20	Low level of direct corrective feedback practice

INDEX

COVER PAGE.....	i
CERTIFICATION.....	ii
AUTORÍA.....	iii
CARTA DE AUTORIZACIÓN.....	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
DEDICATION.....	vi
MATRIZ DE ÁMBITO GEOGRÁFICO	vii
MAPA GEOGRÁFICO Y CROQUIS	viii
THESIS OUTLINE.....	ix
a. TITLE.....	1
b. RESUMEN.....	2
 ABSTRACT	3
c. INTRODUCTION.....	4
d. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	6
 GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE	6
Vocabulary.....	8
Parts of Speech.....	9
Subject Verb Agreement	9
Ways to Approach Grammar in the Second or Foreign Language Classroom..	10
Direct Explicit Grammar Instruction (DEGI)	12
Indirect Explicit Grammar Instruction (IEGI)	13
 FEEDBACK	13

Types of feedback.....	15
Direct Feedback	18
Indirect Feedback.....	19
Effect of direct vs indirect feedback.....	20
Catering for individual differences and addressing learner diversity.....	23
e. MATERIALS AND METHODS.....	24
f. RESULTS.....	29
g. DISCUSSION.....	48
h. CONCLUSIONS.....	51
i. RECOMMENDATIONS	52
j. BIBLIOGRAPHY	54
k. ANNEXES.....	59
a. THEME.....	60
b. PROBLEM STATEMENT.....	61
c. JUSTIFICATION.....	65
d. OBJECTIVES	66
e. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	67
f. METHODOLOGY	103
g. TIMELINE	127
h. BUDGET AND FINANCING.....	128
i. BIBLIOGRAPHY	133
ANNEXES.....	134
INDEX.....	144