

Learner Beliefs and Corrective Feedback in Telecollaboration:
A Longitudinal Investigation

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Abstract

While many studies highlight the role of telecollaboration for language learning, there is a lack of research investigating focus on form practices in synchronous, video-based exchange, let alone studies that do so longitudinally. Furthermore, none of the previous studies on telecollaboration examined beliefs as one of the individual differences that may mediate the effectiveness of corrective feedback (CF). This study examined the dynamicity of learner beliefs about error correction and its relationship with actual CF practices regarding provision and uptake of CF in a 14-week, *Skype*-based eTandem project between American and Japanese universities. The study collected mixed-method, longitudinal evidence from survey ($N=24$), interaction ($n=6$ pairs), and interview data ($n=5$). The analysis of survey data revealed that by the end of the semester, the majority of participants chose recasts as the most preferred way to give and receive CF, since recasts were considered immediate, time-saving, unintrusive, and easy to provide. The interaction data revealed that successful uptake increased when CF was provided in the way learners preferred to receive it. However, no interaction was found between native speakers' preferred method of CF provision and actual practices, suggesting a complex picture of face and identity negotiation as a friend vs. language tutor.

Keywords: focus on form, corrective feedback, recasts, beliefs, telecollaboration, eTandem, identity, face negotiation, longitudinal

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1. Introduction

Advances in technology, particularly the development of synchronous and asynchronous computer-mediated communication (CMC) tools, have made it possible to break down the classroom walls and connect language learners around the world. Telecollaboration is a way to engage foreign language learners in an organized partnership, linking language learners in one part of the world with learners in other parts of the world. Previous studies on telecollaboration have shown that social interaction with native-speaking peers of similar age via CMC broadens the range of available discourse options in comparison to traditional second language (L2) classrooms (Belz, 2003; Belz & Kinginger, 2003; Belz & Vyatkina, 2008; Kinginger, 2000, 2004; Thorne, 2003) and creates conditions that result in enhanced L2 performance (Dussias, 2005; Ware & O'Dowd, 2008). In response to such great potential, more and more language practitioners have started to incorporate telecollaboration as part of language curriculum under various names, such as online intercultural exchange (O'Dowd, 2007), cyber language exchange (Sauro, 2013), and eTandem (Cziko, 2004).

eTandem is a form of telecollaboration in which a pair of language learners team up and help each other teach and learn their first (or competent) and second languages (Bower & Kawaguchi, 2011; Cziko, 2004). What makes eTandem distinct from other forms of native and non-native speaker dyadic interaction are (1) the expectation that participants correct each other, as “error correction is the central overtly pedagogical element of a tandem partnership” (Little, Ushioda, Appel, Moran, O'Rourke, & Schwienhorst, 1999, p. 39) and (2) the dynamic shift of learner-tutor relationships (i.e., reciprocity). For instance, an English-speaking individual who is learning Japanese takes on the role of an expert/tutor and provides corrective feedback (CF) for half an hour in English, but the same individual takes on the role of a novice learner when communicating in Japanese for the next half an hour. Because autonomous learning environments have been reported to lower anxiety (Noels, Clement, & Pelletier, 2001), a context like eTandem may function as a space where learners can focus on form (FonF) and practice their target languages without feeling overly self-conscious about their speech production.

Despite such great potential, eTandem has not been characterized as a venue where error correction naturally takes place (Bower & Kawaguchi, 2011; Lee, 2011; O'Rourke, 2005; Schwienhorst, 2000; Ware & O'Dowd, 2008, but see Vinagre & Muñoz, 2011 for another view). In fact, there seems to be a dichotomy between participants' beliefs about the important role of error correction and actual practices of CF in eTandem (e.g., Ware & O'Dowd, 2008). Accordingly, it seems imperative that more studies examine CF practices vis-à-vis participants' beliefs. This is particularly important considering that different online environments offer affordances for different types of CF (Schwienhorst, 2008) and that video-based environments have not been investigated as extensively as other types of CMC (e.g., text chats, emails) (but see Akiyama, 2014; Tian & Wang, 2010 for studies on *Skype*-based eTandem).

Thus, the present study investigated CF beliefs and practices of Japanese and American college students who engaged in a 14-week, video-based eTandem project. The participants, after having been trained to provide CF, engaged in a total of seven bi-weekly sessions outside the classroom on a designated weekend, spending half of the time speaking in Japanese and the other half in English. The focus of analysis was on the mediating effects of beliefs on the provision and potential noticing of CF by comparing perceptual and behavioral data. The

perceptual data were collected through surveys and interviews, while audio-recordings of six dyads' interaction in Japanese were used for the analysis of CF behavior.

2. Literature Review

2. 1. Provision of CF and its uptake

A pedagogical perspective known as FonF (Long, 1991, 2007) states that conversational interaction facilitates language acquisition by providing learners with both positive and negative evidence (Long, 1996) and by triggering useful cognitive processes for L2 learning such as noticing (Schmidt, 2001). One way to promote noticing is the provision of negative evidence through CF. Several meta-analyses have confirmed the positive effect of CF (Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Russell & Spada, 2006). Thus, studies on CF have moved on from *whether* CF works to *how* it works, exploring the effectiveness of CF vis-à-vis learning contexts and individual differences in cognitive capacities (e.g., short-term memory, working memory) (Goo & Mackey, 2013).

The effectiveness of CF has often been measured by uptake (i.e., a learner's response to CF) and, particularly, successful uptake, or the ability of a learner to repair a mistake after receiving CF (Sheen, 2004). A number of researchers (Mackey & Philp, 1998; Ohta, 2000) have argued that uptake is merely a discourse phenomenon, which may or may not facilitate language learning. In fact, even researchers who have used uptake as a measure of potential acquisition have cautioned against using uptake as the sheer measure of language learning (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001). Nonetheless, learner uptake has been seen as a legitimate object of inquiry, as it may serve as evidence that learners have understood the corrective nature of the interlocutor's move (Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000). Additionally, several studies (Alcón-Soler, 2009; Chen & Eslami, 2013; Loewen, 2005) have found a significant role of successful uptake (i.e., successful self-repairs) for language learning. For instance, Loewen (2005), who examined incidental FonF practices in a private English school in New Zealand, studied whether presence and quality of uptake in Language Related Episodes (LREs) make a difference in subsequent retention of forms in focus. The study found that successful uptake was a significant predictor of correct scores in tailor-made tests, indicating that learners benefit from incorporating targeted linguistic items into their own production.

In sum, although the theoretical value of uptake as a sole indicator of language acquisition and noticing is controversial, it seems that the presence of uptake opportunities and successful incorporation of CF can only have neutral or positive impact on learning. Keeping this premise in mind, the present study investigated the dynamic shift of CF provision and uptake practices of eTandem partners.

2. 2. Training learners to provide CF

In order to alleviate the difficulties that peers face in providing CF of high quality, an increasing number of studies in the field of second language acquisition are looking into the effects of learner training. For instance, Fujii, Ziegler, and Mackey (in review) examined the effects of metacognitive instruction on learner-learner interactions in the task-based EFL classroom. The training offered tips and practice on how to provide CF to their peers. The results showed that metacognitive instruction led to greater provision and use of interactional feedback in subsequent interactions. Sato (2013) trained his EFL learners to provide CF to each other. The results of the study revealed the effectiveness of the intervention in facilitating "trust in their classmates as learning resources" (p. 611) and increasing willingness and confidence in providing CF.

In telecollaborative/eTandem settings, only a couple of studies have considered the possibility of training expert users of the target language about CF, despite the fact that such a reciprocal form of learning takes on a natural role of assisting each other's language development. Ware and Pérez-Cañado (2007) provided a set of guidelines for CF so that participants can make informed decisions about when and how to provide CF. Ware and O'Dowd (2008) investigated how and when post-secondary learners of English and Spanish provided CF on their partners' L2 usage in weekly asynchronous discussions. The participants were assigned to one of two conditions: *e-tutoring*, in which students were asked to provide peer feedback on any linguistic form they perceived as incorrect; and *e-partnering*, in which students were not required to provide peer feedback but could do so on their own initiative. The study found that students in both conditions preferred being corrected, but such correction practices occurred much less frequently in the e-partnering condition. In other words, telecollaborators were reluctant to provide CF unless they were required to. If participants were hesitant to provide CF in asynchronous discussions, which allowed sufficient time to respond to errors, how would participants in video-based, synchronous discussions deal with their partners' errors? This study attempted to answer this question by systematically training participants to provide CF based on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) taxonomy.

2. 3. Learner beliefs about CF

In foreign language education, many studies have examined the relationship between the beliefs and the effects of instruction. These studies found that any sizeable discrepancy in teacher and student perceptions regarding the efficacy of instructional practices can be detrimental to learning (Horwitz, 2007; Mantle-Bromley, 1995). In the case of CF, this means that student-teacher agreement in beliefs regarding CF can facilitate learning, while disagreement can negatively affect one's learning. This is due to the fact that learners' perception of what feedback is, how it is best delivered, and what makes it effective can influence the efficacy of CF (Kartchava & Ammar, 2014). Likewise, investigation into learner beliefs about CF is necessary, especially in a learner-centered context like eTandem where participants function as both providers and receivers of CF.

As of today, however, belief is one of the least explored individual differences regarding CF. In what, to the best of my knowledge, is the only study that has directly investigated the interaction between beliefs and the effects of CF, Kartchava and Ammar (2014) examined whether 197 Canadian francophone English learners' beliefs about CF mediated noticing in the language classroom. They found a positive correlation between learner beliefs about the importance of CF and their measured noticing of CF. Specifically, the more learners believe that CF is important for learning, the more likely they were to report the corrective intent of the feedback in immediate recall and reflection sheets. This tendency was especially strong when the correction was given in the form of recasts. Although the study did not find a positive relationship between beliefs and actual learning, the findings demonstrate the important role of beliefs in promoting noticing in the language classroom. By extension, the role of beliefs should be investigated in eTandem because change in beliefs may affect how participants provide and uptake CF.

3. The Present Study

The present study sought to advance knowledge about the dynamicity of beliefs and the relationship between learner beliefs and actual CF practices within the activity of a *Skype*-based, eTandem project between Japan and the U.S. To that end, a mixed-method, longitudinal design was used documenting a 14-week eTandem curricular project and collected data from: (1) 24

participants' survey data, (2) six pairs' interaction data in Japanese, and (3) five selected participants' interview data. The goal was to investigate the mediating effects of beliefs, as captured in the surveys and interviews, on the provision and successful uptake of CF, as reflected in the recorded interaction data. The following three research questions (RQ) guided the study:

RQ1. What are the eTandem participants' beliefs about CF, and is there a change in this over time?

RQ2. What is the relationship between learner beliefs and provision of CF?

RQ3. What is the relationship between learner beliefs and successful uptake?

4. Method

4. 1. Participants

The participants were 12 learners of Japanese in the U.S. who were native/near-native speakers of English and 12 learners of English in Japan whose first language (L1) was Japanese ($N=24$). None of the participants were seeking degrees in language-related areas, majoring mostly in engineering or computer science.

The 12 Japanese learners in the U.S. were one graduate student and 11 undergraduate students, all enrolled in an intensive Japanese language course at a university in northeastern United States. At the end of the semester-long intensive Japanese course, their average Japanese proficiency was rated as intermediate-low on the Oral Proficiency Interview of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL OPI). Four participants had L1s other than English: Spanish, Pakistani, Russian, and Chinese; however, all of these participants were at near-native proficiency in English, as demonstrated by their TOEFL/SAT/GRE scores.

The EFL learners in Japan, on the other hand, were not enrolled in an English course at the time of data collection. They were volunteer, language exchange partners (four undergraduates, five master's students, and three recent graduates) who had taken a two-unit telecollaboration course in the previous semester and who expressed an interest in continuing with the project. Thus, the Japanese EFL learners were more experienced in telecollaborative exchange than their American counterparts.

4. 2. Procedure

At the beginning of the project, the participants took part in a two-hour CF training workshop that was led by the instructor (also the researcher). The training consisted of an hour-long CF workshop (see Appendix A for the PowerPoint slides used in the training) and an hour-long webinar. In the workshop, the participants practiced six correction methods based on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) CF taxonomy (see Appendix B for the definitions and examples) until all the participants were able to use them skillfully, as demonstrated in a short quiz at the end of the training. The same training was taken by the participants in the U.S. and in Japan, but the Japanese EFL learners took the training in the previous semester when they were taking the two-unit telecollaboration course and when the instructor/researcher was in Japan. In order to refresh their memory from the workshop, both the American and Japanese participants watched the webinar and completed the quiz before the first interaction session. Although error correction was not a requirement, the participants were strongly encouraged to provide CF and were constantly reminded to do so throughout the semester. Figure 1 shows the overall procedure of the study.

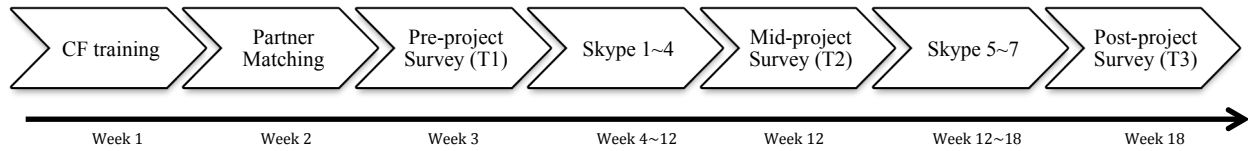


Figure 1. Overall Schedule of the eTtandem Project

Following the training, the instructor matched participants and created 12 tandem pairs based on biographical information and results of a short questionnaire. The questionnaire asked the participants about their preference for being matched with a native or non-native speaker, academic majors, gender, and personality.

Due to the time difference, which made it difficult to conduct a *Skype* session in class, the participants met their partners outside the classroom on a designated weekend. For each hour-long session, the participants spent half of the time speaking in Japanese and the other half in English. A regular session started with a warm-up and then moved onto a task-based conversation, which was based on the instructor's curriculum design. This study used a wide range of tasks that consist of different types (e.g., problem solving and decision making) and themes (e.g., annual events, trips, homestays, and admissions).

4. 3. Data Collection

As Figure 1 indicates, the main data came from (1) three surveys that all 24 learners took and (2) audio-recorded *Skype* sessions of six selected dyads. Additionally, (3) follow-up interviews with five selected participants were conducted and included in the analyses. The details are explained below.

In order to follow the dynamic development of learner beliefs about CF (RQ1), the online survey was conducted three times: before (T1), during (T2), and after the eTandem project (T3). The three questions in the survey concerning CF were: (1) How frequently do/did you want to be corrected? (2) How do/did you want to be corrected? and (3) How do/did you want to give CF? In addition to these closed-ended questions, the third survey asked participants to reflect on the project and state the reasons for their preference of particular CF methods.

In order to examine the interaction between beliefs and actual CF practices (RQ2 and RQ3), audio recordings were collected after each *Skype* session. The participants were asked to record their conversation using two of the following recording devices: smartphones, *Audacity*, and *Vocaroo* (<http://vocaroo.com>). Although this study focused on analyzing six pairs, each of the 12 pairs submitted approximately seven hours of *Skype* recordings by the end of the project.

Finally, in order to investigate participants' experiences with providing CF in more depth, a semi-structured interview was conducted with five selected participants who demonstrated various patterns of CF beliefs and practices. This paper will report on the portion of the interview data which was pertinent to participants' experiences as feedback providers.

4. 4. Data Analysis

The survey data was analyzed using mixed methods – both quantitatively and qualitatively. Quantitative analysis included the use of descriptive statistics as well as Chi-square tests. The inferential statistics was used to see if there was a statistical difference in participants' preferred method of error correction between T1-T2, T1-T3, and T2-T3. In order to add participants'

voices to the quantitative data, the open-ended responses in the third survey were analyzed using NVivo, a software specialized for qualitative data analysis. After the reiterative process of identifying emerging themes, participants' responses were categorized and given a frequency value as an indicator of magnitude of importance.

Results from the survey data were used to decide whose audio-recorded interaction data should be analyzed (see Appendix C for a complete summary of 24 participants' evolving CF preferences). Six pairs were selected based on the following criteria: (1) whether feedback provider and receiver's preferences were compatible and (2) whether there was a change in preference by feedback provider and/or receiver during the semester.

The interactions were analyzed for the types of CF based on Lyster and Ranta (1997). Note that, although this study observed *multimodal CF*, where participants used the text chat function to supplement oral CF, it was coded as either a recast or explicit correction, depending on the types of oral CF. In order to analyze the dynamic shift of CF practices in relation to beliefs, the interaction data was analyzed in two stages¹: Stage 1 (Session 2-4) and Stage 2 (Session 5-7). For each stage, the first 30 errors were coded for CF types and the presence and quality of uptake. The decision to code 30 errors per stage was made because the data from the pilot coding revealed that the participants on average made 11 errors in each session. Thus, this study targeted a total of 60 errors per pair.

Uptake was defined as "a learner's utterance that immediately follows his/her partner's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the partner's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the learner's initial utterance" (modified from Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 49). Uptake was coded for (1) the opportunities to uptake and (2) the quality of uptake. Successful uptake, or "other-initiated self-repair," included repetition, incorporation, and self-repair, while "needs repair" included acknowledgement, same error, different error, off target, hesitation, and partial repair (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, pp. 50-51). Figure 2 describes the error coding scheme used in this study.

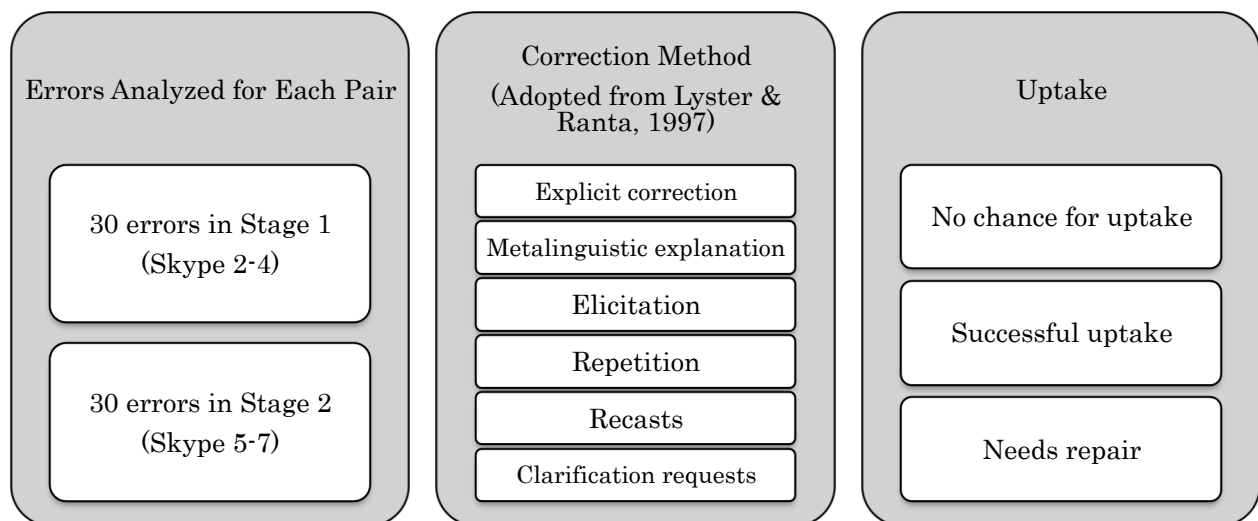


Figure 2. Error Coding Scheme

In order to establish inter-rater reliability, another Japanese instructor coded approximately 20% of the interaction data from each pair until 72 errors were coded. The

consistency rate of CF types and uptake was 94.4%. For errors that were not agreed upon, the two coders discussed and reached a consensus following other examples.

5. Results

5.1. eTandem Participants' Beliefs about CF and Changes over Time: Quantitative Evidence

The survey data administered over three times during the 14-week eTandem experience yielded the following quantitative results. Figure 3 displays the answers to the first survey question (*How frequently do/did you want to be corrected?*).

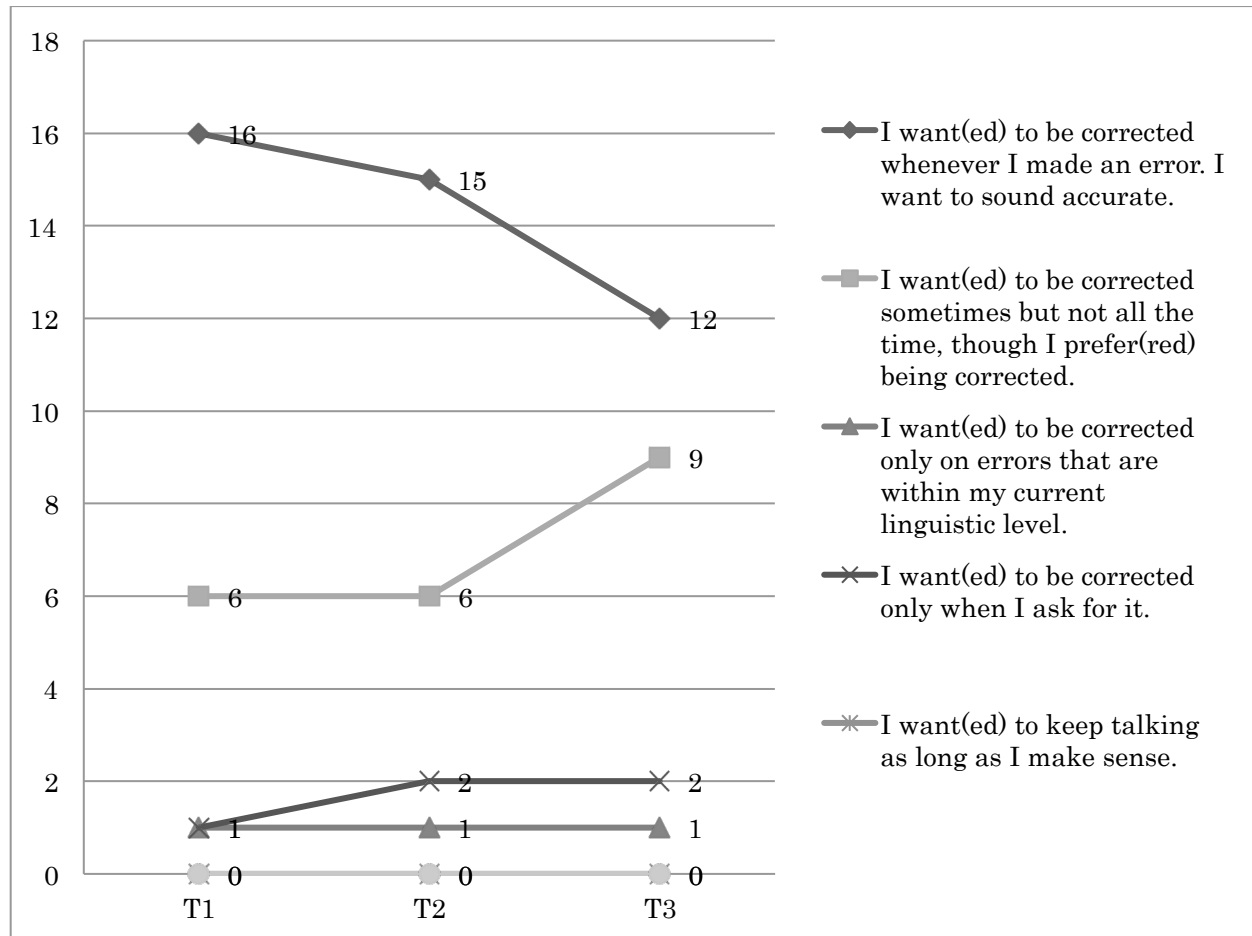


Figure 3. Change of Beliefs: Frequency of CF (N=24)

As seen in Figure 3, there is a small shift in participants' perceptions regarding the frequency of receiving CF. Although the number of participants who wanted every single error corrected decreased slightly and the number of participants who wanted to be corrected occasionally increased, the majority of participants wanted to receive CF overall, and this preference for error correction remained the same throughout the semester.

Next, Figure 4 displays the answers to the second survey question (*How do/did you want to be corrected?*).

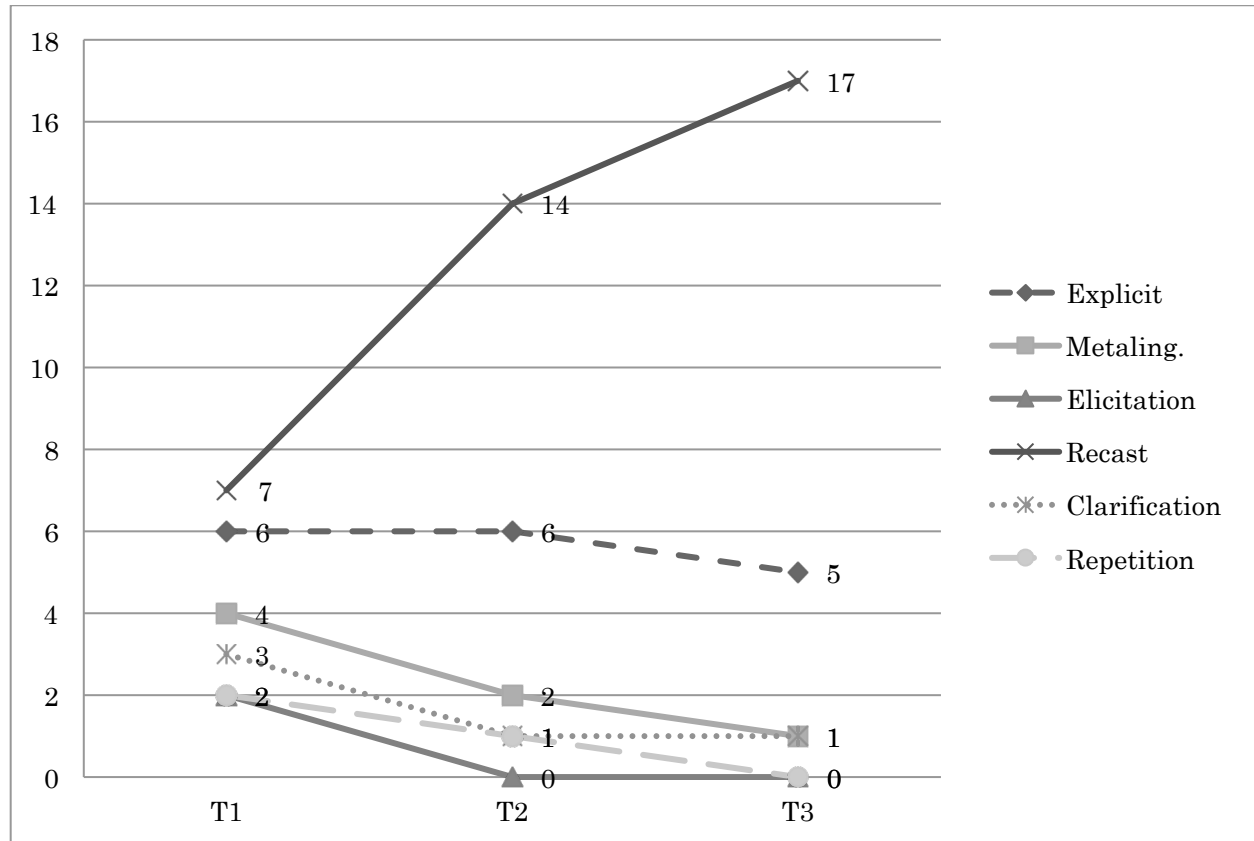


Figure 4. Change of Beliefs: Reception of CF ($N=24$)

Figure 4 reveals a noticeable shift in participants' preferred ways to be corrected, as represented by the sharp increase of those who preferred to receive recasts. In order to see if there was a significant difference in participants' preference of recasts over the other types of CF (i.e., non-recasts), Chi-square tests were run. The analyses revealed a statistical difference between T1 and T2, $X^2(1, N=24) = 4.15, p < 0.05, r = .42$; and between T1 and T3, $X^2(1, N=24) = 8.33, p < 0.01, r = .59$, with medium to large effect sizes. However, there was no statistical difference between T2 and T3, suggesting that learners' preference for receiving recasts increased sometime in the first few *Skype* sessions.

Finally, Figure 5 shows the responses to the third survey question (*How do/did you want to give CF?*).

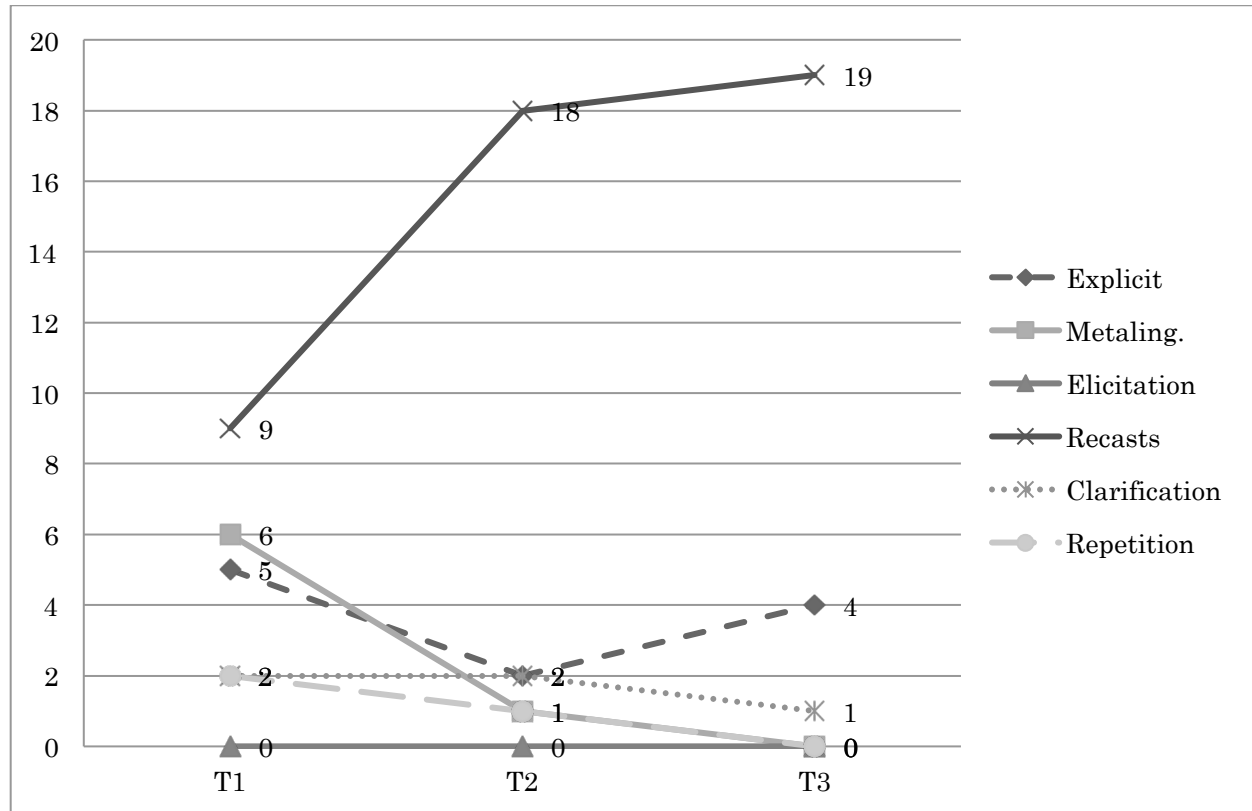


Figure 5. Change of Beliefs: Provision of CF ($N=24$)

Like Figure 4, Figure 5 reveals a sharp increase and decline of those who preferred recasts and those who preferred more explicit types of correction (i.e., explicit correction and metalinguistic explanations), respectively. In order to see if there was a significant difference in participants' preference of recasts over non-recasts, Chi-square tests were run. The analyses revealed a statistical difference between T1 and T2, $\chi^2(1, N=24) = 6.86, p < 0.01, r = .53$; and between T1 and T3, $\chi^2(1, N=24) = 8.57, p < 0.01, r = .60$, both with large effect sizes. Again, no statistical difference between T2 and T3 indicates that learners' preference for providing recasts increased sometime in the first few *Skype* sessions.

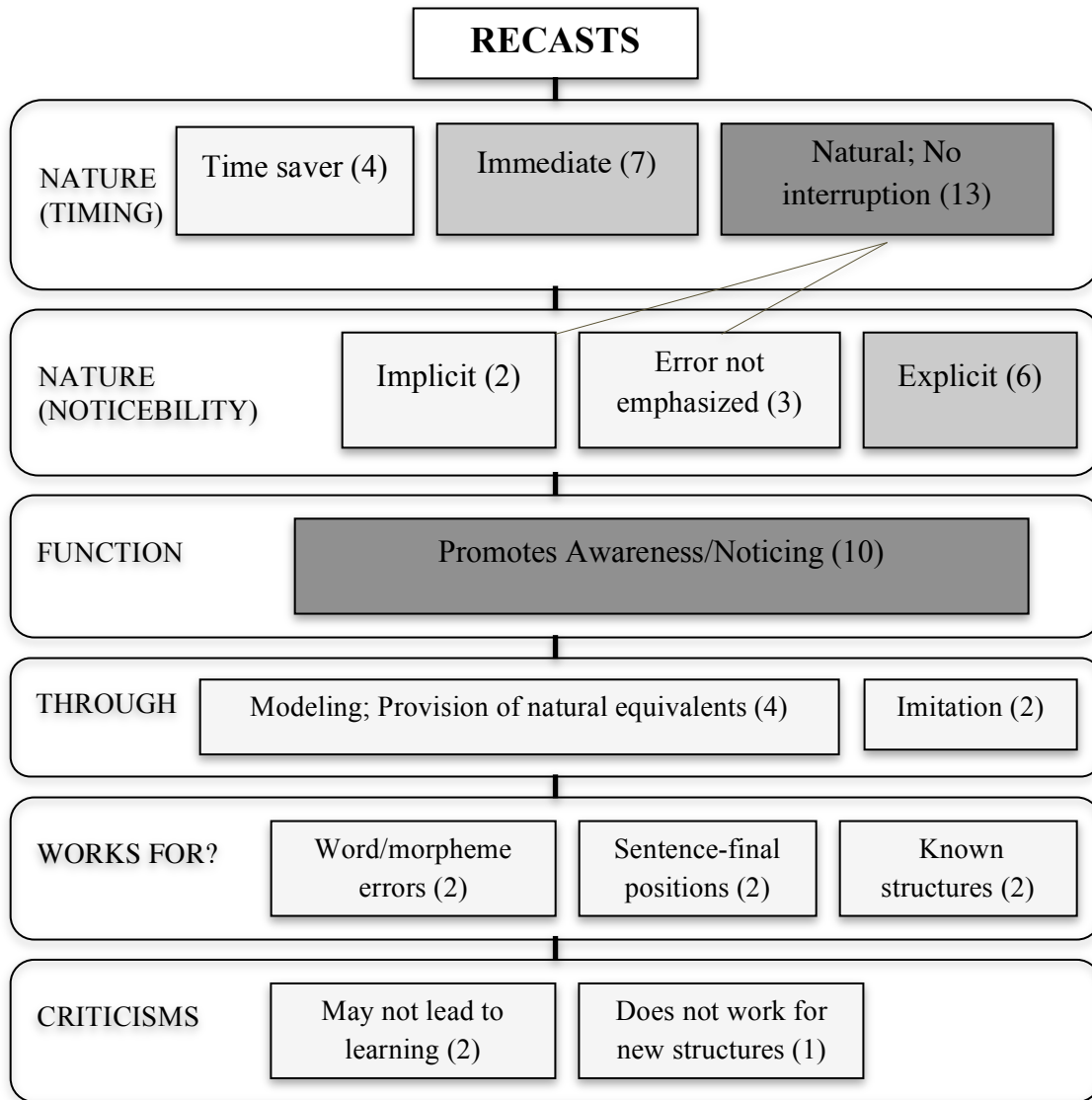
5. 2. Qualitative Insights into CF Beliefs: Learner Preference for Recasts

The quantitative findings revealed that the majority of eTandem participants thought “the more CF, the better,” and such belief remained relatively unchanged during the 14 weeks. On the other hand, their preferences for how to receive and provide CF changed in the first few *Skype* sessions and then remained stable, strongly favoring recasts over the more explicit types of CF initially preferred in their surveys. The qualitative analysis of the open-ended responses on the survey further revealed the overwhelming preference for recasts that learners developed early in the eTandem experience. Their open-ended answers showed that the majority of participants thought that recasts were the easiest method to employ and that they allowed the conversation to continue uninterrupted, as the following excerpts illustrate:

- a. The third one [recasts] was easy because I could correct my partner without interrupting the conversation. The fifth one [metalinguistic explanation] was difficult because I had to interrupt the conversation. (Learner of English in Japan)

- b. Sometimes I know the correct form and know that my partner's form is wrong, but I don't know why it is technically wrong, and therefore was unable to give a technical explanation of why it is wrong. (Learner of Japanese in the U.S.)
- c. It was more difficult for me to repeat errors because I would just correct them on the fly. (Learner of Japanese in the U.S.)

As the majority of the participants preferred recasts by the end of the project, participants' open-ended comments about recasts were coded for common themes, which were then grouped into six categories. They are presented in Figure 6.



*The number in parentheses indicates the number of participants who responded in a similar manner. The color indicates the concentration of responses.

Figure 6. Learners' perception of recasts

Figure 6 shows that some considered recasts explicit while others perceived them as implicit. This is exemplified in the following data excerpts (italics have been added for emphasis):

- a. I like being told the right answer *explicitly* and I like hearing it used/said for me. (Learner of English in Japan)
- b. I think it's more useful to hear the right answer stated *explicitly*, right away, because I think it's useful to learn by imitation. (Learner of Japanese in the U.S.)
- c. My partner saying the correct form can be okay too but *this does not emphasize the fact that an error was made* (as much) compared to explicit correction. (Learner of English in Japan)

Another feature of recasts that was favored by the participants in their open-ended responses was that they involved the provision of models. The use of recasts for modeling was often reported to be preferred by those who believed that they learn a language by imitation.

Some participants also expressed their ideas about what kinds of errors would be suitable for recasts. To summarize such comments on the survey, they believed that recasts would work for errors that are short, that are within one's current proficiency level, and that occur at the end of a sentence. On the other hand, some participants disapproved of recasts because they did not work for new structures and did not necessarily give participants a chance to reformulate erroneous utterances unlike other CF methods that promote pushed output.

In summary, the qualitative analysis of survey responses revealed that the participants typically preferred recasts over other types of correction methods because they were immediate, time-saving, and the least intrusive, allowing them to place primary focus on meaning and secondary focus on form. There were some learners who perceived recasts as implicit, while others considered them explicit. Some learners also formulated their hypotheses about when, why, and on what linguistics items recasts would work.

5. 3. The Relationship between Beliefs and CF Practices: Interactional Evidence

In order to directly examine whether beliefs about CF may mediate learner corrective error practices during the eTandem experience, six pairs were selected and analyzed in terms of how they provided and responded to 30 errors in Stage 1 and 2. Since this study only looked at interaction data in Japanese, participants in the U.S. are the feedback receivers and those in Japan are the feedback providers. Table 1 summarizes the frequency and percentage of CF provision and successful uptake in relation to learner beliefs. For CF frequency, the vertical-striped cells indicate CF providers' preferred method of error correction, while the horizontal-striped cells indicate CF receivers' preferred method of being corrected. The cells in grid suggest compatibility between the CF providers and receivers' preference. As for successful uptake, gray cells indicate the rate of successful uptake when CF was provided in learners' preferred method.

Table 1. Provision and Successful Uptake of CF: Frequency and Percentage

	CF FREQUENCY (out of 30 errors in each stage)								SUCCESSFUL UPTAKE					
	RECASTS		EXPLICIT		CLARIFICATION		NO FEEDBACK		RECASTS		EXPLICIT		CLARIFICATION	
	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 1	Stage 2
Takeshi & Alex	8/30 22.67% (1 R+T)	2/30 6.67%	5/30 16.67%	11/30 36.67%	NA	NA	17/30 56.67%	17/30 56.67%	2/8 25.00%	1/2 50.00%	5/5 100%	10/11 90.91%	NA	NA
Aya & Mia	8/30 26.67%	6/30 20/00%	2/30 6.67%	2/30 6.67%	NA	NA	20/30 66.67%	22/30 73.33%	5/8 62.50%	6/6 100%	1/2 50.00%	2/2 100%	NA	NA
Naoki & Don	13/30 43.33% (1 R+T)	21/30 70.00% (2 R+T)	7/30 23.33% (1 E+T)	9/30 30.00% (1 E+T)	NA	NA	10/30 33.33%	0 0%	9/13 69.23%	15/21 76.19%	3/7 42.86%	5/9 55.56%	NA	NA
Yuko & Michelle	18/30 56.67%	11/30 36.67%	1/30 3.33%	1/30 3.33%	2/30 6.67%	1/30 3.33%	9/30 33.33%	17/30 56.67%	9/18 50.00%	5/11 45.45%	0/1 0%	0/1 0%	0/2 0%	0/1 0%
Yohei & Duke	4/30 13.33%	6/30 20.00%	1/30 3.33%	1/30 3.33%	2/30 6.67%	2/30 6.67%	23/30 76.67%	21/30 70.00%	2/4 50.00%	4/6 66.67%	0/1 0%	1/1 100%	1/2 50.00%	2/2 100%
Megumi & Sylvia	10/30 33.33%	12/30 40.00%	1/30 3.33%	3/30 10.00%	NA	1/30 3.33%	19/30 63.33%	16/30 53.33%	4/10 40.00%	7/12 58.33%	1/1 100%	3/3 100%	NA	1/1 100%

*For CF frequency, the vertical-striped cells indicate CF providers' preferred method, while the horizontal-striped cells indicate CF receivers' preferred method. The cells in grid suggest compatibility between the CF providers and receivers' beliefs.

*For successful uptake, gray cells indicate the rate of successful uptake when CF was provided in learners' preferred method.

*R+T = recasts + text chat support; E+T = explicit correction + text chat support

Table 1 shows that (1) the CF providers only provided three types of CF: recasts, explicit correction, and clarification requests, (2) there was often a mismatch between learners' preferred method of receiving CF and their partners' preferred method of providing CF, (3) learners often received CF that is not of their favorite type, (4) many errors were not corrected by the native-speaking partners, and (5) the rate of uptake was higher when CF was provided in the way learners prefer to receive it. The characterizations of each dyad are explained below, supplemented by the interview data.

a. Takeshi-Alex: "We both know explicit correction is the best from the beginning."

Takeshi and Alex's beliefs matched for the entire semester, as Takeshi preferred to give explicit correction and Alex wanted to receive feedback explicitly. The analysis of error correction data revealed that in Stage 1 Takeshi used more recasts (22.67%) than explicit correction (16.67%); whereas in Stage 2, he increased the use of explicit correction (36.67%) over recasts (6.67%). Alex, in turn, successfully repaired 100% and 90.91% of his erroneous utterances in Stage 1 and 2, respectively, when the correction was provided through explicit correction. Alex's rate of successful uptake was much lower when he was corrected through recasts (25.00% in Stage 1 and 50.00% in Stage 2).

b. Aya-Mia & Naoki-Don: "We figured recasts work better." These two pairs were similar in their perceptions in that the U.S. partner in each pair changed their preferences and shifted to recasts as their desirable way to be corrected. That is, the partners' beliefs matched towards the end of the semester. However, the analysis of the actual error correction data revealed a rather complicated picture for the two CF providers, Aya and Naoki. First, while Aya slightly decreased the use of recasts by the end of the semester (from 26.67% to 20.00%), Naoki increased the use of recasts considerably (from 43.33% to 70.00%). Secondly, Aya mostly resorted to the no-feedback option (66.67% in Stage 1 and 73.33% in Stage 2), but Naoki chose to correct every single error by the end of the semester. When Naoki was asked about his CF practices in the follow-up interview, he said:

I always felt that there should be a better way to help my partner, and I believe that our conversation went well thanks to... my partner's diligent effort to express himself. Such attitudes actually changed me as a *tutor* and that became my motivation to assist his learning. (Naoki, translated from Japanese)

Aya, in contrast, did not mention that she was a *tutor*, but she kept referring to herself as a *friend* as the following excerpt illustrates:

I am glad we became such great *friends*... For me, the purpose of this project was to meet a same-age peer in America. Of course, I wanted to help my partner practice Japanese, but I didn't want to make her feel uncomfortable by correcting too much, at least until we became close *friends*. (Aya, translated from Japanese)

As for the feedback receivers, both Mia and Don repaired errors more successfully when feedback was provided through recasts than when they were explicitly corrected, indicating again that the correction method that aligned with their beliefs facilitated successful uptake.

c. Yuko-Michelle: "You want to give me explicit correction but I want recasts."

Yuko's beliefs and Michelle's beliefs were incompatible for the whole semester. Yuko wanted to give explicit correction while Michelle wanted recasts; however, actual interaction data revealed that Yuko rarely used explicit correction (3.33% in both Stage 1 and 2). Instead, she mostly used recasts (56.67% in Stage 1 and 36.67% in Stage 2), through which Michelle repaired her erroneous utterances successfully (56.67% in Stage 1 and 45.45% in Stage 2).

d. Yohei-Duke & Megumi-Sylvia: “You want to correct me implicitly but I want it explicitly.” These two pairs were similar in that feedback receivers wanted explicit correction while feedback providers wanted to use recasts. The analysis of interaction data revealed, however, that both Yohei and Megumi mostly resorted to the no-feedback option as CF providers in Stages 1 and 2 (76.67% and 70.00% for Yohei and 63.33% and 53.33% for Megumi, respectively) and that, if they gave any CF, it would be recasts. As for the rate of successful uptake, although only a few instances of explicit correction were observed, both Duke and Sylvia successfully repaired their erroneous utterances 100% of the time when they were given explicit correction, indicating that they repaired errors more successfully through CF that aligned with their beliefs.

6. Discussion

The present findings offer an interesting and nuanced answer to the question of whether CF beliefs change over time through an eTandem experience and whether CF beliefs mediate actual error correction practices.

First, regarding learner beliefs about CF, the survey data indicated that, while the participants’ desired to be corrected remained constant, many participants changed their beliefs about their preferred correction method, and that the majority of participants eventually considered recasts as the best way to give and receive CF in synchronous video chat. This finding indicates that participants’ core beliefs (i.e., error correction is necessary for language learning, and the more CF, the better) remained constant, while their preference of particular CF methods changed in accordance with various factors, such as affordances that the video-based synchronous CMC environment offers (Schwienhorst, 2008) and the nature of the collaboration (Swain, 2000).

The qualitative analysis of participants’ comments about recasts revealed that participants, for the most part, perceived recasts as a CF method that was immediate, time-saving, unintrusive, and easy to provide. These learner accounts of recasts resonate well with depictions about the nature of recasts frequently found in the research literature and therefore corroborate the claims of, for example, Loewen and Philp (2006), who regarded recasts as pedagogically “expeditious, less threatening to student confidence, and less intrusive to the flow of interaction” (p. 551). Participants’ comments also illustrated that recasts may differ from other types of CF in that the former remains focused on meaning, while the latter requires a shift of attention to form.

In addition, several participants suggested that recasts were more effective for certain types of errors. They mentioned that recasts are easier to notice when errors are short and occur at the end of a sentence and that they help learn structures that learners already know but not structures that they had never learned. Such learner intuition is supported by previous studies that found that efficacy of recasts is related to the number of changes to be made (Goo & Mackey, 2013; Loewen & Philp, 2006), characteristics of recasts (e.g., length, intonation, sentence types, and segmentation) (Loewen & Philp, 2006; Nabei & Swain, 2002), and compatibility with learners’ readiness (Mackey & Philp, 1998).

It was also interesting that some learners considered recasts explicit and others implicit. Such difference in learner perception is most likely related to interactional contexts (Lyster & Mori, 2006; Nabei & Swain, 2002; Ware, 2004) and individual differences such as working memory (Li, 2013; Mackey & Sachs, 2011), analytical ability (Li, 2013), the level of anxiety (Sheen, 2008), and beliefs (Kartchava & Ammar, 2014).

Finally, several participants shed light on the time-saving aspect of recasts. As Ware (2004) found in her telecollaboration study, time pressures and institutional constraints influence

participants' interpersonal contact. Therefore, it is possible that the time pressure and set-up of the current study in *Skype*-based, synchronous CMC led to the preference for recasts.

Next, the analysis of Japanese interaction revealed that the six CF providers in this study only utilized three types of CF: recasts, explicit correction, and clarification requests. This indicates that, despite receiving CF training, the participants did not use CF methods that are labeled as "prompting" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), except clarification requests. The scarcity of CF methods that are rather pedagogically-oriented is perhaps attributed not only to participants' lack of teaching experience and familiarity with L2 Japanese, but also to participants' focus on communication over form.

Additionally, the preference for recasts and limited use of a wider range of CF methods are relevant to an important qualitative observation, namely that many learners preferred to present themselves as a friend rather than as a tutor, likely because they wanted to save their partners' face by avoiding error correction which some learners may find face-threatening (Kötter, 2003). For instance, one participant commented in the survey that he did not want to "annoy and embarrass" his partner by giving too much correction. Considering that feedback providers were college students in Japan, a country where people value politeness and use silence to save face (Nakane, 2006), it seems reasonable that such sociocultural factors led to filtered amount of providing CF..

The reason for the great variability in the frequency of CF provision may be attributed to the negotiation of face and identity. For instance, as Aya's comment illustrates, many of the participants focused on establishing friendship before focusing on language learning/teaching. In fact, Naoki was the only one who consistently provided CF throughout the semester and who increased the consistency towards the end of the project. As Naoki's comment about how he views himself as a "tutor" shows, it seems that he developed a tutor identity, which enabled him to engage in the potentially face-threatening act of CF provision.

Lastly, regarding the relationship between learner beliefs and the rate of successful uptake, the study found that all of the six learners of Japanese successfully repaired their erroneous utterances at the highest rate when the correction method matched their beliefs. This finding is the first to replicate qualitatively and in depth a similar report in Kartchava and Ammar (2014) of a positive relationship between learner beliefs and potential noticing of CF, especially of recasts. In addition, unlike Lyster and Ranta (1997), who found that recasts are "least likely to lead to uptake of any kind" (p. 54) (see Goo & Mackey, 2013; Mackey, 2012, for counterarguments), the current study found that the six learners correctly repaired approximately half of the recasts and that the uptake rate of recasts was higher than that of explicit correction in some cases. This finding may indicate that recasts functioned as an effective way to promote potential noticing for this learner population in this particular learning context.

7. Limitations and Future Directions

Some limitations are worth bearing in mind when interpreting the present findings. First, the current study simply used learner responses to multiple-choice questions to establish learner beliefs. Although the survey was conducted three times to reflect the dynamicity of beliefs, a more detailed survey, such as the one used by Kartchava and Ammar (2014), which consists of 40 statements that are based on theoretical and empirical findings from CF literature, could be used in future studies. Another possibility is to study the evolution of learner beliefs by collecting diary/reflective journal data and conducting follow-up interviews for the triangulation of introspective data (e.g., Sato, 2013). Secondly, the current study used the rate of successful uptake as a measure of potential noticing. As previous studies have documented, however,

equating successful uptake with learning is problematic and unwarranted (Goo & Mackey, 2013; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Lyster, 1998; Lyster & Ranta, 2013; Mackey & Philp, 1998). Therefore, the finding of this study should not indicate a causal relationship between learner beliefs and learning but rather a tendency for learners to successfully repair errors when CF was provided in their preferred method. Future studies may employ tailor-made tests (e.g., Loewen, 2005) to examine if receiving CF that aligns with participants' beliefs facilitates language learning. Thirdly, this study analyzed the first 30 errors in each stage, but the reliability of the findings will increase if (1) it analyzed more or all errors per pair or (2) it increased the sample size to the full corpus of 12 pairs. This is particularly the case for explicit correction, where there were very low occurrences, creating the possibility that the uptake rate is either over- or under-estimated. Finally, this study analyzed the interaction data in two stages in relation to learner beliefs reported in the pre-project and post-project survey, instead of following each pair's beliefs and interaction session by session. The decision was made to allow quantitative analysis of the data for the generalizable finding. However, future studies may benefit from conducting a more descriptive case study in order to illustrate the dynamic relationship between beliefs and CF practices.

8. Conclusion

The study found that participants in video-based eTandem learning are in a paradoxical situation, as they often long for FonF but need to carry out communicative tasks in a limited amount time. Therefore, even when CF training was provided, establishing such a reciprocal relationship of teaching and learning was challenging. On the other hand, as Naoki's comment demonstrated, it is possible for some eTandem partners to function as tutors, although it depends on how they construe their identity as a partner and engage in face negotiation. The study also found that uptake by learners is more successful when CF is provided in their preferred method. However, no relationship was observed between learners' beliefs about how to provide CF and actual error correction practices.

Overall, the findings of this study suggest that participants' beliefs play a role in successful repair, although providing CF is a more intricate matter that involves factors such as face negotiation and identity construction. If the main objective of eTandem interaction is the development of a foreign language, practitioners should be aware that it is difficult for many participants to engage in FonF while placing primary focus on meaning, and this is the case even when they are trained to do so. Accordingly, to compensate for potential lack of FonF, it is encouraged that participants engage in guided reflection after each eTandem session and be supported by additional form-focused practices in class. Finally, eTandem instructors are encouraged to create a community of practice where participants are encouraged to take on a tutor/learner identity, where there is an agreement that CF is not face-threatening, and where CF practices are negotiated among participants.

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Appendix A. Corrective Feedback Training (PowerPoint Presentation)

Types of Errors (エラーの種類)

1. grammatical errors (文法)
e.g. My father like sushi.
2. pronunciation errors (発音)
e.g. My father rikes sushi.
3. vocabulary and phrase errors (単語やフレーズ)
e.g. My father likes sushi much.

When to Give Corrective Feedback (エラー修正のタイミング)

1. use the text chat function and record your partner's errors; provide your feedback later
テキストの機能を使って、パートナーのエラーを記録し、後でフィードバックを与える
2. correct your partner's error immediately after he/she makes one (recommended; proven to be effective by some research studies)
パートナーのエラーの直後に直す
3. correct your partner's errors only when you can't understand him/her fully or communication breakdown happens
相手の言っていることが理解できない時/コミュニケーションがとれない程分からない時のみエラーを直す

Types of Corrective Feedback (エラー修正の仕方) Part 1

1. explicit error correction (直接的にエラーを修正する) --- "No, it's not 'speak.'" You say 'speaks' with the 's'." 「"おもしろいだ"じゃなくて、"おもしろい"ですよ。」
2. recast (リキャスト) *provide what is right; least intrusive way of correcting an error --- "Oh, your professor speaks English." 「Skypeはおもしろいと思います。」
3. elicitation (抽出法) *stop your utterance in the middle and try to have your partner fill the rest of a chunk --- "Your professor speak...?" 「うん? Skypeは...?」

Types of Corrective Feedback (エラー修正の仕方) Part 2

4. metalinguistic clues (メタ言語的説明) *provide a grammatical, succinct prompt/explanation --- "Third person singular -s" 「i-adjectiveのshort formは？」
5. repetition of error (エラーを繰り返す) *repeat your partner's error with a rising intonation --- "Your professor SPEAK English?" 「おもしろいだと思います？」
6. clarification request (明確化要求) *indicate the error by asking for clarification --- "What do you mean?" "What did you say?" "Sorry, I didn't get that." 「どういう意味ですか。」 「何ですか?」「すみません。ちょっと分かりませんでした。」

Things to Keep in Mind 😊

- Keep the overall focus on meaning, not on correction
- Do not expect to know how to explain everything
- Be aware of regional and national dialects
- Realize that context often influences language choices
- ENJOY!

Appendix B. Taxonomy of CF strategies (modified from Lyster & Ranta, 1997)

CF Types	Definition	Examples and Translations from the Current Project	Modeling or Prompting
Explicit correction	Let interlocutor know s/he made an error and then provide modeling	NNS: じゃあ、私のもっている道具を... <u>tell?</u> 語る? NS: 「語る」じゃないな。説明します。 NNS: あ、説明します。 NNS: Then, I will <u>tell</u> ... <u>tell (kataru)</u> . NS: It's not "tell" but explain. NNS: Ah, I will explain.	Modeling
Metalinguistic explanation	Provide comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the interlocutor's utterance	NNS: その道具で古くして新しくしますね? NS: <i>verb</i> が同様に、同じようにできる時に使うのは、「～たり～たり」だね。だから、「古くしたり新しくしたりします」。 NNS: あ、古くしたり新しくしたりします。 NNS: With the tool, we can <u>make things old and then new</u> , right? NS: When we engaged in <i>verbs</i> simultaneously or in a similar fashion, we use “~tari~tari.” So, we say “make things old and new and such.” NNS: Ah, we <u>make things old and new</u> , etc.	Prompting
Elicitation	Repeat part of the interlocutor utterance except the erroneous part and use rising intonation to signal s/he should complete it	NNS: はい、会社で務めています。 NS: 会社...? NNS: 会社に努めています。 NNS: Yes, (he) works <u>at</u> the company. NS: (He) works...? NNS: (He) works <u>for</u> the company.	Prompting
Repetition	Repeat interlocutor's erroneous utterance to promote noticing	NNS: その人を面接した方がいい <u>だ</u> と言いました。 NS: いい <u>だ</u> ? NNS: いいと言いました。 NNS: It says that it <u>is</u> (wrong copula) better to interview the person. NS: <u>Is</u> better? NNS: It says it is <u>better</u> (correct copula).	Prompting
Recasts	Reformulate an interlocutor's erroneous utterance without changing the original meaning	NNS: それは、たぶん <u>重</u> さない。 NS: 重くない。 NNS: はい、重くないですね。 NNS: That is not <u>heaviness</u> . NS: (That is) not heavy. NNS: Yes, that is not heavy.	Modeling
Clarification requests	Prompt interlocutor to restate/reformulate his/her previous utterance	NNS: ドラえもんから色々な道具をもらいましたね。その中で <u>しだい</u> どうぐ。 NS: うん? NNS: よんだい。 NNS: You got a bunch of tools from Doraemon, right? We choose <u>4 tools</u> (wrong pronunciation). NS: Huh? NNS: I mean, 4 tools (correct pronunciation).	Prompting

*Erroneous utterances are indicated by underlines. Italicized words indicate that they were spoken in English.

Appendix C. Summary of Learner Beliefs ($N=24$)

Pair	Pseudonym	Giving		Receiving		Beliefs in Japanese Interaction (Highlighted in Gray)
		Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 1	Stage 2	
1*	Takeshi	Explicit	Explicit	Explicit	Explicit	1. Compatibility in beliefs for the entire semester 2. No change in beliefs
	Alex	Explicit	Explicit	Explicit	Explicit	
2*	Yuko	Explicit	Explicit	Explicit	Explicit	1. Incompatibility in beliefs for the entire semester 2. No change in beliefs
	Michelle	Recasts	Recasts	Recasts	Recasts	
3*	Naoki	Recasts	Recasts	Recasts	Recasts	1. Compatibility in beliefs towards the end 2. Change in beliefs of the receiver
	Don	Metaling.	Recasts	Metaling.	Recasts	
4	Tatsu	Recasts	Recasts	Recasts	Recasts	c.f., Pair 3
	Chad	Explicit	Recasts	Explicit	Recasts	
5	Hide	Recasts	Recasts	Recasts	Recasts	c.f., Pair 3
	Greg	Metaling.	Recasts	Elicitation	Recasts	
6	Yasu	Recasts	Recasts	Recasts	Recasts	c.f., Pair 3
	Rachael	Metaling.	Recasts	Clarification	Recasts	
7*	Yohei	Recasts	Recasts	Recasts	Recasts	1. Incompatibility in beliefs for the entire semester 2. No change in beliefs
	Duke	Explicit	Clarification	Explicit	Explicit	
8*	Megumi	Repetition	Recasts	Repetition	Recasts	1. Incompatibility in beliefs for the entire semester 2. Change in beliefs of the giver
	Sylvia	Recasts	Recasts	Explicit	Explicit	
9*	Aya	Recasts	Recasts	Recasts	Metaling.	1. Compatibility in beliefs towards the end 2. Change in beliefs of the receiver
	Mia	Metaling.	Explicit	Metaling.	Recasts	
10	Taka	Clarification	Recasts	Clarification	Recasts	c.f., Pair 9
	Guy	Metaling.	Recasts	Metaling.	Recasts	
11	Taro	Clarification	Recasts	Clarification	Recasts	c.f., Pair 9
	Steven	Metaling.	Recasts	Metaling.	Recasts	
12	Mari	Repetition	Recasts	Repetition	Recasts	1. Incompatibility in beliefs for the entire semester 2. Change in beliefs of both the receiver and giver
	Julie	Recasts	Recasts	Elicitation	Clarification	

*indicates the pairs investigated in this study.

ⁱ Session 1 was omitted from the analysis, as the purpose of the first meeting was for self-introduction.