

T. R.
GAZIANTEP UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES TEACHING
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAM

IRAQI EFL TEACHERS' AND LEARNERS'
PREFERENCES OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN
ORAL COMMUNICATION

Master's of Arts Thesis

ALI HASSAN

Gaziantep
June, 2017

T. R.
GAZIANTEP UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES TEACHING
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAM

**IRAQI EFL TEACHERS' AND LEARNERS'
PREFERNCES OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN ORAL
COMMUNICATION**

Master's of Arts Thesis

ALI HASSAN

Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Fadime, YALÇIN ARSLAN

Gaziantep
June, 2017

APPROVAL OF THE JURY

Student : Ali Weli Hassan
University : Gaziantep University
Graduate School : Graduate School of Educational Sciences
Department : Foreign Language Teaching
Thesis Title : Iraqi EFL Teachers' and Learners' Preferences of Corrective Feedback in Oral Communication
Thesis Date : June, 2017

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts.

(Assoc. Prof. Dr. Filiz YALÇIN TILFARLIOĞLU)
Head of Department

This is to certify that I have read this thesis and that in my opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts.

(Asst. Prof. Dr., Fadime, YALÇIN ARSLAN)
Supervisor

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master's of Art.

Examining Committee Members

Signature

(Title, Name and SURNAME)

.....

(Title, Name and SURNAME)

.....

(Title, Name and SURNAME)

.....

It is approved that this thesis has been written in compliance with the formatting rules laid down by the Graduate School Educational Sciences.

(Assoc. Prof. Dr. Mehmet, FATİH ÖZMANTAR)
Director

RESEARCH ETHICS DECLARATION

The information contained here is, to the best of my knowledge and belief, accurate. I have read the University's current research ethics guidelines, and accept responsibility for the conduct of the procedures set out in the attached application in accordance with these guidelines, the University's policy on conflict of interest and any other condition laid down by the Gaziantep University Research Ethics Committee or its Sub-Committees. I have attempted to identify all the risks related to this research that may arise in conducting this research, and acknowledge my obligations and the rights of the participants.

I have declared any affiliation or financial interest in this research or its outcomes or any other circumstances which might present a perceived, potential or actual conflict of interest, in accordance with Gaziantep University policy on Conflicts of Interest.

Signature:

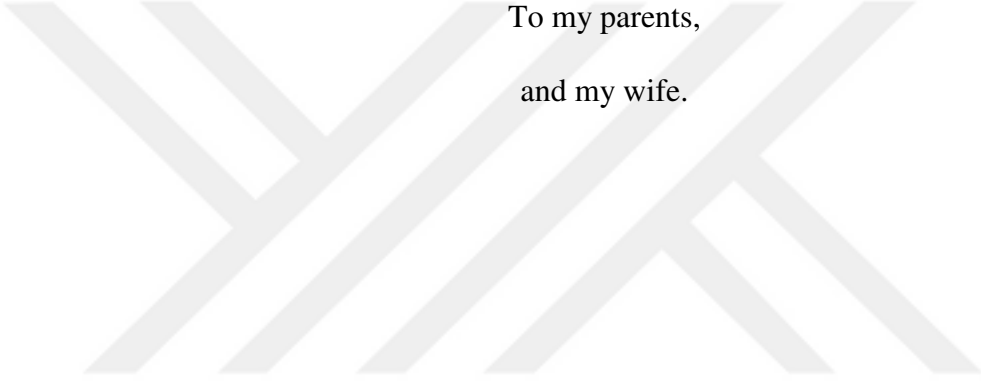
Name: Ali Weli Hassan

Student ID Number: 201565918

Date: 21 June 2017

DEDICATION

To my parents,
and my wife.

A large, light gray watermark consisting of two stylized 'X' characters is positioned in the background of the page, behind the dedication text.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I am highly grateful to God for His blessings that continue to flow into my life. Because of Him, I made this through against all odds.

I would also like to express sincere thanks to my supervisor Asst.Prof.Dr. Fadime Yalçın Arslan for her endless hours of counseling and help. She was a great source of inspiration and encouragement throughout the process. If it had not been for her patience, guidance, and invaluable comments, the completion of this thesis would not have been possible.

I would also like to acknowledge Dr. Dara Al-Banna, who aided me in the statistical data analysis component of this research. I am and will always remain honored by your help. Moreover, I am deeply indebted to Dr. Salam Hakeem, Mr. Réber Jaff, and Mr. Ferhad Sami for the invaluable advice, suggestions, and support during my study.

I would also like to thank my heavenly Father for giving me the strength to come this far in my education. Without his support and encouragement, I could not have been successful.

Last but not least, I would like to extend special thanks to my family and friends, who have supported me in the completion of this thesis.

ÖZET

IRAKLI İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMEN VE ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN, SÖZEL İLETİŞİM BECERİLERİNDE DÜZELTİCİ GERİBİLDİRİM TERCİHLERİ

Hassan, Ali

YüksekLisans, İngilizDili Eğitimi

Tez Danışmanı: Asst. Prof. Dr. Fadime YALÇIN ARSLAN

Haziran-2017, 94 sayfa

Bu çalışma, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Iraklı öğrencilerin, sözel düzeltici geri bildirimlerini, öğretmen tercihleri ve cinsiyet değişkeni açısından karşılaştırarak incelemektedir. 36 maddeden oluşan paralel bir anket 100 yabancı dil öğrencisine ve 52 yabancı dil öğretmenine uygulanmıştır. Ayrıca, 10 öğretmen ve öğrenciyle görüşmeler yapılmıştır. Toplanan veriler, nitel ve nicel yöntemlerle analiz edilmiştir. Nicel verilerin analizinde SPSS programından, nitel verilerin analizinde ise içerik analizinden yararlanılmıştır. Elde edilen bulgulara göre, öğretmen ve öğrenciler, öğretmen geribildirimi, öz-geribildirimi, anında geri bildirim ve düzeltme sürecinden sorumluluğun öğrencide olmasını tercih ettikleri görülmüştür. Dahası, öğrenciler arasında en çok tercih edilen düzeltici geri bildirim türü ortaya çıkarmadır. Sonuçlar ayrıca öğretmen ve öğrencilerin sözel iletişim becerilerinde düzeltici geri bildirim tercihleri arasında istatistiksel yönden anlamlı bir farklılık olduğunu da göstermiştir. Bu farklılık cinsiyetler arasında da görülmüştür. Öğretmen ve öğrenci tercihleri arasındaki bu benzerlik ve farklılıkların, dil öğrenimi üzerinde olumlu etkileri olabilir. Ayrıca, düzeltici geribildirim konusundan, öğretmen ve öğrenci tercihlerinin eşleşmesi de dil öğrenme süreci açısından önemlidir, çünkü geri bildirim ve öğrenme sürecini geliştirebilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Düzeltici geri bildirim, sözel düzeltici geribildirim, öğretmen geribildirimi, geribildirim türleri, tercihler

ABSTRACT

IRAQI EFL TEACHERS' AND LEARNERS' PREFERENCES OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN ORAL COMMUNICATION

Hassan, Ali

MA Thesis, English Language Teaching Program

Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Fadime YALÇIN ARSLAN

June-2017, 94 pages

This study investigates oral corrective feedback in an Iraqi English as a Foreign Language (EFL) setting by comparing learners' preferences with those of their teachers as well as comparing male and female learners' preferences. A parallel questionnaire including 36 items was administrated to 100 EFL learners and 52 EFL teachers. For further study, interviews were also conducted with 10 teachers and 10 learners. Quantitative and qualitative methods were used to analyze the collected data. The quantitative data was analyzed using SPSS, and the qualitative data was analyzed by means of content analysis. The findings revealed that teachers and learners preferred teacher feedback, self-correction, immediate feedback, and students' responsibility for correction. Moreover, the most preferable type of corrective feedback among learners was elicitation. The results also confirmed that there exists a statistically significant difference between teachers' and learners' preferences of corrective feedback in oral communication skills as well as a statistically significant difference between learners' preferences based on gender. These similarities and differences between teachers' and learners' preferences may have a positive effect on language learning. Moreover, matching teachers' and learners' views on corrective feedback is important to the process of language learning because it can enhance the feedback and learning process.

Keywords: Corrective feedback, oral corrective feedback, teacher feedback, types of feedback, preferences

TABLE OF CONTENTS

APPROVAL OF THE JURY.....	i
RESEARCH ETHICS DECLARATION	ii
DEDICATION	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
ÖZET.....	iii
ABSTRACT.....	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
LIST OF APPENDICES	x
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xi

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction	1
1.2. Background of the Study	1
1.3. Statement of the Problem	3
1.4. Aim of the Study	4
1.5. Significance of the Study.....	4
1.6. Assumptions.....	5
1.7. Limitation of the Study	5
1.8. Definition of Key Terms	6

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction	7
2.2. Corrective Feedback	7
2.3. Historical Overview of Corrective Feedback.....	9
2.4. Theoretical Framework of Corrective Feedback	12
2.4.1. Interaction Hypothesis	12
2.4.2. Output Hypothesis	13
2.4.3. Noticing Hypothesis	14
2.4.4. Skill Acquisition Theory.....	14
2.4.5. Counterbalance Hypothesis	15

2.4.6. Sociocultural Theory.....	15
2.5. CF and L2 Development – Recasts and Prompts	16
2.6. Types of Corrective Feedback.....	17
2.6.1. Explicit Correction.....	18
2.6.2. Recasts	18
2.6.3. Clarification Requests.....	19
2.6.4. Metalinguistic Cue	20
2.6.5. Elicitation.....	20
2.6.6. Repetition.....	21
2.7. Conditions of Oral Corrective Feedback	21
2.8. Previous Studies on CF	22
2.8.1. Empirical Studies on Oral Corrective Feedback.....	22
2.8.2. Theoretical Studies on Oral Corrective Feedback	25

Chapter III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction	27
3.2. Research Design.....	27
3.3. Participants	28
3.4. Sampling.....	29
3.5. Instruments	30
3.5.1. Questionnaire for Students.....	30
3.5.2. Questionnaire for Teachers	32
3.5.3. Interviews.....	33
3.6. Data Collection Procedure.....	34
3.7. Data Analysis	34

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

4.1. Introduction	36
4.2. Findings of RQ 1.....	36
4.3. Findings of RQ 2.....	40
4.4. Findings of RQ 3.....	44
4.5. Findings of RQ 4.....	46
4.6. Findings of Interviews.....	48
4.6.1. Teachers' interviews	48

4.6.2. Learners' interviews	51
-----------------------------------	----

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.1. Introduction	55
5.2. Discussion.....	55
5.3. Discussion of RQ 1.	56
5.4. Discussion of RQ 2.	58
5.5. Discussion of RQ 3.	59
5.6. Discussion of RQ 4.	59

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

6.1. Introduction	61
6.2. Summary of Research.....	61
6.3. Conclusion.....	62
6.4. Pedagogical Implications	63
6.5. Suggestions for Further Studies.....	63
REFERENCES	64
APPENDICES.....	71
Appendix I. Questionnaire for Students	72
Appendix II. Questionnaire for Teachers.....	74
Appendix III. Teacher's Interview	76
Appendix IV. Student's Interview.....	77
VITAE	78

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of learners	28
Table 2. Demographic characteristics of teachers.....	29
Table 3. Constructs and item analysis of the questionnaire	30
Table 4. Teachers' overall frequency and percentage.....	36
Table 5. Teachers' preferences for peer feedback	37
Table 6. Teachers' preferences for teacher feedback.....	37
Table 7. Teachers' preferences for different types of feedback.....	38
Table 8. Teachers' preferences for immediate and delayed feedback	38
Table 9. Teachers' preferences for self-correction	39
Table 10. Teachers' preferences for students' responsibility for correction.....	39
Table 11. Learners' overall frequency and percentage	40
Table 12. Learners' preferences for peer feedback	41
Table 13. Learners' preferences for teacher feedback	41
Table 14. Learners' preferences for different types of feedback	42
Table 15. Learners' preferences for immediate and delayed feedback.....	42
Table 16. Learners' preferences for self-correction	43
Table 17. Learners' preferences for students' responsibility for correction	43
Table 18. Difference between teachers and learners.....	44
Table 19. Difference between overall teachers' and learners' preferences	45
Table 20. Difference between male and female learners	46
Table 21. Significant difference between male and female learners	48
Table 22. The common topics in teachers' interviews.....	49
Table 23. The common topics in students' interviews.....	52

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Types of CF according to Mackey and Gass	16
Figure 2. Types of CF according to Lyster and Ranta	17



LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix I. Questionnaire for Students.....	72
Appendix II. Questionnaire for Teachers.....	74
Appendix III. Teacher's Interview	76
Appendix IV. Student's Interview	77



LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EFL: English as a foreign language
SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SLA: Second language acquisition
SLL: Second language learning
FL: Foreign language
OCF: Oral corrective feedback
CF: Corrective feedback
L2: Second language
LA: Language acquisition
L1: First language
ZPD: Zone of Proximal Development
S: Student
T: Teacher
S1: Student number one
S2: Student number two
I: Interlocutor
L: Learner
CFA: Corrective feedback approach
QCFAs: Questionnaire for corrective feedback approaches
TOEIC: Test of English for International Communication
HPSS: High proficiency students
LPSs: Low proficiency students
KASC: Kalinga-Apayao State College
ELT: English language teaching
RQ: Research Question

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide background information regarding this study and to demonstrate the significance of this study. It also presents the underlying problem, aim, and assumptions. Finally, definitions of key terms and abbreviations utilized throughout the paper are provided.

1.2. Background of the Study

Oral corrective feedback has been viewed by several researchers as a vital aspect of language pedagogy because it encourages learners to acquire additional knowledge of the target language form (Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Schmidt, 1990). Nevertheless, other scholars have negatively regarded this technique, arguing that it should not take place in language-learning classrooms as it has no benefits for learners (Krashen, 1981; Truscott, 1996). Despite these differing opinions, oral corrective feedback continues to be widely utilized in language-learning classrooms. However, some teachers have wondered about the use of corrective feedback, inquiring why learners continue to make the same mistakes after receiving feedback several times. This questioning has led to further investigation by researchers of the corrective feedback process, including variables potentially impacting its effectiveness. The current study focuses on preference as an affective variable so as to understand the influence of corrective feedback from individual perspectives.

Despite the fact that numerous studies have investigated learner and teacher preferences from different aspects of second-language acquisition (SLA), few studies have specifically focused on oral corrective feedback (Gardner, 1983; Dörnyei, 2006). Moreover, no known studies have investigated the preferences of Iraqi EFL teachers and learners.

According to Ellis (2008), early corrective feedback studies generally have concerned themselves with teachers' views by addressing theoretical issues as well as describing teachers' practice of corrective feedback. Later studies have investigated learners' views on issues such as whether or not corrective feedback improves SLA. Furthermore, much attention has been given to the process of error correction, and the following questions posed by Hendrickson (1978) and reviewed by Ellis (2008) have been asked:

1. "Should learner errors be corrected?"
2. "If so, when should learner errors be corrected?"
3. "Which learner errors should be corrected?"
4. "How should learner errors be corrected?"
5. "Who should correct the learner errors?" (p. 387)

Accordingly, after reviewing several studies investigating corrective feedback, Hendrickson formulated the following conclusions:

- a. "When the errors are corrected, the learners become aware of their uttered erroneous part."
- b. "Correcting all the errors is an important point because it makes the learners be productive, it makes the learners feel that the classroom environment is supportive in order not to feel ashamed of their own errors."
- c. "Giving priority to the errors frequently produced by learners that impair communication."
- d. "Direct types of corrective feedback do not achieve what's intended to be achieved, they are ineffective". (p. 388)

This study investigates Iraqi EFL teachers' and learners' preferences of oral corrective feedback. It also examines the effectiveness of oral corrective feedback in EFL classrooms and discusses the role of teachers' and learners' preferences in the feedback process.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

Several researchers and educators around the world believe that mutual understanding should exist between learners and teachers regarding language-learning procedures. Nunan (1987) has claimed that the most vital aspect of successful language learning is the matching of teachers' and students' expectations and the realization by teachers of their students' views towards instructional practices. Thus, this study attempts to illuminate the views of both teachers and learners regarding oral corrective feedback in order to bridge such understanding.

Regarding the error-making process, researchers claim not only that it is impossible to ignore making errors in foreign language learning and that it is a natural process (Edge, 1989), but also that error-making is advantageous. Richards (1974) has explained that making errors is helpful for learners, teachers, and researchers alike. Error-making helps teachers understand learners' achievement in the second language and also aids them in understanding the extent of learners' improvement. Additionally, error-making assists researchers in analyzing the language-learning process as well as exposing the effectiveness of learning strategies and pedagogical methods. Regarding students, making mistakes during the language-learning process is inevitable. However, what guarantees learner success is taking advantage of their mistakes as a way to obtain corrective feedback from their teachers (Brown, 1987).

Lynch (1996) has mentioned techniques of delivering feedback, both in terms of teacher-learner feedback and learner-learner feedback. He emphasizes that educators should consider these techniques in order to enhance the language-learning process of their students.

For learning English as a second language, there are English language departments at almost all universities in Iraq. Speaking, considered to be the most important skill, is emphasized in these departments. Nevertheless, Iraqi EFL learners have problems in speaking and often make errors while they are speaking. Moreover, they have different preferences regarding the way they receive oral corrective feedback from their teachers (Rashid, 2015).

1.4. Aim of the Study

The purpose of this research is to examine and identify Iraqi EFL teachers' and learners' preferences of corrective feedback in oral communication skills. Furthermore, this study investigates these preferences in terms of learners' gender. The following research questions guide this study:

1. What are Iraqi EFL teachers' preferences of corrective feedback for their students' oral errors?
2. What are Iraqi EFL learners' preferences of corrective feedback for their oral errors?
3. Does a statistically significant difference exist between Iraqi EFL teachers' and learners' preferences of corrective feedback in oral communication skills?
4. Does a statistically significant difference exist between Iraqi EFL learners' preferences of corrective feedback in oral communication skills based on gender?

1.5. Significance of the Study

Investigating teachers' and learners' preferences of corrective feedback in speaking skills may supplement existing research concerning about learner feedback as few studies have taken place in Iraqi EFL context. Moreover, this study may fill a small gap in relevant literature by considering oral communication feedback, in particular. It may thus inspire future research pertaining how corrective feedback may be made more effective in enhancing students' speaking skills.

Most immediately, this study may have a practical use for English departments at universities in the Northern Iraq. Specifically, it may be useful for teachers in their provision of feedback regarding students' speaking skills, thus potentially improving these students' speaking skills.

1.6. Assumptions

The following assumptions underlie this study:

1. Participants answered the questionnaire items and interview questions honestly.
2. Respondents fully understood the items and questions they were asked on both the questionnaire and interview components.
3. Participants have all experienced feedback from their teachers regarding their oral communication.
4. Participants (learners) were interested in participating in this study without having any other motives such as obtaining a better grade in a course.

1.7. Limitations of the Study

This study has been conducted for academic purposes. It has the following limitations that should be considered when generalizing findings:

1. The researcher observed only a state university and not a private one. The teaching approaches of state universities may be different from those of private universities.
2. Teaching approaches depend on universities and teachers. They are not the same in all settings or situations.
3. The student questionnaire and interviews were conducted in a state university, while the teacher questionnaire and interviews were conducted with teachers from different state universities.
4. Only one university has been included for studying learners, which may not be sufficient for obtaining information applicable to all universities in the region.

1.8. Definition of Key Terms and Abbreviations

Feedback: refers to how speakers react to the errors that are being uttered by a language learner (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Corrective feedback and error correction: used alternatively in different to indicate that unacceptable or erroneous utterances are made by language learners (Schachter, 1991).

Oral corrective feedback or corrective feedback in oral communication skills: refers to implicit and explicit information provided to learners following their unacceptable utterances. According Gass and Selinker (2008), oral corrective feedback is defined as “the learner-oriented provision of information about the success (or, more likely, lack of success) of their utterances ... [that] gives additional opportunities to focus on production and comprehension” (p. 329-330).

Error: refers to a lack of knowledge.

Mistake: refers to the misuse of knowledge.

Preference: refers to individual attitudes towards some sort of objects throughout a process (Lichtenstein & Slovic, 2006).

Interlanguage: refers to the language that a learner tries to produce in the process of learning another language.

Interlocutor: refers to the person involved in conversational activities in which oral production is emphasized.

Target language: relates to the language that a language learner is trying to acquire.

Input: refers to the pieces of language, including linguistic features, provided to language learners (Krashen, 1982).

Output: refers to learners' process of performing a language (Swain, 1995).

Noticing: refers to the conscious process of enabling language learners to control the information they are provided during the input process (Schmidt, 1990).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

Different factors encourage and enable students to succeed in acquiring a foreign language (FL). The most important factor is the provision of guidance to learners on how to correct their oral mistakes. According to Horwitz (1988), teachers must be attentive of learners' beliefs regarding language teaching and learning, and there should be a match between the beliefs and realities that students encounter in a language-learning classroom. Similarly, Nunan (1987) emphasized that if teachers are unaware of students' learning expectations, the language-learning process is hindered. Such mutual understanding between teachers and learners is crucial especially during the feedback process, a time in which students pay particular attention to the behavior and words of their teachers.

The objective of this chapter is to discuss existing literature relevant to this study. In this chapter, important elements of oral communication feedback (OCF) are highlighted by defining communication feedback (CF) and providing a historical overview of its uses and theories, discussing its role in L2 development, explaining its types alongside examples, and reviewing previous studies concerning its use.

2.2. Corrective Feedback

Ramaprasad (1983) defined feedback as “information about a gap between the actual level and the reference level of a system parameter which is used to alter the gap in some way” (p. 4). Also, the word “feedback” can be defined as “all

communication[conveyed] from a teacher to a student following appraisal of a student response” (Sadler, 2010, p. 537).

According to Chaudron (1988, p. 150), the concept of corrective feedback has various segments of meaning. Firstly, the term “treatment of error” refers to “any teacher behavior following an error that minimally attempts to inform the learner of the fact of error”. Secondly, the treatment of error may not be sufficient for or obvious to students, so that it may come “to elicit a revised student response”. Finally, there follows “the true correction which succeeds in modifying the learner’s interlanguage rule so that the error is eliminated from further production”.

Furthermore, Lightbown and Spada (1999) defined corrective feedback as follows:

Any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect. This includes various responses that the learners receive. When a language learner says, ‘He go to school every day’, corrective feedback can be explicit, for example, ‘no, you should say goes, not go’ or implicit ‘yes he goes to school every day’, and may or may not include metalinguistic information, for example, ‘Don’t forget to make the verb agree with the subject’ (p. 171-172).

Research pertaining feedback in SLA has focused on the different attitudes of teachers and learners as well as varied approaches of teachers. According to James (1998), language is something rare that is used by human beings specifically. So, what does “correct” mean? How can it be defined? According to Allwright and Bailey (1991), the term “correct” is used widely but remains controversial because almost all language-teaching processes are conducted in non-native contexts by non-native speakers.

There have been various terminologies used to describe CF. In addition to its varied definitions, the process has also manifested itself in different ways, e.g. in terms of negative evidence, negative feedback, error correction, and corrective feedback. In order not to confused these terms, it is useful to understand each of them. The term “negative evidence” describes one of the two types of language input in second-language (L2) acquisition. The other type, positive evidence, deals with providing what is possible and grammatically sufficient for learners in learning an L2, while negative evidence deals with providing what is unacceptable in learning an L2 (Long, 1996:2006). According to Chomsky (1981), negative evidence can be divided into direct

and indirect negative evidence. Direct negative evidence concerns a teacher's response or reaction to an error so as to attract the learners' focus to it, while indirect negative evidence pertains to the provision of signals so that learners recognize what is impossible in learning an L2. In addition, negative feedback is defined as "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvements of the learner's utterance" (Chaudron, 1977, p. 31). Corrective feedback is defined as "any indication to the learner [by the teacher] that his/her use of the target language is incorrect" (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p. 197). Corrective and negative feedback can be used interchangeably according to their definitions. Moreover, it is important to consider that CF and error correction are not the same and cannot be used interchangeably as error correction involves guiding or leading to the repair of non-target-like forms which refer to corrective moves, whereas CF simply exposes the error to be corrected (Chaudron, 1977).

2.3. Historical Overview of Corrective Feedback

Traditionally, FL teachers have fulfilled the role of facilitators of the FL process without being affected or influenced by the subject matter. Over the decades, FL teachers have played a pivotal role in explaining and evaluating students' performance and knowledge. According to Hendrickson (1978), providing corrective feedback is significant for enhancing learners' performance both verbally or non-verbally in foreign-language learning.

In the early of 1960s, FL pedagogy was greatly affected by audio-lingualism, and learners' errors were treated as taboo. For instance, senior behaviorist Brooks (1960) supported immediate error correction, consistent error correction, and explicit error correction. He asserted the following:

Like sin, error is to be avoided and its influence overcome, but its presence is to be expected. . . . The principal method of avoiding error in language learning is to observe and practice the right model a sufficient number of times; the principal way of overcoming it is to shorten the time lapse between the incorrect response and the presentation once more of the correct model (p.58).

Following the 1960s, researchers started coming up with new theoretical bases for CF, they thought that errors should have been considered as “venial sins” and not as “actual sins” anymore, they should have been considered as valuable assets and not sins anymore as they were considered to in 1950s and in the beginning of the 1960s. By the mid-1960s, some researchers such as Mackey (1965) and Corder (1967) tried to prove that “children’s linguistic errors were ‘systematic’, they highlighted two issues the first one was that children did things that they had not been taught to do before and the second was that they all succeeded in learning the language of their caregivers” (Nicholas, Lightbown, & Spada, 2002, p. 723).

According to Corder (1967), there was another issue demonstrated the gradual and dynamic nature of CF which was “supplying the correct form is not a suitable form of CF because it prevents the language learners from testing alternative hypotheses” (p. 168). Accordingly, what’s beneficial for learners’ interlanguage development is to be pushed in their output rather than to be helped with correct forms. He also focused on language learners’ progress in their output, and teachers and researchers should study learners’ needs in the process, they also should study the errors to see student's development and the teachers' techniques have been used effectively.

In the 1970s, literature of language teaching revealed that foreign language learning was recognized as an important area of enquiry within applied linguistics and the corrective feedback of the 1970s seemed to be controlled at the beginning with contrastive analysis and error analysis and later on with applied linguistics and SLA researchers (Waters, 2007). In the late 1960s and early 1970s, several researches believed that learning a language is systematic and learner errors are not random mistakes, they are evidence of learning a second language (Corder, 1975; Nemser, 1971; Selinker, 1972).

In the beginning of 1970s the CF was still under influence from Contrastive Analysis and Error analysis to transformational-generative grammar in linguistics and from behavioristic view of language acquisition to a more cognitive view of language

acquisition in psychology and from audio-lingualism and its mechanistic approach to a more humanistic approach of language teaching (Hendrickson, 1978).

According to Chastain (1971) the beginning of 1970s was the beginning of stressing the use of language instead of producing error-free sentences in learning the second language. The teachers were encouraged to create an atmosphere in which the learners felt comfortable to speak freely, they were encouraged to motivate their learners to use the language freely without being corrected constantly. These understandings began to have effectiveness on methodological suggestions for the classroom and they continued to have strength.

By the end of 1970s, the researches started to develop the effects of recasts and prompts on learners' uptake. Kim (2014) figured out that:

uptake is a main immediate measurement of the effectiveness of CF because he believed that uptake with repair provides evidence that learners have noticed teachers' corrections and are able to deploy them while no uptake indicates learners' failure in noticing the corrective intention of the feedback (p.90).

He also asserted the following:

first and foremost, teachers' intention to correct learners' ill-formed utterances should be signaled somehow: for example, by repeating learner errors with heightened intonation or paralinguistic cues (i.e., hand signals, a funny face, and raised eyebrows). Chaudron (1977) on the basis of his analyses of students' performance in the classroom found that teachers' corrections that worked best were those that clearly indicated to the student the locus of the error (p. 11).

At the end of 1970s, Hendrickson (1978) tried to change the direction of the research by addressing five questions about corrective feedback such as (Should learners' errors be corrected? When should learners' errors be corrected? Which errors should be corrected? How should errors be corrected? Who should do the correcting?).

Since the beginning of 1980s, there appears to be an increasing agreement among the majority of researchers regarding the importance of the role played by CF in the process of SLA in oral communication (Tatawy, 2002).

Adherers to communicative approaches, the researchers view FL learners' errors as a rich factor of the cognitive process by involving them in SLA (Schulz, 1996). According to Herron (1981), a communicative approach is used to motivate and encourage learners to communicate meaningfully in the context of the target language instead of anticipating the production of errors. Accordingly, errors are considered an important source of learners' linguistic development and should not be averted.

2.4. Theoretical Framework of Corrective Feedback

The role of CF is highly appreciated in different aspects of learning, and several theories support its positive role in SLA. Lyster, Saito and Sato (2013) have insisted that "theoretical perspectives that run the gamut from cognitively to socially oriented suggest that CF is not only beneficial but may also be necessary for moving learners forward in their L2 development" (p. 9).

2.4.1. Interaction Hypothesis

The interaction hypothesis was developed by Long (1983) and is based on Krashen's (1981) input hypothesis. According to Krashen's hypothesis, input is "the only causative variable in SLA" (p. 57) to demonstrate that language learners' knowledge of the target language is sufficient. Positive evidence and negative evidence are the two kinds of input, and, according to Krashen (1982), the role of positive evidence is important in SLA while the facilitative role of negative evidence is ignored. Long (1983) emphasized the importance of negative evidence in SLA, and he explained that meaning results from linguistic modification on behalf of speakers—i.e., communication involves an interaction between positive and negative evidence, the latter of which encourages speakers to modify their utterances in order to make them comprehensible. It is not a one-way process. While positive evidence provides sentences and speech samples, negative evidence deals with providing input to learners' incorrect utterances. When learners incorrectly use the target language in an interactional context, corrective feedback is a typical example of negative evidence to be provided (Gass, 2003). Long (1996) thus supported the facilitative role of CF, explaining the following:

The process in which, in an effort to communicate, learners and competent speakers provide and interpret signals of their own and their interlocutor's perceived comprehension, thus provoking adjustments to linguistic form, conversational structure, message content, or all three, until an acceptable level of understanding is achieved (p. 418).

SLA researchers such as Panova and Lyster (2002) as well as Spada and Lightbown (2008) have supported Long's view on negative evidence with the analysis of several practical studies. They assert the following:

Although a great deal of L2 learning takes place through exposure to comprehensible input, learners may require negative evidence (i.e., information about ungrammaticality), in the form of either feedback on error or explicit instruction, when they are not able to discover through exposure alone how their interlanguage differs from the L2 (p.573).

2.4.2. Output Hypothesis

Swain (1985, 1995) reviewed several empirical studies in content-based and language immersion contexts. Based on the findings, she suggested that comprehensible input is inadequate and causes learning difficulty; thus, it should be supplemented by output. She deduced from other studies (eg. Harley, 1989; Harley & Swain, 1978, 1984; Lightbown & Spada, 1990, 1994) that comprehensible input alone cannot provide students with speech accuracy at a grammatical level. Clearly, comprehensible input without output is not adequate for students to achieve what is necessary for language development. However, when combined with output, comprehensible input leads students to achieve grammatical accuracy and successful language learning in SLA.

According to Swain (1995), there are three functions of output: a noticing function, a hypothesis-testing function, and a metalinguistic function. First, the existence of a gap between learners' native language and the second language in their output process of speaking and writing is recognized. Second, output assists learners in testing their hypotheses to have linguistic accuracy and comprehensibility as well as to make their output suitable enough in response to teachers' feedback. Third, L2 learners reflect by using the L2, and their reflection becomes part of the output process. This output "serves a metalinguistic function, enabling them to control and internalize linguistic knowledge" (Swain, 1995, p. 126).

2.4.3. Noticing Hypothesis

The noticing hypothesis is a process claimed to be necessary for learning an L2 (Schmidt (1990, 1994). In a case study that was self-reported and tape-recorded by Schmidt himself when he was a Portuguese learner in Brazil (Schmidt & Frota, 1986), he was unable to obtain the form in the input because of not attending consciously, but his interaction with native speakers enabled him to notice the forms and produce them.

According to Schmidt (1990), noticing and emergence are strongly related to each other. There is a mismatch between what students can perform and what they want to perform, and they must realize that. By means of the noticing hypothesis, corrective feedback aids learners by providing the opportunity to realize the differences between the forms of the target language and the L1. Consequently, it helps them to modify their erroneous utterances. Afterwards, learners are prompted to self-repair, and this facilitates language development in SLA.

2.4.4. Skill Acquisition Theory

Anderson (1983, 2005) and Johnson (1996) proposed that the acquisition of second language skills is the same as that of other skills. L2 learners take three steps in order to acquire a language: “they first develop declarative knowledge, then proceduralize it, and finally automatize it” (DeKeyser, 2007, p. 97). Repeated practice is the most important movement between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge as it slowly shifts declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge (DeKeyser, 1998, 2007; Lyster & Saito, 2010). According to DeKeyser (2007), practice involves “specific activities in the second language, engaged in systematically, deliberately, with the goal of developing knowledge of and skills in the second language” (p. 1). As an outcome, corrective feedback plays a crucial role in providing practice opportunities for L2 learners to acquire language skills. Lyster (2004) has discussed the two types of CF: input-providing CF and output-prompting CF. He believes that output-prompting CF gives further chances to students to practice the target language and, thus, it is more useful than input-providing CF.

2.4.5. Counterbalance Hypothesis

After analyzing both French immersion classrooms and Japanese immersion classrooms, Lyster and Mori (2006) have suggested the counterbalance hypothesis. They affirm that interlanguage development is related to pedagogical intervention and that there should be counterbalance to the predominant classroom orientation. They state the following:

Instructional activities and interactional feedback that act as a counterbalance to the predominant communicative orientation of a given classroom setting will be more facilitative of interlanguage restructuring than instructional activities and interactional feedback that are congruent with the predominant communicative orientation (p. 294).

In line with the above view, the role of CF is proven as counterbalance in content-focused and communicative classrooms, and it is proposed to be more effective than pedagogical intervention, which is related to classroom orientation.

2.4.6. Sociocultural Theory

Based on Vygotsky's work (1978, 1986), sociocultural theory has been established and is related to social interaction. In view of sociocultural theory, language learning is part of higher-order mental activities that need to be socially mediated, and social interaction plays an important role as a mediation tool. Regulation and the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) are two fundamental concepts of this theory, and both are related to CF.

The first concept of sociocultural theory, regulation, has three stages: object-regulation, other-regulation, and self-regulation. Language learning develops through these three stages as a social process (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). The object-regulation stage involves monitoring students' behaviors by using objects in their environment. The other-regulation stage is related help and guidance provided by individuals such as teachers and peers. The self-regulation stage involves autonomous learning, in which students are able to facilitate their language learning independently. It is this stage of regulation that relates most directly to CF, which provides ample opportunity to learners

to self-repair and ultimately acquire the target language forms somewhat independently. In addition, CF assists learners to reach this final stage of self-regulation.

The second concept of sociocultural theory, the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), is defined as “the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). Nassaji and Swain (2000) have argued that advancing to higher levels of development requires the assistance of others within the ZPD in order to gauge learner potential. In line with this perspective, CF assists learners in progressing from one level to another of language development.

Various theoretical perspectives support the use of CF in the process of language development. The facilitative role of CF has been examined from the perspectives of cognitive and sociocultural theories.

2.5. CF and L2 Development – Recasts and Prompts

Several researchers have examined the concept of CF. Figure 1 below illustrates the different types of CF according to Mackey (2007) and Mackey and Gass (2006).

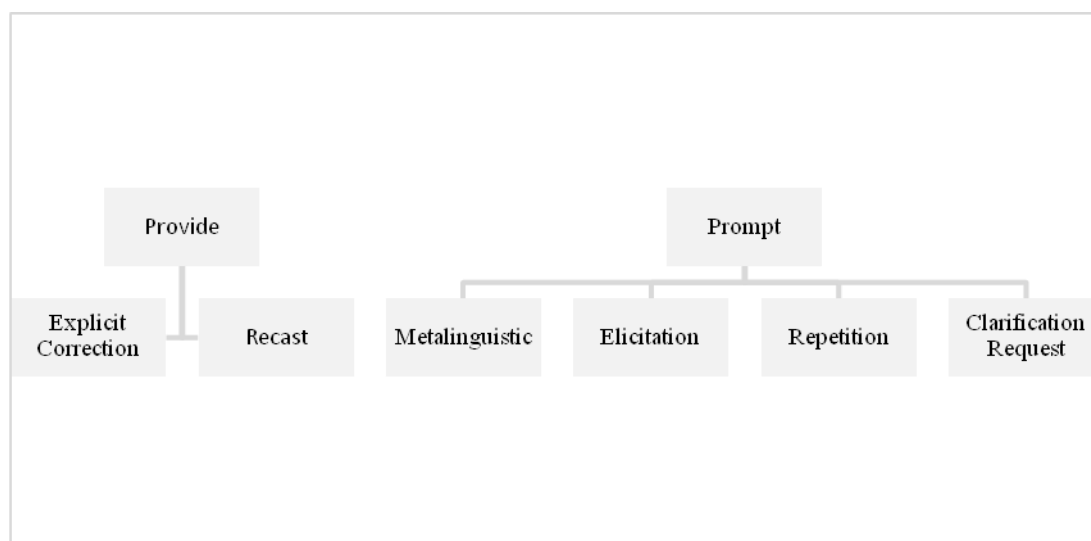


Figure 1. Types of CF according to Mackey and Gass

As seen in Figure 1, Mackey (2007) and Mackey and Gass (2006) believe that OCF assists foreign language learners in identifying the space between their interlanguage forms and L2 forms. Moreover, it stimulates L2 development by identifying the correct forms. Accordingly, there are two main kinds of CF: recasts and elicitation. A recast, as demonstrated by Example 1 below, involves the provision of the correct form of a learner's performance by a teacher or a more capable person, while elicitation, as demonstrated by Example 2, concerns the prompting of learners to self-correct (Kaivanpanah, Alavi, & Sepehrinia, 2015).

“Example 1: Recast”

“S we took a party last night . . .”

“T so, you had a party last night . . .” (p. 75)

“Example 2: Elicitation”

“S and her mother take him to the movie. ..”

“T I’m sorry, what? Her mother take him . . . ?” (p. 75)

2.6. Types of corrective feedback

Figure 2 below illustrates the different types of CF according to Lyster and Ranta (1997):

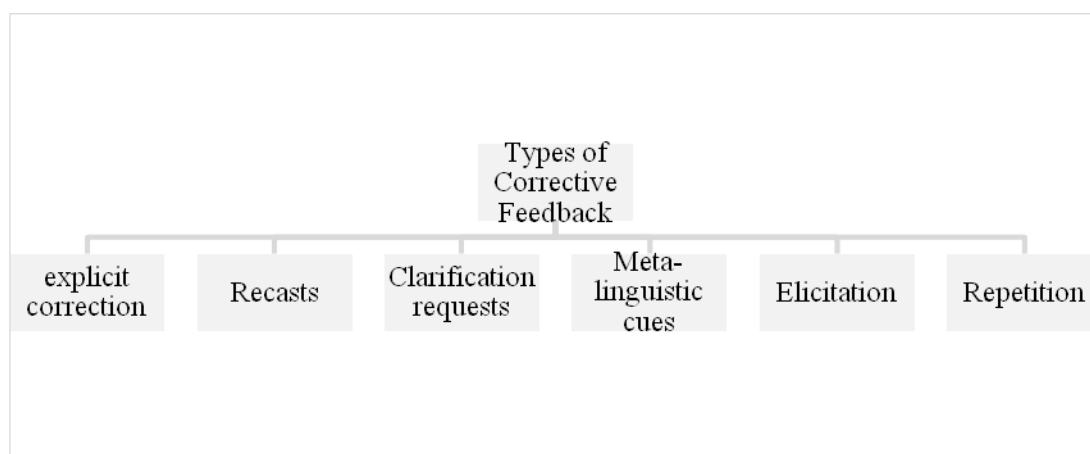


Figure 2. Types of CF according to Lyster and Ranta

As displayed in Figure 2, CF is divided into the following six types: explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, meta-linguistic cues, elicitation and repetition (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). CF has been elaborated for teachers in order that they may effectively evaluate learners' efforts and provide guidance regarding errors that have been uttered by the learners. The types of CF asserted by Lyster and Ranta (1997) are defined in the following sections. The examples below involve students ranging in age from 10 to 11 years who were enrolled in ESL classes (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 140-141).

2.6.1. Explicit Correction

Explicit correction concerns the clear and direct provision of the correct linguistic form. Here, the role of the teacher is to provide the correct form and to indicate the erroneous part that has been uttered by the learner, for example with the following phrases: "Oh, you mean [. . .]. You should say [. . .]" (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 140). The following is an example of explicit correction:

"S The dog run fastly."

"T 'Fastly' doesn't exist. 'Fast' does not take -ly. That's why I picked 'quickly'" (p. 140).

Explicit CF is defined as "the process of providing the learner with direct forms of feedback" (Varnosfadrani & Basturkmen, 2009, p. 83). Explicit correction addresses oral performance by identifying the errors uttered by learners.

2.6.2. Recasts

Recasts involves the reformulation by teachers of a part of a learner's performance or whole utterance without mentioning the error. Recasts are implicit as the errors are not stated directly and do not employ phrases such as "You mean," "Use this word," or "You should say" (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 140).

"S1 Why you don't like Marc?"

"T Why don't you like Marc?"

"S2 I don't know, I don't like him." (p. 140)

In the previous example, the teacher reformulates the question addressed from S1 to S2 without expecting a response from S1.

Recasts can be compared to real-life correction and they can be imitated. Typically, recasts comprise the reactions of individuals to learners' errors in everyday life. Also, they often are utilized by parents when correcting their children. Recasts are a way of giving feedback indirectly and gently. The following is an example of a recast:

- “S I go to the cinema last night.”
 “T You went to the cinema. What did you see?”
 “S ‘Avatar’” (p. 51)

In this example, the teacher provides the exact formula (*went*) and focuses on meaning without interrupting the stream of words.

2.6.3. Clarification Requests

Clarification requests indicate that either there is a misunderstanding between the teacher and the student concerning an utterance or the utterance is incorrect. In fact, a repetition or a reformulation probably is needed. Phrases often employed in clarification requests include “Pardon me” and “What do you mean by . . . ?”. The following are examples of clarification requests:

- “T How often do you wash the dishes?”
 “S Fourteen.”
 “T Excuse me. (Clarification request)”
 “S Fourteen.”
 “T Fourteen what? (Clarification request)”
 “S Fourteen for a week.”
 “T Fourteen times a week? (Recast)”
 “S Yes. Lunch and dinner.” (p. 140)

Clarification requests move from one speaker to another and request help in understanding the other utterer's performance through phrases or questions (Pica, 1987). The following is another example of a clarification request:

- “**I:** So you came here by yourself or did you come with friends?”
- “**L:** No no I - what? what you say? (clarification request)”
- “**I:** Did you come to the states with friends or did you come alone?”
- “**L:** No, alone - from Toronto” (p. 6)

2.6.4. Metalinguistic Cues

Metalinguistic feedback includes comments, information, or questions involved in correcting students’ performance without giving the correct form in an explicit way. Metalinguistic questions mainly ask students to identify their own errors. Also, metalinguistic explanation involves providing either some grammar terminology related to the quality of the error (for example, “It is masculine”) or related to the lexical errors. Also, metalinguistic questions indicated the nature of the error and try elicit information from students (for example, “Is it feminine?”). The following is an example of metalinguistic cues:

- “**S** We look at the people yesterday.”
- “**T** What's the ending we put on verbs when we talk about the past?”
- “**S** e – d” (p. 141)

2.6.5. Elicitation

Elicitation involves techniques utilized by instructors to glean accurate information from learners. Three main techniques are employed. First, teachers’ own utterances may be utilized (for example, “It's a . . .”). Second, questions may be used to elicit correct forms from learners (for example, “How do we say *x* in English?”). Third, sometimes students are asked to reformulate their own performances. The following is an example of elicitation:

- “**S** My father cleans the plate.”
- “**T** Excuse me, he cleans the -----?”
- “**S** Plates?” (p. 141)

2.6.6. Repetition

Repetition refers to teachers' intonation of the erroneous part uttered by learners in order to point out the error. In this example, repetition is followed by a recast:

“S He's in the bathroom.”

“T Bathroom? Bedroom. He's in the bedroom.” (p. 141)

In the next example, repetition is followed by a metalinguistic comment and explicit correction:

“S We is ...”

“T We is? But it's two people, right? You see your mistake? You see the error? When it's plural it's 'we are'.” (p. 141)

2.7. Conditions of OCF

One of the most important goals of feedback in an SLA context is to facilitate the language-learning process. However, the impact of CF for students is affected by certain conditions. According to Gibbs and Simpson (2004), the following conditions should be considered:

1. Provide feedback as much as necessary.
2. The provided feedback should focus on students' learning and the actions that influence them to perform what they have learnt under their own control. It should not evaluate the characteristics of the students themselves.
3. The feedback should be provided in a timely manner that considers learners' attention and ability to utilize the feedback.
4. The feedback should suit the target of the task in order to be successful.
5. Teachers should ensure that there is a relation between students' understanding of what they are trying to achieve in a task and the feedback provided.
6. Teachers should ensure that the feedback is received clearly and is attended by students.
7. The feedback holds meaning for the students and is enacted by them.

Gibbs and Simpson (2004) have asserted that the conditions are fundamental to effective feedback in the classroom.

2.8. Previous Studies on CF

2.8.1. Empirical Studies on OCF

A study was conducted by Kaivanpanah, et al. (2015) to examine Iranian language learners' attitudes towards different types of OCF and to determine its relation to these learners' proficiency. The study also compared students' attitudes with those of teachers. Participants included 154 second-language learners at three various levels of proficiency as well as 25 EFL instructors. The study was based on a 36-item questionnaire and a semi-structured interview addressing open-ended questions to teachers. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used to analyze collected data from the questionnaires and interviews. The findings of the study revealed that more capable students preferred more elicitative types of CF requiring self-correction. Moreover, learners strongly supported teacher feedback, but they were also generally positive about peer feedback at all levels of proficiency. The findings also revealed that teachers' attitudes were negative towards the outcomes of their CF.

Tomczyk (2013) conducted another study comparing teachers' and learners' views toward OCF. Participants included 43 secondary-school EFL teachers and 250 EFL students. Questionnaires and observations were employed as data collection methods, and the collected data was analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. The results indicated differences as well as similarities in the opinions of teachers and students regarding OCF.

A study conducted by Kazemi, Araghi and Davatgari (2013) investigated whether or not learners of different proficiency levels prefer OCF and which types of OCF are preferred by the learners (p. 1996). Participants included 90 female EFL learners in the Pardisan Language Institute in Iran. A questionnaire was administered to the participants, who were separated into six groups of basic, intermediate and proficient levels based on standardized placement tests. These six groups were taught by the researcher for one semester, during which the researcher corrected the students' oral

errors by utilizing 10 different techniques to ensure that the questionnaire was reliable. The results of the research revealed that most learners preferred to receive OCF from their instructors, and they consistently chose error correction. Furthermore, almost all the students preferred to receive correction of vocabulary errors rather than other forms of errors. In addition, the most preferred OCF methods were those in which the instructor repeated the same question, asked the learners to repeat what had been erroneously uttered, clarified why the utterance was incorrect, and prompted the students to identify the error and self-correct.

Almuhimedi and Alshumaimeri (2015) conducted a study investigating the impact of grammatical error correction on EFL students in Saudi Arabia, the students' preferences of CF in grammar, and associated issues with grammar error correction. Participants included 304 Saudi Arabian female learners in their third year of secondary study in Riyadh. The research employed qualitative and quantitative methods to describe and analyze the effectiveness of CF from students' perspectives in grammar classes. A five-point Likert scale questionnaire pertaining error correction was administered, and several statistical tests were performed using SPSS. The results indicated that correcting grammar helped learners to understand and to remember the correct answers during their classes. Excessive use of the Arabic language was a serious problem, and spending too much time on error correction was another issue. Meanwhile, the students preferred the immediate correction of their grammatical errors, and they preferred coded correction of their errors.

Farrokhi (2007) conducted a study to examine the relationship between teachers' stated beliefs and classroom practices with reference to their correction of L2 learners' oral errors in EFL classes. Participants included 5 Iranian teachers. The researcher utilized classroom observation to investigate how teachers dealt with their L2 learners' non-target-like forms. Also, a questionnaire was used to investigate teachers' beliefs about different types of feedback. The collected data was analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively. The results of the observational and self-report data demonstrated some mismatch between the teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. The findings also revealed that it was difficult for teachers to decide on effective and appropriate types of

feedback, especially when evaluating fluency. They might have impeded communication and failed to change students' productions of the target-language forms.

Park (2010) conducted a study concerning which CF methods were preferred by native English instructors and learners. Participants included 24 male and female English teachers, all of whom were native speakers of English, and 51 male and female Korean university EFL students. Qualitative and quantitative data was collected via a Questionnaire for Corrective Feedback Approaches (QCFAs) and a Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC). The quantitative data was analyzed by SPSS, and the qualitative data was analyzed by means of content analysis. The findings of the quantitative data revealed that recast was most preferred among the other five CF techniques suggested by Lyster and Ranta (1997), and this was uniform among all the participant group—teachers, learners, high-proficiency students (HPSs), and low-proficiency students (LPSs). The only statistically significant variable was explicit correction. The results of the qualitative data revealed that instructors and learners differed both individually and as groups concerning their preferences of CF. Moreover, clarification request, elicitation, and repetition were perceived by some teachers and students to have the same construct of implicit correction.

Calsiyao (2015) conducted a study on oral corrective feedback among Kalinga-Apayao State College (KASC) learners. The aim was to explore learners' attitudes towards OCF, and participants included 365 Filipino students. A questionnaire was administered as the main data collection instrument while informal interviews were conducted to confirm the answers of the respondents. The results indicated that KASC students preferred CF for all their oral errors; specifically, they preferred teacher correction, peer correction, self-correction, and correction of the errors that interfered with communication and meaning. Moreover, the students preferred always to be corrected of their grammar mistakes, and all other errors were preferred to be corrected frequently. The most preferred techniques used by teachers were recast and explicit for grammatical errors and explanation method for pronunciation errors.

Fungula (2013) conducted a study of OCF that examined Chinese EFL instructors' uses of various types of OCF, their views about the most frequently used strategies, and their tactics to progress their own OCF. Participants included 4 EFL teachers, one male and three females. Interviews and observations were employed for data collection. The collected data was analyzed via content analysis. The findings indicated that the most frequently used feedback technique was recast and the teachers had different ideas about the most effective method of feedback. Moreover, the results revealed differences between instructors' views about feedback strategies compared to observation outcomes.

2.8.2. Theoretical Studies on Oral Corrective Feedback

Ok and Ustacı (2013) conducted a study exploring students' views of the policies used by their teachers when correcting oral grammatical errors in an ELT setting at a Turkish university. Participants included 213 Turkish ELT students, both males and females from four levels (freshmen, sophomore, junior, and senior). A five-point Likert scale questionnaire was utilized to gather data, which was analyzed by SPSS. The findings demonstrated that teachers must select the techniques they use for providing CF in oral grammatical errors. Firstly, ELT learners preferred their frequent verbal grammatical errors to be corrected. Particularly, senior learners were more positive and sensitive regarding the instant correction of recurring errors. Furthermore, most learners favored the correction of common errors among their peers rather than individual correction in class. Secondly, most students preferred their instructors' helps in realizing their errors while correcting them by themselves, and they preferred to be given choices to correct their errors. Thirdly, freshmen students preferred to be warned about grammar mistakes and to be corrected by repeating the correct form. They needed more feedback in grammar use than did the other levels of learners.

Ustacı and Ok (2014) also conducted a study in a Turkish university of ELT students' attitudes towards OCF in terms of vocabulary and pronunciation errors. The aim was to identify students' views of OCF from teachers regarding vocabulary and pronunciation. Participants included 213 Turkish ELT learners. A five-point Likert scale survey was administrated to collect data, which was analyzed by SPSS. The results

indicated that instructors should consider learners' preferences of CF at different levels and should be more sensitive towards their attitudes of OCF regarding vocabulary and pronunciation. The instructors should determine students' preferences of CF in order to enable them to address the errors positively as well as to simplify learning procedure.

A study conducted by Fidan (2015) investigated students' attitudes towards OCF among Turkish EFL students. Participants included 165 students from two different levels (141 C1-level students and 24 B2-level students). Data was collected via a multiple-choice questionnaire and subsequently analyzed using SPSS. The results indicated that almost all participants preferred their errors to be corrected, and most preferred to be corrected instantly. Over half of the participants preferred their grammatical errors to be corrected. The first most preferable correction strategy was teachers' instant provision of the correct form, and the second one was instructors' repetition of the inaccurate parts of the speech.

A study conducted by Katayama (2007) pertaining learners' perceptions of OCF investigated involved 588 Japanese EFL learners at numerous Japanese universities. A questionnaire containing a five-point Likert scale was administered for data collection, and the data was analyzed using SPSS. The results demonstrated that the students strongly preferred teacher correction, and they preferred their pragmatic errors rather than other kinds of errors to be corrected. Moreover, they preferred to be given hints and prompted by their teachers in order to realize the errors for self-correction.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the research design, participant demographics, and sampling method employed in this study. It also elaborates the data collection instruments and data analysis methods.

3.2. Research Design

This study is a descriptive research study investigating teachers' and learners' preferences of CF in oral communication skills. Participants included EFL teachers and students, the students were selected from 2 sophomore classes at Sallahadin University, College of Languages, English Department in Erbil, Iraq, and the type of sampling used with students was convenience sampling. The teachers who participated in this study were selected randomly but from different state universities, and they were teaching speaking courses.

This study utilized a mixed method of data collection, both qualitative and quantitative, employing questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. A parallel questionnaire, which included 36 items and utilized a five-point Likert scale, was administered to teachers and learners. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with both teachers and learners and including six open-ended questions to learn more about their preferences of OCF. The questionnaires were distributed to the learners by paper, while they were administered to teachers via email. The teachers and learners were

interviewed in-person, and the interviews were recorded then transcribed for later analysis.

3.3. Participants

Table 1 below illustrates the demographic characteristics of the learners in terms of gender, mother tongue, and years of English study.

Table 1.

Demographic characteristics of learners

Demographic characteristics of Learners(n=100)		F	%
Gender	Male	43	43
	Female	57	57
Mother tongue	Kurdish	76	76
	Arabic	19	19
	Turkish	1	1
	Persian	1	1
	Assyrian	3	3
How long they have been studying English?	1-2 years	72	72
	3-5 years	16	16
	> 5 years	12	12

As seen in the table above, participants included 100 Iraqi students (43 male and 57 female) whose ages range from 20 to 25 years. Though all students were Iraqi, their mother tongues differed and included such languages as Kurdish, Arabic, Turkish, Persian, and Assyrian. They had at least one year of experience in studying English, but none of the learners had ever visited an English-speaking country. The participants were selected from two sophomore classes at Salahaddin University, College of Languages, English Department, because sophomore classes are the only classes that include speaking skills as a basic skill in almost all universities of Northern Iraq.

The demographic characteristics of the teachers is presented in Table 2 below in terms of gender and years spent teaching EFL.

Table 2.

Demographic characteristics of teachers

Demographic characteristics of Teachers (n=52)		F	%
Gender	Male	31	59.6
	Female	21	40.4
Year of experience	1-4	17	32.7
	5-9	16	30.8
	10-15	19	36.5

As seen in the table above, the numbers of teachers who participated in this research were 52, including 31 males and 21 females whose ages ranged from 28 to 50 years. All possessed at least one year of teaching experience and possessed experience in teaching speaking skills, particularly. 39 of them held a PhD in TEFL, Applied Linguistics, or English Literature.

3.4. Sampling

The present study included 2 sophomore classes at a state university in Northern Iraq. The type of sampling used with learners was convenience sampling. Convenience sampling is sometimes called opportunity sampling or availability sampling. It is the most common type of sampling in L2 research and it is usually used when the characteristics of the participants are related to the purpose of the investigation (Dörnyei, 2007). Moreover, the researcher used random sampling in the selection of teachers for two reasons. First, it was not possible to include every teacher in a particular university or two universities because some were not ready to participate in this study. Second, some teachers did not agree to participate because of their limited time and class schedules at the university.

One important point to be considered is that the characteristics of the participants strongly correlated with the objective of this research and the population which this study intended to generalize.

3.5. Instruments

This study used two questionnaires to collect data, the survey instruments (Student and Teacher Questionnaires) previously had been used in a study comparing learners' and teachers' preferences of interactional feedback (Kaivanpanah et al., 2015). In their particular study, Kaivanpanah, et al. employed the instruments to measure learners' and teachers' preferences of interactional feedback. This study also conducted semi-structured interviews containing questions developed by the researcher under the supervision of his supervisor.

3.5.1. Questionnaire for Students

To investigate the difference between Iraqi EFL teachers' and learners' preferences of OCF as well as differences among learners based on gender, a two-part questionnaire was utilized. On the first part of the questionnaire, students were asked to provide demographic information such as gender, mother tongue and years of EFL study. On the second part of the questionnaire, they were asked to specify their support for various types of OCF including 36 items, utilizing a five-point Likert scale, scored from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). The English version of the questionnaire is provided in the Appendix I.

The illustration of concepts and item analysis of the questionnaire is presented in Table 3 below:

Table 3.

Constructs and item analysis of the questionnaire

Constructs	Item addressing the construct
Preference for peer feedback	1, 5, 6, 12, 17, 18, 19, 22, 28, 31
Preference for teacher feedback	2, 7, 8, 10, 26, 30, 34, 35, 36
Preference for different types of feedback	3, 4, 9, 13, 14, 15, 16, 20, 21, 23, 25, 29
Immediate or delayed feedback	11, 24, 32
Preference for self-correction	27
Student responsibility for correction	33

As demonstrated above, the questionnaire included the following six constructs: *preferences for peer feedback, preferences for teacher feedback, preferences for different types of feedback, immediate or delayed feedback, preferences for self-*

correction, and *student responsibility for correction*. Items 1, 5, 6, 12, 17, 18, 19, 22, 28 and 31 focused on learners' responses in discussion or peer feedback and on which particular aspect they wanted to obtain feedback. Items 2, 7, 8, 10, 26, 30, 34, 35 and 36 focused on teacher feedback. Items 3, 4, 9, 13, 14, 15, 16, 20, 21, 23, 25 and 29 identified learners' views regarding various types of feedback. Items 11, 24 and 32 related to participants' views concerning immediate and delayed feedback, while Item 27 focused on learners' preferences of self-correction. Finally, Item 33 focused on students' own responsibility for correction.

All items on the student questionnaire were translated into Kurdish and Arabic; then, the questionnaires were administered to 120 learners. Before proceeding with statistical analysis, unfilled and uncompleted questionnaires were removed. Finally, 100 learners' questionnaires were used for statistical analysis.

A pilot study, or "a small-scale trial run of all the procedures planned for use in the main study" (Monette, Sullivan, & DeJong, 2002, p. 9), is a central part of conducting research and must be implemented carefully. The main purpose of facilitating a pilot study for students is to determine the reliability of the questionnaire items—whether they were clear, understandable, culturally suitable, and accepted by the respondents. For these reasons, all the items of the questionnaire in this study were translated into Kurdish and Arabic then evaluated by two university professors holding PhDs in TEFL.

The researcher obtained permission from a public university to conduct the pilot study for students, and 26 students participated in this study in December 2016. The participants were assured that the information gained from the study would be kept confidential. The questionnaires were administered to the participants, and the results indicated that the questionnaire was reliable, with a Cronbach's Alpha value of .76.

3.5.2. Questionnaire for Teachers

To investigate the difference between Iraqi EFL teachers' and learners' preferences of OCF, an two-part questionnaire was adopted. On the first part of the questionnaire, instructors were asked to provide demographic information such as gender and years of teaching experience. On the second part of the questionnaire, they were asked to show their support for various types of OCF including 36 items, utilizing a five-point Likert scale scored from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). The English version of the questionnaire is provided in the Appendix II.

Like the students' questionnaire, the teachers' questionnaire included the following six constructs: *preferences for peer feedback*, *preferences for teacher feedback*, *preferences for different types of feedback*, *immediate or delayed feedback*, *preferences for self-correction*, and *student responsibility for correction*. Items 1, 5, 6, 12, 17, 18, 19, 22, 28 and 31 focused on learners' responses in discussion or peer feedback and on which particular aspect they wanted to obtain feedback. Items 2, 7, 8, 10, 26, 30, 34, 35 and 36 focused on teacher feedback, and Items 3, 4, 9, 13, 14, 15, 16, 20, 21, 23, 25 and 29 concerned teachers' views of various types of feedback. Items 11, 24 and 32 related to participants' preferences of immediate and delayed feedback, while Item 27 focused on participants' preferences of self-correction. Finally, Item 33 focused on students' own responsibility for correction (See Table 3).

The questionnaires were administrated to 65 teachers via email. Only 52 teachers completed the questionnaires. Finally, 52 questionnaires were used for statistical analysis.

The main purpose of implementing a pilot study for teachers was to determine the reliability of the questionnaire items—whether they were clear, comprehensible, culturally suitable, and accepted by the respondents. The researcher obtained from teachers to participate in the pilot study. 26 instructors agreed to engage in this research in December 2016. The results indicated that the questionnaire was reliable, with a Cronbach's Alpha value of .80.

3.5.3. Interviews

After completing the questionnaires, semi-structured interviews were also conducted with a number of participants. 10 teachers and 10 students were interviewed in order to elicit more information regarding their views of OCF. They were asked to clarify their reasons for choosing peer feedback and teacher feedback as well as to discuss the different types of CF along with preferences of immediate and delayed feedback, self-correction, and students' responsibility for correction. Creswell (2008) believes that open-ended questions provide participants the opportunity to voice their opinions comfortably; thus, the interviews included six open-ended questions for both teachers and learners. All items in student's interview were translated into Kurdish and Arabic. The interviews lasted 10 to 20 minutes. They were all recorded then transcribed for later analysis. The English versions of the interviews for teachers and learners are provided in Appendix III and IV.

Participants included 10 Iraqi students (5 male and 5 female) whose ages range from 20 to 25 years. All students were Iraqi, they had at least two years of experience in studying English, but none of the learners had ever visited an English-speaking country. The participants were selected from two sophomore classes at Salahaddin University, College of Languages, English Department.

The numbers of teachers who participated in this study to be interviewed were 10, including 7 males and 3 females whose ages ranged from 28 to 50 years. All possessed at least one year of teaching experience and possessed experience in teaching speaking skills, particularly. They held PhDs in TEFL, Applied Linguistics, and English Literature.

To ensure the validity and reliability of the interviews, the transcriptions of the interviews were examined by two EFL experts holding PhDs prior to analysis. After reviewing the transcriptions, they determined that the interviews were valid because they had measured what was intended and could be generalized to the target population. Furthermore, the interviews were considered reliable because the same findings could be obtained by conducting the same interviews twice with different individuals.

3.6. Data Collection Procedure

To collect the data for this study, the researcher obtained oral permission from the head of the Department of English Language and Literature as well as from the instructors to visit the classes and explain the aim of the research while asking for participants. The researcher visited the classes with a teacher who was teaching them, the researcher explained the aim of the study and asked the students to participate in this study, and the teacher also asked the students to help the researcher to conduct the study.

The students who were interested in participating in this research contacted the researcher through the representatives of the classes. The study's activities took place inside the university because it would have been impossible to gather all the students outside the university. They were asked to complete the paper questionnaires, on which participants' names were not identified in order to guarantee confidentiality. Moreover, the teachers interested in participating in this study were contacted via email. They completed the questionnaires electronically and returned them to the researcher.

Two months later, semi-structured interviews were conducted with a number of participants. 10 teachers and 10 learners were interviewed using open-ended questions. The interviewers were the same participants who filled out the questionnaires.

3.7. Data Analysis

Quantitative and qualitative approaches were employed to elicit participants' preferences of OCF. Two questionnaires and interviews were used to collect data. The interviews included open-ended questions, and they were used to generate the qualitative data, while the questionnaire generated the quantitative data. Strauss (1987) stated that "the genuinely useful distinction [between qualitative and quantitative] is in how data is treated analytically" (p. 117).

According to Mackey and Gass (2011), "in quantitative research there is an attempt to determine relationships between and within variables" (p. 137). The data collected from the questionnaires was analyzed using SPSS. To identify teachers' preferences of OCF, the data was analyzed in terms of frequency and percentage. Similarly, to identify learners' preferences of OCF, data collected from the student

questionnaires was analyzed in terms of frequency and percentage. To determine whether any statistically significant difference existed between teachers' and learners' preferences of OCF and whether there any statistically significant difference existed between learners' preferences based on gender. An Independent-Samples T-Test was used to analyze data in terms of the Mean, Standard Deviation, and *P*-value.

Mackey and Gass (2011) stated that “qualitative research does not rely only on the use of statistical procedures using numbers, but also tries to gather information that is not directly noticeable” (p. 137). The data collected from the interviews was analyzed by means of inductive content analysis to elicit more information about teachers' and learners' preferences of OCF.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the research findings, including general trends in the findings. Moreover, the four research questions are addressed one-by-one in detail.

4.2. Findings of RQ 1:

What are Iraqi EFL teachers' preferences of corrective feedback for their students' oral errors?

Table below illustrates the overall frequency and percentage of Iraqi EFL teachers' preferences. To identify overall teachers' views regarding (a) peer feedback, (b) teacher feedback, (c) different types of feedback, (d) immediate or delayed feedback, (e) self-correction, and (f) student's responsibility for correction, a five-point Likert Scale was employed and scored from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree."

Table 4.

Teachers' overall frequency and percentage

Overall Iraqi EFL teachers' preferences for corrective feedback in oral communication	Teacher	
	F	%
Strongly disagree	0	0
Disagree	1	1.9
Agree to some extent	24	46.2
Agree	27	51.9
Strongly agree	0	0

As demonstrated in Table 4, almost half of the teachers (51.9%) agreed with most questionnaire items. Moreover, it is noteworthy that twenty-four teachers (46.2%) “agreed to some extent.” Only one teacher (1.9%) disagreed. Overall, participants refused to indicate “strongly disagree” or “strongly agree” on the 36 items.

Table 5 below illustrates teachers’ preferences of peer feedback in oral communication skills by displaying the frequency and percentage of item scores from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.”

Table 5.

Teachers’ preferences for peer feedback

Constructs and item analysis of the questionnaire		Teacher (n=52)	
		F	%
Preference for peer feedback	Strongly disagree	1	1.9
	Disagree	4	7.7
	Agree to some extent	26	50
	Agree	21	40.4
	Strongly agree	0	0

As viewed in the table above, half of the teachers (50%) indicated “agree to some extent” for peer feedback, and twenty-one (40.4%) indicated “agree.” Furthermore, four teachers (7.7%) disagreed, and only one teacher (1.9%) strongly disagreed. It is noteworthy that none of the teachers agreed strongly with peer feedback.

Table 6 below indicates teachers’ preferences of teacher feedback in oral communication skills.

Table 6.

Teachers’ preferences for teacher feedback

Constructs and item analysis of the questionnaire		Teacher (n=52)	
		F	%
Preference for teacher feedback	Strongly disagree	0	0
	Disagree	13	25
	Agree to some extent	30	57.7
	Agree	8	15.4
	Strongly agree	1	1.9

As seen in Table 6, thirty teachers (57.7%) indicated “agree to some extent” for teacher feedback, while thirteen teachers (25%) disagreed. The results also indicate that eight teachers (15.4%) agreed, and only one teacher (1.9%) agreed strongly. Moreover, none of the teachers strongly refused teacher feedback.

The results of teachers’ preferences for various types of feedback in oral communication skills are presented in Table 7 below:

Table 7.

Teachers’ preferences for different types of feedback

Constructs and item analysis of the questionnaire		Teacher (n=52)	
		F	%
Preference for different types of feedback	Strongly disagree	0	0
	Disagree	0	0
	Agree to some extent	19	36.5
	Agree	30	57.7
	Strongly agree	3	5.8

As seen above, thirty teachers (57.7%) agreed, and nineteen teachers (36.5%) agreed to some extent. Only three teachers (5.8%) indicated “strongly agree,” while none of the teachers indicated “disagree” or “strongly disagree.”

Table 8 below illustrates teachers’ preferences of immediate and delayed feedback in oral communication skills.

Table 8.

Teachers’ preferences for immediate and delayed feedback

Constructs and item analysis of the questionnaire		Teacher (n=52)	
		F	%
Immediate or delayed feedback	Strongly disagree	0	0
	Disagree	9	17.3
	Agree to some extent	31	59.6
	Agree	11	21.2
	Strongly agree	1	1.9

As displayed in Table 8, thirty-one teachers (59.6%) agreed to some extent, and eleven teachers (21.2%) agreed with immediate and delayed feedback. Moreover, nine teachers (17.3%) disagreed. Only one teacher (1.9%) strongly agreed, while none strongly disagreed.

Table 9 below displays teachers' preferences for self-correction in oral communication skills by showing the frequency and percentage of item scores from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree."

Table 9.

Teachers' preferences for self-correction

Constructs and item analysis of the questionnaire		Teacher (n=52)	
		F	%
Preference for self-correction	Strongly disagree	3	5.8
	Disagree	1	1.9
	Agree to some extent	20	38.5
	Agree	24	46.2
	Strongly agree	4	7.7

Teachers' evaluation of self-correction is presented in the table above. The results indicate that twenty-four teachers (46.2%) agreed and twenty teachers (38.5%) agreed to some extent. Only four teachers (7.7%) indicated "strongly agree," while three (5.8%) indicated "strongly disagree." Furthermore, one teacher (1.9%) disagreed.

Table 10 below illustrates teachers' views regarding students' responsibility for correction in oral communication skills.

Table 10.

Teachers' preferences for students' responsibility for correction

Constructs and item analysis of the questionnaire		Teacher (n=52)	
		F	%
Students' responsibility for correction	Strongly disagree	0	0
	Disagree	2	3.8
	Agree to some extent	3	5.8
	Agree	32	61.5
	Strongly agree	15	28.8

The findings of Table 10 indicate that the majority of the teachers (61.5%) agreed with students' responsibility for correction, and fifteen teachers (28.8%) agreed strongly. Moreover, three teachers (5.8%) agreed to some extent, while only two teachers (3.8%) disagreed. No teachers strongly disagreed.

4.3. Findings of RQ 2:

What are Iraqi EFL learners' preferences of corrective feedback in their oral errors?

Table 11 illustrates the overall frequency and percentage of Iraqi EFL learners' preferences. To determine students' overall preferences of (a) peer feedback, (b) teacher feedback, (c) different types of feedback, (d) immediate or delayed feedback, (e) self-correction, and (f) student's responsibility for correction, a five-point Likert Scale was used and scored from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree."

Table 11.

Learners' overall frequency and percentage

Overall Iraqi EFL learners' preferences for corrective feedback in oral communication	Student	
	F	%
Strongly disagree	0	0
Disagree	0	0
Agree to some extent	25	25
Agree	69	69
Strongly agree	6	6
Total	100	100

As seen in Table 11, a great number of the learners (69%) agreed with the items. Moreover, twenty-five students (25%) agreed to some extent. A few learners (6%) strongly agreed, and, overall, participants refused to choose disagree or strongly disagree.

Table 12 below indicates learners' preferences for peer feedback in oral communication skills by showing the frequency and percentage of item scores from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree."

Table 12.

Learners' preferences for peer feedback

Constructs and item analysis of the questionnaire		Learner (n=100)	
		F	%
Preference for peer feedback	Strongly disagree	0	0
	Disagree	1	1
	Agree to some extent	24	24
	Agree	61	61
	Strongly agree	14	14

As seen in Table 12, learners generally supported peer feedback. The results show that 61% of teachers agreed for peer feedback, 24% agreed to some extent, and 14% strongly agreed. Peer feedback was refused by 1%, and it was strongly refused by none.

Table 13 below illustrates learners' preferences regarding teacher feedback in oral communication skills.

Table 13.

Learners' preferences for teacher feedback

Constructs and item analysis of the questionnaire		Learner (n=100)	
		F	%
Preference for teacher feedback	Strongly disagree	0	0
	Disagree	4	4
	Agree to some extent	40	40
	Agree	48	48
	Strongly agree	8	8

As seen above, learners generally had a positive orientation toward teacher feedback. The results indicate that 48% of the teachers agreed for teacher feedback, 40% agreed to some extent, and 8% strongly agreed. Only 4% disagreed, while no one strongly disagreed.

The results of learners' preferences for various types of feedback in oral communication skills are presented in Table 14 below:

Table 14.

Learners' preferences for different types of feedback

Constructs and item analysis of the questionnaire		Learner (n=100)	
		F	%
Preference for different types of feedback	Strongly disagree	0	0
	Disagree	0	0
	Agree to some extent	17	17
	Agree	64	64
	Strongly agree	19	19

Concerning learners' evaluation of different types of feedback, there was general agreement. 64% agreed, 19% strongly agreed, and 17% agreed to some extent. Overall, learners did not indicate "strongly disagree" or "disagree" for different types of corrective feedback.

Table 15 illustrates learners' preferences for immediate and delayed feedback in oral communication skills.

Table 15.

Learners' preferences for immediate and delayed feedback

Constructs and item analysis of the questionnaire		Learner (n=100)	
		F	%
Immediate or delayed feedback	Strongly disagree	0	0
	Disagree	9	9
	Agree to some extent	36	36
	Agree	49	49
	Strongly agree	6	6

Regarding whether oral feedback should be immediate or delayed, the findings showed general agreement among the learners. 49% agreed and 36% agreed to some extent, 9% disagreed, and 6% strongly agreed. None of the teachers strongly disagreed.

The results of learners' preferences for self-correction in oral communication skills are given in Table 16 below:

Table 16.

Learners' preferences for self-correction

Constructs and item analysis of the questionnaire		Learner (n=100)	
		F	%
Preference for self-correction	Strongly disagree	1	1
	Disagree	10	10
	Agree to some extent	22	22
	Agree	32	32
	Strongly agree	35	35

Concerning learners' evaluation of self-correction, most agreed. 35% agreed strongly and 32% agreed. Moreover, 22% agreed to some extent, while 10% disagreed. Only 1% disagreed strongly.

Table 17 below displays learners' preferences concerning students' responsibility for correction in oral communication skills.

Table 17.

Learners' preferences for students' responsibility for correction

Constructs and item analysis of the questionnaire		Learner (n=100)	
		F	%
Student responsibility for correction	Strongly disagree	0	0
	Disagree	8	8
	Agree to some extent	29	29
	Agree	26	26
	Strongly agree	37	37

As seen above, 37% agreed strongly, 29% agreed to some extent, and 26% agreed with their responsibility for correction. Only 8% disagreed. None of the learners indicated strongly disagreed.

4.4. Findings of RQ 3:

Does a statistically significant difference exist between Iraqi EFL teachers' and learners' preferences of corrective feedback in oral communication skills?

Table 18 below demonstrates that an independent-sample *t*-test was conducted to compare teachers' and students' preferences of OCF. Responses were calculated for all survey items and are presented in terms of mean, standard deviation, and *P*-value.

Table 18.

Difference between teachers and learners

Teachers' and learners' preferences for corrective feedback	Teacher		Learner		P-value of t-test Sig.
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	
Preference for peer feedback	32.25	5.11	36.58	4.90	.001
Preference for teacher feedback	27.10	5.41	31.95	5.22	.001
Preference for different types of feedback	43.38	4.65	46.54	5.69	.001
Immediate or delayed feedback	10.21	1.91	11.49	2.15	.001
Preference for self-correction	3.48	0.90	3.90	1.03	.014
Student responsibility for correction	4.15	0.70	3.92	1.00	.132

As indicated above, scores were calculated for Items 1, 5, 6, 12, 17, 18, 19, 22, 28, and 31 to compare students' preferences with teachers' preferences for peer feedback. The results demonstrate a statistically significant difference to exist between the scores of teachers ($M = 32.25$, $SD = 5.11$) and learners ($M = 36.58$, $SD = 4.90$), and $p < .05$.

In addition, to compare learners' preferences for teacher feedback with teachers' preferences for teacher feedback, scores were calculated for Items 2, 7, 8, 10, 26, 30, 34, 35, and 36. The results indicate a statistically significant difference to exist between the scores of teachers ($M = 27.10$, $SD = 5.41$) and learners ($M = 31.95$, $SD = 5.22$), and $p < .05$.

Furthermore, an independent-sample *t*-test was conducted to compare learners' preferences with teachers' preferences for various types of feedback, and scores were calculated for Items 3, 4, 9, 13, 14, 15, 16, 20, 21, 23, 25, and 29. The results show a statistically significant difference to exist between the scores of teachers ($M = 43.38$, $SD = 4.65$) and learners ($M = 46.54$, $SD = 5.69$), and $p < .05$.

Moreover, regarding whether oral feedback should be immediate or delayed, an independent-sample *t*-test was conducted to compare learners' preferences with those of teachers, and scores were calculated for Items 11, 24, and 32. The results show that a statistically significant difference exists between the scores of teachers ($M = 10.21$, $SD = 1.91$) and learners ($M = 11.49$, $SD = 2.15$), and $p < .05$.

To compare learners' and teachers' preferences for self-correction, scores were calculated for Item 27. The results also indicate a statistically significant difference to exist between the scores of teachers ($M = 3.481$, $SD = 0.90$) and learners ($M = 3.90$, $SD = 1.03$), and $p < .05$.

To compare learners' and teachers' preferences concerning students' responsibility for correction, scores were calculated for Item 33. Unlike with the other constructs, the findings show that no statistically significant difference exists between the scores of teachers ($M = 4.15$, $SD = 0.70$) and learners ($M = 3.92$, $SD = 1.00$), and $p > .05$.

The difference between overall Iraqi EFL teachers' and learners' preferences of corrective feedback in oral communication skills is displayed in Table 19 below. An independent-sample *t*-test was conducted to compare the scores of teachers and learners. The means, standard deviations, and *P*-values are also provided.

Table 19.

Difference between overall teachers' and learners' preferences

Difference between overall Iraqi EFL teachers' and learners' preferences for corrective feedback in oral communication	Mean	Standard Deviation	P-value of t-test
Teachers' preferences	120.58	9.32	.001
Learners' preferences	134.38	13.52	

As seen in table 19, a statistically significant difference was found to exist between teachers' ($M = 120.58$, $SD = 9.32$) and learners' ($M = 134.38$, $SD = 13.52$) preferences of corrective feedback in oral communication skills, and the $p < .05$.

4.5. Findings of RQ 4:

Does a statistically significant difference between Iraqi EFL learners' preferences of corrective feedback in oral communication skills based on gender?

Table 20 below indicates the results of an independent-sample t -test conducted to compare male and female preferences for OCF, and responses were calculated for all questionnaire items. the results are presented in terms of mean, standard deviation, and p -value.

Table 20.

Difference between male and female learners

Learners' preferences for corrective feedback	Male		Female		P-value of t-test
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Sig.
Preference for peer feedback	38.33	4.80	35.26	4.58	.002
Preference for teacher feedback	32.79	5.22	31.32	5.18	.163
Preference for different types of feedback	47.05	5.07	46.16	6.13	.442
Immediate or delayed feedback	11.63	2.10	11.39	2.23	.580
Preference for self-correction	4.07	0.89	3.77	1.12	.153
Student responsibility for correction	3.95	0.98	3.90	1.01	.771

As seen above, scores were calculated for Items 1, 5, 6, 12, 17, 18, 19, 22, 28, and 31 to compare learners' preferences for peer feedback in terms of gender. The results show a statistically significant difference to exist between the scores of males ($M = 38.33$, $SD = 4.80$) and females ($M = 35.26$, $SD = 4.58$), and $p < .05$.

In addition, to compare learners' preferences for teacher feedback in terms of gender, scores were calculated for Items 2, 7, 8, 10, 26, 30, 34, 35, and 36. The results indicate no statistically significant difference to exist between the scores of males ($M = 32.79$, $SD = 5.22$) and females ($M = 31.32$, $SD = 5.18$), and $p > .05$.

Furthermore, an independent-sample t -test was conducted to compare learners' preferences in terms of gender for different types of feedback, and scores were calculated for Items 3, 4, 9, 13, 14, 15, 16, 20, 21, 23, 25, and 29. The results show no statistically significant difference to exist between the scores of males ($M = 47.05$, $SD = 5.07$) and females ($M = 46.16$, $SD = 6.13$), and $p > .05$.

Moreover, an independent-sample t -test was conducted to compare learners' preferences in terms of gender regarding whether oral feedback should be immediate or delayed, and scores were calculated for Items 11, 24, and 32. The results also demonstrate that there is no statistically significant difference between the scores of males ($M = 11.63$, $SD = 2.10$) and females ($M = 11.39$, $SD = 2.23$), and $p > .05$.

To compare preferences of self-correction in terms of gender, scores were calculated for Item 27. The results also show that there is no statistically significant difference between the scores of males ($M = 4.07$, $SD = 0.89$) and females ($M = 3.77$, $SD = 1.12$), and $p > .05$.

To compare preferences regarding students' responsibility for correction in terms of gender, scores were calculated for Item 33. The findings similarly show that there is no statistically significant difference between the scores of males ($M = 3.95$, $SD = 0.98$) and females ($M = 3.90$, $SD = 1.01$), and $p > .05$.

The overall difference between learners' preferences of OCF based on gender is displayed in Table 21. An independent-sample t -test was conducted to compare the scores for males and females.

Table 21.

Significant difference between male and female learners

Difference between male and female genders regarding Iraqi EFL learners' preferences for corrective feedback in oral communication	Mean	Standard Deviation	P-value of t-test
Male	137.81	13.33	.027
Female	131.79	13.18	

As demonstrated above, a statistically significant difference was found to exist between the scores of males ($M = 137.81$, $SD = 13.33$) and females ($M = 131.79$, $SD = 13.18$) regarding preference for OCF, and $p < .05$.

4.6. Findings of Interviews

4.6.1. Teachers' Interviews

To supplement the questionnaire and to identify teachers' preferences of OCF, interviews were conducted with 10 university teachers to identify their views on (a) peer feedback, (b) teacher feedback, (c) types of corrective feedback, (d) immediate or delayed feedback, (e) self-correction, and (f) student's responsibility for correction as well as to elicit more information about their preferences of OCF. The interviews included 6 open-ended questions (See Appendix III) that were recorded and transcribed then analyzed by means of inductive content analysis.

Table 22 illustrates the themes and topics mentioned during the interviews. The teachers were asked to clarify their preferences for (a) peer feedback, (b) teacher feedback, (c) types of corrective feedback, (d) immediate or delayed feedback, (e) self-correction, and (f) student's responsibility for correction.

Table 22.

The common topics in teachers' interviews

Constructs	Themes	Teachers
Teacher feedback	Teacher as source of information	T1, T2, T3, T5, T10
	Negative effect of	T9
	Peer's lack of knowledge	T4, T10
	Teachers' confirmation	T4, T10
Peer feedback	Encouraging learners to be active	T6, T7, T8
Different types of feedback & self-correction	Depending on learners' language level	T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, T6, T7, T8, T9, T10
Immediate or delayed feedback	Being helpful	T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, T6, T7, T8, T9, T10
	Being forgetful	T1, T2, T6, T9
Students' responsibility	Improving learners' performance	T1, T2, T3, T4, T7, T10
	Encouraging learners to have self-confidence	T5, T6, T9

As demonstrated above, most of the teachers (T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, T9, and T10, so seven out of ten) did not support peer feedback, and they expressed concerns regarding vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. They believed that peer feedback might have a negative effect on learners and the learning environment, and they believed that learners do not trust their friends' abilities or knowledge for correction, so they need expert knowledge to correct them. For this reason, the teachers felt that the learners consider their teacher as the sole source of correction. Furthermore, they believed that better learning outcomes lead by teacher feedback because usually learners prefer to be corrected by their teachers. For example, teachers stated the following:

Excerpt 1: *"the best learning outcomes are led by teacher feedback"*(T2).

Excerpt 2: *"learners want to be corrected by their teachers because they do not believe their peers ability for correction"*(T4).

In addition, they tended to believe that learners may have a negative feeling when they are corrected by their peers and that they may feel that their peers are showing off their abilities when they correct each other. According to the teachers, when

learners are corrected by their peers, they turn to their teachers for confirmation. Additionally, they believed that teacher feedback is more effective than peer feedback.

Unlike the stated analysis above, the other three teachers (T6, T7, and T8) believed that learners can get benefit more from peer feedback than from teacher feedback. According to these teachers, peer feedback may create an optimistic sense of competition among the students and, thus, be a source of encouragement for students to use their abilities and be active learners. For example, a teacher stated the following:

Excerpt 3: *“peer feedback or peer correction is a source of interaction between learners, it makes them to be active and to use their personal linguistic ability to correct one another”*(T6).

Moreover, they felt that peer feedback can be beneficial for students, as students are prompted to use their knowledge and linguistic abilities to correct their peers. Also, it may improve their knowledge regarding vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation.

According to instructors' explanations in using the types of CF, none of the instructors believed a particular type of feedback to correct learners' errors. They believed the type of feedback used depends on the learning environment and level of learners. One of the teachers commented the following:

Excerpt 4: *“no specific type of corrective feedback is better than others, it depends on learners' language level”* (T7).

For example, elicitation is primarily supportive of advanced students, who have the capability for self-correction, while recasts and metalinguistic feedback are helpful for those who do not have the ability for self-correction.

Moreover, concerning whether feedback should be provided immediately or at the end of a conversation, the analysis showed that all teachers preferred to provide immediate feedback. Teachers stated the following:

Excerpt 5: *“when a language learner makes errors or utters an utterance erroneously, he/she needs to be corrected immediately, otherwise the feedback cannot have its effectiveness” (T1).*

Excerpt 6: *“immediate feedback does not allow learners to repeat the same mistake twice” (T2).*

They believed that immediate feedback is better and more helpful than delayed feedback as they felt that delayed feedback may be easily forgotten.

Pertaining students' responsibility for correction, the analysis of the interviews proved that all the teachers strongly supported learners to improve their performance and pay attention to their own errors as well as to repeat correctly what they think they have uttered erroneously. One teacher claimed the following:

Excerpt 7: *“learners are responsible for improving their performance, they have to take care of what they have been told, and they have to concentrate on their correction in order not to repeat the same mistake again and again” (T10).*

They believed that every single learner of a language is responsible for correcting his/her own errors, and they stated that learners need to be encouraged to have self-confidence, accept responsibility for correction, and adjust themselves to the nature of the classroom.

4.6.2. Learners' Interviews

To supplement the questionnaire and to identify learners' preferences of OCF, interviews were conducted with 10 (sophomore) university learners to identify their views regarding (a) peer feedback, (b) teacher feedback, (c) types of corrective feedback, (d) immediate or delayed feedback, (e) self-correction, and (f) student's responsibility for correction as well as to elicit more information about their preferences of OCF. The interviews included 6 open-ended questions (See Appendix IV) which were recorded and transcribed then analyzed by means of inductive content analysis.

Table 23 below illustrates the themes and topics mentioned during the interviews. The students were asked to express their preferences for (a) peer feedback, (b) teacher feedback, (c) types of corrective feedback, (d) immediate or delayed feedback, (e) self-correction, and (f) student's responsibility for correction.

Table 23.

The common topics in students' interviews

Constructs	Themes	Students
Teacher feedback	Teacher as the sole source of knowledge	S2, S3, S4, S5, S10
	Learners' lack of knowledge	S1, S7, S8
Peer feedback	Encouraging learners to be active	S6
	source of exchanging information	S9
	Friendly classroom atmosphere	S9
Different types of feedback	Preferring elicitation	S1, S2, S3, S7, S8, S10
	Preferring repetition	S4, S5, S6, S9
Immediate	Not feeling ashamed	S2, S3, S5, S7, S8, S9, S10
Delayed feedback	Negative feeling about classmates' comments	S1, S4, S6
Self-correction	Self-dependence	S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S6, S7, S8, S9, S10
Students' responsibility	Learning from errors	S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S6, S7, S8, S9, S10

As displayed above, most of the students (S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S7, S8, and S10, so eight out of ten) did not support peer feedback in line with teachers, and they had concerns regarding vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. They believed that their peers do not have the required ability and knowledge for correcting vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation, so an expert knowledge is required to correct their errors. According to learners, teachers are the sole source of knowledge of correction. A learner commented the following:

Excerpt 1: *“teachers are the sole source of knowledge, they have required ability to correct the learners, but the learners have not”* (S2)

Furthermore, the analysis showed that the students are more interested in teacher feedback than in peer feedback.

Unlike the stated analysis above and in line with the other three teachers, the other two learners (S6 and S9) supported peer feedback more than teacher feedback. They thought that they can benefit from peer feedback as a source of exchanging information among themselves. For example, one student stated the following:

Excerpt 2: *“when there is peer feedback, there is encouragement as the source of exchanging information and to learn from each other”* (S9).

Furthermore, they believed that peer feedback can help them to be active in the classroom and pay more attention to conversational activities. It also can create a friendly classroom atmosphere for them to provide corrective feedback for their oral errors.

According to learners, all types of CF were preferred. Among the majority of the learners (S1, S2, S3, S7, S8, and S10, so six out of ten), the most preferable type of feedback was elicitation. One of the learners asserted the following:

Excerpt 3: *“I prefer all the types of corrective feedback, but the one which the teacher asks me to reformulate my utterance and tries to correct me by myself is my favorite one”* (S3).

The other four learners (S4, S5, S6, and S9) generally preferred repetition of the erroneous utterance with a rising intonation.

Furthermore, regarding whether feedback should be provided immediately or at the end of a conversation, the majority of learners (S2, S3, S5, S7, S8, S9, and S10, so seven out of ten) preferred to be corrected immediately. They believed that immediate feedback is better and they do not feel ashamed when they are corrected by their teacher or peers in front of classmates. A learner expressed the following:

Excerpt 4: *“I want to be corrected immediately because I can get more benefits from it and I do not feel ashamed in front of my classmates, my duty as a learner is to learn and I do my best”*(S. 5).

The other three (S1, S4, and S6) commented that they do not want to be corrected immediately in front of their classmates because they do not want to have a negative feeling regarding classmates' comments on their performance.

According to learners' thoughts of self-correction, all the learners agreed to be corrected by themselves. They preferred their teacher to identify the errors and prompt them for self-correction. A student stated the following:

Excerpt 5: *“as a language learner, I want to depend on myself, but we need to be encouraged more for further learning”* (S8).

They believed that they need to depend on themselves regarding vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation correction.

Pertaining students' responsibility for correction, all learners believed that they have a responsibility for correction. One of the learners stated the following:

Excerpt 6: *“if they do not make errors, they do not learn”* (S. 10).

They felt that they must improve their performances and pay more attention to their own errors so that they do not make the same errors twice. They also believed that every single language learner is responsible for correcting his/her own errors.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.1. Introduction

The purpose of the present research was to examine Iraqi EFL teachers' and learners' preferences of corrective feedback in oral communication skills. This chapter discusses the findings of the previous chapters concerning the four stated research questions.

5.2. Discussion

The results presented in the previous sections identify teachers' and students' overall preferences regarding (a) peer feedback, (b) teacher feedback, (c) different types of feedback, (d) immediate or delayed feedback, (e) self-correction, and (f) student's responsibility for correction, concerning grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. The findings demonstrated that a statistically significant difference exists between Iraqi EFL teachers' and learners' preferences of OCF. Moreover, the findings showed that a statistically significant difference exists between learners' preferences of OCF based on gender. Furthermore, there were preferences of teachers for OCF, as they preferred teacher feedback more than peer feedback, and they strongly supported it. They preferred no specific type of CF, learners' ability for self-correction, immediate feedback, and their students' responsibility for correction. Additionally, there were preferences among learners for OCF, and they generally preferred teacher feedback over peer feedback. All the types of CF were preferred, but the most preferable one among

the learners was elicitation. They preferred immediate feedback and self-correction, and they agreed that they have responsibility for correction.

Since the contribution of pedagogic intervention of corrective feedback has become a matter of debate, the provision of corrective feedback remains a controversial issue which heats debates among theorists and researchers in the field of second language acquisition. Krashen (1982) famously comments as “even under the best of conditions, with the most learning- oriented students, teacher corrections will not produce results that will live up to the expectations of many instructors” (p. 119). Similarly, Truscott (1996) criticizes oral correction in the use of grammatical structures, when he comments: “[o]ral correction poses overwhelming problems for teachers and for students; research evidence suggests that it is not effective; and no good reasons have been offered for continuing this practice. The natural conclusion is that oral grammar correction should be abandoned” (p. 453). In contrast to these perspectives, Chaudron (1988), in his review of classroom-oriented research, states that “from the learners’ point of view (...) the use of feedback may constitute the most potent source of improvement in (...) target language development” (p. 133). His statement is supported by a number of specialists. As Larsen-Freeman (2000) points out that “(...) feedback on learners’ performance in an instructional environment presents an opportunity for learning to take place. An error potentially represents a teachable moment” (p. 126). In turn, Ellis (2008) comments that “[t]here is increasing evidence that CF [corrective feedback] can assist learning (...), and current research has switched from addressing whether CF works to examining what kind works best (...)” (p. 6).

5.3. Discussion of RQ 1.

Based on the data from teachers’ responses, it can be stated that the majority of teachers rejected peer feedback because they felt that peer feedback can cause learners to feel humiliated, and it might create a negative sense for learners. They generally had positive views of teacher feedback. They preferred no specific type of corrective feedback, and they tended to believe that the use of different types of corrective feedback depends on learners’ language levels. The teachers strongly supported immediate feedback. According to the teachers’ comments regarding self-correction,

learners make more language gains when corrected by themselves. According to teachers' views, students need to be motivated attend to the feedback they are given in order to receive maximum benefit.

The results of the present study are consistent with of Kaivanpanah, et al.'s (2015) study investigating Iranian EFL teachers' and learners' views on different types of corrective feedback. This study found that teachers were less convinced by peer feedback because they believed it can cause students to experience humiliation. They found that better learning outcomes in the language-learning classroom is produced by teacher feedback.

Other studies are also somewhat consistent with the results of this study regarding the types of CF preferred. However, all the instructors in this study preferred no specific type of CF but rather they thought that the type of CF utilized depends on the situation and the environment of the classroom. Moreover, it depends on the type of error and the students' capacity. According to Fungula (2013), recasts were the most commonly used type of CF for grammatical errors in a Chinese EFL context. In Turkish EFL context, repetition was the most frequently used type of feedback for grammatical errors according to a study conducted by Coskun (2010). According to Fungula (2013), meta-linguistic was given priority for correcting vocabulary errors.

The results presented in the previous chapter are also consistent with a study conducted by Yoshida (2008) in Japan, who found that teachers believed self-correction to be an effective CF method.

The results reported in this study contradict those of previous studies investigating influence of immediate and delayed feedback correction on EFL students' speaking skills, which found that delayed error correction positively affects learners' oral production (Rahimi & Dastjerdi, 2012).

Regarding the statement that learners need to be motivated, Dornyei (1994) explained that "praise is a type of informational feedback, should attribute success to effort and ability, implying that similar successes can be expected in the future" (p. 278).

It is clear from the teachers' statements in this study that learners need to be motivated to move forward with the language.

5.4. Discussion of RQ 2.

Regarding the data from learners' responses, the findings revealed that the majority of the learners rejected peer feedback because they believed that peers do not have the required ability and knowledge for correcting the errors. They generally had positive views of teacher feedback. They preferred all types of corrective feedback, but the most preferable ones were elicitation and repetition. Regarding whether feedback should be immediate or at the end of conversation, the learners strongly supported immediate feedback, and they tended to believe that they do not feel ashamed when they are corrected by their peers. According to learners' views, students need to be given chances to think about their erroneous utterances and attempt to self-correct.

It can be asserted that the findings of this study regarding students' preferences of OCF are consistent with a previous study conducted in Turkey, which propose that instructors must pay more attention to the strategies they use while providing corrective feedback and that learners prefer to be corrected immediately by their teachers. This study also have demonstrated that teacher feedback is most preferable among learners (Fidan, 2015).

The results of this study concerning self-correction suggest that learners benefit more when they correct themselves. These results align with those of previous studies, including that conducted by Yoshida (2008) in Japan. Japanese EFL learners more specifically preferred self-correction.

The results of this study also align with those of a study conducted by Kazemi, et al.(2013)which investigated Iranian EFL student' attitudes towards classroom OCF. The students strongly preferred their oral errors to be corrected, and they preferred to be corrected immediately. Also, most of the learners preferred repetition as the most effective technique of feedback. They also preferred to be prompted for self-correction.

5.5. Discussion of RQ 3.

Based on the data from teachers' and learners' responses on both questionnaires, a statistically significant difference was determined to exist between Iraqi EFL teachers' and learners' preferences OCF.

The findings of this study align with those of previous studies investigating teachers' and learners' perceptions of OCF, which found that there are differences in the preferences of teachers and learners for correcting learners' erroneous utterances (Tomczyk, 2013).

The findings of the present research are also consistent with a study conducted by Park(2010)on the preferences of CFA perceived by native English instructors and learners. There was a statistically significant difference found to exist between teachers' and learners' preferences of OCF concerning explicit correction.

5.6. Discussion of RQ 4.

Based on the data from students' responses regarding male and female preferences for corrective feedback in OCF, it can be stated that a statistically significant difference exists in terms of gender.

The results of this research align with those of a study conducted by Zarei (2011) in Iran examining the relationship between gender and CF. The study revealed that there is a statistically significant difference between male and female learners for CF. It further revealed that there is a negative relationship between gender and corrective feedback.

The findings of the current research conflict with those of previous research conducted by Khorshidi and Rassaei(2013) in Iran investigating the impact of students' gender on their preferences for CF. There were no statistically significant difference found to exist between male and female learners regarding their preferences for CF.

According to Green and Oxford (1995), along with language learning strategies and other variables, the impact of gender on ESL and EFL learning has been sought. Yet the nature of the connection between gender and learning a foreign or second language still remains elusive, or, rather, different researchers approach it from many different perspectives. Some researches still adhere to variationist and interactional sociolinguistics methodology and they treat gender as a variable, whereas others, taking critical, poststructuralist and feminist theories as a base, see gender as a system of social relations and discursive practices.



CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

6.1. Introduction

This chapter summarizes the findings of the current study, its implications, and limitations. It also offers suggestions for future research.

6.2. Summary of Research

The main purpose of this study was to examine Iraqi EFL teachers' and learners' preferences of OCF and to identify their preferences regarding (a) peer feedback, (b) teacher feedback, (c) different types of feedback, (d) immediate or delayed feedback, (e) self-correction, and (f) student's responsibility for correction. A parallel questionnaire including 36 items was administrated to 100 EFL learners and 52 EFL teachers. For further study, interviews were also conducted with 10 teachers and 10 learners, including 6 open-ended questions. Quantitative and qualitative methods were used to analyze the collected data. The quantitative data was analyzed using SPSS, and the qualitative data was analyzed by means of content analysis. The findings revealed that there is a statistically significant difference between teachers' and learners' preferences of OCF and that there exists a statistically significant difference between learners' preferences in terms of gender. Pertaining their preferences of the six constructs, the majority of teachers favored teacher feedback over peer feedback, as did learners. The teachers supported no specific type of CF, as they believed that the type of CF utilized depends on the learning environment and the student's ability for self-correction. On the other hand, elicitation was the most preferable type of CF among the learners.

Furthermore, both teachers and learners tended to believe that immediate feedback is better than delayed feedback. In addition, teachers and learners alike believed that everyone is responsible for correcting his/her own errors.

6.3. Conclusion

Regarding the first research question, teacher feedback was determined to be important to the learners and preferred to be provided immediately. Moreover, all types of CF were regarded as important, and instructors must be aware of different types of CF in order to address students' oral errors. Thus, teachers should be more conscious in choosing the most effective type of feedback in the appropriate manner. Teachers also should create a learning atmosphere to help their students to self-correct and to be responsible for correcting their errors. They need to enhance their learners' ability and encourage them to be more confident in achieving their learning goals.

Regarding the second research question, learners need to be corrected by their teachers rather than by their peers, and immediate feedback is more helpful than delayed feedback. However, all types of CF are valued by learners, but elicitation is considered as the most effective type of feedback. Furthermore, learners need to be encouraged to self-correct and accept responsibility for correcting their errors.

Regarding the third research question, teachers and learners differ in their preferences of OCF. They are different in their preferences regarding peer feedback, teacher feedback, different types of feedback, immediate or delayed feedback, and self-correction by comparing means of both preferences. Furthermore, overall preferences reveal that they differ in their preferences of OCF.

Finally, regarding the fourth research question, male and female learners differ in their preferences of OCF. They are different in their preferences regarding peer feedback. However, they are not different in their preferences regarding teacher feedback, different types of feedback, immediate or delayed feedback, self-correction, and students' responsibility for correction, but overall preferences reveal that they are different in their preferences of OCF by comparing means of both preferences.

6.4. Pedagogical Implications

The findings of the present study hold pedagogical implications for Iraqi EFL teachers and learners. The present study demonstrated that, overall, Iraqi EFL teachers and learners have preferences toward OCF. Such findings may encourage teachers to continue seeking effective ways to provide CF to their students.

Although most learners in this study preferred all types of CF, the most valuable type preferred was elicitation. Regarding types of CF, teachers should find ways to give feedback that is comprehensible and beneficial to learners. In addition, OCF should be given without embarrassing students. It should help them to understand that oral feedback is part of the learning process.

A further pedagogical implication refers to the idea that the teacher is not the only source of knowledge for giving corrective feedback. Students need to be aware that learning a language is a process that involves interactions not only with teachers but also peers. In this context, teachers should enable students to understand that each of them is responsible for their own language learning and that feedback from peers might also be helpful.

6.5. Suggestions for further studies

This study presents some suggestions for further research. The following suggestions are offered:

1. This study has included sophomore university students, but other levels need to be considered.
2. This study has included only a state university. For better results, private universities should also be studied.
3. The number of participants (teachers and learners) is not enough to generalize for all Iraqi teachers and learners. A larger number is needed for future researches in CF to achieve more accurate results.
4. Only one university was chosen as a sample for this study; thus, more universities are needed for further research.

REFERENCES

- Allwright, D., & Bailey, K. (1991). *Focusing on Language Classroom*. London: Cambridge University Press.
- Almuhimedi, R., & Alshumaimeri, Y. (2015). Effective Error Correction in Grammar Classes: A Students' Perspective. *American International Journal of Contemporary Research*, 5(6), 127–138.
- Anderson, J. (1983). *The architecture of cognition*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Anderson, J. (2005). *Cognitive psychology and its implications*. New York: Worth.
- Brooks, N. (1960). *Language and Language Learning*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc.
- Brown, H. (1987). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Calsiyao, I. (2015). Corrective Feedback in Classroom Oral Errors among Kalinga-Apayao State College Students. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanities Research*, 3(1), 394–400.
- Chastain, K. (1971). *The development of modern language skills: theory to practice*. Philadelphia: Center for Curriculum Development, Inc.
- Chaudron, C. (1977). A Descriptive Model of Discourse in The Corrective Treatment of Learners' Errors. *Language Learning*, 27(1), 29–46.
- Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second language classrooms: Research on teaching and learning*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Chomsky, N. (1981). Principles and parameters in syntactic theory. In N. Hornstein & D. Lightfoot (Eds.), *Explanation in linguistics: The logical problem of language acquisition*. London: Longman.

- Corder, S. (1967). The significance of learner's errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 5, 167–170.
- Corder, S. (1975). Error Analysis, Interlanguage and Second Language Acquisition. *Language Teaching*, 8, 201–218.
- Coskun, A. (2010). A Classroom Research Study on Oral Error Correction. *Humanizing Language Teaching Magazine*, 12(3), 1–12.
- Creswell, J. (2008). *Educational Research*. New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- DeKeyser, R. (1998). Beyond focus on form: Cognitive perspectives on learning and practicing second language grammar. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- DeKeyser, R. (2007a). *Practice in a second language: Perspectives from applied linguistics and cognitive psychology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- DeKeyser, R. (2007b). Skill acquisition theory. In B. VanPatten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(3), 273–284.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2006). Individual differences in second language acquisition. *AILA Review*, 19, 42–68.
- Edge, J. (1989). *Mistakes and correction*. London, New York: Longman.
- Ellis, R. (2008). *The Study of Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Farrokhi, F. (2007). Teachers' stated beliefs about corrective feedback in relation to their practices in EFL classes. *Research on Foreign Languages Journal of Faculty of Letters and Humanities*, 49(2), 91–131.
- Fidan, D. (2015). Learners' Preferences of Oral Corrective Feedback: An Example of Turkish as a Foreign Language Learners. *Educational Research and Reviews*, 10(9), 1311–1317.
- Fungula, B. (2013). Oral Corrective Feedback in the Chinese EFL Classroom.
- Gardner, R. (1983). Learning another language: A true social psychological experiment. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 2(2), 219–239.

- Gass, M. (2003). Input and interaction. In C. Doughty & M. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 224–255). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Gass, M., & Selinker, L. (2008). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course*. New York: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group.
- Gibbs, G., & Simpson, C. (2004). Conditions under which assessment supports students' learning. *Learning and Teaching in Higher Education*, 1(1), 3–31.
- Green, M., & Oxford, L. (1995). A closer look at learning strategies, L2 Proficiency and Gender. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(2), 261–297.
- Harley, B. (1989). Functional grammar in French immersion: A classroom experiment. *Applied Linguistics*, 10(3), 331–360.
- Harley, B., & Swain, M. (1978). An analysis of the verb system used by young learners of French. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin*, 3(1), 35–79.
- Harley, B., & Swain, M. (1984). The interlanguage of immersion students and its implications on second language teaching. In A. Davies, E. Cripser, & R. Howatt (Eds.), *Interlanguage* (pp. 291–311). Edinburgh, UK: Edinburgh University Press.
- Hendrickson, J. M. (1978). Error Correction in Foreign Language Teaching: Recent Theory, Research, and Practice. *The Modern Language Journal*, 62(8), 387–398.
- Herron, C. (1981). The Treatment of Errors in Oral Activities: Developing Instructional Strategies. *The French Review*, 55(1), 6–66.
- Horwitz, E. K. (1988). The Beliefs about Language Learning of Beginning University Foreign Language Students. *The Modern Language Journal*, 72(3), 283–294.
- James, C. (1998). *Errors in Language Learning and Use*. New York: Longman.
- Johnson, K. (1996). *Language teaching and skill learning*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Kaivanpanah, S., Alavi, S., & Sepehrinia, S. (2015). Preferences for interactional feedback: differences between learners and teachers. *The Language Learning Journal*, 43(1), 74–93.
- Katayama, A. (2007). Learners' perceptions toward oral error correction. In K. Bradford-Watts, 284–299.
- Kazemi, R., Araghi, S. M., & Davatgari, H. (2013). Iranian EFL Learners' Preferences toward Classroom Oral Error Correction: With a Main Focus on Their Proficiency Level. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3(11), 1996–2003.
- Khorshidi, E., & Rassaei, E. (2013). The Effects of Learners' Gender on Their Preferences for Corrective Feedback. *Journal of Studies in Learning and Teaching English*, 1(4), 71–83.

- Kim, H. (2014). Issues of Corrective Feedback in Second Language Acquisition. *TESOL & Applied Linguistics*, 4(2).
- Krashen, S. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Oxford, England: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Lantolf, J., & Thorne, L. (2007). Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning. In B. VanPatten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in Second Language Acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and principals in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lichtenstein, S., & Slovic, P. (2006). *The construction of preference*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (1990). Focus-on-Form and Corrective Feedback in Communicative Language Teaching: Effects on Second Language Learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 12(4), 429–448.
- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (1994). An innovative program for primary ESL students in Quebec. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(3), 563–579.
- Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (1999). *How languages are learned*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (2006). *How Languages are Learned*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (2013). *How Languages are Learned*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Long, M. (1983). Native speaker/non-native speaker conversation in the second language classroom. In M. Clarke & J. Handscombe (Eds.), *On TESOL '82. Pacific perspectives on language learning* (pp. 207–250). Washington, D.C.: TESOL.
- Long, M. (1996a). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. Ritchie & T. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of Language Acquisition* (pp. 413–468). UK: Academic Press.
- Long, M. (1996b). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. Ritchie & T. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413–468). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Long, M. (2006). *Problems in SLA*. New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Lynch, T. (1996). *Communication in the language classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lyster, R. (2004). Differential Effects of Form-Focused Instruction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 26, 399–432.
- Lyster, R., & Mori, H. (2006). Interactional feedback and instructional counterbalance. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(2), 269–300.
- Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective Feedback and Negotiation of Form in Communicative Classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19(1), 37–66. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263197001034>
- Lyster, R., & Saito, K. (2010). Oral feedback in classroom SLA: A meta-analysis. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32(2), 265–302.
- Lyster, R., Saito, K., & Sato, M. (2013). Oral corrective feedback in second language classrooms. *Language Teaching*, 46(1), 1–40.
- Mackey, A. (2007). Introduction: the role of conversational interaction in second language acquisition. In *Conversational Interaction in Second Language Acquisition: A collection of empirical studies* (pp. 1–26). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Mackey, A., & Gass, M. (2006). Pushing the methodological boundaries in interaction research: an introduction to the special issue. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(2), 78–169.
- Mackey, A., & Gass, M. (2011). *Research Methods in Second Language Acquisition: A Practical Guide*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Mackey, F. (1965). *Language Teaching Analysis*. London: Longman.
- Monette, D., Sullivan, Thomas, & DeJong, Cornell. (2002). *Applied Social Research*. Orlando, FLA: Harcourt Press.
- Nassaji, H., & Swain, M. (2000). A Vygotskian perspective on corrective feedback in L2: The effect of random versus negotiated help on the learning of English articles. *Language Awareness*, 9, 34–51.
- Nemser, W. (1971). Approximative Systems of Foreign Language Learners. *IRAL*, 9, 115–123.
- Nicholas, H., Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (2002). Recasts as Feedback to Language Learners. *Language Learning*, 51(4), 719–758.
- Nunan, D. (1987). *Communicative language teaching: The learner's view*. Singapore. SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.

- Ok, S., & Ustacı, H. (2013). Preferences of ELT Students on the Strategies Instructors Use in the Correction of Oral Grammar Errors. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 4(8), 244–254.
- Panova, I., & Lyster, R. (2002). Patterns of Corrective Feedback and Uptake in an Adult ESL Classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36(4), 573–595.
- Park, G. (2010). Preference of Corrective Feedback Approaches Perceived by active English Teachers and Students. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 7(4), 29–52.
- Pica, T. (1987). Second-language acquisition, social interaction, and the classroom. *Applied Linguistics*, 8(1), 3–21.
- Rahimi, A., & Dastjerdi, H. (2012). Impact of immediate and delayed error correction on EFL learners' oral production: CAF. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(1), 45–54.
- Ramaprasad, A. (1983). On the definition of feedback. *Behavioral Science*, 28(1), 4–13.
- Rashid, B. (2015). Error Analysis of Kurdish EFL Undergraduate Learners' Accuracy in Speaking English Language. *International Journal of Language and Linguistics*, 3(6), 448–454.
- Richards, J. (1974). *Error analysis: Perspectives on second language acquisition*. Essex: Longman Group Limited.
- Sadler, D. R. (2010). Beyond feedback: developing student capability in complex appraisal. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 35(5), 535–550.
- Schachter, J. (1991). Corrective feedback in historical perspective. *Second Language Research*, 7(2), 89–102.
- Schmidt, R. (1994). Deconstructing consciousness in search of useful definitions for applied linguistics. *AILA Review*.
- Schmidt, R., & Frota, S. (1986). Developing basic conversational ability in a second language: a case study of an adult learner of Portuguese. In R. Day (Ed.), *Talking to learn: Conversation in second language acquisition* (pp. 237–322). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Schmidt, R. W. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11(2), 129–158.
- Schulz, R. a. (1996). Focus on form in the foreign language classroom: students' and teachers' views on error correction and the role of grammar. *Foreign Language Annals*, 29(3), 343–364.
- Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *IRAL*, 10, 209–231.

- Spada, N., & Lightbown, P. (2008). Form-focused: Isolated or integrated? *TESOL Quarterly*, 42(2), 181–207.
- Strauss, A. (1987). *Qualitative analysis for social scientist*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensive input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 235–256). Cambridge, MA: Newbury House Publishers.
- Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. In G. Cook & B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), *Principles and practice in the study of language* (pp. 125–144). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Tatawy, E. (2002). Corrective Feedback in Second Language Acquisition. *TESOL & Applied Linguistics*, 2(2).
- Tomczyk, E. (2013). Perceptions of Oral Errors and Their Corrective Feedback: Teachers vs. Students. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 4(5), 924–931.
- Truscott, J. (1996). The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes. *Language Learning*, 46(2), 327–369. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743\(99\)80124-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(99)80124-6)
- Ustaci, H., & Ok, S. (2014). Preferences of ELT Learners in the Correction of Oral Vocabulary and Pronunciation Errors. *Higher Education Studies*, 4(2), 29–41.
- Varnosfadrani, A. D., & Basturkmen, H. (2009). The effectiveness of implicit and explicit error correction on learners' performance. *System*, 37(1), 82–98.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Vygotsky, L. (1986). *Thought and language*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Waters, A. (2007). Forty Years of Language Teaching: the Nineteen-Nineties. *Language Teaching*, 40(1), 12–13.
- Yoshida, R. (2008). Teachers' Choice and Learners' Preference of Corrective Feedback Types. *Language Awareness*, 17(September 2014), 78–93.
- Zarei, N. (2011). The Relationship Between Gender and Corrective Feedback. *Online Journal of ICT for Language Learning*, 59–79.

APPENDICES



Appendix I. Questionnaire for Students

Data collected from this questionnaire will be used for completion of a master's degree in English Language Teaching at Gaziantep University. The information gathered will be used for research on corrective feedback in oral communication skills.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the opinions of teachers and students about corrective feedback. There are no risks or benefits to you from participating in this research.

Please do not put your name on this questionnaire.

Please mark the information that applies to you.

- Gender

Male	Female
------	--------

- Your first language

Kurdish	Arabic	Turkish		Persian	Other:
---------	--------	---------	--	---------	--------

- How long have you been studying English?

1 year	: years
--------	---------

Make sure to mark only one.

Responses are scored as follows:

5 = "totally agree"

4 = "agree"

3 = "agree to some extent"

2 = "disagree"

1 = "totally disagree"

Totally agree
Agree
Agree to some extent
Disagree
Totally disagree

1	I prefer classmates to correct one another's errors					
2	When the teacher corrects the errors, one is less stressed than when the classmates					
3	I prefer classmates/teacher to simply give the correct form of the erroneous utterance					
4	I prefer the classmates/teacher to provide some wrong and correct examples like "he go or he goes" and ask me to choose the correct answer					
5	The classmates have the competence needed for correcting others' errors					
6	I prefer the classmates to correct vocabulary errors					
7	Only the teacher should correct the errors in pronunciation					
8	Only the teacher should correct the grammatical errors					

9	I prefer classmates/teacher to correct the error and explain about the error					
10	I prefer the teacher to explain about the errors the classmates have pointed out					
11	I prefer classmates/teacher to correct pronunciation errors immediately					
12	When the classmates correct the errors, one does not feel humiliated					
13	I prefer the classmates/teacher to repeat the erroneous part with a rising intonation helping one notice the error					
14	I prefer the teacher/classmates to repeat the corrected form of the erroneous part by a rising intonation					
15	I prefer the teacher/classmates to repeat corrected form of the whole utterance with a normal tone					
16	I prefer the classmates/teacher to repeat the erroneous part of my utterance with an interrogative tone and ask me to repeat					
17	The classmates are sincere in correcting others' errors					
18	The classmates care about correcting others' errors					
19	I prefer the classmates to correct the grammatical errors only					
20	I prefer the teacher/classmates to repeat the corrected form of the erroneous part					
21	I prefer the teacher/classmates to ask for self-correction by saying "sorry?" or "excuse me?"					
22	Learning is more effective when classmates correct the errors					
23	I prefer the teacher/classmates to repeat only the erroneous part of the utterance with an interrogative tone					
24	I prefer the teacher/classmates to correct vocabulary errors immediately					
25	I prefer the teacher/classmates to repeat the utterance up to the erroneous part and wait for self-correction					
26	Only the teacher should correct the errors					
27	I prefer the teacher/classmates to point out the errors and prompt for self-correction					
28	The classmates should only correct pronunciation errors					
29	I prefer the teacher/classmates to repeat the whole utterance but stress the erroneous part for easier noticing					
30	Only the teacher should correct vocabulary errors					
31	The classmates can provide better feedback as they might know points I might be unaware of					
32	The teacher/classmates should explain about my grammatical errors at the end of conversation					
33	Everyone should care about correcting his/her own errors					
34	Only the teacher has the knowledge to give feedback					
35	Learning is more effective when the teacher corrects the errors					
36	Only the teacher cares about correcting the errors					

Appendix II. Questionnaire for Teachers

Data collected from this questionnaire will be used for completion of a master's degree in English Language Teaching at Gaziantep University. The information gathered will be used for research on corrective feedback in oral communication skills.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the opinions of teachers and students about corrective feedback. There are no risks or benefits to you from participating in this research.

Please do not put your name on this questionnaire.

Please put the information that applies to you.

- Gender

- How long you have been teaching English language?

 :Year(s)

Make sure to mark only one.

Responses are scored as follows:

5 = "totally agree"

4 = "agree"

3 = "agree to some extent"

2 = "disagree"

1 = "totally disagree"

Totally agree
Agree
Agree to some extent
Disagree
Totally disagree

1	I prefer classmates to correct one another's errors					
2	When the teacher corrects the errors, the students become less stressed than when the classmates					
3	I prefer classmates/teacher to simply give the correct form of the erroneous utterance					
4	I prefer the classmates/teacher to provide some wrong and correct examples like "he go or he goes" and ask the learner to choose the correct answer					
5	The classmates have the competence needed for correcting others' errors					
6	I prefer the classmates to correct vocabulary errors					
7	Only the teacher should correct the errors in pronunciation					
8	Only the teacher should correct the grammatical errors					
9	I prefer classmates/teacher to correct the error and explain about the error					
10	I prefer the teacher to explain about the errors the classmates have					

	pointed out					
11	I prefer classmates/teacher to correct pronunciation errors immediately					
12	When the learners are corrected by their classmates, they do not feel humiliated					
13	I prefer the classmates/teacher to repeat the erroneous part with a rising intonation helping one notice the error					
14	I prefer the teacher/classmates to repeat the corrected form of the erroneous part by a rising intonation					
15	I prefer the teacher/classmates to repeat corrected form of the whole utterance with a normal tone					
16	I prefer the classmates/teacher to repeat the erroneous part of my utterance with an interrogative tone and ask me to repeat					
17	The classmates are sincere in correcting others' errors					
18	The classmates care about correcting others' errors					
19	I prefer the classmates to correct the grammatical errors only					
20	I prefer the teacher/classmates to repeat the corrected form of the erroneous part					
21	I prefer the teacher/classmates to ask for self-correction by saying "sorry?" or "excuse me?"					
22	Learning is more effective when classmates correct the errors					
23	I prefer the teacher/classmates to repeat only the erroneous part of the utterance with an interrogative tone					
24	I prefer the teacher/classmates to correct vocabulary errors immediately					
25	I prefer the teacher/classmates to repeat the utterance up to the erroneous part and wait for self-correction					
26	Only the teacher should correct the errors					
27	I prefer the teacher/classmates to point out the errors and prompt for self-correction					
28	The classmates should only correct pronunciation errors					
29	I prefer the teacher/classmates to repeat the whole utterance but stress the erroneous part for easier noticing					
30	Only the teacher should correct vocabulary errors					
31	The classmates can provide better feedback as they might know points others might be unaware of					
32	The teacher/classmates should explain about my grammatical errors at the end of conversation					
33	Everyone should care about correcting his/her own errors					
34	Only the teacher has the knowledge to give feedback					
35	Learning is more effective when the teacher corrects the errors					
36	Only the teacher cares about correcting the errors					

Appendix III. Teacher's Interview

1. What do you think of peer correction? Do you find it beneficial regarding vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation?
2. What do you think of teacher correction? Do you find it beneficial regarding vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation?
3. How do you prefer to correct your learners?
4. When do you prefer to correct your learners? (immediately or at the end of conversation)
5. What do you think of self-correction? Do you prefer to point out the errors and prompt your learners for self-correction?
6. What do you think of students' responsibility for correction? Do you think that they are responsible for correcting their own errors?

Appendix IV. Student's Interview

1. What do you think of peer correction? Do you find it beneficial regarding vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation?
2. What do you think of teacher correction? Do you find it beneficial regarding vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation?
3. How do you want to be corrected?
4. When do you prefer to be corrected? (immediately or at the end of conversation)
5. What do you think of self-correction? Do you prefer your teacher to point out the errors and prompt you for self-correction?
6. What do you think of your responsibility for correction as a learner? Do you think that everyone is responsible for correcting his/her own errors?

VITAE

Degree: Bachelor degree in English Language

College of Languages / English

Department

Salahaddin University – Erbil

Erbil – Iraq

Date graduated: 28th June 2012

Other degree: Master of Arts in English Language

School of Educational Sciences

Department of Foreign Language Teaching

ELT Program

Gaziantep University

Gaziantep – Turkey

Date graduated: 21 June 2017

ÖZ GEÇMİŞ

Mezuniyet durumu:

Salahaddin University

İngilizce Anabilim Dalı

Lisans

Erbil– Irak

Mezuniyet Tarihi:

28 Haziran 2012

Diğer mezuniyetler:

Gaziantep Üniversitesi,

Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı

Gaziantep – Türkiye

Mezuniyet Tarihi:

21 Haziran 2017