

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

A STUDY ON ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK
PREFERENCES AND LEARNING STYLES OF TURKISH EFL
LEARNERS

Master's of Arts Thesis

MUHAMMED SALİH TAŞDEMİR

Gaziantep
June, 2017

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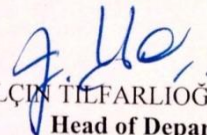
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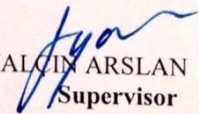
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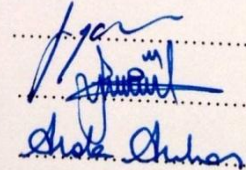
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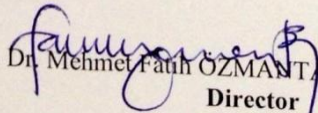
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RESEARCH ETHICS DECLARATION

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.

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To all the teachers who have taught me at any time in my life...

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ÖZET

İNGİLİZCEYİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN TÜRK ÖĞRENCİLERİN SÖZEL DÜZELTME GERİBİLDİRİM TERCİHLERİ VE ÖĞRENME STİLLERİ ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIŞMA

TAŞDEMİR, Muhammed Salih

Yüksek Lisans, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi ABD

Tez Danışmanı: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Fadime YALÇIN ARSLAN

Haziran–2017, 115 sayfa

Bu tezin temel amacı, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerin sözel düzeltme geribildirimlerine ilişkin tercihlerini, öğrenme stilleri ile karşılaştırmalı olarak incelemek ve dil öğrenme sürecinin bu iki boyutu arasında bir ilişki olup olmadığını belirlemektir. Araştırma örneklemi, 2016–2017 öğretim yılında Gaziantep Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu'nda A1, B1 ve B2 seviyesinde İngilizce eğitimi alan 348 hazırlık sınıfı öğrencisinden oluşmaktadır. Sözel düzeltme geribildirim tercihlerini belirlemek için bir anket uygulanmıştır. Anket, her biri geri bildirim tercihlerinin bir alt boyutunu oluşturan altı bölümden oluşmaktadır: (a) geri bildirim gerekliliği, (b) geri bildirim sıklığı, (c) geribildirim zamanlaması, (d) düzeltilecek hatalar türleri, (e) geri bildirim türleri ve (d) geri bildirim kaynağı. Katılımcıların öğrenme stilleri, Kolb (1984) tarafından geliştirilen Öğrenme Stili Envanteri ile belirlenmiştir. Bu iki veri toplama aracı ile elde edilen veriler SPSS 21.0 kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Verilerin analizi için frekanslar, yüzdelere, ortalama ve standart sapma değerleri hesaplanmış ve öğrencilerin geri bildirim tercihlerinin altı alt boyutu ile öğrenim stilleri arasında bir ilişki olup olmadığını belirlemek için Ki-kare testi kullanmıştır. Araştırmaya katılanların 61'inin (% 17.5) değiştiren, 162'sinin (% 46.6) özümseyen, 97'sinin (% 27.9) ayırtıcı ve 28'inin (% 8) ise yerleştiren tipte öğrenme stiline sahip olduğu görülmüştür. Elde edilen sonuçlara göre, öğrenciler geribildirim öğrenme süreçleri için gerekli olduğunu ve öğretmenlerinin sıklıkla geri bildirimde bulunmasını beklediklerini belirtmişlerdir. Katılımcılar sık tekrar edilen ve ciddi hataların daha sık düzeltilmesi gerektiği belirtmişlerdir. Sözel düzeltme geribildirim türlerinden “açık düzeltme”, “açığa kavuşturma” ve “söylettirme” stratejilerinin öğrenciler arasında en popüler olduğu görülmüştür. En çok tercih edilen geri bildirim kaynağı olarak “öğretmenler” tercih edilmiştir. Öğrencilerin öğrenme stilleri dikkate alındığında, gruplar arasındaki farkın istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olmadığı saptanmıştır. Farklı öğrenme stillerine sahip öğrencilerin tercihleri ile genel tercihlerin benzer doğrultuda olduğu görülmüştür. Bu, öğrenme stillerinin öğrencilerin sözel düzeltme geri bildirimine ilişkin farklılaşan tercihlerine bir açıklama sağlamadığını göstermektedir. İngilizce seviyeleri göz önüne alındığında, farklı seviyelerde olan öğrenciler sadece üst-dil geribildirim ve geribildirim kaynakları açısından birbirlerinden farklılık

göstermişlerdir. Araştırma sonucunda, öğrenme stillerinin her durum için bir açıklama sağlayamayacağı ve bütüncül bir açıdan değerlendirilmemesi sonucuna varılmıştır.

AnahtarKelimeler: geribildirim tercihleri, dil eğitimi, öğrenme stilleri



ABSTRACT

A STUDY ON ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK PREFERENCES AND LEARNING STYLES OF TURKISH EFL LEARNERS

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MA Thesis, Department of English Language Teaching

Supervisor: Assist. Prof. Fadime YALÇIN ARSLAN

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The primary aim of this thesis was to investigate the preferences of EFL learners for oral corrective feedback in relation to their learning styles, and to determine whether there was a relationship between these two aspects of language learning. The research sample consisted of 348 preparatory class students who were studying English at A1, B1 and B2 levels at Gaziantep University- School of Foreign Languages in 2016-2017 academic year. A questionnaire was administered to explore oral corrective feedback preferences. The questionnaire included six sections, each of which referred to a sub-dimension of feedback preferences: (a) necessity of feedback, (b) frequency of feedback, (c) timing of feedback, (d) types of errors to be corrected, (e) types of feedback and (d) source of feedback. Learning styles of the participants were identified through Learning Style inventory developed by Kolb (1984). The data collected through these two instruments was analyzed by using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 21.0). Frequencies, percentages, mean and standard deviation values were calculated for the analysis of the data, and a Chi-square test was employed to determine whether there was a relationship between preferences of the students for the six sub-dimensions of feedback preferences and their learning styles. Of all participants included in the study, 61 (17.5%) had diverger, 162 (46.6%) assimilator, 97 (27.9%) converger and 28 (8%) accommodator learning styles. According to the results, students believed that providing corrective feedback is necessary for their learning and they expect their teachers to provide feedback frequently. The participants had the idea that frequent and serious errors should be treated more often. Explicit feedback, clarification and elicitation were found to be the most popular types of feedback among learners. Teachers were the most favored source of feedback. When the learning styles of students were taken into consideration, it was determined that the difference between groups was not statistically significant. Overall preferences for oral corrective feedback were similar to the preferences of learners with different learning styles. This suggested that learning styles did not account for students' preference for a particular feedback type and provide an explanation in terms of learners' varied preferences for feedback. Considering proficiency levels, a significant difference among students with proficiency levels was found only in opinions about metalinguistic

feedback and sources of feedback. It was concluded that the concept of learning styles may not work for every occasions and should not therefore be approached from a holistic point of view.

Keywords: feedback preferences, language learning, learning styles



TABLE OF CONTENTS

APPROVAL OF THE JURY.....	i
RESEARCH ETHICS DECLARATION.....	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
ÖZET	v
ABSTRACT.....	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	ix
LIST OF TABLES	xii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiii
LIST OF APPENDICES.....	xiv
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xv

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

1.1 Presentation.....	1
1.2 Background of the Study	1
1.3 Statement of the Problem.....	3
1.4. Purpose of the Study.....	4
1.5 Statement of Research Questions	5
1.6 Significance of the Study	5
1.7 Assumptions of the Study	6
1.8 Limitations of the Study	6

CHAPTER II LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Pre-Feedback- Errors.....	7
2.1.1 Types of Errors	7
2.1.2 Necessity of Corrective Feedback	8
2.2 On Feedback- Giving Corrective Feedback.....	8
2.2.1 Categorization of Feedback	9
2.2.2 Timing of Feedback	10
2.2.3 Amount of Feedback	10
2.2.4 Audience.....	11
2.2.5 Sources of Feedback	11
2.2.6 Functions of Feedback	12
2.2.7 Types of Feedback	13
2.2.7.1 Written Corrective Feedback	13
2.2.7.2 Oral Corrective Feedback	13
2.3 Post-Feedback- Uptake.....	17
2.3.1 Needs Repair.....	17
2.3.2 Repair	18
2.4 Research into Oral Corrective Feedback	19
2.4.1 Use of Feedback.....	19
2.4.2 Preferences for Feedback	21
2.4.3 Corrective Feedback and Learner Characteristics	22

2.5 Learning Styles.....	23
2.5.1 Definitions for Learning Styles	23
2.5.2 Models for Learning Styles	24
2.5.2.1 Gregorc's Model of Learning Styles	25
2.5.2.2 Felder-Silverman Learning Style Model	25
2.5.2.3 Grassa-Riechmann Model for Learning Styles	26
2.5.2.4 Kolb's Model for Learning Styles	27
2.5.3 Research into Learning Styles	31
2.5.3.1 Distribution of Learning Styles Globally	33
2.5.3.2 Studies on Learning Styles and Learner Characteristics	35
2.6 Criticism on Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory.....	37

CHAPTER III METHODOLOGY

3.1 Presentation.....	39
3.2 Research Design	39
3.3 Participants.....	40
3.4 Data Collection Tools	41
3.4.1 Learning Style Inventory	41
3.4.2 Feedback Preferences Questionnaire (FPQ).....	44
3.5 Data Collection.....	45
3.5.1 Piloting Procedure.....	45
3.5.2 Data Collection	46
3.6 Data Analysis	46

CHAPTER IV FINDINGS

4.1 Presentation.....	48
4.2 <i>Results for Research Question #1: What are Turkish EFL Learners'</i> <i>Opinions and Preferences for Oral Corrective Feedback?</i>	48
4.2.1 Learners' Opinions related to Necessity of Oral Corrective Feedback.....	48
4.2.2 Learners' Preferences related to Frequency of Oral Corrective Feedback.....	49
4.2.3 Learners' Preferences related to Timing of Oral Corrective Feedback	50
4.2.4 Learners' Opinions related to Types of Oral Errors to be Corrected.....	51
4.2.5 Learners' Preferences related to Types of Oral Corrective Feedback	53
4.2.6 Learners' Opinions related to Sources of Feedback	55
4.3 <i>Results for Research Question #2: How are the Learning Styles of the</i> <i>Students Distributed according to Kolb's Learning Style Model?</i>	57
4.4 <i>Results for Research Question #3: Does the concept of learning styles account</i> <i>for Turkish EFL learners' preferences for oral corrective feedback?</i>	57
4.4.1 Learners' Opinions related to Necessity of Oral Corrective Feedback and their Learning Styles	58
4.4.2 Learners' Preferences related to Frequency of Oral Corrective Feedback and their Learning Styles.....	59
4.4.3 Learners' Preferences related to Timing of Oral Corrective Feedback and their Learning Styles	59
4.4.4 Learners' Opinions related to Types of Oral Errors to be Corrected and	

their Learning Styles	61
4.4.5 Learners' Preferences related to Types of Oral Corrective Feedback and their Learning Styles	64
4.4.6 Learners' Opinions related to Sources of Oral Corrective Feedback and their Learning Styles	67
4.5 <i>Results for Research Question #4: What is the relationship between</i> proficiency levels of Turkish EFL learners and their proficiency levels ?.....	69
4.5.1 Proficiency Level and Timing of Feedback	70
4.5.2 Proficiency Level and Types of Feedback	72
4.5.3 Proficiency Level and Sources of Feedback	74

CHAPTER V DISCUSSION

5.1 Presentation.....	76
5.2 Learners' Preferences for Corrective Feedback	76
5.2.1 Learners' Attitudes towards Necessity of Feedback	76
5.2.2 Learners' Preferences for Frequency of Feedback	77
5.2.3 Learners' Preferences for Timing of Corrective Feedback	77
5.2.4 Learners' Preferences for Types of Errors to be Corrected.....	78
5.2.5 Learners' Preferences for Types of Feedback	79
5.2.6 Learners' Preferences for Sources of Feedback	81
5.3 Learning Styles and Feedback Preferences	82
5.3.1 Distribution of Learning Styles	82
5.3.2 Learning Styles and Preferences for Feedback.....	83
5.4 Proficiency Level and Feedback Preferences	84

CHAPTER VI CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Presentation.....	86
6.2 Summary of the Study	86
6.3 Conclusion	87
6.4 Pedagogical Implications for Language Learning and Teaching.....	88
6.5 Suggestions for Further Studies	91

REFERENCES	92
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APPENDICES	109
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Appendix-A Kolb's Learning Style Inventory	110
--	-----

Appendix-B Oral Corrective Feedback Preferences Questionnaire	111
--	-----

Appendix- C Document for Official Permission	114
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VITAE	115
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LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Demographic Variables.....	41
Table 2	Cronbach's Alpha Values of two Previous Studies and the Current Study	44
Table 3	Responses on necessity of feedback	49
Table 4	Students' Preferences for Frequency of Feedback	49
Table 5	Students' Preferences for Timing of Feedback	50
Table 6	Students' Preferences for Types of Errors to be Corrected.....	52
Table 7	Students' Preferences for Types of Feedback	54
Table 8	Students' Preferences for Sources of Feedback	56
Table 9	Distribution of Learning Styles among Learners	57
Table 10	Crosstab Results for Necessity of Feedback by Learning Styles.	58
Table 11	Crosstab Results for Responses on Frequency of Feedback by Learning Styles.....	59
Table 12	Crosstab Results of Responses for Timing of Feedback by Learning Style	60
Table 13	Crosstabs Results of Responses on Types of Errors to be Corrected by Learning Styles.	62
Table 14	Crosstab Results of Responses on Types of Feedback by Learning Styles.....	65
Table 15	Crosstab Results of Responses on Source of Feedback by Learning Styles.....	68
Table 16	Distribution of the Participants by Proficiency Levels	70
Table 17	Preferences for Timing of Feedback among Proficiency Levels.	71
Table 18	Preferences for Types of Feedback among Proficiency Levels	73
Table 19	Preferences for Source of Feedback among Proficiency Levels.....	74

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1	Kolb's Model for Experiential Learning	29
Figure 2	Categorization of Learning Styles according to Experiential Learning.....	31
Figure 3	Learning Style Distribution among Cultures	34
Figure 4	Learning Style Inventory Analysis Grid.....	43
Figure 6	Mean Responses on Types of Errors Preferred to be Corrected	53
Figure 7	Mean Responses of Preferences for Oral Corrective Feedback Types	55
Figure 8	Mean Responses on Source of Feedback.....	56
Figure 9	Mean Responses on Timing of Feedback among Students with Different Learning Styles	61
Figure 10	Mean Responses on Types of Errors to be Corrected among Students with Different Learning Styles	64
Figure 11	Mean Responses on Types of Feedback among Students with Different Learning Styles	67
Figure 12	Mean Responses on Sources of Feedback among Students with Different Learning Styles	69
Figure 13	Mean Responses on Timing of Feedback among Students at Different Proficiency Levels	72
Figure 14	Mean Responses on Metalinguistic Feedback among Students at Different Proficiency Levels	73
Figure 15	Mean Responses on Sources of Feedback among Students at Different Proficiency Levels	75

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix-A Learning Style Inventory

Appendix-B Oral Corrective Feedback Preferences Questionnaire

Appendix-C Permission for the Administration of the Questionnaires



LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

FPQ: Feedback Preferences Questionnaire

LSI: Learning Style Inventory

CE: Concrete Experience

RO: Reflective Observation

AE: Active Experimentation

AC: Active Conceptualization

GUSFL: Gaziantep University, School of Foreign Languages



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Presentation

This chapter provides details about the background information, which sheds light on the underlying reason for the study. The problem is then introduced and, the purpose and significance of the study is explained. It also introduces research questions, assumptions and limitations of the study.

1.2 Background of the Study

Feedback can be defined as “information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one’s performance or understanding” (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p.81). In general terms, feedback is not only a part of learning and teaching environment practiced by the components of the classroom but also part of the real life in any context, which can be provided by agents with different roles in the society. In this regard, feedback takes the form of corrective feedback in learning and teaching environment which can be defined as any type of response to the learners in order to indicate that their target language use is incorrect (Lightbon & Spada, 1999). Corrective feedback can also be narrowed into two categories in terms of its expression: written corrective feedback and oral corrective feedback. In the light of these definitions and categorizations, the focus of this study, in terms of the broad term feedback, is on oral corrective feedback.

Although corrective feedback and error correction are often used interchangeably, there is a slight difference between them. While error correction refers to a direct and explicit correction, corrective feedback is a type of feedback often practiced through clues or elicitation in order to draw students' attention to their errors (Han, 2002). Leeman (2007, as cited in Mackey, 2013) holds a similar view indicating that the term error correction is out of date, and suggests the term corrective feedback as it is not certain that all errors can be corrected considering the

possibility of a failed uptake. The preferred term in this study is therefore corrective feedback.

Corrective feedback is not a new concept. However, this aspect has been open to debate for years and has become part of new practices through new approaches. Some prominent figures, such as Krashen (1982), have claimed that feedback is far too harmful, while others have emphasized the importance of feedback in teaching and learning process (Ellis, 1992; Hattie, & Timperley, 2007; Ramsden 1992). One of the most recent issues on feedback studies has been preferences of teachers and students for feedback (Carpenter, Jeon, Macgregor & Mackey, 2006; Philp, 2003; Fukuda, 2004; Martínez Agudo, 2016). As a matter of fact, types of feedback categorized by Lyster and Ranta (1997), which are used in this study as well, have been extensively studied in literature under the title of oral corrective feedback. These feedback types, which will be explained in detail later, may be favored or not preferred by teachers from a pedagogical point of view. An explanation of teachers' feedback preferences can be their own teaching preferences that are open to criticism or the approach they have acquired in the teacher training process. However, the explanation for the fact that students have different feedback preferences may not be as predictable as it is for the teachers' preferences. For this reason, studies that examine students' feedback preferences have shown that students have a wide range of feedback preferences. There have been studies that analyze cognitive, situational, emotional, or physical causes behind these preferences (Lin, Liu & Yuan, 2001; Havnes, Smith, Dysthe & Ludvigsen, 2012; Rakoczy, Harks, Klieme, Blum & Hochweber, 2013). The main purpose of these studies has been to identify probable associations between feedback preferences of learners and their certain characteristics. The idea behind this study is, therefore, to contribute to the research that investigates the possible explanations and nature of the feedback preferences and to determine whether these preferences can be explained through another important component of the educational process, which is the concept of learning styles.

Felder (1995) defines learning styles as the ways through which individuals acquire, retain and retrieve new information according to individual characteristics. As individuals, students have their own learning styles therefore it can be argued that

the methods teachers use will not be equally effective for everyone (Dunn, Beaudry & Klavas, 2002). According to the existing learning mechanisms in mind, individuals, who differ in their interaction with new knowledge, may have different expectations about the methods teachers use for presenting new information or feedback teachers provide with the purpose of correcting errors.

Since Witkins (1967), as the pioneer of cognitive styles and learning styles, who makes field dependent and field independent categorization by emphasizing the role of cognitive factors in the learning process of individuals, many researchers have studied learning styles and have set new criteria and introduced new learning styles. One of the most prominent of these studies is that of Kolb (1984), who is the developer of the learning style model and inventory used in this study. The Kolb learning style model is categorized as a cycle and consists of four types of learning styles. These are referred to as Experience, Reflective Observation, Abstract Conceptualization and Active Experience (Aşkar & Akkoyunlu, 1993). It is proposed that individuals with one of these four different learning styles have their own cognitive processes.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Error is a natural part of learning, and likewise, the feedback given to correct errors is a natural, inevitable and powerful part of both learning and teaching. Hattie and Timperley (2007) draw attention to an important aspect of teaching and claim that teaching is not just transfer of knowledge, but also assessment of understanding how students make progress in the process. For this reason, students' having knowledge about their progress through feedback they receive is essential for reflecting on their future learning.

When it comes to the moment when the teacher observes an error and is expected to provide feedback, there are many issues that the teacher should consider before making a decision (Long, 1977). The teacher may need to consider issues such as timing of feedback, the way of its expression, the focus or the function (Çevikbaş & Argün, 2016). Brookhart (2008) notes that some considerations that teachers should take into account are timing of feedback, whether to give an immediate or a delayed feedback, amount and frequency of feedback, mode of

feedback - whether to give oral or written feedback- and finally audience of feedback, whether to give individual or group feedback.

There are also studies that have described strategies for more effective use of feedback to teachers and examined the effectiveness of different types of feedback (Hattie & Timperley 2007; Nicol & Macfarlane 2006; Rassaei & Moinzadeh, 2011). Some studies have dealt with the feedback preferences of the students, the feedback preferences of the teachers and the matching and mismatching between the two, which have provided a different dimension (Saito, 1994; Hamouda, 2011; Rowe, & Wood, 2009). The focus of these studies has generally been on practice and effectiveness of feedback. However, as Bell and Orgnero (2011) emphasize, it is important to consider factors such as the cognitive processes and personal experience of students to understand the nature of feedback. In this direction, the aim of this study is to find out oral corrective feedback preferences of the students at Gaziantep University, School of Foreign Languages, and to investigate these preferences in terms of learning styles as a part of their cognitive processes in order to contribute to a better understanding of nature of feedback and feedback preferences. An outcome of this study is to determine whether or not oral corrective feedback preferences can be explained by the learning styles, and at the same time, whether or not learning styles can be discussed with respect to feedback preferences.

1.4. Purpose of the Study

The first objective of this study is to investigate the oral corrective feedback preferences of the learners studying at GUSFL with respect to the sub-dimensions of a) necessity for feedback, b) frequency of feedback, c) timing preferences for feedback, d) types of errors to be corrected, e) types of feedback and f) sources to provide feedback (Fukuda, 2004).

The second objective of the study is to determine the learning styles of the learners studying at GUSFL according to the categorizations determined by Kolb (1984). Kolb notes that these learning styles have an effective role in the learning and teaching processes and individuals should be provided with necessary opportunities to benefit most effectively from the learning process.

The third objective of the study is to determine whether there is a significant difference between oral corrective feedback preferences and learning styles of the

students who study English at GUSFL. As a final aim of the study, the data obtained were also compared for the determination of possible relationships with English proficiency level

1.5 Statement of Research Questions

The study aims to seek answers to the following research questions which are centered around three perspectives to learning: learning styles, feedback preferences and proficiency levels.

Research Question 1# What are Turkish EFL learners' opinions and preferences for oral corrective feedback?

Research Question 2# How are the learning styles of the students distributed according to the Kolb learning style model?

Research Question 3# Does the concept of learning styles account for Turkish EFL learners' preferences for oral corrective feedback?

Research Question 4# What is the relationship between proficiency levels of Turkish EFL learners and their proficiency levels?

1.6 Significance of the Study

Teachers' use of different feedback strategies can be explained by the reflection of the educational processes they have been through and the approaches they have adopted as a result. However, an explanation for why students have different feedback preferences may not be as predictable as it is for the teachers' preferences. In this sense, gender, cognitive styles and thinking styles have been investigated in relation to feedback preferences (Lin and Yuan, 2001, Evans & Waring 2011, Khorshidi & Rassaei 2013). However, there seems to be no study which investigates oral corrective feedback preferences from the point of learning styles in EFL context. Therefore, the present study is to be the first one to provide an insight into these two aspects of education.

The results of the study can also lead to practical implications. It can give suggestions for teachers about possible strategies to improve their oral corrective feedback strategies taking into account expectations of the students. It may also give ideas for active participants of education about the interpretation of learning styles

and bring a critical perspective to the implications in education. Gaziantep University, School of Foreign Languages will also benefit from this study since the findings are expected to provide significant information on students' feedback preferences and their learning styles. This information will allow for better recognition of the learner characteristics at the institution, and guide the teachers to develop and adjust techniques.

1.7 Assumptions of the Study

- It is assumed that the students have similar educational, social and economic backgrounds and the sampling represents the population, which is all the students at School of Foreign Languages, Gaziantep University.
- Oral Corrective Feedback Preferences Questionnaire is assumed to provide sufficient information on learners' preferences.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

The fact that no study has attempted to investigate learning styles through feedback preferences has led to a limited literature to compare the findings of the study. Therefore, similar studies in literature were reviewed to identify and discuss similar and different points. Another limitation is due to a small number of students with A2 and B2 levels regarding the analysis of the relationship between proficiency levels and feedback preferences. Although an equal number of classes from each level were given questionnaires, the class sizes were different from each other. Nevertheless, the number of participants involved in the study is sufficient in terms of the reliability of the study. Lastly, students may have their own interpretations of the items they were expected to respond. Therefore, a certain level of subjectivity, which cannot be determined, should be taken into consideration as a limitation of most studies carried out through questionnaires (Ackroyd ,1992).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Pre-Feedback- Errors

2.1.1 Types of Errors

Error vs. Mistake, Local vs. Global Errors

The purpose of categorizing errors is to answer the question which errors should be corrected. According to Corder (1973), error is “those features of the learner’s utterances which differ from those of any native speaker” (p.260). He also makes a distinction between errors and mistakes stating that error is made by non-native speakers, cannot be self-corrected and is considered under the title of second language acquisition. Mistakes, on the other hand, can be made both by native and non-native speakers and they can be self-corrected.

Burt (1975) makes a distinction between “local” and “global” errors. Local errors are those which do not hinder communication, but global errors are those which block communication and cause the message not to be understood. He argues that correcting global errors provide more efficient learning outcomes than correcting local errors. Similarly, Hendrickson (1978) points out that the focus should be more on correcting global errors.

Hendrickson also provides some criteria in reference to the errors to be corrected. He defines three types of errors that need to be corrected.

- 1) errors that impair communication significantly*
- 2) errors that have very high stigmatizing effects on the interlocutor*
- 3) errors that occur frequently in students’ speech and writing*

(p.392)

The reason why he made a categorization of errors to correct could be because he also argues that not all errors should be corrected and teachers should

ignore some errors and correct others in order to provide the learners an environment where they can feel free and comfortable while speaking.

2.1.2 Necessity of Corrective Feedback

Some early researchers stand against feedback on errors. Truscott (1999) firmly argues that oral correction lead to crucial problems for teachers and learners and no one has ever any good reason to continue its practice. Krashen (1994) also holds the view that correcting errors does not have serious effect on learners except rather it may even create problems for learning. From a nativist point of view, Cook (1991) also argues that corrective feedback does not really foster learning as nature of grammatical forms and structures are about an innate mechanism (Cook, 1991). On the other hand, some other researchers have provided supporting opinions related to the benefits of corrective feedback. Schmidt (1990) with Noticing Hypothesis and Long (1996) with Interaction Hypothesis hold the opinion that some types of corrective feedback enhance language learning by attaching importance to a conscious learning. It can be concluded that these early opposing remarks of nativist and naturalistic approaches and supporting remarks of other researchers have led to increasing of research on effectiveness of different types of feedback (Penningdevries, Cucchiarini, Strik, & Vanhout, 2010). It seems that today's researchers firmly believe effectiveness of corrective feedback (Ellis, 2006). Therefore, it can be stated that the question has focused more on effectiveness of types of feedback rather than the question whether feedback is necessary or not.

2.2 On Feedback- Giving Corrective Feedback

Schartel (2012) divides learning and teaching into three parts. The first part is determination of objectives and goals. The second part contains the practices to reach these goals and purposes. The last part is the evaluation of the outcomes to be obtained as a result of these practices through a type of assessment. This assessment, which is an important part of the learning and teaching process, is generally divided into formative and summative. According to Moon (2000), formative assessment is carried out on a daily basis and consistently, in which the teacher consciously assesses the students' abilities and skills to provide information about how they have

progressed. Summative assessment is the assessment made at certain intervals, mid-term or end-of-period.

There is also feedback in the summative assessment process, but as a result of the feedback given in the formative assessment process, students have a better chance to receive the necessary information to strengthen their weak points. At the same time, one of the most important elements of the formative assessment is the close relationship between the student and the teacher, and that the information provided is used by both the student and the teacher for better learning or teaching (Black, 1993). In the light of this information, the concept of feedback, which will be the focus of this study, is feedback given to learners as part of formative assessment to be aware of their progress in the learning process.

When it comes to learning environment especially foreign language environment, feedback often takes the form of corrective feedback. According to Lightbon and Spada (1999), corrective feedback can be defined as any kind of a response to the learners with the purpose of indicating that their target language use is incorrect. Bitchener and Knoch (2010) elaborated on corrective feedback by giving examples of it, some of which are correction of a word, phrases or verbal utterances of the learners.

2.2.1 Categorization of Feedback

In order to better understand the concept of feedback, it is necessary to know what dimensions it can take. Feedback is categorized in various forms considering many different factors. Brookhart (2008), one of the developers of these categorizations, has the variables "timing", "amount", "mode" and "audience" in her feedback model. A few other considerations that will further expand this categorization can be added to this, which are "source of feedback" and "function of feedback" (Çevikbaş & Argün 2016). Feedback can be discussed from various points of views with regard to these considerations. These considerations can be gathered under the title of the following questions (Hendrickson, 1978, p.589):

- When should learners' errors be corrected?
- Who should do the correcting?

- How should errors be corrected?
- Should learners' errors be corrected?
- Which errors should be corrected?

2.2.2 Timing of Feedback

Feedback can be provided in two ways regarding its timing: delayed feedback and immediate feedback. A general criteria proposed by Brookhart in order to determine a good strategy is to see from the perspective of the student. The best moment to provide feedback is when the learners are still working on their work and performance. Therefore, it can be considered a bad practice for a teacher to assess an assignment two weeks after the students have completed them.

Kullik and Kullik (1988), related to timing of feedback, concluded that immediate feedback resulted in a better performance of the learners in real learning environments compared to delayed feedback. From a different point of view, Thurlings et al. (2013) indicates that giving any kind of feedback regardless of its timing is always better than not giving any. He also underlies that immediate feedback provides better results compared to delayed feedback noting that timing to provide feedback is one of the crucial points to keep in mind. On the other hand, Clariana (1999) states that timing of the feedback should be determined according to the complexity of the tasks, and proposes the use of immediate feedback for difficult and delayed feedback for easy tasks.

2.2.3 Amount of Feedback

Another factor that plays a role in determining the strategy related to giving feedback is the amount of feedback. Brookhart argues that this can be the most difficult decision to give. She proposes to make use of Goldilocks principle, which is "Not too much, not too little, but just right." (as cited in, Brookhart,2008). The teacher has to be able to analyze both the good and weak points of a work or an assignment and providing feedback focusing on two or three crucial points taking important learning and teaching objectives into consideration.

David and Debra (2006) state that providing a limited feedback is one of principles of effective feedback to make sure that the feedback given is really used. Considering the fact that some learners may prefer all their errors to be corrected

(Armhein & Nassaji , 2010), the feedback provider should be very careful in determining the amount of feedback both from the perspective of the learners, their work or performance and objectives and goals of the program.

2.2.4 Audience

Feedback can be provided to an individual or to a group of learners (Brookhart, 2008). She underlies the fact that the purpose of either group or individual feedback is to provide appropriate for appropriate learner or learners. Individual feedback may be preferred to inform an individual for their individual performance or work and the teacher may prefer group feedback when it is necessary to teach or revise something for most of the learners.

Hattie and Gan (2011) also distinguish feedback in terms of being group or individual focused. They propose that the teachers might provide an overall feedback for a group of learners focusing on common mistakes or can provide separate and specific feedback to individuals.

2.2.5 Sources of Feedback

Feedback has been categorized into four types in terms of its source: teacher feedback, peer feedback, conferencing and self-assessment (Cohen, 1990; Lui & Carless, 2006; Boud, 1995; Maarof et. al, 2011). Loewen and Nabei (2007) preferred a more general categorization by indicating that corrective feedback can be provided either learners by themselves or the others. This categorization has been discussed regarding the question who should correct the errors.

Conferencing refers to a situation where teacher and the learner spend time together on a work or performance in order to clarify them in detail (White and Arndt, 1991). Conferencing provides both the learner and teacher to elaborate on the learning goals and objectives in an organized way.

As another type of feedback considering its source, ***peer feedback*** is a process in which learners engage in conversations on their performances (Lui & Carless, 2006). Learners provide each other feedback by providing comments on their work. Rollinson (2005) asserts that peer feedback is chosen by teachers with some reasons. First, peer readers are useful sources to provide feedback. Second, it is not a usual way of providing feedback. Responses from students have been found to

be more specific. Finally, reading others' work can contribute to learners in becoming critical readers and in reflecting this experience on their own learning process. He also adds that peer feedback may have some limitations like time constraints and student characteristics that may make it difficult for the learners and teachers to make use of it. Smith (2010) argues that group and pair communicative activities that allow the learners to provide feedback to each other are preferred more in modern language learning environments.

Teacher feedback can be considered the most commonly preferred feedback type as the teacher is the richest source of the target content in the classroom. With regard to process approach in language learning, teacher is the usual and continuous provider and source of feedback (Paulus, 1999).

The source to provide feedback can also be the learners themselves in terms of performing repairs, which is referred to as **self-correction** or **self-repair**. This type of feedback have most commonly been discussed with regards to written feedback (Chandler, 2003; Bitchener & Cameron, 2005; Shirzad and Shirzad, 2015)

2.2.6 Functions of Feedback

Schimmel categorized types of feedback in terms of its functions; confirmatory feedback, corrective feedback and diagnostic feedback, (Schimmel, as cited in Senemoğlu, 2000). Confirmatory feedback refers to informing learners on the results of their work. Woo, Song, Jiang, Cho, Bong and Kim (2015, p6.) elaborate on confirmatory feedback stating "it involves positive feedback in the form of praise, or confirmation and/or reassurance that something went well". Corrective feedback, on the other hand, refers to situation where teacher provides a better alternative considering a work or performance exhibited by the learners (Woo et. al (2015). Chaudron (1988) also notes that corrective feedback is any kind of teacher behavior in reference to an error to indicate that it was an error. The difference between corrective and confirmatory feedback is therefore related to whether it is a reaction to correct and incorrect utterance, work or performance. Diagnostic feedback may be considered regarding the role of the teacher as a guide as it refers to informing the learners about problematic issues on their errors and the process of correcting them, and providing guidance for their further learning (Jonassen, 1997). Out of these feedback types mentioned under the title of function of feedback, the

most commonly used and studied feedback seems to be corrective feedback. Such a categorization may help provide a better understanding of corrective feedback by focusing on its particular functions.

2.2.7 Types of Feedback

There are different ways of providing feedback, which can be listed as written feedback, oral feedback and demonstration (Brookhart, 2008).

2.2.7.1 Written Corrective Feedback

Ellis (2009b) provided a comprehensive categorization of options for teachers to correct linguistic errors in learners' written work in order to offer an insight into future studies. Direct corrective feedback is when the teacher gives the learner the correct form. Indirect corrective feedback refers to an option when teacher points out the existence of an error but s/he does not correct it. The students are expected to find it themselves. Lalande (1982) reported that indirect feedback could be an effective way of correction as it leads the students into a process in which they solve problems and learn through guide.

Other types to distinguish are unfocused and focused corrective feedback; the former refers to a type of correction in which the teacher corrects any or all of the errors in a written work and the latter refers to a type of correction in which the teacher focuses on particular errors and aims to correct them. These two types of feedback have been an interesting topic to discuss and there have been several studies conducted on the effectiveness of focused and unfocused written feedback (Ellis, Sheen, Murakami & Takashima, 2008; Sheen, Wright, & Moldawa, 2009). Other types of written corrective feedback that Ellis (2009) reported to have been found in literature are meta-linguistic and electronic feedback.

2.2.7.2 Oral Corrective Feedback

Although there have been some other categorizations of oral corrective feedback like Fanselow (1977), the most commonly known and recognized one was provided by Lyster and Ranta (1997), which is used in this study. They have made a comprehensive categorization of oral corrective feedback types. In the study they conducted to distinguish different types of feedback used by different teachers in

French language lessons, they provided six different types of oral corrective feedback.

Explicit vs. Implicit Feedback

Oral corrective feedback can be discussed under the titles of explicit and implicit corrective feedback. Explicit feedback or explicit correction includes a clear indication that the learner has made a mistake (Ellis, Lowen & Erlam, 2006). Explicit feedback is provided with the purpose of giving grammar explanation or direct correction (Long, 1996)

Example: The teacher asks the students what they did last weekend.

S: I stay in bed last weekend.

T: I stayed in bed. You need to use past verb here.

On the other hand, implicit feedback is when the source, mostly the teacher, does not provide an apparent indication when the learner has made a mistake. Bitchener and Knoch (2010) points out that implicit feedback is grabbing the attention to the error but not correcting it. Implicit feedback is not so interrupting and does not have many risks in terms of terrifying, distressing or embarrassing the learners (Yoshida, 2008).

Recasts

Recast as a term appeared first as a part of the nature of first language acquisition (Farrar, 1992). In foreign language learning, recasts refer to a response by the teacher to the learners' output by reformulating their utterances; however, teacher's responses do not include utterances like "use this word" or "you should say" (Lyster & Ranta 1997).

Example:

STUDENT: Why did you went there? *

TEACHER: Why did you go there?

It should be noted that there have been different opinions whether recasts can be considered under the title of implicit feedback or it is also a type of explicit feedback (Long, 2006; Ellis, 2008). It can be pointed out that perceptions of the learners on

recasts can be considered as a determinant to define it as an explicit or implicit feedback as learners may not sometimes be aware of the function of recasts as a corrective feedback (Mackey et. al., 2000). Therefore, some researchers like Nassai (2015) underlined the fact that one weak point of recasts is this ambiguity.

Clarification request

Clarification request is another type of feedback which Ellis (2009a) discusses under the categorization of implicit feedback, as it refers to an indication by the corrector that the utterance has not been understood. The teacher, therefore, wants the learners to reformulate their utterance indicating that it has not been understood or there has been an error in its form (Spada & Frohlich, 1995). Common phrases used by the teacher in the delivery of this feedback type are “Sorry”, “Excuse me” or “Pardon me” to indicate that there has been something wrong (Lyster & Ranta 1997).

Example:

TEACHER: What does your father do?

STUDENT: She* is a teacher.

TEACHER: Sorry?

STUDENT: Ah, he is a teacher.

TEACHER: All right.

Meta-linguistic feedback

Meta-linguistic feedback or sometimes referred to as metalinguistic clue, as Lyster and Ranta (1997) define, is when the teacher addresses questions, comments or provides information for the learners related to their utterances with the purpose of eliciting information from the learners. The teacher may provide information by focusing on a grammar tip like “It’s a continuous tense” or address a question like “Is this how we form continuous tenses?” or simply giving a comment like “you forget something”.

Example:

STUDENT: Are there any water in the bottle?*

TEACHER: Is it plural or singular?

STUDENT: Singular. Is there any...

Repetition

Repetition is when the teacher repeats the students' utterances which include an error with a high intonation. The main purpose of the teacher is to draw attention to the errors in order to create question marks and clues for possible answers in the minds of the learners.

STUDENT: She have three sisters. *

TEACHER: She have (*with a high intonation*).

STUDENT: She has....

Elicitation

In elicitation, the teacher attempts to elicit the correct answer from the students. Lyster and Ranta (1996) mention three strategies to use for the practice of elicitation. One of them is when learners are asked to complete an utterance provided the teacher, who gives a pause, like a "fill in the blank" activity. This can be followed by a comment as a metalinguistic information like "no, not this".

Example:

STUDENT: When I was in England, I met a man who name was Alex.*

TEACHER: I met a man...(pauses for the student to correct the error)

STUDENT: whose name was Alex?

Second, teachers may sometimes use questions like "How do we say X in English?" with the purpose of eliciting correct forms from the learners. The final strategy is when teachers ask the learners (e.g. Can you say that again?) to reformulate their speech. All these techniques do not include an overt correction but simply asking the learner to try again (Smith, 2010).

2.3 Post-Feedback- Uptake

According to Lyster and Ranta (1997), uptake refers to responses of the learners immediately after they are given feedback and can be considered as a criterion to assess efficacy of feedback. They divide uptake into two categories which are “repair” or “needs repair”.

2.3.1 Needs Repair

Needs-repair uptake, according to Lyster and Ranta (1997), refers to a type of learner utterance as a response to the provided feedback, which still requires correction, and it consists of six different types of utterances.

Acknowledgment includes utterances like “yes” or “no” following the feedback or meta-linguistic information provided by the teacher.

STUDENT: She don't like it.*

TEACHER: She doesn't like it (Feedback)

STUDENT: Yes. (acknowledgement)

Same error is a kind of uptake referring to the situations where the learners repeat their initial errors.

STUDENT: She doesn't like play football.*

TEACHER: doesn't like ... (feedback)

STUDENT: doesn't like play (same error)

Different error is when the learner makes a different error without correcting or repeating the initial error.

STUDENT: Where was you born?*

TEACHER: Sorry? (feedback)

STUDENT: Oh, where are you born? (different error)

Off target is a type of uptake when the learner gives a response neither the initial utterance nor the teacher's feedback.

STUDENT: How often you drink tea?*

TEACHER: How often do you drink tea? (feedback)

STUDENT: Everyday (off-target)

As another form of uptake, *partial repair* is when the learner partially corrects the initial error.

STUDENT: She don't want drink coffee.*

TEACHER: doesn't want to drink. (feedback)

STUDENT: She doesn't want drink (needs-repair - partial repair)

Hesitation, as the final form of uptake, refers to the situations where the learner hesitates on how to give a response and feels confused to how to give another utterance.

STUDENT: He isn't play at them moment.*

TEACHER: Play ? (Feedback)

STUDENT: Play ? Plays?

2.3.2 Repair

Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified four types of repair that ends up with the correction of the initial error made by the learner: repetition, self-repair, peer-repair, incorporation.

Self-repair is when the learner repeats the feedback provided by the teacher including the correct form, *incorporation* is when the learner repeats the correct form followed by a longer speech by the student, *self-repair* is actually self-correction in which the learner corrects the initial error following the feedback provided by the teacher and finally *peer-repair* is actually peer correction when another learner other than the one who made the initial error corrects the error following the feedback provided by the teacher.

Ellis (2001) does not divide uptake into categories but approaches uptake in terms of whether it ends up with a correction or not. Nevertheless, Lyster and Ranta's terminology of uptake is crucial and helpful in order to better understand the practice of feedback and its nature. Researchers have been interested in learners' different types of responses to the feedback in order to identify and analyze the distribution of uptake among learners. (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Suzuki, 2004; Safari, 2013)

2.4 Research into Oral Corrective Feedback

For almost forty-decades, researchers have focused on issues related to feedback in order to answer the questions on timing of feedback, source of feedback, amount of feedback and mode/expression of feedback as mentioned earlier. These studies have helped us to understand the nature feedback and its practice in learning and teaching environment.

2.4.1 Use of Feedback

In an early study carried out by Fanselow (1977), the aim was to find answers to the questions related to types of errors to correct and to ignore, and the way to correct errors through videotaping of several teachers. He found out that the most frequency practiced way of correcting errors was to give the right answer. It was not possible to have a better insight into feedback practice as the teachers were very similar in the way that they corrected errors. He concluded that feedback the teachers provide should guide the learners to sort out and link information and that giving the correct version is not sufficient.

A fundamental study which has paved way for numerous other studies was carried out by Lyster and Ranta (1997) on corrective feedback types and learner uptake. They transcribed a total of 18 hours of French as a second language class. The results showed that about 34% of the output produced by the learners included error or needs repair and teachers provided feedback for 62% of these. The students provided uptake in response to teacher feedback with a percentage of 55; however, 27% of the uptake were successful in terms of student repair, which shows that the amount of repair was a lot less than the amount of errors. In the same study, they also found out that the most frequently used feedback type was recast. The distribution of other feedback types was the following: elicitation (14%), clarification request (11%), metalinguistic feedback (8%), and explicit correction (7%). The effectiveness of each type of feedback was assessed regarding the uptake following feedback. Although recasts were the most commonly used one, but the amount of uptake it provided was the lowest. Clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, and repetition were found to be similar in efficiency. The most efficient type of feedback

was found to be elicitation which led to uptake either as repair or needs repair with the highest amount.

Another fundamental study which had similar purposes with Lyster and Ranta (1977) was carried out by Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001) with adult learners of English as a second language in New Zealand. Their study showed similar results in that recasts were the most commonly used feedback type; however, differed in that recasts were the most successful feedback type in leading to uptake as opposed to results of Lyster and Ranta (1977). It can be argued that the difference may have resulted from the fact that Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001) had adults but Lyster and Ranta (1977) had young learners in their studies.

The aim of the study conducted by Oliver and Mackey (2003) was also practice of feedback in different learning and teaching contexts. They reported that the amount of errors were the highest in communication focused contexts. This can be considered natural as learners are more likely to make errors when they practice oral skills. On the other hand, their study also showed that the teachers' choice of corrective feedback type differed depending on the context. It was found out that explicit feedback use was more common in language focused context. It can be concluded from the study that practice of different types of corrective feedback may differ according to language contexts with different language focus as well as teachers' personal choices and techniques.

Jabbari and Fazliatfar (2012) investigated the frequency of corrective feedback types through audio-recordings on learners with different levels of English. Repetition and metalinguistic feedback types were found to be most commonly used ones. They argued in their study that different strategies of using feedback should be investigated in order to find out the rationale behind corrective feedback use.

There have been several other studies that investigated the effects of corrective feedback types on language acquisition through experiential studies (Long, Inagaki and Ortega, 1998; Russell & Spada, 2006; Razei & Derakshan, 2011). In one of these studies, Mackey and Philp (1998) note that there can be different methods to assess effectiveness of different feedback types and that uptake, as Lyster and Ranta (1997) put forward, may not be a reliable criteria. They argue that learners

may still be learning even though they may not sometimes provide uptake as a response.

2.4.2 Preferences for Feedback

Horwithz (1988) points out that it is necessary for the teachers to have ideas about the perceptions of the students on language learning process as it can lead to problems when there is a discrepancy between what teachers implement as a part of their teaching practice and what learners expect from language learning in the classroom.

One of the earliest studies conducted on preferences of ESL students, Radecki and Swales (1988) argues that learners expect their teachers to correct nearly all of their errors and teachers need to respond to these expectations in order not to lose their reliability.

The study by Park (2010) aimed to investigate teacher and learner beliefs on correcting errors in terms of whether it is necessary to correct errors, how often the errors should be corrected and what types of correction and correctors are preferred. Park also included issues related anxiety considering preferences for feedback. A total of one hundred sixty ESL learners and 18 native speakers of English were included in the study. It was concluded in the study that learners and teachers both hold the view that errors need to be corrected. It was also found out that there were a significant amount of differences between the learners' and teachers' views on when to correct errors, which methods to use and source of corrective feedback. However, it was pointed out that students with low anxiety and high anxiety had different opinions only about the sources to deliver feedback.

Şahin (2015)'s interest was in the views of the candidate teachers to find out how they use feedback and perceive the purpose and source of different types of feedback through a questionnaire designed for the learners to collect information related to feedback types they receive during teaching, the method of giving feedback, activities in which feedback is given, purpose of the feedback and source of the feedback. Teachers also were given a questionnaire to provide information related to their opinions. The researcher concluded that the teachers used oral feedback frequently; however, they used written feedback rarely. The most frequent

feedback type provided by the teachers was found to be explanatory feedback in which teachers explained in detail reasons of correct and incorrect responses.

In another study, Çimen-Çoşğun and Sarı (2015) aimed to identify feedback styles that classroom teachers with different self-efficacy perceptions used in their classrooms. Their method of collecting information was observation. Schimmel's categorization of feedback types (as cited in Senemoğlu, 2000) constituted framework of study in order to specify feedback types used by the teachers. They reported in their study that teachers either with high or low level of self-efficacy perceptions included all types of feedback in the classroom. The most frequently preferred type of feedback was found to be confirmative feedback and the least frequently used one was diagnostic feedback. They concluded, considering related studies in literature, that teachers do only include particular types of feedback but do not make use of several other feedback types. Therefore, they propose that teachers and teacher candidates should be trained on issues like giving feedback in an effective way and types of feedback.

Finally, in the study conducted mainly on the opinions of the learners towards different types of corrective feedback, Najmaddin (2010) pointed out that the learners were happy with all types of feedback they receive; however, some differences were also identified. One of these differences was that the learners preferred explicit feedback types rather than implicit ones. It was concluded that the level of the learners should be taken into consideration in the process of providing feedback.

2.4.3 Corrective Feedback and Learner Characteristics

Carvalho et. al. (2014) undertook a study to explore differences in perceptions of the learners towards feedback. They aimed to find out whether gender and the education program that students attend may affect their perceptions of feedback. They reported that type of education program had no effect on students' perceptions; however, the study showed that there were differences in perceptions regarding the gender. Girls were found to report more frequency of effective feedback than boys. They noted in their study that this difference may be linked to the fact that girls are better at paying attention to the teachers' responses than boys.

In another study, Khorshidi and Rassei (2013) aimed to investigate whether students 'gender affects their preferences for corrective feedback regarding whether feedback is necessary, when to give feedback, which type and method to use and who to deliver feedback. The results showed that girls and boys were not significantly different from each other in feedback preferences except for their opinions related to the necessity of feedback. Males were more willing to receive feedback than girls.

Evans and Waring (2010) aimed to analyze the relationship between student teachers' gender, cognitive styles and their feedback preferences. They made use of two questionnaires to identify preferences for feedback and their cognitive styles. The study revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between students with different gender and cognitive styles. Males were found to expect an approval related to their responses while females were more focused on the utterances to be corrected. It was also identified that male and female students were different in relation to the amount and focus of feedback. Considering the cognitive styles that they possess, students' preferences for feedback differed from each other.

Another aspect that has been included in the description of learner characteristics is the concept of learning styles (Lightbown & Spada, 1993). Individuals may prefer to use different strategies when they learn new things, and correction practice can be considered as a part of these learning preferences (Hill, 2007). O'malley & Chamot (1990) also states that preferred strategies to give or receive feedback are associated with learning strategies. Therefore, as an objective of this study, use of feedback and learning styles are the concepts of education which can be investigated in relation to each other.

2.5 Learning Styles

2.5.1 Definitions for Learning Styles

It has always been an area of interest that some learners outperform the others in the process of learning something new although they are provided with same and equal instruction (Vollmeyer & Rhenberg, 2000). Just like the fact that people respond to the same piece of music with a range of opinions from

appreciation to hatred, it is an undeniable nature of learning that people considerably differ when they attempt to acquire something new to them. These differences have been associated with different preferences for learning as all people have a unique way of behaving and thinking (Woolfolk, Winne, & Perry, 2003). With regard to an educational context, Dörneyi (2005) deals with these differences under individual differences, which are referred to as individual characteristics that are presumably valid for everybody and that make people different from each other to some degree. Researchers interested in education have argued that it is fundamental to understand these differences in order to facilitate learning and teaching (Collinson, 2000).

Learning styles are one aspect of these differences. Learning styles can be defined as the characteristics and preferences of the individuals in the processes of receiving, remembering and processing knowledge (Felder & Silverman, 1988). A number of other definitions for learning styles are available in literature as researchers' point of views differ from each other. According to Cornett (1983), individuals bring natural tendencies from birth and these particular characteristics are affected by the environmental, personal and cultural factors, which then end up with learning styles. Vermunt (1996) provides a detailed definition for learning style by dividing it into four dimensions which include strategies to process information, strategies for individuals' controlling their own learning, perceptions of individuals for learning and finally personal objectives and motivation for learning. According to Dunn and Dunn (1993), learning style refers to each individual's own strategy and capacity to deal with and learn new and challenging knowledge. Finally, Kolb (1984) approaches learning styles with his Experiential Learning Theory consisting of a four step cycle in which he argues learning styles are the preferred strategies of learners in acquiring and processing knowledge. These definitions and different points of view towards learning styles have led to several learning theories in which they defined different characteristics of individuals with different strategies, preferences and styles for learning.

2.5.2 Models for Learning Styles

A great many of learning style models can be found in literature which have focused on different dimensions of learning and therefore proposed different styles of learning. As an overview of these models, Curry (1983 as cited in Cassidy, 2004)

makes use of an onion metaphor in order to classify them based on their fundamentals. The onion represents outer and inner layers which are referred to as “instructional preference”, “social interaction”, information processing” and cognitive personality”.

2.5.2.1 Gregorc’s Model of Learning Styles

Gregorc (1982) defines four basic behaviors which can be observed and different from each other. According to Gregorc, individuals have different ways of perceiving: those with abstract and concrete perceptions and those with random and sequential perceptions. These ways of perceptions constitutes the fundamentals of the learning styles defined for individuals. Based on this model, four different styles of learning are defined: “concrete sequential”, “concrete random”, “abstract sequential” and “abstract random”. Characteristics of these learners can be described as follows (Cassidy, 2004; Ekici, 2013)

Individuals with *Concrete Sequential* learning styles prefer a step-by-step learning, from simple to complex. Their sense organs are highly developed and they prefer to learn through concrete materials.

Individuals with *Abstract Sequential* learning styles firstly form an empty frame structure in their minds. They take what is regularly given to them as information and put it in the frame they have created in their minds and try to reach a conclusion about the whole thing through logical thinking. They prefer a verbal instruction.

Individuals with *Concrete Random* learning styles have outstanding skills in problem solving especially through trial and error. They are researchers who try to obtain new concepts and information.

Individuals with *Abstract Random* learning styles do not need a structured learning in order to perceive events and concepts. They prefer to learn in environments with multiple sensory experiences. They prefer holistic and visual learning.

2.5.2.2 Felder-Silverman Learning Style Model

As developers of another well-known model for learning styles, Felder and Silverman (1998) define individuals’ learning styles based on four basic aspects.

Learners have specific characterizations which lead them to specific preferences. These four dimensions are active-reflective, sensing - intuitive, visual-verbal and sequential - global. Characteristics of these learners can be described as follows (Felder & Silverman, 1988; Veznedaroğlu & Özgür, 2005; Graf et. al, 2007;)

Active Learners tend to learn through active experiences, discussions and interaction. They prefer group activities. On the other hand, *Reflective Learners* prefer activities in which they take time to think about the material. They expect to be given opportunities to think about the information provided. They tend to work alone. Individuals with *Sensing learning styles* prefer to learn through their sense organs and observations. They prefer concrete knowledge and concepts. Also, they can be viewed as practical learners. On the contrary, individuals with *Intuitive learning styles* tend to learn through abstract materials, intuitions, possibilities and imagination. They are considered to be more comfortable in understanding mathematical concepts.

Visual learners recall information more when they learn through what they see. Visual materials such as pictures, diagrams and schemes facilitate their learning. On the other hand, *Verbal learners* remember more when are provided with verbal or written materials for the delivery of information. They tend to code information verbally.

Finally, *Sequential* and *Global* learners can be considered similar to sequential styles in Gregorc's model mentioned above. *Sequential learners* prefer to learn in small steps. They tend to follow a linear logic process while solving problems. In contrast, *Global* learners tend to acquire knowledge holistically. They do not need associations as they have the ability of discovering them on their own.

2.5.2.3 Grasha-Reichmann Model for Learning Styles

The model developed by Grasha and Reichmann (1974) mainly focuses on interactions between teachers and peers in relation to their learning process. From its social point of view, this model can be considered to be different from many others which focus individuals' cognitive styles. Grasha and Reichmann divided the learners into six categories: independent learners, dependent learners, collaborative

learners, competitive learners, contributive learners and avoidant learners. The following provides information related to the characteristics of learners with these particular learning styles (Baykul, Gürsel, Sulak, Ertekin, Yazıcı, Dülger, Aslan & Büyükkarcı, 2010; Grasha and Reichmann, 1974; Grasha, 1996 as cited in Amina & Jelas, 2010)

Individuals with an *independent* learning style tend to learn by themselves and they are self-sufficient in learning process while individuals with *dependent* learning style prefer to learn only what they are expected to learn. Dependent learners perceive their teachers as the authority.

Collaborative learners tend to be a part of a collaborative work with their teachers and peers by sharing opinions. On the other hand, the purpose of *competitive* learners is to outperform the others and they like grabbing attention to themselves. These learners may not sometimes get on well with collaborative learners.

Individuals with *avoidant* learning style feel unwilling to participate in the lesson and learning process, and they may not be interested in the activities or events in the classroom while *participant* learners tend to be the easygoing and responsive ones in the classroom. They enjoy attending the lessons and participating in the activities.

2.5.2.4 Kolb's Model for Learning Styles

Considering Curry's (1983 as cited in Cassidy, 2004) metaphor for learning styles mentioned above, Kolb's model learning styles can be categorized within the scope of information processing. Fundamentals of this model are mainly based on John Dewey's concept that learning has its roots in experience, on Kurt Lewin's approaches focusing on active learning and Jean Piaget's notion of interaction between individuals and society (Teixeira, 2001 as cited in Eyyam, Menevis & Dogruer, 2011)

Individuals learn through experience and their learning strategies are based on a four-stage learning cycle according to the Experiential Learning Model developed by Kolb (1976, 1984). As a part of this learning cycle, four learning strategies are defined for individuals: Concrete Experience (CE), Reflective Observation (CO), Abstract Conceptualization (AC) and Active Experience (AE).

Strategies for learning for each type strategy for learning are different, which are respectively “Feeling” for Concrete Experience, “Watching” for Reflective Observation, “Thinking” for Abstract Conceptualization and “Doing” for Active Experience (Aşkar & Akkoyunlu 1993).

Concrete Experience stage refers to characteristics of learners who tend to feel, think and experience for perceiving the world. They tend to be involved in real life situations and to solve problems intuitively rather than scientific strategies. **Reflective Observation** stage is based on the capacity to comprehend the ideas in detail. Learners in this stage tend to have an objective attitude and be patient. As the name implies, they tend to reflect and observe rather than involving in a situation actively. Fundamental strategies for learning are by watching and listening. **Abstract Conceptualization** involves tendencies towards rationale and ideas instead of feelings in the process of problem solving. As opposed to concrete experience, individuals prefer to make use of cognitive skills rather than feelings. Fundamental strategy for learning is by thinking. **Active Experimentation** is characterized with the abilities of changing situations and being actively involved in the practice of learning. Learners do not prefer to watch situations only but tend to play an active role in the environment with the purpose of productivity. Fundamental strategy for learning is by doing. (Kolb, 1976 ; Kolb, 1984 ; Richmond & Cummings, 2005; Eyyam, Meneviş & Doğruer 2011). The model of Kolb’s Experiential Theory is demonstrated in Figure 1:

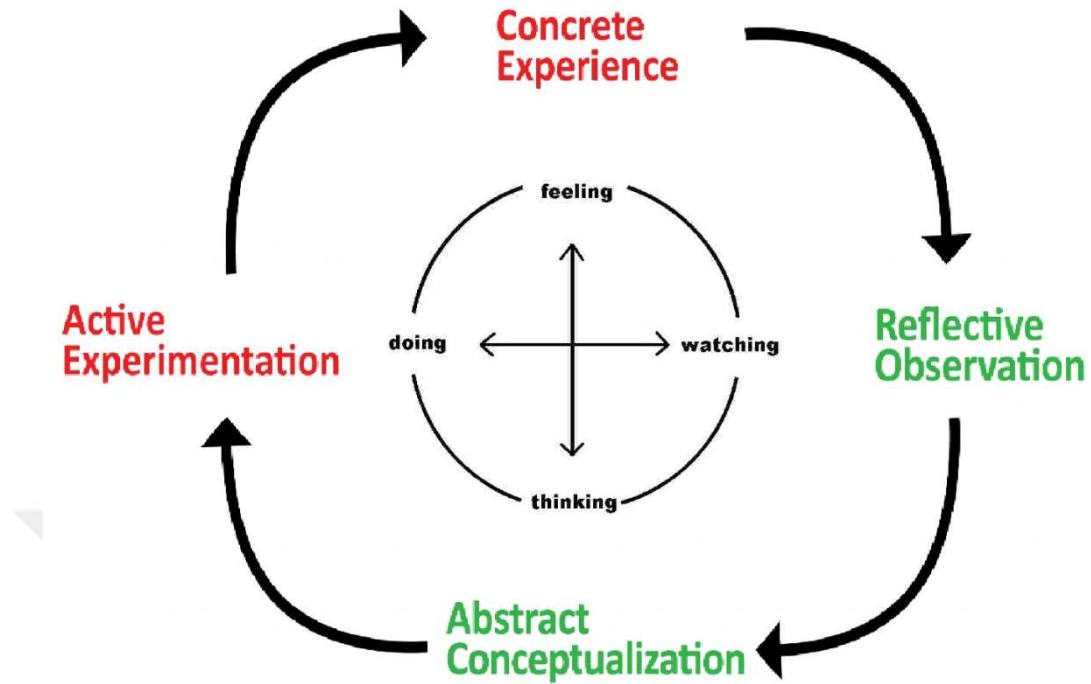


Figure 1. Kolb's Model for Experiential Learning (Kolb, 1985)

Kolb (1985) notes that majority of individuals undergo these stages of concrete experiences, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization and active experimentation respectively. According to this nature of learning proposed by Kolb, people “first have a concrete experience, then observe and reflect it from different perspectives, then form abstract concepts and generalizations in theories and finally actively experience these theories and test what they have learned in complex situations” (Eyyam, Meneviş & Doğruer 2011, p.2). Therefore, just one of these four dimensions is not enough to define learning styles for learners, and these stages are combined in order to determine a particular learning style through the scoring of the individuals obtained from Learning Style Inventory (Aşkar & Akkoyunlu 1993).

Learning style of each individual is a combination of these four basic ways of learning. These learning styles are as follows: Accommodator, Assimilator, Diverger and Converger.

Accommodator

It is a combination of Concrete Experience and Active Experimentation. They are good at making plans, performing decisions and participating in new experiences. Individuals with this type of learning style are open to new ideas and are good at accommodating themselves to changes (Kolb, 1984; Aşkar & Akkoyunlu 1993). The distinctive question of these learners is “If ..., what will happen?” (Şahin & Çelik, 2011). Accommodators tend to be involved in areas or occupations such as management, public management, baking or marketing (Aşkar & Akkoyunlu 1993)..

Assimilator

It is a combination of Abstract Conceptualization and Reflective Observation. Learners with this learning style are mainly focused on concepts and ideas (Aşkar & Akkoyunlu 1993). The distinctive question of these learners is “what?” (Şahin & Çelik, 2011). Kolb notes that these learners outstand with their ability of “creating theoretical models in assimilating disparate observations into an integrated explanation” and that these learners are more successful in classrooms where traditional teaching method is adopted as they tend to learn by watching and listening (Kolb, 1984, p.78). The most common occupations shared by assimilator type of learners are education, sociology and law (Aşkar & Akkoyunlu 1993)..

Diverger

It is a combination of Concrete Experience and Reflective Observation stages in the learning cycle. The most outstanding characteristics of these learners are their abilities to think and to be aware of values and meanings. They tend to organize relationships in a meaningful way (Aşkar & Akkoyunlu 1993). The distinctive question of these learners is “Why?” (Şahin & Çelik, 2011). Learners with converger learning style prefer to learn through observations and may have difficulties in choosing between choices and making decisions (Kılıç & Karadeniz, 2004). Diverger individuals may be associated with occupations of interest areas such as literature, arts, theatre and journalism (Aşkar & Akkoyunlu 1993)..

Converger

This type of learning style is a combination of Abstract Conceptualization and Active Experience. Basic characteristics of individuals with this learning style

are problem solving, making decisions, logical analysis of the ideas and systematic planning (Aşkar & Akkoyunlu 1993). Convergers do not often tend to use their emotions and are more interested in things than people (Eyyam, Meneviş & Doğruer 2011). The activities that convergers perform best are those which involve problem solving and make use of practical concepts (Kolb, 1984). The distinctive question of these learners is “How?” (Şahin & Çelik, 2011). Individuals with converger learning styles tend to have occupations related to economy, engineering and physics (Aşkar & Akkoyunlu 1993). Figure 2 provides a demonstration of the stages of learning and types of learning styles from the point of Kolb’s categorization:

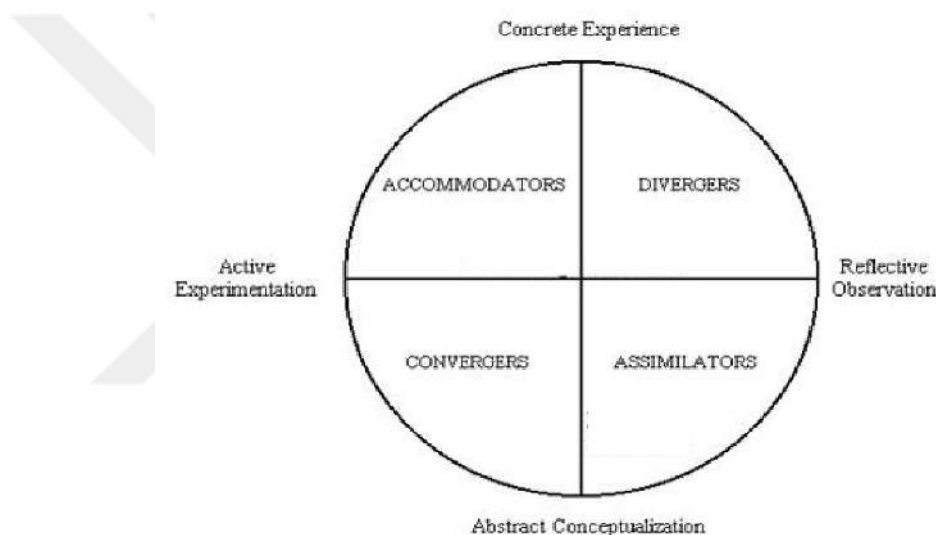


Figure 2. Categorization of Learning Styles according to Experiential Learning (Kolb, 1985)

2.5.3 Research into Learning Styles

There have been studies on learning style in literature which have investigated its relation with several considerations like gender and social background. The underlying reason behind these studies have often been the fact that some learners outperform the others in the process of learning something new although they are provided with same and equal instruction (Vollmeyer & Rhenberg, 2000). In this vein, a number of studies have been conducted in Turkish context in relation to learning styles categorization developed by Kolb (1985). These studies have reported information on the distribution of different learning styles of the students in Turkey.

The study by Aşkar and Akkoyunlu (1993) is the pioneer of numerous studies conducted in Turkey on learning styles. They provided a Turkish version of Kolb's Learning Style Inventory in their study. They pointed out that LSI is an appropriate one to implement in Turkey. In this study, which was administered to 103 adults aged between 22-49 with an education background in the fields of science, social sciences and engineering, it was reported that the distribution of the learning styles was assimilator (65%), converger (17 %), diverger (11 %) and accommodator (7%). The dominant learning style of the individuals who had science and social sciences background was assimilator while converger learning style was the most common among engineers. According to these findings, a sample occupational distribution was provided for each type of learning style based on the educational background of the participants. It was stated that accommodators had social sciences (4%) (public management, history) and science (10%) background. Diverger individuals had social sciences (15%) (psychology, literature and foreign languages) and science (3%) background. Converger individuals had social sciences (8%) (economy, geography) and engineering (68%). background. Individuals with assimilator learning style were reported to be mostly those who had social sciences (73%) background and science (74%) and engineering (15%) background.

In their study conducted by Peker and Aydın (2003), it was aimed to find out learning styles of 367 students studying at three different high schools and they reported that majority of the students had assimilator learning style with a percentage of 54.5; the second most common learning style was converger with a percentage of 29.4. The least common learning styles were divergers (10.9 %) and accommodators (5.2).

Bahar, Ozen and Gulactı (2007) reported in their study on learning styles with 443 students studying at Faculty of Education that there was not a statistically significant difference between male and female students in terms of leaning styles. They found out that the most common learning style was converger (43.6 %) followed by assimilator (29.3 %), accommodator (16.3%) and diverger (10.8%). Similary, Pehlivan (2010) reported a similar distribution of learning styles among a group consisting of 306 candidate teachers with diverger and assimilator learning styles respectively as the most common ones. In another study that Can (2011)

carried out on 409 prospective class teachers, the most common types of learning styles were found to be assimilator (39.9%) and converger (35.5 %) while divergers and accommodators were much less common with percentages of 15.6 and 9.0 respectively. In several other studies, similar results were obtained showing that majority of the learners had diverger and assimilator learning styles (Yapıcı & Hevedanlı, 2012; Bahar, Polat & Özbaş, 2016; Açışlı, 2016).

It can be concluded from all these studies on learning styles based on Kolb's learning style model that the most common learning styles of individuals in Turkey are assimilator and diverger. Accommodators and convergers seem to be less common than these two dominant styles of learning. It can also be concluded that individuals' occupations influence their dominant learning style also supported by Boyatzis and Mainemelis (1999) reporting that engineers tend to be convergers, teachers tend to be assimilators, individuals who have occupations related to management tend to have a accommodator learning style and people interested in art and literature have a diverger learning styles.

2.5.3.1 Distribution of Learning Styles Globally

Another aspect of learning styles is whether learners with different cultures, values and backgrounds differ in learning styles they possess, which is also a controversial topic. A comprehensive study to find answers this challenging question was conducted by Darlene (1997). The researcher aimed to find out whether learning styles vary in learners with particular geographic and ethnic characteristics, which involved African - American, Asian - American, Hispanic, and European American cultures. A questionnaire was developed that included characteristics belonging to different learning styles defined in literature. It was concluded in the study that students from different countries and cultures did not seem to differ from each other in terms of learning styles. Darlene (1997) is in the opinion that educators ought to be aware of the fact that learning and teaching environment is surely influenced by the characteristics of the society and culture; however, learning style is more related to individuals' preferences and features than it is to the cultural characteristics. The researcher proposes that possible and particular differences should be considered as a part of awareness but not be used as a guideline.

On the other hand, more specific research carried out within the scope of Kolb's experiential theory and learning styles based on this showed that there are significant differences among cultures in terms of learning style distribution (Yamazaki, 2005).

As one of these studies, Joy and Kolb (2009) attempted to figure out the distribution of learning styles among cultures regarding Kolb's categorization of "learning styles, gender, age, level of education and area of specialization". They found a significant difference between culture and learning styles ($p < .05$). They categorized different countries under specific clusters and chose randomly one country to represent the whole cluster that was assumed to have a certain level of homogeneity. They excluded three clusters as the countries in them did not fulfill the requirements in terms of sample size. This is reason why the study did not include Middle East group which had Turkey as well as a sample. According to the results obtained, the countries representing a particular cluster were categorized according to the dominant learning style identified, which can be observed in Figure 3:

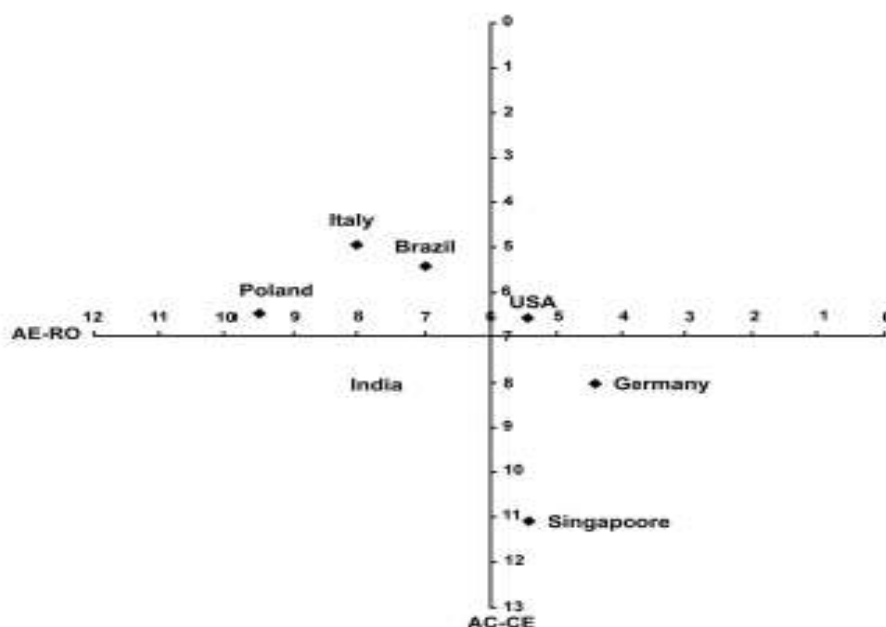


Figure 3. Learning Style Distribution among Cultures (Joy and Kolb, 2009)

They also found significant differences concerning gender ($p < .05$) and area of specialization ($p < .05$). They concluded in their study that cultural difference was a significant variance to explain the distribution of learning styles.

2.5.3.2 Studies on Learning Styles and Learner Characteristics

The purpose of the study conducted by Olic and Adamov (2016) was to explore the relationship between learning styles, school achievement and gender. They identified learning styles of the students through Kolb's learning style inventory and found out that assimilator learning style was the most common among the learners followed by divergers, convergers and assimilators respectively. The first result of the study was on the relationship between gender and learning styles, which indicate that there are no significant differences in learning styles in terms of gender. On the other hand, significant differences were obtained among learners with different learning styles in terms of their achievement at school. It was reported in the study that the learners with the highest school achievement score were those who had diverger learning styles. Considering the characteristics of diverger learners, they tend to organize relationships and a great amount of information in a meaningful way (Aşkar & Akkoyunlu 1993). They concluded in their study that the reason why divergers were found to be more successful could be related to the strategies adopted by the education system in Serbia, where the study was conducted. They claim that these types of learners prefer lectures as a method of teaching, which is the case in Serbia.

Koçyiğit (2011) aimed to identify learning styles of university students at different departments through Kolb Learning Style Inventory and determine whether distribution of learning styles differ in terms of department and gender. It was reported in the study that the most dominant learning style was assimilator followed by convergers, divergers and accommodators. The researcher reported that there was no statistically significant difference among learners at different departments in terms of leaning style and gender.

Halaçoğlu (1999) aimed to investigate whether there is a relationship between learning strategies and learning styles. The concept of learning and studying strategies refers to reflections and responses that individuals exhibit in learning

environment. Learning strategies, in particular, can be associated with feedback as well since strategies to give or receive feedback is a subtopic of learning strategies (O'malley & Chamot, 1990). Learning strategies are a compilation of techniques that individuals prefer to use in order to make the learning task easier to handle. These learning strategies may include effective ways to choose, acquire, organize and accommodate information. Halaçoğlu (1999) administered Kolb's Learning Styles Inventory and another instrument to find out learning and study strategies of the individuals. She concluded that there was no significant relationship between learning strategies preferred by university students and their learning styles. On the other hand, Gencel and Köse (2011) also investigated learning strategies and learning styles of prospective teachers and they reported that there was a significant relationship between these two concepts. However, Gencel and Köse (2011) underlie the fact that there seems to be a relationship between learning strategies and learner preferences but these differences may be limited to some particular "sub-dimensions".

In another study carried out by Zeng (2006) on learning styles analyzed its relationship with student performance and students' reactions to the method of case study for teaching. The case studies included real life situations in order to contextualize a particular storyline. The research aimed to examine the way that the students learn and respond to case studies regarding the learning styles they possessed. The researcher used Kolb's learning style inventory to determine the learning styles of the students. It was reported that most of the students favored case studies as a teaching method; however, there was not a statistically significant relationship between the learners' preferences in reference to their learning styles.

The study conducted by Yılmaz-Soylu and Akkoyunlu (2009) attempted to investigate the effect of learning styles on student achievement in different learning environments which included instruction based on text, narration or computer. These three different learning environments were considered to represent different characteristics of learners while learning. They used Kolb's Learning Style Inventory to determine learning styles and pre and post-tests to assess the achievement. They reported that learning styles do not influence students' achievement considering the different environments included in the study. They concluded that timing and reason

of using a particular method is more significant than type of it. In that vein, Loo (2004) proposes that teachers should be able to make use of a variety of learning and teaching strategies and encourage the learners to be open to these varieties instead of relating particular methods to particular learning styles.

The purpose of the study by Güngör et. al (2016) was to determine the distribution of learning styles in a preparatory school of a state university and to investigate a relationship in terms of their proficiencies and gender. They used Kolb's Learning Style Inventory and identified that the most dominant learning styles were divergers and accommodators. They reported that there was no statistically significant relationship between the students' gender, proficiency scores and learning styles. They conclude in their study that it is acceptable to have some doubts about classifying learners into particular groups.

In another study, Aliakbari and Qasemi (2012) attempted to analyze whether there was a significant relationship between learning styles and some other variables such as gender and level of English proficiency. They identified learning styles of the individuals, who were attending English schools in Iran, through Kolb's learning style inventory. The most common types of learning style were found to be assimilators and divergers with the percentages of 40 and 39 respectively. It was reported in the study that there was no statistically significant difference between learning styles and students' gender and proficiency of English. They suggest that more research has to be done in order to better understand the associations related to learning styles.

2.6 Criticism on Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory

Not all researchers have been in full agreement with Kolb's theory of experiential learning.

Rogers (1996, as cited in Kelly, 1997) claims that individuals have objectives, expectations, desires and their own decision-making process, and it is not easy to guess exactly where these elements are in this learning cycle. Kelly (1997) also notes that the questions do not seem to be clear and the result obtained from Kolb's learning style inventory may not match the individuals' own perception of themselves and should therefore not always be considered accurate.

Miettinen (2000) points out that Kolb's learning theory has some limitations. He asserts that the experiential point of view to learning may end up with incorrect conclusions; it may not be able to provide explanations related to new experiences and can lead to a kind of categorical thinking. Similarly, it has been claimed that Kolb's theory of learning can work for a number of occasions but it ignores social, historical and cultural backgrounds of the individuals. The theory has been criticized in terms of the fact that it seems to have been developed in a laboratory environment and social interactions were ignored (Holman & Thorpe, 1997 & Reynolds, 1997).

Seaman (2008) points out that the concept of experiential learning can be seen as an "ideology" rather than "philosophy" indicating that the learning cycle is not sufficient enough in order to explain learning from a holistic point of view. Several other claims have been made concerning problems and inconsistencies and its weaknesses related to the theory's graphical model and categorization of learning styles (Garner, 2000; Bergsteiner & Neumann, 2010). As a part of this hot debate, researchers even published articles in reply to each other's work and have discussed the aspects of issues from different perspectives (Stumpf & Freedman, 1981; Kolb, 1981; Sadler-Smit, 2001).

In the light of these claims on Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory, it is important to have a critical point of view. Kolb (1985)'s theory on the nature of learning and other researchers' criticism on it are both valuable as a contribution to the field. Additionally, the present study is to be helpful in terms of identifying a weak or a strong aspect of the Experiential Learning Theory as it attempts to investigate whether learning styles concept can explain learners' feedback preferences. The scope of the relationship between learning styles and preferences for oral corrective feedback is expected to shed more light both on the characteristics of learners and nature of oral corrective feedback preferences.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Presentation

The purpose of this chapter is to provide information related to the data analysis in the following sections: research design, participants of the study, data collection and data analysis procedures. It was aimed to give detailed information on the individuals included and describe issues on the procedure of data collection instruments and data analysis.

3.2 Research Design

The research fits into the category of quantitative design as it includes a set of numeric data, in which theories are tested by investigating the relationship among the variables included in the research (Creswell, 2013). The model of this study, regarding quantitative types of studies, can be considered as a descriptive one in that it attempted to define characteristics of a particular group based on facts in a systematic way (Isaac & Michael, 1971). According to Burns and Grove (2003), descriptive research “is designed to provide a picture of a situation as it naturally happens” (p.201). The basic characteristics of descriptive research are to provide numbers and percentages (Vyhmeister, 2008), and the most common tools to collect data are questionnaires and surveys (Koh & Owen, 2000). In the light of these features, characteristics of the present study best fits to descriptive study design as it aims to identify participants’ opinions and preferences through quantitative values with the help of a questionnaire and an inventory.

This study has also adopted the survey method in descriptive studies. According to Knupfer and McLellan (1996), survey method allows to see “how the

total sample has distributed itself on the response alternatives for a single questionnaire item” (p. 1197). In this respect, the participants were given a questionnaire and an inventory at separate times. The questionnaire was on preferences for feedback adapted from Fukuda (2004). The second instrument of the study was an inventory to determine learning styles.

3.3 Participants

The study was carried out at School of Foreign Languages, Gaziantep University (GUSFL). The department has about 1600 students registered who are expected to study at different departments in the following year. Students are given a proficiency test by GUSFL at the beginning of each year and they are placed in levels ranging from A1 to C1 based on the results of this test. When the students have successfully completed the program, they can continue their university education.

In order to carry out the study, a convenience sampling method was used. Dörnyei (2007) defines convenience sampling as a type of sampling in which “the convenience of the researcher is the crucial criterion: participation depends on practical criteria like geographical proximity, availability, accessibility and willingness to volunteer” (p.99). This method was the most appropriate one for the researcher to implement a questionnaire and an inventory. Therefore, 348 students studying at preparatory program at Gaziantep University School of Foreign Languages were given a questionnaire and an inventory in the academic year of 2016-2017. Participants’ ages were between 19 and 25 and their native language was Turkish. The proficiency levels of the students were A2, B1 or B2. Students at A1 level were not included in the study as their interaction with English instruction at university level was considered to be new. Table 1 displays the data related to demographic variables in the study:

Table 1.
Demographic Variables

		Frequency	Percent
Proficiency Levels	A2- Pre Intermediate	29	8.3
	B1- Intermediate	290	83.3
	B2- Intermediate	29	8.3
	Total	348	100
Gender	Male	256	73.6
	Female	92	26.4
	Total	348	100

It can be seen in Table 3.1 that 29 (8.3 %) students were at A2, 290 (83.3%) were B1, and 29 (8.3%) were B2 levels. Additionally, 256 (73.6%) students were male and 92 (26.4%) students were female.

3.4 Data Collection Tools

3.4.1 Learning Style Inventory

A number of surveys have been designed with the purpose of identifying learning styles based on different approaches; however, Kolb's Learning Style Inventory was used in this study, which was found to be the most suitable in Turkey context (Aşkar & Akkoyunlu, 1993) (see Appendix A). Students are divided into four learning style categories of convergers, assimilators, accommodators and divergers based on the scores they obtain. The inventory was translated into Turkish by Aşkar & Akkoyunlu (1993). The Learning Style Inventory consists of twelve open-ended statements with four options.

The participants are expected to rank these four options:

- 4: the most suitable
- 3: second most suitable
- 2: the third most suitable
- 1: the least suitable

According to Kolb learning style model, each sentence listed under each open-ended statement represents one particular learning style, which are Concrete Experience (CE), Reflective Observation (RO), Abstract Conceptualization (AC) and Active Experience (AE) respectively.

The total amount of the scores for each option ranges from 12 to 48. In this step, each participant has four raw scores of CE, RO, AC and AE. In the next step, these four scores are combined with a simple calculation:

- (1) Abstract Conceptualization (AC) - Concrete Experience (CE)
- (2) Active Experience (AE)- Reflective Observation (RO)

The two scores of subtraction range from -36 to +36. The third step is the determination of the learning style using these two scores. The point of intersection of the two scores determines the leaning style of the individual on The Learning Style Grid developed based on Experiential Learning Theory which is divided into four quadrants illustrated in Figure 4. As an example, if the AC-CE score is 14 and AE-RO score is -18, it is concluded that the participant has an “assimilator” style of learning.

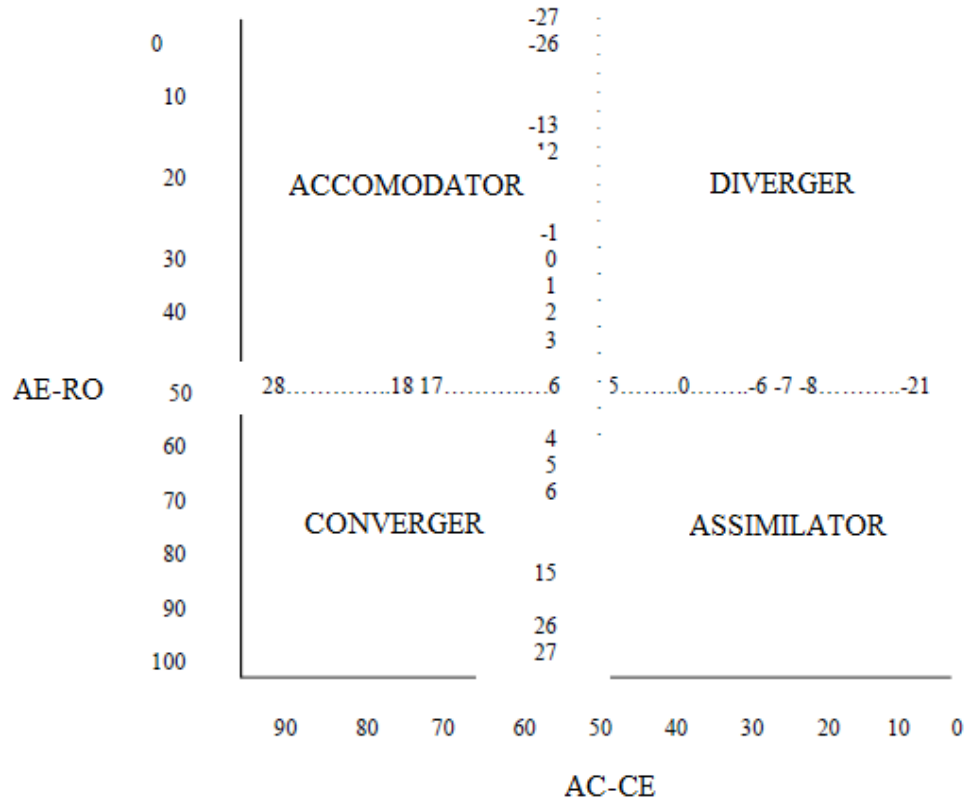


Figure 4. Learning Style Inventory Analysis Grid (Kolb 1999; Aşkar & Akkoyunlu, 1993; Şahin & Çelik, 2011)

As the developer of the Learning Styles Inventory, Kolb (1984) provided reliability scores. As the developer of the Turkish version of the inventory, Askar and Akkoyunlu (1993) administered the inventory to 103 students at Hacettepe University and also tested its reliability. Since the inventory was administered to a different sampling in a different context, reliability analysis of the Turkish version of LSI was conducted again as well. The results related to reliability analysis of the two previous studies and the current study are shown in Table 2:

Table 2.

Cronbach's Alpha Values of two Previous Studies and the Current Study

	Cronbach's Alpha (α) of the Present Study	Cronbach's Alpha (α) of Kolb's study	Cronbach's Alpha (α) of Aşkar & Akkoyunlu's study
Concrete Experience	.64	.82	.58
Reflective Observation	.67	.73	.70
Abstract Conceptualization	.76	.78	.71
Active Experimentation	.65	.88	.65

As the Table 2 displays, alpha scores for each part of the inventory ranged from 0.64 to 0.76, which are acceptable for reliability. Cronbach's Alpha score of the current study was found to be higher than Aşkar and Akkoyunlu (1993)'s study.

3.4.2 Feedback Preferences Questionnaire (FPQ)

The second instrument used in this study in the process of data collection was Feedback Preferences Questionnaire for students (FPQ). The questionnaire was first developed and used by Fukuda (2004). It was originally designed to collect data with respect to both teachers' and students' opinions and preferences for receiving oral corrective feedback. The one designed for students was used in this study regarding the purpose of the study.

Feedback Preferences Questionnaire starts with an introductory part including items related to demographic information of the participants. The second part includes twenty-two items divided into six sections each of which aims to investigate a different aspect of preferences for oral corrective feedback:

- a) Necessity
- b) Frequency
- c) Timing
- d) Types of Errors
- e) Types of Errors
- f) Source

FPQ has a Likert design with 5 options for each item. The sections (a), (c) and (f) includes responses from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The sections (b) and (d) include responses ranging from always to never and section (e) consists of responses from very effective to very ineffective. Section (e) was developed based on Lyster and Ranta (1997) categorization of oral corrective feedback, who distinguished six different types: explicit feedback, elicitation, repetition, clarification, metalinguistic feedback and recast. Each item in section (e) aims to investigate the participants preference for each type of oral corrective feedback commonly used in literature.

Feedback Preferences Questionnaire was also previously implemented by Park (2010), Gürbüz (2013), Çetinkaya and Hamzadayı (2015), and Zhang and Rahimi (2014). The version employed in this study was adapted from Çetinkaya and Hamzadayı (2015), who translated the questionnaire into Turkish (see Appendix B). They reported in their study that the questionnaire was given to the same group two times in order to analyze the reliability and found out that the participants provided similar responses to the items with a percentage of 90. Gürbüz (2013) also used the questionnaire in a similar context with 280 participants and reported in terms of its reliability that the result of Cronbach's Alpha analysis was .86. The results of the reliability analysis indicated that Cronbach's Alpha was .60 for the current study, which is considered acceptable regarding the sample size of the study (Loewenthal, 2001).

3.5 Data Collection

3.5.1 Piloting Procedure

A pilot study is needed to test the sufficiency of data collection tools, to figure out possible problems related to the procedure or the items and identify

whether a further explanation is needed for some items, which are the major purposes of a pilot study (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002). The piloting study was carried out at School of Foreign Languages, Gaziantep University with a total of 47 participants. Required permission was obtained for the administration of the pilot study (see Appendix C). After the collection of data, it was observed that the students had some difficulties in understanding how to number the items in Learning Style Inventory. Further explanation was provided on the inventory in order to eliminate ambiguities as a result of the pilot study. As to Feedback Preferences Questionnaire, the data were analyzed through SPSS 21.0. The questionnaire was found to have a Cronbach's Alpha value of .64. The items that reduced the reliability were revised in terms of the way of expression.

3.5.2 Data Collection

GUSFL offers English classes both in the morning and in the evening at different proficiency levels ranging from A1 to C1. The classroom sizes range from 10 to 20 students. The required permission was obtained from the administration (see Appendix C).

The participants were given information about the purpose and content of the study. They were made sure that the information would be kept confidential and they were free to participate in the questionnaire. The instructors responsible for each classroom were informed about the parts of the questionnaires and necessary explanations in order to guide the participants.

The questionnaires were administered at two different times so as not to overload the participants. Feedback preferences questionnaire was administered first. One week later, learning styles inventory was given to the same students. The participants were asked to write nick names on the papers in order to be able to combine two questionnaires later.

3.6 Data Analysis

The data collected through these two instruments was analyzed by using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 21.0). The frequencies, means, percentages and standard deviations of the items in questionnaire were calculated and learning styles of the students was determined by a formula developed on Microsoft

Excel. The data was analyzed in order to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between each section in the feedback preferences questionnaire mentioned above and learning styles of the students. Descriptive statistics tools of SPSS software package were utilized in the data analysis.

As the first step of the data collection process, two questionnaires, FPQ and LSI, were combined by matching the nicknames that the participants wrote on each of them. A total of 76 participants who forgot to write the nick names or did not participate in both of the questionnaires were excluded from the study, which reduced the number of the participants to 348.

Each couple of questionnaires was numbered and responses from the participants were coded into SPSS 21.0 in reference to these nick names. The data was analyzed by descriptive statistics tools including frequencies, standard deviation and mean. Frequencies and descriptive statistics were utilized for Research Question 1 and 2. For the Research Question 3 and 4, the Chi-square test, also known as the Pearson chi-square test, was performed in order to analyze the relationship between two independent variables, oral corrective feedback preferences and learning styles. To carry out the chi-square analysis, five-point Likert scale was clubbed into three categories for each section of the Feedback Preferences Questionnaire. When the requirements of the chi square test were not met, Fisher's Exact Test was run. The reasons why a Chi-square test was used are as follows (McHugh, 2013):

- Normality analysis indicated that the data was not normally distributed.
- The groups were not equal in size.
- The study included categorical variables (Likert scale and Learning Styles)

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

4.1 Presentation

The study aimed to identify learners' preferences for oral corrective feedback under the sub-dimensions of (a) *necessity of feedback*, (b) *frequency of feedback*, (c) *timing of feedback*, (d) *types of errors to be corrected*, (e) *types of feedback*, and (d) *source of feedback*. As the next step, it was aimed to see whether these preferences differ in terms of the learning styles that participants possess. This section presents the data on the feedback preferences of the students and then provides the statistics on the relationship between learning styles and their preferences for feedback in the order of research questions.

4.2 Results for Research Question #1: What are Turkish EFL Learners' Opinions and Preferences for Oral Corrective Feedback?

The results pertaining to Research Question #1 are presented in accordance with the six parts of the Feedback Preferences Questionnaire mentioned above, all of which constitute students' opinions and preferences for oral corrective feedback.

4.2.1 Learners' Opinions related to Necessity of Oral Corrective Feedback

The first section of the questionnaire consisted of one item (Q1) that asked the students whether they want their oral errors to be corrected. The participants were asked to rate their agreement with the statement "*I want my spoken errors to be corrected*" on a five-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree and 5=strongly agree). With regard to this item, Table 3 provides findings related to the opinions of the students on necessity of corrective feedback:

Table 3.
Responses on necessity of feedback

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	sd
<i>I want my spoken errors to be corrected</i>	f	165	156	22	3	2	4.37	.69
	%	47.4	44.8	6.3	0.9	0.6		

As Table 3 shows, 47.4 % of the students strongly agreed and 44.8 % of them agreed to the statement that “*I want my spoken errors to be corrected*” while only 0.9% and 0.6% of the students disagreed or strongly disagreed to the statement respectively. Mean of the responses of the students to the item was found to be 4.37.

4.2.2 Learners’ Preferences related to Frequency of Oral Corrective Feedback

The second section of the questionnaire asked the participants how often they want their teachers to correct spoken errors (Q2). The participants were asked to rate the frequency they prefer on a five-point scale with “Always, Usually, Sometimes, Seldom or Never”. “Always” was equal to 5 points, and “Never” was 1 point. The overall preference for the frequency of corrective feedback is shown in Table 4:

Table 4.
Students’ Preferences for Frequency of Feedback

		Always	Usually	Sometimes	Seldom	Never	Mean	sd
<i>How often do you want your teacher to give corrective feedback on your spoken errors?</i>	f	141	147	51	7	2	4.37	.68
	%	40.5	42.2	14.7	2.0	0.6		

As Table 4 reports, 40.5% and 42.2% of the students indicated that spoken errors should be “always” and “usually” corrected respectively while 14.7 % of the students expected that spoken errors should be “sometimes” corrected. Only a very small amount of the participants thought that spoken errors should “seldom” (2%) or “never” (0.6%) be corrected.

4.2.3 Learners’ Preferences related to Timing of Oral Corrective Feedback

The third section of the questionnaire included four items (Q3, Q4, Q5 and Q6), each of which referred to a particular preference for timing of corrective feedback. The categorization for timing of feedback contained four different items: (Q3) *As soon as errors are made even if it interrupts my conversation*, (Q4) *After I finish speaking*, (Q5) *After the activities*, and (Q6) *At the end of class*. The participants rated these four preferences on five-point scale with “Strongly Agree”, “Agree”, “Neutral”, “Disagree” and “Strongly Disagree”. The distribution of the responses on when to give oral corrective feedback is shown in Table 5:

Table 5.
Students’ Preferences for Timing of Feedback

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	sd
<i>After I finish speaking</i>	f	151	126	35	22	14	4.08	1.07
	%	43.4	36.2	10.1	6.3	4.0		
<i>As soon as errors are made</i>	f	57	75	93	68	55	3.03	1.3
	%	16.4	21.6	26.7	19.5	15.8		
<i>After the activities</i>	f	29	84	102	81	52	2.87	1.1
	%	8.3	24.1	29.3	23.3	14.9		
<i>At the end of class</i>	f	15	23	41	100	169	1.89	1.1
	%	4.3	6.6	11.8	28.7	48.6		

Table 5 reveals that the item “*after I finish speaking*” received the highest mean (M=4.08) with 43.4% of the students and 36.2% of the students who indicated they strongly agreed or agreed with the item respectively. The item that received the second highest mean (M=3.03) was “*as soon as errors are made*” with 16.4% and 21.6% of the students who indicated that they strongly agreed and agreed with the

item respectively. The item “*after the activities*” received the third highest mean ($M=2.87$) with which 8.35% of the students strongly agreed and 24.1% of the students agreed. Finally, the item that received the lowest mean was “*at the end of the class*” with 48.6 % and %28.7 of the students who rated the item “strongly disagree” and “disagree” respectively. Figure 5 also illustrates mean responses of the students for timing of corrective feedback:

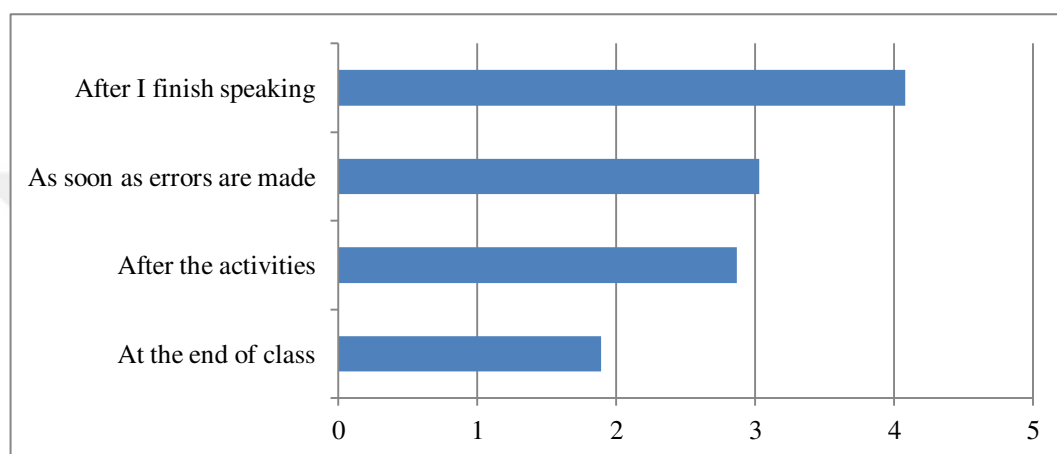


Figure 5. Mean Responses for Timing of Corrective Feedback

As can be observed in Figure 5, the most favored timing for errors to be corrected was “*after I finish speaking*” and the least favored one was “*at the end of the class*” among the students. The items “*as soon as errors are made*” and “*after the activities*” seem to have similar means as the third and fourth favored items respectively.

4.2.4 Learners’ Opinions related to Types of Oral Errors to be Corrected

The fourth section of the questionnaire asked the participants which spoken errors should be treated more often by the teachers. This section consists of five items in reference to types of errors: (Q7) *serious spoken errors*, (Q8) *less serious spoken errors*, (Q9) *frequent errors*, (Q10) *infrequent errors* and (Q11) *individual errors*. The participants rated these five preferences on a five-point scale with “Always”, “Usually”, “Sometimes”, “Seldom” and “Never”. Table 6 shows the distribution of the responses on how often these five types of errors should be corrected:

Table 6.
Students' Preferences for Types of Errors to be Corrected

		Always	Usually	Sometimes	Seldom	Never	Mean	sd
<i>Serious spoken errors</i>	f	185	126	34	3	0	4.41	.7
	%	53.2	36.2	9.8	0.9	0		
<i>Less serious spoken errors</i>	f	27	117	132	61	11	3.25	.94
	%	7.8	33.6	37.9	17.5	3.2		
<i>Frequent errors</i>	f	193	112	37	4	2	4.40	.77
	%	55.5	32.2	10.6	1.1	0.6		
<i>Infrequent errors</i>	f	31	80	105	113	19	2.97	1.06
	%	8.9	23.0	30.2	32.5	5.5		
<i>Individual errors</i>	f	60	107	112	55	14	3.41	1.07
	%	17.2	30.7	32.2	15.8	4.0		

As Table 6 displays, 55.5% of the students wanted “*frequent errors*” to be “always” corrected. Besides, 53.2% of the students indicated that they wanted to be corrected “always” when they make “*serious spoken errors*”. These types of errors seem to be considered as the most important errors during oral communication. On the other hand, 17.2% of the students expected their teachers to “always” correct their “*individual errors*”. Finally, “*infrequent errors*” and “*less serious spoken errors*” were found to be types of errors that are expected to be corrected least frequently with only 8.9% and 7.8% of the students who thought they should “always” be corrected. Additionally, Figure 6 also illustrates means of the responses related to types of errors to be corrected:

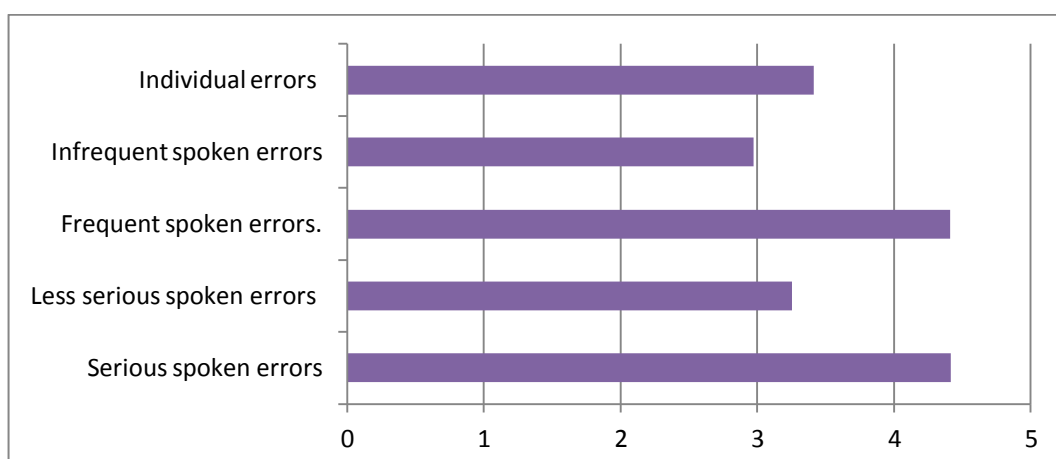


Figure 6. Mean Responses on Types of Errors Preferred to be Corrected

As shown in Figure 6, “*frequent spoken errors*” and “*serious spoken errors*” received the highest means from the students while “*individual errors*” received the third highest mean ($M=3.41$). Means of the responses on the items “*Less serious spoken errors*” and “*infrequent errors*” were the lowest ones ($M=3.25$, $M=2.97$ respectively).

4.2.5 Learners’ Preferences related to Types of Oral Corrective Feedback

The fifth section of the questionnaire asked the participants which types of feedback should be used by teachers. This section included eight items each of which was a particular type of feedback defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997): (Q12) *clarification*, (Q13) *repetition*, (Q14) *implicit feedback*, (Q15) *explicit feedback* (Q16) *elicitation*, (Q17) *no feedback*, (Q18) *metalinguistic feedback* and (Q19) *recast*. The participants rated these five preferences on a five-point scale with “Very Effective”, “Effective”, “Neutral”, “Ineffective” and “Very Ineffective”. “Very Effective” was 5 points and “Very Ineffective” was 1 point.

For the students to comprehend each type of feedback clearly, a simple example was given in the questionnaire for each type of feedback. A student uses “go” instead of “went” for past simple and the teacher responds to the same error in different ways. The distribution of the responses on how the students want their teachers to correct their spoken errors is displayed in Table 7:

Table 7.
Students' Preferences for Types of Feedback

		Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective	Mean	sd
<i>Explicit Feedback</i>	f	169	120	37	15	4	4.24	.92
	%	48.6	34.5	10.6	5.2	1.1		
<i>Clarification</i>	f	133	158	36	13	8	4.13	.90
	%	38.2	45.4	10.3	3.7	2.3		
<i>Elicitation</i>	f	112	150	57	22	7	3.97	.95
	%	32.2	43.1	16.4	6.3	2.0		
<i>Repetition</i>	f	104	161	56	18	9	3.95	.94
	%	29.9	46.3	16.1	5.2	2.6		
<i>Metalinguistic Feedback</i>	f	77	145	80	39	7	3.70	.99
	%	22.1	41.7	23.0	11.2	2.0		
<i>Implicit Feedback</i>	f	88	126	79	41	14	3.66	1.09
	%	25.3	36.2	22.7	11.8	4.0		
<i>Recast</i>	f	61	151	80	32	24	3.55	1.09
	%	17.5	43.4	23.0	9.2	6.9		
<i>No Feedback</i>	f	15	17	36	111	169	1.84	1.07
	%	4.3	4.9	10.3	31.9	48.6		

Table 7 displays the preferences on different types of oral corrective feedback. Considering the example given in the questionnaire for *explicit feedback*, the statement that “you need to use “went” here, “go” is in the present” was found to be considered as the most effective feedback type with 48.65 of the students who indicated that it was “very effective”. The item “Could you say that again?” which was the example given in the questionnaire for “clarification”, was the second most popular type of feedback with about 38 %of the students who rated it “very effective”. “Elicitation” was considered to be “very effective” by 32.2% of the students and, 29.9% of the students indicated that “Repetition” was a “very effective” type of feedback. With regard to the item “no feedback”, only about 4.3% of the students who rated it “very effective”. Figure 7 illustrates mean responses of the items about preferences for types of feedback:

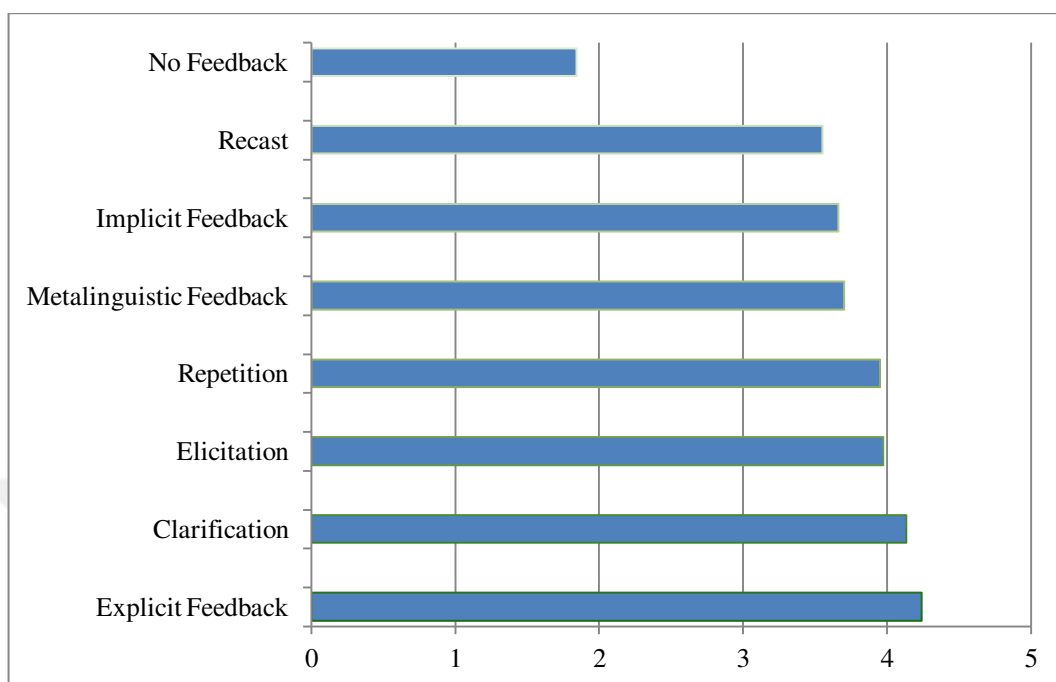


Figure 7. Mean Responses of Preferences for Oral Corrective Feedback Types

As figure 7 illustrates, “*explicit feedback*” and “*clarification*” received the means of 4.24 and 4.13 respectively, which made them the most favored types of feedback. “*Elicitation*” was the third most favored type of feedback with a mean of 3.97 followed by “*repetition*” ($M=3.95$), “*metalinguistic feedback*” ($M=3.7$), “*implicit feedback*” ($M=3.66$) and “*recast*” ($M=3.55$). The least favored item was “*no feedback*” with a mean of 1.84.

4.2.6 Learners’ Opinions related to Sources of Feedback

The final section of the questionnaire asked the participants who should correct their oral errors. This section consisted of three items listed under the statement of “*I want the following sources to correct my errors*”: (Q20) *my teachers*, (Q21) *my peers* and Q(22) *myself*. The participants rated these three preferences on a five-point scale with “Strongly Agree”, “Agree”, “Neutral”, “Disagree” and “Strongly Disagree”. “Strongly Agree” was 5 points and “Strongly Disagree” was 1 point. The distribution of the responses on source of feedback is presented in Table 8:

Table 8.
Students' Preferences for Sources of Feedback

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	sd
My teachers	f	259	83	4	1	1	4.71	.52
	%	74.4	23.9	1.1	.3	.3		
Peers	f	43	91	94	61	59	2.99	1.27
	%	12.4	26.1	27.0	17.5	17.0		
Myself	f	163	133	36	5	11	4.24	.92
	%	46.8	38.2	10.3	1.4	3.2		

Table 8 provides findings about who should correct spoken errors. Of the three preferences, the item “*my teachers*” was the most preferred one with about 74.4% of the students who indicated they strongly agreed with the item. The second most favored source of feedback was “*myself*” with 46.8% and 38.2 % of the students who thought that they strongly agreed and agreed with the item respectively. The item “*my peers*” was the least favored one with only 12, 4% and 26, 1 % of the students who rated the item “strongly agree” or “agree” respectively. The findings show that students valued their teachers more than other sources to correct feedback. Figure 8 also demonstrates learners’ preferences for sources of feedback with respect to mean values:

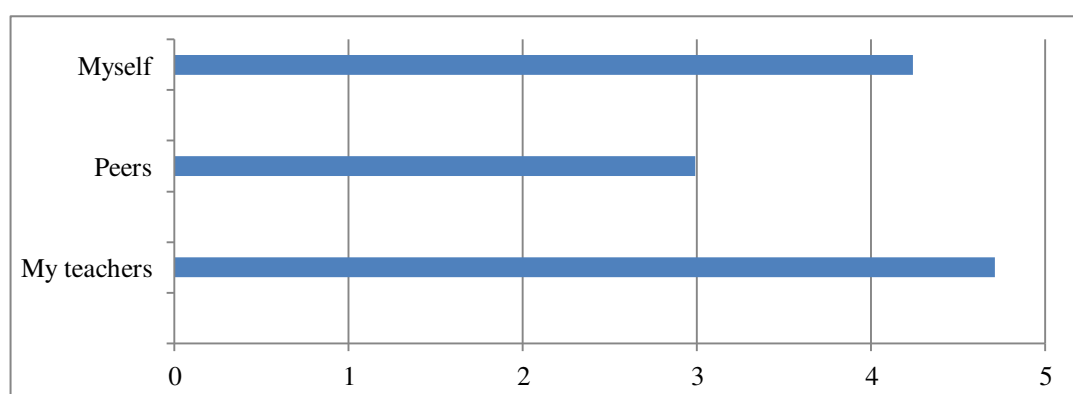


Figure 8. Mean Responses on Source of Feedback

As displayed in Figure 8, the item “*my teachers*” as a source of feedback received the highest mean from the students ($M=4.71$) followed by “*myself*” that had the mean of 4.24. The item “*my peers*” received the lowest mean which made it the least favored source of feedback ($M=2.99$).

4.3 Results for Research Question #2: How are the Learning Styles of the Students Distributed according to Kolb’s Learning Style Model?

Learning styles of the students were identified through Learning Styles Inventory. Learning styles included diverger, assimilator, converger and accommodator learners. The distribution of learning styles among the students is presented in Table 9:

Table 9.
Distribution of Learning Styles among Learners

Learning Styles Groups	F	%
<i>Diverger</i>	61	17.5
<i>Assimilator</i>	162	46.6
<i>Converger</i>	97	27.9
<i>Accommodator</i>	28	8.0
Total	348	100,0

As can be seen in Table 9, nearly half of the learners (46.6%) were found to have *assimilator* learning style. The second most common learning style among learners was *converger* with a percentage of 27.9 %. The third most common learning style was found to be *divergers* with 17.55 of the learners. Eight percent of the learners had *accommodator* learning style, which was the least common one.

4.4 Results for Research Question #3: Does the concept of learning styles account for Turkish EFL learners’ preferences for oral corrective feedback?

This section of the findings presents the results of the Chi square analysis which attempted to determine whether the relationship between preferences for oral corrective feedback and learning styles is significant. The results pertaining to

Research Question #3 are presented in accordance with the six sections of the Feedback Preferences Questionnaire.

4.4.1 Learners' Opinions related to Necessity of Oral Corrective Feedback and their Learning Styles

The second step of the analysis was to determine the distribution of the four learning styles, which are divergers, assimilators, convergers and accommodators across the item related to necessity of feedback. To determine whether there is a significant relationship between preferences for necessity of feedback and learning styles of the participants, Pearson chi-square test was performed. To carry out the chi-square analysis, five-point Likert scale was clubbed into three categories (Strongly Agree/ Agree, Neutral, Strongly Disagree/ Disagree). The results of the chi-square test are presented in Table 10:

Table 10.

Crosstab Results for Necessity of Feedback by Learning Styles

Groups			Strongly Agree/ Agree	Neutral	Strongly Disagree/ Disagree	X ²	df	Sig.
<i>I want to receive oral corrective feedback</i>	<i>Diverger</i>	<u>f</u>	56	3	2	3.983	6	.679
		<u>%</u>	91.8	4.9	3.3			
	<i>Assimilator</i>	<u>f</u>	149	12	1			
		<u>%</u>	92.0	7.4	0.6			
	<i>Converger</i>	<u>f</u>	91	5	1			
		<u>%</u>	93.8	5.2	1.0			
	<i>Accommodator</i>	<u>f</u>	25	2	1			
		<u>%</u>	89.3	7.1	3.6			

The findings indicate that divergers, assimilators, convergers and accommodators agreed with the statement about necessity of feedback with similar percentages (91.8%; 92.0%; 93.8% and 89.3% respectively). According to the results of chi-square test, no statistically significant difference was found in terms of the relationship between attitudes towards necessity of corrective feedback and learning styles ($p > .05$).

4.4.2 Learners' Preferences related to Frequency of Oral Corrective Feedback and their Learning Styles

In order to investigate whether learners with different learning styles differ from each other in their preferences for frequency of corrective feedback, a Chi-square analysis was employed. Table 11 provides the results of the preferences for the frequency of corrective feedback among four learning styles:

Table 11.

Crosstab Results for Responses on Frequency of Feedback by Learning Styles

Groups		Always/ Usually	Sometimes	Seldom/ Never	X ²	df	Sig.	
<i>How often do you want your teacher to give oral corrective feedback?</i>	<i>Diverger</i>	<u>f</u>	50	7	4	6.987	6	.327
		<u>%</u>	82.0	11.5	6.6			
	<i>Assimilator</i>	<u>f</u>	136	25	1			
		<u>%</u>	84.0	15.4	0.6			
	<i>Converger</i>	<u>f</u>	79	15	3			
		<u>%</u>	81.4	15.5	3.1			
	<i>Accommodator</i>	<u>f</u>	23	4	1			
		<u>%</u>	82.1	14.3	3.6			

The findings demonstrated that a considerable amount of diverger, assimilator, converger and accommodator students wanted their errors to be “always/usually” corrected with the percentages of 82, 84, 81.4 and 82.1 respectively. The number of diverger, assimilator, converger and accommodator learners who wanted spoken errors to be “never” corrected was found to be relatively small with about 6.6%, 0.6%, 3.1% and 3.6% of them respectively. No significant difference among four learning styles was found in terms of preferences for frequency of corrective feedback ($p > .05$).

4.4.3 Learners' Preferences related to Timing of Oral Corrective Feedback and their Learning Styles

Responses of the students were categorized by learning styles in order to find out whether there is a relationship between preferences for timing of corrective feedback and learning styles. For the interpretation of the responses, five-point scale

was reduced into a three point-scale which included “Strongly Agree/ Agree”, “Neutral”, “Strongly Disagree/ Disagree”. Table 12 displays the results of the statistical analysis:

Table 12.

Crosstab Results of Responses for Timing of Feedback by Learning Style

Groups			Strongly Agree/ Agree	Neutral	Strongly Disagree/ Disagree	<i>p</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>x</i> ²
As soon as errors are made	<i>Diverger</i>	f	25	18	18	.905	6	2.159
		%	41.0	29.5	29.5			
	<i>Assimilator</i>	f	59	46	57			
		%	36.4	28.4	35.2			
	<i>Converger</i>	f	37	23	37			
		%	38.1	23.7	38.1			
	<i>Accommodator</i>	f	11	6	11			
		%	39.3	21.4	39.3			
After I finish speaking	<i>Diverger</i>	f	49	6	6	.180	6	8.891
		%	80.3	9.8	9.8			
	<i>Assimilator</i>	f	132	17	13			
		%	81.5	10.5	8.0			
	<i>Converger</i>	f	79	8	10			
		%	81.4	8.2	10.3			
	<i>Accommodator</i>	f	17	4	7			
		%	60.7	14.3	25.0			
After the activities	<i>Diverger</i>	f	22	21	18	.414	6	6.084
		%	36.1	34.4	29.5			
	<i>Assimilator</i>	f	57	39	66			
		%	35.2	24.1	40.7			
	<i>Converger</i>	f	26	33	38			
		%	26.8	34.0	39.2			
	<i>Accommodator</i>	f	8	9	11			
		%	28.6	32.1	39.3			
At the end of class	<i>Diverger</i>	f	10	5	46	.106	6	10.48
		%	16.4	8.2	75.4			
	<i>Assimilator</i>	f	12	25	125			
		%	7.4	15.4	77.2			
	<i>Converger</i>	f	10	8	79			
		%	10.3	8.2	81.4			
	<i>Accommodator</i>	f	6	3	19			
		%	21.4	10.7	67.9			

As Table 12 reveals, students with four learning styles favored the item “*after I finish speaking*” more than the other choices with regard to when to give oral corrective with 80% of divergers, 81.5% of assimilators, 81.4% of convergers and 60.7% of accommodators. The least favored by students with different learning styles was also the same one, which is “*at the end of class*” with 16.4% of divergers, 7.4% of assimilators, 10.3% of convergers and 21.4% of accommodators. It seems that the preferences of the different learning styles were in line with the general preferences in terms of timing of corrective feedback. According to the results of chi-square test, there was no statistically significant difference among divergers, assimilators, convergers and accommodators considering the preferred timing to receive feedback ($p > .05$). In order for a better illustration, Figure 9 provides mean scores of the four groups on timing of feedback:

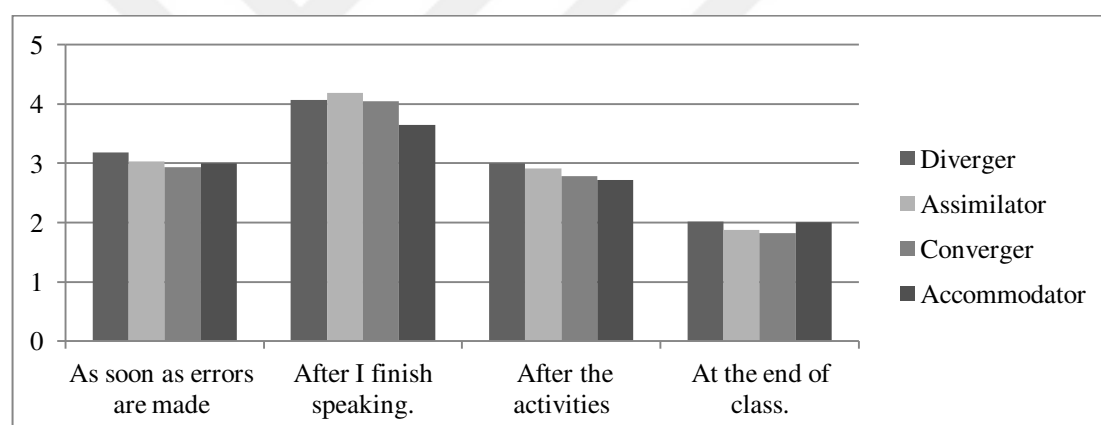


Figure 9. Mean Responses on Timing of Feedback among Students with Different Learning Styles

As clearly shown in Figure 9, mean scores of the students with diverger, assimilator, converger and accommodator learning styles on the timing of feedback were very close to each other.

4.4.4 Learners' Opinions related to Types of Oral Errors to be Corrected and their Learning Styles

Responses of the students on types of errors were categorized by learning styles in order to find out whether there is a relationship between learning styles and preferences for which types of errors should be treated more often. For the interpretation of the responses, five-point scale was reduced into a three point-scale

which included “Always/ Usually”, “Sometimes” and “Seldom/ Never”. Table 13 illustrates the results of the chi-square test in terms of relationship between learning styles and preferences for types or errors to be corrected:

Table 13.

Crosstabs Results of Responses on Types of Errors to be Corrected by Learning Styles

		Groups		Always/ Usually	Sometimes	Seldom/ Never	X ²	df	p
Serious Errors	Diverger	f	55	5	1	4.781	6	.531	
		%	90.2	8.2	1.6				
	Assimilator	f	143	18	1				
		%	88.33	11.1	0.6				
	Converger	f	89	8	0				
		%	91.8	8.2	0.0				
	Accommodator	f	24	3	1				
		%	85.7	10.7	3.6				
Less Serious Errors	Diverger	f	27	23	11	6.172	6	.404	
		%	44.3	37.7	18.0				
	Assimilator	f	67	61	34				
		%	41.4	37.7	21.0				
	Converger	f	36	48	13				
		%	37.1	49.5	13.4				
	Accommodator	f	14	11	3				
		%	50.0	39.3	10.7				
Frequent Errors	Diverger	f	53	6	2	4.909	6	.636	
		%	86.9	9.8	3.3				
	Assimilator	f	139	21	2				
		%	85.8	13.0	1.2				
	Converger	f	88	9	0				
		%	90.7	9.3	0.0				
	Accommodator	f	25	3	0				
		%	89.3	10.7	0.0				
Infrequent Errors	Diverger	f	21	15	25	9.820	6	.132	
		%	34.4	24.6	41.0				
	Assimilator	f	57	63	42				
		%	35.2	38.9	25.9				
	Converger	f	24	38	35				
		%	24.7	39.2	36.1				
	Accommodator	f	9	8	11				
		%	32.1	28.6	39.3				

		Groups		Always/ Usually	Seldom/ Never	X ²	df	p
<i>Individual Errors</i>	Diverger	f	28	26	7	10.010	6	.124
		%	45.9	42.6	11.5			
	Assimilator	f	82	47	33			
		%	50.6	29.0	20.4			
	Converger	f	44	43	10			
		%	45.4	45.4	10.3			
	Accommodator	f	13	10	5			
		%	46.4	35.7	17.9			

As shown in Table 13, about 90% of divergers, 88 % of assimilators, 91% of convergers and 85% of accommodators indicated that the item “*serious errors*” should be treated more often. The type of error considered the second important to be treated among the students with different learning styles was found to be “*frequent errors*” with 86% of divergers, 85% of assimilators, 90% of convergers and 89 % of accommodators, who responded “always/ usually”. Apparently, the preferences of the different learning styles were in line with the general preferences in terms of types of errors to be corrected. According to the results of chi-square test, there was no statistically significant difference among divergers, assimilators, convergers and accommodators considering their opinions about which types of errors should be treated more often ($p > .05$). Figure 10 shows the distribution of the mean scores of the groups over the types of errors for which they expect their teachers to provide corrective feedback:

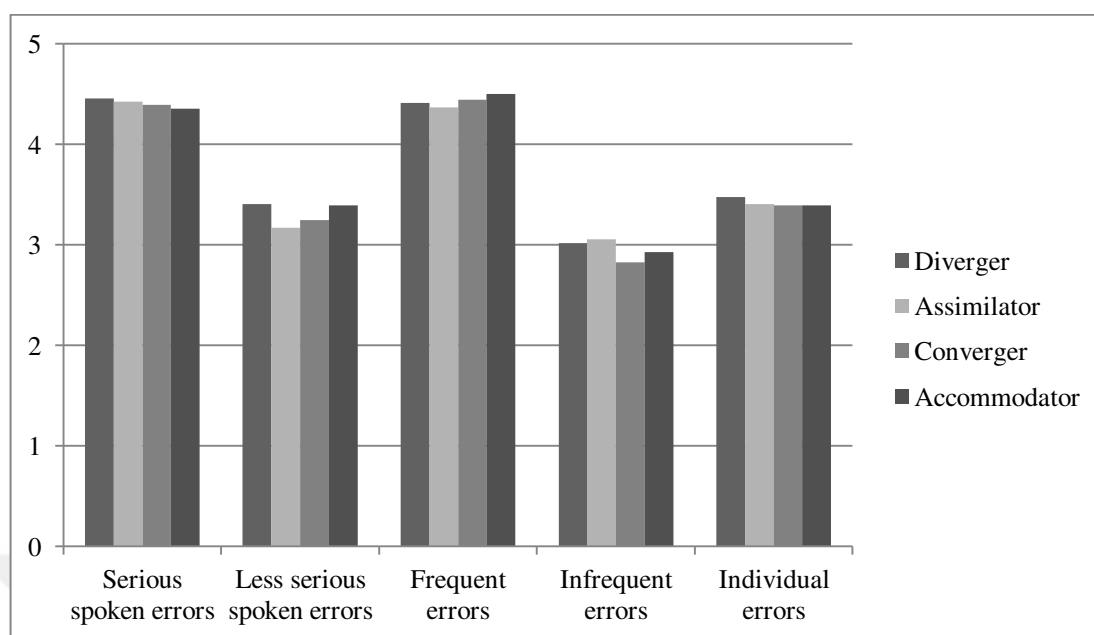


Figure 10. Mean Responses on Types of Errors to be Corrected among Students with Different Learning Styles

As illustrated in Figure 10, students with diverger, assimilator, converger and accommodator learning styles have similar preferences in reference to the types of errors to be corrected.

4.4.5 Learners' Preferences related to Types of Oral Corrective Feedback and their Learning Styles

Responses of the students were categorized by learning styles in order to determine the relationship between preferences for types of feedback and learning styles. Results of the statistical analysis are shown in Table 14:

Table 14.

Crosstab Results of Responses on Types of Feedback by Learning Styles

Groups		Very Effective/ Effective	Neutral	Ineffective/ Very Ineffective	X ²	df	Sig.
<i>Clarification</i>	Diverger	f	47	10	4	8.3 22	6 .215
		%	77.0	16.4	6.6		
	Assimilator	f	132	17	13		
		%	81.5	10.5	8.0		
	Converger	f	85	8	4		
		%	87.6	8.2	4.1		
	Accommodator	f	27	1	0		
		%	96.4	3.6	0.0		
<i>Repetition</i>	Diverger	f	44	10	7	5.9 33	6 .431
		%	72.1	16.4	11.5		
	Assimilator	f	118	32	12		
		%	72.8	19.8	7.4		
	Converger	f	81	10	6		
		%	83.5	10.3	6.2		
	Accommodator	f	22	4	2		
		%	78.6	14.3	7.1		
<i>Implicit</i>	Diverger	f	35	12	14	4.8 70	6 .561
		%	57.4	19.7	23.0		
	Assimilator	f	96	42	24		
		%	59.3	25.9	14.8		
	Converger	f	64	19	14		
		%	66.0	19.6	14.4		
	Accommodator	f	19	6	3		
		%	67.9	21.4	10.7		
<i>Explicit</i>	Diverger	f	52	5	4	5.0 90	6 .532
		%	85.2	8.2	6.6		
	Assimilator	f	139	16	7		
		%	85.8	9.9	4.3		
	Converger	f	75	14	8		
		%	77.3	14.4	8.2		
	Accommodator	f	23	2	3		
		%	82.1	7.1	10.7		
<i>Elicitation</i>	Diverger	f	44	9	8	7.3 29	6 .291
		%	72.1	14.8	13.1		
	Assimilator	f	126	24	12		
		%	77.8	14.8	7.4		
	Converger	f	69	22	6		
		%	71.1	22.7	6.2		
	Accommodator	f	23	2	3		
		%	82.1	7.1	10.7		

		Groups			Very Effective/ Effective	Neutral	Ineffective/ Very Ineffective	X ²	df	Sig.
<i>No Feedback</i>	Diverger	f	8	5	48					
		%	13.1	8.2	78.7					
	Assimilator	f	11	19	132			3.1	6	.789
		%	6.8	11.7	81.5			58		
	Converger	f	10	10	77					
		%	10.3	10.3	79.4					
	Accommodator	f	3	2	23					
		%	10.7	7.1	82.1					
<i>Metalinguistic</i>	Diverger	f	43	14	4					
		%	70.5	23.0	6.6					
	Assimilator	f	94	41	27			7.6	6	.267
		%	58.0	25.3	16.7			30		
	Converger	f	68	17	12					
		%	70.1	17.5	12.4					
	Accommodator	f	17	8	3					
		%	60.7	28.6	10.7					
<i>Recast</i>	Diverger	f	40	15	6					
		%	65.6	24.6	9.8					
	Assimilator	f	92	42	28			5.4	6	.483
		%	56.8	25.9	17.3			83		
	Converger	f	63	16	18					
		%	64.9	16.5	18.6					
	Accommodator	f	17	7	4					
		%	60.7	25.0	14.3					

As shown in Table 14, 85,2% of diverger and 85.8% of assimilator learners thought that teachers should make use of “*explicit feedback*” while converger and accommodator learners preferred “*clarification*” with percentages of 87,6 and 96,4 respectively. The preferences of the different learning styles were in line with the overall preferences in terms of types of feedback. The feedback type that divergers and assimilators considered the second most effective was “*clarification*” with percentages of 77 and 81.5 respectively. On the other hand, the feedback type that convergers rated the second most effective was “*repetition*” with a percentage of 83.5. For accommodators, the second most effective feedback types were “*elicitation*” and “*explicit feedback*” with a percentage of 82.1. All types of learners

considered “no feedback” the least effective with 13.1% of divergers, 6.8% of assimilators, 10.3% of convergers and 10.7% of accommodators.

Although it may seem that primary preferences of divergers, assimilators, convergers and accommodators were different from each other in terms of oral corrective feedback types, the results of the chi-square test showed that there was no statistically significant difference among students with different learning styles regarding feedback types ($p > .05$). Figure 11 also reveals the similarities between the groups with respect to their mean scores on feedback types:

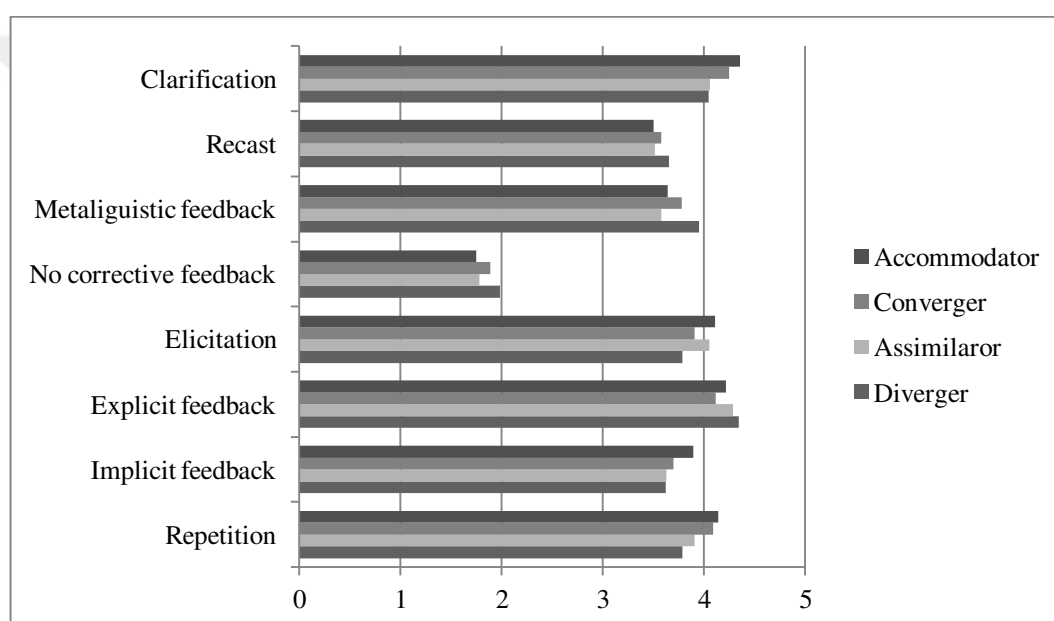


Figure 11. Mean Responses on Types of Feedback among Students with Different Learning Styles

According to the mean scores shown in Figure 11, slight differences can be observed among the groups, for example, diverger learners had the highest score for metalinguistic feedback. However, as the results of the chi-square test indicated, differences among the groups were not significant.

4.4.6 Learners' Opinions related to Sources of Oral Corrective Feedback and their Learning Styles

Responses of the students on sources of feedback were categorized by learning styles in order to see whether there is a relationship between preferences for

sources of feedback and learning styles. For the analysis of the responses, five-point scale was clubbed into a three point-scale which included “Always/ Usually”, “Sometimes” and “Seldom/ Never”. Table 15 displays the results of the statistical analysis in relation to the distribution of preferences for sources of feedback among learners with different learning styles:

Table 15.

Crosstab Results of Responses on Source of Feedback by Learning Styles

Groups		Strongly Agree/ Agree	Neutral	Disagree/ Strongly Disagree	X ²	df	Sig.
<i>Teachers</i>	Diverger	f 60	1	0	6.494	6	.370
		% 98.4	1.6	0.0			
	Assimilator	f 160	2	0			
		% 98.8	1.2	0.0			
	Converger	f 95	1	1			
		% 97.9	1.0	1.0			
	Accommodator	f 27	0	1			
		% 96.4	0.0	3.6			
<i>Peers</i>	Diverger	f 27	18	16	5.016	6	.544
		% 44.3	29.5	26.2			
	Assimilator	f 60	41	35			
		% 37.0	25.3	36.1			
	Converger	f 38	24	35			
		% 39.2	24.7	36.1			
	Accommodator	f 9	11	8			
		% 32.1	39.3	28.6			
<i>Myself</i>	Diverger	f 53	5	3	4.730	6	.579
		% 86.9	8.2	4.9			
	Assimilator	f 136	19	7			
		% 84.0	11.7	4.3			
	Converger	f 86	8	3			
		% 88.7	8.2	3.1			
	Accommodator	f 21	4	3			
		% 75.0	14.3	10.7			

As displayed in Table 15, about 98.4 of divergers, 98.8% of assimilators, 97.9 % of convergers and 96.4% of accommodators indicated that they wanted their errors to be corrected by their “teachers”. The second most favored source of feedback among different types of learners was “myself” with 89% of divergers, 84% of assimilators, 88.7% of convergers and 75 % of accommodators. The least valued

source to give feedback was “*peers*” among all types of learners. It can clearly be seen that the preferences of the different learning styles for sources of feedback were in line with the general preferences. No statistically significant difference among divergers, assimilators, convergers and accommodators regarding preferences for sources to receive feedback ($p > .05$). Figure 12 also clearly shows that there is no difference between the groups in their preferences:

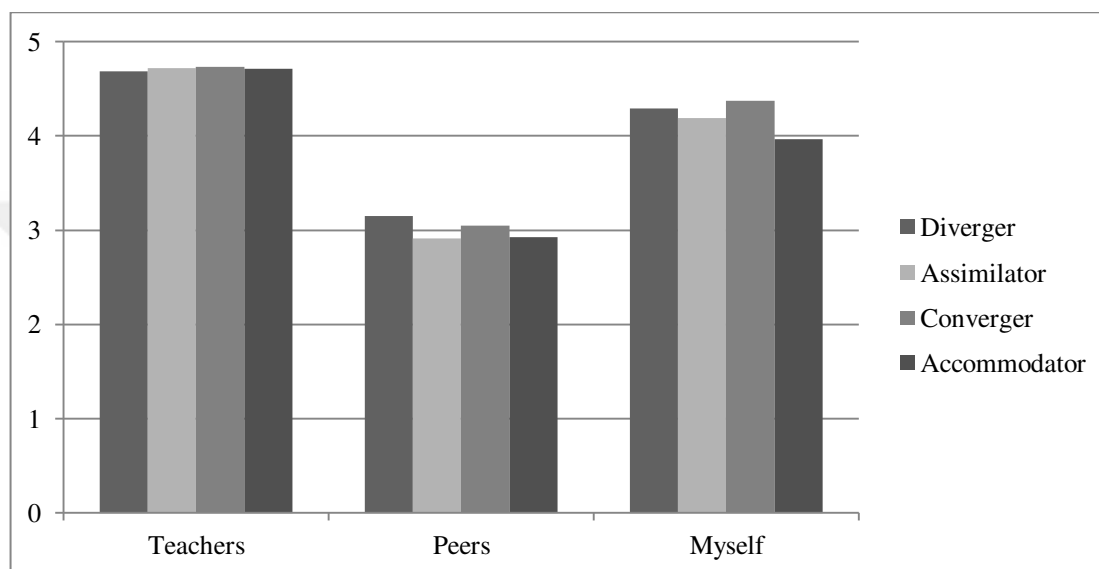


Figure 12. Mean Responses on Sources of Feedback among Students with Different Learning Styles

As demonstrated in Figure 12, mean scores of learners with diverger, assimilator, converger and accommodator learning styles indicate that they had similar tendencies for sources of feedback.

4.5 Results for Research Question #4: What is the relationship between proficiency levels of Turkish EFL learners and their proficiency levels?

The participants in the study were from three different levels based on Common European Framework for Languages: A2, B1 and B2. The levels of the students were identified by the school of foreign languages at Gaziantep University through a proficiency exam. The distribution of the participants according to their level of proficiency is presented in Table 16:

Table 16.
Distribution of the Participants by Proficiency Levels

Proficiency Levels	N	%
A2	30	8.6
B1	289	83.0
B2	29	8.3
Total	348	100,0

Majority of the participants included in the research were at B1 level (83.0%) while 30 (8.6%) participants were at A2 level and 29 (8.3%) at B2 level. A statistically significant difference between groups was found in terms of items concerning timing of feedback, types of feedback and source of feedback; however, no difference was found in terms of frequency of feedback, timing of feedback and types of errors to be corrected.

4.5.1 Proficiency Level and Timing of Feedback

Responses of the participants on timing of feedback were categorized by their proficiency levels in order to see whether there is a relationship between their preferences for timing of feedback and proficiency levels. For the analysis of the responses through chi-square statistics, scales which included five-points were clubbed into a three point-scale. A chi-square test was carried out in order to determine whether there is a relationship between preferences for timing of error and proficiency levels. Table 17 provides the results of the statistical analysis:

Table 17.

Preferences for Timing of Feedback among Proficiency Levels

Groups		Strongly Agree/ Agree	Neutral	Strongly Disagree/ Disagree	X ²	df	Sig.
<i>As soon as errors are made</i>	A2	f 14 % 48.3	9 31.0	6 20.7	8.974	4	.63
	B1	f 101 % 36.7	64 23.3	110 40.0			
	B2	f 16 % 59.3	4 14.8	7 25.9			
	A2	f 18 % 62.1	6 20.7	5 17.2			
	B1	f 235 % 83.0	23 8.1	25 8.8			
	B2	f 18 % 62.1	4 13.7	7 24.1			
<i>After I finish speaking</i>	A2	f 10 % 34.5	4 13.8	15 51.7	13.379	4	.09*
	B1	f 95 % 35.4	69 25.7	104 38.8			
	B2	f 8 % 29.6	6 22.2	13 48.1			
	A2	f 10 % 34.5	4 13.8	15 51.7			
	B1	f 95 % 35.4	69 25.7	104 38.8			
	B2	f 8 % 29.6	6 22.2	13 48.1			
<i>After the activities</i>	A2	f 2 % 6.9	6 20.7	21 72.4	3.298	4	.53
	B1	f 32 % 11.9	33 12.2	205 75.9			
	B2	f 4 % 14.8	2 7.4	21 77.8			
	A2	f 2 % 6.9	6 20.7	21 72.4			
	B1	f 32 % 11.9	33 12.2	205 75.9			
	B2	f 4 % 14.8	2 7.4	21 77.8			
<i>At the end of class</i>	A2	f 2 % 6.9	6 20.7	21 72.4	2.980	4	.58
	B1	f 32 % 11.9	33 12.2	205 75.9			
	B2	f 4 % 14.8	2 7.4	21 77.8			
	A2	f 2 % 6.9	6 20.7	21 72.4			
	B1	f 32 % 11.9	33 12.2	205 75.9			
	B2	f 4 % 14.8	2 7.4	21 77.8			

*p<.05

According to the results of the statistical analysis, a significant difference was found between groups for the item “*after I finish speaking*” ($p<.05$). As is shown in Table 4.15, 83% of the students at B1 level expected their teachers to correct their errors after they finish speaking and only a small amount disagreed with the item. While majority of the students at A2 and B2 level agreed with item, 17.2% and 24.1% of them also disagreed with the item respectively. Group B1 differed from the

other groups in terms of timing of feedback. Figure 13 illustrates mean scores of the students at different proficiency levels in order to highlight the differences:

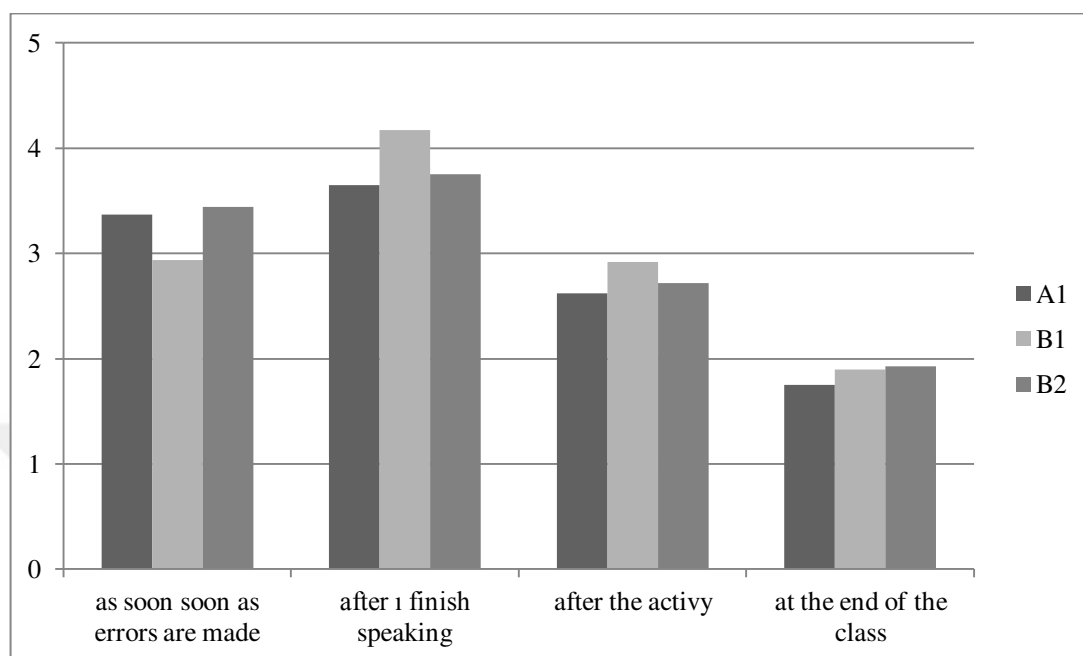


Figure 13. Mean Responses on Timing of Feedback among Students at Different Proficiency Levels

When the mean scores in Figure 13 considered, it can be seen that students at B1 level favored the item “*after I finish speaking*” more than the other groups. Mean scores of B1 level students for the item “as soon as errors are made” were also lower than the other groups. As the results of the chi-square test revealed, B1 level students seem to have different tendencies than the other groups in terms of their preferences for timing of feedback.

4.5.2 Proficiency Level and Types of Feedback

Responses of the participants on types of feedback were divided by their proficiency levels so as to determine any relationship between their preferences for different types of feedback and proficiency levels through a chi-square test. Table 18 provides the results of the statistical analysis:

Table 18.
Preferences for Types of Feedback among Proficiency Levels

Groups		Very Effective/ Effective	Neutral	Ineffective/ Very Ineffective	X ²	df	Sig.	
Metalinguistic Feedback	A2	f	25	1	3	11.21	4	.024*
		%	86.2	3.4	10.3			
	B1	f	181	72	36			
		%	62.6	24.9	12.5			
	B2	f	15	7	7			
		%	51.7	24.1	24.1			

Out of eight types of feedback, a significant difference was found among one type. As displayed in Table 18, proficiency level groups differed in terms of their opinions related to the effectiveness of *metalinguistic feedback*. Eighty-six percent of the students at A2 level thought that metalinguistic feedback was very effective/effective and only about 10% of the students had the opinion that it was ineffective. The students at B1 and B2 levels also favored *metalinguistic feedback*; however, about 36% the students at B1 and B2 levels thought it was ineffective ($p < .05$). In order to clarify the difference, Figure 14 provides mean scores of proficiency level groups' responses on the efficiency of metalinguistic feedback:

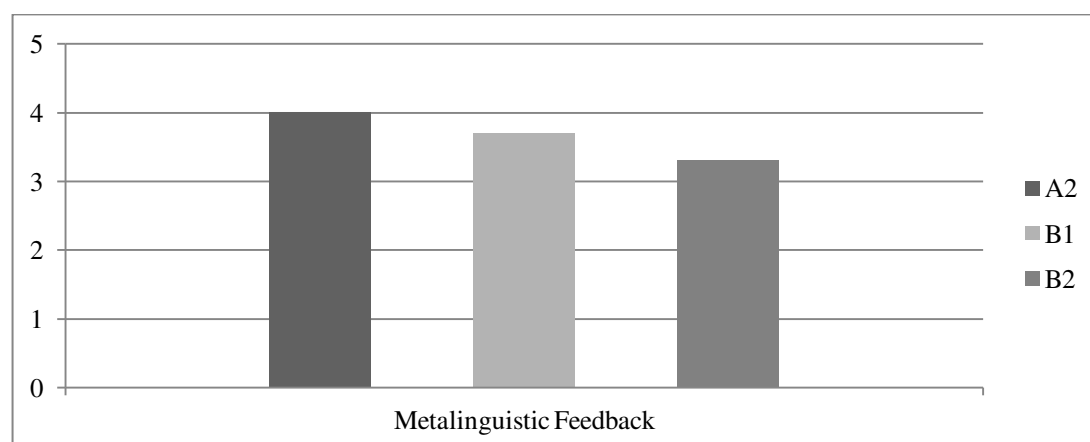


Figure 14. Mean Responses on Metalinguistic Feedback among Students with Different Proficiency Levels

As illustrated in Figure 14, students at A2 level seem to favor *metalinguistic feedback* more than B2 level students. As the results of the chi-square analysis indicated, this difference between A2 and B2 levels was found to be significant.

4.5.3 Proficiency Level and Sources of Feedback

Responses of the students on sources of feedback were categorized by their proficiency levels in order to determine whether there was a difference among the groups in terms of their opinions on the sources to provide feedback. A chi-square test was employed for the analysis. Table 19 displays the results of the analysis:

Table 19.
Preferences for Source of Feedback among Proficiency Levels

Source of Feedback	Groups		Strongly Agree/ Agree	Neutral	Disagree/ Strongly Disagree	X ²	df	Sig.
<i>My Teachers</i>	A2	f	29	0	0	12.292	4	.94
		%	100.0	0.0	0.0			
	B1	f	285	4	0			
		%	98.6	1.4	0.0			
	B2	f	27	1	1			
		%	93.1	3.4	3.4			
<i>My Peers</i>	A2	f	16	12	1	9.677	4	.035*
		%	55.2	41.4	3.4			
	B1	f	103	132	54			
		%	35.6	45.7	18.7			
	B2	f	15	8	6			
		%	51.7	27.6	20.7			
<i>Myself</i>	A2	f	21	6	2	13.161	4	.011*
		%	72.4	20.7	6.9			
	B1	f	246	40	3			
		%	85.1	13.8	1.0			
	B2	f	29	0	0			
		%	100.0	0.0	0.0			

As can be seen in Table 19, a high majority of the students at the levels of A2 (100%), B1 (98.6%) and B2 (93.1) indicated that *teachers* are good sources to give feedback and there was no statistically significant difference among the groups

($p > .05$). On the other hand, a statistically significant difference was found between groups regarding *my peers* as a source of feedback ($p < .05$). Majority of the students at B1 level (64.4%) did not prefer their peers to correct their errors, whereas majority of the students at the level of A2 (55.2%) and B2 (51.7) favored *peers* as sources to give feedback. Moreover, another significant difference was determined among the groups in terms of peer-correction. The students at the level of A2 differed from those at B1 and B2 levels. A2 level students (72.4%), as the least proficient ones, favored themselves as a source of feedback less than more proficient groups B1 (85,1%) and B2 (100%). Figure 15 provides the illustration of mean scores on sources of feedback among students with different levels of proficiency:

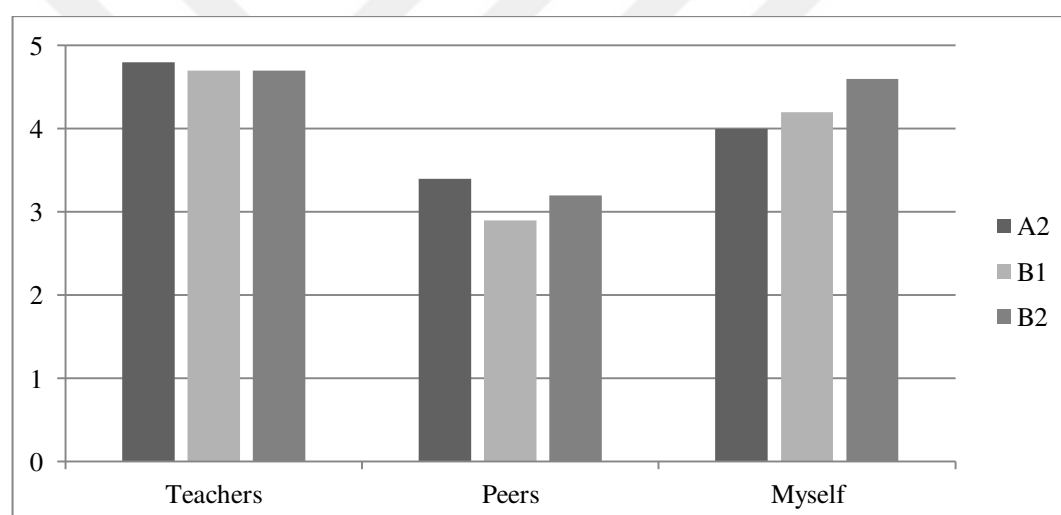


Figure 15. Mean Responses on Sources of Feedback among Students at Different Proficiency Levels

As can be observed in Figure 15, groups had almost the same means on the item “*my teachers*”. However, B1 level students had a lower mean score than the other two on the item “*peers*” and B2 level students had a higher mean score on the item “*myself*”. As the results of crosstab analysis also indicated, B1 level students favored their peers the least and B2 group favored peer –correction the most.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.1 Presentation

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the findings based on inferences referring to similar studies in literature as well. Discussion for the findings is provided in terms of overall preferences for oral corrective feedback, distribution of learning styles and its relationship with preferences for feedback. Finally, the findings on proficiency levels and feedback preferences are discussed.

5.2 Learners' Preferences for Corrective Feedback

5.2.1 Learners' Attitudes towards Necessity of Feedback

Item 1 in the questionnaire aimed to elicit learners' opinions about the necessity of oral corrective feedback. A high majority (92.2%) of the students with a mean of 4.37 were found to be willing to receive oral corrective feedback while only a small amount (1.5%) did not think that oral corrective feedback was necessary. This finding on learners' responses on the necessity of corrective feedback seems to be consistent with the results of other similar studies (Genç, 2014; Gürbüz, 2013; Rashti & Tous, 2016; Taheri & Khanlarzadeh 2016 and Park, 2010). It was reported in studies conducted in different contexts and countries that students prefer their errors to be corrected.

Unlike some researchers who stressed that feedback was detrimental to the learning process (Krashen, 1982; Truscott, 1999), the results of this study showed that students had strong preferences for receiving oral corrective feedback. A high expectation of the learners for feedback supports the view that feedback plays a powerful role in teaching and learning (Ellis, 1992; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Hattie, &

Timperley, 2007; Ramsden 1992). It seems that teachers should be able to adopt a balanced approach out of the strategies they prefer and those that students expect taking into account the views of the students for necessity of feedback (Rowe & Wood, 2008).

5.2.2 Learners' Preferences for Frequency of Feedback

Item 2 in the questionnaire asked the participants to respond on how frequent they prefer to receive feedback. Most of the students (82,7%) indicated that they expect their teachers to provide corrective feedback either “always” or “usually” while very few students (0,6%) want their spoken errors “never” be corrected. It appears that learners expect their teachers to correct their spoken errors as often as possible. This result was similar to the previous results in that majority of the learners expect a high amount of feedback from their teachers (Park, 2010; Çetinkaya & Hamzadayı, 2015; Jean & Simard; 2011; Schulz's, 1996; Armhein & Nassaji , 2010).

The high level of feedback expectations of students in this research may be due to the fact that most of the students included in the study were at B1 level (pre-intermediate, N:289). The students at level B1 may still not feel comfortable with language, particularly speaking, because they have just learned basic grammatical structures and tenses. This may result in students having more sensitive choices about oral errors to be corrected. However, it should also be noted that Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) argue that correcting spoken errors frequently may hinder flow of communication, lead to restlessness and demoralize learners during oral communication activities. David and Debra (2006) also advocate that limited amount of feedback is the key in order to ensure the efficiency of feedback. Therefore, making a good choice among the types of errors to be corrected, which is the third section of the questionnaire, can be considered important to keep the amount of feedback at the required level.

5.2.3 Learners' Preferences for Timing of Corrective Feedback

Item (3), (4), (5) and (6) presented different preferences for timing of corrective feedback. Participants rated their agreement on the timing to give

corrective feedback which included “*after I finish speaking*” “*as soon as errors are made*”, “*after the activities*” and “*after the lesson*”. The most preferred timing (M=4.08) was found to be “*after I finish speaking*” followed by “*as soon as errors are made*” (M=3.03). Several studies also have reported similar results in terms of preferred time to give feedback (Park, 2010; Rashti & Tous, 2016; Genç, 2014). It seemed that majority of the learners did not want their teachers to interrupt them while speaking and they expected to have a chance to finish their oral utterances. Strong preference of the learners in favor of “*after I finish speaking*” is in line with the suggestions in literature. As Hattie and Timperley (2007) argued, immediate feedback during communicative activities focused on fluency “can detract from the learning of automaticity” (p.99). However, it was therefore interesting that there were also some learners who did not mind an interruption of their speech as it was suggested that this might have a negative effect on the flow of communication (Rezaei, et al., 2011). As Kullik and Kullik (1988) note, immediate feedback should be understood as an opposite of delayed feedback, which refers to the situations where teachers provide feedback at the end of the class or following days, rather than correcting errors at the moment of speaking.

The items “*after the activities*” and “*at the end of the class*” received the lowest means from the students (M= 2.87 and M=1.89 respectively). It appears that students did not want a delay for a response to their errors, which is referred to as delayed feedback taking the distinction of immediate and delayed feedback into consideration (Kullik & Kullik, 1988). It is argued that delayed feedback can provide better results for process activities; however, immediate feedback should be given for class-level tasks (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Schultz (2001) also reported that there should not be too much time between the moment learners make an error and the moment feedback is provided. Therefore, learners’ beliefs in reference to the ineffectiveness of delayed feedback seem to be supported by the findings in literature.

5.2.4 Learners’ Preferences for Types of Errors to be Corrected

Item (7), (8), (9), (10) and (11) in the questionnaire attempted to elicit learners’ preferences in relation to what types of errors should be corrected. Errors were categorized in terms of frequency, seriousness and source, which were: (a)

serious spoken errors, (b) *less serious spoken errors*, (c) *frequent errors*, (d) *infrequent errors* and (d) *individual errors*. The findings showed that the students expected their teachers to correct “*serious spoken errors*”, “*frequent errors*” and “*individual errors*” more often than the other types of errors (M=4.41, 4.40 and 3.41 respectively). “*Less serious spoken errors*” and “*infrequent errors*” got the lowest means (M= 3.25 and 2.97 respectively); however, these error types were still considered significant to be treated by about 70% and 50% of the students respectively, who indicated these errors should either usually or sometimes be corrected. It appears that students expected all types of errors to be treated in some way. From the students’ point of view, it can be inferred that students perceive any type of error as a threat to their learning processes and think that these errors can cause misunderstandings.

Taheri and Khanlarzadeh (2016) also reported in their studies that students expected treatment for all their errors either local, which do not block communication, or global, which block communication. On the other hand, Park (2010) touched on the difference between students and teachers in terms of types of errors to be corrected. He revealed that students expected their teachers to correct any type of error while the teachers preferred to correct only frequent and serious errors. These findings are also in line with some other previous studies (Rashti & Tous, 2016; Park, 2010)

5.2.5 Learners’ Preferences for Types of Feedback

The items from (12) to (19) aimed to get students’ opinions on the effectiveness of eight different types of feedback defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997), which were *clarification*, *repetition*, *implicit feedback*, *explicit feedback*, *elicitation*, *no feedback*, *metalinguistic feedback* and *recast*. The most favored types of feedback were found to be explicit feedback (M=4.24) and clarification (M=4.13) followed by elicitation (M=3.97), repetition (M=3.95), metalinguistic feedback (M=3.70), implicit feedback (M=3.66), recast (M=3.55) and no feedback (M=1.84). The findings in reference to ways of providing corrective feedback are consistent with similar studies in literature. Rashti and Tous (2016) reported that the most valued feedback types among learners were elicitation and explicit feedback. Park (2010) and Gürbüz (2013) also found out that learners favored explicit feedback and

elicitation more than other feedback types. Several other studies have also reported that explicit feedback was a common preference among learners (Genç, 2014; Atma & Widiati, 2016; Kim, 2015; Öztürk, 2016).

In explicit feedback, teachers indicate that there is an error, identify the error and provide the correct form with the purpose of grammar explanation and direct correction (Long, 1996). Therefore, the findings suggest that majority of the students expect their teachers both to give a grammatical explanation for their errors and to provide the correct form. The students' positive attitudes towards explicit feedback can also be supported by some findings in literature. Oliver and Mackey (2003) reported that the highest amount of uptake as a response to corrective feedback was achieved through explicit feedback when they were provided during form-focused activities. The fact that students favored explicit feedback may, therefore, be because they have a form-focused perception rather than communication as they expect their teachers to provide grammatical explanation. Similarly, negative attitudes of the learners towards recasts, the least favored type of feedback in this study after no feedback, can also be explained through the nature of recasts. Oliver and Mackey (2003) also reported that the highest amount of uptake was obtained through recasts during communication-focused activities. The reason why the learners thought recasts were not effective can be because they might perceive themselves as grammar-focused learners. It can also be inferred that students want to be aware when they are provided feedback as it was noted that learners may perceive recasts as ambiguous responses from the teachers as a result of their implicit nature (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Clarification as another type of oral corrective feedback was also a common preference among learners. The basic characteristic of clarification is to give a chance to the students to correct their own errors by indicating that their utterance has not been understood (Lyster & Ranta 1997). The popularity of clarification as the second most preferred indicates that learners think it is a good idea to given the opportunity to correct their own errors. It can clearly be observed that the only type of feedback considered ineffective or very ineffective was no-feedback (80%). This finding was not interesting as the learners indicated that feedback was necessary for their learning in the first section of the questionnaire. Although there can be some differences in the perceptions of the

learners towards these eight types of feedback in terms of their effectiveness, it could also clearly be seen that these differences were not too much and that students seemed to be happy with all types of feedback to some extent as also reported in Najmaddin (2010)'s study.

The fact that no feedback type or types come out with a clear difference from the others is an indication that this is a highly complicated process which may include cognitive, social and psychological aspects (Ellis, 2009). That's way, effectiveness of feedback and learners' preferences may depend on several aspects such as learners' eagerness, level of confidence, characteristics of the error or proficiency level (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). In this respect, these findings reveal the background of this study, the main purpose of which was to find ways to better understand learners' preferences for feedback, which is discussed within the scope of learning styles in following parts.

5.2.6 Learners' Preferences for Sources of Feedback

Items (20), (21) and (22) in the questionnaire asked the participants to reflect on sources of corrective feedback. The most favorable source was found to be *teachers* (M=4.71) followed by *self-correction* (M=4.24) and *peer-correction* (M=2.99). The results indicated that the students strongly believed the effectiveness of teachers and self-correction as the sources of feedback; however, they did not trust their peers as sources of correction. As suggested by Paulus (1999), teachers can be considered as the usual and continuous source to deliver feedback. The findings seem to correlate with the results of Schulz (2001) who reported that majority of the learners favored their teachers more as a source of feedback. Park (2010) also found out that learners preferred their teachers to provide feedback and classmates were the least favorable ones. Several other researchers have reported similar results in reference to sources to deliver feedback (Rashti & Tous, 2016; Fukuda, 2004; Genç, 2014; Taheri & Khanlarzadeh, 2016).

5.3 Learning Styles and Feedback Preferences

5.3.1 Distribution of Learning Styles

According to the results of the inventory, nearly half of the students (46,6%) were found to have “assimilator” learning style. Furthermore, 27.9% of the students were found to have “converger”, 17.5% “diverger” and 8% “accommodator” learning styles. It should be noted that distribution of learning styles may differ in terms of the culture to which individuals belong (Joy and Kolb, 2009). Therefore, studies carried out in Turkish context seem to be better sources to compare the findings of this study. In this respect, the distribution of learning styles among the participants is in line with the findings of the study conducted by Aşkar and Akkoyunlu (1993), who translated the inventory in Turkish and implemented it in a similar context. They reported in their study that the dominant learning style among the participants was “assimilator” (65%) followed by “converger” (17%), diverger (11%) and accommodator (7%). Several other studies have also provided similar results in terms of the distribution of learning styles in Turkey context (Kurbal, 2011; Peker & Aydın 2003; Yapıcı & Hevedanlı, 2012; Bahar, Polat & Özbaş, 2016; Açıslı, 2016).

Considering the characteristics of learning styles, it seems that majority of the learners, who tend to have assimilator learning style, try to find answers to the question “what” while learning (Şahin & Çelik, 2011). Abstract concepts and ideas are significant for assimilator learners and these learners achieve better in classrooms with traditional teaching method as they prefer to learn by watching and feeling (Kolb, 1984). High number of assimilator learners in this study and in Turkish context may be a result of a coincidence; however, this could also be open to discussion. Since the most distinguished characteristics of assimilators were reported to be learning through observations (Reflective Observation) and abstract concepts (Abstract Conceptualization), these learners tend to be passive in the classroom as these characteristics do not require an active involvement. When considering the characteristics of the educational system in Turkey, a report published by the British council on English Language Education in Turkey argued that English is not taught as a means of communication but as a subject in Turkey (TEPAV, 2013). The report

claimed that majority of the classrooms which were observed had a teacher-centered setting. It could, therefore, indirectly be suggested that the way that individuals learn may be shaped by the methods of instruction and strategies implemented by the teachers as also stated by Kurbal (2011). Another reason why the vast majority of students have an assimilator learning style could be the exams that everyone should take in order to gain admission to the next educational institution. Some of these exams are TEOG (Entrance to High School Exam) and LYS (Bachelor Placement Exam), which also include sections on English proficiency. These two exams essential for the students' future life are totally on grammar, vocabulary and reading and ignores other language skills, which are listening, speaking and writing. (Sayın & Aslan, 2016). It is therefore not surprising that students who have to memorize grammar patterns and vocabulary to be successful in English exams in Turkey and also those who have to memorize information in books for other exams like History, Geography or Literature end up with being assimilator learners, who are at the most passive stage of learning cycle and tend to learn by watching and listening.

5.3.2 Learning Styles and Preferences for Feedback

The results of the statistical analysis showed that learning styles and preferences for oral corrective feedback were independent variables ($p > .05$). It appears that the students had similar preferences for oral corrective feedback regardless of what type of learning style they had. It can be stated that Kolb's concept of learning styles did not provide an explanation in reference to the nature of preferences for oral corrective feedback. There seems to be no study in literature that investigates learning styles through preferences for oral corrective feedback. Therefore, this finding provides a basis for further research. However, the results are consistent with some other studies focusing on the relationship between learning styles and some aspects similar to feedback preferences such as learning preferences. Halaçoğlu (1999) and Loo (2004) reported that there was no significant relationship between learning preferences and learning styles. Zeng (2006) also revealed that the learners who had different learning styles according to Kolb's experiential theory did not differ from each other in terms of their opinions and preferences for a particular type of instructional method. Yılmaz-Soylu and Akkoyunlu (2009) investigated effect of learning styles of student achievement in different learning settings and they

reported no difference in the achievement scores of the students with different learning styles. Aliakbari and Qasemi (2012) studied on the relationship between learning styles and level of English proficiency and found no difference between them. On the other hand, there have been some other similar studies that reported a relationship between learning styles and some other variables such as school achievement (Busato et. al., 1998; Olic & Adamov, 2016), studying habits (Kayacik, 2013) and gender (Philbin et. al., 1995; Severiens et. al., 1994). As a result, it can be inferred that the differences in accordance with learning styles may be observed in some dimensions, but studies have shown that there is no difference among individuals with different learning styles in some other dimensions such as learning preferences, school achievement and finally, as this study suggests, preferences for oral corrective feedback.

5.4 Proficiency Level and Feedback Preferences

The results of the statistical analysis indicated that there was no significant difference among students with different levels of proficiency in terms of necessity of feedback, frequency of feedback, timing of feedback and types of errors to be corrected. However, the groups differed from each other in terms of some items under the titles of types of feedback and source of feedback ($p < .05$). Students at A2 level, the lowest level included in the study, favored metalinguistic feedback more than the other groups ($p < .05$). Metalinguistic feedback is when the teacher addresses questions in order to draw the attention to linguistic forms (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Preference of lower level students for metalinguistic feedback is in line with theoretical background in literature. Ferreira, Mellish and Moore (2007) advocate that metalinguistic feedback is quite effective for learners with lower level of English. Fahim and Montazeri (2013) revealed in their study that metalinguistic feedback is an effective way as type of oral corrective feedback for lower level students. It may be anticipated that students with low English level may expect to focus on linguistic aspects regarding the content of the feedback given by teachers as a consequence of spending more time on structures. However, the results some other studies also indicated that learners did not differ from each other in terms of their preference for metalinguistic feedback (Genç, 2014; Rashti & Tous, 2016).

Another dimension in which the proficiency groups differ from each other was source of feedback. The students from all proficiency groups agreed that teachers were effective or very effective sources of feedback; however, there was statistically significant difference among them in terms of the efficiency of self-correction and peer-correction as the two other sources of feedback. It appears that A2 level students trust their peers more than B1 and B2 level students trust their peers as a source of feedback. On the other hand, B1 and B2 level students trust themselves more than A2 level students trust themselves as a source feedback. It was interesting that lower level students favored their peers as an effective source of feedback although they were not still proficient enough. On the other hand, it can be considered natural that higher level students perceive themselves as an effective source of feedback since they have experienced the process of learning English more than lower groups. The results of the study differed from some other studies, which have reported no difference among the students with different proficiency levels considering their preferences for source of oral corrective feedback (Atma & Widiati, 2016; Genç, 2014; Gürbüz, 2013 and Rashti & Tous, 2016).

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Presentation

The final chapter first gives a short summary of the study followed by the remarks concluded from the results of the study. The chapter ends with some pedagogical implications and suggestions for further studies.

6.2 Summary of the Study

The purposes of this study were: (1) to identify learners' preferences or opinions for (a) necessity of feedback, (b) frequency of feedback, (c) timing of feedback, (d) types of errors to be corrected, (e) types of feedback and (d) source of feedback; and (2) to identify learning styles of the learners according to Kolb's experiential theory and to determine whether there is a relationship between learners' preferences for oral corrective feedback and their learning styles. Three hundred and forty-eight students, who were studying at School of Foreign Languages at Gaziantep University, participated in the study. The students had similar backgrounds and were expected to study at different departments in the following year. As the first step of the study, the students were given a questionnaire which asked them their opinions and preferences for oral corrective feedback. For the next step, Kolb's Learning Styles Inventory was administered to the participants. Based on the scores of the inventory, the students were divided into four groups of learning styles: diverger, converger, accommodator and assimilator learners. Descriptive statistics were obtained to find out preferences for oral corrective feedback and a chi-square test was performed in order to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference among learning style groups in terms of their preferences. According to the results, students believed that providing corrective feedback was necessary for their learning and they expected their teachers to provide feedback frequently.

Students had the idea that “frequent errors” and “serious errors” should be treated more often. “Explicit feedback”, “clarification” and “elicitation” were found to be the most popular types of feedback among learners. “Teachers” were the most favored source of feedback.

When the learning styles of students were taken into consideration, it was found out that the difference between groups was not statistically significant. Overall preferences for oral corrective feedback were similar to the preferences of learners with different learning styles. Learning styles did not seem to be indicator for feedback preferences and provide an explanation in terms of learners’ varied preferences for feedback.

The findings were also interpreted regarding the proficiency levels of the students. A significant difference among students with proficiency levels was found only in their opinions about “metalinguistic feedback” and “sources of feedback”.

6.3 Conclusion

Like many other studies in literature conducted in Turkish context, the results of the current study related to the distribution of learning styles support the claim of Aşkar and Akkoyunlu (1993), who argued that the most common learning style in Turkey context is assimilator and the least common one is accommodator. Aşkar and Akkoyunlu (1993)’s suggestion that Kolb’s Learning Style Inventory is an appropriate one to be implemented in Turkey has also been supported considering these similar results, which contributes to the validity of the inventory’s use in Turkey.

The significant role of feedback for learning and teaching has once more been emerged in the views of the students. The students’ preferences for the practice of corrective feedback imply the fact that learners are sensitive for their learning and care about their mistakes. They have the opinion that feedback is highly necessary and it should be provided frequently. They do not want a delay for receiving feedback and they tend to take advantage of different types of feedback from different sources. This might be associated with the learners’ motivation and eagerness to learn.

The main purpose of the study was to investigate the concept of learning styles through preferences for oral corrective feedback and to have a better insight into preferences for feedback through learning styles. Here, it is necessary to touch on Kolb's definition of learning styles again. According to Kolb (1984), learning styles refer to the preferred strategies of the individuals in acquiring and processing knowledge. His theory of experiential learning is based on the claim that individuals learn through experiences. In this sense, according to Hill (2007), feedback has a significant role in this learning and reflection cycle. However, the results of the study indicated that learners who were positioned in different parts of Kolb's learning cycle did not significantly differ from each other in their preferences for feedback. It can be concluded that Kolb's theory of learning styles can work for some occasions; however, it may not work for some other occasions, which seem to include feedback preferences as this study suggests. Therefore, it can be argued that categorization of these occasions should be as important as categorization of learners. Seeman (2008) states that learning process cannot be explained from a holistic point of view without regarding a number other components.

The study also attempted to see whether preferences for oral corrective feedback can be explained with regards to Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory. It was concluded that learning styles do not help to explain the nature of feedback preferences and it is still difficult to understand why learners have different preferences for feedback.

6.4 Pedagogical Implications for Language Learning and Teaching

The findings of this study showed that learners are sensitive about their errors and expect their teachers to provide corrective feedback for their serious and frequent spoken errors through different strategies in terms of type and source of feedback. Although teachers have different approaches to giving feedback, they should shape their approaches with students' expectations. As noted by Bada and Okan (2000), attention should be paid to the expectations and preferences of students for an efficient learning and, students should be given opportunities to express their expectations.

In the light of the findings, the following pedagogical suggestions are offered within the scope of use of feedback and learning styles.

- Teachers should be able to provide a teaching and learning atmosphere in which learners are sure that their errors are cared and corrected when necessary.
- Frequent and serious errors should be the focus of errors correction and providing feedback for every error should be avoided. An approach proposing “not too much, not too little, but just right” correction, which is the Goldilocks principle, can be considered as a good idea (as cited in, Brookhart, 2008).
- Now that learners have a variety of preferences for types of feedback to be utilized, teachers should have the capacity, awareness and knowledge to meet the expectations of the learners.
- Teachers should be careful about not interrupting learners’ speech for the sake of error correction and allow them to complete their speech considering the flow of communication as the learners do not want to be interrupted and, direct interruption is not a natural way of corrective feedback (Amara, 2015). Nevertheless, if teachers think feedback on a particular error is necessary, they can make use of “recast” as it can be considered as the most natural way of correction during communication without a direct interruption.
- Course book designers can make suggestions on feedback strategies as part of a guide and lesson plans included in teacher's books. When the activities’ focus is on communication, teachers can be reminded that a direct interruption does not comply with the objectives of communicative activities.
- Teacher should guide and help learners to improve their self-correction skills as it is obvious that learners sometimes want to be given opportunities to correct their own errors.
- It seems that most of the students are assimilator type of learners at GUSFL and these learners tend to learn by watching and listening (Kolb, 1984), which is the most passive stage of Kolb’s Experiential Learning Model. Learners should be encouraged to be active participants of learning. In order to achieve this, learners can be opportunities to have discussions, critical

thinking sessions and collaborative activities. The content of the learning should be connected to the learners' own worlds. Giving opportunities to learners to correct their own errors through feedback types such as clarification can be also be considered as an aspect of active learning. Such strategies implemented by the teachers to foster learners' participation and excitement are important in order to achieve active learning.

When it comes to the theoretical point of view, the concept of learning styles has been and will be the subject of many studies in literature. In the related school practice, learning styles inventories are one of several other inventories implemented by psychological counseling and guidance services at schools. The findings of this study and several other studies (Halaçoğlu, 1999; Loo, 2004; Zeng, 2006; Aliakbari & Qasemi, 2012; Yılmaz-Soylu & Akkoyunlu, 2009) have shown that students with different learning styles do not differ from each other in many occasions. Since it is quite difficult to determine these occasions, teachers should be able to utilize a variety of methods and techniques and not be stuck in the same way of teaching. As Loo (2004) suggests, particular methods should not be associated with particular learning styles and, learners should be encouraged to be open to different practices. Rather than focusing on different types of methods by taking the learning style as criteria, it seems to be a better idea that these different strategies should be evaluated in terms of timing and reason to use (Yılmaz-Soylu & Akkoyunlu, 2009). Therefore, practitioners and interpreters of learning styles inventories should be careful not to put students in categories determined by sharp lines. All components of teaching practice should be aware that there have been several researchers who severely criticized Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory and his learning styles categorization (Bergsteiner & Neumann, 2010; Gamer, 2000; Holman & Thorpe, 1997; Kelly, 1997; Miettinen, 2000; Reynolds, 1997; Stumpf & Freedman; 1981). Considering the common argument of these researchers, the concept of learning styles may work in some occasions; however, it can be outdated, limited and insufficient to provide an explanation for the nature of learning in some other occasions.

6.5 Suggestions for Further Studies

The main purpose of the present study was to have a better insight into preferences for oral corrective feedback through Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory. However, the findings were not able to provide an explanation for why learners have different preferences for oral corrective feedback in terms of necessity and frequency of feedback, types of errors to be corrected, timing of feedback, and types of feedback and sources of feedback.

Further studies need to continue investigating students' oral corrective feedback preferences in order to contribute to understanding the nature of feedback. Although the questionnaire that was utilized in this study was useful and informative to elicit learner's preferences for oral corrective feedback, it may not be enough to rely on a single tool to elicit data. Hence, experiential and ethnographic studies may be conducted to include students with different learning styles and to analyze how these students react to different types of feedback practices. Student interviews can also be performed in order to have more reliable data in reference to learners' preferences for oral corrective feedback. More studies can be carried out on the samples with more students and schools. The present study was conducted on students studying at a higher education institution. The scope of the further studies may consist of students at primary, secondary or high schools.

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APPENDICES



APPENDIX-A KOLB'S LEARNING STYLE INVENTORY

Aşağıda her birinde dörder cümle bulunan on iki tane durum verilmektedir. Her cümle için size göre en uygun olan cümleyi 4, ikinci olanı 3, üçüncü uygun olanı 2, en az uygun olanı ise 1 olarak cümlelerin başındaki luklara yazarak sıralayınız.

Hatırlamanız için :

4: en uygun olan
3:
2:
1: en az uygun olan

1. Öğrenirken ☐ duygularımı göz önüne almaktan hoşlanırım. ☐ izlemekten ve dinlemekten hoşlanırım. ☐ fikirler üzerinde düşünmekten hoşlanırım. ☐ bir şeyler yapmaktan hoşlanırım.	7. En iyi ☐ kişisel ilişkilerden öğrenirim. ☐ gözlemlerden öğrenirim. ☐ akılcı fikirlerden öğrenirim. ☐ uygulama ve denemelerden öğrenirim.
2. En iyi ☐ duygularıma ve önsezilerime güvendiğimde öğrenirim. ☐ dikkatlice dinlediğimde ve izlediğimde öğrenirim. ☐ mantıksal düşünmeyi temel aldığım da öğrenirim. ☐ bir şeyler elde etmek için çalıştığım da öğrenirim.	8. Öğrenirken ☐ kişisel olarak o işin parçası olurum. ☐ işleri yapmak için acele ederim. ☐ teori ve fikirlerden hoşlanırım. ☐ çalışmamdaki sonuçları görmekten hoşlanırım.
3. Öğrenirken ☐ güçlü duygulara sahibimdir ve güçlü tepkiler veririm. ☐ sessiz ve çekingen olurum. ☐ sonuçları bulmaya yönelirim. ☐ yapılanlardan sorumlu olurum.	9. En iyi ☐ duygularıma dayandığım zaman öğrenirim. ☐ gözlemlerime dayandığım zaman öğrenirim. ☐ fikirlerime dayandığım zaman öğrenirim. ☐ öğrendiklerimi uyguladığım zaman öğrenirim.
4. Öğrenirken ☐ duygularımla öğrenirim. ☐ izleyerek öğrenirim. ☐ düşünerek öğrenirim. ☐ yaparak öğrenirim.	10. Öğrenirken ☐ kabul eden biriyim. ☐ çekingen biriyim. ☐ akılcı biriyim. ☐ sorumlu biriyim.
5. Öğrenirken ☐ yeni deneyimlere açık olurum ☐ konunun her yönüne bakarım. ☐ analiz yapmaktan ve konuyu parçalara ayırmaktan hoşlanırım. ☐ denemekten hoşlanırım.	11. Öğrenirken ☐ katılırım. ☐ gözlemekten hoşlanırım. ☐ değerlendiririm. ☐ aktif olmaktan hoşlanırım.
6. Öğrenirken ☐ sezgisel biriyim. ☐ gözleyen biriyim. ☐ mantıklı biriyim. ☐ hareketli biriyim.	12. En iyi ☐ akılcı ve açık fikirli olduğum zaman öğrenirim. ☐ dikkatli olduğum zaman öğrenirim. ☐ fikirlerimi analiz ettiğim zaman öğrenirim. ☐ pratik olduğum zaman öğrenirim.

APPENDIX-B ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK PREFERENCES QUESTIONNAIRE

Değerli Katılımcı,

Bu anketle toplanan veriler bilimsel bir çalışmada değerlendirilecektir. Bu çalışmanın amacı, konuşma yanlışlarının düzeltilmesinde kullanılan yaklaşımları belirlemek ve yanlışların nasıl düzeltilmesi gerektiğine yönelik önerilerde bulunmaktır. Araştırmaya katılmak size herhangi bir yarar sağlamayacak ya da zararı olmayacaktır. Araştırmaya katılmak istemezseniz, formu boş bırakabilir ya da istediğiniz zaman yanıtlamaya son verebilirsiniz. **Anketi tamamlamanız ve teslim etmeniz bu çalışmaya katılmayı onayladığınız anlamına gelir.**

Lütfen forma adınızı yazmayınız. Anketi doldurmanız yaklaşık beş dakikanızı alacaktır.

Demografik bilgiler

Cinsiyetiniz

A: Erkek

B: Kadın

Ne kadar süredir İngilizce öğreniyorsunuz?

A: 0-6 ay

B: 7-12 ay

C: 1-2 yıl

D: 3-4 yıl

E: 4 yıldan daha fazla

Çalışmaya katkılarınızdan dolayı teşekkür ederiz.

I. “Konuşma yanlışlarımın düzeltilmesini isterim.” Lütfen size uygun gelen bir harfi işaretleyiniz.

	Tamamen katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Hiç katılmıyorum
1	A	B	C	D	E

II. Öğretmenlerinizin konuşma yanlışlarınızı ne sıklıkla düzeltmesini istersiniz? Lütfen size uygun gelen bir harfi işaretleyiniz.

	Her zaman (%100)	Genellikle (%80)	Bazen (%50)	Nadiren (%20)	Hiçbir zaman (%0)
2	A	B	C	D	E

III. Konuşma yanlışlarınızın ne zaman düzeltilmesini istersiniz? Lütfen size uygun gelen bir harfi işaretleyiniz.

		Tamamen katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Hiç katılmıyorum
3	Konuşmamı durdursa bile, yanlış yapılır yapılmaz.	A	B	C	D	E
4	Konuşmam bittikten sonra	A	B	C	D	E
5	İletişim etkinlikleri bittikten sonra	A	B	C	D	E
6	Dersin sonunda	A	B	C	D	E

IV. Aşağıda yanlış türleri yer almaktadır. Sizce bu yanlış türleri ne sıklıkla düzeltilmelidir. Her birini ayrı ayrı değerlendiriniz. Lütfen size uygun gelen bir harfi işaretleyiniz.

		Her zaman (%100)	Genellikle (%80)	Bazen (%50)	Nadiren (%20)	Hiçbir zaman (%0)
7	Dinleyicinin anlamasını engelleyen önemli konuşma yanlışları	A	B	C	D	E
8	Dinleyicinin anlamasını engellemeyen daha az önemli konuşma yanlışları	A	B	C	D	E
9	Sık tekrarlanan konuşma yanlışları	A	B	C	D	E
10	Sık tekrarlanmayan konuşma yanlışları	A	B	C	D	E
11	Yalnızca bir öğrenci tarafından yapılan bireysel yanlışlar	A	B	C	D	E

V. Aşağıdaki yanlış yaptığınızda, öğretmeninizin yanlışınızı nasıl düzeltmesini istersiniz? Lütfen size uygun gelen bir harfi işaretleyiniz.

Öğretmen: Where did you go yesterday?

Öğrenci: I go to park*.

	Öğretmenin yanlış düzeltme yaklaşımı	Çok etkili	Etkili	Kararsızım	Etkisiz	Çok etkisiz
12	Tekrar söyleyebilir misin? (Açıklığa kavuşturma: Öğretmen öğrenciye tekrar sorar.)	A	B	C	D	E
13	I go? (Tekrar etme: Öğretmen öğrencinin zaman kullanımıyla ilgili yanlışını tonlamayı kullanarak vurgular.)	A	B	C	D	E
14	I went there yesterday too. (Örtük düzeltme: Öğretmen öğrencinin sözüne müdahale etmiyor fakat dolaylı olarak öğrencinin yanlışını düzeltiyor.)	A	B	C	D	E
15	“go” geniş zamandır. Burada “went” demen gerekir. (Açık düzeltme: Öğretmen dilbilgisel açıklama yapar. Yanlışın doğru biçimi söyler.)	A	B	C	D	E

16	Yesterday, I... (Söyletirme: Öğretmen, yapının doğru biçimini öğrenciden bekler ve söyler.)	A B C D E
17	Really? What did you do there? (Düzeltilme yok: Öğretmen öğrencinin yanlışı düzeltmez.)	A B C D E
18	Geçmişten söz ettiğimizde eylemin sonuna hangi zaman eki gelir? (Üst-dil geribildirimi: Öğretmen belirli bir biçimde yanlışı belirtmeden işaret veya ipucu verir.)	A B C D E
19	I went to park (Yeniden biçimlendirme: öğretmen öğrencinin kullanımını bölümsel ya da bütünsel olarak yeniden düzenler.)	A B C D E

VI. Konuşma yanlışılarımın şu kişiler tarafından düzeltilmesini isterim. Lütfen size uygun gelen bir harfi işaretleyiniz.

		Tamamen katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Hiç katılmıyorum
20	Öğretmenlerim	A	B	C	D	E
21	Akranlarım (Sınıftaki diğer öğrenciler)	A	B	C	D	E
22	Kendim	A	B	C	D	E

APPENDIX- C DOCUMENT FOR OFFICIAL PERMISSON

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 02/03/2017-13251



T.C.
GAZİANTEP ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu

Sayı :35914063/302.08.01/
Konu :Araştırma İzin Talebi

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi :24/02/2017 tarihli, 11897 sayılı ve "Araştırma İzin Talebi" konulu yazı

Enstitünüz Eğitim Bilimleri İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı yüksek lisans öğrencilerinden Muhammed Salih TAŞDEMİR'in Yüksekokulumuz hazırlık öğrencilerine "İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğrenen Türk Öğrencilerin Sözel Düzeltme Geribildirim Tercihleri ve Öğrenme Stilleri Üzerine Bir Çalışma" adlı tezinde kullanmak üzere yapacağı anketini, Yüksekokulumuz Müdür Yardımcısı Okt.Nilüfer EVİŞEN'in refakatinde yapması uygun görülmüştür.

Gereğini bilgilerinize rica ederim.

Yrd.Doç.Dr. Emrah ÇİNKARA
Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu Müdürü

Duyurulması rica edilmektedir.
02.03.2017
9.402
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Elektronik ad: www.gantep.edu.tr

Ayrıntılı bilgi için irtibat:

Bu belge 5070 sayılı Elektronik İmza Kanununun 5. Maddesi gereğince güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

VITAE

Muhammed Salih TAŞDEMİR was born in 1990 in Gaziantep. He completed his high school education at Düziçi Anatolian Teacher High School in 2008. In 2012, he graduated from the Department of English Language Teaching at Middle East Technical University. During the university education, he participated in the project of teaching English to visually impaired students and, participated as an interpreter in the 2012 Tübitak Mathematics Olympiads. He went to United Kingdom in 2011 summer and attended a two-month language course organized by Cambridge University. He is fluent in English and medium in German. He is currently working as a teacher of English at a state high school in Gaziantep.

ÖZGEÇMİŞ

Muhammed Salih TAŞDEMİR 1990 yılında Gaziantep'te doğdu. Lise eğitimini Düziçi Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi'nde 2008 yılında tamamladı. 2012 yılında Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü'nden mezun oldu. Üniversite eğitimi esnasında, Görme engelli öğrencilere İngilizce öğretimi projesinde yer aldı ve 2012 Tübitak Matematik Olimpiyatlarına tercüman olarak katıldı. Dil eğitimi için 2011 yılında İngiltere'de Cambrigde Üniversitesi tarafından düzenlenen 2 aylık kursa katıldı. İyi derecede İngilizce ve orta derecede Almanca bilmektedir. Halen, Gaziantep'te bir devlet lisesinde İngilizce öğretmeni olarak çalışmaktadır.