ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK PREFERENCES AMONG LOWER SECONDARY ESL STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

The study explored low proficiency (LP), intermediate proficiency (IP), and high proficiency (HP) ESL students' preferences on oral corrective feedback (OCF) in the Malaysian lower secondary school context. It made comparisons between LP, IP, and HP ESL students' preferences for types of OCF, choice of correctors, and timings of OCF. A total of 90 lower secondary ESL students were selected as participants with proficiency levels based on school examination scores. The participants responded to a set of survey questionnaires consisting of 17 items about types of OCF, choice of correctors, and timings of OCF. Two students from each proficiency level were also interviewed individually to obtain some in-depth understandings of the students' preferences. The data from the questionnaire revealed a high preference for Explicit Feedback type among the students, while Elicitation was the least preferred type of OCF. Both quantitative and qualitative data indicated teachers as the most favoured corrector while self-correction was the least favoured. Regardless of the students' proficiency levels, the students preferred immediate feedback to delayed feedback. Meanwhile, between groups comparisons showed a statistically significant difference between LP and IP students for types of OCF and between LP and HP students for timings of CF. These findings suggest that not only different proficiency levels, but also specific learning contexts should be considered when providing corrective feedback to ESL students and students may expect their teachers to identify and use various types of corrective feedback in an adaptable way that suits their current proficiency level.

Keywords: oral corrective feedback, proficiency level, students' preference

KECENDERUNGAN MAKLUM BALAS PEMBETULAN LISAN DALAM KALANGAN MURID ESL MENENGAH RENDAH

ABSTRAK

Kajian ini dijalankan dengan tujuan untuk mengkaji kecenderungan antara murid berkemahiran rendah (LP), murid berkemahiran sederhana (IP) dan murid berkemahiran tinggi (HP) terhadap maklum balas pembetulan lisan (OCF) dalam konteks sekolah menengah rendah di Malaysia. Ia membuat perbandingan antara kecenderungan murid LP, IP dan HP ESL terhadap jenis maklum balas pembetulan lisan, penyampai maklum balas pembetulan lisan dan tempoh masa maklum balas pembetulan lisan. 90 murid ESL menengah rendah dipilih sebagai sample kajian dan kemahiran mereka adalah berdasarkan skor peperiksaan sekolah. Murid-murid menjawab satu set soal selidik yang terdiri daripada 17 item mengenai jenis maklum balas pembetulan lisan, penyampai maklum balas pembetulan lisan dan tempoh masa maklum balas pembetulan lisan. Dua murid dari setiap kumpulan kemahiran juga ditemu ramah secara individu untuk mendapatkan penjelasan lanjut mengenai kecenderungan mereka. Data dari soal selidik menunjukkan pilihan jenis maklum balas yang paling disukai ialah E*xplicit Feedback*, sementara *Elicitation* adalah kurang disukai. Kedua-dua data kuantitatif dan kualitatif menunjukkan guru sebagai penyampai maklum balas yang paling disukai sementara pembetulan kendiri (*self-corection*) kurang disukai. Kesemua murid lebih suka tempoh masa maklum balas segera berbanding dengan maklum balas tertangguh. Sementara itu, perbandingan antara kumpulan menunjukkan perbezaan yang signifikan secara statistik antara murid LP dan IP untuk jenis maklum balas dan antara murid LP dan HP untuk maklum balas

tertangguh. Penemuan ini menunjukkan bahawa bukan sahaja tahap kecekapan yang berbeza, tetapi juga konteks pembelajaran khusus harus dipertimbangkan ketika memberikan maklum balas pembetulan kepada pelajar ESL dan pelajar mungkin mengharapkan guru mereka mengetahui dan menggunakan pelbagai jenis maklum balas pembetulan dengan cara yang fleksibel yang sesuai dengan tahap kemahiran mereka.

Kata kunci: maklum balas pembetulan lisan, tahap kemahiran, pilihan murid

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CF – Corrective feedback

OCF – Oral corrective feedback

ESL – English as Second Language

HP – High Proficiency

IP – Intermediate Proficiency

LP – Low proficiency

L – Line

L2 – Second Language

S – Student

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

In the development of learning a second language, error production is an unavoidable part of the learning process, and corrective feedback is vital for students' language development. Corrective feedback (CF) comprises oral feedback and written feedback. Among the two types of corrective feedback, oral corrective feedback has grown importance in the research of second language acquisition (Abukhadrah, 2012; Ellis, 2009; Li, 2013; Sheen, 2004). Richards and Schmidt (2010) defined feedback as "comments or other information that students receive concerning their success on learning tasks or tests, either from the teacher or other persons" (p.217). Corrective feedback is further emphasized by Li (2013) who mentioned that corrective feedback refers to teachers' and peers' responses to students' erroneous second language production.

CF consists of explicit feedback and implicit feedback, whereby it indicates students' incorrect linguistic forms which helps them to notice their incorrect utterances and self-repair them. Explicit feedback noticeably draws the students' response to the error made. On the other hand, implicit feedback draws the students' response without noticeably notifying the occurrence of error or interrupt interaction flow. Both forms of feedbacks are fundamental as Zhang and Rahimi (2014) and Ellis (2009) stated that second language students are required to notice the gap between their interlanguage and target language forms by receiving CF.

Research so far has discovered that oral corrective feedback (OCF) can ease second language development (Ellis, 2009; Li, 2013; Sheen, 2004). In contrast, some researchers debated that error correction is harmful rather than helpful in second language acquisition (Krashen, 1982; Schwartz, 1993; Truscott, 1999). Krashen (1982) stated that the teaching of grammar should be abandoned because it hinders the natural course of second language learning. Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis recommends that language acquisition occurs when students obtain comprehensible input slightly more advanced (i+1) than their current level of interlanguage development (i).

In line with Krashen's (1982) comprehensible input hypothesis, Schmidt and Frota (1986) argued that second language students should be knowingly conscious of the discrepancy between what they are saying and what native speakers are saying before the students can modify their output. They argued that noticing the gap at a subconscious level does not lead the learner to automatic correction, but this conscious awareness of the gap is an essential key step for language progress. In other words, students may possibly require feedback on errors when they are not able to discover the discrepancies between their interlanguage and the target language.

Allwright and Bailey (1991) pointed out that only the student can make the learning crucial to increase performance, irrespective of how much error treatment is provided. As error corrections have both negative and positive effects, teachers must be careful when providing corrective feedback to their students. Language learning can be more effective through the positive effects of error correction since it helps second language students to notice the gap between their utterances and the target forms, which prompts uptake or repair. In addition, when students realize that making mistakes is a part

of the learning process and that their teachers attempt to facilitate them to learn target forms, they are prone to take risks and build up confidence through practice.

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In contrast, the negative effects can hamper students' language growth rather than help to learn as error correction may build barriers between teachers and their students. Thus, this can prevent students from developing communicative proficiency by making them hesitant to speak and anxious to make mistakes. Therefore, the effects of corrective

feedback can be compelled by contextual factors and individual learner preference (Abukhadrah, 2012; Lyster & Saito, 2010).

Studies on the practice of oral corrective feedback in classrooms intend to enlighten English teachers approach to attend the relationship between English as Second Language (ESL) students' preference on CF and their proficiency levels in the language, as students' preference on learning affects their academic achievement (Borg, 2003). This is aligned with Sato and Lyster's (2012) opinion that differences between students' expectations of OCF and teachers' intentions when treating errors can also lead to unsuccessful instruction. Provision of corrective feedback which is not relevant to the students' proficiency might obstruct their language learning development.

Students' proficiency level is a crucial factor concerning oral corrective feedback. Kaivanpanah, Alavi, and Sepehrinia (2015) noticed that Iranian students of English with various language levels tended to have a different preference about oral corrective feedback as they found advanced students preferred prompts such as elicitation, while beginner students preferred metalinguistic feedback. Advanced students may be able to notice and rectify their own mistakes with clues through elicitation and other prompts (Lyster & Ranta, 2012; Panova & Lyster, 2002). On the other hand, researchers revealed that due to the inadequate knowledge of the target language, low-level students most likely gave a great demand to learn further about the structures and rules, which could guide them to use the language for communication (Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Philip, 2003). Therefore, it is vital to consider students' proficiency levels when investigating their favoured oral corrective feedback types on spoken errors.

As students' proficiency level is taken into consideration, this study investigates preferences of ESL students at different levels of proficiency for oral corrective feedback

concerning types of corrective feedback, the timing of corrective feedback, and the choice of correctors. With the output, the study wishes to help the teachers to maximize their teaching practices to enhance students' language acquisition. The focus is especially on oral corrective feedback and the students' preference of the use of it in English lessons in lower secondary school.

In the following sections of this chapter, the background of the study is reviewed, and the statement of the problem is stated. Thereafter, followed by the rationale, purpose, objectives, and research questions of the study. In the remaining sections, the theoretical framework is explained, the significance and limitations of the study are discussed, and finally, key concepts are defined.

1.2 Background of the Study

Malaysian secondary students' ability in speaking English is still considered low (Manesha, Manjeet & Lin, 2015). Students lagging in many linguistic features, and this caused them to face linguistic problems in conveying their thoughts competently. Factors such as weak grammar, poor pronunciation, poor fluency, and lack of vocabulary stemmed from poor command of English among second language students in Malaysia. Interaction in second language acquisition is vital and a good speaking skill is important to be able to decrease communication interruption.

Despite learning English for six years at primary and five years at secondary levels, Malaysian students' English language proficiency had always been the barrier in obtaining success at higher education levels and in the job market (Hamidah Yamat, Fisher & Rich, 2014). This trend has called for the transformation of language teaching methods and restructure of the English Education syllabus, a transition from concern over formal properties of language to a view of language as a primary tool of communication. The

Malaysian Education Ministry 1973, 1975a, 1976 implemented Structural Syllabus at the lower secondary level (Ting, 2007; Lau,2008). In 1975, the upper secondary level was introduced with the Malaysian Communicational Syllabus for the teaching of English (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). The communicational syllabus emphasized communicative tasks which dealt with the situational or communicative use of language rather than merely teaching grammar. Hence, this syllabus allows school students to apply the use of language in everyday situations.

On the other hand, Ratnawati (1996) pointed out that the implementation of communicational syllabus created arguments among Malaysian educators as grammar was not taught explicitly. Therefore, in 1988, a new syllabus, Kurikulum Bersepadu Sekolah Menengah (KBSM), was introduced in schools. It focused on the integration of language content with skills, which were taught in an integrated manner (Ratnawati, 1996). In contrast, Ting (2007) discovered that Malaysian teachers still preferred to conduct grammar lessons based on a traditional approach; explicit teaching of grammar and their tendency to disregard the principles of Communicative Language Teaching were noticed. However, students did not get enough help and effort from educators to develop actual grammatical competence integrated into their communicative skills.

Inline to balance the development of knowledge and skills and moral values, Malaysian secondary schools were introduced with the New Secondary School Integrated Curriculum (NSSIC). With this, the traditional classroom met changes in terms of teachers' and students' roles (Fahainis Mohd. Yusof & Haslina Halim, 2014). The communicative approach, in the NSSIC, encourages students' active learning specifically in speaking skills. The key principle underlying communicative language teaching is communicative competence and this indicates a transition from the traditional teaching

strategies; teacher-oriented to students-centered. Thus, teachers can fine-tune their teaching pedagogies based on student's abilities and preferences with the use of the Communicative Approach.

Various research had been conducted to show learner uptake in terms of target language development utilizing classroom interaction. Additionally, research on corrective feedback in second language classrooms and ESL settings has demonstrated its features and function in second language teaching and learning (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002). The types of feedback employed to tackle certain linguistic features may relate to the question of whether feedback can help students improve accuracy. Panova and Lyster (2002) mentioned that learning differences (cognitive, linguistic, and contextual factors) between young students and adult students, lead to different favoured corrective feedback types, and different learner uptake and repair following that feedback. Consequently, to determine which corrective feedback types are most preferred by young students, there is a need to analyze the different types of corrective feedback that occur in ESL classrooms.

Hyland and Hyland (2006c) discussed providing feedback in a variety of "modes" to ensure efficiency and that these approaches should provide opportunities for students to interact and modify their spoken proficiency more clearly based on the oral corrections provided to them. Thus, these requested teachers to be more resourceful in dealing with these feedback issues. Teachers' efforts in providing suitable oral corrective feedback correlate with the attempt to enhance students' language accuracy in speaking tasks. Hence, it is vital to determine the type of corrective feedback that is favoured by students in helping the students to enhance second language acquisition. Therefore, it is the main aim of the present study to be able to provide some insights on this matter that may give

some guidelines on deciding on the oral corrective feedback that works the best for students.

1.3 Statement of Problem

Regardless of the positive approach in English education in Malaysia as mentioned above, numerous English teachers in the country still experience disappointments when it comes to the use of proper error correction, providing students with arbitrary correction, ambiguous provision of corrective feedback which are found in other countries (Abukhadrah, 2012; Sheen, 2004). Teachers apply numerous strategies to assist their students to notice errors, but sometimes as such feedback is ambiguous, they are not constantly efficient. Consequently, students fail to grasp the feedback given by their teachers and are steered to have impaired language learning. Hence, such failure builds anxiety and confusion among students. A weakened standard of English among ESL students in Malaysia had been identified through several studies done in the Malaysian context (Ratnawati, 1996; Rosli & Edwin, 1989).

Previously, in the Malaysian education system, English as a subject concentrated primarily on two language skills: reading and writing with the major emphasis in both skills on grammatical correctness (Fauziah & Nita, 2002). Much less importance was given to speaking skills in the syllabus and examination and this prejudice was mirrored in classroom teaching. As the Malaysian education system is greatly examination-oriented, listening and speaking in the teaching and learning of English were noticeably given inadequate attention in classroom teaching because they are not the main focus of the national examinations (Fauziah & Nita, 2002).

To enhance English language learning, mounting research about the role of corrective feedback in second language development were carried out and they suggested

that second language students experience problems with accuracy particularly in terms of morphology and syntax even though sufficient comprehensible inputs are given in classes (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Halter, White & Horst, 2002). Hence, error correction strategies used by teachers need to be aligned with students' needs in acquiring correct forms of language learning.

Decades of debates occurred on the role of corrective feedback in language learning. Despite a decent number of studies conducted, room for more research and improvisations still occur with practical classroom settings. In the 1990s, researchers were mainly focusing on the types and effects of corrective feedback among students (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2007). However, students' preference for corrective feedback had been taken into consideration in the last 10 years (Abukhadrah, 2012; Katayama, 2007; Li, 2010; Philp, 2003; Zacharias, 2007). Nevertheless, issues are found in understanding the preference and requirements of students at different proficiency levels concerning different areas of corrective feedback, such as types of corrective feedback, choice of correctors, and timing of corrective feedback. Thus, in addition to the issue evolving from the Malaysian English educational context, several issues in the previous studies inspired this study.

With regards to types of corrective feedback, the present literature on corrective feedback provides findings of the preferences of students at different English language proficiency levels, which, however, are not consistent. For instance, Kaivanpanah et al. (2015) reported that advanced students tend to prefer more elicitation type of feedback that entails self-repair and they attained satisfaction through self-correction. On the other hand, in a different context, Lee (2013) stated that advanced students preferred explicit correction to recasts as they could identify their errors.

Previous research indicates that teachers prefer to use recasts, known to be the comparatively implicit method in providing students with target reformulations in teaching the second language to all types of students due to time constraints (Yoshida, 2008). A parallel report was found in the study of Panova and Lyster (2002). However, Taipale (2012) stated that recasts are only suitable for proficient students as they could effortlessly notice the corrective intent of recast due to their developmental readiness for a grammatical structure, but they may not be so helpful for intermediate and low proficient students, furthermore, this may cause low proficient students not to be interested in learning, and as a result, they could be left behind in the subject.

Likewise, the choice of correctors is worth to be studied too, again due to the inconsistent findings concerning students of diverse language ability. For example, Li (2013) and Fukuda (2004) mentioned that students, in general, favoured teachers' corrective feedback as self-repair is unlikely to take place if the students lack basic knowledge of linguistic form. Moreover, Li (2013) and Fukuda (2004) emphasized that teachers need to act as delivering agents of corrective feedback, given that they have better knowledge of the target language than students, and that their authority help get students' attention on given corrective feedback. On the contrary, these two studies contradict correlational analyses conducted by Sato and Lyster (2012), which showed the occurrence of peers' feedback was positively correlated with second language development scores. This is similar to Gass's (2003) finding, in which students felt much more relaxed when working with their peers. Thus, peers allow students to perform better in language development.

Lastly, studies on the timing of giving corrective feedback are also essential as teachers are often uncertain about the appropriate timing for correcting students' errors,

while students themselves can be clear about what is desirable for them (Sheen, 2011). Furthermore, students do not necessarily be passive recipients any longer. In a study by Park (2010), it is suggested that immediate feedback may affect a learner's readiness to speak as interruption occurred in between conversation whereas delayed feedback may turn out to be less efficient as there would be an increase in the period of receiving feedback between error and treatment.

As a whole, understanding students' preference on the utilization of oral corrective feedback in the classroom might facilitate students at different levels of language proficiency attending to oral corrective feedback. This can be an important step in improving the effectiveness of corrective feedback in helping students to enhance their language learning (Li, 2003; Sheen,2011). As Burt (1975) observed, some errors are more crucial than others; as a result, teachers should make use of error correction selectively in terms of its importance to encourage learning.

The outcomes of this study could offer an appropriate guideline for language teachers, educators, or language program designers who are in the position to determine pedagogical programs. Teachers might need to match various approaches of corrective feedback by different grammatical structures taught. It also may inspire teachers to be more cautious about the interface between implicit and explicit knowledge as they contribute to the concept that corrective feedback is effective in developing students' linguistic accuracy.

1.4 Rationale of the Study

The literature in second language learning generally indicates that corrective feedback can be applied by teachers as an effective technique to help their students' development towards better proficiency in the target language (Ellis, 2006). However, when comes to

the Malaysian ESL context, much research on corrective feedback focused largely on written corrective feedback rather than oral corrective feedback (Rosli & Edwin,1989; Ravichandran, 2002). Therefore, a study on students' preference for oral corrective feedback would provide an insight for Malaysian teachers to enhance their teaching practices.

As discussed so far, previous studies on corrective feedback are contrasting with each other in their reports on how students at different language proficiency levels deal with corrective feedback, in terms of types of corrective feedback, choice of correctors, and corrective feedback timing (Fukuda, 2004; Sato & Lyster, 2012; Taipale, 2012; Li, 2013; Lee, 2013). As Kennedy (2010) noted, students at varying proficiency levels have different preferences on teachers' corrective feedback, thus, integrating students' preference on corrective feedback has become crucial. Therefore, a study on students' oral corrective feedback preference based on students' different language proficiency levels is vital in their progress to enhance their spoken English usage since providing students with a range of corrective feedback can facilitate them to develop correct forms.

Teachers need to take the lead to encourage students to learn to speak up in English and build confidence in speaking English. Thus, understanding students' preference for oral corrective feedback can be the first step towards leading them to develop correct forms. As Brown (2009) points out, "second language teachers and their students may have similar or disparate notions of effective teaching" (p. 46). As a result, teachers need to know their students' preference for oral corrective feedback to increase its potential positive effect on language development.

Teachers are likely to provide students with error corrections that essentially help them. Consequently, teachers need to understand the theoretical underpinnings of

corrective feedback as well as students' preference for oral corrective feedback. According to Zhang and Rahimi (2014), students' preference is vital as they offer insights into teachers' reflective instructional practice of giving corrective feedback in teaching appropriate oral communication in English. Therefore, it is important to investigate students' preference for oral corrective feedback concerning their language proficiency, given that it may enable teachers to reflect on their pedagogies and develop better teaching practices. Essentially, this study is inspired by the needs of the students of preferred feedback that can assist them to develop linguistic accuracy irrespective of the pedagogical approaches, be it communicative or problem based. The outcome of this study is expected to provide insights for Malaysian ESL teachers to use the terms of corrective feedback preferred by the students, as this would enhance students' second language acquisition.

1. 5 Purpose of the study

The study aims to:

i) identify low proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and high proficiency ESL students' preferences for different types of oral corrective feedback, choice of correctors, and corrective feedback timings.

ii) compare low proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and high proficiency ESL students' preferences for types of oral corrective feedback, choice of correctors, and corrective feedback timing.

iii) explore selected students' justification for types of oral corrective feedback, choice of correctors, and corrective feedback timing.

1. 6 Research Questions

i) What are the preferences of ESL students at different levels of proficiency in terms of oral corrective feedback?

ii) Is there any significant difference between low proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and high proficiency ESL students' preferences in terms of oral corrective feedback?

iii) Why do selected ESL students of different proficiency levels prefer certain types of oral corrective feedback, choice of correctors, and corrective feedback timing?

1.7 Research Hypothesis

The present study tries to test the following null hypothesis:

i) There is no significant difference in low proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and high proficiency ESL students' preference in terms of types of oral corrective feedback.

ii) There is no significant difference in low proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and high proficiency ESL students' preferences in terms of choice of correctors for oral corrective feedback.

iii) There is no significant difference in low proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and high proficiency ESL students' preference in terms of oral corrective feedback timing: immediate feedback and delayed feedback.

1.8 Theoretical Framework

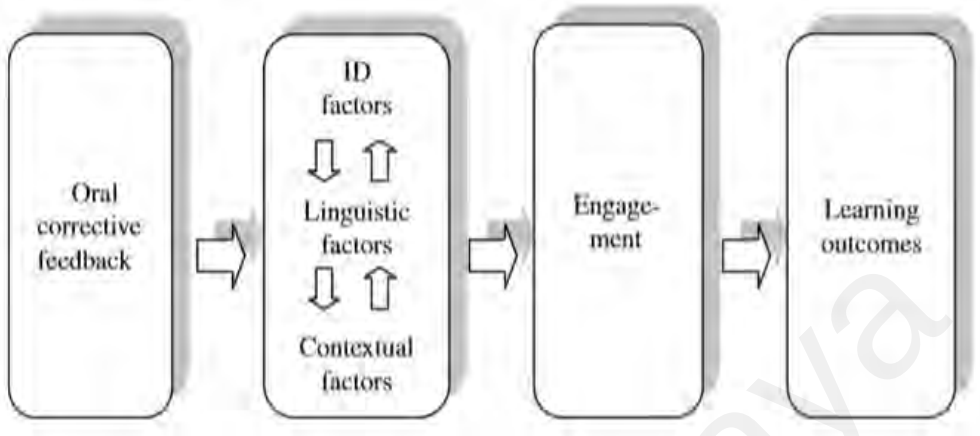

Figure1.1: A framework for investigating oral corrective feedback (Ellis, 2010)

As illustrated, Figure 1.1 presents a framework for investigating oral corrective feedback proposed by Ellis (2010). In the first place, it is possible to explore students' preference for different types of oral corrective feedback, as some of them may be more beneficial than others, depending on circumstances, and what the teacher does at this stage is undoubted of pivotal significance for the acquisition of the targeted linguistic features. Irrespective of how oral corrective feedback is implemented, its effects are bound to be mediated by an array of moderating variables, which to a large extent determine the degree to which it will contribute to interlanguage development, and can relate to individual differences between students, linguistic considerations, and contextual factors. Individual student factors consist of personality, motivation, language anxiety, learner beliefs, age, language aptitude, memory, and learning style. This study focuses on individual student's different proficiency levels to identify and compare their preferences in terms of oral corrective feedback based on their proficiency levels.

Framework in Figure 1.1 shows that linguistic factors interact with contextual factors to intervene between the oral corrective feedback that students get and their

engagement with the oral corrective feedback and by this means influence their learning outcomes. The term engagement refers to how students act in response to the feedback they get. Students' engagement with the oral corrective feedback is influenced by oral corrective feedback types, individual difference factors, and contextual variables. Engagement can be examined from three different perspectives: a cognitive perspective, a behavioral perspective, and an affective perspective. A cognitive perspective is where the emphasis is on how students attend to the corrective feedback they get, while a behavioral perspective is where the emphasis is on ways students' uptake oral corrections or revise their written texts, and an affective perspective is where the emphasis is on how students respond attitudinally to the corrective feedback. Thus, for the study of oral corrective feedback, these three senses of engagement are applicable. As for the final component of the framework, where it concerns the learning outcomes, oral corrective feedback research is mainly concerned with the effect that corrective feedback has on students' targeted linguistic acquisition through the corrective feedback.

1.9 Significance of the Study

The outcome of this study would be advantageous for English teachers and researchers who share a similar interest in the development of a second language. The study may provide awareness that teachers should recognize ESL students' preferences as they affect their academic progress and attentiveness in the learning process. Zhang and Rahimi (2014) revealed that it is crucial to know students' preferences about language learning as the mismatch between students' expectations about language learning can impede language acquisition. Identifying high, intermediate, and low proficiency ESL students' preference for corrective feedback allows teachers to have new understandings concerning

when, how, and what to correct regarding students' errors. Furthermore, it also enhances their teaching progression and skills that suit students' competence.

This study's findings are hoped to contribute vital insights for Malaysian teachers to enhance their classroom practice particularly concerning using corrective feedback together with students' spoken language. This study's outcome would also potentially lead to enhanced interaction between Malaysian teachers and students.

In addition, students will be able to obtain several insights to understand the teachers' intention to correct their spoken language errors and how this correction would progressively advantage them to use better English in the future.

In addition, the study can be a promising count to the body of research on corrective feedback, so that scholars may advance their research from what the study has discovered. Hence, this study would be recommending more efficient ways of treating students' spoken errors in ESL classrooms, by which it explores students' choice for corrective feedback and relates the discrepancies between the students.

1.10 Limitations of the Study

Despite making an effort to achieve comprehensive research, the study, however, has some limitations. The main limitation of this study is that it is conducted in one national school due to time constrain. Involvement of more similar type schools from other areas, in this study, would make the finding more reliable.

Next, Malaysian national school students are from different races. Nevertheless, in this study, the cultural background of students is not taken into consideration to determine students' preferences on oral corrective feedback. Thus, future studies should consider the different cultural backgrounds of students and their relationship with students' preferences. In terms of the survey questionnaire, some of the participants' answers are

not reliable because of the reluctance to admit to the real behaviours and preferences. Even though all precautions had been taken to deliver all types of corrective feedback in a vastly professional manner precisely guided by the research design, it is accepted that the role of the teacher or researcher might have impacted the results of the study.

1.11 Definitions of Key Concepts

Oral Corrective Feedback Ellis (2006) defined corrective feedback as "responses to learner utterances containing an error" (p. 28). In addition, Ellis et al. (2009) stated corrective feedback as "taking the form of responses to learner utterances that contain an error. The responses can indicate that an error has been committed, specify the correct target language form, or contain metalinguistic information about the nature of the error" (p. 303). Apart from that, according to Ding (2012), a general classification of corrective feedback types is to distinguish feedback in terms of how implicit or explicit it is. Furthermore, Suzuki (2004) mentioned that corrective feedback is a method used by teachers to draw students' attention to erroneous parts of the spoken language to lead to the modified output. This possibly will result in students' positive uptake and modified output. Therefore, oral corrective feedback plays a pivotal role in scaffolding students to encourage ongoing second language development. There are six types of oral corrective feedback used in this study, namely elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, recast, explicit feedback, and repetition.

Students' preference Considering students' preferences for oral corrective feedback can be the initial step to lead them to acquire correct forms of the target language. This is emphasized by Park (2010) who stated that it is crucial for teachers to know their students' preferences on corrective feedback to increase its potential positive effect on language growth. This study involves three groups of students at a different level of proficiency in

identifying their preferences for oral corrective feedback. These ESL students' preferences are on: (1) types of oral corrective feedback; (2) choice of corrector in oral corrective feedback; and (3) timing of oral corrective feedback.

ESL students' proficiency level ESL students, the term used in this study, refers to the students who study English as a second language. These students, who learn the English language in Malaysia, are already proficient speakers of a minimum of one home language or their mother tongue. Language proficiency is a measurement of how well an individual has mastered a language. Proficiency is measured in terms of receptive and expressive language skills, syntax, vocabulary, semantics, and other areas that demonstrate language abilities. In education, the term proficiency is used in a variety of ways, most commonly about proficiency levels, scales, and cut-off scores on standardized tests and other forms of assessment, by which students achieved or failed to achieve proficiency levels determined by tests and assessments.

The proficiency levels are descriptions of what individuals can do with language in terms of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in real-world situations in a spontaneous and non-rehearsed context. ESL students' proficiency levels range from high proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and low proficiency. Standard examination scores set by the Ministry of Education, Malaysia was used to determine the present study's participants' proficiency level. High proficiency students' test scores range from marks 80-100 while intermediate proficiency students' test scores range from 56-79 marks. The low proficiency students' test scores are 35-55 marks. Lyster and Ranta (2012) discovered that high proficiency students would be able to notice and modify their own mistakes with clues due to their competence. On the other hand, researchers suggested that due to the inadequate knowledge of the target language, low proficiency students are likely to have

ve strong need to learn more about the structures and rules as this could guide them to use the language for communication (Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Philip, 2003). Hence, considering students' proficiency levels is essential when examining their favoured oral corrective feedback types on their spoken errors.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the theories and research studies relevant to ESL students' preference for corrective feedback in English classes. The first section discusses the term feedback and reviews the role of corrective feedback. Followed by the next section that describes related theories for this study. The final section reviews the types of corrective feedback, choice of correctors, corrective feedback timing, and students' preferences for oral corrective feedback.

2.2 Understanding Feedback

Good feedback is essential for students to understand a subject better and to improve through clearer guidance. Wiliam (2018) describes feedback as 'information given to individuals or groups about their own preference' (p. 5). In other words, feedback is more productive when it provides reassurance to students whether they are on the right track. Hence, the right feedback would help in students' language development, as Long (1996) suggested that feedback obtained through conversational interaction promotes interlanguage development because interaction connects input, students' internal capacities particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways.

Feedback is crucial in the process of learning, as stated by Lyster (2004) who drew on skill acquisition theory to hypothesize that students who received corrective feedback will show improvements due to the opportunities that corrective feedback provides. This idea is further emphasized by Merry and Orsmond (2008) who related feedback as a

dynamic feature in the learning process and students should be enthusiastically engaged with feedback to improve language proficiency. Moreover, they also advised that teachers should deliver feedback effectively to help students reach their aim of learning a target language.

The importance of feedback is further highlighted by Ellis (2009) who mentioned that "in both behaviorist and cognitive theories of L2 learning, feedback is regarded as contributing to language learning, wherein both structural and communicative approaches to language teaching, feedback is viewed as means of fostering learning, motivation and ensuring linguistic accuracy" (p.4).

Studies have proven that good feedback can help students maximize their potential in their learning process (Sheen, 2004; Ellis, 2009; Abukhadrah, 2012; Li, 2013;). Feedback has gained reliability among scholars and teachers, by means it can be employed in the classroom to deliver students with appropriate feedback. Hence, the main objective of feedback is to assist students to further their second language acquisition.

2.3 Role of Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback is a narrower kind of feedback and it plays a crucial role in language acquisition. Corrective feedback is regarded as any information delivered to students upon producing any sort of linguistic error (Sheen, 2007). Therefore, corrective feedback, both oral and written, is seen by many researchers as a vital principle of teaching practice (Lyster, Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Schmidt, 1990). This is due to its role to encourage students to further their knowledge of the target language. Furthermore, Wiboolyasarin, Wiboolyasarin, and Jinowat (2020) mentioned that the salience of oral corrective feedback from the cognitive viewpoint plays a pivotal role in drawing students' attention to form.

The attention contributes to allowing students to detect some differences between their faulty utterances and the correct models.

Along the way, corrective feedback has expanded prominent consideration in second language acquisition, but with contradictory points of view. Krashen (1982) and Truscott (1999) claimed that feedback does not benefit students and should not take place. But this view differs from Schmidt (1990) who supported the use of feedback in the classroom, highlighting the positive effects that feedback brings to students to help them notice gaps between interlanguage forms and target forms. Interlanguage is the term for an idiolect that has been developed by a second language student who has not yet achieved proficiency. Therefore, as suggested by Ellis (2009), feedback plays an important role in language learning as it pushes students to notice and attempt to adapt the targeted form, and thus students may be more likely to mend their erroneous utterances. oral feedback helps improve the language spoken by the learners. Furthermore, corrective feedback leads to a good teacher-student interaction that is particularly important in language courses. Corrections were also thought to play a facilitative and constructive role in the learning process (Alsolami, 2019).

Classroom feedback can be provided in a variety of ways and feedback may be either positive or negative. Positive feedback is delivered when a student's response is correct, while negative feedback is delivered when a response is incorrect. According to Ellis (2009), an advantage of negative feedback is that it can help students improve their accuracy. But its disadvantage would be discouragement and loss of motivation. This happens when students' errors are corrected in front of others. Therefore, Richards (2009) suggested that teachers need to look for ways to provide feedback without making the

students feel insecure. Thus, positive feedback is helpful in the classroom. It is said to increase students' motivation and confidence because of clear approval of a student's response (Cianci, Klein & Seijts, 2010). However, according to Ellis (2009), if teachers only give positive feedback, students may lack the opportunity to progress their understanding, since errors had not been spoken.

The studies done to date in oral corrective feedback literature have commonly focused on how teachers utilize corrective feedback methods while providing feedback to their students; nevertheless, there is a lack of research that investigates the students' preferences on the use of oral corrective feedback. Yoshida (2008), in examining teachers' selections and students' preferences in terms of oral corrective feedback, found that the participating students requested to be allocated the approximate time for self-correction when they produced an erroneous utterance, and they did not want their teachers to deliver the answer immediately. Subsequently, in a comparative study, Rassaei and Moinzadeh (2012) examined the perceptions of EFL students concerning recast and metalinguistic feedback through stimulated recall interviews. The results showed that the students produced more accurate utterances if they were corrected via metalinguistic feedback compared to recast. Thus, the students in this study preferred receiving metalinguistic feedback rather than recasts. Additionally, in a related study, Rassaei (2013) studied 68 Persian EFL students' perceptions of recast and explicit correction through meaning-focused tasks. The students' stimulated recall interview reports were examined concerning their perception of recasts and explicit correction types, and the outcomes showed that students perceived explicit correction more positively due to its relevance to their ability to notice the target forms.

On the other hand, in comparable research, students' preferences for corrective feedback were emphasised by Fukuda (2004) who investigated students' views about error treatment by surveying teachers and students in Japanese high school oral communication classes. Fukuda (2004) recommended that the effective error treatment is overly complex as it depended on many factors, including students' needs, preferences, personalities, proficiency levels, and motivation. In addition, Yoshida (2008) studied students' preferences for corrective feedback types in Japanese classrooms; the results revealed that the students were favoured to have an opportunity to think about their errors, and, to come up with the correct forms before receiving correct feedback from their teachers. Generally, the students wanted more error treatment than their teachers believed. Likewise, Lee (2013) studied students' and teachers' preferences for corrective feedback, and the findings revealed that students chose to obtain explicit and immediate corrections while the conversation was being maintained. Furthermore, merely focusing on students' perspectives, Zhang and Rahimi (2014) also studied the perceptions of high-anxious and low-anxious students concerning oral corrective feedback and concluded that no matter how anxious the students were, both groups preferred to get oral corrective feedback from their teachers. As emphasized by the above-mentioned studies, studying the preferences of students with regards to oral corrective feedback is as crucial as teachers' practices as students' preferences are influential in the learning process.

In a nutshell, students' errors enable teachers to observe what aspects of language the students need to be given more attention, in order, to enhance their proficiency in the target language. Furthermore, students' errors may help teachers address issues regarding appropriate methodology to correct errors made in students' productions. Apart from this,

corrective feedback is also given to acknowledge and praise students when they produce correct forms of utterance.

2.4 Theories of Second Language Acquisition

Three theories related to corrective feedback are Interaction Hypothesis**,** Noticing Hypothesis, and Output Hypothesis. Each is discussed in brief with relevance to corrective feedback in an ESL classroom.

Output Hypothesis As a response to Krashen's importance on input, the role of output in second language learning is emphasized by Swain's output hypothesis as Swain (1985) recommended the notion of corrective feedback as being significant in the Output Hypothesis. The author states that merely producing language is insufficient to improve students' linguistic abilities; they must be pushed to repair their problematic utterances. Through feedback, students are made aware that their utterances had been incomprehensible or non-target-like. Hence, when feedback indicated to students that their utterances have been incomprehensible or non-target-like, students may ponder on their language use and modify it in a more comprehensible or target-like way. Producing output plays a direct role in improving fluency by transforming declarative knowledge (knowing that) into procedural knowledge (knowing how). In other words, producing language output can have a significant role in turning explicit knowledge into implicit knowledge. In brief, Swain (1985) insisted that students' output is essential because it allows them to take control over their linguistic knowledge and in turn, facilitates in developing the necessary metalinguistic knowledge concerning the target language.

Noticing Hypothesis Schmidt's (1990) 'noticing hypothesis' highlights consciousness of incongruities between the learner's output and the second language vital for the acquisition of a particular linguistic item. For example, several features of the target

language may be prominently reduced in the speech of native speakers and barely noticeable for second language students or maybe non-salient as they are semantically redundant, causing students to miss them in their input. It is presumed that several features are not noticed by speakers who are communicatively driven. In interaction, a speaker may only interrupt the flow of conversation to correct an error if he/she does not understand the meaning of the other speaker. Hence, Schmidt (1990) explained that the Noticing Hypothesis is a process where second language students knowingly notice the grammatical form of input, to acquire grammar. Thus, conscious awareness of grammar is reliable to play a key role in second language acquisition.

In addition, Schmidt (1990) also claimed that although explicit metalinguistic knowledge of the language is not always crucial for acquisition, the learner must be aware of grammatical features of second language input that they may acquire from it. In other words, students must notice how their interlanguage structures vary from target norms as noticing such gaps allows the students to comprehend the rules of a second language. This noticing of the gap allows the students' internal representation of the rules of the second language, to bring the students' production closer to the target language. Noticing hypothesis emphasizes that awareness of differences between the students' output and second language is essential for the acquisition of a specific linguistic item. Since exposure to a second language will not automatically guarantee this kind of awareness, corrective feedback must come into play to get students to focus on language-specific and individual problems and stimulate them to attempt self-improvement. Furthermore, Ellis (1995) mentioned that only those elements of the input which are attended to and noticed are likely to be stored in long-term memory and, thus, learned. This resulted in corrective feedback being essential in bringing students to focus on input towards their second

language acquisition, and therefore bridge to stimulate them in attempting self-improvement.

Interaction Hypothesis Interaction Hypothesis is termed modified interaction which creates comprehensible input for students. According to Long (1996), native speakers have created various modifications and other speakers to render their input comprehensible to students. Input modification, which takes place during an interaction, enhances second language acquisition as the student can obtain input that fits one's level of proficiency. Hence it is vital to have interaction and input as two major players in the process of acquisition of a language. Long (1996) stated that corrective feedback is related to further ESL development, in that it can offer students opportunities to perceive the discrepancies between output and input through negotiation of meaning. In addition, Gass (1997) pointed out that oral corrective feedback in interaction facilitates second language students to notice their non-target output.

Consequently, Long (1996) suggested that explicit corrective feedback plays a key role in language learning because, through negotiation of meaning, students can revise and make modifications that arise from this interaction. Additionally, Mackey and Goo (2007) pointed out that the negotiation of meaning that occurs throughout the discourse, in conjunction with the corrective feedback that is provided to the learner, lets students know that their utterance was problematic. This is further explained by Mackey, Leeman, and Oliver (2003) who claimed that it is through negotiation that input is made more comprehensible, and grammatical features are made more salient, consequently facilitating interlanguage development. Therefore, the interaction positions students in a place to receive more opportunities for output (Mackey, 1999). In a nutshell, it indicates

that oral corrective feedback in interaction facilitates second language students to notice their non-target output (Long, 2006).

This study adopts the Output Hypothesis as it is noted that merely producing language is insufficient for improving the linguistic abilities of students; they must be pushed to modify their problematic utterances. Therefore, through feedback, students are made aware that their utterances have been incomprehensible or non-target-like. This study aimed to identify the preferences of students at different proficiency levels for oral corrective feedback terms. Therefore, awareness of students' preferences and the output of suitable corrective feedback enhance second language acquisition as the learner can obtain input that fits one's level of proficiency.

2.5 Types of Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback is largely described as responses to students' utterances that contain an error. Different types of corrective feedback need to be given in the classroom to attain students' attention to certain aspects of the target language. Chaudron (1977) defined correction as "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to or demands improvement of the learner's utterance" (p.31), which is the most common conception employed by researchers. Since corrective feedback comprises both explicit and implicit feedback, teachers can deliver corrective feedback either without disrupting the flow of conversation (implicit feedback) or overtly with an emphasis on the ill-formed utterance (explicit feedback).

Teachers' corrective feedback present in recent studies can be classified and this study uses Lyster and Ranta's (1997) taxonomy of corrective feedback, an often-cited classroom observation study. They distinguished six main feedback moves: explicit feedback; recast; clarification request; metalinguistic feedback; elicitation; and repetition.

Then, Lyster (2004) classified these six types of feedback into three categories of prompts, recast, and explicit correction. Subsequently, Ranta and Lyster (2007) regrouped the six types of corrective feedback into two broader categories: namely 'reformulations' and 'prompts'. Reformulations include recast and explicit feedback, both of which provide the correct form, while the other four (clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition) are collectively called 'prompts'.

The term reformulations comprise recast and explicit feedback whereby they provide an either implicit or explicit reformulation of the target form and function as input-providing. On the other hand, the term prompts are made up of metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition, and clarification request. These are the output-promoting corrective techniques through which they push students to recognize the intentional corrective feedback and find the solution to the errors on their own.

Corrective feedback differs in terms of how implicit or explicit it is. Long (1996) describes negative feedback as "implicit correction immediately following an ungrammatical learner utterance" (p. 429). Long (1996) asserts that negative feedback is commonly facilitative of second language acquisition and for negative feedback, such as recast, contains positive evidence, which delivers the correct form. Implementation, definition, and examples of each corrective feedback vary greatly (Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Sheen, 2004). In the following section, each type of corrective feedback is discussed in more detail.

Recast Compared to all types of corrective feedback used by ESL teachers, recast is the most controversial in terms of the characterization and usefulness in second language classrooms (Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Nicholas, Lightbown, & Spada, 2001). Recast is the teacher's reformulation of all or part of the incorrect word or phrase, to show the

correct form without explicitly identifying the error. In other words, a recast is when a teacher reformulates a student's wrong utterance or gives the correct answer without pointing out the student's error. An example of recast is:

S: We **go** to a movie last week …

T: So, you **went** to a movie last week …

In the literature, recasts are noticed to be the most extensively used feedback type in language classrooms (Sheen, 2004), and numerous studies showed students' tendency and preference to recast (Nassaji, 2010). According to Lyster and Ranta (1997), Panova and Lyster (2002), and Sheen (2004), recasts are the most frequently used type of feedback but the least effective in second language students' classroom input. Recasts are generally used due to time constraint and it is non-intrusive. Nevertheless, in recasts, students are not given in detailed grammatical explanations by the teacher. Thus, students may go unnoticed for its corrective function. Mackey, Gass, and McDonough (2000) stated that although recasts offer students with target-like forms, recasts are ambiguous as they are often difficult to distinguish from non-corrective repetitions. Thus, recasts, as suggested by some classroom studies, are ineffective due to the students' lower rate of uptake when compared with other types of feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002). This type of implicit reformulation move has received increasing attention in both first language and second language contexts, which provides positive evidence. Long (1996) pointed out that recasts work for acquisition since they are implicit, connecting a linguistic form to meaning in discourse contexts which promote microprocessing, noticing, or rehearsing in short-term memory, necessary for implicit language learning. In addition, Doughty (2001) claimed that recasts represent the ideal means of accomplishing an "immediately contingent focus on form" and provide a "cognitive window" (p. 252) in

which students can practice what they have heard and retrieve material from their interlanguage. Additionally, in exploring the teachers' and students' preferences of corrective feedback types among the Japanese students in an English as a foreign language classroom in Australia, Yoshida (2008) stated that most students favoured to have an opportunity to think about their errors and correct forms before receiving the correct forms via recasts.

On the contrary, Lyster and Ranta (1997) argued that recasts were less effective than prompts at pushing students to repair inaccurate utterances. Despite the high frequency of occurrence of recast, it led to the least amount of uptake (31%) while most of the other feedback types resulted in student uptake in over 80% of the times they were used. It reinforced Lyster's (2004) study that recast were less effective because they might be noticed by students as concerning to the message being communicated rather than the problematic nature of a linguistic form. Hence, it was more appropriate for high proficient students compared to intermediate and lower-proficiency students as they could easily notice the corrective purpose of recasts due to students' development readiness for a specific grammatical structure (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Philp, 2003). Panova and Lyster (2002) considered that recasts may be taken as positive evidence by less proficient students and may pass it unnoticed; however, more proficient students noticed it as negative evidence. In a relative study, Ammar and Spada (2006) revealed that low proficiency students were unable to use recasts to further their second language development on linguistic features. Additionally, Kennedy (2010) discovered that more proficient students were given more opportunities to repair their errors as they were able to do so. As for a low proficiency student, a repaired error without metalinguistic

explanation, like recast type, would be a heavy task because at times students do not notice that something was wrong.

In related research, Sato (2010) investigated the effect of recasts on Japanese high school students, and then investigated the pedagogical implications. The study discovered that recasts can be effective for Japanese high school students learning, regardless of the degree of grammatical features difficulty. Although this study tried to overcome one of the deficiencies of previous studies by distinguishing between easy and difficult structures to learn, it still had a limitation in the number of chances of feedback occurring for each structure. Sato criticized previous studies of recast and said the lowest success rate in grammatical recasts was due to not distinguishing between early development or late development in grammatical structures. He classified target grammatical structures as either early developmental (easy) or late developmental (difficult) to learn by using an established measurement based on the analysis of recasts and students' responses.

Explicit Feedback Explicit correction is when a teacher highlights that a student's utterance was incorrect and needs repair. The teacher indicates an error has been committed, identifies the error, provides the correct form, and noticeably indicates that what the student said was incorrect. For example:

S: She has many **pen**.

T: We don't say **pen** (stressed).

You should say **pens** (stressed)

Lyster and Ranta (1997) also discovered that explicit correction is more beneficial for beginners than intermediate students as intermediate students are linguistically prepared to benefit more from self-correction techniques and infer their erroneous techniques. On the other hand, Mackey and Goo (2007) claimed that explicit corrective

feedback is effective in the short term compared to implicit corrective that is relatively long-lasting. Therefore, it will be beneficial for students when explicit feedback is provided for their error correction. Hence, explicit feedback, as stated by Park (2010), is the most favoured method of corrective feedback among the students as it directly points out the error for them to learn the target-like form for it minimises confusion from students' side as they get clear reasons for correction. Examining students' feedback preferences, Lee (2013) discovered that students want to get explicit feedback while the conversation is maintained. Likewise, Rassaei (2013) did a task-based study focusing on students' perceptions regarding recasts and explicit feedback, concluded that students' perceptions of explicit correction were relatively positive due to its appropriateness to notice the target forms.

Elicitation Elicitation is when teachers attempt to elicit the correct form by requesting for completion of a sentence, or asking questions, or asking for a reformulation. In elicitation, teachers directly evoke the correct form from students by posing questions. The teacher prompts the student to self-correct by pausing so the student can fill in the correct word or phrase. Elicitation entails direct questions such as “How do you mention that in English?” or pauses that permit students to complete the teacher’s utterance. For example, the teacher elicits the correct form by strategically pausing to allow the student to complete it, as follows:

S: Peter **like** chocolate.

T: Peter **what** (stressed) chocolate?

Nassaji (2011) claims that elicitations are explicit when they motivate students to correct their original erroneous output without providing the learner with the correct form or any explanations of errors. Therefore, elicitations can provide opportunities for pushed

output as hypothesized by Swain (1985). In a study done by Lyster and Ranta (1997), it was suggested that elicitations led to more frequent learner uptake and was effective in leading to student-generated repair because they helped "second language students to acquire rule-based representations of grammatical genre and to procedural their knowledge of these emerging forms" (p. 399). Elicitation was the most effective kind of spoken corrective feedback leading to student's repair in communicative tasks and it can also be a reactive type of form-focused instruction that is typically provided while students are engaged in interaction (Swain, 1995).

On the other hand, Yoshida (2008) pointed out in his study that Japanese EFL students preferred Elicitation as it gave them an opportunity to ponder their errors and attempt to self-correct. Thus, students play an active role in learning when correcting their errors. However, in contrast to Yoshida's opinion, Kaivanpanah et al. (2015) argued that students with low proficiency lack knowledge or ability to respond through Elicitation compared to Recasts, whereas proficient students likely to favour the Elicitation type of feedback that needed self-correction. In addition, Kaivanpanah et al. (2015) compared Iranian students' and teachers' opinions about oral corrective feedback and reported that the more proficient students preferred elicitation types of feedback that needed self-correction.

Metalinguistic Feedback Metalinguistic feedback comprises clues in the form of comments, information, or questions connected to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly delivering the correct form. For metalinguistic feedback, the teacher provides technical linguistic information about the error without explicitly giving the correct answer. In other words, the teacher asks questions or comment about student utterances without giving the correct form. An example of metalinguistic feedback:

S: Mother **go** to the clinic yesterday.

T: Mother ….. to the clinic yesterday (what is the past tense for 'go'?).

S: Mother **went** to the clinic yesterday.

The main objective of this type of feedback is to help students notice what was wrong in the production of an explicit corrective feedback strategy. As such, metalinguistic feedback is more likely to hinder the natural flow of communication and to activate the kind of learning mechanisms that result in explicit rather than implicit second language knowledge. The practice and the usefulness of metalinguistic feedback had been the research matter of numerous studies, and they generally yielded positive results. For example, the outcomes of Rassaei and Moinzadeh's (2012) study on students' perceptions of recast and metalinguistic feedback indicated that students' accurate sentence production is relatively high when they are corrected via metalinguistic feedback, and they favoured receiving it instead of recast. Similarly, Lyster and Ranta (1997) claimed that unlike recast and explicit feedback that gave the correction form, metalinguistic feedback prompts the students to reflect on language use and encouraged self-repair. Students can progress from interlanguage to target-like form. In addition, Swain (1995) stated that the group that received direct metalinguistic feedback outperformed the other groups in the production of sentences involving dative verbs and noun formation and that this type of feedback facilitates generalization to novel items. In addition, similar studies show that metalinguistic feedback allows students to work on the erroneous part and leads to the negotiation of meaning (Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004).

Metalinguistic feedback which portrays clues to indicate inaccuracy in utterances seems to push students to produce the correct form. This is emphasized in Gholizade's (2013) study, which demonstrated metalinguistic feedback as effective in leading to

speaking, accuracy, fluency, and complexity compared to recast. Thus, the metalinguistic explanation is generally can be concluded as more effective than implicit feedback for learning.

Repetition Repetition is when the teacher's repetition, in isolation, of the erroneous utterance, occurs. For repetition, the teacher repeats a student's utterance with an emphasis on the error, to draw the student's attention to the error, hoping that a correctly formed utterance will follow.

The teacher repeats the student's error while emphasising the error or mistake through emphatic stress. Repetition imitates the student's error literally, with rising intonation and stress to indicate the error. For instance:

S: I **meet** my friend yesterday.

T: I **meet** (stressed) my friend **yesterday** (stressed).

Repetition permits students to notice, think and correct their errors after noticing. Lyster and Ranta (1997) indicated that repetition is one of the feedback types that led to more uptake moves compared with explicit feedback, by which, repetition leads to students' repair and is more beneficial and effective for learning as it increases students' understanding of language features. In addition, Ammar and Spada (2006) also recognised repetition as a useful feedback type as it offers opportunities in which students can self-repair their errors. In this manner, repetition facilitates them noticeably to grasp their erroneous utterance. Its effectiveness, in that sense, is also shown by Büyükbay and Dabaghi's (2010) experimental study that repetition serves as an effective feedback strategy in terms of uptake and acquisition. Their study also found that students who received repetition as corrective feedback did better in grammar tests compared to those who received usual responses from the teacher.

On the contrary, Allwright and Bailey's (1991) study revealed that simple repetitions are ineffective for students who cannot perceive their utterances as erroneous especially for elementary level students. Furthermore, Lee (2013) revealed that the significant reason for students' low preference for repetition was that it was generally unclear, and some students even assumed that the teacher did not give them much attention when they were speaking, which made them uncomfortable and embarrassed. Besides, the study also found out that the intonation used in the repetition method to highlight errors can cause uncomfortable feelings among students, which can hamper students' learning. Thus, it reveals that the clarity of repetition in communicative activities contrasts according to students' language proficiency.

Clarification Request Clarification request is when a teacher asks a question indicating that the utterance has been misunderstood or ill-formed and that a repetition or reformulation is required. It shows that the student's utterance was not understood and requires that the student reformulate it. Clarification requests are phrases such as "Pardon me" and "I don't understand", which are used to highlight that the student's message has either been misunderstood or ill-formed. For example:

S: She **like** chocolate.

T: **Pardon me**?

Ferreira, Moore, and Mellish (2007) suggested that clarification request is not suitable for elementary level as students did not own a fully developed linguistic repertoire to do self-correction. It is aligned with Ahangari and Amirzadeh's (2011) study that revealed that advanced students tend to prefer clarification requests while beginner students tend to misunderstand the purpose of clarification requests due to their low proficiency. In Ahangari and Amirzadeh's (2011) study, clarification request was used

only four times for advanced students (66.7%) and two times for elementary students (33.3%). That is, in the context of the study, the ineffectiveness of clarification requests may have been sensed by the teacher participants and therefore they did not use it often since clarification requests invite the students to reformulate the erroneous utterance. On the contrary, some research in the literature produced positive results on this feedback type as Panova and Lyster's (2002) study demonstrated that one of the highest percentages of student uptake of the feedback occurs with clarification requests. Furthermore, Ammar and Spada (2006) indicated that clarification request is more influential than input-providing types like recast and explicit correction because it provides the learner an opportunity for self-correction.

2.6 Choice of Corrective Feedback Provider

Teachers' corrective feedback Teachers are generally recognized as a source of feedback to students in second language learning. The teachers must have adequate grammatical knowledge and pedagogical knowledge in giving corrective feedback to students, as Park (2010) pointed out that teachers should deliver students with level-appropriate corrective feedback which can encourage their language learning. A student's attention is easily unfocused if the corrective feedback is unrelated to language learning.

Park (2010) also stated that teachers' corrective feedback is most preferable as teachers were viewed as the primary source of knowledge in ESL classrooms and the focus of attention. In line with a preference for teacher's corrective feedback, Kennedy (2010) found that high proficiency students could practice recast to promote their second language development on linguistic features, whereas intermediate proficiency and lower proficiency students could not do so. Therefore, teachers' choices of corrective feedback are essential for its interrelation with the proficiency level of the students. Additionally,

Zacharias (2007) had also pointed out that students did not tend to fully trust their peer students' linguistic competence and needed their teachers' confirmation.

Peers' corrective feedback Peers are a common source of corrective feedback that offers students the chance to notice and modify errors in their utterances. According to Lyster and Saito (2010), peer interaction extends a context where students make interactional attempts that are significantly conducive to second language development as peers' corrective feedback can be easily accepted and understood. Subsequently, correlational analyses conducted by Sato and Lyster (2012) showed that the occurrence of feedback delivered by peers was positively correlated with second language development scores derived between pre-tests and post-tests.

On the other hand, Sato and Lyster (2012) suggested that students who obtained coaching to deliver corrective feedback to their peers could help their peers to develop accuracy and fluency, while untutored ones were able to help their peers with fluency. Hence, students who lack proficiency are not suitable providers for corrective feedback. Students who have adequate grammatical knowledge build positive impacts on peers' language development.

Self-correction Self-correction is an alternative of corrector in corrective feedback which engages students to correct their errors. Students can activate their linguistic competence by integrating self-correction in language learning as it allows students to observe, notice and process their errors instead of getting help from teachers or peers. This is associated with Lyster's (2004) suggestion that prompting the learner to self-correct helps encourage second language acquisition. Therefore, Lyster (2004) suggested that students should be encouraged to self-correct through prompts rather than

recast as recast may be perceived by students as the message being communicated rather than a linguistic form of problem.

In terms of students' proficiency, Kaivanpanah et al. (2012) noted that more proficient students were likely to prefer the Elicitation type of feedback that needed self-correction, as it allows them to feel a sense of achievement and satisfaction. However, for students' self-correction, essential linguistic knowledge should be developed beforehand. Hence, self-correction is more possible for more proficient students.

2.7 Timing of Oral Corrective Feedback

The timing of oral corrective feedback had been a debated issue in the literature, and various approaches had been put forward by different scholars. Ellis (2009) summarized two types of feedback: immediate and delayed feedback.

Immediate feedback Immediate feedback is delivering feedback instantly after students' erroneous utterance (Ellis, 2009) by interrupting them. Immediate corrective feedback is regarded as facilitative of second language achievement as Mackey and Goo (2007) stated that corrective feedback works greatest when it is given at the moment when the student makes errors. Negotiating for meaning facilitates students to notice their errors and create corrections that eventually lead to second language development. Likewise, Henderson (2020) in his study on feedback timing indicate that immediate feedback maximizes learning opportunities. Moreover, some other scholars have stated that they were also in preference of immediate feedback (Doughty, 2001; Yoshida, 2008; Lee, 2013). Doughty (2001) claimed that effective feedback is immediate feedback and stressed that teachers should provide feedback immediately so that students can have the opportunity to compare the erroneous form with the correct one. Similarly, Scheffler (2008) suggested that corrective feedback did not inevitably interrupt the flow of

interaction as many students naturally expect corrections. However, Park (2010) argued that immediate feedback may affect a learner's willingness to speak as interruption occurs in between conversations and produces undesirable feelings among students which affects their motivation in language learning.

Delayed feedback Delayed feedback allows the student to complete what the student is trying to say before corrective feedback is given to them. The teacher takes notes on students' erroneous utterances and informs them later by focusing on how they should correct the errors. Some scholars have highlighted that delayed feedback can be more useful than the immediate feedback type (Nakata, 2014; Rolin-Lanziti, 2010). Unsal's (2020) study indicated that students prioritize withholding correction until they finished speaking and a relatively lower number of students indicated the need for correction during the conversation which is the immediate correction. Moreover, Park (2010) revealed that most of the teachers considered the most appropriate time to treat the errors was after the student had completed the communicative activities as it indicates that corrective feedback should be delayed in order to enable students to understand their errors naturally leading to self-repair. Additionally, Long (1996) indicated that delayed feedback is advantageous because it did not impede communication. Delayed feedback improved both accuracy and fluency since it permitted students to involve in communication without interruption. Hence, it produced active participation in the conversation. It also prevented students from losing willingness and confidence to speak in class. Similarly, Kaivanpanah et al. (2015) claimed that students who received delayed correction experience had less anxiety.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology of the study. As a mixed method design, a survey questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were carried out to identify oral corrective feedback preferences among lower secondary ESL students in a public secondary school. This chapter explains the research design, sampling method, data collection instruments, procedures of data collection, analysis, and validity of this study. Data for this study was obtained using questionnaires and semi-structured interviews.

3.2 Research Design

A mixed method of quantitative and qualitative approaches was used. This study comprised a quantitative survey questionnaire (Appendix B) and qualitative semi-structured interviews (Appendix C). The data was collected using the survey questionnaire aimed to obtain oral corrective feedback preferences among lower secondary ESL students while a semi-structured interview was used to explore some key issues apart from obtaining an in-depth understanding of students' preference for oral corrective feedback.

Richards and Schmidt (2010) defined questionnaires as "being used in many branches of applied linguistics, such as language surveys, the study of attitudes and motivation, and in needs analysis" (p.478). This approach was meant to allow the researcher to understand the wider picture of the survey outcome. Participants were asked to answer a set of 5 questions on demographic background and a set of 17 questions on preference for types of corrective feedback, choice of corrector, and timing of corrective

feedback. According to Dörnyei (2010), questionnaires work well when one intends to cover a few issues and find answers to different questions. Thus, by using questionnaires, one can address several issues.

The survey questions, for this study, were adapted from Park (2010). In her study, Park (2010) distributed questionnaires adapted from Fukuda (2004) to teachers and students to investigate teachers' and students' preferences for error correction. Two different sets of questionnaires were used in her study: one was a questionnaire for students, and the other was a questionnaire for teachers. The questionnaires consisted of questions investigating teachers' and students' perceptions of the necessity of error correction and frequency of error correction, types of errors that need to be corrected, preference for types of corrective feedback, preference for timing of corrective feedback, and preference for delivering agents of corrective feedback. The second section was designed to collect participants' demographic information.

Park's (2010) questionnaire for students was adapted for this study and to meet the purpose and research questions of the present study, some modifications and adaptations were made to the questionnaire. The wording of the directions for answering the questions was slightly changed, while some questions were simplified in terms of language from the original instrument to suit the research questions and in consideration of student's level of proficiency. The language is simplified in terms of sentence structure. In the first section of Park's (2010) questionnaire for students which included twenty-two questions, this study retained questions on types of corrective feedback, delivering agents of corrective feedback, and preferences for timing of corrective feedback questions. Meanwhile, questions on the necessity of error correction, frequency of error correction, and types of errors that need to be corrected were not adopted due to their irrelevancy to this study. On

the other hand, Park's (2010) demographic section was designed to collect participants' demographic information including their genders, native languages, the length of English learning, and students' proficiency levels. In this study, apart from gender and students' proficiency level, information on participants' age, language spoken at home, and school English language examination score was included. Participants' native languages and the length of English teaching and learning questions were not adapted as they were irrelevant to this study.

In addition, qualitative semi-structured interviews were further used as they allowed the researcher to obtain some in-depth understandings of the student's preferences. Semi-structured interviews were selected specifically to collect data as they allowed the students to share their experiences on oral corrective feedback terms. Additionally, semi-structured interviews allowed the researcher to investigate the students' preference on the research issues to be explicitly investigated as through the interviews the students' experiences, opinions, feelings, and knowledge could be directly quoted (Patton, 2002). The use of qualitative to understand better a phenomenon is also emphasised by Dörnyei (2001), as he stated that quantitative methods were generally less sensitive for uncovering the motivational dynamics involved in language learning than qualitative techniques. Likewise, Creswell (2009) mentioned that "qualitative research is means of exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem" (p. 232). Thus, the use of interviews along survey questionnaire would ease the researcher to comprehend the outcome of the survey. The semi-structured interview questions were designed based on the third research question. Semi-structured interview questions work as guidance for students in giving their opinions for their preferences on the use of oral corrective feedback. Interviewing students was one of the

best ways to obtain detailed information on their preferences because conducting interviews allowed students to voice their preferences and opinions on the use of oral corrective feedback.

3.3 Population and Sampling

The population of this study consisted of high proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and low proficiency lower secondary ESL students from a public secondary school in the Petaling District, Selangor. The selected participants were chosen from classes of Form 1 and 2. Participants were selected from the range of high proficiency level to low-intermediate proficiency level. The rationale for recruiting the participants who were at least low-intermediate proficiency level was to prevent them from incorrectly responding to the questions due to their limited comprehension skills. Participants were selected based on their school's mid-year and final year English Language examination scores. Standard examination scores set by the Ministry of Education was used to determine participants' proficiency level. High proficiency students' test scores ranged from 85-100 marks while intermediate proficiency students' test scores ranged from 60-69 marks. The low proficiency students' test scores ranged from 40-49 marks.

Firstly, in order to select the participants, mid-year and final-year English Language examination scores of Form1 and 2 students were collected from the school's examination board. Students' names were sorted according to their marks and the participants were identified from the sorted lists. High proficiency students were selected from classes 1 A, I B, 2 A, and 2 B. Meanwhile, intermediate proficiency students were chosen from classes 1 C, 1 D, 2 C, and 2 D. On the other hand, low proficiency students were grouped from classes 1 E, I F, 2 E, and 2 F. The names of the classes are under a

pseudonym to ensure anonymity. In total, 90 students were selected to participate in this study with 45 students each from Form 1 and 2, respectively.

The participants of this study, out of the selected 90 students, were divided into three proficiency groups with 30 high proficiency ESL students, 30 intermediate proficiency ESL students, and 30 low proficiency ESL students, consisted of males and females aged between 13 to 15 years old. The English Language is learned as a second language in Malaysia. For most of the participants, the formal lesson started in kindergarten at the age of six years old and another six years in primary school. Thus, these participants have at least seven years of experience in learning the English Language in schools. As for English lessons at school, these ESL students were currently learning English for three hours a week.

Out of the 90 selected participants, six participants were selected through purposive sampling for the semi-structured interviews as Creswell (2007) indicated that, "the research term used for qualitative sampling is purposeful sampling" (p.214). Each participant was selected based on their proficiency level. High proficiency interviewee's test scores ranged from 85-100 marks. Intermediate proficiency interviewees' test scores ranged from 60-69 marks. The low proficiency interviewees' test scores ranged from 40-49 marks. The selection of interview participants was made by the needs of the third purpose of this study which is to explore selected students' justification on types of corrective feedback, choice of correctors, and timings of corrective feedback. Interview participants were selected based on their proficiency level and response to the survey questionnaire. All the 90 participants' responses to the survey questionnaire were analysed and 6 interview participants were selected based on their response parallel to the survey results on the highest and lowest preference for OCF terms. Hence, two respondents were

selected from high proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and low proficiency, respectively. These six selected respondents were interviewed one-to-one.

3.4 Data Collection Procedure

Prior to data collection, the researcher requested approval from the school principal (Appendix A) for the students to participate in this study. Students from classes of Form 1 and 2 were selected as participants in this study. Data collection was conducted over two weeks. The questionnaire was administered to the students by the researcher in classrooms. Before signing the consent form, the students were informed that their participation was voluntary, and the survey was anonymous. Also, the student participants were informed that they were free to withdraw at any time and for any reason after signing the consent form. Each participant was allowed to read the consent form and then completed the consent form. After collecting all the students' consent forms, the researcher distributed the questionnaire. The students were asked to read the general instructions for the survey. Students were asked to answer the survey questionnaire. As for the low proficiency students', the researcher defined and explained some keywords in the questionnaire which tended to be misinterpreted by this group of students due to their limited proficiency. Questionnaires were collected after participants completed the survey.

3.5 Instrumentation

This study used a survey questionnaire (Appendix B), semi-structured interview (Appendix C) as data collection instruments.

Survey Questionnaire Quantitative method of data collection was done using a survey questionnaire. The survey questions were based on a 5-point Likert Scale which was 'Very Effective'=1, 'Effective'=2, 'Neutral'=3, 'Ineffective'=4, and 'Very Ineffective'=5

for questions about the students' preference for types of corrective feedback. In meantime, 'Strongly Agree'=1, 'Agree'=2, 'Neutral'=3, 'Disagree'=4, and 'Strongly Disagree'=5 was the 5-point Likert Scale for questions about the choice of corrective feedback provider and timing for corrective feedback. The questionnaire items were adapted from Park (2010). The survey questionnaire was simplified, in terms of its language, according to the requirements of this study and the English Language proficiency of the participants, in general, and was set in the English Language. It contained a total of 17 items. The participants were required to tick only one column for each question. The survey questionnaire was divided into three categories based on terms to discuss ESL students' preferences. First category consisted of six types of corrective feedback which were: Recast (item:1), Clarification request (item 2), Explicit feedback (item:3), Elicitation (item:4), Metalinguistic feedback (item:5), Repetition (item:6) and with addition of No correction (item:7). Second category consisted of choice of correctors: peers (items: 8,11), teachers (items: 9,12) and self-correction (items: 10, 13). The third category consisted of the timing of corrective feedback which was: immediate feedback (item: 14,15) and delayed feedback (item: 16,17).

Semi-structured Interviews One-to-one semi-structured interviews were conducted and ranged in length from eight to twelve minutes to complement the results from the questionnaire data. The interview was conducted in the English Language for ESL students. This interview involved six participants, with two respondents each from low proficiency, intermediate proficiency and high proficiency ESL students were selected. Each participant was randomly selected based on their proficiency level and response to the survey questionnaire. High proficiency students' test scores ranged from 80-100 marks. Intermediate proficiency students' test scores ranged from 56-79 marks.

The low proficiency students' test scores ranged from 35-55 marks. Therefore, two respondents were selected for high proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and low proficiency, respectively. In line with the third research objective, in-depth interviews were designed to discover the selected participants' responses to the questionnaire. The interviews were audiotaped for data analysis purposes.

3.6 Pilot Study

The pilot study of this research was done to test the reliability of the items in the questionnaire and to see what kind of modified output the survey would elicit from the participants. A test-retest reliability test was done for this pilot study. Test-Retest is a form of reliability that assesses the stability and precision of a construct across time. The calculation of test-retest reliability was straightforward. The same test was administrated on two occasions to the same individuals under the same conditions. This yielded two scores for each person and the correlation between these two sets of scores was the test-retest reliability coefficient. If scores from both administrations were highly correlated with stable scores, then evidence of test-retest reliability was assumed.

The pilot study was conducted prior to the present research with participants having similar criteria with those involved in the study. In this pilot study, the participants were chosen among Form 1-Form 3 students. 30 students volunteered to participate in this pilot test based on their knowledge of English and exposure to terms of oral corrective feedback. The pilot test participants were relatively homogenous in regard to demographics. Participants answered the same set of questionnaires twice with an interval of seven days. All measures were recorded on 5-point Likert scales anchored by Very Effective (1) to Very Ineffective (5) and Strongly Agree (1) to Strongly Disagree (5). Both survey data were analysed using Pearson Correlation analysis in SPSS.

Results of the Pearson Correlation indicated that there were significant positive associations between each term of corrective feedback variables' pretest and posttest (Appendix D). Recast pretest and posttest were found to be moderately positively correlated, r (28) = .573, p = .001. Explicit Feedback pretest and posttest showed positive correlation, r (28) = .734, p < .001. As for Elicitation, there was a positive correlation between pretest and posttest, r (28) = .595, p=.001. Metalinguistic Feedback was found to be positively correlated, r (28) = .765, p<.001. No Correction pretest and posttest showed moderate correlation, r (28) = .551, p=.002. As for Repetition, pretest and posttest revealed significant association, r (28) = .389, p .34. Clarification Request were found to be moderately positively correlated, r (28) = .432, p =.017.

Meanwhile, results of the Pearson correlation indicated that there were significant positive associations between the choice of corrector variables' pretest and posttest (Appendix D). As for the preference for classmates, there was a positive correlation between pretest and posttest, r (28) = .673, p<.001. Preference for self-correction pretest and posttest were positively correlated, r (28) = .770, p<.001. Preference for teacher pretest and posttest revealed insignificant association, r (28) = .351, p =.57. On the other side, for the item 'uneasy with classmates' feedback', there was a positive correlation between pretest and posttest, r (28) = .656, p<.001. Item 'uneasy with teacher's feedback' pretest and posttest moderately positively correlated, r (28) = .558, p=.001, while item 'Uneasy with self-correction' pretest and posttest showed positive correlation, r (28) =.442, p=.14.

On the other hand, results of the Pearson correlation indicated that there were significant positive associations between the timing of corrective feedback items' pretest and posttest (Appendix D). 'The moment error is made' timing pretest and posttest showed

positive correlation, r (28) = .496, p = .005. As for 'after talking' timing, there was an insignificant association between pretest and posttest, r (28) = .246, p=.190. 'After the activities' were found to be moderately positively correlated, r (28) = .668, p<.001. 'End of the lesson' timing showed a positive correlation between pretest and posttest, r (28) = .686, p<.001.

Based on the results of the pilot study, revisions and minor changes were made to two items; teacher preference and 'after talking' timing that tended to be problematic for the students were reworded to ensure that the questions were understood by all students. In the original questionnaire (Park, 2010), the item preference for teacher was worded as 'The following person should treat students' errors: Teacher' and it was modified to 'I prefer my teacher to correct my errors'. Next, the second item 'after talking' timing was originally worded as 'After I finish speaking'. It was reworded as 'After I finish talking'.

3.7 Data Analysis

The survey questionnaire was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22.0. Data was keyed in based on the variables and coding. A non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test was used to find significant differences between the variables. Kruskal-Wallis test was used to determine whether there were any statistically significant differences between the mean ranks of the three proficiency groups. As this study consisted of three groups of samples, the Kruskal-Wallis test was used to determine whether the three groups of students' preferences towards oral corrective feedback terms were statistically different from each other.

In addition, the one-way Kruskal-Wallis test compared the means between the groups and determined whether any of those means were statistically significantly different from each other. The null hypothesis for the Kruskal-Wallis test was that there

is no significant difference among the groups. The alternative hypothesis assumed that there is at least one significant difference among the groups. Specifically, it tested the null hypothesis (Ho). If, however, the Kruskal-Wallis test returned a statistically significant result, the alternative hypothesis (Ha) is accepted, which states that there are at least two group's means that are statistically significantly different from each other. At this point, it is important to realize that the Kruskal-Wallis test is an omnibus test statistic and does not show which specific groups were statistically significantly different from each other. Hence, to determine which specific groups differed from each other, and to explore the significance of differences between the means of the students in the three groups, Multiple Comparison (Post Hoc) analysis was used.

The SPSS software organised and presented the survey result in a systematic form, with the means and standard deviations representing the degree of students' preferences. Students' preferences were categorized into major themes and further interpreted according to the distribution of responses from the data. On the other hand, the audiotaped interviews were transcribed verbatim to enable data to answer research questions. The data was analysed according to the main themes in this study.

Data collection and analysis of the study were started by obtaining the university's consent letter and approval from the school principal. The survey questionnaire was distributed to 90 participants. Then interview questions were distributed to the selected six participants three days before the interview sessions. Interview sessions were done over one week. Finally, data analysis was done using SPSS (survey) and transcribed verbatim data (interviews).

3.8 Validity and Reliability

The content validity of the questionnaire used in this research was based on a sample from previous research done in this field (Park, 2010). The questionnaire from previous research was adjusted to suit the criteria and the scope of the study. The adapted and simplified questionnaires were accustomed to fit the need of the research questions. The reliability of this set of questionnaires was accepted to improve the validity of the survey.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

The findings obtained through analysing the participants' responses to the survey questionnaire and interview questions are presented in this chapter. Three research questions were to be addressed and explored in this chapter. The first section reports the findings that addressed the first research question (RQ1); the preferences of ESL students at different levels of proficiency in terms of oral corrective feedback. The second section reports the findings that addressed the second research question (RQ2); comparison in low proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and high proficiency ESL students' preference in terms of oral corrective feedback. The third section reports on qualitative data of the third research question (RQ3); Why do selected ESL students of different proficiency levels prefer certain types of oral corrective feedback, choice of correctors, and corrective feedback timing? The final section is the summary of this chapter.

4.2 The preferences of ESL students at different levels of proficiency in terms of oral corrective feedback

This section reports the survey data findings on RQ1: What are the preferences of lower secondary ESL students at different levels of proficiency in terms of oral corrective feedback? The first part of this section will address the descriptive statistical analysis on the preferences of ESL students in terms of types of oral corrective feedback, followed by the preferences of ESL students in terms of choice of correctors, and the third part on the preferences of ESL students in terms of timing of corrective feedback.

4.2.1 The preferences of ESL students at different levels of proficiency in terms of types of oral corrective feedback

The data for the preferences of lower secondary ESL students at different levels of proficiency in term of types of oral corrective feedback is derived from questionnaire items 1 (Recast), 2 (Clarification Request), 3 (Explicit Feedback), 4 (Elicitation), 5 (Metalinguistic Feedback), 6 (Repetition) and 7 (No Correction). Findings of each type of oral corrective feedback are reported individually.

Table 4.1

Distribution of Recast

	Recast					
Level	Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective	Total
Low	6	8	7	6	3	30
Intermediate	4	2	15	8	1	30
High	2	11	15	0	2	30
Total	12 (13.3%)	21 (23.3%)	37 (41.1%)	14 (15.6%)	6 (6.7%)	90 (100.0%)

Firstly, Table 4.1, shows the distribution of oral corrective feedback type Recast from the survey data. 37 students selected the scale 'Neutral' while 21 students selected 'Effective', and 12 students chose 'Very Effective' for recast type of oral corrective feedback. Meanwhile, 14 students selected 'Ineffective' while 6 students chose 'Very Ineffective'. Table 4.1 illustrates the highest percentage of the students, 41.1%, who chose the scale 'Neutral' for recast. On the other side, the lowest percentage of students, 6.7%, selected the scale 'Very Ineffective' for recast. In addition, the highest selected scale 'Neutral' was chosen by 15 high proficiency and intermediate proficiency students respectively, and 7 low proficiency students. As for the lowest selected scale 'Very

Ineffective', 3 low proficiency students, 2 high proficiency students, and 1 intermediate proficiency student opted for this scale.

Table 4.2

Distribution of Clarification Request

		Clarification Request					
Level		Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective	Total
	Low	2	7	16	4	1	30
	Intermediate	0	5	10	13	2	30
	High	1	4	12	13	0	30
Total		3 (3.3%)	16 (17.8%)	38 (42.2%)	30 (33.3%)	3 (3.3%)	90 (100.0%)

Table 4.2 shows the distribution of the oral corrective feedback type Clarification Request. Survey data shows 38 students selected the scale 'Neutral' while 30 students chose the scale 'Ineffective', and 3 students chose 'Very Ineffective' for clarification requests. On the other side, 3 students selected 'Very Effective' while 16 students chose 'Effective'. Table 4.2 indicates the highest number of students, 42.2%, chose the scale the 'Neutral' for clarification request while the lowest number of students, 3.3%, selected the scale 'Effective' and 'Very Ineffective' respectively. In addition, the highest selected scale 'Neutral' was chosen by 16 low proficiency students, 12 high proficiency students, and 10 intermediate proficiency students. On the other side, for the lowest selected scale 'Very Ineffective', 1 low proficiency student and 2 intermediate proficiency students selected this scale. As for the other lowest selected scale 'Very Effective', 2 low proficiency students and 1 high proficiency student selected this scale for clarification request type of oral corrective feedback.

Table 4.3

Distribution of Explicit Feedback

	Explicit Feedback					
Level	Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective	Total
Low	12	7	5	4	2	30
Intermediate	19	7	2	2	0	30
High	20	8	2	0	0	30
Total	51 (56.7%)	22 (24.2%)	9 (10.0%)	6 (6.7%)	2 (2.2%)	90 (100.0%)

Table 4.3 shows the distribution of oral corrective feedback type Explicit Feedback. 51 students selected the scale 'Very Effective' while 22 students chose the scale 'Effective' and 9 students chose 'Neutral' for explicit feedback. More than half of the participants chose the scale 'Very Effective' in which showed explicit feedback is the most preferred type of oral corrective feedback. On the other side, 6 students selected 'Ineffective' while 2 students chose 'Very Ineffective'. Table 4.3 reveals a high percentage of ESL students welcomed Explicit Feedback where the highest number of students, 56.7%, chose the scale 'Very Effective', while the lowest number of students, 2.2%, selected the scale 'Very Ineffective' for explicit feedback. In addition, the highest scale 'Very Effective' was selected by 12 low proficiency students, 19 intermediate proficiency students, and 20 high proficiency ESL students. As for the lowest selected scale 'Very Ineffective', 2 low proficiency students selected this scale for explicit feedback.

Table 4.4

Distribution of Elicitation

		Elicitation					
Level		Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective	Total
	Low	2	9	11	6	2	30
	Intermediate	1	2	6	12	9	30
	High	0	8	10	9	3	30
Total		3 (3.3%)	19 (21.1%)	27 (30.0%)	27 (30.0%)	14 (15.6%)	90 (100.0%)

Table 4.4 displays the distribution of oral corrective feedback type Elicitation. 27 students selected the scale 'Neutral' and 'Ineffective' each, while 14 students chose the scale 'Very Ineffective' for elicitation. On the other side, 3 students selected 'Very Effective' while 19 students chose 'Effective'. Survey data, in Table 4.4, shows showed that a high number of students, 30% selected the scales 'Neutral' and 'Ineffective' respectively for elicitation type of oral corrective feedback, while the lowest number of students, 3.3%, selected 'Very Effective'. In addition, as for the two highest selected scales, 'Neutral' and 'Ineffective', 'Neutral' was selected by 11 low proficiency students, 10 high proficiency students, and 6 intermediate proficiency students. Meanwhile, 12 intermediate proficiency students, 9 high proficiency students, and 6 low proficiency students selected the scale 'Ineffective'. As for the lowest selected scale 'Effective', 2 low proficiency students and 1 intermediate proficiency student selected this scale for elicitation.

Table 4.5

Distribution of Metalinguistic Feedback

Level		Metalinguistic Feedback					
		Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective	Total
	Low	8	13	6	1	2	30
	Intermediate	9	11	7	3	0	30
	High	12	11	6	1	0	30
Total		29 (32.2%)	35 (38.9%)	19 (21.1%)	5 (5.6%)	2 (2.2%)	90 (100.0%)

Table 4.5 shows the distribution of oral corrective feedback type Metalinguistic Feedback from the survey data. 35 students selected the scale 'Effective' while 29 students chose the scale 'Very Effective' for metalinguistic feedback. On the other side, 19 students selected the scale 'Neutral' while 5 students chose the scale 'Ineffective' and 2 students selected the scale 'Very Ineffective'. Table 4.5 shows a high number of students, 38.9%, selected the scale 'Effective' for metalinguistic feedback, while the lowest number of students, 2.2%, selected the scale 'Very Ineffective'. In addition, the highest scale 'Effective' for metalinguistic feedback type of oral corrective feedback was selected by the students by 13 low proficiency students, 11 high proficiency students, and 11 intermediate proficiency students, respectively. As for the lowest scale, 2 low proficiency students selected the scale 'Very Ineffective' for metalinguistic feedback.

Table 4.6

Distribution of Repetition

		Repetition					
Level		Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective	Total
	Low	1	12	11	5	1	30
	Intermediate	0	5	8	10	7	30
	High	2	5	12	6	5	30
Total		3 (3.3%)	22 (24.4%)	31 (34.4%)	21 (23.3%)	13 (14.4%)	90 (100.0%)

Table 4.6 shows the distribution of oral corrective feedback type Repetition from the survey data. 31 students selected the scale 'Neutral' while 22 students chose the scale 'Effective' and 3 students chose 'Very Effective' for repetition. On the other hand, 21 students chose 'Ineffective', and 13 students selected 'Very Ineffective'. Table 4.6 shows the highest number of students, 34.4%, selected the scale 'Neutral' for the repetition type of oral corrective feedback, and the lowest number of students, 3.3%, selected the scale 'Very Effective' for repetition. Overall, a high percentage of the 'Neutral' scale from ESL students indicated that repetition seems to be a type of feedback that students accepted moderately irrespective of their language proficiency. In addition, the highest scale 'Neutral' for Repetition was selected by 11 low proficiency students, 8 intermediate proficiency students, and 12 high proficiency students. As for the lowest scale 'Very Effective', 1 low proficiency student and 2 high proficiency students selected this scale for repetition.

Table 4.7

Distribution of No Correction

	No Correction					
Level	Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective	Total
Low	1	4	7	7	11	30
Intermediate	0	1	2	5	22	30
High	0	0	3	3	24	30
Total	1 (1.1%)	5 (5.6%)	12 (13.3%)	15 (16.7%)	57 (63.3%)	90 (100.0%)

Table 4.7 shows the distribution of No Correction, by which no oral corrective feedback was provided for students' spoken errors. No Correction is added as an item in the survey questionnaire to collect additional data on students' preference towards being provided oral corrective feedback in the classroom. Survey data revealed 57 students selected the scale 'Very Ineffective' while 15 students chose the scale 'Ineffective' and 12 students chose 'Neutral' for No Correction. On the other hand, only 4 LP students and 1 IP student chose the scale 'Effective', while 1 LP student selected the scale 'Very Effective'. Possibly reason for these students to prefer 'No Correction' could be due to anxiety from being corrected by peers or teachers in public which may cause humiliation and embarrassment in students especially the lower-proficiency students (Ölmezer-Öztürk & Öztürk, 2016). The data indicated that students welcome the use of oral corrective feedback for their spoken error as Table 4.7 shows the highest number of students, 63.3%, selected the scale 'Very Ineffective' for No Correction, while the lowest scale selected for No Correction was 'Very Effective' with 1.1% students. In addition, the highest scale 'Very Ineffective' was selected by 11 low proficiency students, 22 intermediate proficiency students, and 24 high proficiency students. In total, 57 students selected 'Very Ineffective' for No Correction by which revealed that the students preferred to have oral corrective

feedback for their erroneous utterances. As for the lowest scale 'Very Effective', only 1 low proficiency student selected this scale for No Correction.

Table 4.8

Students' Preference of Oral Corrective Feedback Types

Types of Oral CF	Mean ratings[a]			
	LP Students N=30	IP Students N=30	HP Students N=30	Total Average
1. Recast	2.73	3.00	2.63	2.79
2. Clarification Request	2.83	3.40	3.23	3.16
3. Explicit Feedback	2.23	1.57	1.40	1.73
4. Elicitation	2.90	3.87	3.23	3.33
5. Metalinguistic Feedback	2.20	2.13	1.87	2.07
6. Repetition	2.77	3.63	3.23	3.21

[a]Very Effective = 1; Effective =2; Neutral =3; Ineffective =4; Very Ineffective =5

In addition to the descriptive findings for the distribution of oral corrective feedback types, Table 4.8 shows mean ratings for students' preference of oral corrective feedback types. Mean ratings revealed that Explicit Feedback (average mean score = 1.73) was the most preferred type of oral corrective feedback between the three proficiency groups of students. As for within the group preference, data indicated similar results as Explicit Feedback was the most favoured type of oral corrective feedback for intermediate proficiency students (mean=1.57) and high proficiency students (mean=1.40), while low proficiency students' preference showed Explicit Feedback (mean=2.23) at second position. There was an exception in LP students' preference as they preferred Metalinguistic Feedback (mean=2.20) compared to Explicit Feedback (mean=2.23).

On contrary, Elicitation (average mean score = 3.33) is found to be the least preferred type of oral corrective feedback between the three proficiency groups of students. As for within the group preference, data indicated that the low proficiency

students (mean=2.90) and intermediate proficiency students (mean=3.87) tended to least favour the Elicitation type compared to other types of oral corrective feedback. In contrast, there was an exception in HP students' preference as data revealed that the least preferred Clarification Request (mean=3.23) and Repetition (mean=3.23) along with Elicitation (mean=3.23). Therefore, HP students least preferred three types of OCF.

4.2.2 The preferences of ESL students at different levels of proficiency in terms of choice of corrector

This section reports the findings for the preferences of lower secondary ESL students at different levels of proficiency in terms of choice of correctors of oral corrective feedback. The data was derived from questionnaire item 8 (classmates), item 9 (teacher), and item 10 (self-correction). The findings of each choice of correctors are reported individually.

Table 4.9

Distribution of Prefer Classmates

	Prefer Classmates					
Level	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Low	7	11	9	3	0	30
Intermediate	3	10	13	3	1	30
High	2	16	8	2	2	30
Total	12 (13.3%)	37 (41.1%)	30 (33.3%)	8 (8.9%)	3 (3.3%)	90 (100.0%)

Table 4.9 shows the distribution of classmates as the choice of corrector. Survey data showed 37 students selected the scale 'Agree' while 30 students chose the scale 'Neutral' and 12 students chose 'Very Effective' for classmate as their choice of corrector. On the other hand, 8 students chose 'Disagree' and 3 students selected 'Strongly Disagree'

for classmates. Students indicated a moderate acceptance of classmates as a source of feedback, in which, table 4.9 shows the scale 'Agree' was the highest selection by students with 41.1% for classmates as the choice of corrector while the lowest selection was the scale 'Strongly Disagree' with 3.3% students selecting this scale. In addition, the highest scale 'Agree' was selected by 11 low proficiency students, 10 intermediate proficiency students, and 16 high proficiency students, while the lowest scale 'Strongly Disagree' was chosen by 1 intermediate proficiency student and 2 high proficiency students for classmates as the choice of corrector.

Table 4.10

Distribution of Prefer Teacher

		Prefer Teacher				
Level		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Total
	Low	12	13	4	1	30
	Intermediate	15	11	3	1	30
	High	12	11	6	1	30
Total		39 (43.3%)	35 (38.9%)	13 (14.4%)	3 (3.3%)	90 (100.0%)

Table 4.10 shows the distribution for teachers as the choice of corrector. Survey data showed 39 students selected the scale 'Strongly Agree' while 35 students chose the scale 'Agree' and 13 students chose the scale 'Neutral' for the teacher as their choice of corrector. On the other side, 3 students chose the scale 'Disagree'. Table 4.10 illustrates that the highest number of students, 43.3%, chose the scale 'Strongly Agree' for the teacher as their choice of corrector, while the lowest number of students, 3.3%, selected the scale 'Disagree'. In addition, the highest scale 'Strongly Agree' was selected by 12 low proficiency students, 15 intermediate proficiency students, and 12 high proficiency

students. On the other hand, for the lowest scale 'Disagree', 1 student from low proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and high proficiency each selected this scale for the teacher as the choice of corrector. Hence, survey data indicated that all three proficiency group students preferred teachers to be correctors irrespective of their language proficiency.

Table 4.11

Distribution of Prefer Self-Correction

		Prefer Self-Correction					
Level		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
	Low	3	4	12	7	4	30
	Intermediate	6	3	13	7	1	30
	High	8	4	15	3	0	30
Total		17 (18.9%)	11 (12.2%)	40 (44.4%)	17 (18.9%)	5 (5.6%)	90 (100.0%)

Table 4.11 shows the distribution for Self-Correction as the choice of corrector. Survey data revealed 40 students selected the scale 'Neutral' while 17 students chose the scale 'Strongly Agree' and 11 students chose 'Agree' for self-correction as their choice of corrector. On the other hand, 17 students chose 'Disagree' and 5 students selected 'Strongly Disagree'. Data findings showed that students indicated a moderate acceptance of self-correction as a source of feedback as Table 4.11 illustrates the highest number of students, 44.4% chose the scale 'Neutral' for self-correction, while the lowest number of students,5.6%, selected the scale 'Strongly Disagree' for self-correction. In addition, the scale 'Neutral' was selected by 12 low proficiency students, 13 intermediate proficiency students, and 15 high proficiency students for self-correction. On the other hand, as for the lowest scale 'Strongly Disagree', 4 low proficiency students and 1 intermediate student selected this scale for self-correction.

Table 4.12

Students' Preference of Choice of Corrector

Choice of Corrector	Mean ratings[a]			
	LP Students N=30	IP Students N=30	HP Students N=30	Total Average
1. I prefer my classmates to correct my errors.	2.27	2.23	2.53	2.48
2. I prefer my teacher to correct my errors.	1.80	1.67	1.87	1.78
3. I prefer to correct my own errors.	3.17	2.80	2.43	2.80

[a]Strongly Agree =1; Agree =2; Neutral =3; Disagree =4; Strongly Disagree=5

In addition to the descriptive findings for the distribution of choice of correctors, Table 4.12 shows mean ratings for students' preference for choice of correctors. Mean ratings revealed students' high preference for teachers (average mean score = 1.78) as a corrector. As for within the group preference, data revealed similar results as low proficiency students (mean=1.80), intermediate proficiency students(mean=1.67), and high proficiency students(mean=1.87) tended to prefer teacher correction the most irrespective of their proficiency level. On contrary, students least preferred self-correction (average mean score=2.80). As for within the group preference, data revealed similar results for two of the proficiency groups of students, low proficiency students (mean=3.17) and intermediate proficiency students (mean=2.80). Meanwhile, the high proficiency students preferred themselves as self-correctors (mean=2.43) rather than their classmates (mean=2.53) for their spoken errors. Thus, there was an exception in HP students' preference for the least preferred choice of correctors.

4.2.3 The preferences of ESL students at different levels of proficiency in terms of timing of corrective feedback

This section reports the findings of the preferences of lower secondary ESL students at different levels of proficiency in terms of the timing of oral corrective feedback. The data derived from questionnaire item 14 (the moment error is made), item 15 (after talking), item 16 (after the activities), and item 17 (at the end of the lesson). Findings of each timing of oral corrective feedback are reported individually.

Table 4.13

Distribution of 'Moment Error is Made' Timing

	Moment Error Made					
Level	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Low	8	11	8	2	1	30
Intermediate	1	16	9	4	0	30
High	1	11	11	6	1	30
Total	10 (11.1%)	38 (42.2%)	28 (31.1%)	12 (13.3%)	2 (2.2%)	90 (100.0%)

Table 4.13 shows the distribution of oral corrective feedback timing for 'Moment Error is Made' timing. Survey data showed 38 students selected the scale 'Agree' while 10 students chose 'Strongly Agree' and 28 students chose the scale 'Neutral' for 'Moment Error is Made' as their choice of timing. On the other hand, 12 students chose the scale 'Disagree' and 2 students selected 'Strongly Disagree'. Table 4.13 indicates the highest number of students, 42.2%, chose the scale 'Agree' while the lowest number of students, 2.2%, chose the scale 'Strongly Disagree' for 'Moment Error is Made' feedback timing. In addition, the highest scale 'Agree' was chosen by 11 low proficiency students, 16 intermediate proficiency students, and 11 high proficiency students. As for the lowest

scale 'Strongly Disagree', 1 low proficiency student and 1 high proficiency student selected this scale for 'Moment Error is Made' timing.

Table 4.14

Distribution of 'After Talking' Timing

Level		After Talking					
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
	Low	4	12	13	1	0	30
	Intermediate	8	6	12	4	0	30
	High	11	12	5	2	0	30
Total		23 (25.6%)	30 (33.3%)	30 (33.3%)	7 (7.8%)	0 (0.0%)	90 (100.0%)

Table 4.14 shows the distribution of oral corrective feedback timing for 'After Talking' timing. Survey data revealed 30 students selected the scale 'Agree' and 'Neutral' respectively, while 23 students chose the scale 'Strongly Agree' and 7 students chose the scale 'Disagree' for 'After Talking' as their choice of timing. Table 4.14 shows the highest number of students,33.3%, chose the scale 'Agree' and 'Neutral' respectively while the lowest number of students,7.8%, selected the scale 'Disagree' for 'After Talking' timing. In addition, the scale 'Agree' was selected by 12 low proficiency students, 6 intermediate proficiency students, and 12 high proficiency students, meanwhile, the scale 'Neutral' was selected by 13 low proficiency students, 12 intermediate proficiency students, and 5 high proficiency students. As for the lowest selected scale 'Disagree', 1 low proficiency student, 4 intermediate proficiency students, and 2 high proficiency students chose this scale for 'After Talking' timing.

Table 4.15

Distribution of 'After Activities' Timing

Level		After Activities					Total
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	
	Low	3	12	5	9	1	30
	Intermediate	1	8	9	8	4	30
	High	1	2	10	13	4	30
Total		5 (5.6%)	22 (24.4%)	24 (26.7%)	30 (33.3%)	9 (10.0%)	90 (100.0%)

Table 4.15 shows the distribution of oral corrective feedback timing for 'After Activities'. Survey data showed 30 students selected the scale 'Disagree' while 24 students chose the scale 'Neutral' and 9 students selected 'Strongly Disagree' for 'After Activities' as their choice of timing. On the other hand, 22 students chose the scale 'Agree' and 5 students selected the scale 'Strongly Agree'. Table 4.16 reveals the highest number of students, 33.3%, chose the scale 'Disagree' while the lowest number of students, 5.6%, selected the scale 'Strongly Agree' for 'After Activities' timing. In addition, the highest scale 'Agree' was selected by 9 low proficiency students, 8 intermediate proficiency students, and 13 high proficiency students, meanwhile, for the lowest selected scale 'Strongly Agree', 3 low proficiency students, 1 intermediate proficiency student, and 1 high proficiency student selected this scale for 'After Activities' timing.

Table 4.16

Distribution of 'End of the Lesson' Timing

Level	End of the Lesson					
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Low	6	2	5	11	6	30
Intermediate	2	4	5	9	10	30
High	1	4	3	10	12	30
Total	9 (10.0%)	10 (11.1%)	13 (14.4%)	30 (33.3%)	28 (31.1%)	90 (100.0%)

Table 4.16 shows the distribution of oral corrective feedback timing for 'End of the Lesson'. Survey data revealed 30 students selected the scale 'Disagree' while 28 students chose the scale 'Strongly Disagree'. On the other side, 13 students chose the scale 'Neutral' while 10 students chose the scale 'Agree' and 9 students selected the scale 'Strongly Agree'. Table 4.16 shows the highest number of students, 33.3%, chose the scale 'Disagree' while the lowest number of students, 10%, chose the scale 'Strongly Agree' for 'End of the Lesson' timing. In addition, the highest scale 'Disagree' was selected by 11 low proficiency students, 9 intermediate proficiency students, and 10 high proficiency students. As for the lowest selected scale 'Strongly Agree', 6 low proficiency students, 2 intermediate proficiency students, and 1 high proficiency student chose this scale for 'End of the Lesson' timing.

Table 4.17

Students' Preference of Oral Corrective Feedback Timing

Oral Corrective Feedback Timing	Mean ratings[a]			
	LP Students N=30	IP Students N=30	HP Students N=30	Total Average
14. The moment I make an error even if it interrupts my conversation.	2.23	2.53	2.83	2.53
15. After I finish talking	2.37	2.40	1.93	2.23
16. After the activities are done	2.77	3.20	3.57	3.18
17. At the end of the lesson	3.30	3.70	3.93	3.64

[a]Strongly Agree =1; Agree =2; Neutral =3; Disagree =4; Strongly Disagree=5

In addition to the descriptive findings for the distribution of oral corrective feedback timing, Table 4.17 shows mean ratings for students' preference for corrective feedback timing. Mean ratings revealed students' high preference for 'After Talking' timing (average mean score = 2.23). As for within the group preference, data revealed intermediate proficiency students(mean=2.40) and high proficiency students(mean=1.87) tend to prefer the 'After Talking' timing the most irrespective of their proficiency level while low proficiency students favoured 'Moment Error is Made' timing (mean=2.23) rather than 'After Talking' timing (mean=2.37). Thus, there was an exception in LP students for the most favoured corrective feedback timing. On the other hand, students least preferred 'End of the Lesson' (average mean score=3.64). As for within the group preference, data revealed that all three proficiency groups students, low proficiency students (mean=3.30), intermediate proficiency students (mean=3.70), and high

proficiency students (mean=3.64), least preferred delayed feedback 'End of the Lesson' for their spoken errors.

4.2.4 Summary

As for Research Q1, to identify the preferences of ESL students at different levels of proficiency in terms of oral corrective feedback, questionnaire data findings indicated that the highest number of the students preferred oral corrective feedback Explicit Feedback type. Explicit Feedback's average mean score=1.73 revealed that participant students preferred Explicit Feedback the most for their erroneous utterances. As for within the group, there was an exception in LP students' preference as they preferred Metalinguistic Feedback (mean=2.20) compared to Explicit Feedback (mean=2.23). Meanwhile, as for the least preferred oral corrective feedback type, the highest number of students selected the Elicitation type of oral corrective feedback. Elicitation's average mean score=3.33, showed that students least preferred Elicitation type. In contrast, there was an exception in HP students' preference as data revealed that they least preferred Clarification Request (mean=3.23) and Repetition (mean=3.23) along with Elicitation (mean=3.23).

Next, for the choice of corrector in oral corrective feedback, survey data showed the highest number of students preferred teachers the most. Survey data revealed a strong preference for teachers as their choice of corrector with an average mean score of 1.78. Therefore, students favoured teachers the most as their source of oral corrective feedback providers irrespective of their proficiency level. On the other hand, the highest number of students chose self-correction as their least preferred choice of corrector, with an average mean score=2.80. On contrary, high proficiency students preferred themselves as self-correctors (mean=2.43) rather than their classmates (mean=2.53) for their spoken errors.

Thus, there was an exception in HP students' preference for the least preferred choice of correctors.

Regardless of their proficiency level, survey data showed that the highest number of students had a higher preference towards immediate feedback; 'Moment Error is Made' (average mean score = 2.53) and 'After Talking'(average mean score = 2.23). Hence, the students welcomed immediate feedback, in which, HP and IP students showed preference towards 'After Talking' timing while LP students preferred 'Moment Error is Made' timing. On contrary, the survey data showed the highest number of students least preferred delayed feedback; 'After the Activities' timing (average mean score = 3.18) and 'End of the Lesson' timing (average mean score = 3.64).

4.3 Comparison between low proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and high proficiency ESL students' preferences in terms of oral corrective feedback

The following section, the second section, will report on findings for RQ2 on significant differences in LP, IP, and HP ESL students' preference in terms of oral corrective feedback. The terms of oral corrective feedback comprise three parts: six types of oral corrective feedback, three choices of correctors, and two timings of corrective feedback. Findings of each term of oral corrective feedback are reported individually.

4.3.1 Comparison between low proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and high proficiency ESL students' preferences in terms of types of oral corrective feedback

Firstly, the Kruskal-Wallis test is used to find a significant difference in LP, IP, and HP ESL students' preference for types of oral corrective feedback. All six types of corrective feedback: recast, clarification request, explicit feedback, elicitation,

metalinguistic feedback, and repetition, are analysed. No correction is also added to the analysis.

Table 4.18

Mean Rank for Types of Oral Corrective Feedback

	Level	N	Mean Rank
Recast, Clarification Request, Explicit feedback, Elicitation, Metalinguistic Feedback, Repetition, No Correction	Low	30	36.85
	Intermediate	30	56.50
	High	30	43.15
	Total	90	

Table 4.18 shows the mean rank between low proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and high proficiency students for types of oral corrective feedback. Low proficiency students' mean rank is 36.85 while intermediate proficiency students' mean rank is 56.50 and high proficiency students' mean rank is 43.15.

Table 4.19

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Types of Corrective Feedback

	Recast, Clarification Request, Explicit feedback, Elicitation, Metalinguistic Feedback, Repetition, No Correction
Chi-Square	8.930
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.012

Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to examine the significant difference in types of oral corrective feedback between the three levels of the ESL students' proficiency. In table 4.19, test findings revealed a statistically significant difference for oral corrective feedback types. The value of H (2) is 8.930, which reached significance with a *p*-value of .012. Therefore, there was a statistically significant difference between the different levels of the ESL students' proficiency variable for types of oral corrective feedback: recast, clarification request, explicit feedback, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, repetition, and no correction. Kruskal-Wallis test showed there was a statistically significant difference in types of oral corrective feedback between the three different proficiency levels of students, H (2) = 8.930, p= .002, with a mean rank type of oral corrective feedbacks of 36.85 for low proficiency students, 56.50 for intermediate proficiency students and 43.15 for high proficiency students. As the p-value is less than the significance level of 0.05, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Table 4.20

Pairwise Comparison for Types of Oral Corrective Feedback

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.
Low- High	-6.300	6.715	-.938	.348	1.000
Low-Intermediate	-19.650	6.715	-2.926	.003	.010
High-Intermediate	13.350	6.715	1.988	.047	.140

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

In table 4.20, the pairwise comparison showed that it is only the difference between the LP and IP ESL students' groups that reached significance for types of oral corrective feedback. The *p*-value is .010, which is less than the standard .05 alpha level. Thus, the Kruskal-Wallis test demonstrated a statistically significant difference between groups, (H (2) = 8.930, *p*= .002), for oral corrective feedback types. Pairwise comparison showed a statistically significant difference between the IP ESL and the LP ESL students' groups (*p* = .010). On the contrary, there was no statistically significant difference between the LP ESL and HP ESL students' groups (p= 1.000) or between the IP ESL and HP ESL students' groups (*p = .140)* for preference of oral corrective feedback types.

4.3.2 Comparison between low proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and High proficiency ESL students' preferences in terms of choice of corrector

Next, the Kruskal-Wallis test is used to find a significant difference in LP, IP, and HP ESL students' preference for the choice of corrector. Choices of corrector: classmates, teachers, and self-correction will be analysed.

Table 4.21

Mean Rank for Choice of Correctors

	Level	N	Mean Rank
Prefer Classmates, Prefer Teacher, Prefer Self Correction	Low	30	47.87
	Intermediate	30	47.47
	High	30	41.17
	Total	90	

Table 4.21 shows the mean rank between low proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and high proficiency students for the choice of correctors. Low proficiency students' mean rank is 47.87 while intermediate proficiency students' mean rank is 47.47 and high proficiency students' mean rank is 41.17.

Table 4.22

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Choice of Corrector

	Prefer Classmates, Prefer Teacher, Prefer Self-Correction
Chi-Square	1.313
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.519

Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to examine the significant difference in choice of corrector between the three levels of the ESL students' proficiency. In table 4.22, test findings showed an insignificant result for the choice of corrector. The value of chi-square is 1.313, which does not reach significance with a *p*-value of .519. Therefore, there was no statistically significant difference between the different levels of the ESL students' proficiency variable for choice of correctors: classmates, teachers, and self-correction. Kruskal-Wallis test displayed there was no statistically significant difference in choice of correctors between the three different proficiency levels of students, H (2) = 1.313, p= .519, with a mean rank for choice of correctors of 47.87 for low proficiency students, 47.47 for intermediate proficiency students and 41.17 for high proficiency students. As the *p*-value is more than the significance level of 0.05, the null hypothesis is retained.

4.3.3 Comparison between low proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and high proficiency ESL students' preferences in terms of timing of corrective feedback

Thirdly, the Kruskal-Wallis test is used to find a significant difference in LP, IP, and HP ESL students' preferences for oral corrective feedback timing. Two timings of corrective feedback: Immediate feedback and Delayed Feedback are analysed. Immediate Feedback consists of: 'the moment error is made' and 'after finish talking' while Delayed Feedback consists of: 'after the activities', and 'at the end of the lesson'.

Table 4.23

Mean Rank of Immediate feedback

	Level	N	Mean Rank
Moment Error Made, After Talking	Low	30	42.40
	Intermediate	30	49.42
	High	30	44.68
	Total	90	

Table 4.23 shows the mean rank between low proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and high proficiency students for immediate feedback. Low proficiency students' mean rank is 42.40 while intermediate proficiency students' mean rank is 49.42 and high proficiency students' mean rank is 44.68.

Table 4.24

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Immediate feedback

	Moment Error Made, After Talking
Chi-Square	1.219
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.544

Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to examine the significant difference in Immediate feedback between the three levels of the ESL students' proficiency. In table 4.24, test findings showed an insignificant result for Immediate feedback. The value of chi-square is 1.219, which does not reach significance with a *p*-value of .544. Hence, there was no statistically significant difference between the different levels of the ESL students' proficiency variable for immediate feedback: 'the moment error is made' and 'after finish talking'. Kruskal-Wallis test demonstrated no statistically significant difference in choice of correctors between the three different proficiency levels of students, H (2) = 1.219, p= .544, with a mean rank for choice of correctors of 42.40 for low proficiency students, 49.42 for intermediate proficiency students and 44.68 for high proficiency students. As the p-value is more than the significance level of 0.05, the null hypothesis is retained.

Table 4.25

Mean Rank of Delayed Feedback

	Level	N	Mean Rank
After Activities, End of the lesson	Low	30	37.10
	Intermediate	30	45.60
	High	30	53.80
	Total	90	

As for delayed feedback, Table 4.25 shows the mean rank between low proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and high proficiency students for delayed feedback. Low proficiency students' mean rank is 37.10 while intermediate proficiency students' mean rank is 45.60 and high proficiency students' mean rank is 53.80.

Table 4.26

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Delayed Feedback

	After Activities, End of the lesson
Chi-Square	6.275
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.043

Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to examine the significant difference in delayed feedback between the three levels of the ESL students' proficiency. In table 4.26, test findings revealed a statistically significant difference for oral corrective feedback types. The value of chi-square is 6.275, which reaches significance with a *p*-value of .043. Therefore, there was a statistically significant difference between the different levels of

the ESL students' proficiency variable for Delayed Feedback: 'after the activities', and 'at the end of the lesson'. Kruskal-Wallis test showed a statistically significant difference in delayed feedback between the three different proficiency levels of students, H (2) = 6.275, p = .043, with a mean rank delayed feedback of 36.85 for low proficiency students, 45.60 for intermediate proficiency students, and 53.80 for high proficiency students. As the p-value is less than the significance level of 0.05, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Table 4.27

Pairwise Comparisons of Delayed Feedback

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.
Low-Intermediate	-8.500	6.667	-1.275	.202	.607
Low- High	-16.700	6.667	-2.505	.012	.037
Intermediate- High	-8.200	6.667	-1.230	.219	.656

Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

In table 4.27, the pairwise comparison showed that it is only the difference between the LP and HP ESL students' groups that reached significance for delayed feedback. The *p*-value is .037, which is less than the standard .05 alpha level. Therefore, there was a statistically significant difference between groups as demonstrated by the Kruskal-Wallis test (H (2) = 6.275, p= .043) for delayed feedback. Pairwise comparison showed a statistically significant difference between the LP ESL and the HP ESL students' groups (p = .037). On the contrary, there was no statistically significant difference between the LP ESL and IP ESL students' groups (p= .607) or between the IP ESL and HP ESL students' groups (p = .656) for delayed feedback.

4.3.4 Summary

There were two statistically significant differences between the three proficiency groups of ESL students. First, for oral corrective feedback types, the Kruskal-Wallis test showed a statistically significant difference between the LP ESL and IP ESL students for types of oral corrective feedback. As for the choice of correctors, there was no statistically significant difference between the three proficiency groups of ESL students. On the other hand, there was a statistically significant difference between LP ESL and HP ESL groups for delayed feedback timing: 'after talking' and 'at the end of the lesson' but there was no statistically significant difference between the three proficiency groups of ESL students for immediate feedback: 'the moment error is made' and 'after the activities'. As a conclusion, statistically significant differences between the three proficiency groups of ESL students were found in preference for types of oral corrective feedback and delayed feedback timing.

4.4 Why do selected ESL students of different proficiency levels prefer certain type of oral corrective feedback, choice of corrector, and corrective feedback timing?

The following section, the third section, will report on interview data for RQ3; to explore how ESL students' levels of different proficiency influence students' preferences in terms of oral corrective feedback. Students were interviewed one-to-one to obtain information about their preferences in terms of oral corrective feedback. Data analysis is done based on themes emerging from the interviews. In the interview extract, students' proficiency level was indicated as 'HP' for high proficiency, 'IP' for intermediate proficiency, and 'LP'

for low proficiency, 'S' for student and 'L' for line in the interview transcription text for each student. (Appendix E)

4.4.1 Why do selected ESL students of different proficiency levels prefer certain type of oral corrective feedback?

Six students were interviewed, using interview protocol (Appendix C) and the following themes emerged from the analysis of interviews on types of oral corrective feedback.

Students' have a better understanding of erroneous utterances corrected by the teacher.

Considering the interviews, all the six students of different proficiency levels preferred Explicit Feedback compared to other types of oral corrective feedback. This finding is similar to survey data results which showed a high percentage of LP, IP, and HP ESL students tended to favour Explicit Feedback. Four of the interviewees (one HP, two IP, and one LP) pointed out that when their teachers indicated their errors, it enabled them to recognize their errors and correct them without much guesswork. The interviewees pointed out that via Explicit Feedback, they could get the best and most accurate answers from their teachers, and they felt they were learning something straightforwardly. Furthermore, they could correct their errors quickly and directly. Consequently, they could save a lot of time in identifying their errors and mistakes. Hence, students gave good reviews towards the use of Explicit Feedback in correcting their spoken errors. The excerpts below evidently show that students felt that they understand better and can correct their spoken errors via Explicit Feedback.

> I think this is very effective for me as the teacher is giving a direct approach that I will understand better.....
>
> (HP, S1, L58-59)

> Yes, because the teacher is quite clear on what the answer is and she.. and she's explaining it quite well.
>
> (IP, S2, L52-53)

> Explicit feedback is good for me ....um.... because that..ah... the teacher say we, we don't say go, you should say went.
>
> (IP, S1, L50-51)

> If teacher straightaway tell us the answer so that we can understand and we can know what we did wrong. Because I know when did I speak wrong and where should I correct it.
>
> (LP, S2, L52-53, L57)

As their teacher indicated their utterance errors, they could effortlessly understand what type of errors and mistakes they made, where they went wrong, and how they had to correct their errors. Students feel confident towards their teachers and they wish for more opportunities to have the teacher correct their errors explicitly and instantaneously. Students felt they could correct errors with their teachers' explicit indication of their errors.

Students feel comfortable with Explicit Feedback.

This could be due to Explicit Feedback's straightforward nature which makes students feel comfortable with the direct approach. Three interviewees (2 HP and one LP) asserted that Explicit Feedback obviously allows them to know their spoken error and does not mislead them as they are comfortable with the input. Conversely, the students undoubtedly revealed the effectiveness of Explicit feedback that is a direct explanation, thus, students

could keep hold of the input longer. Below are the excerpts that show students feel comfortable with the use of Explicit Feedback.

> I think this is very effective for me as the teacher is giving a direct approach that I will understand better, and I'll understand..um.. clearer and faster as well. And you won't take that much of time for me to think things through, but to understanding the best way as possible.
>
> (HP, S1, L58-61)

> I think explicit feedback is very effective because the teacher says.... says the actual correct answer and corrects them and it makes me feel comfortable. Yes, it's very effective.
>
> (HP, S2, L49-50, L52)

> ...feel better because teacher will say....er...teacher you're able to find the answer...yeah.
>
> (LP, S1, L66, L72)

HP ESL students agreed that teachers should correct students' spoken errors and they welcomed detailed explanations from the teacher to understand the grammatical errors they made. Likewise, students acknowledged that Explicit Feedback was the most effective and successful method to enhance their oral skills and proficiency. Students believe, through Explicit Feedback, they could correct their errors promptly and immediately. Thus, they highlighted that they may possibly save a lot of time in realizing their errors and mistakes.

As for the least preferred OCF, in line with survey data, interview findings revealed Elicitation type as the least preferred type of oral corrective feedback among HP,

IP, and LP ESL students. One common theme emerged from the students' interview transcription pertaining to Elicitation.

Students are uncertain of the answers via Elicitation.

Three interviewees (one HP, one IP, and one LP) claimed that they felt uncertain of the inputs from the Elicitation type. Students claimed that Elicitation was vague and unclear corrections since they could not identify what their errors and mistakes were. Below are the excerpts of the students' reasons for Elicitation being their least preferable choice of corrective feedback.

> I may be able to, sometimes I may or sometimes I may not,.....
>
> (HP, S2, L60)
>
> It's good enough, but...er... not good enough for me. Because..ah... usually people didn't realize the.... the thing wrong or anything.
>
> (IP, S1, L59, L61)
>
> I think teacher like asking the same question, but I still say I go to party yesterday.
>
> (LP, S1, L77-78)

These students emphasised that Elicitation made it challenging to understand the teachers' intentions and the purposes of their requests. Hence, they were confused about how to respond to the teachers' Elicitation feedback. The interview data disclosed that the HP ESL student had difficulties in countering Elicitation as she was uncertain about her errors and this made the student feel uncomfortable. On the other hand, the indirect approach of Elicitation had created ambiguity for IP ESL students to identify the errors. Hence, it caused the incompetence to modify the erroneous made. Meanwhile, the LP ESL student failed to identify his errors through Elicitation because of difficulty to figure out

the grammatical errors due to the inability to comprehend what the teacher had said. Hence, elicitation might be confusing for the low proficiency students. Consequently, students feel Elicitation was not effective in enhancing their speaking in English.

4.4.2 Why do selected ESL students of different proficiency levels prefer certain choice of corrector?

Six students were interviewed to elicit information about their preferences for the choice of correctors. Students expressed their preference towards the teacher and least preferred self-correction. The following interview analysis shows the recurring themes and reasons for why the students most preferred the teacher.

Students are confident towards the teacher.

The interview data revealed that all the six interviewees (two HP, two IP, and two LP) expressed their preference towards teachers as their source of oral corrective feedback in classes. Findings of the interview data indicated similarity with the statistical results presented by the survey questionnaire as a high percentage of the students preferred the teacher. Below are the excerpts of the students' preferences for teachers as a corrector.

> I think the teachers are the most preferable person for me to seek to help
>
> (HP, S1, L16)

> I prefer if it's the teacher because...um... I may not know if... if I self-correct I may not know if I'm correct. And if my friend corrects me, I may not know if it's right or wrong. Um.... I'm okay with that I feel is for the best. So, I'm... I prefer it when teacher corrects me.
>
> (HP, S2, L16-18, L21-22)

> So, I usually ask the teacher..... not the student.
>
> (1P, S1, L25-26)

I feel okay.....

(1P, S2, L19)

Teacher. Because like teacher will know the real answer. Yes, of course. Because teachers know.

(LP, S1, L7, L9, L27, L29)

Teacher. Because teacher is more professional in English. Feel that it's very good *la*..(slang) teacher can help us to increase our English.

(LP, S2, L14, L16, L19)

The interview data evidently showed that the LP, IP and HP ESL interview students preferred teachers as the trusted medium in learning. Teachers were more likely to provide needed assistance, guidance, and accurate explanation which give learning comfort to students. Hence, as the interviewees mentioned, teachers were considered professionals as students felt confident with teachers and believed in teachers' ability in identifying and correcting students' errors.

Meanwhile, on the other side, classmates' feedback was feared to be inaccurate and doubtful. Thus, students found that teachers' feedback was more understandable and trusted compared to classmates' feedback. Below are the excerpts of three students' (one HP and two IP) views for their preferences for teachers than classmates.

But sometimes..ah... I might feel unsure and I might refer to my teachers to..um.. affirm on what they have said whether it is properly right. Or it could differ from what the teachers have in their minds.

(HP, S1, L26-28)

> I usually scared like if they say a wrong thing. So, I usually ask the teacher, not the student.
>
> (1P, S1, L25-26)

> I would not prefer it because some of my friends they might not know as much knowledge as my... the teacher is teaching. So, I would not ask my friends.
>
> (1P, S2, L24-25)

The above interview excerpts clearly show that students feel less confident towards classmates' feedback as they doubt their peers' linguistic ability to help them correct spoken errors. Therefore, they tended to favour teachers' correction the most as they have trust in teachers' ability.

Students understand better from the teacher's correction.

Two HP interviewees indicated that they understand better from teacher's correction compared to self-correction or feedback received from classmates. Corrective feedback received from teachers enabled students to identify their mistakes and helped them to speak better English.

> Yes..um...because.... because teacher is more...is more understandable that when teachers correct you comparing to self-correction and friends correcting you.
>
> (HP, S2, L25-26)

> I will feel more understood about my mistake, because if I had spoken something wrong...ah... in public not knowing what is wrong or right

> without having it corrected, I wouldn't know. So having my teachers correct my answer..ah..my statements will help me to understand better about English language and to speak more eloquently and fluently.
>
> (HP, S1, L19-23)

On the contrary, LP, IP, and HP ESL students least preferred self-correction to deal with their spoken errors. This finding is supported by questionnaire statistical results which showed that students least preferred self-correction compared to teachers' feedback and classmates' feedback. The following interview analysis shows the recurring themes and reasons for why the students least preferred self-correction.

Students are unsure of the answers and they seek the teacher's help.

Two HP interviewees highlighted that they least preferred self-correction as they are unsure of their self-correction and need to turn to teachers as a reliable source. The students' response indicated the students felt more comfortable with teachers correcting their errors compared to self-correction.

> Ah..not really, because it really doesn't...ah... I don't really think that self-correction may..ah.. help me I may use it..ah.. at times if I look through things, but at times that if I'm really unsure of I'll most probably go to my parents or teachers for help, because..ah.. I don't think I am affirmative at what I do at times.
>
> (HP, S1, L30-34)

> I have....um...., but I seldom do it because I prefer ..... I just prefer teacher do it....correcting errors...mistakes.
>
> (HP, S2, L31-32)

These HP students preferred to seek teachers' feedback instead of self-correction as they felt self-correction does not provide much help to them. This is due to their uncertainty to self-correct and dependency on teachers' corrective feedback.

Students feel incompetent for self-correction.

On the other hand, two LP interviewees expressed feeling less confident for self-correction. This could be due to their low competency in English. Therefore, self-correction does not lead to self-learning and improvement for LP students.

> No self-correction. Because...I'm not good and that's it.
>
> (LP, S1, L40, L42)
>
> I don't think I can correct by myself *la* (slang) because my English is not very good also.
>
> (LP, S2, L31)

LP students least preferred self-correction and they do not attempt to self-correct due to their low confidence and incompetency in the targeted language. Therefore, self-correction is not favoured by LP students.

4.4.3 Why do selected ESL students of different proficiency levels prefer certain timing of corrective feedback?

Six students were interviewed to obtain information about their preferences for the timing of corrective feedback. In the analysis of the interviews, the result of the interviewees' responses on corrective feedback timing was similar. All LP, IP, and HP ESL students preferred immediate feedback. The findings of the interview data showed an overall congruence with the quantitative results presented by the survey questionnaire. The following interview analysis shows the recurring themes and reasons for why the students preferred immediate feedback to delayed feedback.

Students can identify their errors instantly.

Four interviewees (two HP and two IP) stated that they can identify their spoken errors immediately through immediate feedback. Therefore, they were able to retain the prompt feedback. Two HP students stated that immediate feedback is necessary as it would be difficult to recall their errors and yet it could lead to confusion if delayed feedback is given. Thus, immediate feedback is preferred to recognize their errors and correct them.

> Yes, I think that an immediate approach..ah... is quite necessary for me, because it is really hard for me to..ah.. think things through because at times, I will get fickle minded or I will get confused at times. So an immediate approach is what I really look upon.
>
> (HP, S1, L105-108)

> I prefer immediate feedback because if it's delayed, I won't. I won't know where, like where I'm wrong, like I'll forget. It helps you Because when teacher gives immediate feedback, I'll know right away and I'll be able to correct it next time.
>
> (HP, S2, L91-92, L94-95)

As for the LP students, immediate feedback helps identify their errors and at the same time, they relied on the teacher's role to provide immediate feedback.

> It's good. So you know what's your error. Yes....you because I know where the part I say wrong and teacher will help me
>
> (LP, S1, L103, L109)

> teacher should tell us when we got wrong. ...It's help me that I know where I wrong and so I can correct it again.
>
> (LP, S2, L89, L96)

Based on the interview excerpts above, students welcomed immediate feedback as they could identify their erroneous utterances instantly and correct their errors for better language acquisition. Students find that immediate feedback is necessary as it would be convenient to recall errors. Students do not feel disturbed by the teacher's interruption. At the same time, they commented that immediate feedback enabled them to identify and correct the errors.

Students can remember the correction better.

Apart from being able to identify their grammatical errors, through immediate feedback, students were clear about their errors and could recall them. Hence, it provided the ability to amend the erroneous utterances. Four interviewees (two IP and two LP) agreed that immediate feedback is vital for them to remember their errors.

> Yeah, I will remember it better.
>
> (IP, S1, L112)

> I prefer immediate feedback. So then like I will straightaway remember it and I'll see that sentence again. Yes. I prefer immediate feedback.
>
> (IP, S2, L81, L83, L88)

> Immediate because....teacher will say the answers, I can remember.
>
> (LP, S1, L106, L111)

> Because maybe... when after the class you may forgot what you tell. So, when teacher correct you, you can't really remember.
>
> (LP, S2, L93-94)

As for delayed feedback, on the other hand, students least preferred delayed feedback as they tended to forget their errors. The following interview transcriptions show the recurring theme and reason for why the students least preferred delayed feedback.

Students were unable to recall the error.

It is noticed that delayed feedback was seen negatively by the students as they realized telling them their errors later did not benefit them. As a result, it was evident that the students were not in preference of delayed feedback in terms of the timing of oral corrective feedback. Two interviewees (one HP and one IP) stated that they tend to forget their spoken errors when delayed feedback is given.

> I'll do my best to remember..... try my best to remember by at times I usually forget
>
> (HP, S1, L117-118)

> Usually people will forget it. So..er.... they don't know what teachers are saying.
>
> (IP, S1, L106)

4.4.4 Summary

In interview data, all the six interviewees gave positive opinions on the most preferred corrective feedback type Explicit Feedback. Students tended to favour Explicit Feedback as students preferred a more direct approach from the teacher. Apart from this, according to the students, they understood better and felt comfortable with Explicit Feedback. On the contrary, Elicitation was the least preferred type of feedback and the interviewees felt that they were uncertain of the answers for their spoken errors when Elicitation type of feedback is provided. Therefore, pertaining to students' choice, the use of Explicit feedback in the classroom would enhance students' language uptake and acquisition.

Meanwhile, interview findings showed parallelism with survey results on the choice of correctors, which indicated teacher as the most preferred corrector while self-

correction was the least preferred. Interviewees stated that they felt confident with the teacher's corrective feedback and they could understand better from teachers' feedback. On the other side, interviewees did not favour self-correction as they were unsure of the answers and they still seek out for teacher's feedback. Furthermore, low proficiency students least favoured self-correct due to their incompetency.

As for the timing of corrective feedback, interview data supporting survey data showed students preferred immediate feedback. Interviewees indicated that they could identify their spoken errors when feedback is given immediately. At the same time, they could remember the errors better and help them in correcting their errors through immediate feedback. On the other hand, students least favoured delayed feedback as they found it difficult to recall their errors.

4.5 Conclusion

Survey data showed that students preferred Explicit Feedback over other types of corrective feedback, while they least preferred the Elicitation type. As for the choice of correctors, all the three proficiency groups of students preferred teachers as the main corrector and they least preferred self-correction. On the other hand, as for the timing of OCF, students preferred immediate feedback to delayed feedback.

Meanwhile, a comparison between three proficiency groups students' preferences on oral corrective feedback terms showed statistically significant differences between IP and LP students for types of OCF and between LP and HP students for delayed feedback timing of OCF. There were no statistically significant differences for choice of correctors and immediate feedback timing.

In line with the survey findings, interview analysis exhibited students' positive reasons for preferring Explicit Feedback as the most preferable type of OCF, the teachers

as the preferred corrector, and immediate feedback; 'Moment Error is Made' and 'After Talking' as the most preferable timing. In addition, students also gave justifications for the least preferred OCF terms, the Elicitation type, self-correction, and delayed feedback timing.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

The purposes of this study were to : (1) identify low proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and high proficiency ESL students' preferences for different types of oral corrective feedback, choice of correctors, and corrective feedback timing; (2) compare low proficiency, intermediate proficiency and high proficiency ESL students' preference for types of oral corrective feedback, choice of correctors and corrective feedback timing and (3) explore selected students' justification for types of oral corrective feedback, choice of correctors and corrective feedback timing. This chapter presents the discussion of the findings by relating them to previous studies.

5.2 Summary of findings

As for the first purpose of this study, to identify low proficiency, intermediate proficiency, and high proficiency ESL students' preferences for different types of oral corrective feedback, the total average mean score = 1.73 revealed that all three different proficiency groups of ESL students preferred Explicit Feedback. There was a contradictory result in within LP students' preference. Questionnaire data showed that IP and HP proficiency groups of ESL students preferred Explicit Feedback the most while LP students showed preference to Metalinguistic Feedback rather than Explicit Feedback. LP students' contradictory results indicated perceived effectiveness.

The present study's findings on high preference for Explicit feedback is in line with Unsal's (2020) study which revealed a majority of students preferred having explicit

correction because they think that they would not realize if they were corrected implicitly. Students' preference for Explicit feedback is due to its self-evidently corrective and, consequently, allows students to easily identify the corrective intention of feedback and possibly the source of their error. Explicit feedback noticeably draws the students' response to the error made. Therefore, IP and HP students preferred Explicit Feedback. As for Metalinguistic feedback, it helps LP students to notice what was wrong in their utterances.

On the other hand, Elicitation was the least preferable corrective feedback for the three proficiency students as they felt uncertain of the inputs from the Elicitation type. The total average mean score = 3.33 showed that all three different proficiency groups of ESL students least preferred Elicitation. Apart from this, HP students tended to least prefer Repetition and Clarification request as well as Elicitation for the means ratings for these three types of OCF were similar (mean = 3.23).

Next, for the choice of corrector in English classes, both quantitative and interview data clearly showed all three different proficiency groups of ESL students preferred teachers the most as teachers were considered as professionals and students felt confident with teachers and believed in teachers' ability in identifying and correcting their errors. The study also revealed that the students' preference of the correcting factor was predominantly teacher rather than peers. On contrary, LP and IP students least preferred self-correction due to their uncertainty to self-correct and dependency on teachers' feedback, while HP students tended to least prefer peer correction rather than self-correction. Regardless of proficiency levels, survey data showed that LP ESL, IP ESL, and HP ESL students had a higher preference toward immediate feedback; 'the moment is

made' and 'after finish talking'. As for interview data, all three proficiency levels of ESL students preferred immediate feedback.

Next, the second purpose of this study is to identify statistically significant differences between the three proficiency groups of ESL students' preferences for terms of oral corrective feedback. First, for corrective feedback types, there was a statistically significant difference between LP and IP ESL students. As for the choice of the correctors, there was no statistically significant difference between all the three proficiency groups of students. Similarly, there was no statistically significant difference between LP ESL, IP ESL, and HP ESL students' groups for immediate feedback timing: 'the moment error is made' and 'after finish talking'. As for delayed feedback timing: 'after the activities' and 'at the end of the lesson', there was a statistically significant difference between LP and HP ESL students.

Statistically significant results in types of OCF and delayed feedback revealed that different proficiency levels of students showed a preference for certain types of OCF and timing of corrective feedback. Therefore, students' proficiency levels need to be taken into consideration when providing OCF for language acquisition. On the other hand, insignificant results for the choice of the correctors and immediate feedback indicated students, irrespective of their proficiency levels, prefer teacher correction and immediate feedback. Thus, proficiency levels do not show any indication for choice of correctors and immediate feedback timing.

5.3 Comparison of the findings of the present study and previous studies

This section discusses the findings of the study, by comparing them with those of previous studies in the areas of ESL students' preferences toward types of corrective feedback, choice of correctors, and timing of corrective feedback in English classes.

5.3.1 Types of corrective feedback

The survey findings of this study reported Explicit Feedback as the most preferable corrective feedback among LP, IP, and HP ESL students which agrees with the findings of Park's (2010) study that explicit feedback is the most favoured type of corrective feedback among students because it directly points out the error for students to learn the target-like form and it minimises confusion from students' side as they get clear reasons for correction. Likewise, Kamiya's study (2018) revealed that as the teacher has a clear intention of corrective move, explicit correction may fare better with it. Students indicated that they preferred explicit feedback compared to other types of corrective feedback because explicit corrections aided them to identify their errors and mistakes clearly, to get quick and direct error correction, to recognize the best and most accurate solutions to their errors, and to get a good explanation regarding the error. Students think that explicit feedback noticeably showed the error they made in their utterances and gave a better opportunity for them to correct the error. Due to these features, explicit feedback was preferred as a feedback move by all participating students. They felt that being corrected with explicit feedback was particularly beneficial for them in both comprehending and modifying the erroneous utterance.

This finding is in line with many studies in the literature. In examining students' feedback preferences, Lee (2013) discovered that students want to receive explicit

feedback while the conversation is retained. Likewise, Rassaei (2013), in his task-based research, which centers on students' perceptions regarding recasts and explicit feedback, concluded that students' perceptions of explicit correction were relatively positive due to its appropriateness to notice the target forms.

In terms of students' proficiency level, this study's findings agree with the findings of Lyster and Ranta (1997) who discovered that explicit feedback correction is more beneficial for beginner and intermediate level students. Thus, the findings showed that student's language proficiency level affects choices of corrective feedback in language learning. Furthermore, students, especially the less competent ones, would like their teachers' direct and explicit error correction if the errors are beyond the students' competent level. The low proficiency students learn what the target-like form is and consolidating their relevant knowledge on their own through explicit feedback as this type of corrective feedback helps students learn by directly pointing out the error. The learning experiences may have enhanced their learning as Explicit Feedback, which directly points out the error, can hasten learning. Hence, the students may anticipate their teachers to have greater knowledge to offer corrective feedback. On the other hand, Schmidt (1994) stated that explicit feedback prompts the students to notice the differences between the target forms and existing interlanguage forms and direct them to compare these two, thus incorporating them into interlanguage. Moreover, this study also suggests that explicit feedback is preferred quite positively by students due to its feature of notifying students to the erroneous part of their utterances and its distinctive features: clarity and error explanation.

Meantime, the interview data of six students (two students from each level of proficiency; LP ESL, IP ESL, and HP ESL students) showed that all the six interviewees

welcomed explicit feedback. Interviewed data, in this study, evidently suggested that straightforward nature and comprehensible inputs of explicit feedback helped students to notice their errors as well as offer solutions for their errors. When compared with other types of oral corrective feedback, explicit feedback raised minimal confusion among students especially for the LP ESL students in identifying and correcting erroneous utterances they made. The interview data results also revealed that LP ESL students had a higher preference toward explicit feedback compared to IP and HP ESL students.

In contrast, the survey outcomes of this study showed that LP, IP, and HP ESL students least preferred the Elicitation type, as it requires them to develop self-correction to achieve the target-like form. In other words, students tended to least favour elicitation as it requires them to think about their errors and try to self-correct. As emerging from the interview data of the study, the LP ESL student mentioned that elicitation mostly confuses as students have difficulties in correcting erroneous utterances, particularly when the learner's proficiency is low. This finding supports Kaivanpanah et al. (2015) who claimed that students with low proficiency basically lack knowledge or ability to respond through elicitation. On the other side, Kaivanpanah et al. (2015) argued that more proficient students likely to prefer the Elicitation type of feedback that needed self-correction as they may have the knowledge or competence to respond to Elicitation. This study's findings contradict Kaivanpanah et al.'s (2015) study as the survey data revealed HP and IP students along with LP students least preferred elicitation. Besides, elicitation is generally viewed as ineffective for all error types, as Lee (2013) and Katayama (2006) noted that the main reason for students' low preferences for Elicitation was that it was generally unclear; hence, students did not understand teachers' feedback intention and did not know how to respond.

5.3.2 Choice of Corrector

The survey data of this study shows that teacher is the most preferred corrector among LP, IP, and HP ESL students. ANOVA test between groups showed an insignificant difference between the three proficiency groups of ESL students. As a result, it showed students tended to have similar preferences for the choice of corrector. Apart from that, interview data also revealed that the six interviewees preferred teachers. This outcome shows parallelism with the study done by Park (2010) who also stated that teachers' corrective feedback was most preferable as teachers were viewed as the key source of knowledge in ESL classrooms and the focus of attention. This finding is also parallel with the findings of Li (2013) that teachers' corrective feedback was regarded as the most credible source of knowledge in ESL classrooms and the center of attention. HP ESL students in this study commented that teachers can point out grammatical errors directly compared to classmates. Hence, the study suggested that ESL students considered teachers as a more knowledgeable and reliable source of corrector than classmates.

Similarly, Zhang (1995) mentioned that second language students did not tend to completely trust their classmates' linguistic competence and needed their teachers' confirmation even for receiving feedback from classmates. HP ESL students in this study commented that teachers can point out the grammatical errors directly compared to classmates, hence, students could understand their errors. Typically, according to Ellis (2009), teacher correction enabled students to identify forms that are not yet part of the interlanguage. As Ellis (2009) mentioned that negative feedback could cause discouragement and loss of motivation in students when their errors are corrected in front of others, teachers should be aware of such possibilities in ESL students. Therefore, teachers need to look for ways to provide feedback without making the students feel

insecure (Richards, 2009). Thus, previous studies and this study similarly suggest that teachers play a pivotal role as correctors. Students agreed with the opinion that teachers are their key source of knowledge, particularly for oral language skills.

On the other hand, self-correction was the least preferable corrector among LP, IP and HP ESL students as emerged in this study's quantitative and qualitative data. Self-correction was the least preferred corrector among these ESL students as it requires the students to correct their errors. Furthermore, for students' self-correction, essential linguistic knowledge should be developed beforehand. LP students, especially, expect the correction to come from other sources as their limited linguistic competence does not allow them to notice their errors first, and to correct the errors even when they are noticed.

Ellis (2009) mentioned that students typically prefer the teacher to do the correction for them as self-correction requires linguistic knowledge to identify and amend the errors. Hence, self-correction is more likely possible for more proficient students compared to low proficiency students. Even though self-correction is more possible for proficient students whereby they could observe, notice, and process their errors instead of being spoon-fed by teachers or peers, HP ESL students in this study, tended to least prefer self-correction too. Therefore, as Lyster (2004) suggested, students should be encouraged to self-correct through prompts as prompting the students to self-correct helps encourage second language acquisition.

5.3.3 Timing of corrective feedback

In this study, LP, IP, and HP ESL students preferred immediate feedback to delayed feedback. This finding is parallel to Yan and Beilei's (2019) study concerning learners' beliefs about corrective feedback among 2670 Chinese EFL learners which indicated that the participants showed more preferences for immediate corrective feedback

over delayed corrective feedback. As these students preferred corrective feedback to be provided immediately rather than delayed; the between group comparisons revealed that, regardless of their condition, there is no statistically significant difference and larger percentages of the student participants preferred to receive corrective feedback immediately. Pertaining to the matter of corrective feedback timing, Mackey and Goo (2007) mentioned that corrective feedback works best when it is provided at the moment that a student makes errors. Likewise, Wiboolyasarin et.al's (2020) study indicated that when concerning the timing of OCF provision, students concur with immediate feedback providing after the error has been made because it will be of great benefit to the students. Therefore, it is agreed by LP ESL students, in this study, as they needed guidance to notice their errors and make corrections for them. Poor command of language among LP ESL students had contributed to difficulties in absorbing knowledge if feedback was given later. Likewise, IP and HP ESL students chose immediate feedback as a better way than delayed feedback. Interview data too revealed LP, IP, and HP ESL students' preference towards immediate feedback as they welcomed prompt feedback to correct their spoken errors. Findings of a study conducted by Lee (2013), concluded that students want to get immediate feedback while the communication is maintained. Furthermore, according to Scheffler (2008), corrective feedback does not inevitably interrupt the flow of interaction as many students naturally expect corrections. Therefore, concerning the effect, some students simply did not want to wait to find out what errors they had made; the impatient student who must know right away was no stranger to any experienced second language teacher. Hence, it can be suggested that immediate feedback can be more effective than delayed feedback for all three LP, IP, and HP ESL students, but the teacher needs to check if corrective feedback hampers the flow of students' thinking and that of meaningful

interaction as Park (2010) argued that immediate feedback may affect a student's willingness to speak as interruption occurs in between conversation and produces undesirable feelings among students which affects their motivation in language learning.

On the other hand, survey data and interview data revealed students least preferred delayed feedback while the Kruskal-Wallis test showed a statistically significant difference between LP and HP ESL students on delayed feedback. The findings of the present study, supporting the study of Zhang and Rahimi (2014), in which the participating students showed the least tendency for delaying the feedback to a later time, the results demonstrated that delayed feedback is an ineffective strategy in terms of the timing of feedback in students' choice. Students consider delayed feedback does not make any sense for them since they find it difficult to remember how and under what circumstances they formed the sentence. For this reason, the students least preferred delayed feedback as the timing of oral corrective feedback. On the other hand, although delayed feedback can allow the student time to finish what the student is trying to say, the feedback may become less effective as the time between the error and treatment increases.

5.4 Significance of the findings in the light of the theoretical framework

In the light of the theoretical framework presented in Chapter 1, the present study's findings are discussed in accordance with students' engagement with the oral corrective feedback and by this means influence their learning outcomes. Discussing whether certain types of feedback lead students to language acquisition is beyond the scope of the present study. Nevertheless, its findings still let us find out which types of oral corrective feedback help students notice their errors as well as the correct forms of the erroneous utterances. IP and HP ESL students in quantitative data preferred explicit feedback and immediate feedback as they could notice their errors. As for LP students, they preferred

metalinguistic feedback and immediate feedback. Thus, looking at the cognitive perspective of students' engagement for OCF, noticing errors is the indispensable starting point in language acquisition as nothing is learned unless it has been noticed, that is, consciously registered. VanPatten (2003) acknowledged that OCF in the form of negotiating for meaning can help learners notice their errors and create a form of meaning corrections, thus aiding acquisition. Besides, notice allows students to comprehend in what ways their language structures differ from the target norms. Schmidt (1990) argued that although explicit and metalinguistic knowledge of the language is not always essential for acquisition, the student must be aware of grammatical features of L2 input that they may acquire. Most importantly, students' awareness of correct forms does not seem to stay unless they are reminded iteratively, and oral corrective feedback that suits their proficiency level can be one of the best ways that help students maintain learned grammar knowledge and eventually store it into their long-term memory. The present study, while not being able to suggest which types of CF result in L2 acquisition, demonstrates based on students' preference that explicit feedback is effective in helping them to notice their errors and corrective forms, which the extant literature proposes as the most important process or language acquisition.

As for the behavioral perspective of students' engagement, the study also considered Swain (1985) Output Hypothesis as an element of its theoretical framework. According to this theory, students must be pushed to modify their problematic utterances as opposed to simply producing language, which is known to be insufficient for enhancing the linguistic abilities of learners. This is aligned with Izumi and Bigelow (2000) that extended opportunities to produce output and receive relevant input were found to be crucial for improving learners' use of the grammatical structure, although output did not

always succeed in drawing the learners' attention to the target form. The findings of the study revealed different types of OCF make the effect of output on language acquisition in different degrees. For example, clarification requests and elicitation are only suitable for more proficient learners as sufficient linguistic knowledge is required to recognise linguistic shortcomings and modify them into a target-like form. Thus, LP and IP ESL students who encountered these types of CF were uncertain about the implicit feedback purposes and affected their anxiety level.

Finally, in the view of an affective perspective of students' engagement, the findings of the study can be discussed in relation to modified interaction that creates comprehensible input for learners. Long (1996) and Gass (2003) mentioned it is crucial to have interaction and input as two major players in the process of language acquisition. Corrective feedback works best when it occurs in context at the time the learner makes the errors (Mackey, 2007). Teachers need to draw students' attention to erroneous use of language as SLA researchers viewed CF as facilitative of language acquisition. The data of the study indicated that LP, IP, and HP ESL students showed a great tendency of relying on teacher OCF in classes instead of self-repair or providing mutual peer feedback. All three proficiency ESL students preferred the teachers as a source of knowledge. Such a reaction could be a direct result of the teacher-centered approach in the learning process. In addition, it shows that modified input was not produced by interlocutors themselves when the interlocutors are all students, but it rather came from the teacher who observed the interaction. In this study, students were passive in modifying their erroneous made and became dependent on teachers. As Belcher and Liu (2004) note, students relinquish power to their teachers, they want to be told what to do rather than take initiative to direct their

learning, which in turn seems to prevent them from fully experiencing the effect of interaction on their language learning.

5.5 Pedagogical suggestions

In the light of the findings of this study, some pedagogical implications of the current study can be drawn. A general guideline is provided to the language teachers to decide whether and how corrective feedback could be used in an instructional context so that ESL students could benefit more from pedagogical practices. While the efficacy of corrective feedback has been widely studied, the exploration into different proficiency levels of students' preferences for oral corrective feedback has received less attention. Students' differences in second language learning can be explored from various angles, such as variation in student IQ, different learning styles, personality, motivation, and attitude. Considering these individual variations can lead to a better understanding of students and how they learn.

Having a deeper understanding of students' preferences is important for both the student and the teacher as Kartchava (2016) stated that, "knowing what students think about CF will help teachers to plan for and present information about students' phonological, grammatical, or lexical accuracy that is in line with their contextually specific expectations and needs" (p. 20). Classroom feedback can be provided in a variety of ways and feedback may be either positive or negative. Positive feedback is delivered when a student's response is correct and negative feedback is delivered when a response is incorrect. According to Ellis (2009), an advantage of negative feedback is that it can help students improve their accuracy. But its disadvantage would be discouragement and loss of motivation. This happens when students' errors are corrected in front of others. Therefore, teachers should be aware of such situations and need to look for ways to

provide suitable feedback without making the students insecure (Richards, 2009). On the other hand, Sato and Lyster (2012) mentioned discrepancies between students' expectations of oral corrective feedback and teachers' intentions when correcting errors can also lead to ineffective teaching. As a result, it is vital to study students' views of OCF, particularly their preferences for OCF types for different errors.

Firstly, when learning to speak a second language, any student makes errors, and it is a natural part of mastering a new language. Therefore, students' needs and preferences for corrective feedback must be taken into consideration before providing corrective feedback as students hold an active role in the corrective feedback process. Horwitz (1988) stated that teachers should be aware of students' preferences about language learning to foster more effective learning strategies in their students because severe disappointment caused by a mismatch between students' expectations about language learning and the realities, can hinder language acquisition. Thus, this scenario may affect students' comprehension if less preferred corrective feedback is applied. Language teachers should have new insights regarding correcting students' errors. Likewise, Zhang and Rahimi (2014) mentioned that it is vital to know students' preferences about language learning as a mismatch between students' expectations about language learning can hamper language acquisition. Thus, it is crucial for teachers to know their students' preferences on corrective feedback to maximize its potential positive effect on language development. Brown (2009) indicated that second language teachers and their students may have similar or different concepts of effective teaching. Through these findings, the specific delusions and misconception beliefs that may inhibit the development of giving corrective feedback can be abolished. Hence, a feedback process that is too rigid subsequently fails to consider students' own goals. As this study's findings revealed that LP, IP, and HP ESL students

chose explicit feedback as the most preferable type of corrective feedback, teachers may need to pay attention to this need of Malaysian students in the aspects of corrective feedback. It helps students to develop second language knowledge and competency. This finding perhaps reflects the divergence of Malaysian ESL students' needs from those in other cultural contexts. Directive learning is preferable among LP ESL students compared to self-correction. Hence, teachers should ascertain students' attitudes towards corrective feedback as it eventually benefits the development of practices of teaching among language teachers.

Awareness of student preferences for corrective feedback is conceivably useful information for teachers in the classroom, as it can be used to help increase students' motivation and improve the learning process, thus, involves the students more directly in their journey to language proficiency. Purely being aware of students' preference for corrective feedback could make a difference in the classroom, both in terms of student language acquisition and more affective elements, such as student confidence and the relationship between teacher and student. An awareness of LP, IP, and HP ESL students' preferences to CF can help teachers understand better how teachers may adjust their feedback to engender positive student responses and to bring long-term beneficial effect on students' speaking skills. In addition, it functions as a set of guidelines that can serve as a basis for reflection and teacher-led research into CF. The implications for the classroom may be to raise both teachers' and student's awareness of corrective feedback in the classroom. Observing that students could have varied preferences for how they liked to be corrected, Orts and Salazar (2016) noted that "differences in the learning styles of the students will affect the learning environment by either supporting or inhibiting their intentional cognition and active engagement" (p.109).

The second pedagogical implication of this study is teachers need to implement a variety of oral strategies to provide corrective feedback and allocate time for corrective feedback in their lesson planning as the majority of ESL students irrespective of their proficiency level, in this study, do appreciate corrective feedback. As the present study revealed students' preference, as a whole, for Explicit Feedback, with an exception in LP students preferring Metalinguistic Feedback, teachers should implement OCF in accordance with students' choice with consideration to their proficiency levels. Lyster and Ranta (1997) who were among the first to link corrective feedback to proficiency levels of students believe that it is important for teachers to acknowledge the need to carefully take into account their students' levels of second language proficiency while making decisions about feedback. Therefore, teachers are required to be responsive to students' feedback to fine-tune their methods of giving feedback that suit students' language proficiency level. One area of challenge for teachers is to deliver corrective feedback in the most effective way while teaching in a communicative language teaching environment, and without disrupting the flow of communication that is so desired and valuable. Feedback given unsuitably may cause stress or negative emotions in students, which could be considered harmful. Therefore, research on corrective feedback preferences is important, as it informs teachers of students' preferences and, subsequently, may lead to more effective teaching practices when combined with results from the corrective feedback effectiveness research. Thus, considering these individual variations can lead to a better understanding of students and how they learn.

The outcomes of the present study should be beneficial for the teachers since, much of the time, teachers are unfamiliar with students' preferences and perform based on their suppositions. Teachers should be aware of their students' opinions, investigate the

similarities and dissimilarities, and consider these preferences to act in a way that results in more satisfaction and success. Given the fact that different students need to be treated differently, teachers should offer a variety of treatment by identifying their individual students' preferences. Teachers need to know the effectiveness of corrective feedback by implementing various strategies in ESL classrooms, and thus provide the most appropriate corrective feedback at effective times. The findings suggest that the students might expect their teachers to know and use various types of corrective feedback in a flexible way that suits their current proficiency level regarding the target item. For instance, if the students make errors that they can correct by themselves, they will prefer their teachers to simply guide them to notice the ill-formed utterances so that they can restate the utterances with the target-like forms by themselves.

5.6 Suggestions for future studies

This section discusses suggestions for future studies in a way of overcoming the limitations of the present study.

A future study adopting the method of this present study can be carried out on a bigger scale by involving ESL students from several secondary schools. The present study is limited in that the number of participants was small and focusing only on one school context. Due to constraints on time and availability of appropriate participants, there were only 90 total participants (30 per group). In a related study, Lee (2008) pointed out that almost all of the feedback studies on student perceptions and preferences have been conducted in college and university settings. Thus, there is a lack of research that addresses the lower secondary school context. Therefore, it would be desirable to conduct the study with much larger sample size. Rural and urban secondary schools can be involved to gauge the preferences of different types of oral corrective feedback, choice of

correctors, and timing of corrective feedback among varied proficiency students. Such a larger-scaled study may possibly inform that learning contexts would affect students' preferences on oral corrective feedback. The results are definitely useful to indicate tendencies and to suggest further research.

The finding of this study revealed a statistically significant difference between LP and IP students in terms of types of OCF and a statistically significant difference between LP and HP students in terms of timing of OCF. Thus, further study can be conducted to investigate the differences that arise in terms of OCF between these proficiency groups. The findings help provide suitable OCF to the students at different proficiency levels.

Next, in future research, the research can seek to produce richer and more detailed qualitative data. The present study used English as the medium language for interviewing at the researcher's convenience. The drawback of doing so was that LP students were not able to freely express their opinions due to their limited language competence. Interviews in future research can be conducted in participants' mother tongue, especially among LP ESL students to find out more about their preferences on oral corrective feedback for more significant analysis. Including the first language of students, it can minimise communication breakdown during the interviews and reduce interviewees' anxiety as well. Tsang (1998) mentioned that if the researcher can demonstrate competency in the native language of the interviewee, it creates a more conducive atmosphere to expression, building up rapport and creating trust between the researcher and the researched. Besides, limited qualitative data with only 6 students were collected from the current study. Therefore, more participants should be involved in further studies to obtain in-depth insights into students' OCF preferences.

On the other hand, studies that encourage student reflection diary entries may have the potential to produce a richer understanding of students' preferences of how corrective feedback functions in their language learning, which, in turn, might lead to a clearer understanding of the general role of corrective feedback in language learning. In addition, the current study has shown that students' proficiency levels are significant factors influencing their preferences for OCF. Thus, it is essential to explore further students' preferences for OCF types in terms of different types of errors and their relation to students' proficiency levels. Future studies may focus on how OCF types are preferred by students with different personality types as well as different cultural backgrounds.

5.7 Conclusion

Based on the present study, it can be concluded that providing CF is crucial in second language acquisition. This study examined ESL students' preferences on oral CF between three levels of language proficiency: LP, IP, and HP. All three proficiency groups of ESL students of quantitative and qualitative data were aligned to suggest variant responses of students for the most and least preferable terms of CF. The current study findings point to the significance of adapting OCF to the students' preferences inside the language classroom.

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