

Motivation types and oral corrective feedback practices: Evidence from EFL learners

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ABSTRACT: Providing an appropriate type of oral corrective feedback has always been a great concern for many educators and researchers. According to learner-centered approach of language teaching, learner's individual characteristics and also their attitude towards error correction should be taken into account. The purpose of this study is to investigate EFL learners' opinion on oral corrective feedback practices with regard to their motivation type. To this end, two self-reporting questionnaires were administered to collect the necessary data. The results of the study showed that there was a significant difference between the intrinsically and extrinsically motivated students, regarding their opinion about effective oral corrective feedback.

KEYWORDS: EFL learners, error, extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation Oral corrective feedback.

I. Introduction

Negative feedback, which is also referred to as corrective feedback (CF) and error correction, has long held the attention of educators and researchers in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). There have been numerous studies on the role of various forms of CF [1, 2, 3]. These studies indicate that: (1) CF helps learners notice the difference between their current version of the second language and its accepted form [4]; (2) providing CF is the most efficient way to expose learners to authentic language in the classroom [5]; and (3) explicit feedback is generally more beneficial than implicit feedback [6].

Despite these findings, there is no general agreement about what type of CF teachers should provide to learners [7, 8]. To answer this question, Havranek and Cesnik [9] conducted a comprehensive study on oral corrective feedback and concluded the best type of CF in each class depends on specific learner characteristics mainly verbal intelligence, proficiency level and the learners' attitude towards correction. This study paved the way for new lines of research in which the importance of learners' personal characteristics and teachers' awareness about them were highlighted [11, 12, 13, 14, 15]. Whereas the findings of these studies emphasized the significance of learners' characteristics, in particular, anxiety, attitude and proficiency level, not all of these characteristics have been investigated, one of which is motivation. In educational contexts, a motivated learner is defined as an individual who makes an effort to learn, is eager to pursue the goal and also enthusiastic about learning [16, 17, 18]. This motivated individual can feel an internal impulse or be coerced by external forces; that is to say, they can be intrinsically or extrinsically motivated.

In short, motivation type as an influential variable can change teachers' perspective on how to correct learners. With this premise, this quantitative study investigates students' type of motivation and their opinion on the necessity, frequency, timing, and source of CF.

II. Conceptual Framework

In 1978, Hendrickson posed five key questions on CF in language pedagogy: 1) Is CF necessary? 2) If so, when should the correction occur? 3) Which errors should be corrected? 4) How should they be corrected? 5) Who should provide CF? The answers to these questions vary according to different methods. In the audio-lingual method, teachers had been taught that students should not venture into free use of language since the unstructured production of language (errors) would lead to the development of bad habits [19]. In the 1970s, however, this practice was challenged by humanistic methods, emphasizing that 'assessment should be positive or non-judgmental' in order to 'promote a positive self-image of the learner as a person and language learner [20].

By the 1980s, the advocates of communicative language teaching drew a distinction between 'fluency' and 'accuracy' [21] and advised teachers to correct students' errors during 'accuracy' activities [22]. Instead of considering CF as a monolithic phenomenon, Harmer suggests a contextual view of CF in which teachers should take students' age, aptitude, style and motivation into account. Such view is supported by sociocultural theory (SCT). According to SCT, language acquisition occurs through interactions in context and CF mediates learning by facilitating interactions [23]. Drawing broadly on SCT, Ellis proposed that "teachers should be prepared to

vary who, when and how they correct in accordance with the cognitive and affective needs of their language learner” [23]. In effect, there is no way to prescribe a set of procedures for all language learners and teachers should adopt suitable strategies based on each context and students’ needs.

In line with SCT, self-determination theory (SDT) indicates that teachers should consider their students’ psychological needs to enhance learning in the classroom [24]. In other words, learning can occur at its utmost only if students’ needs to be competent, autonomous and related are fulfilled and teachers should be aware of learners’ characteristics to meet their needs.

To sum up, a number of practices and theories in second language acquisition point to an advantage for language teachers to realize their students’ personal characteristics and adapt their teaching practices accordingly. Based on these theories, this study focuses on students’ type of motivation and its relationship with their opinion on the necessity, frequency, timing, and source of CF.

III. Types of Corrective Feedback

In 1997, Lyster and Ranta in a groundbreaking observational study of six French immersion classrooms in the Montreal Area divided feedbacks into six different types [1]:

1. **Explicit Correction.** In Lyster and Ranta’s definition in this strategy the correct form is clearly stated. In this type of CF, the teacher provides the feedback by indicating clearly that what the student had said was incorrect by using some phrases:

- Student: My brother go to school.
- Teacher: You should say he goes to school.

2. **Recast.** According to Lyster and Ranta in recasts the teacher reformulates all or part of a student’s utterance, without the error. As recasts are not indicated by salient phrases, they are considered to be an implicit strategy of correcting errors. For example:

- Student: I do my homework yesterday.
- Teacher: I did my homework yesterday.

3. **Clarification Requests.** According to Spada and Frohlich [25] in clarification requests the teacher indicates that the student’s utterance cannot be understood or is incorrect in some way and that a repetition or a reformulation is needed. A request clarification is indicated by a phrase similar to “excuse me?”

- Student: How many jobs does your sister work?
- Teacher: Excuse me?

4. **Metalinguistic Feedback.** According to Lyster and Ranta in metalinguistic feedbacks there is a comment, some information, or a question which is related to the well-formedness of the student’s utterance. In this type of feedback there is no explicit provision of the correct form and they generally indicate that there is an error somewhere.

- Student: There are a lot of man.
- Teacher: You need plural.

5. **Elicitation.** Based on the same study, Lyster and Ranta proposed that elicitation refers to three techniques which teachers use to elicit the correct form from the learners:

a) Eliciting completion of their incorrect utterance by a strategic pause to allow students to complete their sentence b) using questions to elicit the correct form c) asking students to reformulate their ill-formed utterance

- Student: My boy was born in 1995.
- Teacher: My...?

6. **Repetition.** Repetition refers to a technique in which the teacher repeats the learner’s ill-formed output usually with a stress on the error.

- Student: She cooked a cake.
- Teacher: She cooked a cake.

These six different CF types were later classified into two broad CF categories: reformulations and prompts [26]. Lyster, Saito and Sato [27] claim that reformulations contain recasts and explicit correction, because both of these moves provide learners with target reformulations of their ill-formed output and prompts consist of a variety of signals other than reformulations that direct learners to self-correct.

A. Theories of Corrective Feedback

Based on nativist approach, it is claimed that L2 acquisition is much similar to L1 acquisition, so for SLA, comprehensible input is sufficient [28]. Since L2 learners have access to an innate ability called the universal grammar [29], they only need the corrective feedback when they are not able to get the well-formed utterance from exposure to the target language evidence [30, 31]. Accordingly, Krashen in his Input Hypothesis asserts that comprehensible input, the input which is one step beyond learners’ current stage, is the only

effective force in SLA. He argues that L2 acquisition cannot be affected by explicit instruction including negative evidence.

Later on, nativists' and Krashen's views were challenged by different scholars on the grounds that they believe "noticing" is essential for language acquisition [32,33, 34]. According to the Noticing Hypothesis some degree of noticing must occur in order for input to become intake for L2 learning. Also, it is the corrective feedback that helps the learners realize the difference between their own interlanguage and the accepted L2 forms. Along with the noticing hypothesis, Gass [35] points out that only the input which is noticed by the language learners can be changed into intake.

On the other side of the spectrum, the cognitive account views language acquisition a largely input-driven process like any form of learning [36]. In this view, language acquisition involves interaction between input, the cognitive system, and also the learner's perceptual motor system [37]. According to Ellis [38], in this model of language acquisition feedback is viewed as helpful in language learning.

In short, with the advent of cognitive views of language acquisition there has been an emphasis on providing corrective feedback to language learners. In other word, oral corrective feedback helps language learners learning process. Therefore, it is necessary to examine language learners' opinion on the necessity, frequency, timing, and source of CF and provide the CF accordingly.

IV. Research Objective

Although numerous studies have been done on learners' characteristics and oral corrective feedback practices, the type of motivation and its impact on the learners' preferred oral corrective feedback have been ignored to the researchers' knowledge. Therefore, the present study examines EFL learners' motivation type and also their opinion on oral corrective feedback practices. So, the purposes of the present study were:

1. To determine the intrinsically and extrinsically motivated learners' preferred oral correction practices;
 2. To determine the probable relationship between motivation type and Iranian EFL learners' preferred oral correction practices
- And the research questions were as follows:

- 1- What are intrinsically and extrinsically motivated learners' preferred oral correction practices?
- 2- Is there any significant relationship between motivation type and Iranian EFL learners' oral correction practices?

Therefore, the only research hypothesis was suggested:

H0: There is no significant relationship between motivation type and Iranian EFL learners' preferred oral correction practices.

V. Research Method

A. Research design

This quantitative study has a survey design. The variables of this study included motivation type (with two levels, i.e., intrinsic and extrinsic motivation) and students' ranking of Fukuda's (2004) questionnaire on preferences for error correction and their ranking of the motivation questionnaire. Besides, Gender was the control variable as all participants were females.

B. Participants

The research population was Iranian EFL learners from two branches of an language institute in Rasht, Iran. The language school offers English courses at five levels: Elementary, Pre-intermediate, Intermediate, Upper-intermediate, and Advanced. In this language school Oxford Placement Test (OPT) is used to measure students' general ability in English before they start studying in the institute. The sample consisted of 50 female intermediate and 50 female advanced, who were selected through convenience sampling method.

C. Research instruments

Two questionnaires were employed to collect the required data: The first one was Fukuda's (2004) questionnaire on preferences for error correction. This questionnaire had six sections. The first section obtained demographic information of participants such as gender, age and the level of proficiency. The other five sections had 22 items which explored students' opinion on the necessity of oral corrective feedback, frequency of oral corrective feedback, timing of oral corrective feedback, different types of oral corrective feedback and sources for giving oral corrective feedback. Each item was scored according to a 5-point Likert scale with the rankings 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree' or 'always' to 'never' or 'very effective' to 'very ineffective'.

The second questionnaire was a motivation questionnaire which was adapted from Harter's (1981) intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation scale. This modified questionnaire consisted of two sections. The first section consisted of 3 items about students' gender, age and level and the second one had 33 items which elicited

learners' opinion about performing various tasks and learning new ideas, i.e., easy versus challenging task, interest versus teacher approval, dependency mastery attempts versus independency mastery attempts and internal versus external criteria for success. This questionnaire has been employed widely during the last decades to measure intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and that is why it has been used to collect the required data.

Both questionnaires were translated into Persian for both groups of learners in order to prevent confusion or misunderstanding. Two experts were also asked to validate the translated version of the questionnaire. After the pilot study, the Cronbach Alpha co-efficient was calculated 0.85 for Harter's motivation questionnaire and 0.80 for Fukuda's oral corrective feedback questionnaire, indicating a highly satisfactory level of reliability.

D. Research procedure

The questionnaires were administered to the participants by the first researcher personally during the class time. Before the distribution of questionnaires, the participants were informed that the survey was voluntary and anonymous. They were also reassured that they were free to withdraw at any time for any reason. Each set of questionnaires was distributed during the first thirty minutes of the class time in two different sessions.

As to avoid discomfort and pressure the teachers were asked to leave the classroom while the learners were answering the questions.

VI. Results

A. Results on the first research question

RQ1-What are intrinsically and extrinsically motivated learners' preferred oral correction practices?

In order to provide answer for the first research question, descriptive statistics including (mean and standard deviation) were run to the results of the corrective feedback questionnaire. The results of the item analyses are presented in the following sections:

Descriptive statistics for the corrective feedback questionnaire:

Table 1

Item Statistics for the Necessity of Oral Corrective Feedback

Types of motivation	Mean	SD	N
high intrinsic score	1. When I make mistakes, my spoken errors should be corrected	3.97	.78 95
	2. How often do you want to receive corrective feedback on your spoken errors?	4.38	.85 95
high extrinsic score	1. When I make mistakes, my spoken errors should be corrected	3.40	1.345
	2. How often do you want to receive corrective feedback on your spoken errors?	3.80	1.645

The participants with high intrinsic scores rated "*the necessity of oral corrective feedback*" greater than those with high extrinsic score. Concerning the error correction, the mean rank of the participants with high intrinsic score came to ($X = 3.97$).

In contrast, the mean rank of error correction for the participants with high extrinsic score equaled ($X = 3.40$). Moreover, the participants with high intrinsic score reflected higher positive attitude towards "*receiving corrective feedback on their spoken errors*" ($X = 4.38$) than the participants with high extrinsic score ($X = 3.80$).

Table 2

Item Statistics for the Frequency of Oral Corrective Feedback

Types of motivation		Mean	SD	N
high intrinsic score	3. My spoken errors should be treated As soon as errors are made even if it interrupts my speaking	3.20	1.1395	
	4. My spoken errors should be treated after I finish speaking	3.82	.85 95	
	5. My spoken errors should be treated after the activities	3.31	1.0295	
	6. My spoken errors should be treated at the end of class	2.95	1.0595	
high extrinsic score	3. My spoken errors should be treated As soon as errors are made even if it interrupts my speaking	2.20	1.64 5	
	4. My spoken errors should be treated after I finish speaking	3.00	1.58 5	
	5. My spoken errors should be treated after the activities	3.00	1.22 5	
	6. My spoken errors should be treated at the end of class	3.00	1.58 5	

With respect to the “frequency of oral corrective feedback,” the participants with high intrinsic score expressed their higher perception towards “treating their spoken errors after they finish their speaking.” (X= 3.82). On the other hand, they declared their lowest attitude towards “treating their spoken errors at the end of class” (X= 2.95). In comparison, the participants with high extrinsic score expressed relatively similar attitudes towards “treating their spoken errors after they finish speaking, after the activities, or at the end of class.” (X= 3.00). However, for the participants with high extrinsic score, the least significant corrective feedback was “the time errors were made even if it interrupted their speaking” (X= 2.20).

Table 3

Item Statistics for Timing of Oral Corrective Feedback

Types of motivation	Mean	SD	N
high intrinsic score	7. Serious spoken errors that cause a listener to have difficulty understanding the meaning of what is being said.	4.32	.99 95
	8. Less serious spoken errors that do not cause a listener to have difficulty understanding the meaning of what is being said.	3.55	1.1195
	9. Frequent spoken errors.	4.11	.99 95
	10. Infrequent spoken errors	3.60	1.1895
	11. Individual errors made by myself.	4.16	.93 95
high extrinsic score	7. Serious spoken errors that cause a listener to have difficulty understanding the meaning of what is being said.	4.40	1.345
	8. Less serious spoken errors that do not cause a listener to have difficulty understanding the meaning of what is being said.	3.40	.54 5
	9. Frequent spoken errors.	4.20	1.305
	10. Infrequent spoken errors	2.80	1.305
	11. Individual errors made by myself.	2.80	1.645

When it comes to the “timing of oral corrective feedback,” the participants with both high intrinsic and extrinsic scores expressed their highest viewpoints in relation to correcting “Serious spoken errors that cause a listener to have difficulty” ($X_{\text{high intrinsic score}} = 4.32$; $X_{\text{high extrinsic score}} = 4.40$). In contrast, they did their least rating with respect to treating “Less serious spoken errors that do not cause a listener to have difficulty understanding the meaning of what is being said” (X= 3.55). However, for the participants with high extrinsic score the least favored timings of oral corrective feedback were “Infrequent spoken errors and Individual errors made by themselves (X=2.80)”.

Table 4

Item Statistics for Different Types of Oral Corrective Feedback

Types of motivation	Mean	SD	N
12. Could you say that again?	3.93	.84	95
13. I go? (Repetition: The teacher emphasizes the student's grammatical error by changing his/her tone of voice.)	3.94	.84	95
14. You went to the park yesterday? (Implicit feedback: The teacher does not directly point out the student's error but indirectly corrects it.)	3.61	.94	95
15. "Go" is in the present tense. You need to use the past tense "went" here. (Explicit feedback: The teacher gives the correct form to the student with a grammatical explanation.)	3.94	.80	95
16. Yesterday, I.... (Elicitation: The teacher asks the student to correct and complete the sentence.)	4.06	.72	95
17. Really? What did you do there? (No corrective feedback: The teacher does not give corrective feedback on the student's errors.)	2.37	1.01	95
18. How does the verb change when we talk about the past? (Metalinguistic feedback: The teacher gives a hint or a clue without specifically pointing out the mistake.)	3.63	.81	95
19. I went to the park. (Recast: The teacher repeats the student's utterance in the correct form without pointing out the student's error.)	2.92	1.05	95
12. Could you say that again?	4.00	.70	5
13. I go? (Repetition: The teacher emphasizes the student's grammatical error by changing his/her tone of voice.)	3.80	.44	5
14. You went to the park yesterday? (Implicit feedback: The teacher does not directly point out the student's error but indirectly corrects it.)	2.40	1.34	5
15. "Go" is in the present tense. You need to use the past tense "went" here. (Explicit feedback: The teacher gives the correct form to the student with a grammatical explanation.)	3.80	1.64	5
16. Yesterday, I....(Elicitation: The teacher asks the student to correct and complete the sentence.)	3.60	1.51	5
17. Really? What did you do there? (No corrective feedback: The teacher does not give corrective feedback on the student's errors.)	2.40	1.67	5
18. How does the verb change when we talk about the past? (Metalinguistic feedback: The teacher gives a hint or a clue without specifically pointing out the mistake.)	3.60	.89	5
19. I went to the park. (Recast: The teacher repeats the student's utterance in the correct form without pointing out the student's error.)	3.00	.70	5

Eight items evaluated the participants' viewpoints with respect to different types of oral corrective feedback. For the participants with high intrinsic score, the preferred type of oral corrective feedback was "Elicitation" (X= 4.06). On the other hand, they expressed their least rating for "no corrective feedback" (X= 2.37). In comparison, the participants with "high extrinsic score" preferred "asking for repetition" (X= 4). Moreover, their least favored type of corrective feedback was "implicit feedback" as well as "no corrective feedback" (X= 2.40).

Table 5

Item Statistics for Sources for Giving Oral Corrective Feedback

Types of motivation	Mean	SD	N
high intrinsic score			
20. Classmates should treat students' errors.	2.87	.97	95
21. Teachers should treat students' errors.	4.27	.81	95
22. Students themselves should treat their errors.	3.91	.84	95
high extrinsic score			
20. Classmates should treat students' errors.	2.00	1.225	
21. Teachers should treat students' errors.	4.60	.54	5
22. Students themselves should treat their errors.	3.60	1.675	

The last section of the corrective feedback questionnaire inspected the participants' perceptions of "sources for giving oral corrective feedback." The participants with high intrinsic score preferred "teachers" for correcting their errors (X= 4.27). However, they did their lowest rating with respect to "classmates" as source

of giving oral corrective feedback ($X = 2.87$). Likewise, the participants with high intrinsic score, for the participants with high extrinsic score, the favored source of giving oral corrective feedback was “teachers” ($X = 4.60$). Moreover, they disfavored “classmates” as being the source of giving oral corrective feedback ($X = 2.00$).

7.2 Results on the second research question

RQ2- Is there any significant relationship between motivation type and Iranian EFL learners’ preferred oral correction practices?

The following null hypothesis was suggested:

H0: There is no significant relationship between motivation type and Iranian EFL learners’ preferred oral correction practices.

In order to scrutinize the possible relationship between types of motivation and preference for error correction, a Pearson Chi-Square followed by Eta test was run to the data collected from the two questionnaires. Pearson Chi-square test is employed to test whether a statistically significant relationship exists between two categorical variables. On the other hand, preference for error correction was converted into semi interval data. Thus, it was appropriate to run Chi-square followed by Eta test to display the degree of possible relationship between the two variables.

The results are available in the subsequent section. In the following cross tabulation table, the relationship between motivation type and types of corrective feedback preferred by the participants was investigated using Chi-Square Test followed by Eta test.

Table 6

Chi-Square Tests	Asymp. Valuedf Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square for (Necessity of oral corrective feedback * types of motivation)	21.317 .003
Pearson Chi-Square for (frequency of oral corrective feedback * types of motivation)	12.7410.238
Pearson Chi-Square for (timing of oral corrective feedback * types of motivation)	17.4616.356
Pearson Chi-Square for (different types of oral corrective feedback * types of motivation)	25.6715.042
Pearson Chi-Square for (sources for giving oral corrective feedback * types of motivation)	4.62 8 .797
N of Valid Cases	100

The two-sided asymptotic significance of the Chi-Square Statistics were higher than (.05), for three subsections of corrective feedback and types of motivation. It implied that the relationship between “frequency of oral corrective feedback”, “timing of oral corrective feedback,” and “sources for giving oral corrective feedback” and types of motivation was simply due to chance variation ($p \geq .05$).

However, the relationship between “Necessity of oral corrective feedback,” “different types of oral corrective feedback” and “types of motivation” was statistically significant (α Necessity of oral corrective feedback * types of motivation = .003, α different types of oral corrective feedback* types of motivation = .042; $p \leq .05$). This implied that each participant with specific motivation type favored particular corrective feedback more frequently than others. To show the strength and direction of this relationship, Eta test was run to the results of questionnaires.

Table 7
Directional Measures

	Value
Nominal by IntervalEta necessity of oral corrective feedback Dependent	.178
Nominal by IntervalEta frequency of oral corrective feedback Dependent	.197
Nominal by IntervalEta timing of oral corrective feedback, Dependent	.124
Nominal by IntervalEta different types of oral corrective feedback Dependent	.124
Nominal by IntervalEta sources for giving oral corrective feedback Dependent	.113

Based on the results of Eta test, there was an insignificant association between motivation type and three types of corrective feedback preferred by the participants in EFL classes. The highest degree of association was found for the relationship between motivation type and frequency of oral corrective feedback (Eta =.197). In contrast, the lowest degree of association was reported for the relationship between motivation type and timing of oral corrective feedback as well as different types of oral corrective feedback (Eta= .124).

Thus, the research null hypothesis was partially rejected implying that there was a statistically significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' motivation type and the types of corrective feedback they prefer in EFL classes. The following figure depicts the types of activities they use with respect to their dominant intelligence.

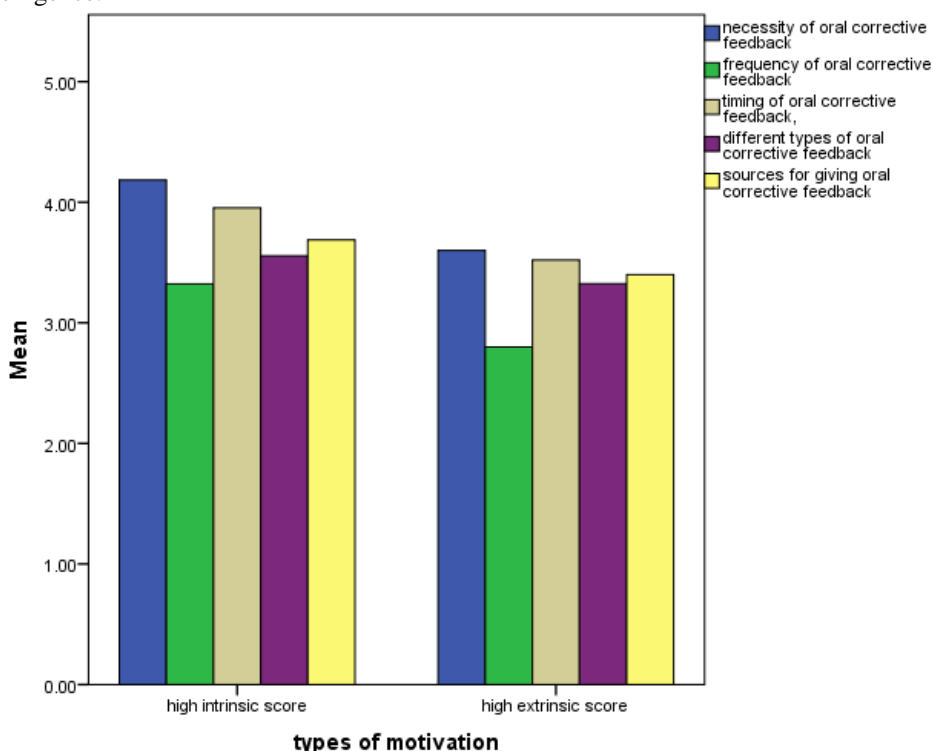


Figure 1 the relationship between motivation type and preferred corrections in EFL classes

VII. Conclusion

As the findings suggest there is a significant difference between high extrinsically motivated learners and high intrinsically motivated learners regarding the necessity, frequency, timing and type of oral corrective feedback practices. According to the findings, students with more intrinsic motivation reflected more positive

attitude towards the necessity of oral corrective feedback. In addition, with regard to frequency of oral corrective feedback the students with high intrinsic motivation preferred to have oral corrective feedback after they finish speaking while the learners with high extrinsic motivation preferred oral corrective feedback after speaking, after the activities or at the end of the class. Whereas both groups of learners had similar opinion on the timing of oral corrective feedback, there was a significant difference considering the type of feedback which is favored by each group. The learners with high intrinsic motivation preferred elicitation and the learners with high extrinsic motivation favored asking for repetition the most.

These differences must be taken into account so that teachers become closer to their learners' expectation and the process of learning will be more fruitful and efficient for both sides.

Considering the second research question, there seems to be a significant relationship between the necessity of oral corrective feedback, different types of oral corrective feedback and types of motivation. In other words, each learner with a specific type of motivation favored a particular strategy of corrective feedback more frequently than others. Accordingly, the null hypothesis of the research was partially rejected.

Due to the fact that, the findings of this study revealed the importance of considering learners' type of motivation, further research should be conducted to investigate other individual characteristics that might have an impact on learners' preferred oral correction practices such as anxiety, proficiency level or background.

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