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The Importance of Corrective Feedback in leaning a Foreign Language

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Background: The role of corrective feedback **CF** is debated in foreign language acquisition **FLA**. It has not been unequivocally shown the **CF** is effective in **FLA**, In particular not in the case of on-line processing, as in oral foreign language **FL** proficiency. This might be because, to date, it has not been feasible to create appropriate research conditions, we claim that these problems can be alleviated by resorting to computer assisted language learning **CALL** environment in which learners receive **CF** individually, on spoken output. Also the role of corrective feedback in **FL** has received much attention, and it is still atypical issue. Studies on the effectiveness of **CF** have produced mixed result. An essential problem seems to be that most studies on **CF** do not take account of individual. Characteristics influence the effectiveness of **CF**. This point to the necessity of developing research paradigms for **CF** that can take account of individual learner variation and that can adapt to the learners needs and preference .We suggest using a **CALL** system that exploits automatic speech recognition **ASR** and that is designed to adapt to individual learner different.

Feedback can be positive or negative. Positive feedback affirms that a learner response to an activity is correct. It may signal the veracity of the content of a learner utterance or the linguistic correctness of the utterance. In pedagogical theory positive feedback is viewed as important because it provides affective support to the learner and fosters motivation to continue learning. In SLA, however, positive feedback (as opposed to negative feedback) has received little attention, in part because discourse analytical studies of classroom interaction have shown that teacher's positive feedback move is frequently ambiguous (e.g., "Good" or "Yes" do not always signal the learner is correct, for they may merely preface a subsequent correction or modification of the learner's utterance) . Negative feedback signals, in one way or another, that the learner's utterance lacks veracity or is linguistically deviant. In other words, it is correction in intent. Both SLA researchers and language educators have paid careful attention to corrective feedback (CF), but they have frequently disagreed about when to correct them(see, For example, Hendrickson,1978 and whether to correct errors, what errors to correct, how to correct them, Hyland & Hyland,2006).

Error correction has always been a very controversial topic, and perhaps a thorny issue as there is very little agreement as how to correct learns who has made an error and whether this correction will be effective or not. Error correction can easily be described on continuum ranging from the idea that it can be harmful and ineffective to being very essential and beneficial for some grammatical structures. According to recent studies, as will be shown later on, it has been proven that error correction is effective, necessary and essential however the obstacle that prevents error correction from being wholly effective lies in teacher's inconsistency and disorganized ways that of handling errors. Whether or not systematic, consistent or effective the teacher's reaction is to errors, corrective feedback has been wide.



1.2 The Statement of the problem

The issue of how correct learner errors has long been of interest not only to the teacher but also students, Many students suffer from the way that teachers used when they correct their mistakes {Giving feedback}.So that teachers need to know the strategies to give correct feedback in the classroom, especially those who learn a second language. This research will be about the role of corrective feedback in foreign language learning.

1.3 The Research Questions

Q1_What is the importance of feedback? Which type of feedback is more effective?

Q2_ How do teachers provide feedback to learners in the EFL classroom?

Q3_What are learners perception of the value of providing feedback?

1.4 The objectives and the aims of the study

The aim of giving feedback is to improve the situation or the learner's performance. Feedback is an essential part of effective learning; it helps learners understand the subject being studied and gives them clear guidance on how to improve their learning.

1.5 The significance of the study

The purpose of this study is considered essential to the learning and teaching process which includes lecturers, learners, researchers, administrators, and schools.

The result of this study will help teachers to determine the factors that influence certain strategies to give feedback, also to find out the effective kind of feedback whether direct or indirect, to help learners improve their performance, as well as to measure the impact of giving feedback on the learning and teaching process.

1.6 The definitions of the terms

Feedback: In teaching is information that given to learner about his or her performance of learning takes, usually with the objective of improving this performance.

Corrective feedback: Is a frequent practice and in the field of education and in learning generally. It typically involves a student receiving either formal or informal feedback on his/her performance on various tasks by a teacher or peer(s).However learning that takes place outside of the realm of institutional schooling can also rely heavily on corrective feedback.

Foreign Language (FL): Is a language originally from another country than the speaker. However, there must be defined distinction between foreign and second language. It is also a language not spoken in the native country of the person referred to.

Literature Review

Introduction

In this review, feedback is conceptualized as information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding. A teacher or parent can provide corrective information, a peer can provide an alternative strategy, a book can provide information to clarify ideas, a parent can provide encouragement, and a learner can look up the answer to evaluate the correctness of a response. Feedback thus is a "consequence" of performance.

To assist in understanding the purpose, effects, and types of feedback, it is useful to consider a continuum of instruction and feedback. At one end of the continuum is a clear distinction between providing instruction and providing feedback. However,



when feedback is combined with more a correctional review, the feedback and instruction become intertwined until "the process itself takes on the forms of new instruction, rather than informing the student solely about correctness" (Kulhavy, 1977, p. 212). To take on this instructional purpose, feedback needs to provide information specifically relating to the task or process of learning that fills a gap between what is understood and what is aimed to be understood (Sadler, 1989), and it can do this in a number of different ways. These may be through affective processes, such as increased effort, motivation, or engagement. Alternatively, the gap may be reduced through a number of different cognitive processes, including restructuring understandings, confirming to students that they are correct or incorrect, indicating that more information is available or needed, pointing to directions students could pursue, and/or indicating alternative strategies to understand particular information. Winne and Butler (1994) provided an excellent summary in their claim that "feedback is information with which a learner can confirm, add to, overwrite, tune, or restructure information in memory, whether that information is domain knowledge, meta-cognitive knowledge, beliefs about self and tasks, or cognitive tactics and strategies" (p. 5740). Feedback has no effect in a vacuum; to be powerful in its effect, there must be a learning context to which feedback is addressed. It is but part of the teaching process and is that which happens second-after a student has responded to initial instruction-when information is provided regarding some aspect(s) of the student's task performance. It is most powerful when it addresses faulty interpretations, not a total lack of understanding. Under the latter circumstance, it may even be threatening to a student: "If the material studied is unfamiliar or abstruse, providing feedback should have little effect on criterion performance, since there is no way to relate the new information to what is already known" (Kulhavy, 1977, p. 220). The focus of this article on feedback as information about the content and/or understanding of the constructions that students have made from the learning experience is not the same as a behaviorist input-output model. Contrary to the behaviorists' argument, Kulhavy (1977) demonstrated that feedback is not necessarily a reinforce, because feedback can be accepted, modified, or rejected. Feedback by itself may not have the power to initiate further action. In addition, it is the case that feedback is not only given by teachers, students, peers, and so on, but can also be sought by students, peers, and so on, and detected by a learner without it being intentionally sought.

The above comments pertain to oral CF. But similar differences in opinion exist where written CF is concerned, as is evident in the debate between Truscott and Ferris (Truscott, 1996, 1999, 2007; Ferris, 1999). Truscott, reflecting the views of teachers who adhere to process theories of writing, advanced the strong claim that correcting learners' errors in a written composition may enable them to eliminate the errors in a subsequent draft but has no effect on grammatical accuracy in a new piece of writing (i.e., it does not result in acquisition). Ferris disputed this claim, arguing that it was not possible to dismiss correction in general as it depended on the quality of the correction—in other words, if the correction was clear and consistent it would work for acquisition. Truscott replied by claiming that Ferris failed to cite any evidence in support of her contention. To correct or not to correct written errors, then, remains contentious, although a number of recent studies (e.g., Sheen, 2007; Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, 2008) have produced evidence to show that written CF can result in acquisition. Reviewing literature relating to this controversy, Hyland and



Hyland (2006) commented “it is difficult to draw any clear conclusions and generalizations from the literature as a result of varied populations, treatments and research designs” (p. 84), implying that contextual factors influence the extent to which CF is effective. SLA researchers also disagree about the role CF plays in L2 acquisition. Krashen (1982) called error correction “a serious mistake” (p. 74). He offered two main reasons for this view. First, “error correction has the immediate effect of putting the student on the defensive” (p. 75) with the result that the learner seeks to eliminate mistakes by avoiding the use of complex constructions. Second, error correction only assists the development of “learned knowledge” and plays no role in “acquired knowledge.” However, Krashen felt that error correction directed at simple and portable rules, such as third person –s, was of value because it would enable learners to monitor their production when the conditions allowed (i.e., the learner was focused on form and had sufficient time to access learned knowledge). VanPatten (1992) promulgated a similar view to Krashen’s, arguing that “correcting errors in learner output has a negligible effect on the developing system of most language learners” (p. 24). However, other SLA researchers, especially those working within the interactionist framework, have viewed CF as facilitative of language acquisition. Their views are reflected in VanPatten’s later position on CF. In VanPatten (2003), for example, he acknowledged that CF in the form of negotiating for meaning can help learners notice their errors and create form-meaning connections, thus aiding acquisition. There is increasing evidence that CF can assist learning (see, for example, Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005), and current research has switched from addressing whether CF works to examining what kind works best.

Types of feedback

In addition to recast which is the most frequently used feedback, seven different corrective strategies have been identified: explicit correction, clarification requests, metalinguistic information, elicitation, repetition, and translation (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002). All of these techniques are placed in an explicit-implicit continuum. The following section elaborates on each of these corrective feedback techniques.

1-Recast

The term recast was initially used in the literature of L1 acquisition to refer to responses by adults to children’s utterances (Nelson, Carskaddon, & Bonvillian, 1973; as cited in Nicholas et al, 2001); afterward it merged into the domain of L2 acquisition in which different definitions were utilized for this term. Lyster and Ranta (1997, p. 46) define recast as ‘teacher’s reformulation of all or part of a student’s utterance, minus the error’. According to Ellis and Sheen (2006, pp. 78-80), recasts are of various types including corrective recasts (Doughty & Varela, 1998), corrective/non-corrective recasts (Farrar, 1992), full/partial recasts, single/multiple recasts, single utterance/extended utterance recasts, and simple/complex recasts (Ellis & Sheen, 2006). Nelson, Denninger, Bonvillian,

Kaplan, and Baker (1983) also propose two further classifications of recasts, i.e. simple and complex recasts; the former deals with minimal changes to the child’s utterance while the latter is concerned with providing the child with substantial additions. It is also mentioned that in terms of their linguistic development, children benefit from simple recasts more than complex ones (Nelson et al., 1983)



There is no general agreement among SLA practitioners regarding the effectiveness of recasts due to their limitations. Though some researchers (e.g., Long, 2006; Doughty, 2001) consider recast as an effective corrective feedback technique, others (Lyster, 1998a; Panova&Lyster, 2002) propose that learners usually pass recasts unnoticed and thus they regard them not as effective for inter language development. A number of interaction researchers (e.g., Braidi, 2002; Chaudron, 1977, 1986; Fanselow, 1977; Long, 1996; Lyster, 1998a, 1998b; Lyster&Ranta, 1997; Nicholas et al., 2001; Oliver & Mackey, 2003), referring to the ambiguity of recast, also argue that recast might be perceived as synonymous in function as mere repetition for language learners hence learners might fail in perceiving the corrective function of recasts (e.g. Long, 2006; Lyster&Ranta, 1997; Morris & Tarone, 2003; Nicholas et al, 2001). Learners might be simply provided with the correct form without being pushed to modify their inter language since recasts don't elicit repair (Loewen&Philp, 2006). In addition, Loewen and Philp (2006), based on previous studies (e.g. Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Long, 1996; Long, Inagaky, & Ortega, 1998), affirm that the effectiveness of recasts depends on the targeted form under study. Despite all these limitations, bulky researches on this issue yield evidence for the positive impact of recasts on L2 learning (Ayoum, 2001; Braidi, 2002; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Han, 2002; Havranek, 2002; Iwashita, 2003; Leeman, 2003; Long, Inagaki, & Ortega, 1998; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Oliver, 1995, 2000; Philp, 2003). Doughty and Varela (1998) conducted a study on the effectiveness of the corrective recasts and reported that learners who received corrective recasts outperformed the control group in both oral and written measure. The results of numerous studies revealed that contradictory interpretations of recasts can be attributed to the different contexts in which recasts are implemented (Nicholas et al, 2001), suggesting the ineffectiveness of recasts in classroom setting (e.g. Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001; Lyster, 1998a, 1998b; Lyster&Ranta, 1997; Morris & Tarone, 2003; Nabei& Swain, 2002; Panova&Lyster, 2002) and their efficiency in laboratory setting (e.g., Braidi, 2002; Carroll & Swain, 1993; Han, 2002; Iwashita, 2003; Leeman, 2003; Long et al., 1998; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Oliver, 1995).

2-Explicit feedback

As the name suggests, explicit feedback falls at the explicit end of corrective feedback spectrum. This kind of error correction therefore, is characterized by an overt and clear indication of the existence of an error and the provision of the target-like reformulation and can take two forms, i.e. explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006). In explicit correction, the teacher provides both positive and negative evidence by clearly saying that what the learner has produced is erroneous, while in metalinguistic feedback he or she only provides students with "comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness" (p.47) of their utterances (Lyster&Ranta, 1997) . The communicatively intrusive nature of explicit feedback amplifies the provision of both negative and positive evidence, potentially aiding learners in noticing the gap between their inter language and the target-like form. However, in providing the target-like reformulation, explicit error correction reduces the need for the learner to produce a modified response. Thus, explicit error correction, because it supplies the learner with both positive and negative evidence, facilitates one type of processing, the noticing of an inter language/target language difference, but reduces another type of processing, the modified production of an inter language form to a more target-like form.



3- Clarification Requests Feedback

That carries questions indicating that the utterance has been ill-formed or misunderstood and that a reformulation or a repetition is required are identified as clarification requests. This kind of feedback encapsulates “problems in either comprehension, accuracy, or both” (Lyster&Ranta, 1997, p.47). Clarification requests, unlike explicit error correction, recasts, and translations, can be more consistently relied upon to generate modified output from learners since it might not supply the learners with any information concerning the type or location of the error.

4- Metalinguistic Feedback

Much like explicit error correction, metalinguistic feedback- because it diverts the focus of conversation towards rules or features of the target language- falls at the explicit end of the corrective feedback spectrum. Lyster and Ranta (1997) categorize metalinguistic feedback as “comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form”. Unlike its name, the inclusion of meta language is not its deterministic characteristics; rather the encoding of evaluations or commentary regarding the non-target-like nature of the learner's utterance is considered as the defining feature. Metalinguistic feedback is divided into three subcategories: metalinguistic comments, metalinguistic information and metalinguistic questions (Lyster&Ranta, 1997).

The least informative one is metalinguistic comments which only indicate the occurrences of an error. But the next subcategory, i.e. metalinguistic information not only indicates the occurrences or location of the error but also offers some meta language that alludes to the nature of the error. Metalinguistic questions, the last identified subcategory of metalinguistic feedback, "point to the nature of the error but attempt to elicit the information from the student" (Lyster&Ranta, 1997, p.47). This kind of metalinguistic feedback requires learner to reconsider their assumptions regarding the target language form while metalinguistic information applies meta language to mark the nature of the error.

5- Elicitation

Elicitation is a correction technique that prompts the learner to self-correct (Panova&Lyster, 2002) and may be accomplished in one of three following ways during face-to-face interaction, each of which vary in their degree of implicitness or explicitness. One of these strategies is request for reformulations of an ill-formed utterance. The second one is through the use of open questions. The last strategy which is the least communicatively intrusive and hence the most implicit is the use of strategic pauses to allow a learner to complete an utterance. Therefore, elicitation falls in the middle of explicit and implicit continuum of corrective feedback. This kind of corrective feedback is not usually accompanied by other feedback types.

6- Prompt

In the related literature two other terms are used interchangeably to refer to this kind of feedback, i.e. negotiation of form (Lyster, 2002; Lyster, 1998b; and Lyster&Ranta, 1997) and form-focused negotiation (Lyster, 2002b). Lyster and Mori (2006) introduce prompts as a range of feedback types, consisting of four prompting moves: elicitation, metalinguistic clue, clarification request, and repetition. All these moves offer learners a chance to self-repair by withholding the correct form.



7-Repetitions

Another approach to provide corrective feedback is repetition which is less communicatively intrusive in comparison to explicit error correction or metalinguistic feedback and hence falls at the implicit extreme on the continuum of corrective feedback. This feedback is simply the teachers or interlocutors' repetition "of the ill-formed part of the student's utterance, usually with a change in intonation" (Panova&Lyster, 2002, p.584). 3.8 Translation was initially considered as a subcategory of recast (Lyster&Ranta, 1997), but what distinguishes it from recast is that the former is generated in response to a learner's ill-formed utterance in the target language while the latter is generated in response to a learner's well-formed utterance in a language other than the target language. What translation and recast have in common is that they both lack overt indicators that an error has been produced. This shared feature places both toward the implicit end of the corrective feedback spectrum, though the degree to which translations are communicatively obtrusive can also vary. Translations also have another feature in common with recast as well as explicit error correction that is they all contain the target-like reformulation of the learner's error and thus provide the learner with positive evidence.

Effectiveness of feedback

Both sides the provider (teachers) and the receiver (students) get positive effective from feedback. They can test their own level of knowledge. Hattie and Timperley (2008, p.90) claimed that 'the four levels' of the focus of feedback which influence to feedback more effective in directly. According to them, the first level is 'feedback about the task' which indicates errors of information, such as student's work is correct or incorrect. In this level also includes information about the depth or quality of the work, it may be against criteria (either explicit or implicit). The information should be neatness or format at this level. Hattie and Timperley found it more powerful when it corrects misconceptions than when it alerts students to lack of information (as cited in Brookhart, 2008).

Second level is 'feedback about the processing of the task' that means the process is used to create a product or complete a task (Hattie and Timperley, 2007). According to Brookhart (2008) the process gives idea of information to students about how they approach to the task, the relationship between what they did and the quality of their performance and alternativestrategies. Some learners are able to translate feedback about the task into feedback about the process. According to Butler and Winne (1995), 'given outcome feedback (knowledge of results), they can generate their own cognitive feedback (linking characteristics of the task and their process with those result)' (as cited in Brookhart, 2008).

The third level is "feedback about self-regulation"; students should be more focused at this level and their confident to engage further on a task (Hattie &Timperley, 2007, p.90). Self-regulation leads students to use monitor and control their own learning, seeking, accepting and acting on feedback information or not. The effectiveness of this level is the degree which expands self efficacy.

The forth level, "feedback about the self as a person" indicates that feedback can be personal about performance on the task. Hattie and Timperley (2007) gave an example on this level, that is "You are a great student". That means, this feedback has been given on student's personal task. These levels are very helpful to make feedback more effective.



However, there have some advantages of feedback which help pupils to develop their standard in analyzing data they receive. Such as

-Critical thinking: After getting feedback, a student will think in critical way such as how to make their work better etc. This process helps them to develop their critical thinking abilities.

- Making a decision: After getting feedback students decide what they will do. In that way their decision making ability will be enhanced. This will play a vital role when students grow into adult, they can make a decision pertaining to their life, career etc.

-Enhanced creativity: Students think more about how to make their work best or more creative. They may come up with innovative ideas to pass the knowledge in various ways.

-Improves self-analysis: Students can judge themselves and they are able to check facts and information in their own knowledge banks.

Strategies and contents of feedback

There have some feedback strategies which should be followed by the teacher while they giving feedback to their students. Marzano, Pickering and Pollock (2002) mentioned in their research book, called 'Classroom Strategies that Work: Researched-Based Strategies for Increasing Student Achievement', some effective strategies in the classroom. Several dimensions of feedback strategies are given bellow :

- Timing: It indicates when and how often feedback is given. Feedback would be effective, if it must give in timely. Feedback should provide while learners are still thinking about their learning goal and they are mindful of the target learning. Delay feedback would not more comprehensive and does not help learners to improve their thinking process (Brookhart, 2008).

-Amount: Students need enough amount of feedback which helps them to understand what to do. Amount of feedback indicates that how many errors or points are focused and how much feedbacks are given by teacher on each point. So, teachers should provide enough feedback for clear understanding of what to do next on a topic. Of course, it needs not essential to provide more amount of feedback for the learners. Goldilocks found that feedback should not be too much, not too little, but just right.

-Mode: It refers to which kind of feedback is being used (i.e. written, oral or verbal ordemonstrations) while giving feedback. That's mean feedback should be provided appropriate way which gives the students to make sense. It based on level of thestudents; so, teachers should take the decision which feedback they will use (like oral orwritten form). For an example, the students who do not read well, oral feedback helps them to better understand or written feedback is useful for written task etc.

.- Audience: Feedback depends on types of learners, such as learners may be a group or individual or whole class. For an example, individual feedback must be more specific or group feedback is given when most students missed the same class (Brookhart, 2008).

However, contents of feedback are most important factors which help teachers to decide what should say through the feedback. Teacher must be conscious on contents while giving feedback. The purposes of the focus of feedback are to describe the qualities of work in target learning, observe of learning processes, avoid comments of personal and draw the student's self- regulation. According to Hattie and Timperley



(2007), feedback exposes indifferent way like it might be exposed about the task, the processing of the task, self-regulation and the self of a person.

Teacher should focus on those things which are very important for student learning. The content of comparison compares student's task with specific criteria, their own past performance and sometimes compare with the other student's work which make the student understand to describe the process or methods students use and they could decide what the next goal should be. Feedback function is important for student achievement. Feedback function gives description and avoids evaluation or judging on student's work. For an example teacher can identify student's strengths and weakness and also express the task of students. The target of feedback valence indicates that feedback may be positive comments (e.g. teachers praise to their learners on their good works) or negative comments (e.g. teacher will find out the errors and suggest where improvement is needed and then give enough amount of information so that students will get the idea how they complete the work successfully).

Of course, feedback must be clear and understandable to the students; it is called clarity of feedback. Teachers should use those vocabularies and concepts which are more understandable to the students. However, the specificity makes feedback more specific; as a result, students can realize what will do for improving themselves and their task. Of course, teachers' tone or voice is an important content while giving feedback. Teachers should choose those words which will play as an agent for the students. Therefore, all these aspects of contents are very necessary for teachers to control their feedback for different purposes for different students. It is noted that teachers who discuss the problems of students in positive and fair way, students like and respect them most (Brookhart 2008).

Corrective Feedback and Uptake

In studies on corrective feedback, uptake is " ..a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance (Lyster&Ranta, 1997; p.49)."Uptake in this sense is used as a way of evaluating the effectiveness of feedback types which can be divided into two categories: "repair" and "needs repair" (Lyster&Ranta, 1997, p. 49). "Uptake in this sense is used as a way of evaluating the effectiveness of feedback types which can be divided into two categories: "repair" and "needs repair" (Lyster&Ranta, 1997, p. 49). However, several arguments question the utility of uptake, claiming that considering it as an indication of learning is not reliable (Long, 2006; Ellis, Basturkmen&Loewen, 2001). Besides, it is mentioned that a lack of response to recasts might be attributed to conversational constraints (Oliver, 1995, 2000; Nabei& Swain, 2002). The third argument against the utility of uptake is that that a lack of immediate uptake does not preclude the possibility that recasts are in fact useful as the results of some surveys indicate (e.g., Mackey and Philp, 1998). The effectiveness of uptake pivots on a number of characteristics of feedbacks including: complexity, timing, and type of feedback (Loewen, 2004).

Methodology

Introduction:

In this chapter, the researcher is going to introduce the methods and the procedures that are selected to collect data to obtain answers to the research questions.



Two instruments are going to be used for collecting data; the first one is teachers' interviews, and the second one is students questionnaire.

The participants (The subjects):

The participants of this study are five teachers of English in Al-Mergib University. They will be three males and two females, their ages are thirty to forty- five. They have good experience in teaching from two to twelve years. Those participants are going to be asked to answer interviews, these interviews will determine the important role of teacher feedback, how it can help their students to be more active in their learning, and how they can learn from their mistakes to achieve a better understanding of their subject. This feedback will not only help students to learn and achieve more, but also it will point out to the teachers their student's faults and weaknesses, in addition; it will enable them to focus more on their studies and get better feedback.

In addition, there will be questionnaire questions that involve different types of questions. It will be conducted with at least fifty students whose ages are about twenty to twenty-five. They are going to be their teacher's feedback plus their reaction to it, not only that but also their emotional state towards the feedback. Does the feedback help them in understanding their mistakes, or do they even consider that feedback has an important role in their learning process?

Instruments:

Mixed methods research seems to be the most appropriate methodology to be used. It is not only significant to document teachers, perceptions regarding feedback use in their classrooms, but it is also crucial to determine how their learner's perceptions regarding feedback as well.

Teacher's interviews:

The interview is a really useful tool to gather information, because it is simple, and can easily be constructed. The interview can be easily distributed and less time is consumed during data gathering. Answers are kept confidential and data from closed-ended items are easy to tabulate. Also, the terms are comprehensive and in a direct manner to avoid confusion.

The interview that is going to be used in this study is designed specially to ask those teachers about the way that they use in providing feedback inside the classroom, how the student react to their feedback, and to explore the effects of feedback on students' learning and achievements.

Each interview involves a list of open-ended questions which are essay questions that the teachers can answer freely in expressing their opinions, also closed-ended questions will be there to investigate the degree of the teachers about certain conceptions about the feedback in general.

Students' questionnaire:

The questionnaire in collecting data helps to gain deeper insights, since it allows for adaptability in questioning as it reflects the personal side of the participants. So here they will be asked about their teachers' feedback in general, its effect on them, how they react to it, and so many questions Furthermore, and the questionnaire data is complemented and expanded on the interview data as it enables the researchers to get follow-up information in the case of ambiguous and incomplete responses the interviews.

This questionnaire will include both open-ended questions addressing issues that are related to feedback, and how it affects their learning and achievements. The



questionnaire can ask additional questions from his side when further information may emerge in the course of the questionnaire since the subjects have the complete right to participate.

Data Analysis

Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher is going to find answers to the research questions in the light of the analysis of the researcher in collecting data from its samples.

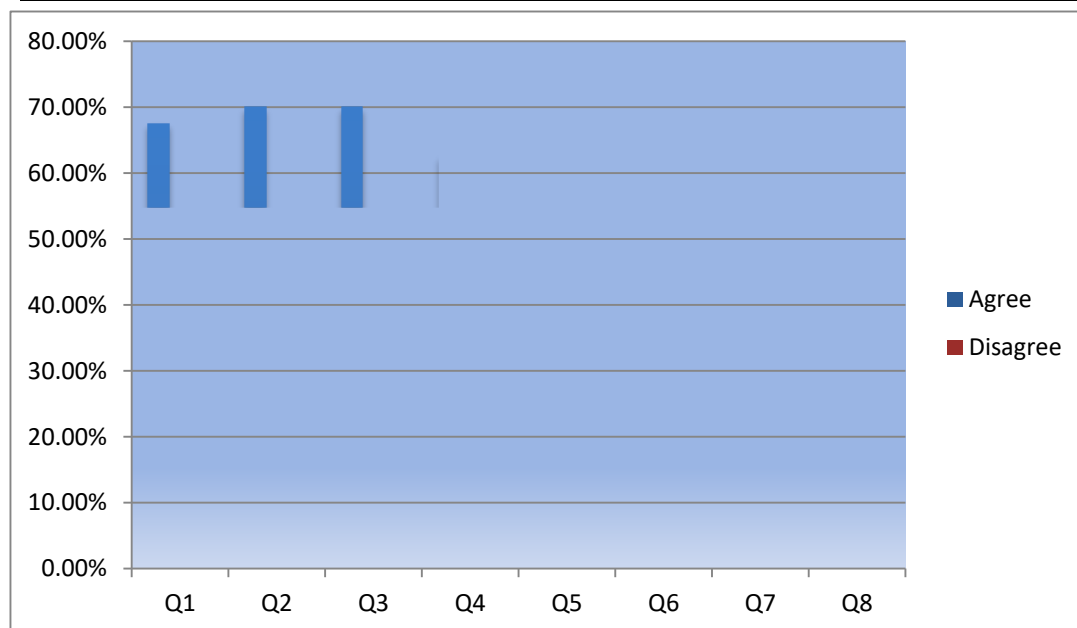
The findings and conclusions are going to be obtained based on :

- 1 – The analysis of the teachers' interviews.
- 2 – The analysis of the students' questionnaires.

- **The results of students' questionnaires :**

This table shows the summary of students' responses .

	Agree	Disagree
Q1	67.5%	30%
Q2	70%	30%
Q3	70%	35%
Q4	62.5%	37.5%
Q5	55%	45.5%
Q6	55%	42.5%
Q7	42.5	57.5%
Q8	75%	25%
Q9	67.5%	25%
Q10	60%	40%
Q11	30%	70%
Q12	62.5%	37.5%
Q13	55%	45%
Q14	65%	35%
Q15	70%	30%
Q16	37.5%	62.5%
Q17	62.5%	37.5%



[Figure 1]The figure shows the results of the first part of the questionnaire



4.4 Here are the questions with their answers:

The 1st question was asked students whether they agree about feedback is helpful to them in their learning and achievement or not. Among forty responses, twenty seven of them agreed that feedback is helpful, while thirteen of them disagreed

In the 2nd question twenty eight out of forty students agreed that positive feedback has a great effect on the students' performance inside the classroom, while twelve students disagree with that.

The 3rd question about whether students get upset to negative feedback and it affects their performance. The majority of the students agreed. There were twenty eight out of forty, while the minority which was fourteen disagree.

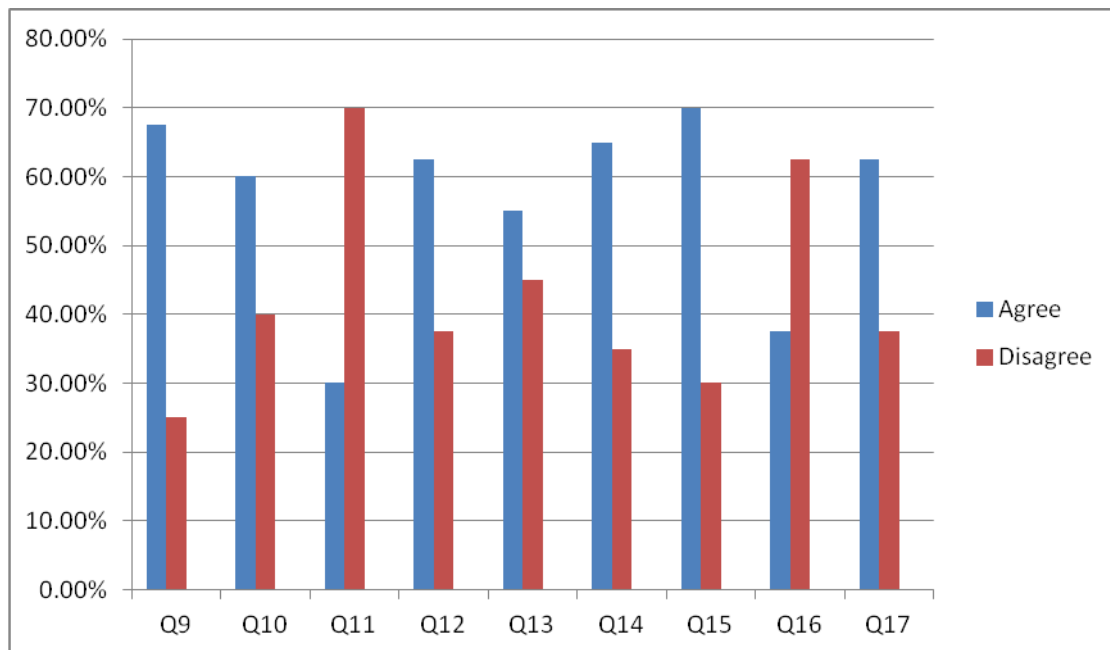
The 4th question asked them if most of the teachers use feedback properly or not. It can see among forty of students twenty five of them agreed that the teacher do not use feedback in a proper way, on the other hand fifteen of them disagreed.

The 5th question asked if students make use of the provided feedback or not. Twenty two out of forty agree, in contrast; eighteen of them disagree.

The 6th question asked if students agree that they find positive feedback very helpful which helps them to compete with each other on getting the best feedback or not. Twenty two out of forty agreed. Whereas seventeen of them disagree.

The 7th question asked if students do not comprehend feedback well. Seventeen out of forty agreed. At the same time twenty three of them disagree.

The 8th question asked students if teachers need to learn more about feedback and how to give it property. Thirty out of forty agreed that, While just ten out of forty disagree.



(Figure 2) The figure shows the results of the second part of the questionnaire.

The Q9 asked students if they learn over time to adjust their attitude and take feedback more positively or not. Among forty twenty seven of students agreed, whereas thirteen of them disagree.



The Q10 asked students if feedback is related to clear, specific and challenging goals for the students or not. Twenty four out of forty agreed, in contrast; sixteen of them disagreed.

The Q11 asked students if feedback should encompass every error a student makes or not. Twelve out of forty agreed, while twenty eight of them disagreed.

The Q12 asked students if direct feedback is better than indirect feedback or not, Twenty five of them agreed that, on the other hand fifteen of them disagreed.

The Q13 asked students if only errors meaningful to the students should be corrected. Twenty two out of forty agreed, whereas eighteen of them disagreed.

The Q14 asked students when correcting student work, it is better to focus on the content rather than the grammar. Twenty six out of forty agreed that, in the same time fourteen of them disagreed.

The Q15 asked students if they feel it is teachers' duty to correct their errors. Twenty eight of them agreed, while twelve of them disagreed.

The Q16 asked students if they feel nervous about speaking after correcting their errors. Fifteen out of forty agreed that, whereas twenty five of them disagreed.

The Q17 asked students weather they feel it is better for them to know the corrections or not. Twenty five out of forty agreed that, in contrast; fifteen of them disagreed.

4.5 The results of the interview:

The researcher did an interview with four teachers and it included five questions, in this analysis the researcher named the teachers A, B,C, and D

Q1/ How often do you provide feedback to your students ?

All the teachers answered with always. They give feedback to their students every time; they just have differences at the time they gave feedback. Teacher A said that he gives feedback to his students during the lesson and at the end of the lesson, teacher B said she is very careful to give feedback to her students after any activity and exercise, and teachers C, D said that they give feedback when the students do a good job or when they are committing mistakes.

Q2/ Do you think that students can learn from your feedback after making mistakes?

Teacher C answered that her students learn from her feedback to some extent, there are some students who can learn from the teacher's feedback others cannot. It depends on the students themselves. Other teachers agree that the students can learn from teachers' feedback after making mistakes.

Q3/ Do you think students need a type of feedback that clarifies the student's mistakes? Or do you think a type of feedback that only locates their mistakes is enough?

All the teachers have the same opinion here, they said that it's better to clarify the student's mistakes; because they will be more useful for them and also they will be able to improve themselves.

Q4/ Do you think students can benefit from a type of feedback that leads students to think about their mistakes themselves?

Teachers D and C said that there are some students who can benefit from the teacher's feedback, on the other hand there are some students who can't without the help and guide of the teacher. Whereas B and A agree that most of the students



benefit from the teacher's feedback on their mistakes and they avoid making the mistakes in the future.

05/ Do you think the extent to which students learn from feedback deserves the time spent providing feedback? How?

All the teachers agree that giving feedback to the students is very useful and important and it deserves the time spent providing it. although it depends in some circumstances on the ability of the students to understand it and the way the teacher gives his/her feedback.

Conclusion

The important of corrective feedback. Corrective feedback is an important approach which plays a significant role as a guide for the teachers. It helps student to improve learning strategies and give them enough confidence. Also corrective feedback would avoid some mistake production. By using corrective feedback teachers can easily interact to their students, as a result, students get more interest to their study. However, it depends on teachers and it's their responsibilities to provide proper feedback to the students and make a perfect learning environment in the classroom. For successful learning, it is necessary for the teacher to know how to provide feedback and they should be careful on whether feedback will help students progress toward their final goal.

To be effective feedback needs to be clear and understandable, purposeful, motivating, compatible with students' prior knowledge, provide links to the gaps in their learning that have to be closed as well as be compatible with modes of receiving feedback. The main purpose of feedback is to improve student learning more specifically means "to reduce discrepancies between current understandings and performance and a goal". To this end, feedback provided to students as part of the teaching process should direct students to strengthen their effort and promote their active participation in the study process. To maximize positive effects of feedback to achieve higher learning standards is a challenging task which involves active participation of both teachers and students.

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