



Effects of Corrective Feedback on Iranian EFL Learners' Uptake and Attention

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the present research was to investigate if the type of feedback significantly affected EFL learners' uptake. In addition, it aimed to search if feedback could lead to more learners' attention in EFL classes. The participants were 60 EFL learners. The data were obtained from classroom observations in addition to running a test. In order to investigate the effects of teachers' CF on learners' uptake, the current study employed Lyster and Mori's (2006) taxonomy of CF types and learners' immediate uptake moves. All episodes which included learner errors were identified by the researchers. Then, instances with teacher feedback were extracted. In order to investigate the amount of uptake by the participants, an uptake sheet was utilized. The uptake sheet was facile and easy to understand. Corrective feedback and uptake were coded and tabulated. It was shown that recasts were the most highly frequent type of feedback followed by explicit correction and prompts. In addition, the frequency of uptakes followed by recast was higher than the uptakes followed by explicit correction and prompts. The results of ANOVA revealed a significant difference among various amounts of uptake followed by different types of feedback ($p > .034$).

KEYWORDS: Corrective feedback; Explicit explanation; Prompt; Recast; Uptake

1. Introduction

As indicated by Nassaji (2016), uptake is the immediate student answers that happen after feedback. Chaudron (1977) was one of the main specialists who emphasized the significance of student reactions following input. Lyster and Ranta (1997) later utilized the term uptake to discuss such reactions. Lyster and Ranta (1997) also stated that uptake is any reaction following input, the reactions might go from those that changed the student's original output to expressions which just admitted the receipt of the criticism. In addition, Lyster and Ranta (1997) categorized uptake considering learner repair and stated that uptake shows that learners attempt to accomplish something through feedback.

The idea of uptake has been explored in various studies. Nonetheless, there are contrasts among studies as to what sort of student reactions ought to be considered as uptake. According to some scholars (e.g., Nassaji, 2011a), uptake isn't just a student reaction, yet it is an endeavor including some level of change of the output following feedback. This comprehension of uptake is by all accounts more significant in that the term uptake, connotes that students have to some degree benefitted from the input, though reactions of affirmation don't really do as such.

Uptake has been explored in various studies about interactional feedback. A few contrasts exist among these investigations about the sort of student reactions which ought to be considered as uptake. A few researchers accept that uptake isn't a straightforward reaction of students, yet it includes some level of changes of the first result following criticism (Nassaji, 2011b). Effective uptake conducts students to see the error between their non-target-like output and their target-like production (Egi, 2010), which acts as an impetus for their interlanguage change (Gass, 1997). Real uptake incorporates students' alteration of their structures which are mistaken. In this way, uptake is distinguished as a solid indicator of learning as shown by the discoveries of common posttests (e.g., Loewen, 2005; Nassaji, 2011a).

Oral corrective feedback (CF) has been defined as providing information "about the success of their [learners'] utterances and giving additional opportunities to focus on production and comprehension" (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 329). Feedback in language classes promotes students' awareness. "Teacher can use feedback in a motivating way to reduce the gap between the student's understandings and also how the teacher wants him to develop (Carvaldho, et al., 2014, p.170). Gower and Phillips (2004) claimed that "the aim of feedback is to bring improvement and raise self-awareness" (as cited in Rahman, 2012, p.9). According to Ur (1995) "feedback has two main components, error correction and assessment" (as cited in Akter 2010, p. 9).

According to Ellis et al. (2006), "Corrective feedback takes the form of responses to learner utterances that contain error" (p. 340). Mendez and Cruz (2012) believed that the responses can range from "(a) an indication that an error has been committed, (b) provision of the correct target language form, or (c) information about the nature of the error, or any combination of these" (p. 64). Feedback has a role in most of the theories of second language learning and language pedagogy. In both behaviorism and cognitive theories of language learning, feedback is attributed to language learning. And also it is seen as a means of increasing student motivation in both structural and communicative language teaching (Ellis, 2009).

Feedback is an important part of an instructional model. Reigeluth (1999) contends that feedback is a method of instruction that can nurture cognitive learning. Reigeluth (1999) gives an example of instructional design theory called "Theory One" that was defined by Perkins (1992) and explains that teaching should include informative feedback as well as other methods like clear information, and strong motivation. According to Merrill (1994), feedback has a crucial position within an instructional design theory.

2. Literature review

Merrill's (1994) Component Display Theory considers feedback as the most important part of Secondary Presentation Forms which are "information added to the Primary Presentation Forms to enhance the learning that occurs" (p. 150) in an instructional activity. According to this theory, feedback may happen during practice and/or explanation stages. According to Merrill (2002) feedback is the most essential form of learner guidance. To show the important position of feedback, Andrews and Goodson (1980) claimed that feedback is included in one of the purposes of instructional design that is to improve evaluation process "by means of the designated components and sequence of events, including feedback and revision events, inherent in models of systematic instructional design" (p. 4).

The instructional designs have been affected by various learning theories like behavioral learning theory and cognitive information processing theory of instruction. All of these theories consider feedback as an important part of learning and instruction. Driscoll (2002) believes that these theories of learning and instruction have provided a strong foundation for current practices of instructional design; for example, concepts such as reinforcement and feedback as presented by Skinner's behavioral learning theory introduced in Skinner's (1958) Teaching Machines. According to the behavioral view of learning, reinforcement and feedback can have important instructional effects on student learning as they can shape learner behavior by reinforcing correct responses or providing corrective feedback for incorrect responses. In behavioral learning theory, a learner's behavior is checked before and after an instruction. An instruction is not effective if the expected behavioral changes that are related to instruction do not happen. According to Driscoll (2007) "these observations (providing feedback) are part of formative evaluation, which is used to collect information about whether instruction has resulted in learning and how it might be improved to result in better learner performances" (p. 38). According to Lockee, et al. (2007), the idea of "reinforcement through evaluation and feedback" (p. 192) in systematic instructional design is based on Skinnerian theory.

According to cognitive information processing theory, feedback has a significant value in instructional design. According to Information processing theory learning is an internal process within the learner (Driscoll, 2007), where the learner processes input from the environment to become necessary output as a result of learning. Driscoll (2007) believed that feedback serves two functions in learning process. First, feedback provides learners with information about the correctness of their responses or performance. Second, feedback provides corrective information that can be used by the learners to modify their performance.

Feedback is also an integral part of Gagne's systematic instructional design model. Gagne's (1985) model of instructional design includes gaining attention, informing the learner of the objective, stimulating recall of prerequisite learning, presenting the stimulus material, providing learning guidance, providing feedback, assessing performance, and enhancing

retention and transfer. Gagne et al. (1992) confirm the important function of feedback in an instructional program and emphasize that one important characteristic of feedback is its function, which is to provide information to learners relating to the correctness of their performance.

As the present study aimed to investigate the effect of feedback on EFL learners' uptake, the following section is devoted to uptake. A number of studies have so far been conducted on uptake (Mackey et al., 2000; Oliver 2000; Ellis et al., 2001a; Panova & Lyster 2002; McDonough 2005). Some studies have shown that learner uptake plays a positive role in learners' second language development (McDonough, 2005; Loewen, 2005). On the other hand, some others are not sure about whether uptake leads to long-term learning (e.g. Nabei & Swain 2002; Morris & Tarone 2003). It is argued that "learners' uptake may not fully represent their cognitive processing of the feedback" (Nabei & Swain 2002, p. 45). According to Morris and Tarone (2003) "uptake, in the form of recast repetition, may not be a reliable indicator of acquisition" (p. 328). However, Nabei and Swain (2002) claim that a "learner's immediate response after recast feedback might not be appropriate evidence for evaluating its effect [i.e. for assuming that acquisition has taken place]" (p. 45). Still, some studies suggest that uptake may have a longer-term effect. As a case in point, Iwashita (2003) showed that general learner accuracy increased significantly as the number of recasts was provided during a treatment period, and the accuracy rate was constant.

According to McDonough (2005) uptake "may contribute to target language development by strengthening knowledge representation that learners already have stored and by encouraging automatic retrieval of linguistic forms" (p. 83). McDonough (2005) found that when learners produced more complex forms in uptake or modified output, they were more likely to produce these forms in later utterances, again suggesting sustained impact. Similarly, Loewen (2005) observed that successful uptake is considered a significant predictor of correct test scores. This is still another clue that supports the assumption that uptake leads to better language development.

In a recent study, Gholami and Gholami (2018) investigated the degree to which incidental focus-on-form episodes (FFEs) with formulaic sequences occur, and the extent to which they result in uptake in EFL classes. To gather the data, 36 hours of communicative classroom interactions from three advanced EFL classes were audio-recorded. It was shown that learners and teachers regularly draw their attention to formulaic sequences. FFEs with formulaic focus as well as collocations led to more uptake than those with other linguistic foci. Finally, among types of incidental FonF, the highest rate of (successful) uptake was observed in student-initiated FFEs with a formulaic focus.

In a study, Ellis et al. (2001a) explored student uptake in the center around structure episodes in an informative ESL instructing class. The results revealed that student uptake was higher than whatever was mentioned about submersion classrooms. In a new report, Gholami and Gholami (2018) explored how much incidental focus on form episodes (FFEs) with formulaic sequences occur, and the degree to which they bring about uptake in EFL classes. To gather the data, 36 hours of communicative classroom interactions from three progressed EFL classes were sound recorded. It was shown that students and instructors usually pay attention to formulaic sequences. FFEs with conventional concentration just as collocations prompted more uptake than those with other semantic foci. Finally, among kinds of incidental FonF, the most noteworthy pace of (effective) uptake was seen in student-initiated FFEs with standard concentration.

Gholami et al. (2017) examined three classifications of formulaic sequences (FSs), in particular, collocations, lexical packs, and figures of speech in incidental focus on form (F on F). 30 hours of recorded interaction between the instructor and the class in three EFL classes were analyzed. A sum of 1102 occurrences of FFEs were recognized, 38% of which were of formulaic sequences. The outcomes showed more non-formulaic FFEs than formulaic ones. Preemptive formulaic FFEs and student-initiated episodes were utilized more as often as possible than other kinds. Among the FSs, collocation was the category with the highest frequency.

Gholami and Bassirian (2011) researched learner- and teacher-initiated focus on form episodes (FFEs), just like the following rate of uptake moves. To do this, 18 meetings of a moderate EFL class were noticed, sound recorded, and examined. A think-aloud protocol incidental on structure sheet was used to assemble occurrences of student-and-teacher-produced FFES. The results showed that teacher-initiated FFEs were higher and more effective. In dealing with the existing gap, the present descriptive study aimed to investigate the effects of various types of feedback on EFL learners' uptake using an instrument called 'uptake sheet', along with the traditional procedure of measuring uptake through audio-recorded data, so as to gain a clearer picture of uptake by cross-checking the results from both procedures. Another purpose of this study was to measure the level to which the feedback leads to attention. A review of the existing literature during recent decades shows that corrective feedback improves linguistic knowledge. On the other hand, not much research has so far investigated the interplay between uptake and corrective feedback; therefore, the present study intended to compare the uptake and amount of attention after feedback in EFL classes. Therefore, the following research questions were addressed:

Q1: Does the type of feedback significantly affect EFL learners' uptake?

Q2: Does feedback lead to more learners' attention in EFL classes?

3. Method

3.1. Data source

The data were from a study conducted at a language institute in Isfahan, Iran. The data were obtained from classroom observations of 9 classes. The observation included 80 h of classroom observations. To make sure that the data were manageable, of data, only four classes were selected, with two from each data set. Accordingly, the data for the current study consisted of 18 h of recordings from each setting, totaling 36 h. The participants all were at intermediate proficiency level according to a placement test. The test at the beginning of the study was a proficiency test which was an adapted version of the proficiency test, with different test items but the same question types and scoring rubrics.

In addition to class observation, an online test (test of EFL learners' self-correction) was run on Big Blue Button platform. The test was an open-ended one in a structure similar to semi-structured interviews. Learners answered each question and wrote down what they do to rectify themselves in such situations.

3.2. Instruments

3.2.1. Uptake sheet

Uptake sheet was first introduced as a method of data collection by Allwright (1984) on learners' perceptions about what they learned in their language classes. Allwright (1984) gathered learners' reports about their learning which he called 'uptake'. According to Mackey and Gass (2005), in classroom research, through uptake, the learners are asked to mark or note things on which the researcher or teacher is focusing. A copy of the uptake sheet is put in Appendix A.

3.2.2. The test of attentional and interpersonal style (TAIS) (Greher, 2000)

The TAIS has 144 items and is comprised of 17 sub-scales, nine of which attempt to evaluate how one might behave during certain interpersonal situations. The other six sub-scales attempt to evaluate attentional processes, while two others attempt to evaluate behavioral and cognitive control. The TAIS is a measure, designed using a rational-intuitive approach toward test construction.

The present study implemented the short form of the TAIS (see Appendix B) because of the complicated nature of the standard version and its 17 subscales. This version of the TAIS is comprised of 12 questions concerning attentional skills, each of which is rated based on the following scale: 0 = never, 1 = rarely, 2 = sometimes, 3 = 18 frequently, and 4 = all the time. High numeric value responses indicate effective attention, while low numeric value responses indicate ineffective attention.

The twelve items constitute six subscales, with two items per scale. These six subscales are identical to those intended to assess attention in the full-length version of the TAIS and include (1) the Broad-External subscale (BET), (2) the Broad-Internal subscale (BIT), (3) the Narrow Effective Focus subscale (NAR), (4) the External Overload subscale (OET), (5) the Internal Overload subscale (OIT), and (6) the Errors of Under inclusion subscale (RED).

3.2.3. Test of EFL learner's self-correction

The test was an open-ended one which was answered by learners via Big Blue Button platform. The items asked learners what they would do in the situations provided. They answered the questions and revealed themselves. The answers were scrutinized by the researcher and categorized into themes similar to FB types namely surface correction, deep correction, reformulation,

3.3. Participants

The participants of the present study included a number of 60 EFL learners who were within the age range of 16 to 24, with 30 learners in each class. The classes met twice a week, and each meeting lasted 1.5 h. The teacher was the same person who taught the three classes. The students had an average age of 19.1, all with Farsi as their mother tongue and English as a foreign language. None had ever visited an English-speaking country.

3.4. Data collection

The data for the present thesis were obtained from classroom observations. During the observations, the lessons were recorded and the author took notes. In order to obtain the data, classroom interactions were both audio-recorded using an MP3 recorder.

The MP3 recorder was put in a position so that it was convenient for the teacher. The focus was on teacher feedback and learner uptake with the same coding scheme.

3.5. Data coding scheme

In order to investigate the effects of teachers' CF on learners' uptake, the current study employed Lyster and Mori's (2006) taxonomy of CF types and learners' immediate uptake moves. All episodes which included learner errors were identified by the researcher. Then, instances with teacher feedback were extracted. An episode containing feedback was a sequence in which a learner made a mistake, then the teacher gave feedback, and it ended with the learner's reaction (adapted from Lyster & Mori, 2006).

In order to investigate the amount of uptake by the participants, an uptake sheet was utilized. The uptake sheet used in this research was the one employed by Gholami and Bassirian (2010). A sample of the used uptake sheet is put in the appendix. In the present research, the teacher's interactions with the whole class were audio recorded, and the learner-learner interactions were not recorded.

The uptake sheets were distributed among the learners at the beginning of every session and they were gathered at the end of each session. This was done to make sure of immediate, on-the-site uptake moves. In addition, the learners were taught to write only those language forms which they observed in the class, no matter if they were presented by the teacher. The learners were also taught how to fill in the uptake sheet. CF and uptake were coded and tabulated. CF was coded for its type, linguistic focus and emphasis. Based on Lyster and Mori (2006), it was coded into three major types: recasts, prompts, and explicit correction. Recasts refer to teachers' reformulation of learners' problematic utterances in part or full without changing their meanings. Prompts refer to techniques teachers use to elicit the target form from learners, such as clarification requests and linguistic cues. Explicit correction consists of two elements: a message alerting the learner to the presence of an error plus a provision of the correct form. Having completed the data collection phase, the audio-recorded data were transcribed.

Based on Loewen (2004), the linguistic focus of CF was coded into four categories: grammar (e.g. incorrect tense), vocabulary (e.g. inappropriate word choice), pronunciation (e.g. inaccurate stress), and other (including pragmatic and spelling errors).

Results of the EFL test of self-correction were categorized in themes mentioned in the previous section. They were subsequently compared with CF types.

4. Results

The first research question of the present research intended to investigate whether the type of feedback significantly would affect EFL learners' uptake. The results regarding this research question are presented in the following section. In so doing, first, the frequency of all types of feedback is presented.

Table 1. Distribution of CF by Type

Feedback type	Recast	Prompts	Explicit correction	Total
Frequency	135	31	89	255
Percentage	52.95	12.15	34.90	100%

Totally, several 255 feedback types were identified in the corpus drawn from the observation of classes from which 135 (52.95%) were recasts, 89 (34.9%) were explicit corrections and 31 (12.15%) were prompts.

Table 2. Uptake Following each Type of Feedback obtained from Uptake Sheets

Feedback Type	Recast	Prompts	Explicit Correction	Total
Uptake(Frequency)	113	21	45	179
Uptake(Percentage)	63.12%	11.73%	25.13	100%

Table 2 shows the frequency of uptakes followed by different types of feedback. As shown in Table 2, the frequency of uptakes followed by recast was 113 which counted for 63.12% of the total number of uptakes. Furthermore, a percentage of 25.13% of the uptakes were followed by explicit correction. Finally, a frequency of 21 uptakes (11.73%) was observed after

prompts. In order to investigate whether the type of feedback significantly affects the amount of uptake, an ANOVA was employed.

Table 3. ANOVA

	frequency
Chi-Square	2.000
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.034

As shown in Table 3, a significant difference was observed among various amounts of uptake followed by different types of feedback ($p > .034$). In order to have a clearer picture of the issue under study, the number of uptakes in different language skills and subskills were compared and contrasted.

Table 4. Uptake in Different Language Skills and Subskills

Feedback Type	Grammar	Pronunciation	Vocabulary	Other	Total
Uptake(Frequency)	83	45	41	10	179
Uptake(Percentage)	46.36%	25.13%	22.90%	5.58%	100%

As shown in Table 3, grammar included the highest percentage of uptake in the corpus with a percentage of 46.36% of the corpus. The next type of uptake was uptake in pronunciation which accounted for 25.13% of the corpus. The last type of language skill which followed feedback was uptake in vocabulary knowledge which accounted for 22.9% of the corpus. The rest 5.58% of the corpus included other types of language skills.

Table 5. ANOVA Statistics

	frequency
Chi-Square	1.953
df	3
Asymp. Sig.	.044

As presented in Table 4, a significant difference was observed among the various subcategories of language skills as the effects of different types of feedback.

The second question of the present study aimed to investigate if feedback leads to more learners' attention in EFL classes. In so doing, the Test of Attentional and Interpersonal Style was employed. Then, the scores obtained from the questionnaire were compared and contrasted. Table 6.

Table 6. One-way ANOVA on the Attention Scores Based on Feedback Type

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	917.200	2	458.600	5.052	.010
Within Groups	5174.200	57	90.775		
Total	6091.400	59			

Table 6 gives both between-groups and within-groups sums of squares, degrees of freedom, F value, etc. The significant value is smaller than .05 ($.010 < .05$), so there is a significant difference somewhere among the attention level of EFL learners due to various types of feedback.

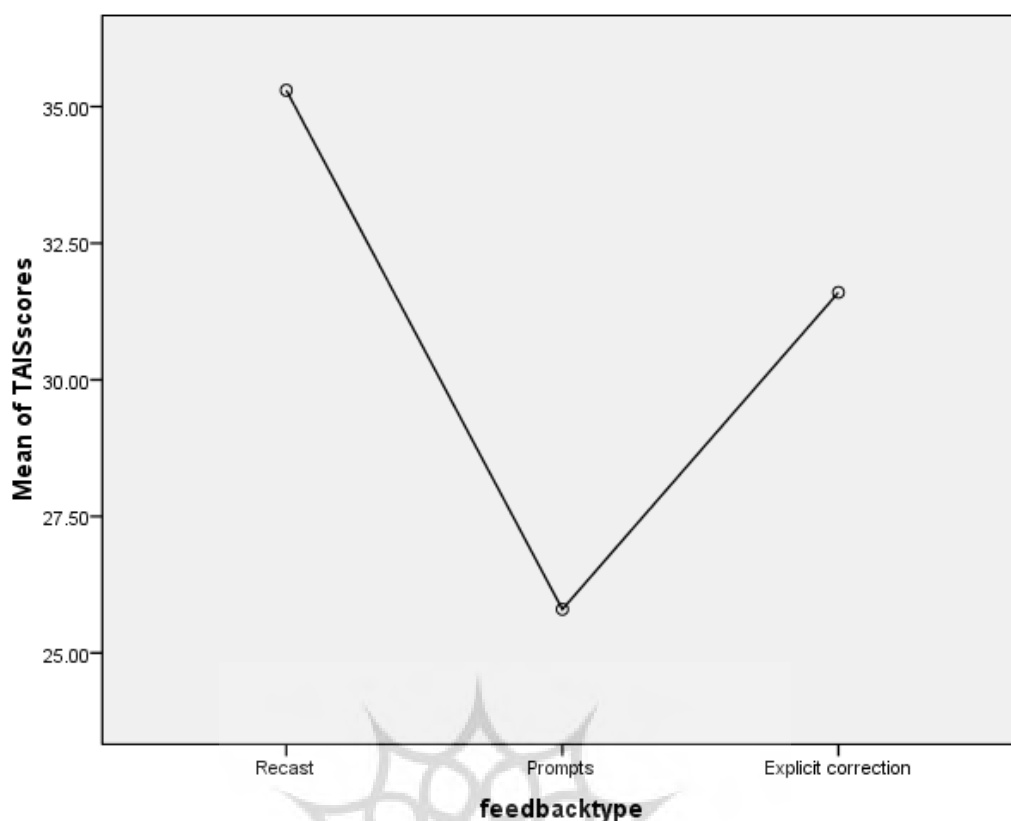


Figure 1. Mean Comparison of Attention Level Based on Type of Feedback

Figure 1 compares the attention level of the participants based on three types of feedback. The mean difference among the attention level based on the three types of feedback is clear. It is difficult, however, at this point to tell if this significant difference occurred between which type of feedback, since an ANOVA provides information on whether or not these groups differ, but it provides no information as to the location or the source of the difference. Having received a statistically significant difference, we can now look at the results of the post-hoc test provided in Table 7 to be able to locate the source of significance in our data.

Table 7. Post-hoc Scheffe Test (Post-test, Multiple Comparisons)

	(I) feedback type	(J) feedback type	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	Recast	Prompts	9.50000*	3.01290	.007	2.2497	16.7503
		Explicit correction	3.70000	3.01290	.442	-3.5503	10.9503
	Prompts	Recast	-9.50000*	3.01290	.007	-16.7503	-2.2497
		Explicit correction	-5.80000	3.01290	.141	-13.0503	1.4503
	Explicit correction	Recast	-3.70000	3.01290	.442	-10.9503	3.5503
		Prompts	5.80000	3.01290	.141	-1.4503	13.0503
LSD	Recast	Prompts	9.50000*	3.01290	.003	3.4668	15.5332
		Explicit correction	3.70000	3.01290	.224	-2.3332	9.7332
	Prompts	Recast	-9.50000*	3.01290	.003	-15.5332	-3.4668
		Explicit correction	-5.80000	3.01290	.059	-11.8332	.2332
	Explicit correction	Recast	-3.70000	3.01290	.224	-9.7332	2.3332
		Prompts	5.80000	3.01290	.059	-.2332	11.8332

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

As presented in Table 7, there are some asterisks besides some values in a column titled mean differences. As the caption of the table shows, the asterisks determine that the values are significant. The only significant difference exists between EFL learners' attention due to recasts and prompts. This means that the attention level of EFL learners due to recast was significantly higher than their attention level due to prompts and explicit correction; however, there was no significant difference between the attention level of EFL learners due to prompts and explicit correction.

Table 8. The results of the self-correction test analysis

Feedback type	Recast	Prompts	Explicit correction	Total
Frequency	135	31	89	255
Percentage	52.95	12.15	34.90	100%

5. Discussion

The purpose of the present research was to investigate if the type of feedback significantly affected EFL learners' uptake. In addition, it aimed to search if feedback could lead to more learners' attention in EFL classes. It was shown that recasts were the most highly frequent type of feedback followed by explicit correction and prompts. In addition, the frequency of uptakes followed by recast was higher than the uptakes followed by explicit correction and prompts.

The results of a *Kruskal Wallis* Test revealed a significant difference among various amounts of uptake followed by different types of feedback ($p > .034$). Further analysis of the results revealed that uptake level which was observed in grammar significantly more than in pronunciation and vocabulary. The results of an ANOVA also showed a significant difference in EFL learners' attention levels of EFL learners due to various types of feedback. The findings of the present study can be justified in light of Li (2020), and Wang and Loewen (2016) who noted that the utility of CF is primarily grounded in the interaction hypothesis and the noticing hypothesis. According to the interaction hypothesis (Gass, 1997; Long, 1996), feedback (especially recasts) embedded in negotiated interaction prompts the learner to notice the gap between the target form and the erroneous utterance and to make adjustments to his/her interlanguage. According to the noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990), which is

closely related to the interaction hypothesis, language learning is mainly a conscious process and that only input that has been noticed can be converted into intake. CF facilitates the noticing of linguistic forms, especially structures that are often not attended to by the learner.

The high frequency of recasts is in line with the findings of previous studies (e.g. Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Sheen, 2004). This can be attributed to the fact that EFL lessons focused on learners' speaking skills which emphasized fluency over accuracy, and this made implicit feedback such as recasts, a better choice for the learners. The EFL classes focused more on listening and speaking, and most group works were meaning-focused. In such activities, it was not suitable for the teacher to break the interaction permanently. Therefore, recast, which is usually unobtrusive and does not interrupt the flow of communication, as noted by Long (2007) and Lyster et al., (2013), was chosen as the teacher's preferred feedback strategy.

6. Implications

The attentional system is a complicated construct involving various influences related to the instruction and the learner. The results of the present study showed that various types of feedback do not let language learners notice a specific construct. In fact, the findings of the present study suggest that most students do not pay continuous attention after different types of feedback; however, there are specific factors which can be controlled by the teacher. Language teachers can control the type of feedback that they exert to their learners, and give for example, recast more often, as this type of feedback leads to more uptake and more attention level.

7. Conclusion

Uptake is a learner's reaction to the CF on his/her utterance. Researchers (e.g. Ellis et al., 2001) claim that uptake may lead to acquisition since it helps learners to automatize the linguistic form and integrates the target form in immediate L2 production. Other researchers (e.g. Long, 2007) believe that uptake is a discourse phenomenon and is not a guarantee for acquisition as it may not be produced by the learners. In addition, topic continuation sometimes provides no opportunity for learners to respond to CF. On the other hand, uptake has been researched as an important observable source for understanding the effectiveness of CF (e.g. Bao & Du, 2015).

8. Limitations and suggestions for further research

Similar to other studies, there are some limitations for this study. First of all, considering the sample size employed it should be known that the sample was limited to EFL students studying at a language institute, the results may be different with university students. The generalizability of the present study is also limited by the fact that there were more female participants than male participants. In addition, the participants fell within the age range of 16 to 24 years old. Finally, the data collection tools were limited to questionnaires and uptake sheets. Further research can consider the mentioned limitations and can make use of other instruments and employ other participant groups to investigate if similar results will be obtained.

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10. Appendices

Appendix A

Sample Uptake Sheet

	Who said it? (check as many as you wish)			Was it NEW to you?	
	Teacher	Classmate	Me	Yes	No
What are you noticing about...					
Pronunciation					
Vocabulary					
Grammar					

Appendix B

Test of Attentional and Interpersonal Style (Short Form)

0 = Never; 1 = Rarely; 2 = Sometimes; 3 = Frequently; 4 = All the time

Please circle the number that describes you most.

1. I am good at quickly analyzing a complex situation such as how a play is developing in football or which of four or five kids started a fight. 0 1 2 3 4
2. It is easy for me to bring together ideas from a number of different areas. 0 1 2 3 4
3. In games I make mistakes because I am watching what one person does and I forget about the others. 0 1 2 3 4
5. It is easy for me to keep thoughts from interfering with something I am watching or listening to. 0 1 2 3 4
6. In a room filled with children or on a playing field I know what everyone is doing. 0 1 2 3 4
7. I have so many things on my mind that I become confused and forgetful. 0 1 2 3 4
8. I get confused trying to watch activities such as a football game or circus where many things are happening at the same time. 0 1 2 3 4
9. I have difficulty clearing my mind of a single thought or idea. 0 1 2 3 4 10.
10. When people talk to me, I find myself distracted by the sights and sounds around me. 0 1 2 3 4
11. It is easy for me to keep sights and sounds from interfering with my thoughts. 0 1 2 3 4
12. All I need is a little information and I can come up with a large number of ideas. 0 1 2 3 4
13. When people talk to me, I find myself distracted by my own thoughts and ideas. 0 1 2 3 4

Appendix C

1. What would you do if you use a wrong word in your sentence formulation?
2. What would you do if teacher's FB does not suffice?
3. What would you do if your structure is ill-formed?
4. How would you rectify your errors concerning register of words?
5. How would you rectify your errors concerning cohesion and coherence?