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Investigating the Effect of Implicit and Explicit Oral Corrective Feedback on Iranian EFL Learners' Speaking Ability: The Interactive Role of Self-Regulation Strategy

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Abstract

This study aimed to investigate the influence of two types of OCF on Iranian EFL learners' speaking skills, the effect of SRS on EFL learners' speaking proficiency, and the interactive role of self-regulation strategy (SRS) with the two types of OCF. The research involved 60 female teenage students from Gonbad-e-Kavous secondary high school in Golestan province, divided into three groups of twenty: 'control,' 'implicit,' and 'explicit.' The Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was used to homogenize the students' language proficiency levels. Consent forms and self-regulation questionnaires were distributed at the beginning of the experiment. The data was collected through pre-test and post-test speaking assessments (using IELTS sample tests) and analyzed using Two-Way ANOVA and Two-Way ANCOVA. The results revealed that there were significant differences between the explicit, implicit, and control groups' post-test means after considering the pretest's impact. Additionally, there was a notable variance between the low and high self-regulation groups' average scores in relation to their post-test results, even after accounting for the pretest's impact. Finally, there was no significant interaction between the types of feedback (explicit, implicit, and control) and self-regulation levels. The current investigation is of importance for language teachers to integrate supplementary techniques of corrective feedback in their teaching approaches, with a focus on explicit corrections during the oral assignments of students.

Keywords: Explicit and Implicit Oral Corrective Feedback, Self-Regulation Strategy (SRS), Speaking Skills, Written Corrective Feedback (WCF)

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1. Introduction

1.1. OCF and Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

Over the last twenty years, the practice of CF, also known as error correction or negative feedback, has gained more and more attention in language teaching. "Teachers respond to student errors by providing CF" (Ellis, 2006, p. 28), which can take the form of pointing out the error's source, providing the target form, or referencing the error's linguistic nature with a metalinguistic explanation. Specific types of CF can alert learners to discrepancies between their output and the correct linguistic structure.

Some scholars (Krashen, 1982; Schwartz, 1993; Truscott, 1999) have questioned the effectiveness of CF as negative evidence, given the importance of positive evidence in language teaching and learning. Krashen (1982) argued that CF might be helpful for writing, but not for oral production. Schwartz (1993) dismissed CF's contribution to language proficiency improvement, viewing its effects as superficial and temporary. Truscott (1999) was the most critical of all, believing that CF was harmful to language development in learners and should be avoided. However, others have countered that unlike first language (L1) acquisition, where positive evidence dominates, L2 learning benefits from both positive and negative evidence (Long, 1996).

Moreover, Ellis and Sheen (2006) demonstrated that some types of CF contain both positive and negative evidence. A growing body of research has also examined the efficacy of CF and shown how it contributes to L2 learning (Ellis, 2006; Ellis et al. 2006; Li, 2010; Lyster et al., 2013).

1.2. The Theoretical Background of OCF

The theoretical background of OCF in the EFL context can be understood through various theoretical frameworks, including behaviorism, cognitivism, and sociocultural theory.

Behaviorism views language learning as a process of habit formation through reinforcement and conditioning (Skinner, 1957). In the context of OCF, behaviorist theory suggests that providing feedback on learners' errors can help them develop correct language habits through positive reinforcement.

Cognitivism, on the other hand, emphasizes the role of mental processes in language learning, such as attention, memory, and processing capacity (Anderson, 1983). According to this theory, OCF can facilitate learners' noticing of their errors and help them to restructure their mental representation of the language system.

Sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978) posits that learning is a social and cultural activity that occurs through interaction with more experienced others. In the context of OCF, sociocultural theory suggests that feedback from teachers or peers can provide learners with opportunities to engage in social interaction and negotiation of meaning, leading to language development.

Several studies have explored the theoretical underpinnings of OCF. For example, Lyster and Ranta (1997) suggest that OCF can facilitate learners' metalinguistic awareness, or the ability to reflect on and analyze language forms. Sheen (2007) argues that OCF can promote learners' noticing of linguistic features, leading to improved accuracy in language use.

In conclusion, the theoretical background of OCF in the EFL context encompasses behaviorist, cognitivist, and sociocultural perspectives, which suggest that OCF can facilitate language learning through reinforcement, mental restructuring, and social interaction.

1.3. Implicit and Explicit OCF

CF plays a crucial role in the teaching and learning of language as it enables learners to enhance their language precision and suitability (Lyster et al., 2013). Among the various types of CF provided by EFL instructors during classroom interactions, one of the most common is OCF (Ellis, 2010). OCF can be classified into two primary categories: implicit and explicit.

Implicit OCF refers to feedback that does not overtly identify learners' mistakes but aims to help them recognize and rectify their errors (Lyster et al., 2013). For instance, a teacher may use recasts, wherein the teacher repeats the student's incorrect statement with the appropriate form, without explicitly pointing out the error (e.g., Student: “I goed to the store yesterday” Teacher: “Oh, you went to the store yesterday?”). Implicit OCF

assumes that learners have the ability to self-correct by noticing their own errors through exposure to language input (Lyster et al., 2013).

Explicit OCF, on the other hand, is the feedback that explicitly highlights learners' errors and provides the correct form (Lyster et al., 2013). For example, a teacher may correct a student's mistake after they have finished speaking (e.g., Student: "I have visit my friend last weekend" Teacher: "Good job! You visited your friend last weekend."). Explicit OCF assumes that learners require direct and explicit guidance to correct their errors (Lyster et al., 2013).

Research on the effectiveness of OCF has produced mixed results, with some studies suggesting that both implicit and explicit OCF can enhance learners' accuracy (e.g., Russell & Spada, 2006), while others have found that explicit OCF is more effective than implicit OCF (e.g., Ellis et al., 2006).

The choice of OCF type depends on several factors, such as learners' proficiency level, cognitive and affective traits, and the learning setting (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Implicit OCF may be more appropriate for learners who are less self-conscious and may feel embarrassed or discouraged by explicit correction (Lyster & Mori, 2006). Explicit OCF, on the other hand, may be more beneficial for learners who are less proficient and require more guidance to correct their errors (Lyster, 2013).

In conclusion, both implicit and explicit OCF are valuable tools for EFL teachers to help their learners improve their language accuracy and appropriateness. The choice of OCF type should be based on the learners' needs and the learning context.

1.4. Self-regulation

SRS are key tools for language learners to take control of their learning process and make progress toward achieving their language learning goals. In an EFL context, where learners may have limited exposure to the target language outside the classroom, SRS can be particularly useful in helping learners to compensate for this lack of exposure (Oxford, 2011).

There are several types of SRS that learners can use to enhance their language learning. One of the most important types of strategies is cognitive strategies. These are techniques that learners use to process and

understand new information, such as repetition, summarization, and elaboration (Oxford, 2011). Research has shown that cognitive strategies can be particularly effective in improving reading comprehension in EFL learners (Maftoon & Tasnimi, 2014).

Another important type of SRS is the metacognitive strategy. These are techniques that learners use to monitor and regulate their learning process. For example, learners can set goals, plan their learning activities, and evaluate their progress toward achieving their goals (Oxford, 2011). Studies have shown that the use of metacognitive strategies can lead to improvements in language proficiency and learner autonomy (Zhang & Hu, 2016).

Socio-affective strategies are also important in an EFL context. These strategies involve managing emotions, motivation, and social interaction. For example, learners can seek out opportunities to practice the target language, control their anxiety, and establish positive relationships with other learners and teachers (Oxford, 2011).

Teachers can support the development of SRS by explicitly teaching these techniques and encouraging learners to use them regularly. Teachers can also provide opportunities for learners to practice using these strategies, such as through goal-setting exercises or reflective writing activities (Chen et al., 2022).

In conclusion, SRS are essential tools for language learners in an EFL context. These strategies enable learners to take control of their own learning, become more autonomous, and improve their language proficiency. By explicitly teaching and encouraging the use of these strategies, teachers can support learners in their language-learning journey and promote lifelong learning skills.

Drawing upon the aforementioned theoretical foundations, the present investigation aimed to determine whether either category of OCF exerted any influence on the speaking ability of Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. Additionally, the study sought to ascertain the potential impact of self-regulation techniques on the participants' speaking abilities and to explore the reciprocal relationship between these self-regulation techniques and speaking proficiency.

2. Literature Review

2.1. New Studies on OCF in EFL Contexts

The subject of providing CF in L2 teaching has been a matter of debate. Every year, new studies are conducted to examine this topic. Despite having a history of over 50 years, the last decade has seen a surge in research on this subject. The findings from earlier studies suggest that further exploration is required to study CF from diverse theoretical perspectives.

In an EFL context, Atmaca (2016) explored the perceptions of both teachers and students toward WCF. Although the two groups showed no significant differences, the responses to open-ended questions revealed some disparities. The study concluded that teachers should clearly communicate their expectations at the outset of classes to avoid any misunderstandings. Most of the existing research on WCF focuses on its effectiveness and various forms. For instance, Aghajanloo et al. (2016) investigated the impact of teachers' CF on different forms, including focused direct, unfocused direct, focused indirect, and unfocused indirect CF. The findings indicated that the participants who received CF performed better than those who did not. The study also highlighted that unfocused directive CF is the most effective type and can serve as a valuable learning tool.

Despite the fact that CF research primarily focuses on WCF, studies have also been conducted on OCF. Yang (2016) explored the preferences of learners for WCF, taking into account their cultural backgrounds and proficiency levels in a Chinese EFL context. The learners were provided with OCF for “phonological, lexical, grammatical, and pragmatic errors” (p.75). The findings revealed that the most favored types of CF among the learners were metalinguistic, explicit CF, and recast. Teachers strive to use effective tools to help their learners master their language skills, and communication is an integral part of these skills. Hence, corrective feedback can be given on any aspect of learning the target language. For example, Tavakoli and Zarrinabadi (2016) examined explicit and implicit CF on learners’ willingness to communicate. The participants were low-intermediate groups of Iranian EFL learners. The results showed that explicit CF had no impact on the participants’ willingness to

communicate, but it did increase the effects. Overall, explicit CF boosted learners' willingness to communicate and confidence.

Numerous studies have explored the inclinations of learners when it comes to corrective feedback (CF) in diverse settings. Experts in the field of L2 teaching and researchers opine that comprehending the preferences of learners can aid teachers in selecting the most effective forms of CF to provide. In China, Chen et al. (2016) conducted a research study to assess the learners' affinity for written corrective feedback (WCF). The study collected quantitative and qualitative data from participants who had intermediate, advanced-intermediate, and advanced proficiency levels. The findings revealed that the participants had a preference for error correction, and they desired comments on both content and grammar. Overall, the study suggests that WCF is a valuable tool for learning in EFL environments.

Despite the many studies conducted on the advantages of corrective feedback (CF) and its various forms, researchers continue to investigate CF in diverse countries and contexts to gather valid data that either supports or opposes the provision of CF. For instance, Park et al. (2016) explored the benefits of indirect CF among Korean students learning English as a foreign language (EFL). The study involved beginner and intermediate-level learners, and the findings were compared with the participants' prior language exposure. The results indicated that learners were able to self-correct more than one-third of their errors. Additionally, the study suggested that language teachers need to consider individual differences among learners. Likewise, Tangkiengsirisin and Kalra (2016) researched the effectiveness of direct and indirect written corrective feedback (WCF) on Thai learners. The findings demonstrated that the group that received direct CF improved significantly compared to the group that received indirect CF.

Since the inception of writing on CF, the primary emphasis has been on exploiting CF to enhance the L2 skills of learners (i.e., more focus on writing and grammatical precision), while very little has been documented on how CF can be utilized for teacher development. In this context, Lee et al. (2015) conducted a study on teachers' endeavors toward feedback innovations in the writing classroom. The research was carried out with

two secondary teachers in Hong Kong, who participated in a writing teacher education program. The findings revealed that the teachers were unable to implement CF entirely due to certain situational factors from the school, such as insufficient time, and they were not backed by the school.

Numerous elements impact the acquisition of language, including intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Mahmoudi, 2015). However, limited research has been carried out on the influence of writing apprehension and drive on learners' self-assessment of corrective feedback. In Tsao et al.'s (2017) research, the authors analyzed how anxiety and motivation forecast learners' evaluation of corrective feedback. The findings revealed that learners were driven to enhance their skill level, and 37% of the participants experienced anxiety when learning how to write in English.

Presumably, a considerable amount of research has been conducted on CF, which means that reviewing published articles could lead the reviewer to encounter similar studies on the same subject but in different contexts. In an EFL context, Sermsook et al. (2017) endeavored to examine the impact of teachers' CF on learners' grammatical improvement. According to previous research, both direct and indirect CF, whether written or oral, are advantageous for learners. Similarly, Kurzer (2017) investigated dynamic written corrective feedback (DWCF) as a means of boosting learners' writing skills in a multilevel class. The findings suggested that DWCF could function effectively as a pedagogical tool in writing classes to enhance learners' linguistic accuracy. Conversely, Tan and Manochphinyo's (2017) study showed that, for subject-verb agreement, indirect CF was more effective than direct CF. As previously mentioned, it is crucial to take into account learners' preferences for CF and their beliefs before delivering CF. This is reinforced by Han's (2017) research, which concluded that when providing feedback, teachers should consider learners' beliefs because learners' engagement with CF is reliant on three primary factors, namely, "person-related beliefs, task-related beliefs, and strategy-related beliefs" (p.9).

There has been limited exploration into the correlation between teachers’ feedback and students’ inclinations. However, Irwin’s (2018) investigation endeavored to analyze the various connections between the teachers’ corrective feedback and the learners’ preferences. The findings

indicated that the teacher was primarily responsible for catering to the learners' preferences. Moreover, it was observed that when providing corrective feedback, the teacher was the primary focus in the classroom, rather than the learners. The deductions drawn from the study suggested that teachers must take into account their learners' preferences while presenting corrective feedback.

Academics and instructors of second language learners have been exploring ways to offer effective feedback, including direct and indirect comments, metalinguistic feedback, and the use of codes. This type of research has been ongoing for over forty years, and new studies are published regularly with similar or contrasting findings. Multiple investigations, such as those conducted by Karim and Nassaji (2018), Tang and Liu (2018), and Benson and DeKeyser (2018), have examined various forms of feedback, including indirect coded corrective feedback (CF), direct and indirect comprehensive CF, and metalinguistic CF, to gauge their impact on L2 learners' writing accuracy. Overall, the results and conclusions have shown significant improvement in learners' writing accuracy. Additionally, Zheng and Yu (2018) studied how much lower-level Chinese learners engaged with written corrective feedback (WCF) and found positive engagement, but no improvement in writing accuracy. Similarly, Han (2019) explored factors that enhance learners' engagement with WCF, drawing on data from writing samples, verbal reports, interviews, field notes, and class documents. The results indicated that students perceived CF as a valuable learning opportunity that enhances their engagement with WCF.

Given the changing circumstances, the teaching methodology for L2 might require adaptation to suit the learners and the teaching environment. In 2019, as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, most teaching classes were conducted online or through a blended approach. During this time, Sarré et al. (2019) conducted a study in France to explore the effect of various types of corrective feedback on enhancing learners' writing accuracy in an experimental blended learning EFL course. Participants were required to write multiple pieces of writing, with one group receiving no feedback, while the other group received unfocused indirect feedback with metalinguistic comments, and computer assistance was also

provided. Upon analysis of the data, it was discovered that the groups that received corrective feedback performed better than the group that received no feedback.

In the realm of L2 instruction, a great deal has been written about written or spoken corrective feedback (CF). Researchers have delved into the intricacies of CF's effectiveness, advantages, and drawbacks in various countries and contexts. Educators of L2 are left wondering about the optimal amount of CF to provide: is it better to provide more or less? Recently, Lee (2019) conducted a study titled "Teacher Written Corrective Feedback: Less is More." The author contends that "less written corrective feedback is actually more effective than more" (p.1). Lee argues that providing comprehensive written corrective feedback (CWCF) is problematic for both teachers and students. She posits that it takes up too much time and precludes teachers from addressing other crucial writing issues, such as context, organization, and genre. Moreover, providing feedback on a heap of student writing papers has an emotional and psychological impact on teachers, who may feel compelled to give feedback quickly. This may lead to illegible and incorrect WCF. What is worse is when students cannot comprehend the teachers' feedback. Additionally, providing excessive feedback and highlighting students' mistakes in red ink is overwhelming and perplexing, which can discourage students from improving and using the feedback provided. Thus, based on the aforementioned reasons, Lee (2019) argues that less feedback is more effective.

One of the primary objectives of providing corrective feedback (CF) is to enhance the precision of learners' spoken or written language. Scholars are keen on exploring CF as a means to improve grammatical accuracy. Boggs (2019) and Kim and Emeliyanova (2019) endeavored to examine the impact of CF on enhancing grammatical accuracy among Korean EFL university students in academic English writing courses and intermediate-level English learners enrolled in an intensive English program in the USA. The researchers collected data through surveys, interviews, and timed writing essays. The study's results revealed that the groups that received CF showed an increase in grammatical accuracy compared to the control group. However, providing metalinguistic reflections did not yield

any significant improvement in grammatical accuracy among the treatment groups.

Studies (e.g., Lee, 2019) have indicated that CF may have an impact on the psychological and emotional well-being of both learners and teachers. Therefore, it is important to comprehend the effects of CF on other cognitive aspects, such as learners' working memory. Li and Roshan (2019) conducted a study to explore the relationship between working memory and the impacts of four types of WCF (i.e., direct corrective feedback, direct corrective feedback plus revision, metalinguistic explanation, and metalinguistic explanation plus revision). Participants were required to complete three writing tasks and two working memory tests. The findings revealed that the effectiveness of metalinguistic corrective feedback was related to the complexity of working memory. Conversely, direct feedback had a negative impact on short-term memory. In another study, Mao and Crosthwaite (2019) examined the (mis)beliefs of teachers regarding WCF practices. The researchers collected data from five Chinese teachers to investigate the extent to which their CF practices aligned with their beliefs. The results showed that there was a correlation between teachers' beliefs and the provision of WCF. However, the participants also expressed some discrepancies regarding their beliefs towards WCF practices, such as time constraints and workload. Additionally, Eckstein et al. (2020) conducted a study that explored the effects of dynamic WCF and feedback timing on graduate students. The researchers investigated how provided feedback influenced grammatical accuracy and lexical complexity. The findings revealed that the timing of feedback did not affect students' writing accuracy, but timely feedback positively impacted writing fluency and complexity.

The debate surrounding the provision of corrective feedback (CF) remains a contentious issue for L2 teachers and researchers. To gain further insight into its effectiveness, more research is necessary. Typically, learners receive either excessive or insufficient feedback, but its impact on their writing proficiency and accuracy is critical. The key question is whether learners utilize the feedback provided by their instructors to enhance their writing skills. Does encouraging them to incorporate the given CF into their work facilitate improvement? Ekanayaka and Ellis

(2020) conducted a study to explore the additional benefits of requesting learners to revise their work after receiving CF. The participants were EFL students from Sri Lanka, who were tasked with completing three writing assignments. The findings revealed that the group that received CF demonstrated an improvement in writing accuracy. Overall, feedback, whether or not learners have the opportunity to revise their work, aids in enhancing their writing abilities. An intriguing study (e.g., Kartchava & Mohamed, 2020) was conducted to examine the use of gestures in providing corrective feedback. The data was collected through observation and interviews, and the participants were two English for academic purposes (EAP) teachers. Following data collection, the teachers viewed short clips from their lessons and were asked about their reasons and motivations for using gestures in class. The results showed that EAP teachers actively employed gestures while providing CF. Moreover, they used gestures to facilitate the role of CF in learning.

As observed earlier, CF has been extensively researched. However, there is still more research available that investigates the same or slightly different aspects. Cao (2021) explored the impact of WCF on the accuracy of writing among young learners. Once again, the participants were Chinese EFL learners who were required to describe a picture and complete a blank-filling task. Various types of WCF were provided, including direct corrective feedback and metalinguistic CF. The results indicated a positive effect of CF on the learners, but the effect was not significant in the delayed post-test. The direct and metalinguistic CF were both found to be statistically effective and significant in both tests. In a similar study, Bozorgian and Yazdani (2021) conducted research on Iranian EFL learners who received different types of WCF, including Direct only and direct with a metalinguistic explanation. Overall, the results demonstrated a positive effect of CF, and learners' writing accuracy was improved (see Cheng & Zhang, 2021). Furthermore, Mahmood (2021) investigated the effects of WCF and its types on Kurdish EFL learners at university. The participants received explicit and implicit WCF, and the results indicated that the participants were not fully aware of the benefits of WCF. Regarding the preferred types of WCF, the results showed that the participants were in favor of both explicit and implicit

types. On the other hand, Zhang and Hyland (2022) examined the effects of three types of WCF, namely automated, peer, and teacher feedback, to determine the level of engagement. The results showed that the students actively engaged with all three types of CF, and the provided CF encouraged the learners to be more motivated in revising their writing tasks. Due to the scarcity of the topic in an Iranian context, the current study sought to provide an answer to the following research questions:

1. Does explicit/implicit CF have a significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' speaking?
2. Does Self-regulation have a significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' speaking?
3. What is the interactive effect between self-regulation and types of feedback?

Also, the null hypotheses of the current study were the followings:

1. Explicit/implicit corrective feedback did not have any significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' speaking.
2. Self-regulation did not have any significant effect on Iranian EFL learners speaking.
3. There was not any significant interactive effect between self-regulation and types of feedback.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

The study utilized a sample of 60 students from a Secondary High School in Gonbad-e Kavoos, employing a convenience sampling method. The cohort was distributed equally into three classes, with each class comprising 20 students. One class served as the control group, while the other two were designated as Experimental Group 1 and Experimental Group 2. The participants were all within the age range of 16 to 18 years old at the start of the research, with a total of 60 female students in the initial cohort. The English proficiency level of the students was intermediate.

3.2. Instrument

In this investigation, information was gathered by administering an IELTS sample speaking test and an Oxford Placement Test to ensure that

the subjects possessed comparable language proficiency levels. The data obtained from the self-regulation test, pre-test and post-test of speaking, and Oxford Placement Test were subjected to analysis using Two-Way ANOVA and Two-Way ANCOVA.

3.3. Data Collection Procedure

In this investigation, the researchers deliberately chose participants through a quasi-experimental design to be instructed in three classes that were uniform in terms of language proficiency, with the aim of examining the influence of OCF on Iranian EFL learners' oral communication skills. The data collection started in February 2023 and lasted for one and a half months in Gonbad-e-Kavous, Golestan province. The researchers first explained the study to all the learners and allowed them to decide whether or not to participate.

The next day, the researcher distributed the consent forms and the self-regulation questionnaire to all the students. The individuals who were interested in joining the study were required to sign the consent form before filling out the questionnaire. The questionnaire took approximately 15 minutes to complete, including 5 minutes for instructions and 10 minutes for answering. The researcher ensured that all the students who wished to participate comprehended the questionnaire's items before gathering all the completed forms. After collecting all the questionnaires, the language proficiency test was conducted. The OPT sessions were held in the classrooms and took about 30 minutes. The instructor assigned two tasks that included picture descriptions, and the students spoke for about five minutes each. The instructor provided both explicit and implicit feedback during this period. After completing two more picture-description tasks, the researcher finally realized how much the feedback had altered.

3.4. Data Analysis Procedure

Through this study, the collected data were analyzed using Two-Way ANOVA, and Two-Way ANCOVA. These statistical techniques, besides their own specific assumptions which will be discussed when reporting the main results, assume the normality of the data.

4. Results

4.1.Overview

The objective of this research was to examine how explicit, implicit, and traditional CF with low and high self-regulation affects the speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners. The data was analyzed using Two-Way ANOVA and Two-Way ANCOVA, both of which require the data to be normally distributed. To verify the normality assumption, the skewness and kurtosis indices and their ratios over the standard errors were calculated, and the results were compared against the expected values when skew and kurtosis were not different from 0. As per Field (2018, p 345-46), a ratio greater than ± 1.96 is significant at $p < 0.05$, above 2.58 is significant at $p < 0.01$, and above 3.29 is significant at $p < 0.001$. The computed ratios (Table 1) were lower than ± 1.96, indicating that the normality assumption was met. This criterion was also supported by Raykov and Marcoulides (2008), Coaley (2010), Abu-Bader (2021), and the IBM SPSS Documentation, which suggested the criteria of ± 2.

Table 1. *Skewness and Kurtosis Indices of Normality*

		N	Skewness			Kurtosis		
Group		Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Ratio	Statistic	Std. Error	Ratio
Explicit	Pretest	20	-.842	.512	-1.64	1.314	.992	1.32
	Posttest	20	.049	.512	0.10	-.394	.992	-0.40
	OPT	20	-.033	.512	-0.06	-.615	.992	-0.62
	Self-Regulation	20	-.878	.512	-1.71	.612	.992	0.62
Implicit	Pretest	20	-.785	.512	-1.53	-.213	.992	-0.21
	Posttest	20	-.194	.512	-0.38	-.357	.992	-0.36
	OPT	20	-.133	.512	-0.26	-.566	.992	-0.57
	Self-Regulation	20	-.855	.512	-1.67	.499	.992	0.50
Control	Pretest	20	-.393	.512	-0.77	-.570	.992	-0.57
	Posttest	20	.194	.512	0.38	-.357	.992	-0.36
	OPT	20	.275	.512	0.54	.045	.992	0.05
	Self-Regulation	20	.762	.512	1.49	.282	.992	0.28

4.2. KR-21 Reliability Indices

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics and KR-21 reliability indices for the OPT and self-regulation. The two tests enjoyed KR-21 reliability

indices of .79 and .84 respectively. These reliability indices can be considered as "appropriate" based on the criteria proposed by Fulcher and Davidson (2007, p 107), "Tests that do not achieve reliabilities of 0.7 are normally considered to be too unreliable for use, and high-stakes tests are generally expected to have reliability estimates in excess of 0.8 or even 0.9".

Table 2. *Descriptive Statistics and KR-21 Reliability Indices for Oxford Placement Test and Self-Regulation*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	KR-21
OPT	60	23.12	6.450	41.596	.79
Self-Regulation	60	46.08	8.844	78.213	.84

4.3. Inter-Rater Reliability Indices

The performance of EFL learners on the pretest and posttest of speaking was rated by two raters. The Person correlations (Table 3) were computed to estimate the inter-rater reliability for the five tasks of writing.

Table 3. *Pearson Correlations for Inter-Rater Reliability Indices*

		Pretest Rater2	Posttest Rater2
Pretest Rater1	Pearson Correlation	.784**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	60	
Posttest Rater2	Pearson Correlation		.802**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N		60

The level of correlation reached statistical significance at the 0.01 threshold (2-tailed). The findings revealed that there were substantial agreements among the evaluators regarding the pretest (r (58[1]) = .784, indicating a large effect size, p = .000) and posttest of speaking (r (58) = .802, indicating a large effect size, p = .000). [1] The degree of freedom for Pearson Correlation is calculated as N-2. Since the current sample size was 60, the degree of freedom was 58. [2] Pearson correlation itself serves as a measure of effect size and can be communicated by utilizing the following benchmarks: .10 = Weak, .30 = Moderate, and .50 = Large (Gray & Kinnear, 2012; Pallant, 2016; Field, 2018).

4.3. Homogenizing Groups on Oxford Placement Test

In order to demonstrate that the groups had similar general language proficiency before the main study, a Two-Way ANOVA was conducted to compare the means of the low and high self-regulation explicit, implicit, and control groups on the OPT test. It is important to note that the assumption of equal variances, as assessed by Levene's test, was upheld for the OPT test. Levene's test yielded non-significant results ($F (5, 54) = .711$, $p > .05$) (Table 4), indicating that the variances of the groups on the OPT test were similar. Before delving into the findings, it should be emphasized that the groups were homogeneous in terms of their general language proficiency.

Table 4. *Test of Homogeneity of Variances of Oxford Placement Test by Groups*

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
OPT	Based on Mean	.818	5	54	.542
	Based on Median	.711	5	54	.618
	Based on the Median and with adjusted df	.711	5	40.178	.618
	Based on trimmed mean	.807	5	54	.550

Table 5 shows the three groups' means on the OPT test. The results showed that the explicit ($M =24.18$, $SE = 1.51$), implicit ($M = 22.50$, $SE = 1.48$), and control ($M = 23.10$, $SD = 1.51$) groups had almost the same means on the OPT test.

Table 5. *Descriptive Statistics of Oxford Placement Test by Groups*

Group	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Explicit	24.188	1.511	21.159	27.216
Implicit	22.500	1.480	19.533	25.467
Control	23.104	1.511	20.076	26.133

The outcomes of the Two-way ANOVA are displayed in Table 6. The findings ($F (2, 54) = .326$, $p > .05$, $p\eta 2 = .012$ indicating a feeble effect size) demonstrated that there were no notable variations among the means of the three groups concerning the OPT test. This suggests that the three groups had similar levels of overall language proficiency before the

treatments were administered. It is worth noting that Partial Eta Squared should be appraised using the subsequent benchmarks; .01 = Insignificant, .06 = Average, and .14 = Considerable (Gray & Kinnear, 2012; Pallant, 2016).

Table 6. *Two-Way ANOVA of Oxford Placement Test by Groups by Levels of Self-Regulation*

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Group	28.533	2	14.266	.326	.723	.012
SRLevel	22.602	1	22.602	.516	.476	.009
Group * SRLevel	46.996	2	23.498	.536	.588	.019
Error	2365.867	54	43.812			
Total	34517.000	60				

Note. SRLevel stands for Levels of self-regulation which has two levels: low and high.

Table 7 shows the low and high self-regulation groups' means on the OPT test. The results showed that the low (M =23.88, SE = 1.22) and high (M = 22.64, SD = 1.22) groups had almost the same means on the OPT test.

Table 7. *Descriptives Statistics of Oxford Placement Test by Levels of Self-Regulation*

Group	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Low	23.886	1.225	21.430	26.342
High	22.642	1.225	20.185	25.098

As shown in Table 6, there was not any significant difference between low and high self-regulation groups' means on OPT ($F (1, 54) = .516$, $p > .05$, $p\eta^2 = .009$ representing a weak effect size). Thus; it was concluded that the two groups were homogenous in terms of their general language proficiency before administering the treatments.

Table 8. *Descriptives Statistics for Oxford Placement Test by Group by Levels of Self-Regulation*

Group	SRLevel	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Explicit	Low	25.875	2.340	21.183	30.567
	High	22.500	1.911	18.669	26.331
Implicit	Low	23.200	2.093	19.004	27.396
	High	21.800	2.093	17.604	25.996
Control	Low	22.583	1.911	18.752	26.414
	High	23.625	2.340	18.933	28.317

And finally, as shown in Table 6, there was not any significant interaction between types of treatments; i.e., explicit, implicit, and control; and levels of self-regulation ($F (2, 54) = .536$, $p > .05$, $p\eta^2 = .019$ representing a weak effect size). As shown in Table 8 and Figure 1, all groups had roughly the same means on OPT.

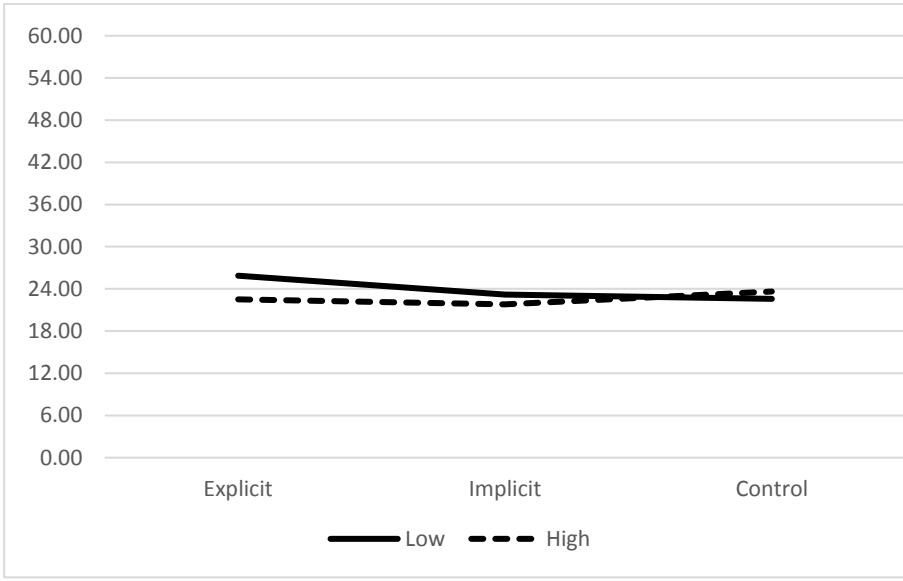

Figure 1. Means on Oxford Placement Test by Groups by Levels of Self-Regulation

4.4. Exploring Null-Hypotheses

This study utilized a Two-Way ANCOVA to explore the three hypotheses proposed. Prior to delving into the findings, it is important to

provide a brief overview of the analysis of covariance. Analysis of covariance designs was created to compare the means of two or more groups on one or more dependent variables while accounting for the impact of one or more covariates. In this section, the Two-Way ANCOVA was utilized to compare the posttest results of the low and high self-regulation explicit, implicit, and control groups (dependent variable), while controlling for the pretest results (covariate). By utilizing the Two-Way ANCOVA, the researcher was able to address all three research questions with a single analysis. If the assumptions of Two-Way ANCOVA, which are outlined below, had not been met, the researcher would have needed to conduct two separate two-way ANOVA analyses; one on the pretest results and the other on the posttest results.

In addition to the normality assumption discussed earlier, there are three more assumptions that must be met for Two-Way ANCOVA to be appropriate. These include linearity between the dependent variable (posttest) and the covariate (pretest), homogeneity of regression slopes, and homogeneity of group variances. Each of these assumptions will be discussed in detail below.

The premise of linearity necessitates that the correlation between the speaking pretest and posttest is linear. The linearity assessment results are presented in Table 9. The linearity test yielded significant outcomes ($F (1, 56) = 16.94$, $p < .05$, $\eta 2 = .270$) indicating a considerable effect size [1]. As a result, the null hypothesis, which suggested that the relationship between the two tests was not linear, was invalidated. In other words, there existed a linear connection between the speaking posttest and the pretest.

[1] Eta Squared was calculated as the Sum of Squares Between Groups / Sum of Squares Total. The interpretation of the value should be based on the following criteria: .01 = Weak, .06 = Moderate, and .14 = Large (Gray & Kinnear, 2012; Field, 2018). The two-way ANCOVA presupposes that the posttest and pretest of speaking have a consistent linear correlation throughout the groups, which means there is a homogeneity of regression slopes.

Table 9. *ANOVA Test of Linearity of Relationship between Pretest and Posttest of Speaking*

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Posttest * Pretest	Between Groups	(Combined)	36.768	3	12.256	6.904	.000
		Linearity	30.084	1	30.084	16.946	.000
		Deviation from Linearity	6.684	2	3.342	1.882	.162
	Within Groups		99.415	56	1.775		
	Total		136.183	59			
	Eta Squared		.270				

The insignificant correlation between the independent variables, such as groups and levels of self-regulation, and pretest of speaking ($F (1, 50) = .294$, $p > .05$, $\eta 2 = .012$, indicating a low effect size) (Table 10), suggests that the linear correlation between the pretest and posttest of speaking is consistent across the groups.

Table 10. *Testing Assumption of Homogeneity of Regression Slopes for Pretest and Posttest of Speaking*

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Group	2.254	2	1.127	2.585	.085	.094
SRLevel	5.239	1	5.239	12.015	.001	.194
Pretest	3.547	1	3.547	8.135	.006	.140
Group * Pretest	6.300	2	3.150	7.224	.002	.224
SRLevel * Pretest	2.289	1	2.289	5.250	.026	.095
Group * SRLevel * Pretest	.256	2	.128	.294	.746	.012
Error	21.804	50	.436			
Total	2029.000	60				

Ultimately, it must be noted that for two-way ANCOVA to be applicable, it is imperative that the variances of the groups are approximately equal, indicating homogeneity of variances amongst groups. However, Levene's test ($F (5, 54) = 2.66$, $p < .05$) (Table 11) revealed significant results, suggesting that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was not met for the posttest of speaking.

Despite this violation, there is no need for concern as there exists a straightforward solution to address this issue. By reducing the alpha level (significance level) from .05 to .01 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014), the assumption of homogeneity of variances can be compensated for. This explains why the results of Two-Way ANCOVA (Table 4.13, and Table 4.14) were reported at .01 levels.

Table 11. *Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances for Posttest of Speaking by Group by Levels of Self-Regulation with Pretest*

F	df1	df2	Sig.
2.669	5	54	.032

Table 12 shows the descriptive statistics for the posttest of speaking by groups. The results showed that the explicit group (M = 6.63, SE = .162) had the highest mean on the post-test of speaking after controlling for the effect of the pre-test. This was followed by implicit (M = 5.79, SE = .161), and control groups (M = 4.30, SE = .164).

Table 12. Descriptive Statistics for Posttest of Speaking by Group with Pretest

Group	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Explicit	6.635[a]	.165	6.304	6.966
Implicit	5.796[a]	.161	5.474	6.119
Control	4.309[a]	.164	3.980	4.638

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Pre-Speaking = 2.53.

The primary outcomes of the two-way ANCOVA are presented in Table 13. The findings ($F (2, 53) = 51.16$, $p < .01$[1], $\eta 2 = .659$ indicating a substantial effect size) revealed noteworthy variations among the explicit, implicit, and control groups' mean scores on the speaking posttest while controlling for the pretest effect. As a result, the initial null hypothesis that "explicit/implicit CF had no significant impact on the speaking skills of Iranian EFL learners" was dismissed. It should be noted that the results were reported at the .01 significance level due to the violation of the Homogeneity of Variances assumption, as shown in Table 11.

Table 13. *Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Posttest of Speaking by Group by Levels of Self-Regulation with Pretest*

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Pretest	.105	1	.105	.205	.653	.004
Group	52.653	2	26.326	51.167	.000	.659
SRLevel	16.750	1	16.750	32.554	.000	.381
Group * SRLevel	3.562	2	1.781	3.461	.039	.116
Error	27.270	53	.515			
Total	2029.000	60				

Table 14 shows the results of the post hoc comparison tests. Based on these results, and the descriptive statistics shown in Table 12 it can be concluded that A: The explicit group (M = 6.635) had a significantly higher mean than the implicit group (M = 5.796) on the post-test of speaking (MD = .838, $p < .01$[2]) after controlling for the effect of the pre-test; B: The explicit group (M = 6.635) had a significantly higher mean than the control group (M = 4.309) on the post-test of speaking (MD = 2.326, $p < .01$) after controlling for the effect of the pre-test; C: And finally; the implicit group (M = 5.796) had a significantly higher mean than the control group (M = 4.309) on the post-test of speaking (MD = 1.488, $p < .01$) after controlling for the effect of the pre-test. Figure 2 shows the three groups' means on the post-test of speaking after controlling for the effect of the pre-test.

Table 14. *Post-Hoc Comparisons Tests for Posttest of Speaking by Group with Pretest*

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for Difference	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Explicit	Implicit	.838*	.231	.001	.375	1.302
	Control	2.326*	.233	.000	1.858	2.794
Implicit	Control	1.488*	.229	.000	1.028	1.947

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

[2] Since the assumption of Homogeneity of Variances was violated (Table 4.11), the results were reported at .01 levels.

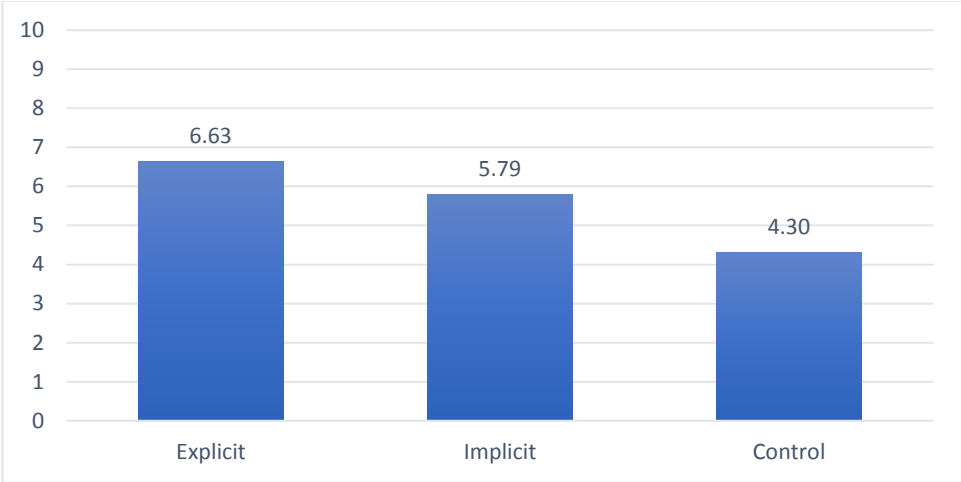

Figure 2. Means on Posttest of Speaking by Groups with Pretest

The outcomes presented in Table 13 ($F(1, 53) = 32.55$, $p < .01$, $\eta 2 = .351$ which denotes a considerable impact size) revealed that there existed a notable difference between the average scores of the low and high self-regulation cohorts on the post-speaking test, after accounting for the impacts of the pretest. As a result, the second null hypothesis that claimed "self-regulation had no significant impact on the speaking skills of Iranian EFL learners" was dismissed. As demonstrated in Table 15, the high self-regulation participants ($M = 6.39$, $SE = .172$) recorded a higher average score compared to the low self-regulation group ($M = 4.76$, $SE = .169$) on the speaking test, while considering the influence of the pretest. Figure 3 provides an overview of the average scores of the two groups on the post-speaking test, after controlling for the pretest's impact.

Table 15. *Descriptive Statistics for Posttest of Speaking by Levels of Self-Regulation with Pretest*

Group	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Low	4.769[a]	.169	4.430	5.108
High	6.391[a]	.172	6.047	6.735

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Pre-Speaking = 2.53.

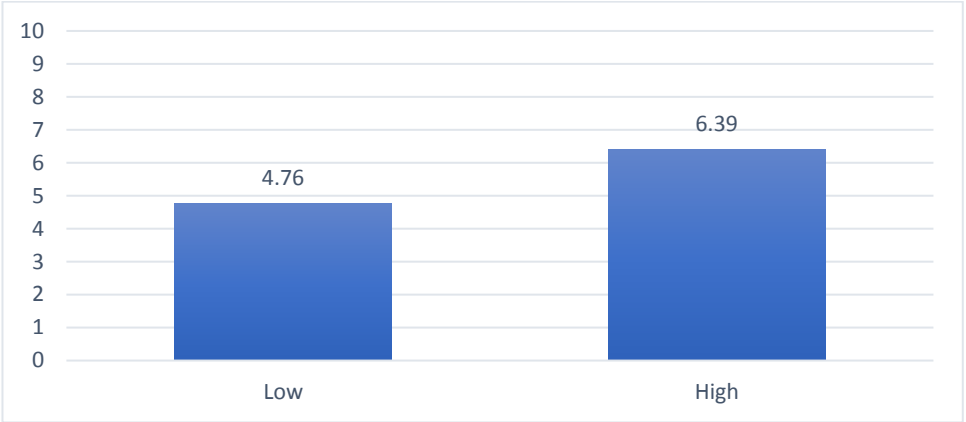

Figure 3. Means on Posttest of Speaking by Levels of Self-Regulation with Pretest

Lastly, the outcomes illustrated in Table 13, specifically (F (2, 53) = 3.42, p > .01, η2 = .116 which indicates a moderate impact size), confirmed that there was no notable correlation between the impact of different levels of self-control and various types of treatments on the posttest of oral proficiency, after adjusting for the pretest effect. Therefore, the third null hypothesis claiming that "there was no significant interactive effect between self-regulation and types of feedback" was supported, despite the need for cautious interpretation due to the moderate effect size of .116. As presented in Figure 4 and Table 16, the high self-regulation groups exhibited higher means than the low self-regulation groups across all three types of treatments.

Table 16. *Descriptive Statistics for Interaction between Levels of Self-Regulation and Group on Posttest of Speaking with Pretest*

Group	SRLevel	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Explicit	Low	5.470[a]	.262	4.945	5.996
	High	7.799[a]	.234	7.330	8.268
Implicit	Low	5.144[a]	.259	4.625	5.662
	High	6.449[a]	.251	5.945	6.954
Control	Low	3.694[a]	.241	3.210	4.178
	High	4.924[a]	.276	4.371	5.477

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Pretest = 2.53.

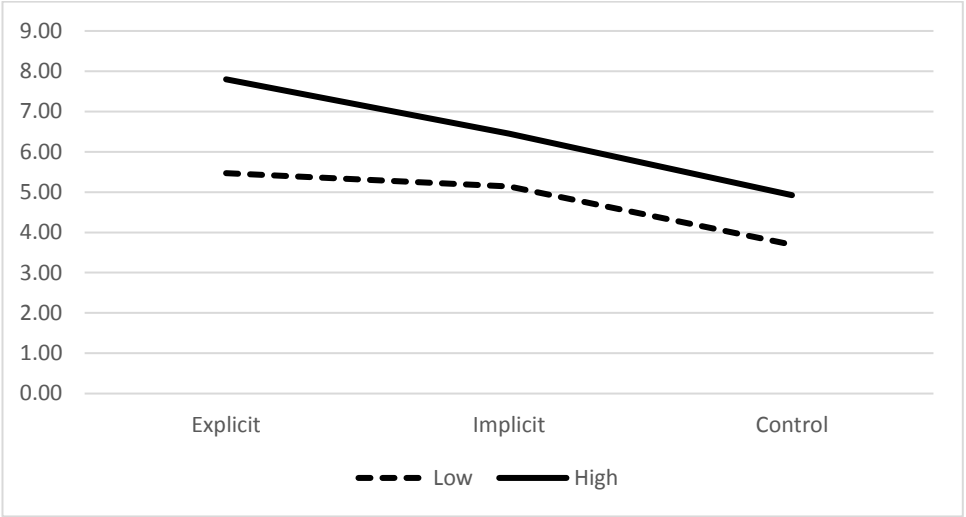

Figure 4. Means on Posttest of Speaking by Groups by Levels of Self-Regulation with Pretest

5. Discussion

The primary objective of this investigation was to comprehend how the impact of OCF, whether it was explicit or implicit, affected the speaking abilities of Iranian EFL learners. The outcomes of this study showed that there were noteworthy variations in the mean scores of the post-test of speaking among the explicit, implicit, and control groups, even after accounting for the impact of the pretest. Therefore, the initial hypothesis that "explicit/implicit CF had no significant influence on the speaking proficiency of Iranian EFL learners" was refuted.

The results of Khunaivi and Hartono's (2015) investigation align with the following discovery: the majority of students' difficulties with speaking (for example, errors in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, etc.) can be ameliorated by utilizing corrective feedback (CF) methods such as explicit correction, repetition, and reformulation. Additionally, the study determined that incorrect linguistic structures can become more entrenched if these CF techniques are not employed.

In addition, Penning de Vries et al. (2020) investigated the positive impact of corrective feedback (CF) on language acquisition. The study was conducted in a controlled environment using a computer-assisted language learning (CALL) system with features such as automatic speech

processing and logging capabilities. The researchers compared the effects of CF on spoken grammar practice to a condition with no corrective feedback (NOCF). The CALL system also recorded learning outcomes, evaluative measures, and practice behavior. The results showed that the practice behavior varied based on the educational background, which was related to the learning outcome. The study found that learners with high and medium education levels benefited from speaking practice in both conditions, while low-educated learners did not show any improvement in either condition. Furthermore, the study revealed that CF had a positive trend on the practice effectiveness for medium and high-educated learners.

Similarly, to the results of the present investigation, Dlaska and Krekeler (2013) undertook research to examine the effects of individual corrective feedback (ICF) on L2 pronunciation. Their findings demonstrated that ICF was more efficacious than solely listening interventions in enhancing L2 comprehensibility. Consequently, the study determined that ICF is a notably superior pedagogical approach compared to exclusively listening-based activities.

A recent investigation by Zohrabi and Ehsani (2014) aimed to examine how implicit and explicit corrective feedback contributes to the English accuracy and awareness of Persian-speaking EFL learners. The study's final findings, which align with our current research, demonstrated that both implicit and explicit groups experienced an improvement in their grammar accuracy and awareness. Additionally, the explicit group had better results than the implicit group, indicating that explicit corrective feedback is more effective than implicit. These results underscore the significance of providing corrective feedback in EFL environments, where a teacher's guidance and feedback are crucial methods for enhancing learners' language abilities.

Besides the preceding in-line investigations, Nhac (2021) carried out a similar examination to scrutinize the influence of teachers' corrective feedback (CF) on students' speaking accuracy. The findings demonstrate that the effectiveness of CF is explicitly recognized due to the comparative analysis of the consequences of the learners' performance on the post-tests. In particular, the outcomes of the overt CF marginally outweighed

the outcomes of the group under the implicit feedback regime, regarding the enhancement of learners' precise application of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. The discoveries underscore the significance of teachers' corrective feedback in facilitating students in enhancing their English proficiency.

Furthermore, Gamlo (2019) conducted a separate investigation which demonstrated that students typically held the belief that corrective feedback (CF) from their educators, rather than their peers, could significantly enhance their speaking proficiency and grammatical competence. Additionally, the study discovered that students favored receiving prompt (overt) CF over deferred CF, a finding that contrasts with the results of the present study.

Based on the findings of our second research query, it was discovered that students who employed high levels of self-regulatory strategies benefited more on their speaking tests than those who utilized low levels of SRS. These results are corroborated by Seker, M. (2016), who aimed to emphasize the importance of self-regulated learning strategies (SRL) in language education by exploring its impact on language accomplishment. Data was gathered from two sources: a self-regulated language learning questionnaire, which was rated on a five-point Likert scale, and the university's English achievement exam. The quantitative analysis revealed that even though participants reported moderate to low levels of SRL application, it is a significant predictor of foreign language achievement and had significant correlations with language accomplishment. These findings highlight the necessity of SRL research in the foreign language teaching field and promote SRL implementation in language instruction.

Aligned with the affirmative role of SRS in language acquisition, as once again verified in our investigation, Maftoon and Tasnimi (2014) conducted a study to examine the impact of self-regulation on the reading comprehension of EFL students. In order to achieve the objectives of this research, 149 Iranian EFL learners who were enrolled at Islamic Azad Universities of Qazvin and Tehran were randomly assigned to two groups, namely experimental and control. The experimental group was provided with direct instruction and task-based training on self-regulation in

reading, which included tasks and activities based on the self-regulation strategies (SRS) proposed by Zimmerman (1989) in ten sessions. The findings indicated that self-regulation significantly influenced the reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners.

Ghanizadeh and Mirzaee (2012) delved into the connection between self-regulation, evaluative thought, and language success in EFL learners. The findings corroborated the theoretical prospects of a correlation between self-control and evaluative thought. Further analysis of the data showed that self-monitoring and self-confidence, two components of self-regulation approaches, exhibited the strongest correlation and were positive indicators of evaluative thought. Moreover, the outcomes showed that self-control in EFL learners could predict approximately 53% of their language success, while their evaluative thought capacity tended to predict about 28% of achievement.

Similarly, Jafarigohar and Morshedian (2014) sought to investigate how providing self-regulation guidance to intermediate EFL readers would impact their capacity to draw inferences from the text. The results of a parametric one-way between-group ANCOVA indicated that the experimental group performed better than the control group on the EFL reading comprehension post-test, particularly with respect to within-text inferencing. This discovery demonstrated that self-regulation guidance focused on EFL reading comprehension was a significant factor in enhancing learners' ability to accurately make inferences from English foreign language text.

In relation to the third research question, there was no significant correlation found between the various types of treatments, namely explicit, implicit, and control, and the levels of self-regulation. Nonetheless, these findings differed somewhat from those of other researchers. Various studies have indicated that the effectiveness of corrective feedback (CF) can be influenced by the SRS employed by learners. For instance, Pohan (2023) discovered that learners with higher levels of self-regulation were more likely to benefit from explicit CF, whereas those with lower levels of self-regulation were more responsive to implicit CF. Similarly, Rassaei's (2019) study revealed that learners with higher levels of self-regulation derived greater benefits from implicit

feedback (recasts) than from explicit feedback, whereas the reverse was true for learners with lower levels of self-regulation. Additionally, some studies have examined the impact of SRS on the uptake of CF. For example, MacDonald et al.'s (2012) study found that learners with higher levels of self-regulation were more likely to notice and utilize CF in their subsequent speech production.

To sum up, the connection between self-management techniques and OCF is intricate and ever-changing. The efficiency of CF is influenced by a range of factors, such as the feedback nature and the personal traits of the learners (e.g., Adhamjonov, 2022; Sanders et al., 2022; Shieh et al., 2022; Taddarth, 2019). Hence, it is essential for educators to take into account the learners' self-management strategies while delivering CF during class.

6. Conclusion and Implication

The objective of the current investigation was to comprehend the impact of OCF, whether Explicit or Implicit, on the speaking proficiency of Iranian intermediate EFL students. In light of the aforementioned results pertaining to the initial research inquiry, it was concluded that there were noteworthy variances among the means of the explicit, implicit, and control groups in the speaking post-Test while taking into account the influence of the pre-test. Therefore, the first conclusion of the current study was that "The efficacy of CF, whether it is Explicit or Implicit, on the Iranian EFL Learners' Speaking Proficiency is significant."

After reviewing the results outlined in the previous section, it was revealed that there was a marked difference between the mean scores of the low and high self-control cohorts with regard to their speaking post-test outcomes, even when controlling for the influence of the pretest. As a result, the secondary inference was that "the ability for self-regulation has a noteworthy effect on the speaking proficiency of Iranian English as a Foreign Language learners."

Ultimately, based on the third outcome of the research, it was discovered that there was no noteworthy correlation between the categories of interventions, specifically explicit, implicit, and control, and the degrees of self-regulation.

The present investigation holds significance for language educators to incorporate additional methods of CF in their teaching methods, with emphasis on explicit corrections during students' oral tasks. However, there were certain constraints to this study. Firstly, the primary approach implemented for analyzing the gathered data was purely quantitative. Further research could employ a qualitative or mixed-method design, utilizing more qualitative tools such as interviews or classroom observations. Secondly, this study was restricted to only one skill. Future research could endeavor to determine the impact of CF on other skills, such as writing. Thirdly, the study did not consider gender as a factor. Future studies could investigate the preferences of different genders regarding various types of CF or compare the performance of males and females in a similar setting.

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Appendix A

IELTS sample speaking test

Part 1: Introductions and Personal Information

3-4 minutes

In Part 1 of the test, the examiner will introduce him- or herself, check your identity, then ask you a range of questions on familiar topics related to yourself and your experiences. These topics include where you come from or live, your work or study, your family, hobbies, and a range of other general topics about yourself.

Part 1 of the Speaking test lasts 3-4 minutes. Remember that the examiner does not know you,and will assess your English ability from what you demonstrate during the test, starting right at the beginning of Part 1.

It is important that from the beginning of Part 1:

• you speak audibly and clearly

• you do not just answer 'yes' or 'no'

• you add some extra information to each answer. Try to give 'complete' answers to each question.

• you answer the question you are asked, not another question. If you do not hear or understand the question, ask the examiner, 'Could you please repeat the question?'

• you do not recite or try to remember a pre-learned answer.

Remember, the examiner is assessing your language ability, not the content of your answers.

Part 1: Sample question types

Questions about yourself in Part 1 will come from a wide range of familiar topics, and include

questions like:

• Where are you from in your country?

• What do you like about the place you come from?

• Do you live in a house or an apartment?

• What kind of work do you do?

• Do you study anything?

• Which sports do you enjoy?

• What hobbies did you have when you were a child?

• Do you have a driver's licence?

• Where do you like to go on holiday?

• What kinds of books do you like to read?

• What are the advantages or disadvantages of knowing your neighbours well?

• Do you like to visit museums and art galleries?

• Have you ever had a pet?

Part 2: Individual Long Turn

3-4 minutes

In Part 2, the examiner will give you a topic to talk about.You will have a minute to think about what you're going to say, and you can make some notes if you want.

You will then be given two minutes to talk. It's important to realise that only you will talk. The

examiner remains interested but silent. He or she might ask you a question at the end, but this is more to round off the section than to seek a lengthy answer.

As in Part 1, the examiner is listening to your:

• vocabulary

• grammar

• pronunciation

• fluency and cohesion.

It's important that from the beginning of Part 2:

• you speak audibly and clearly

• you speak for the whole time if possible

• as with Part 1, you do not memorise an answer.

Remember, the examiner is assessing your language ability, so if you can't remember a real example to talk about ... make it up!

Part 2: Sample question types

Topics: education - health: exercise, medicine, diet, lifestyle - entertainment: music, films, books - technology: computers, gadgets, social networking, travel - global problems: population, genetically modified food, alternative medicine.

Here are some typical types of questions for the long turn. Related topics are included.

Describe:

• an activity you do to stay healthy: what, where, how it keeps you healthy. Health

• a happy family event you attended: what, where, how it made you happy. Families

• a new friend you made recently: who, how, your relationship. Relationships

• an exam or test you have recently done: what, where, how you felt you did.

• a time you felt frustrated: when, what, effect on you.

• a child you know: who, how often you see them, relationships. Being a child

• a teacher you liked: who, when. Education: is it a business?

• a time you had to complain: when, where, how it felt: Resolution, complaints, patience, satisfaction in life

• a time you helped someone: who, when and so on. Kindness; charitable giving

• a time you lied: what, to whom, outcome? Deceit; trust

• your favourite lunch or dinner menu: what, where. Foods in your culture; healthy diets; food

manufacture

• your favourite day of the week. Free time; planning time

• your favourite school subject. Education; teaching methods

• a part-time activity you enjoy. Hobbies; creativity

• your favourite clothing item. Fashion; grooming; outward appearances

• cities, and urban versus country life. Problems of migration to cities

• a time you moved house. Migration and moving countries

• a time you bought something cheap. Money and finance ·

• a festival you attended from another culture. Cultures; cultural differences

• a new skill you learnt. Learning challenges; lifelong learning;creativity

Part 3: Discussion

4-5 minutes

Part 3 extends the conversation for 3-4 minutes from the individual long turn in Part 2. The theme of Part 3 is therefore related to Part 2. It differs in that more abstract (theoretical, rather than real) situations are discussed. One important ability in IELTS is to be able to speak on unfamiliar topics. This means being able to go beyond everyday issues. The questions increase in complexity as the test progresses, the more difficult responses coming later. Again, try to speak for as long as you can, and use a mix of simple and complex sentences. Ensure that you:

• speak audibly and clearly

• extend your answers as fully as possible

• don't give the examiner a chance to ask 'why?

Part 3: Sample question types

Sample question types. How would you answer them?

• What are the most popular types of technology used in schools in your country?

• Explain how computers help us in everyday life.

• How does writing by hand differ from using a computer?

• What are the advantages and disadvantages of using a computer to write?

• Why have computers become so popular?

• How important are computers in daily life?

• Will we need to write by hand in the future?

• How much have computers taken over our lives?

• How possible is it for computers to develop their own consciousness?

Appendix B

Oxford Placement Test (OPT)

Part 1

Questions 1 – 5

- Where can you see these notices?
- For questions **1** to **5**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B** or **C** on your Answer Sheet.

1

CROSS BRIDGE
FOR TRAINS TO
EDINBURGH

A in a bank
B in a garage
C in a station

2

Please leave your room key at Reception.

A in a shop
B in a hotel
C in a taxi

3

You can look, but don't touch the pictures.

A in an office
B in a cinema
C in a museum

4

CLOSED FOR HOLIDAYS

Lessons start again on the 8th January

A at a restaurant
B at a travel agent's
C at a music school

5

Price per night:
£10 a tent
£5 a person

A in a hotel
B at a cinema
C on a camp-site

Questions 6 – 10

■ In this section you must choose the word which best fits each space in the text below.

■ For questions **6** to **10**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B** or **C** on your Answer Sheet.

Scotland

Scotland is the north part of the island of Great Britain. The Atlantic Ocean is on the west and the North Sea on the east. Some people **(6)** ..... Scotland speak a different language called Gaelic.

There are **(7)** ..... five million people in Scotland, and Edinburgh is **(8)** ..... most famous city.

Scotland has many mountains; the highest one is called 'Ben Nevis'. In the south of Scotland, there are a lot of sheep. A long time ago, there **(9)** ..... many forests, but now there are only a **(10)** ..... Scotland is only a small country, but it is quite beautiful.

6)	**A.** in	**B.** on	**C.** at
7)	**A.** among	**B.** between	**C.** about
8)	**A.** your	**B.** his	**C.** its
9)	**A.** is	**B.** was	**C.** were
10)	**A.** little	**B.** few	**C.** lot

Questions 11 – 20

■ In this section you must choose the word which best fits each space in the texts.

■ For questions **11** to **20**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B**, **C,** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

Alice Guy Blaché

Alice Guy Blaché was the first female film director. She first became involved in cinema whilst working for the Gaumont Film Company in the late 1890s. This was a period of great change in the cinema and Alice was the first to use many new inventions, **(11)** ..... sound and colour.

In 1907 Alice **(12)** ..... to New York where she started her own film company. She was **(13)** ..... successful, but, when Hollywood became the centre of the film world, the best days of the independent New York film companies were **(14)** ..... . When Alice died in 1968, hardly anybody **(15)** ..... her name.

11)	**A.** including	**B.** bringing	**C.** containing	**D.** supporting
12)	**A.** ran	**B.** moved	**C.** entered	**D.** transported
13)	**A.** next	**B.** immediately	**C.** once	**D.** recently
14)	**A.** after	**B.** down	**C.** over	**D.** behind
15)	**A.** realized	**B.** remembered	**C.** reminded	**D.** repeated

Christopher Columbus and the New World

On August 3, 1492, Christopher Columbus set sail from Spain to find a new route to India, China and Japan. At this time most people thought you would fall off the edge of the world if you sailed too far. Yet sailors such as Columbus had seen how a ship appeared to get lower and lower on the horizon as it sailed away. For Columbus this **(16)** ..... that the world was round. He **(17)** ..... to his men about the distance travelled each day. He did not want them to think that he did not **(18)** ..... exactly where they were going. **(19)** ..... , on October 12, 1492, Columbus and his men landed on a small island he named San Salvador. Columbus believed he was in Asia, **(20)** ..... he was actually in the Caribbean.

16)	**A.** was	**B.** pointed	**C.** made	**D.** proved
17)	**A.** asked	**B.** told	**C.** cheated	**D.** lied
18)	**A.** find	**B.** know	**C.** expect	**D.** think
19)	**A.** Once	**B.** Secondly	**C.** Finally	**D.** Next
20)	**A.** as	**B.** but	**C.** because	**D.** if

■ In this section you must choose the word or phrase which best completes each sentence.

■ For questions **21** to **40**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

21. I suggest we ..... outside the stadium tomorrow at 8.30.

A meeting **B** meet **C** met **D** will meet

22. They spent a lot of time ..... at the pictures in the museum.

A looking **B** for looking **C** to look **D** to looking

23. He spent a long time looking for a tie which ..... with his new shirt.

A fixed **B** made **C** went **D** wore

24. Fortunately, ... from a bump on the head, she suffered no serious injuries from her fall.

A other **B** except **C** besides **D** apart

25. I've always ..... you as my best friend.

A regarded **B** thought **C** meant **D** supposed

26. The singer ended the concert ..... her most popular song.

A by **B** with **C** in **D** as

27. Whether she's a good actress or not is a ..... of opinion.

A matter **B** subject **C** point **D** case

28. The decorated roof of the ancient palace was ..... up by four thin columns.

A built **B** carried **C** held **D** supported

29. Don't make such a .....! The dentist is only going to look at your teeth.

A fuss **B** trouble **C** worry **D** reaction

30. This form ..... be handed in until the end of the week.

A doesn't need **B** doesn't have **C** needn't **D** hasn't got

31 The newspaper report contained ..... important information.

A many **B** another **C** an **D** a lot of

32. Although our opinions on many things ..... , we're good friends.

A differ **B** oppose **C** disagree **D** divide

33. She came to live here ..... a month ago.

A quite **B** beyond **C** already **D** almost

34. If you make a mistake when you are writing, just ..... it out with your pen.

A cross **B** clear **C** do **D** wipe

35. Have you considered ..... to London?

A move **B** to move **C** to be moving **D** moving

36. It can be a good idea for people who lead an active life to increase their ..... of vitamins.

A upturn **B** input **C** upkeep **D** intake

37. You ought to take up swimming for the ..... of your health.

A concern **B** relief **C** sake **D** cause

38. James was not sure exactly where his best interests ..... .

A stood **B** rested **C** lay **D** centred

39. Why didn't you ..... that you were feeling ill?

A advise **B** mention **C** remark **D** tell