



**UNIVERSITY
OF TURKU**

Exploring University Students' Preferences for Teacher Oral Corrective Feedback Types: Insights from Finland

Faculty of Education
University of Turku
Master's thesis

Elizaveta Shaltaeva

21.5.2024

Turku

The originality of this thesis has been checked in accordance with the University of Turku quality assurance system using the Turnitin Originality Check service.

Master's thesis

Subject: Educational Sciences

Author: Elizaveta Shaltaeva

Title: Exploring University Students' Preferences for Teacher Oral Corrective Feedback Types: Insights from Finland

Supervisor(s): Dr Koen Veermans

Number of pages: 77 pages, 4 appendices

Date: 21.5.2024

Students' preferences and beliefs are essential to be considered in language teaching strategies. Since oral corrective feedback is a part of the language acquisition process in the classroom setting, students' preferences for the strategies of oral corrective feedback that they receive on their speech from their teachers. The purpose of this research is to explore these preferences in the Finnish university context. The objectives include examining Finnish-speaking students' preferences for teacher oral feedback in detail and the influence of students' background variables such as gender, proficiency level, and field of study on these preferences. Additionally, the Finnish-speaking students' preferences are compared to the ones of non-Finnish-speaking students. Finally, the impact of students' awareness of oral corrective feedback functions and purposes is examined. The study employs a mixed-method approach, utilising surveys for quantitative data and interviews for qualitative insights. Findings indicate that Finnish-speaking university students favour recasts the most, followed by explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback. Elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests are the least favoured feedback strategies. Despite this general trend, some students' preferences for oral corrective feedback types deviate from the observed pattern. The research also highlights a difference between male and female students, with females showing a more favourable attitude towards recasts. No significant differences in preferences are identified across proficiency levels and fields of study. While Finnish-speaking students generally share similar preferences for oral corrective feedback types as non-Finnish-speaking students, they display a more negative attitude towards clarification requests, possibly due to discomfort with being singled out. Awareness of the functions and reasons for feedback types may influence the preferences of some students, but its general impact remains inconclusive. The study suggests that recognizing individual preferences beyond the general pattern is crucial in educational practice. Additionally, classroom dynamics can be influenced by various backgrounds. Educators can enhance their feedback practices by explaining feedback goals, thereby improving students' second language acquisition processes.

Key words: corrective feedback, oral corrective feedback, teacher oral corrective feedback, students' preferences, students' beliefs, language teaching, language learning, second language acquisition

Table of contents

1	Introduction	7
2	Theoretical Framework	10
2.1	Concept Definitions	10
2.2	Corrective Feedback in Second Language Acquisition Theories	12
2.3	Oral Corrective Feedback Strategies	13
2.3.1	Six oral corrective feedback strategies	13
2.3.2	Classification of six oral corrective feedback strategies	16
2.4	Importance of Learners' Beliefs and Preferences	17
2.5	Related Findings	18
2.5.1	Students' preferences for the types of oral corrective feedback	18
2.5.2	Factors influencing learners' preferences for the types of oral corrective feedback	20
3	Data and Methods	23
3.1	Research Questions	23
3.2	Data Collection Methods	24
3.2.1	Mixed method research	24
3.2.2	Survey as a data collection method	25
3.2.3	Interview as a data collection method	27
3.3	Participants	29
3.3.1	Survey sampling strategy	29
3.3.2	Survey participants	29
3.3.3	Finnish-speaking survey participants	31
3.3.4	Interview sampling strategy and participants	33
3.4	Data Analysis Methods	33
3.4.1	Quantitative Data Analysis	34
3.4.2	Qualitative Data Analysis	35
3.5	Ethical considerations	37
4	Results	39
4.1	What types of oral corrective feedback do Finnish-speaking university-level students prefer from their teachers, and what are the reasons behind these preferences?	39
4.1.1	Preferences for oral corrective feedback types	39
4.1.2	Correlations between corrective feedback types	46

4.1.3	Finnish-speaking students' preferences based on mistake types	48
4.2	How do Finnish-speaking students' feedback preferences vary based on factors such as gender, language proficiency levels, and field of study?	52
4.2.1	Gender as a factor	52
4.2.2	Perceived English proficiency level as a factor	54
4.2.3	Field of study as a factor	55
4.3	How do Finnish-speaking students' preferences vary from those of non-Finnish-speaking participants?	57
4.4	To what extent does Finnish-speaking students' awareness of the various functions of feedback influence their preferences for specific feedback types?	61
5	Discussions	63
5.1	Finnish-speaking university students' preferences for the types of teacher oral corrective feedback	63
5.1.1	Preferences for the types of oral corrective feedback	63
5.1.2	Reasons for preferences	65
5.1.3	Preferences based on mistake types	68
5.1.4	Other insights	70
5.2	Background factors influencing Finnish-speaking students' preferences for the types of teacher oral corrective feedback	70
5.3	Finnish-speaking students' preferences in comparison to non-Finnish-speaking students' preferences	71
5.4	Impact of awareness of oral corrective feedback functions on Finnish-speaking students' preferences	72
6	Limitations and directions for future research	73
7	Pedagogical implications	75
8	Conclusions	76
	References	78
	Appendices	84
	Appendix 1 Survey questions	84
	Appendix 2 Interview guide	93
	Appendix 3 Normality characteristics of data	96
	Appendix 4 Interviewees' feedback ratings in comparison to their survey ratings	99

Lists of tables, figures, and abbreviations

Table of tables

TABLE 1. DESCRIPTIONS AND EXAMPLES OF ORAL TEACHER CF TYPES	14
TABLE 2. CLASSIFICATION OF 6 TYPES OF OCF	17
TABLE 3. PARTICIPANTS' L1 IN RELATION TO THEIR STUDENT STATUS	30
TABLE 4. PARTICIPANTS' GENDER	30
TABLE 5. PARTICIPANTS' ENGLISH PROFICIENCY LEVEL	31
TABLE 6. PARTICIPANTS' FIELDS OF STUDY	31
TABLE 7. CODING SCHEME FOR ADVANTAGES OF EXPLICIT CORRECTION	37
TABLE 8. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK RATINGS BY FINNISH-SPEAKING STUDENTS	39
TABLE 9. REASONS FOR THE PREFERENCES FOR THE TYPES OF ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK	45
TABLE 10. RESULTS OF SPEARMAN'S CORRELATION TEST FOR TYPES OF TEACHER ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK	46
TABLE 11. FINNISH-SPEAKING STUDENTS' PREFERENCES FOR TYPES OF ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK BASED ON MISTAKE TYPES	50
TABLE 12. FINNISH-SPEAKING STUDENTS' PREFERENCES FOR THE TYPES OF ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK BASED ON THEIR GENDER	53
TABLE 13. FINNISH-SPEAKING STUDENTS' PREFERENCES FOR THE TYPES OF ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK BASED ON THEIR ENGLISH PROFICIENCY LEVEL	55
TABLE 14. FINNISH-SPEAKING STUDENTS' PREFERENCES FOR THE TYPES OF ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK BASED ON THEIR FIELDS OF STUDY	56
TABLE 15. MEAN RATINGS FOR THE TYPES OF ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK FROM FINNISH-SPEAKING AND NON-FINNISH-SPEAKING STUDENTS	58
TABLE 16. MEAN RATINGS FOR FEEDBACK TYPES OF A NON-FINNISH-SPEAKING PARTICIPANT (PARTICIPANT 122)	60

Table of figures

FIGURE 1. SAMPLE QUESTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE	26
FIGURE 2. PARTICIPANTS' L1	29
FIGURE 3. FINNISH-SPEAKING PARTICIPANTS' GENDER IN RELATION TO THEIR FIELD OF STUDY	32
FIGURE 4. FINNISH-SPEAKING PARTICIPANTS' ENGLISH PROFICIENCY LEVEL IN RELATION TO THEIR GENDER	32
FIGURE 5. FINNISH-SPEAKING PARTICIPANTS' FIELDS OF STUDY IN RELATION TO THEIR ENGLISH PROFICIENCY LEVEL	32
FIGURE 6. BOXPLOTS OF THE FINNISH-SPEAKING STUDENTS' PREFERENCES FOR ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK TYPES	40

FIGURE 7. RAINCLOUD PLOT OF FINNISH-SPEAKING STUDENTS' AVERAGE PREFERENCES FOR ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK TYPES	47
FIGURE 8. RAINCLOUD PLOT OF FINNISH-SPEAKING STUDENTS' PREFERENCES FOR RECASTS, REPETITION, AND ELICITATION	48
FIGURE 9. RAINCLOUD PLOT OF FINNISH-SPEAKING STUDENTS' PREFERENCES FOR RECASTS AND CLARIFICATION REQUESTS	48
FIGURE 10. FINNISH-SPEAKING STUDENTS' PREFERENCES FOR TYPES OF ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK BASED ON MISTAKE TYPES	50
FIGURE 11. FINNISH-SPEAKING STUDENTS' PREFERENCES FOR THE TYPES OF ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK BASED ON THEIR GENDER	53
FIGURE 12. FINNISH-SPEAKING STUDENTS' PREFERENCES FOR THE TYPES OF ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK BASED ON THEIR ENGLISH PROFICIENCY LEVEL	55
FIGURE 13. FINNISH-SPEAKING STUDENTS' PREFERENCES FOR THE TYPES OF ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK BASED ON THEIR FIELDS OF STUDY	56
FIGURE 14. MEAN RATINGS FOR THE TYPES OF ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK FROM FINNISH-SPEAKING AND NON-FINNISH-SPEAKING STUDENTS	58
FIGURE 15. RAINCLOUD PLOT OF NON-FINNISH SPEAKING STUDENTS' (ASIAN GROUP) AVERAGE PREFERENCES FOR ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK TYPES	59
FIGURE 16. RAINCLOUD PLOT OF NON-FINNISH SPEAKING STUDENTS' (EUROPEAN/NORTH AMERICAN GROUP) AVERAGE PREFERENCES FOR ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK TYPES	59
FIGURE 17. RATINGS FOR THE TYPES OF ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK BEFORE AND AFTER THE "RAISING-AWARENESS" PART OF INTERVIEWS	61

Abbreviations

CF – corrective feedback

EFL – English as a foreign language

ESL – English as a second language

OCF – oral corrective feedback

L1 – first language

L2 – second language

SCT – Sociocultural theory

SLA – second language acquisition

ZDP – zone of proximal development

1 Introduction

Mistakes are an inevitable part of the language learning process, without bypassing speaking. Correcting these mistakes is essential for improvement, and the responsibility to do so in a classroom is often undertaken by teachers, who provide corrective feedback according to their pedagogical beliefs and knowledge. However, students also hold their own beliefs and preferences regarding how they would like to receive correction.

In the field of corrective feedback in educational settings, Hendrickson (1978) identified five crucial concerns for educators to consider: (1) whether learners' errors should be corrected in general, (2) the timing of feedback delivery, (3) the kinds of errors to be corrected, (4) the ways of correction, and (5) the subjects of providing corrections. This study aims to explore the fourth area of this field, specifically examining the strategies for delivering corrective feedback. Lyster and Ranta (1997) categorize oral corrective feedback into six types: explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. This research explores students' perspectives regarding the strategies of oral corrective feedback they would prefer to be corrected by.

Oral corrective feedback is regarded as vital for improving language proficiency, as it directs focus to language forms and offers opportunities for self-correction or the introduction of correct forms. Such feedback improves second language acquisition and impacts different areas of language development, as proved by e.g., Li (2010), Lyster & Saito (2010), and Parlak & Ziegler (2017).

Students' preferences regarding teacher oral corrective feedback types have been investigated across different contexts and educational levels, revealing variations regarding favoured and unfavoured oral corrective feedback types by students across studies. These variations have been attributed to cultural differences (e.g., Schulz, 2001), gender (e.g., Amalia et al., 2019), and target language proficiency (e.g., Katayama, 2006). Additionally, preferences may vary depending on the type of mistake that is addressed (e.g., Yang, 2016), connecting the issues of (4) the ways of correction with (3) the kind of errors to be corrected.

Nonetheless, no research on students' preferences for oral corrective feedback types has been done specifically within the Finnish educational context, which presents an opportunity to explore a new cultural perspective in comparison to existing studies. Moreover, limited research has been conducted to assess the influence of background and other factors on these

preferences. One of the factors that remain unexplored is the influence of students' awareness of feedback functions on their preferences.

Therefore, the main objective of this study is to investigate the preferences of Finnish-speaking university-level students for various types of oral corrective feedback provided by a teacher in response to students' mistakes in oral speech during English classes. Additionally, the study will examine the influence of background factors such as gender, proficiency level, and field of study, and consider students' native language by comparing Finnish-speaking to non-Finnish-speaking students. The impact of awareness on these preferences will also be examined. The research questions are:

- 1) What types of oral corrective feedback do Finnish-speaking university-level students prefer from their teachers, and what are the reasons behind these preferences?
- 2) How do Finnish-speaking students' feedback preferences vary based on background factors such as gender, language proficiency levels, and fields of study?
- 3) How do Finnish-speaking students' preferences vary from those of non-Finnish-speaking students?
- 4) To what extent does Finnish-speaking students' awareness of the various functions of feedback influence their preferences for specific feedback types?

The study sample consists of 104 Finnish-speaking and 17 non-Finnish-speaking university students enrolled in English language courses for academic purposes at the University of Turku. The mixed-methods research approach was employed, and data were collected through surveys and interviews and were analysed by using quantitative statistical methods and qualitative content analysis.

Understanding students' preferences for corrective feedback in language learning is crucial for enhancing teaching practices and gaining insights into the effectiveness of feedback from students' perspectives. This research contributes to the existing literature by focusing on a distinct cultural context – Finnish university students. Additionally, it further explores the influence of students' background factors and awareness, as well as compares different cultures within the same context. The implications arising from findings offer valuable recommendations for language teaching practices.

There are eight chapters in this thesis, including this introductory chapter. Chapter 2 provides the theoretical background of the study, covering concept definitions in Section 2.1, second

language acquisition theories and their approach to corrective feedback in Section 2.2, six oral corrective feedback strategies in Section 2.3, the significance of learners' beliefs and preferences in Section 2.4, and related findings from previous research in Section 2.5. Chapter 3, which is focused on data and methods, outlines the research questions, describes data collection and analysis methods, details the sampling procedure, and addresses ethical considerations in the research process. The results of this study are presented in Chapter 4, while Chapter 5 offers a discussion of these results according to the research questions. Chapter 6 examines the limitations of this study in connection with suggestions for future research. Pedagogical implications drawn from the study findings are formulated in Chapter 7. Finally, Chapter 8 presents the conclusion of the research. This study is supplemented by a list of references and four appendices containing the survey questions, interview guide, data normality characteristics, and feedback ratings from interviewees.

2 Theoretical Framework

In this chapter, I will discuss the key concepts of this study, including “teacher oral corrective feedback”, “error” and “mistake. I will also explore the perspectives of various Second Language Acquisition theories on corrective feedback, the six strategies used by teachers for oral corrective feedback, and the importance of considering learners’ beliefs and preferences in a classroom. Furthermore, I will review the existing studies on students’ preferences for different oral corrective feedback strategies and the factors that influence these preferences.

2.1 Concept Definitions

Before speculating about “corrective feedback” and “error correction”, it is necessary to define the terms “error” and “mistake” first. Whereas drawing a clear distinction between errors and mistakes is not always simple, some researchers occasionally attribute errors to a deficiency in knowledge and mistakes to performance requirements (Thornbury, 2006). Additionally, Lennon (1991) defines an error as a linguistic structure that is unlikely to be generated by a native speaker in comparable settings. This definition emphasizes that native speech determines what qualifies as an error. However, native speakers differ, using diverse variations and dialects of a language, and these speakers possess distinct backgrounds such as “age, gender, education and social status” (Pawlak, 2014, p. 3). Chaudron (1986) incorporates teachers into the understanding of an error, empowering them to decide on what requires enhancing. Regarding the definition of a mistake, James (1998) also states that an utterance is identified to be a mistake not only according to the accepted rules and structures of a given language, but also a situational context, normative standards, and intentional deviations from normal usage.

There are two terms commonly used in the Second Language Acquisition field: “corrective feedback” and “error correction”. While some researchers use these terms interchangeably, others have their preferences for either “error correction” or “corrective feedback”. I will first discuss the terms “error correction” and “feedback” which, despite their similarities, represent different concepts. Based on the preceding discussions regarding the concept of “error”, the term “**error correction**” refers to the process of identifying and modifying an inaccurate utterance, perceived by someone providing corrections. Various teaching experts and researchers, including Johnson and Johnson (1999), Larsen-Freeman (2003), Majer (2003), Pawlak (2014), and van Lier (1988), consider **feedback** as a broader term, implying that error

correction is a subset of feedback. For example, feedback can be both negative and positive (Thornbury, 2006), as it offers not only corrective insights but also recognition or praise for a student's correct utterance. At the same time, Vigil and Oller (1976) claim that correction has a more negative connotation than feedback, often viewed as synonymous with "negative feedback" because its primary goal is to correct errors or mistakes. Moreover, according to James (1998), feedback does not necessarily include the right answer, unlike error correction, but can simply indicate that a mistake or an error has been made, allowing a learner to detect and rectify it. This way, error correction is not compulsory, but can be utilized as feedback follow-up and should be guided by the feedback results (Long, 1977). Chaudron (1988) extends this perspective by asserting that teachers utilize feedback to also notify students of their "behaviour and knowledge", not only speech products (pp. 132-133). Furthermore, Majer (2003) proposes that error correction is typically associated with an educational context, while feedback is linked to "interaction" in general (p. 287). These distinctions align with the perspective that feedback serves a broader purpose than error correction. Therefore, to show the corrective and "negative" nature of feedback when it does not acknowledge positive performance, the term "feedback" is narrowed to "corrective feedback".

Corrective feedback (CF) is an existing stable term utilized by many SLA researchers. Sheen and Ellis (2011) describe corrective feedback as feedback provided to learners concerning inaccuracies in their spoken or written output in a second language. Li's (2010) definition includes the division of teacher and peer corrective feedback, while Nassaji and Kartchava (2021) add a computer as a third possible provider of CF. Moreover, feedback can be delivered in oral or written formats, through verbal and nonverbal means (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2021). This study focuses only on teacher oral corrective feedback, communicated verbally.

Teacher **oral corrective feedback (OCF)** serves various functions including providing negative evidence or, in other words, indicating impossible target language patterns (Gass, 2003), rectifying learners' errors, encouraging learners' self-correction, and potentially making students realize the reasons for modifications. Unlike written CF, oral CF aims to enhance the accuracy of learners' speech, rather than focusing on increasing the general quality and content of their speech, as is the case with written feedback (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2021).

In conclusion, the central term of this study is teacher oral corrective feedback (OCF), which is preferred over “error correction”, as some responses provided by a teacher in the questionnaire do not include the correction of a mistake, but rather notify a student of some problems in their utterances. Additionally, both mistakes and errors will be treated as synonyms since making a distinction between them is insignificant to the research objectives. Whether a mistake is made due to the lack of knowledge or by accident is undefinable, as the study focuses on the students’ perceptions of the teacher’ corrective feedback, regardless of the nature of their erroneous utterance. Moreover, as the research is based on students’ beliefs and thoughts, the study participants use the two terms without considering their methodological definitions.

2.2 Corrective Feedback in Second Language Acquisition Theories

Theories in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) vary in their perspectives on corrective feedback – some of them consider CF beneficial while others perceive it to be less impactful. Starting from the first language acquisition theory, the **Nativist Theory** (Chomsky, 1986) suggests that children possess an inner capacity to acquire their first language (L1) from birth, known as Universal Grammar, by simply being exposed to positive evidence, or, in other words, passively absorbing linguistic input from their surroundings and recognising correct linguistic forms. According to this view, corrective feedback, serving as negative evidence, is unnecessary. Although the Universal Grammar is primarily associated with L1, it has also been expanded to the field of SLA (Flynn, 1988).

Conversely, second language acquisition theories explore how people learn a language other than their native one and offer different perspectives on corrective feedback. The principal cognitive theories, such as the Interaction Hypothesis, the Output Hypothesis, the Noticing Hypothesis, and the Skill Acquisition Theory view CF as vital for learners to recognise language forms and verify their already existing knowledge. According to the **Interaction Hypothesis**, while interacting and conveying their message to another person, learners receive negative evidence (corrective feedback) that helps them revise and improve their initial utterances (Long, 1996). Swain’s (1995) **Output Hypothesis** underlines the importance of output and explains that besides receiving negative evidence, or input, learners also need to produce the target language, or output, in order to notice gaps, negotiate forms, and reflect on them. This modified output enhances their L2 learning and accuracy. Aligning with two previous theories, the **Noticing Hypothesis** (Schmidt, 1994) emphasizes the significance of

learners noticing “the relevant material” in the feedback that they receive. According to this hypothesis, SLA occurs when a learner becomes aware of some linguistic features to be able to process and incorporate them in their own speech production. According to the **Skill Acquisition Theory** (Anderson, 1985), corrective feedback facilitates the transition from declarative knowing about language to procedural knowing how to use language effectively. Therefore, the role of corrective feedback is to guide learners through the stages of acquiring a language, from beginner level to fluent and automatic language use.

Different from cognitive theories, the **Sociocultural Theory** (SCT) postulates that L2 acquisition occurs through participation in social interaction rather than internal processes inside a learner (Lantolf, 2006). Corrective feedback in the SCT promotes self-regulation by facilitating self-correction. Moreover, CF differs for each student according to their developmental level to align with their own Zone of Proximal Development (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994), the concept defined by Vygotsky (1978). This theory is important especially for oral corrective feedback, as in line with the SCT, feedback primarily occurs in the oral form due to social interactions, which are crucial for effective feedback.

2.3 Oral Corrective Feedback Strategies

According to the timing of OCF provision, there are two types of oral corrective feedback: feedback can be received right after an erroneous utterance and involves “on-line attempts”, or it can be delayed until the end of the oral exchange and includes “off-line attempts” (Sheen & Ellis, 2011, p. 593). In this research, only immediate feedback is studied.

2.3.1 Six oral corrective feedback strategies

To research learners’ preferences for corrective feedback and be able to compare the findings with already existing studies, the present study uses Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) classification of corrective feedback. The categorisation includes 6 types of OCF: explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. To enhance better understanding, Table 1 shortly describes the types, providing emphasis on certain details. The descriptions of types are based on Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) work, and examples are created by the researcher. The same examples of corrective feedback are utilised in the study’s questionnaire.

Table 1. Descriptions and examples of oral teacher CF types

Types of corrective feedback	Description	Does a teacher provide the correct form?	Typical phrases	Example Teacher's CF on a learner's "I don't need no help".
Explicit correction	Teacher identifies mistake, provides correct form	Yes	- Oh, you mean ...; - Use ... instead of ...; - It's correct/better to say	- It's correct to say "I don't need any help".
Recasts	Teacher repeats learner's utterance but makes it correct	Yes	-	- You don't need any help? Alright
Clarification requests	Teacher prompts learner to reformulate their utterance by asking a question to show that it was not understood	No	- Sorry? - Pardon? - What do you mean?	- Sorry?
Meta-linguistic feedback	Teacher offers additional information about the mistake (e.g., structure, meaning) to indicate its presence and elicit correction from learner	No	- There is an error in your sentence. (sometimes)	- We don't use double negatives in English.
Elicitation	Teacher repeats learner's utterance, pausing before mistake, or requests reformulation	No	- How do you say X in English? (sometimes) - No, not that. [learner's utterance until the mistake]	- Not "no". You don't need "hm" help?
Repetition	Teacher restates learner's utterance with mistake and highlights it with different intonation	No	-	- You don't need "no" help? (emphasizing "no")

Explicit correction implies that a learner is notified of an existing mistake and receives clear and specific information about the correct form, typically by a teacher pointing out the mistake with a corrective phrase (e.g., "Oh, you mean ...") and providing the correct version (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Later, Lyster et al. (2013) stated that explicit correction occurs less frequently than five other OCF types. This type of corrective feedback aligns with the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996) perspective on OCF, because it involves providing learners with explicit negative evidence about their errors. This approach means learners do not have to identify hidden corrections or self-correct since a teacher clearly highlights the mistake and gives the correct form.

In a **recast**, a teacher rephrases a learner's statement (or a part of it) to highlight the existence of a mistake and provide a correct form, for example, a teacher might respond "You don't

need any help?” to a student’s “I don’t need no help”. Different from explicit correction, recasts do not include phrases identifying the existence of an error such as “It’s better to say ...” or “You should say ...”. Lyster and Ranta (1997) also consider translation to be a type of recast. For example, if a learner includes a phrase in their native language (or any other non-target classroom language) in an utterance, and the teacher repeats the sentence with the translated word or phrase in the target learning language, this is regarded as a recast. In general, recasts imply that a learner notices the correction and the correct form, which intersects with the Noticing Hypothesis and its view on OCF. By subtly providing the correct form, recasts encourage learners to become aware of their errors without the need for direct or explicit correction.

The next four types of OCF (clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition) require a learner to produce the target language in response to negative evidence. Their goal is to encourage a learner to think of a correct form rather than receiving or noticing the correct form in the teacher’s feedback utterance, which aligns with the Output Hypothesis perspective on CF.

Clarification requests is a strategy used to indirectly notify a learner that there is a mistake in an utterance and that the message should be reformulated or repeated (e.g., in the café of a pronunciation error) to make it understandable. A teacher can show their genuine or simulated confusion by using such questions as “Sorry?”, “Pardon”? and “What do you mean by...?” (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 47).

By providing **metalinguistic feedback**, or metalinguistic cues (as in Oliver & Adams, 2021), a teacher suggests the presence of an error without providing the correct form. Instead, they offer learner information to help them reformulate their utterance. This type of feedback can include simply indicating the existence of a mistake (“There is an error in your sentence”), offering grammatical or vocabulary explanations (“You need the infinitive form”), or posing questions to prompt students to provide information (“Is it an adjective?”) (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

There are three ways how teachers can use **elicitation**. Firstly, a teacher might repeat the student’s utterance but pause before the mistake to signal the presence of an error and elicit a correct form from a student (e.g., Student: “Oh my, these new classroom chairs are so convenient!”. Teacher: “These chairs are ...?”). Alternatively, a teacher might use a question to prompt the student to produce a correct form (e.g., “How do you say it in English?”).

Additionally, a teacher can directly ask a learner to reformulate their statement (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Repetition stands for simply restating a student's utterance including any mistakes made. To accentuate the presence and location of the mistake, a teacher might indicate it with a different intonation (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Despite focusing on single types of OCF, it is crucial to recognise that all forms of OCF are important in facilitating a learner's language acquisition process. This perspective aligns with the view of the Skill Acquisition theory, which implies that CF contributes to language development and proficiency. Additionally, any type of corrective feedback occurs within an interactive context, in this context between a teacher and a learner. This interaction-based approach is central to the Sociocultural Theory, which considers interaction as a key factor in SLA. Furthermore, it is crucial to consider the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) when providing OCF. Effective feedback must be within the learner's ZPD, allowing them, for instance, to understand metalinguistic cues and produce correct forms. If the ZPD is not considered, the feedback might not effectively facilitate learning, as the student may miss the intent of OCF or be unable to respond to it.

2.3.2 Classification of six oral corrective feedback strategies

These six types of oral corrective feedback can be categorized depending on their characteristics, as outlined in Table 2. The first two categories, reformulations, and prompts, determine whether a teacher provides the correct version of the learner's utterance. Explicit correction and recasts include reformulating an erroneous utterance, thus falling into the category of **reformulations**. In contrast, **prompts**, comprising of clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition, serve only to indicate to a student that an error has occurred and encourage self-correction (Lyster & Ranta, 2007). Ellis and Sheen (2011) use different names and classify reformulations as **input-providing** and prompts as **output-providing**. In the input-providing category, explicit correction and recasts supply learners with the necessary linguistic input – the correct form integrated into the teacher's feedback. At the same time, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition fall into the output-providing category, as they encourage output – they require learners to produce the correct form by themselves.

Another way to group the six types of OCF is based on how a teacher addresses an error. According to Sheen and Ellis (2011), **implicit** corrective feedback, such as clarification requests and repetitions, involves solely requesting correction from a learner. Conversely, **explicit** CF, including explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, and elicitation, addresses errors by providing the correct form or metalinguistic explanation. Additionally, Sheen and Ellis (2011) differentiate recasts into two kinds: conversational and didactic recasts. If a recast is genuine, and feedback is provided to clarify the message in the form of a clarification check, then this conversational recast is implicit. However, a didactic recast that simply serves the goal of notifying a learner about a mistake in their utterance without a real communication problem is explicit. In this study, recasts are classified as didactic recasts because the examples provided in the questionnaire are explicit and serve the instructional purpose of correction.

Table 2. Classification of 6 types of OCF

	Reformulations / Input-providing	Prompts / Output-providing
Explicit	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explicit correction • Didactic recasts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Metalinguistic feedback • Elicitation
Implicit	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conversation recasts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clarification requests • Repetition

2.4 Importance of Learners' Beliefs and Preferences

Multiple studies on the effectiveness of oral corrective feedback have proven that it facilitates the process of learning a language by, for instance, positively impacting second language grammar (e.g., Russel & Spada, 2010; Li, 2010), vocabulary (e.g., Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007), and pronunciation (e.g., Parlak & Ziegler, 2017; Saito & Lyster, 2012) development. However, it is insufficient to acknowledge the general effectiveness of oral corrective feedback and implement it in the classroom. According to Oladejo (1993), oral corrective feedback works most effectively when teachers' feedback strategies align with learners' perspectives on correction. Horwitz (1988) similarly emphasizes the need for teachers to understand their students' attitudes, as a mismatch between learners' views and classroom realities could even deteriorate the language learning process. Therefore, to ensure that corrective feedback is beneficial, such a factor as students' beliefs about oral corrective feedback should be considered in a language learning setting.

Learner beliefs about corrective feedback refer to students' perceptions of the effectiveness of corrective feedback and how it is used in the language learning environment. Hosenfeld

(1978) refers to learner beliefs as “mini theories” that cover students’ perceptions of themselves, the learning environment, and the community of target language users. Zhu and Wang (2019) characterize students’ beliefs as “a window” which provides insights into learners’ opinions about communication (p. 144). An important aspect of learner beliefs about oral corrective feedback is their **preferences for certain oral corrective feedback types**. For example, Akiyama (2017) demonstrated that when corrective feedback corresponds with the learners’ preferences for feedback types, their uptake rates reach their highest level. Kartchava and Ammar (2014) revealed that the more positive students are towards CF and the more they believe that CF is important, the more likely they are to notice CF, which is important for CF effectiveness. This suggests the possibility of enhancing teaching practices by not only studying the effectiveness of oral corrective feedback but also considering students’ preferences.

Despite these insights, an unexplored area is how students' awareness of the purposes and functions of oral corrective feedback influences their beliefs about it. For instance, Yang included awareness as a factor that might affect learners’ preferences for OCT types in her study, but she defined awareness as "whether learners notice the purpose of their teachers' oral corrective feedback" (p. 82), which differs from knowing the actual reasons for feedback. In contrast, this study will define **awareness** as whether students understand or know the purpose of teacher oral corrective feedback. It will examine how students' understanding of the function and purpose of different types of corrective feedback can influence their attitudes toward it.

2.5 Related Findings

Previous research has explored preferences for different types of oral corrective feedback in various cultural contexts. Additionally, a few studies have focused on certain background factors that might influence these preferences.

2.5.1 Students’ preferences for the types of oral corrective feedback

Overall, students tend to appreciate receiving corrective feedback. For example, Schulz’s (1996) study of university students studying different languages in the USA found that 90% of them would like teachers to correct their oral mistakes (p. 346).

Several studies have examined students' preferences for different types of oral corrective feedback. Some of these studies suggest that explicit correction is the most favourable feedback type for language learners. Lee's (2013) study, one of the most commonly cited in the OCF preferences research, which involved doctoral university students of various fields in the USA with diverse cultural backgrounds, found that explicit correction and recasts were the top choices, while clarification requests were the least favoured (pp. 224-225). Similarly, Roothoof and Breeze' (2016) study focused on English secondary school students and adult students in Spain. Their results indicated that both groups preferred explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback over other types, whereas repetition received the lowest ratings (pp. 327-328). Another noteworthy finding from the study was that adult students had a much more favourable view of recasts compared to secondary school students. Fitriana's (2016) study, conducted in an Indonesian vocational school, also revealed a preference among English students for explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback.

At the same time, several studies suggest that metalinguistic feedback is the most preferred type of oral corrective feedback, with explicit correction being the second most preferred corrective strategy. Oladejo's (1993) study on secondary and undergraduate university ESL students from various faculties in Singapore demonstrated this preference. Similarly, Zhang and Rahimi's (2014) study in the Iranian context, which focused on learners from different study fields enrolled in intermediate English communication university courses, Ha, Nguyen, et al.'s (2021) study on upper secondary school students in Vietnam, and Yang's (2016) study on university level learners of the Chinese language in China also found metalinguistic feedback to be the most preferred, with explicit correction as the second choice.

However, some studies indicate a preference for other types of corrective feedback. For example, the Chinese undergraduate university EFL students in Zhu and Wang's (2019) study favoured prompts such as repetition and metalinguistic feedback. Ananda et al.'s (2017) study on Indonesian university students studying English showed the preferences for repetition, elicitation, and clarification request, with recasts being the least favoured type of OCF. In Yoshida's (2008) study the Australian university-level learners of Japanese also showed the tendency to favour clarifications and elicitation (p. 89). Ha, Nguyen, et al. (2021) reported clarification requests to be the least preferred type of OCF.

Nevertheless, recasts appeared as a preferred oral corrective feedback strategy in some studies as well. Cubukcu and Aksak's (2020) study in Turkey revealed that recasts were the most

favoured type of OCF among primary school and university students (p. 501). Additionally, Lee's (2013) research, previously mentioned, found recasts to be the second most preferred type of corrective feedback.

Each type of oral corrective feedback is valued by students for different reasons. Explicit correction, one of the most preferred types, is favoured for its quickness of the correction process, the clarity of indicating a mistake (Lee, 2013, pp. 225-226), and the provision with the correct form (Fitriana, 2006, p. 46; Lee, 2013, pp. 225-226). Lyster and Ranta (1997) noted that students find recasts helpful because they make it easy to realize the correct form (p. 57). Clarification requests were valued for encouraging self-correction instead of being provided with a correct form (Yoshida, 2008, p. 89). Elicitations were appreciated for the same reasons (Yoshida, 2008, p. 89), as well as for helping understand errors (Ha, Nguyen, et al., 2021, p. 5) and activating knowledge and thinking processes (Fitriana, 2016, p. 46). The knowledge and thinking activation were also named as benefits of metalinguistic feedback (Fitriana, 2016, p. 46) together with encouraging students to understand their mistakes and be able to correct themselves (Ha, Nguyen, et al., 2021, p. 5). Repetition was appreciated by students for similar reasons: it provides an opportunity for self-correction and promotes learning processes (Ha, Nguyen, et al., 2021, p.6).

On the other hand, some types of OCF are less preferred. Lee (2013) explored the reasons why students do not appreciate clarification requests since it appeared to be the least preferred type of CF in their study. Students named the unclear nature of the feedback that prevented them from understanding the purpose of a teacher's feedback instance and the mistake itself (p.226). This type of feedback also caused embarrassment for students, who might worry that their utterance was not understood or that the teacher was not paying enough attention to what they said (p. 226). In Ha, Nguyen, et al.'s (2021) study, similar drawback of causing "confusion and worries" was noted by the participants (p. 5).

2.5.2 Factors influencing learners' preferences for the types of oral corrective feedback

Previous research indicates that learners' preferences for oral corrective feedback types can be influenced by various factors, such as their cultural background, target language proficiency level, gender, and the type of mistake that triggered the corrective feedback.

As observed in the studies outlined in the previous chapter 2.5.1, the variability in preferences appears across different study contexts and cultures. For instance, Schulz (2001) found in her study of US and Columbia English as a Foreign Language learners that the Columbian students had a more positive attitude toward OCF than the US students. Schulz attributed the difference to the differing teaching traditions in the two countries. Using Li's (2003, 2005) classification of learners' language background that divides learners into Asian and European/North American groups due to the influences of their cultural backgrounds, Yang (2016) revealed significant differences in their OCF preferences. Chinese language learners from the first group viewed explicit correction as more effective for pragmatic errors, whereas the second group preferred clarification requests for phonological errors (pp. 80-82).

Gender has also been shown to play a role in OCF preferences. In the Iranian context, Khorshidi and Rassaei (2013) reported that more male English learners felt the necessity for corrective feedback than female students, while female students were more positive towards receiving no corrective feedback. Conversely, Ha, Murray, et al.'s (2021) study reported that Vietnamese female students have a stronger desire to receive oral corrective feedback as well as a more positive attitude towards it (pp. 250-252). Amalia et al.' (2019) discovered that Indonesian male students favoured explicit corrections for their directness, whereas female learners preferred recasts because they felt less discouragement and metalinguistic feedback as it encouraged self-correction. Additionally, some female students were against explicit correction as it embarrasses a learner in front of the class (p. 31).

Learner's proficiency level in the target language can also affect their attitudes toward corrective feedback. According to the studies conducted by Katayama (2006) and Papangkorn (2015), advanced learners tend to prefer repetition and elicitation. In Yang's (2016) study, the learners of intermediate proficiency level showed different preferences compared to other proficiency levels and favoured clarification requests for phonological mistakes (p. 83). Ha, Murray, et al.'s (2021) study reported advanced students generally had a more positive attitude toward corrective feedback due to their language confidence (p. 253).

Finally, the type of mistake that triggers corrective feedback also affects the perception of OCF. For example, the study of Mackey et al. (2007) found that learners of the Arabic language recognised corrective feedback for morphosyntactic and lexical errors more easily than for phonological errors. Yang's (2016) study showed that learners found recasts more useful for correcting phonological mistakes compared to lexical or grammatical ones.

Similarly, Huang and Jia (2016) found that Chinese university learners of English favoured recasts over explicit correction and output-providing feedback types for the correction of their pronunciation mistakes.

Thus, learners' preferences for oral corrective feedback are influenced by a combination of factors such as their background variables, and the type of error that triggered the corrective feedback. Therefore, they will be considered in this research.

3 Data and Methods

In this chapter, I will outline the purpose and research questions of this study. I will then explain the choice of data collection methods. Additionally, I will describe the study sample and the methods of data analysis. Ethical considerations will also be addressed.

3.1 Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to investigate Finnish university students' preferences for oral corrective feedback (OCF) strategies utilised by teachers in English language classes. As seen in the Theoretical Framework chapter, while research on students' general perceptions of oral teacher corrective feedback has been conducted in various cultural settings, including Finland, there is a gap in understanding university students' preferences for OCF types in English classes, especially within the Finnish context. Furthermore, to my knowledge, there has been no exploration into the impact of university students' awareness of OCF functions on their beliefs about feedback. Therefore, this study aims to address the following research questions:

- 1) What types of oral corrective feedback do Finnish-speaking university-level students prefer from their teachers, and what are the reasons behind these preferences?
- 2) How do Finnish-speaking students' feedback preferences vary based on background factors such as gender, language proficiency levels, and fields of study?
- 3) How do Finnish-speaking students' preferences vary from those of non-Finnish-speaking students?
- 4) To what extent does Finnish-speaking students' awareness of the various functions of feedback influence their preferences for specific feedback types?

The purpose of the first question is to orient the study and guide the data collection process, as the findings of this question offer valuable insights into Finnish-speaking students' preferences for OCF and serve as the foundation for addressing the other research questions. The objective of the second question is to identify potential background variables impacting Finnish-speaking students' preferences. The goal of the third question is to determine whether there are differences between Finnish-speaking and non-Finnish-speaking students' preferences. The fourth question aims to investigate the impact of students' awareness of corrective feedback functions and the reasons behind its utilization by language teachers.

3.2 Data Collection Methods

In this chapter, I will justify the choice of the mixed-method approach in relation to the research questions. I will provide a detailed description of each data collection method in the study.

3.2.1 Mixed method research

The study employs a mixed-method research design that combines quantitative and qualitative methods – a survey and a semi-structured interview. Mixed-method data collection is widely acknowledged as advantageous in applied linguistics (Dörnyei, 2007, Linck & Cunnings, 2005) and in social research in general (Axinn & Pearce, 2006), since the methods complement each other by presenting results that would not be evident from either method alone (Hashemi & Babaii, 2013; Lazaraton, 2005), reduce bias (Axinn et al., 1991; Rosenbaum, 2001), minimize errors not related to sampling by verifying information gathered from different sources, and strengthen the validity and reliability of the results (Axinn et al., 1991).

Nevertheless, simply implementing two research methods is insufficient to ensure the quality of results. As explained in Axinn & Pearce (2006), an effective combination of data collection methods requires that they possess different characteristics, such as structure level, interviewer involvement, and interaction with the study population (pp. 10-11). According to their comparison of these characteristics, survey and semi-structured interviews do possess different features: surveys tend to have a higher level of structure and lower level of researcher involvement with the population compared to semi-structured interviews, while interviewers are more frequently involved in the process than collectors of survey answers.

Therefore, quantitative and qualitative research methods have been chosen for the study. The primary goal of the survey as a quantitative method was to collect data to address the first three research questions about Finnish-speaking university students' preferences for different types of oral corrective feedback and to compare them with the preferences of non-Finnish-speaking students. The interview as a qualitative method was designed to complement the quantitative data by providing insights into the reasons behind the students' preferences, as well as to address the final research question regarding the impact of awareness on students' feedback preferences.

3.2.2 Survey as a data collection method

Surveys are used for gathering information about individuals' perspectives and attitudes regarding the processes of SLA (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2011). A questionnaire, as a common instrument used in quantitative research, enables researchers to acquire extensive data quickly and efficiently (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2011), provides participants with time to contemplate their responses, and works effectively in capturing opinions (Friedman, 2012). Additionally, questionnaire results are “universally generalizable in an ideal situation” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 34) and can enhance standardisation (Axin & Pearce, 2006). This is why a questionnaire was utilized to collect data about students' preferences for teacher oral corrective feedback and to partly answer the first research question and address questions two and three.

The data for the research was collected through a Webropol online survey. The participants were invited to participate voluntarily, either during their English classes at the Centre of Language and Communication Studies (CeLCS) of the University of Turku (95% of the participants), or by receiving a questionnaire link and completing the survey in other time outside of an English class (5%). For those invited during classes, an alternative English-related task was also provided as an option. Both activities required the use of personal gadgets (e.g., laptops, tablets, phones), ensuring that students' choices remained anonymous, as it was not visible to the researcher or a teacher whether a student was participating in the survey or working on the class task. Before completing the questionnaire, participants were informed about the voluntary nature of the study, and data storage procedures, and given instructions (refer to Appendix 1 Survey questions). Those accessing the questionnaire via a private link also received this information orally or in writing.

The questionnaire's format and layout follow the guidelines of Dörnyei & Csizér (2011, p. 78). The questionnaire requires approximately 15 minutes for its completion, which falls beyond the 30-minute limit, as recommended by Dörnyei & Csizér (2011). Moreover, the questionnaire sections are clearly separated by implementing several digital pages on the Webropol platform, and questions as well as the items for rating are intentionally shuffled. While the exact page count is not feasible online, it spans more than 4 pages. However, the length is warranted due to the format of the rating-based questions and the need to thoroughly cover each content area (grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation mistakes), ensuring at least 4 items per area (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2011, p. 76).

The questionnaire is structured into four parts: a short consent form, background information necessary for research questions 2 and 3, a corrective feedback rating section to collect the data for research questions 1-3, and an optional form for providing an email address to participate in a follow-up interview (for research questions 1, 3 and 4). The initial survey question is focused on obtaining consent and is accompanied by a link to the Privacy Notice.

Background information includes native language, student status (degree or exchange), gender, English proficiency level, and field of study. The selection of these background variables is practically and theoretically motivated. Firstly, the question about participants' L1 serves two purposes: to exclude students with English as their first language and be able to compare the groups of Finnish and non-Finnish-speaking students since previous research indicated that cultural background can influence preferences. The distinction between degree and exchange students at a Finnish university also facilitates an understanding of cultural background. Additionally, the data on gender, English proficiency level, and field of study were collected because these three factors have demonstrated or are believed to impact students' preferences for oral corrective feedback (see Chapter 2.5).

The main part of the survey prompts participants to imagine themselves in an English class, making various mistakes while speaking. This section includes 15 sentences that could be produced by a student in any kind of university-level English class (General, Academic, or Business English). Each sentence contains a grammatical, lexical, or phonological mistake (5 of each). Following each sentence are 6 possible teacher correction utterances, representing six types of oral corrective feedback (see Chapter 2.3). The questionnaire included numerical rating scales (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2011, p. 77), and participants were asked to rate each feedback option on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 indicates "I would not like to be corrected this way at all" and 5 signifies "I would very much prefer to be corrected this way". Therefore, a participant rated 90 corrective feedback

utterances received by a teacher. The questions were manually shuffled to intersperse grammatical, lexical, and phonological mistakes. The feedback options were shuffled by the Webropol platform which ensured different orders for each question and participant. A

7. She is good in languages. *

	1	2	3	4	5
- Pardon me?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
- Oh, you mean "good 'at' languages".	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
- She is good "in" languages? (emphasizing "in")	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
- There's a mistake in your sentence. Can you find it?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
- Good in languages? Good ...? (pausing)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
- She is good at languages. Which ones?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Figure 1. Sample question of the questionnaire

sample survey question is provided in Figure 1. The full questionnaire is available in Appendix 1 Survey questions.

The final questionnaire section explains the researcher's intention to conduct interviews and invites the participants to provide their email addresses if they are interested in participating in an interview at a later date.

The full questionnaire contains three additional questions concerning peer corrective feedback, which are irrelevant to the objectives of this study and are addressed separately by the researcher in their minor thesis. These three questions are designed in a way that they do not influence the results related to teacher OCF.

3.2.3 Interview as a data collection method

The qualitative part of data collection complemented the survey results by providing additional context and clarification of findings. As noted by Freidman (2011), due to the typically small scale of qualitative research, it aims to offer detailed insights into the individual characteristics and differences of the subjects under study and, therefore, does not necessarily produce statistically significant results (p.182-183). This study follows the same goal of exploring different students' perspectives on oral corrective feedback, considering both representative views as well as outliers.

Semi-structured interviews were employed as a research method in this study. Interview questions served as an instrument to elicit data and guide the process, allowing the interviewer to ask follow-up questions or seek further clarification based on the responses provided by the interviewees. The full interview consisted of four parts and covered topics related to teacher and peer feedback. The interview was constructed in a way that the responses about teacher and peer feedback did not influence each other and could be used for different studies. Only the three sections relevant to teacher CF are utilised and discussed in this study. The interview guide is provided in Appendix 2 Interview guide.

As the first interview task, participants were given a paper containing an erroneous utterance produced by a student in an English class ("I think I'm doing good in keeping up with the coursework") and six ways a teacher gives corrective feedback, the same as the ones in the questionnaire. Their task was to rate each feedback instance on a scale from 1 to 5 based on their preferences and explain the reasons for their ratings. Participants were intentionally not provided with their previous questionnaire ratings to ensure unbiased responses. This

approach aimed to elicit genuine preferences and encourage the participants to articulate their thoughts aloud, rather than trying to justify their previous ratings given a few weeks prior. This question was designed to gain insights on corrective feedback from participants and address research questions 1-3.

The following two tasks aimed to address the final research question and investigate the impact of awareness on students' preferences. First, using the same erroneous utterance and feedback instances, participants were asked to consider the feedback from a teacher's perspective. Each feedback instance was discussed individually – the researcher provided a description and prompted participants to speculate on the reasons behind a teacher's choice of feedback. The purpose of this task was to raise feedback awareness by making an interviewee think about the functions of OCF types and the reasons for the feedback usage from a teacher's perspective and encouraging reflection on its potential benefits. Example:

Interviewer:

[Reading a feedback instance from the task paper] *You're doing "good"? emphasizing "good". In this type of corrective feedback, a teacher raises the intonation of their voice to suggest that an error has been made but doesn't correct it by themselves. Why might a teacher use this kind of feedback, in your opinion?*

Participant:

[answers]

Secondly, after elaborating on each feedback type, participants were presented with another paper containing a different erroneous utterance from a student ("Some people might be afraid to stay in front of the class and give a presentation") and corresponding teacher corrective instances, also from the questionnaire. Similarly to the first task, interviewees were asked to rate the feedback and reflect on their reasons. This task aimed to assess whether awareness influenced the ratings and to gather additional insights into feedback preferences.

The selection of the two erroneous sentences for tasks 1 and 3 was attributed to the purpose of eliminating the possible influence of other variables. Firstly, both utterances contained lexical mistakes to avoid potential variations occurring due to different mistake types, such as grammatical and phonological errors. Secondly, these two sentences demonstrated the closest results to each other within the five sentences with lexical mistakes.

3.3 Participants

In this chapter, I will outline the sampling strategy used for the survey and interview. Additionally, I will describe the sample groups consisting of Finnish-speaking and non-Finnish-speaking students who participated in the research.

3.3.1 Survey sampling strategy

125 university students enrolled in English courses at the Centre of Language and Communication Studies at the University of Turku participated in the survey during the spring semester of 2024. Most of the English courses focused on either Academic English or English for intercultural communication, and the students were not majoring in English studies.

The sampling strategy used for the survey is convenience sampling due to the practicality and accessibility it offers. As noted by Dörnyei & Csizér (2011), convenience sampling tends to be “partially purposeful” as participants possess specific characteristics of interest to the researcher (p. 81). In this case, the participants were selected based on their status as university students in Finland and enrolment in an English language course. Due to the researcher’s place of study and past internship in the Centre of Language and Communication Studies at the University of Turku, the CeLCS English students were convenient to reach. Data collection involved visiting a total of 8 language classes. The choice of classes was based on the CeLCS teachers’ willingness to allocate their classroom time.

3.3.2 Survey participants

The data analysis included only the responses from 121 participants, as 4 participants reported English as their native language (L1), while the focus of the study is on the second language acquisition processes. Among the participants, 101 reported Finnish as their L1, 3 indicated Finnish and Swedish as their native languages, and 17 reported other languages as their L1 (see Figure 2). Among non-Finnish-speaking students, 6 were categorized as Asian learners, 10 as European/North American learners, and 1 did not fit

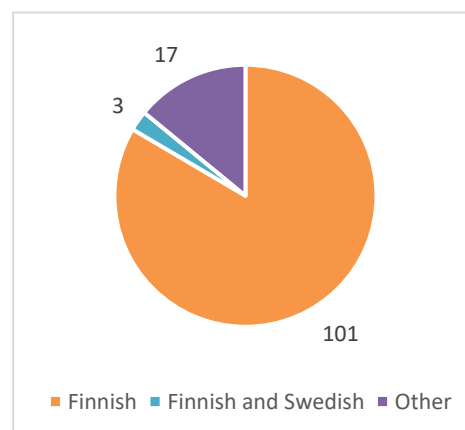


Figure 2. Participants' L1

within Li's (2003, 2005) classification of learners' language backgrounds. Additionally, 11 out of 17 non-Finnish-speaking students were exchange students, while all Finnish and Finnish-Swedish-speaking participants were degree students.

Table 3. Participants' L1 in relation to their student status

L1	Number of participants	Student status	Number of participants
Finnish-speaking	104	Degree students	104
Non-Finnish-speaking	17	Degree students	6
		Exchange students	11

For the purpose of data analysis, the participants were categorized into 2 groups: Finnish-speaking learner, consisting of 104 participants who have Finnish as at least one of their L1, and 17 non-Finnish-speaking learners (see Table 3). While some comparisons will be made between these two groups, the primary focus of the analysis was on Finnish-speaking university students. This is due to the fact that the educational backgrounds and survey answers of these two groups are substantially different, as seen in Table 6 and discussed in Section 4.3. Additionally, due to the smaller size of the non-Finnish-speaking group (17 participants), the comparison of their data in relation to other variables such as gender, English proficiency level, and fields of study would not produce reliable results.

In terms of participants' gender, 18 Finnish-speaking students identified as male, 79 as female, 4 as "other", and 3 people chose not to disclose their gender. Among non-Finnish-speaking participants, there were 4 male and 13 female students (see Table 4).

Table 4. Participants' gender

Gender	Number of Finnish-speaking participants	Number of non-Finnish-speaking participants
Male	18	4
Female	79	13
Other	4	0
Prefer not to say	3	0

Additionally, the participants were requested to assess their English proficiency level (refer to Table 5). The majority of Finnish-speaking students indicated their English level as Advanced (60 people) or Intermediate (34 people), while only 4 students stated their level as Elementary, 3 as Expert, and 2 as Basic. Similarly, among non-Finnish-speaking participants, 8 students rated their English level as Intermediate, 7 as Advanced, 1 as Expert, and 1 as Basic.

Table 5. Participants' English proficiency level

English proficiency level	Number of Finnish-speaking participants	Number of non-Finnish-speaking participants
Basic	2	1
Elementary	4	0
Intermediate	34	8
Advanced	60	7
Expert	3	1

All Finnish-speaking participants were enrolled either in the Faculty of Humanities (60 individuals) or the Faculty of Social Science (44 individuals). In contrast, non-Finnish-speaking students came from a more diverse range of faculties: 6 from Social Science, 5 from Education, 3 from Humanities, and 3 individuals each from Law, Science, and Technology, as indicated in Table 6.

Table 6. Participants' fields of study

Faculty of studies	Number of Finnish-speaking participants	Number of non-Finnish-speaking participants
Humanities	60	3
Social Science	44	6
Education	0	5
Law	0	1
Science	0	1
Technology	0	1

3.3.3 Finnish-speaking survey participants

As the analysis focused closely on Finnish-speaking students, their background information is described in more detail. In summary, 95,2% of Finnish-speaking participants reported their English proficiency level to be Intermediate or higher. Among all of them, 76% were female, 17% were male, 4% indicated “other” and 3% “preferred not to say”. Furthermore, 58% of Finnish-speaking participants studied at the Faculty of Humanities, while 42% belonged to the Faculty of Social Science. The participants did not study English as their major subject.

In terms of gender distribution across faculties, the represented faculty of Humanities consists of 13 males, 40 females, and 4 students of other genders, with 3 participants not disclosing their gender. 5 male and 39 female participants are students of the faculty of Social Science (see Figure 3).

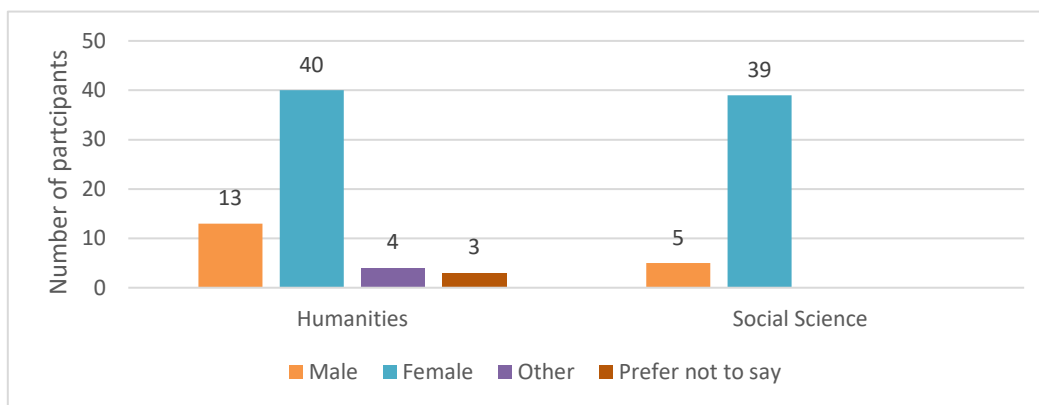


Figure 3. Finnish-speaking participants' gender in relation to their field of study

In terms of language proficiency and gender, the majority of students who reported their English level to be intermediate were female (31 out of 34); one male, one person of another gender, and one participant who preferred not to disclose their gender also stated intermediate level. Among the remaining male participants, the majority (14 out of 18) reported their English level to be advanced, and 3 male students indicated an expert proficiency. 31 female students reported their level to be intermediate, 4 – elementary, and 1 – basic proficiency. Additionally, 3 participants of another gender and 1 who preferred not to disclose their gender stated having an Advanced English level (see Figure 4).

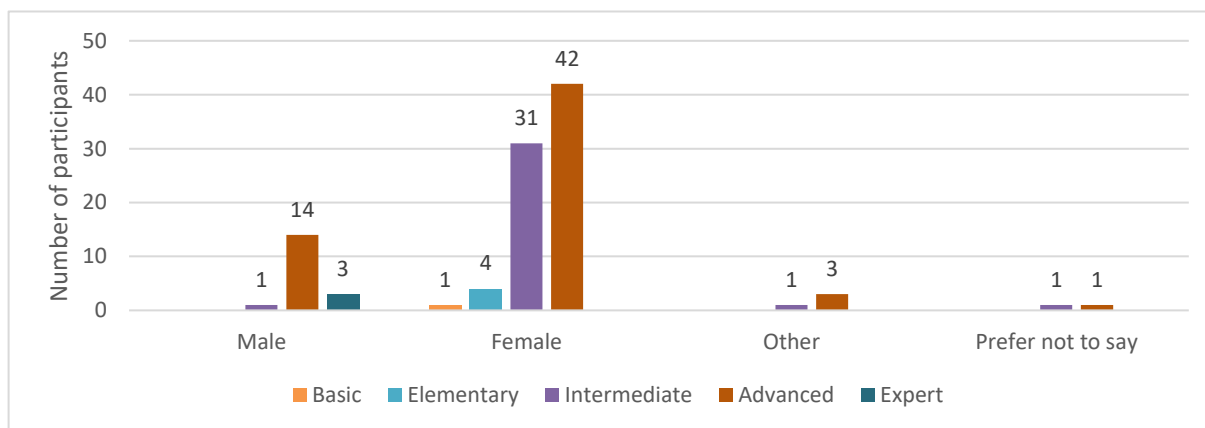


Figure 4. Finnish-speaking participants' English proficiency level in relation to their gender

In terms of language proficiency across different faculties, the percentages of the advanced English participants were close, with 60% in Humanities and 54,5% in Social Science. 40,9% of Social Sciences students and 26,6% of Humanities students reported having an intermediate level of English. A

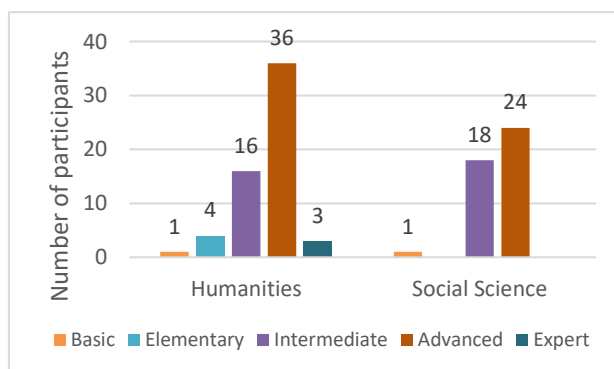


Figure 5. Finnish-speaking participants' fields of study in relation to their English proficiency level

small proportion of Humanities students (6,6%) claimed to have an elementary level of English, while 1,7% of Humanities and 2,3% of Social Sciences students reported a basic level of proficiency (see Figure 5).

3.3.4 Interview sampling strategy and participants

38 participants of the questionnaire expressed their willingness to participate in an interview by providing their emails. The goal was to interview participants representing diverse categories based on the investigated variables and demonstrating different preferences for the corrective feedback, which would potentially result in capturing a range of perspectives. When suitable candidates were identified through questionnaire results analysis, I contacted them via provided emails. However, not all of them have responded. Therefore, the next portion of candidates with the necessary characteristics were contacted. After several email rounds, interviews were scheduled with six individuals, comprising five Finnish-speaking (84%) and one non-Finnish-speaking (16%) participants, which corresponds to the proportion of all participants (85% and 15%, respectively) based on their native language.

Among the five Finnish-speaking participants, one was male (20%) and four were female (80%), corresponding to 19% and 81% gender distribution of all Finnish-speaking participants. Additionally, one of them had an Intermediate English proficiency level reported while four reported an Advanced level. Two interviewees were students of the faculty of Humanities and the other three were from the Social Science faculty. These participants demonstrated varied feedback preferences in the questionnaire responses, representing both average study participants and outliers. The non-Finnish-speaking participant was selected to represent the average responses of the non-Finnish-speaking group based on their survey answers and regardless of their gender, L1, and field of study.

Therefore, the sample strategy for the interviews was a combination of purposeful sampling, where participants were selected based on specific criteria, and a sample of convenience, due to the accessibility factor.

3.4 Data Analysis Methods

The data collected from surveys and interviews was analysed to address the first research question regarding Finnish-speaking university students' preferences for different types of oral corrective feedback. The second research question, which focused on variations in these

preferences based on background variables, required an analysis of quantitative data. To answer the third research question, which compared the preferences of Finnish-speaking and non-Finnish-speaking students, both survey and interview data were used. The final research question, exploring the impact of awareness on these preferences, was answered solely with interview data.

3.4.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

The quantitative data from the survey were exported from a Webropol online questionnaire and imported into the computer analysing program SPSS (IBM SPSS version 25). After the variables were reformulated and sorted, the mean results of all questions requiring rating were calculated for each type of corrective feedback for each participant. Descriptive statistics, including frequency distributions and mean values, were computed to provide a comprehensive overview of the results for the feedback rating questions.

For proceeding with quantitative data analysis of Finnish-speaking students, the data distribution was assessed. A thorough examination of the data from Finnish-speaking participants via SPSS indicated that the data was not normally distributed. This conclusion is based on the review of Q-Q plots, boxplots, skewness metrics, and Shapiro-Wilk test results. As emphasised by Larson-Hall (2010), both graphical and numerical summaries should be considered when assessing the normality of distribution (pp. 75-76). Signs of non-normal distribution include the presence of outliers, non-linear Q-Q plot patterns, appropriate Shapiro-Wilk test p-values (Larson-Hall, 2010), and skewness levels exceeding 1 (Porte, 2002). In the field of second language studies, a maximum significance value for suggesting strong evidence and rejecting the null hypothesis is considered to be 0.05 (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 210). Upon analysing the responses for each type of corrective feedback separately, it became evident that outliers and non-linear Q-Q plot patterns are observed for nearly every feedback type. Additionally, the skewness level is lower than 1 in half of the cases, and the Shapiro-Wilk test significance values of are lower than 0.05. The tables with details about the normality characteristics of data are presented in Appendix 3 Normality characteristics of data.

Although it is sometimes suggested to eliminate the outliers and analyse data without them (Larson-Hall, 2010, p. 91), this approach does not suit this study, which aims to explore learners' preferences, extreme cases included. Consequently, non-parametric tests are

justified. To determine whether there is a significant difference between each type of corrective feedback and then between types of mistakes to be corrected within the feedback types, a non-parametric related-samples Friedman's test was utilized and reported in the Results chapter. The correlations between each type of corrective feedback will be assessed with non-parametric Spearman's rho test to identify whether preference for one type predetermines preference or dislike for other types.

For the purpose of comparing results among Finnish-speaking students based on their gender, English proficiency level, and fields of study, the questionnaire data about the background information and feedback ratings were used as well. However, this comparison required the evaluation of the normality of data distribution within each group. As indicated in Appendix 3 Normality characteristics of data, the data are not normally distributed due to the same reasons described previously. Therefore, a non-parametric related-samples Friedman's test was employed to identify significant differences in feedback type preferences within specific groups (male students, female students, students with Intermediate English proficiency, etc.). Additionally, the Kruskal-Wallis test was used to determine whether there were statistically significant differences in the feedback type ratings between different groups in questions (genders, English level, field of study). The test was conducted for each variable separately, as a non-parametric test specifically designed to examine the interaction between variables does not exist (Larson-Hall, 2010, p.142).

The data of non-Finnish-speaking students was processed and analysed in an identical way to the Finnish-speaking participants. The quantitative data of non-Finnish participants also exhibits a non-normal distribution (refer to Appendix 3 Normality characteristics of data) for the same reasons as discussed for Finnish-speaking participants. Consequently, Friedman's test was utilized to identify statistically significant differences in the non-Finnish-speaking students' ranking of the feedback types. For the comparison between Finnish and non-Finnish-speaking participants, a non-parametric Mann-Whitney U-test was selected due to the presence of two variables, where L1 is an independent categorical variable and average rating is a dependent continuous variable.

3.4.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

To supplement the numerical data from the survey, the interview responses were also coded and analysed. This study employed content analysis as the focus is on the meaning of the

participants' responses. The analysis followed the steps of coding described by Baralt (2011, pp. 229-234). Initially, the collected data was organised, prepared, and reduced. In this study, the reduction involved the parts of the interview where participants were elaborating upon peer corrective feedback. The audio content was then transcribed with a low level of detail to emphasize the content over linguistic and structural features of the participants' speech like pauses, errors, and filler sounds. As the next step, the project journal was structured in NVivo, a qualitative analysis software, which is known to improve data management and ensure process credibility (Baralt, 2011). NVivo is also the most widely used software in the Second Language Acquisition studies (Baralt, 2011, p. 224).

Then, the actual coding process began with the three stages of coding described in Freidman (2011), which are based on Glaser and Strauss's (1967) grounded theory. The first stage, open coding, involved breaking down the six transcribed interviews into new documents based on the type of corrective feedback being described. This resulted in 12 separate documents, where each document focused on the advantages and disadvantages of the six corrective feedback types, such as "Advantages of elicitation". Each document was then coded by assigning labels to different advantages and disadvantages. Despite having some pre-existing categories from previous studies on learners' perceptions of oral corrective feedback, the coding process avoided them to minimize bias and ensure that the data was categorized based on its content, rather than trying to fit it into pre-defined categories. The second stage, axial coding, involved comparing categories within and across different interview participants and uniting some subcategories into wider categories (e.g., the "directness" category incorporated "direct", "honest", "concise", and "clear" categories). In addition to the 12 codes derived from open coding, new codes were introduced based on specific research questions and additional comments received from interviewees, such as "awareness impact", "dependability" and "Finnish context". The final stage, selective coding, reviewed and adjusted the concepts to ensure their accuracy. As the final stage of qualitative analysis, the process and results of coding were presented in the Methodology chapter and Results chapter. As an example, Table 7 displays a part of the coding journal related to the categories of advantages for explicit correction.

Table 7. Coding scheme for advantages of explicit correction

Code name	Description	Examples
Direct approach	The nature of the corrective feedback is direct, the teacher clearly shows a student that a mistake has been made.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “It’s direct” • “That’s kind of honest, like really gets to the point”
Includes the correct form	Corrective feedback instance provides the correct form for the learner’s erroneous utterance.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “It’s explaining what you’re supposed to say” • “It clearly states what part of the sentence is wrong and how you say it correctly”
Enhances conversation flow	The conversation is not disrupted since a teacher does not ask a student to correct or explain themselves. The conversation is easy to continue after the corrective feedback.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “It’s not like hanging up on the word...” • “It’s better because it doesn’t stick too much...”
Less pressure on student	A student is not asked to correct themselves, e.g. in front of the class.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “It doesn’t give pressure for the learner” • “It doesn’t like, especially, probably here in Finland, put learner our student in spotlight”

Freidman (2011) describes dependability and credibility as key concepts used to assess the quality of qualitative research. To facilitate dependability and allow readers to assess the consistency of the coding categories, thorough documentation of the study’s methodology, description of the process, and the inclusion of examples are provided. Credibility is achieved through measures like triangulation by including multiple participants (six) in the qualitative part of the study and following methodological guidelines. Additionally, as a researcher, I aim to be transparent about the potential biases that might affect the study results in order to facilitate authenticity, another concept discussed by Lincoln and Guba (2000).

3.5 Ethical considerations

The data processed for this research was collected and analysed according to the Finnish Data Protection Act (1050/2018). The privacy notices for both surveys and interviews included information about the research content and procedures, the voluntary nature of participation, participant’s right to withdraw their consent or exclude any data, anonymity in data processing and reporting, the timeframe for disposing of research data, and, for the interview, the fact that participants would be audio-recorded. The privacy notice for surveys was attached to the questionnaire, and, in addition, participants were verbally informed about the key points considering data collection and analysis procedures. The privacy notice and consent form for interviews were emailed to participants in advance to allow them to review

the information beforehand. Paper copies of the privacy notice and the consent form were then presented to them at the start of the interview. Both the surveys and interviews only proceeded after participants signed a consent form, electronically for the surveys and on paper for the interviews.

Only personal data necessary for research purposes was collected and reported in a manner that prevents identifying individuals. The email addresses shared with the researcher by those willing to participate in interviews were stored separately from the research data. To link survey and interview data, each participant was assigned a unique number for identification without revealing personal information.

Following the interviews, participants were asked if they wanted to review the transcript to ensure they were comfortable with its content. One participant requested the transcript, which was provided once the interview was transcribed.

4 Results

In this chapter, I will analyse the survey results, along with insights gathered from the interviews. The data will be examined in the order of the research questions presented earlier.

4.1 What types of oral corrective feedback do Finnish-speaking university-level students prefer from their teachers, and what are the reasons behind these preferences?

To answer the first research question, I will analyse the survey and interview responses of Finnish-speaking university students to identify their preferred types of oral corrective feedback (OCF) and the reasons behind the preferences. Then, I will examine the correlations among OCF type preferences to identify any patterns. Lastly, I will compare the preferences for the OCF types based on the type of mistake being corrected, such as grammatical, lexical, or phonological mistakes.

4.1.1 Preferences for oral corrective feedback types

I will begin by examining the preferences of Finnish-speaking university students regarding English oral teacher corrective feedback. As previously described, participants evaluated teacher corrective feedback instances of six types provided in response to different mistakes, using a rating scale ranging from 1 to 5. A rating of 1 indicated a strong dislike for the correction method, while a rating of 5 reflected a strong preference for it.

The students assigned the highest average ratings to such types of oral CF as recasts (3.99), explicit correction (3.20), and metalinguistic feedback (2.95). Conversely, they rated elicitation (1.90), repetition (1.79), and clarification requests (1.73) much lower on average (refer to Table 8 and Figure 6).

Table 8. Descriptive statistics for oral corrective feedback ratings by Finnish-speaking students

	Recasts	Explicit correction	Metalinguistic feedback	Elicitation	Repetition	Clarification requests
Mean	3.99	3.20	2.95	1.90	1.79	1.73
Std. Deviation	0.95	0.82	0.89	0.67	0.71	0.67
Minimum	1	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum	5.00	4.80	4.87	4.67	4.93	4.60

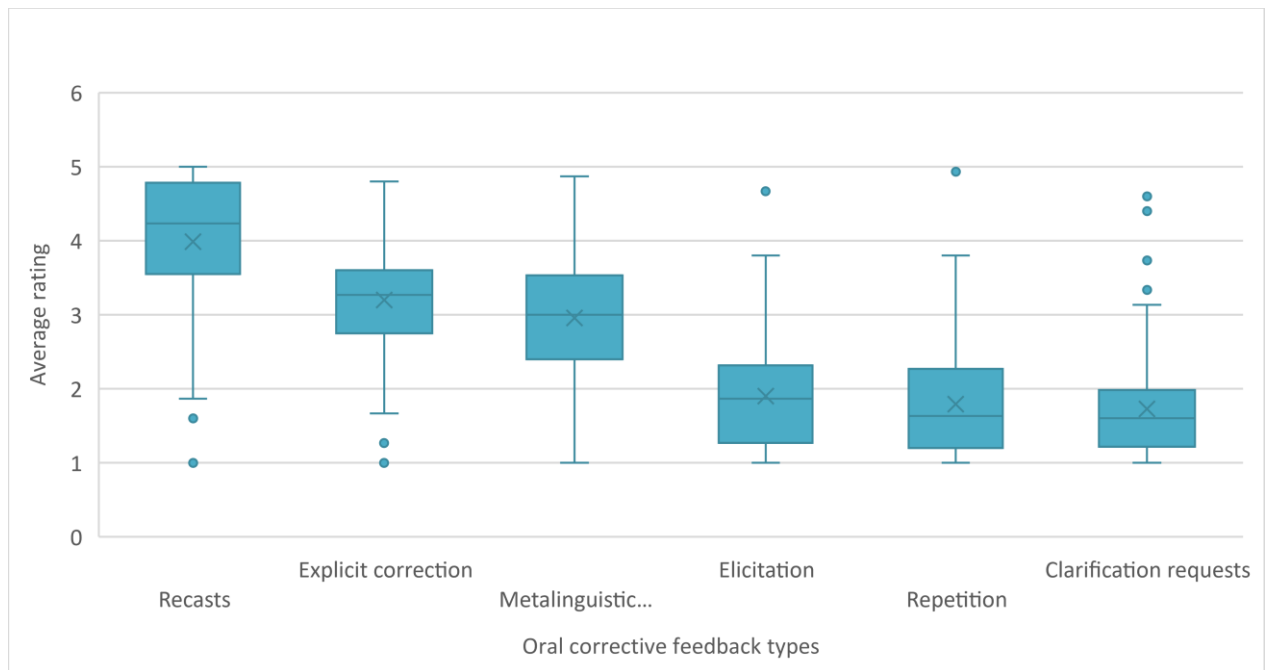


Figure 6. Boxplots of the Finnish-speaking students' preferences for oral corrective feedback types

To determine whether the differences among various types of OCF were statistically significant, a non-parametric related-samples Friedman's test was conducted. The test indicated significant differences among the OCF types. Therefore, a post-hoc analysis was performed on each pair of OCF types (e.g. explicit correction and recasts, explicit correction and clarification requests, recast and clarification requests, etc.), which resulted in 15 pairs. Because of the number of comparisons, the usual significance level of <0.05 was adjusted with a Bonferroni correction. Explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback displayed no significant difference ($p^a = .958$). Additionally, the group of the lowest-rated OCF types showed no significant differences among them: clarification requests and repetition ($p^a = 1$), elicitation and repetition ($p^a = 1$), and elicitation and clarification requests ($p^a = 1$). The remaining 11 pairs showed statistically significant differences.

Consequently, the data analysis indicated that Finnish-speaking students ranked recasts as the most preferred type of oral corrective feedback received from a teacher. Explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback ranked second since no significant difference was found among them. The least-preferred OCF types – elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests – were considered equally unfavourable without a specific ranking order.

Recasts received the highest average rating of 3.99 out of 5 among Finnish-speaking participants, with a standard deviation of 0.95 indicating moderate variability. The rating for this type of CF ranged from 1 to 5, resulting in a range of 4 points, which indicates the widest

range of preferences. The maximum score of 5 means that a few students consistently rated all 15 instances of recasts with the highest score. Specifically, 10 out of 104 participants (10%) consistently rated teachers' recasts as 5 in the survey.

During interviews, participants described their reasons for favouring recasts. The two most common arguments presented by 4 out of 5 respondents were the integration of the mistake correction in the feedback instance and the lack of interruption which allows conversation flow. Additionally, two participants valued recasts for their ability to prevent student embarrassment, as they do not require students to immediately self-correct their mistakes. The next quote from an interview represents these 3 reasons:

“Because they [teachers] are still correcting the student but moving past it. Because when a student is talking, they might get like confused or embarrassed if they are corrected and then they have to keep talking.”

Other reasons that were named by individual participants during interviews included the perceived politeness and “softness” of recasts, as well as their effectiveness in conveying understanding and encouraging students to continue speaking:

“It's this softer way of correcting someone, but at the same time it indicates that the main point was understood”.

“... it [recast] encourages the student to keep on speaking and do the mistake and mistakes and correct them while still giving the right answer”.

Despite the generally high rating results, not everyone appreciates recasts, as evidenced by the presence of outliers in Figure 6 and the minimum rating of 1 in Table 8. Two interviewees highlighted that a student may not notice the correction of a mistake in recasts and expressed their personal preference for the teacher to emphasize the corrected word in a feedback utterance:

“It [feedback] might go past, and they [students] might not realise their mistake if they just go past like this”.

“It [emphasising a correct form] will make the correction more clear”.

One of these two participants is generally positive towards recasts with ratings recasts with 4,07 in the questionnaire and 3.5 during an interview. However, the other participant showed

inconsistency by rating recasts lower in the questionnaire (2.40) but higher in the interview (4.30).

Explicit correction received an average rating of 3.20 out of 5 and a standard deviation of 0.82. Similar to recasts, the range of answers for evaluating explicit correction is wide (3.80) ranging from 1 to 4.80.

Based on the interviews, Finnish-speaking university students appreciate explicit correction for its straightforwardness and describe it as “clear”, “concise”, “direct”, and “honest”. Additionally, they value the inclusion of the correct word in the feedback, the ability to move on after the feedback, and the absence of pressure on a student:

“I appreciate people correct me in that way, that they give me the correct word because then I can just kind of move along...”

“... it [explicit correction] doesn't give pressure for the learner, but it clearly states what part of the sentence is wrong and how you say it correctly”.

However, the minimum score of 1 indicates that despite its status as one of the second highest-rated types of CF, there are students who do not appreciate explicit corrections. Although no outliers regarding explicit correction were interviewed, the reason one participant rated it as 3 was a teacher “sticking to” a mistake, which prevents the conversation flow. Additionally, the interviewee expressed their concern that this kind of feedback may sound rude.

“But it's not the best, because it kind of again stays, it doesn't move the conversation along. It kind of sticks into the mistake”.

Metalinguistic feedback scored 2.95 out of 5 on average among Finnish-speaking students, with a standard deviation of moderate variability (0.89). The range of answers is similar to recasts and explicit correction (3.87) with scores varying from 1 to 4.87.

The interviewees valued metalinguistic feedback for its inclusion of the explanation of the mistake and for allowing students to find the correct word by themselves. One respondent mentioned that this feedback type would help them realise their error. Moreover, this type of CF was called “direct” and “casual:

“I think this is good. It's explaining the difference, and like letting the students answer. And this is like very casual”.

However, despite varying ratings of the interviewees (from 2 to 5), all of them expressed some concerns about metalinguistic feedback. The most common concern was that grammatical terms (e.g. adverb, verb) can be confusing for students:

“It's kind of hard, I think, to understand, because I don't think I even know what an adverb is like. Just if somebody just says that it's an adverb, so I don't know how to correct it”.

Other reasons included the absence of a correct answer, perceived teacher arrogance, and the potential of this type of feedback to “overcomplicate a simple issue”.

Elicitation received an average rating of 1.90, which is 1.05 points lower than metalinguistic feedback. Its standard deviation of 0.67, similar to the one of clarification requests, shows the lowest variability among the examined types of CF. With a range of 3.67, elicitations' scores varied from 1 to 4.67.

Finnish-speaking students highlighted the opportunity for learners to correct their mistakes by themselves as an advantage of elicitation. They named two reasons for the self-correction effectiveness: it provides a “*good learning experience*” by allowing students to learn from their mistakes, and it allows them to “*save their face*” by demonstrating their knowledge of the correct answer. Additionally, one individual also called it “*not so aggressive*”.

However, most interview respondents expressed their concerns that elicitation can confuse learners, as they might not understand what the teacher wants them to correct. One participant elaborated on their potential confusion and provided detailed reasoning:

“Maybe the thing is that I would think that it was a pronunciation mistake, not that I have used the wrong word. I would try to say the “stay” in a different way or just say it unsurely and look at the teacher with question marks. Well, I don't think I would understand that I used a wrong word”.

Moreover, one participant described elicitation as “*not direct or clear enough*”. Another reason for disliking elicitation is its potential to prevent the flow of the conversation because a student might “*get stuck*” and even “*freeze*”.

The average rating of **repetition** is 1.79 out of 5, with a 0.71 standard deviation. Among the types of CF, its range of 3.21 points is the second highest with a minimum of 1 and a maximum of 4.93. Interviews:

Some interviewees compared repetition to elicitation and noted that repetition has an advantage over the latter because it includes the part to be corrected by the student in a teacher's feedback utterance. Additionally, repetition and elicitation were seen by one participant as sharing the same advantage of facilitating a learner learning from mistakes:

"It's good that you [a teacher] are trying to make people, uh, correct it [a mistake] themselves, because to some, to some people it's a good learning experience".

Nevertheless, repetition was also criticized by most interviewees for potentially confusing learners, as they might not understand what a teacher requires them to do by giving feedback. Other reasons for low ratings included the lack of the correct word, *"putting [a learner] on the spot in front of others [classmates]"*, and disrupting the flow of the conversation:

"Because that way I don't think I would like understand what did I say wrong. And I would note there is something wrong with it, but possibly I wouldn't understand what is wrong".

Finally, **clarification requests** received an average rating of 1.73, with the lowest standard deviation of 0.67 which is similar to the standard deviation of elicitation. The range of answers (3.60) is also the narrowest, ranging from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 4.60. This indicates that no participant rated clarification requests higher than 4.60 on average, and the one who did is considered an outlier. As depicted in Figure 6, clarification requests' ratings have four outliers, all on the higher end, which is more than any other type of corrective feedback.

Interview responses revealed possible reasons for the high ratings of clarification requests. One participant appreciated the provided *"opportunity [for a student] to correct and explain [themselves]"*. Another learner valued the time it gives the student *"to process the sentence"* and try again. One person described clarification requests in the form of *"What do you mean by ...?"* as *"not as aggressive"*.

However, many respondents expressed their concern that clarification requests could lead to confusion, as students might not understand exactly what went wrong and may assume the teacher simply did not hear them instead of recognizing the mistake:

“I’m just gonna figure out that they couldn’t hear me correctly, maybe. Or I muttered something and otherwise kind of got stuck, so it kind of misses the point that you want me to correct something in there.”

Additionally, three interviewees shared their opinion that a teacher should not pretend to use clarification requests if they understand a student, because this approach may seem, as noted by one respondent, “mean”. Clarification requests were also described as “indirect,” and one student mentioned feeling uncomfortable when asked to explain something.

Table 9. Reasons for the preferences for the types of oral corrective feedback

Corrective feedback types	Advantages	Disadvantages
Recasts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Includes the correct form • Maintains conversation flow • Prevents learner’s embarrassment • Polite and soft approach • Indicates message understanding • Encourages student to continue speaking 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Correction may be unnoticed by learners • Mistake is not emphasized
Explicit correction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct approach • Includes the correct form • Enhances conversation flow • Less pressure on students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teachers “stick to” mistakes • May be perceived as rude
Metalinguistic feedback	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Includes mistake explanation • Promotes self-correction • Helps recognize errors • Direct approach • Casual 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Confusing terminology • Lack of correct form • Perceived teacher arrogance • “Overcomplication of a simple issue”
Elicitation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides learning experience • Allows students to “save their face” • Comparatively “not so aggressive” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Causes confusion • Indirect and unclear • Disrupts conversation flow
Repetition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contains the part to be corrected • Provides learning experience 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Causes confusion • Lack of correct form • Put a learner “on the spot” • Disrupts conversation flow
Clarification requests	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allows students to correct and explain themselves • Provides time to process the sentence • Comparatively less aggressive (CF in the form of “What do you mean by...?”) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Causes confusion • Should not be used in case a teacher understands the meaning • Indirect • Students might feel uncomfortable explaining

The summary of the advantages and disadvantages of the six corrective feedback types named by Finnish-speaking interview respondents is presented in Table 9.

The interviews also highlighted factors influencing their preferences, such as their relationship with the teacher, the tone of feedback, and whether the feedback is delivered in front of the whole class or one-to-one. Additionally, two participants stressed the importance of conveying the message smoothly and suggested that corrections of minor mistakes should not disrupt a conversation.

4.1.2 Correlations between corrective feedback types

Any potential associations between the various types of oral corrective feedback (OCF) and students' ratings were explored. Spearman's rank-order correlation test was conducted in SPSS to examine which types of OCF feedback significantly correlated, with the results presented in Table 10. A significance level of $p < 0.05$ was used to identify statistically significant correlations, with $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.001$ indicating a very high level of significance. A positive correlation suggests that if a participant rates one type of CF highly (or low), they are likely to rate the other type similarly. A negative correlation, indicated by a minus sign before the correlation coefficient (r), means that a high rating for one type is likely to correspond to a low rating for the other, and vice versa. To visualize these associations, a raincloud plot of the average ratings for different types of oral corrective feedback was created in JASP 0.18.3.0 (see Figure 7).

Table 10. Results of Spearman's correlation test for types of teacher oral corrective feedback

	Recasts	Explicit correction	Metalinguistic feedback	Elicitation	Repetition	Clarification requests
Recasts		.17	-.005	-.22*	-.28*	-.14
Explicit correction	.17		.59***	.07	-.04	.12
Metalinguistic feedback	-.005	.59***		.45***	.24**	.25**
Elicitation	-.22*	.07	.45***		.72***	.48***
Repetition	-.28**	-.04	.24**	.72***		.46***
Clarification requests	-.14	.12	.25**	.48***	.46***	

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

A positive correlation is observed between the following pairs of OCF types: explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback ($r = .59^{**}$), clarification requests and metalinguistic

feedback ($r=0.25^{**}$), clarification requests and elicitation ($r=.48^{**}$), clarification request and repetition ($r=.46^{**}$), metalinguistic feedback and repetition ($r=.24^*$), and elicitation and repetition ($r=.72^{**}$). These results indicate that those learners who rate one of the three lowest-rated types of OCF (elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests) low (or highly) tend to rate other low-rated types similarly.

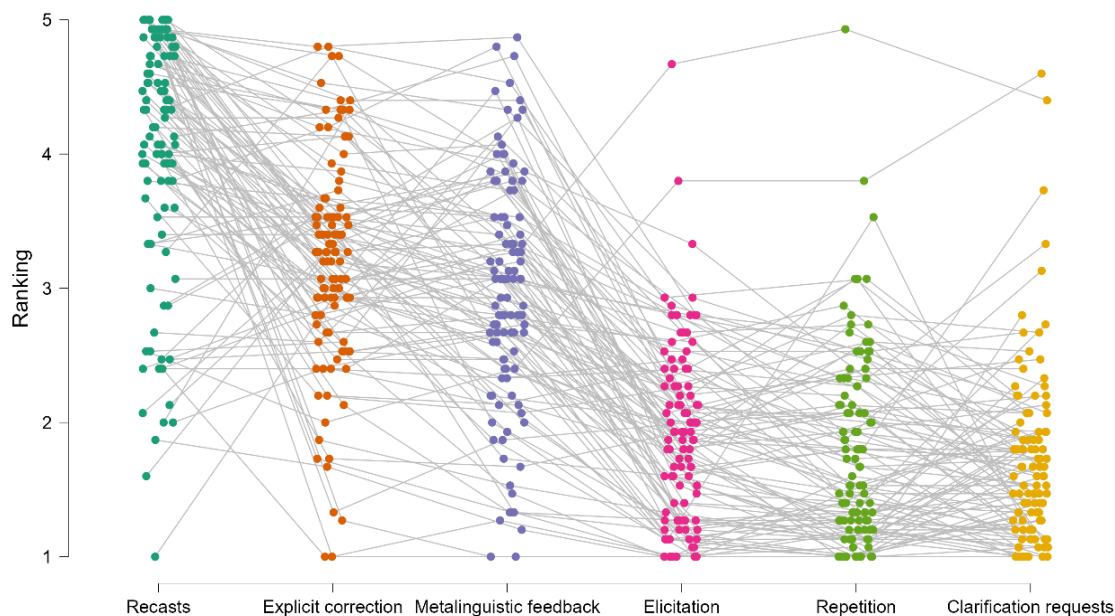


Figure 7. Raincloud plot of Finnish-speaking students' average preferences for oral corrective feedback types

Figure 7 visually represents these correlations, with the connection lines between elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests tending to be parallel to a horizontal line, which indicates that many learners consistently rated these types low or high. Interestingly, students who gave a low (or high) rating for these three lowest-rated types also tend to give a low (or high) rating to metalinguistic feedback, despite it being one of the highest-rated strategies.

Additionally, a negative correlation was observed between recasts, the highest-rated type of OCF, and two out of the three lowest-rated types of OCF: elicitation ($r=-.22^*$) and repetition ($r=-.28^{**}$). This suggests that individuals who prefer recasts tend to dislike elicitation and repetition, and vice versa. This pattern is also visible in the raincloud plot showing the relationship between these three types of OCF (see Figure 8). However, the correlation is relative, as repetition and elicitation are generally rated lower than recasts. For instance, some students rated repetition and elicitation as 1 and recasts as 3, which statistically shows a positive correlation, but in practice, a rating of 3 for recasts is relatively low.

However, a preference for recasts does not necessarily imply a preference for other high-rated types, such as explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback, as there were no significant correlations between these pairs. The raincloud plot (Figure 7) visually represents this relationship, showing that those who rated recasts highly gave explicit correction a quite low ranking. This pattern is evident from the plot, where many lines connecting recasts and explicit correction go down and then remain on the comparably similar level between explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback.

Another noteworthy finding is the absence of a significant correlation between the highest- and one of the lowest-rated types, recasts, and clarification requests ($r=.14$). Although it indicates a weak overall relationship, there is variability in learning preferences. According to the raincloud plot illustrating Finnish-speaking students' preferences for recasts and clarification requests (Figure 9), there is a noticeable group of learners who rated recasts highly and clarification requests low. However, there is also a group of participants who rated them on a similar level. This combination of patterns contributes to the low correlation coefficient of 0.14 and suggests that while some learners prefer recasts over clarification requests, others do not share this preference.

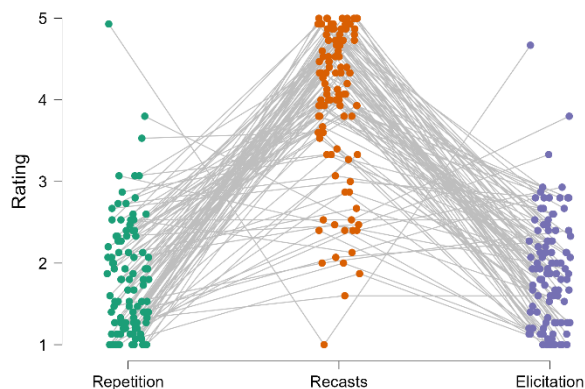


Figure 8. Raincloud plot of Finnish-speaking students' preferences for recasts, repetition, and elicitation

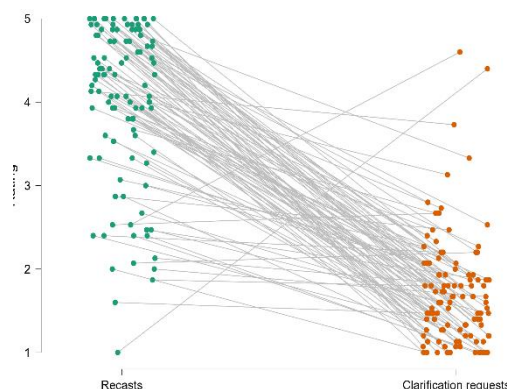


Figure 9. Raincloud plot of Finnish-speaking students' preferences for recasts and clarification requests

4.1.3 Finnish-speaking students' preferences based on mistake types

The 15 survey items representing erroneous utterances were categorized into three types of mistakes: grammatical, lexical, and phonological, with 5 sentences each. This categorization aimed to examine whether students' preferences for different types of oral corrective feedback varied based on the type of mistake being corrected by a teacher.

To determine if there are significant differences between each type of OCF across the 15 pairs of six types of OCF (e.g., repetition-recasts, repetition-elicitation) within each mistake type, a non-parametric Friedman's test for related samples was conducted and indicated a significant difference for all three mistakes types. For its post-hoc test, in accordance with Bonferroni correction, the significance value of <0.05 was adjusted.

The average ratings of Finnish-speaking university students on English oral corrective feedback, as illustrated in Table 11 and Figure 10, demonstrate generally consistent preferences across different types of errors. Specifically, the order of preference is similar to the overall ratings for CF types for **grammatical mistakes**, ranging from most preferred to least preferred as follows: recasts (3.87), explicit correction (3.17), metalinguistic feedback (3.02), elicitation (2.17), repetition (1.85), and clarification requests (1.75). The significance analysis divided OCF types into two groups based on the preference order. In the first group, there was no significant difference between recasts and explicit correction ($p^a=.1$), and between explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback ($p^a=1$). However, the difference between metalinguistic feedback and elicitation is significant. In the second group, there was no significant difference between elicitation and repetition ($p^a=.5$), as well as repetition and clarification requests ($p^a=.52$).

For **lexical mistakes**, the three most preferred types maintain the same order with average ratings of 4.07, 3.34, and 2.90 points respectively. However, there is no significant difference between recasts and explicit correction ($p^a=.12$), and explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback ($p^a=.34$). The ratings order of the three least preferred types of CF differs: clarification requests rise to the fourth place (2.01), followed by elicitation (1.83) and repetition (1.81). Nevertheless, the difference among these three types is statistically non-significant.

The preference order for **phonological mistakes** is nearly the same as the overall order for all types of mistakes with repetition being slightly ahead of elicitation by 0.02 points, but the difference between them is statistically non-significant. Recasts scored 4.02, explicit correction – 3.09, metalinguistic feedback – 2.94, repetition – 1.72, elicitation – 1.70, and clarification requests – 1.60. However, the differences between explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback, as well as the three lowest-rated OCF types demonstrated non-significant differences.

Table 11. Finnish-speaking students' preferences for types of oral corrective feedback based on mistake types

Types of mistakes	Recasts	Explicit correction	Metalinguistic feedback	Elicitation	Repetition	Clarification requests
Grammatical mistakes (mean)	3.87 (SD= 1.01)	3.17 (SD= 0.85)	3.02 (SD= 0.87)	2.17 (SD= 0.79)	1.85 (SD= 0.75)	1.57 (SD= 0.69)
Lexical mistakes (mean)	4.07 (SD= 0.99)	3.34 (SD= 0.87)	2.90 (SD= 0.94)	1.83 (SD= 0.73)	1.81 (SD= 0.77)	2.01 (SD= 0.84)
Phonological mistakes (mean)	4.02 (SD= 0.96)	3.09 (SD= 0.89)	2.94 (SD= 1.00)	1.70 (SD= 0.68)	1.72 (SD= 0.72)	1.60 (SD= 0.68)

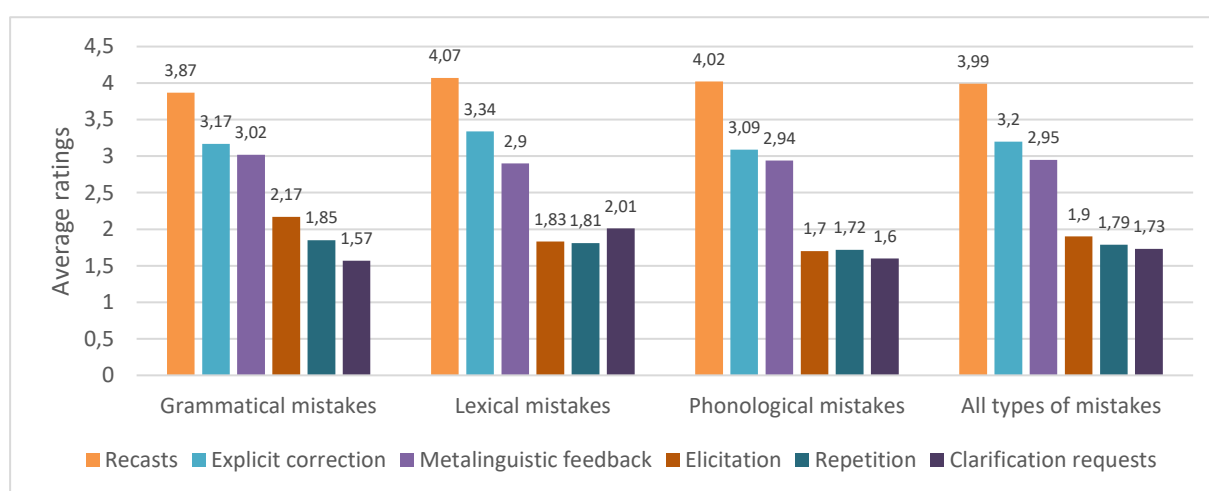


Figure 10. Finnish-speaking students' preferences for types of oral corrective feedback based on mistake types

Additionally, to determine whether there are significant differences in ratings depending on the type of mistake within each OCF type, a non-parametric Friedman's test and its post-hoc analysis were used. The significant differences were identified in the following pairs: grammatical-lexical ($p^a=0$) and phonological-grammatical ($p^a=.05$) for recasts, lexical-phonological ($p^a=.001$) for explicit correction, grammatical-lexical ($p^a=0$) and grammatical-phonological ($p^a=0$) for elicitation, grammatical-phonological ($p^a=.025$) for repetition, and grammatical-lexical ($p^a=0$) and lexical-phonological ($p^a=0$) for clarification requests. No significant differences were found between mistake types in the case of metalinguistic feedback.

Only statistically significant results are described. According to the data analysis results, recasts were viewed more positively for lexical (4.07) and phonological mistakes (4.02) than for grammatical mistakes (3.87). Explicit correction was rated more positively for lexical

mistakes (3.34) than for phonological (3.09) mistakes. For lower-rated types of OCF, the learners were more negative to elicitation for phonological mistakes (1.70) than for grammatical (2.17) mistakes, and more negative for lexical mistakes (1.83) than grammatical mistakes. Repetition was viewed more negatively for phonological mistakes (1.72) than grammatical mistakes (1.85). Finally, the students viewed clarification requests more negatively for grammatical mistakes (1.57) than for lexical mistakes (2.01), and also more negatively for phonological mistakes (1.60) than for lexical mistakes.

Moreover, Spearman's correlation test revealed significant differences for each pair of preferences for OCF concerning mistake types within each OCF type (e.g. lexical-grammatical mistakes for recasts, grammatical-phonological mistakes for recasts). This suggests that students consistently prioritize certain types of OCF over others depending on the type of mistake being corrected.

During the interviews, two students shared their perspectives on corrective feedback for phonological errors. Both expressed a preference for teachers to provide the correct pronunciation of mispronounced words so that they could learn the accurate ways to say them. This clarifies the high ratings of recasts and explicit correction for phonological mistakes, as these types of OCF offer correct pronunciation:

“If it's like a word that I don't know how to pronounce, I'm just going to pronounce the way like I think it would be pronounced. And if it's wrong, then I think it's just the best to like hear how it's pronounced, and then just carry on and like know and just keep going”.

“If I pronounce a word wrong, it's something that often doesn't happen all the time, it's just a mistake once made. So then if it doesn't affect the conversation negatively, that the other person does understand me, even though I said a word wrong, I think it's something you shouldn't, correct, maybe. But if you talk with someone and you realise that they make the same mistake time after time after time, then maybe, but...”

The second citation also underscores the importance of correcting students when they repeat a mistake due to the lack of knowledge, whereas a one-time pronunciation may occur accidentally.

In summary, the overall order of preferences for OCF types remains consistent across different mistake types, with statistically insignificant changes in the rankings. However,

students tend to have varying attitudes towards certain OCF types depending on what kind of mistake is being corrected.

4.2 How do Finnish-speaking students' feedback preferences vary based on factors such as gender, language proficiency levels, and field of study?

To answer the second research question, I will analyse Finnish-speaking students' preferences for the types of oral corrective feedback based on their gender, English proficiency level, and field of study.

4.2.1 Gender as a factor

According to the background information reported by the Finnish-speaking participants, 18 students identified as male, 79 as female, 4 identified with another gender, and 3 chose not to disclose their gender. Due to the small size of some groups, only the male and female groups of students will be analysed.

The questionnaire results reveal differences in the preference order for OCF types between male and female students, as illustrated in Table 12 and Figure 11. Female students generally follow the overall preference order among all genders: recasts (4.09), explicit correction (3.14), metalinguistic feedback (2.93), elicitation (1.92), repetition (1.77), and clarification requests (1.69). However, there were no significant differences between explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback ($p^a=1$), and among elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests, as determined by the Friedman's test and its post-hoc tests with a Bonferroni-adjusted significance level. Male students also ranked recasts (3.46), explicit correction (3.40), and metalinguistic feedback (2.96) as their top three preferences, with no statistically significant differences among these types. Clarification requests, typically receiving the least points, ranked fourth among male students with 1.93 points, followed by elicitation and repetition, both with 1.86 points on average. However, there were no significant differences among these three lower-rated types either.

Table 12. Finnish-speaking students' preferences for the types of oral corrective feedback based on their gender

	Recasts	Explicit correction	Metalinguistic feedback	Elicitation	Repetition	Clarification requests
Male	3.46 (SD=1)	3.40 (SD=0.64)	2.96 (SD=0.76)	1.86 (SD=0.56)	1.86 (SD=0.54)	1.93 (SD=0.65)
Female	4.09 (SD=0.92)	3.14 (SD=0.88)	2.93 (SD=0.94)	1.92 (SD=0.7)	1.77 (SD=0.74)	1.69 (SD=0.68)
Sig	0.009	0.32	0.84	0.97	0.27	0.06

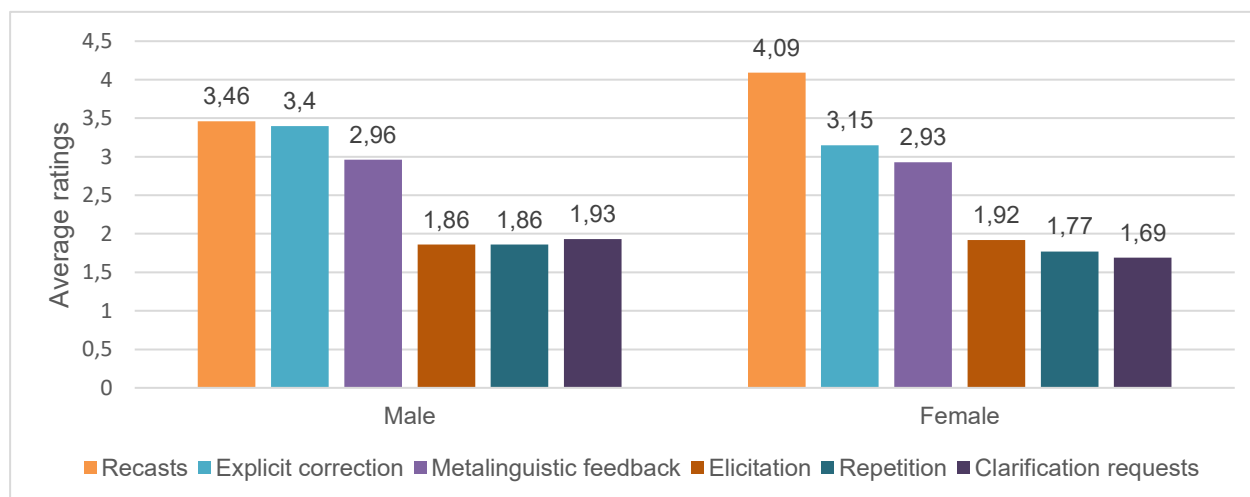


Figure 11. Finnish-speaking students' preferences for the types of oral corrective feedback based on their gender

To determine whether gender has a significant impact on the preference for different types of feedback, the Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted. The results, presented in Table 12, indicated a significant difference in preference for recasts between male and female students, with a p-value of 0.009. Female students rated recasts higher, with an average score of 4.09, compared to male students, who rated it 3.46, with a difference of 0.63 points between the genders.

In summary, male students generally prefer recasts, explicit correction, and metalinguistic feedback over clarification requests, elicitation, and repetition. Female students ranked recasts the highest, followed by explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback. Female students' least preferred types were elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests. Additionally, the results suggest that female students are more positive towards recasts compared to male students.

4.2.2 Perceived English proficiency level as a factor

In terms of self-perceived English proficiency level, 34 students reported that their language level is Intermediate, 60 – Advanced, 4 – Elementary, 3 – Expert, and 2 – Basic. Due to the insufficient number of participants in some groups, only the results from students with Intermediate and Advanced perceived levels of English were analysed and presented in Table 13 and Figure 12.

The preferences for different types of OCF were generally similar among students with Intermediate and Advanced English proficiency, as well as compared to overall preferences, regardless of language level. The order of preference for the first four types of OCF was identical in both groups. Recasts were the most favoured by both Intermediate and Advanced students, with ratings of 4.10 and 3.92, respectively. They were followed by explicit correction (3.33 for Intermediate and 3.16 for Advanced), metalinguistic feedback (3.00 versus 3.02), and elicitation (1.93 versus 1.92). The Friedman's post-hoc tests with a Bonferroni-adjusted significance level showed no significant difference between recasts and explicit correction as well as between explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback in either group. The order of preference differed for the two lowest-rated types of OCF. Intermediate English level students rated repetition (1.79) higher than clarification requests (1.60), whereas Advanced-level English students preferred clarification requests (1.84) over repetition (1.80). Nevertheless, the differences between these lower-rated types were not statistically significant in either group. Additionally, the difference between elicitation and repetition was not significant either.

The Kruskal-Wallis test showed no significant differences in OCF preferences between Intermediate and Advanced students. As indicated in Table 13, the p-values for each pair were higher than the significance level of 0.05.

Table 13. Finnish-speaking students' preferences for the types of oral corrective feedback based on their English proficiency level

	Recasts	Explicit correction	Metalinguistic feedback	Elicitation	Repetition	Clarification requests
Intermediate level	4.10 (SD=0.72)	3.33 (SD=0.7)	3.00 (SD=0.85)	1.93 (SD=0.67)	1.79 (SD=0.6)	1.60 (SD=0.52)
Advanced level	3.92 (SD=1.06)	3.16 (SD=0.86)	3.02 (SD=0.88)	1.92 (SD=0.7)	1.80 (SD=0.78)	1.84 (SD=0.76)
Sig	0.910	0.294	0.944	0.855	0.638	0.155

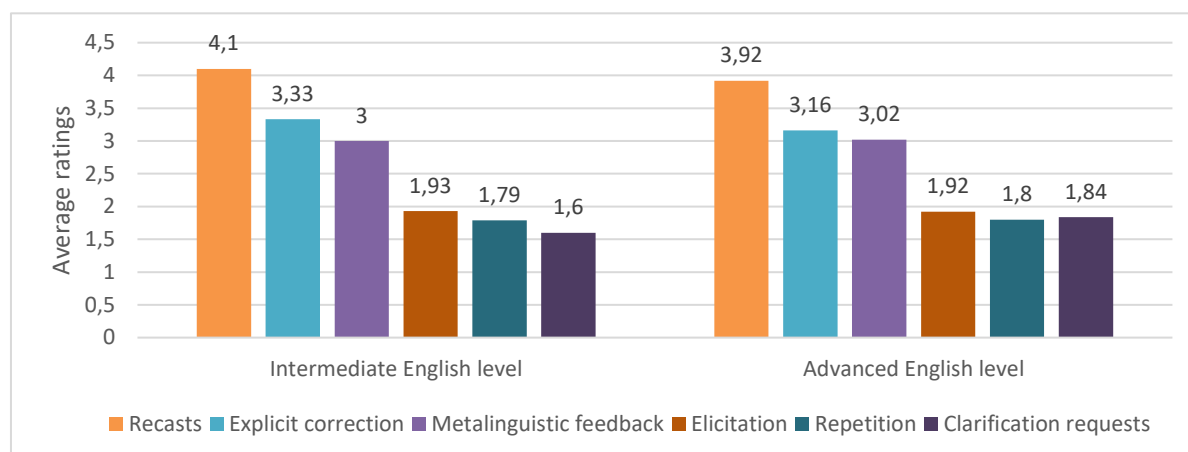


Figure 12. Finnish-speaking students' preferences for the types of oral corrective feedback based on their English proficiency level

In summary, the preferences for the types of OCF between students with Intermediate and Advanced English levels are similar. Moreover, no significant differences were found between the two groups.

4.2.3 Field of study as a factor

The Finnish-speaking participants in the study were from the faculties of Humanities (60 students) and Social Science (44 students). Both Humanities and Social Science students ranked the types of corrective feedback in the same order, as displayed in Table 14 and Figure 13.

Recasts received the highest rating from both groups, with Humanities students rating them with 3.87 points on average compared to 4.15 points from Social Science students. Humanities students gave explicit correction a rating of 3.15 and metalinguistic feedback 2.97, while Social Sciences students rated explicit correction 3.27 and metalinguistic feedback 2.94. Freidman's post-hoc tests with a Bonferroni-adjusted significance level indicated that there was no significant difference among recasts, explicit correction, and metalinguistic feedback for the faculty of Humanities and between explicit correction and metalinguistic

feedback for the faculty of Social Science. The least-preferred types of OCF, elicitation, repetition, and clarification request, showed no significant differences across the two faculties. On average, Humanities students rated elicitation at 1.93, repetition at 1.84, and clarification requests at 1.82, while Social Sciences students rated them at 1.86, 1.72, and 1.61, respectively.

Results from the Kruskal-Wallis test, shown in Table 14, indicate that there were no significant differences in the preferences for corrective feedback types across the two faculties, as the p-values for each pair were higher than the 0.05 significance level.

Table 14. Finnish-speaking students' preferences for the types of oral corrective feedback based on their fields of study

	Recasts	Explicit correction	Metalinguistic feedback	Elicitation	Repetition	Clarification requests
Humanities	3.87 (SD=1.08)	3.15 (SD=0.8)	2.97 (SD=0.95)	1.93 (SD=0.75)	1.84 (SD=0.8)	1.82 (SD=0.78)
Social Science	4.15 (SD=0.71)	3.27 (SD=0.84)	2.94 (SD=0.79)	1.86 (SD=0.56)	1.72 (SD=0.57)	1.61 (SD=0.48)
Sig	0.435	0.617	0.995	0.929	0.659	0.315

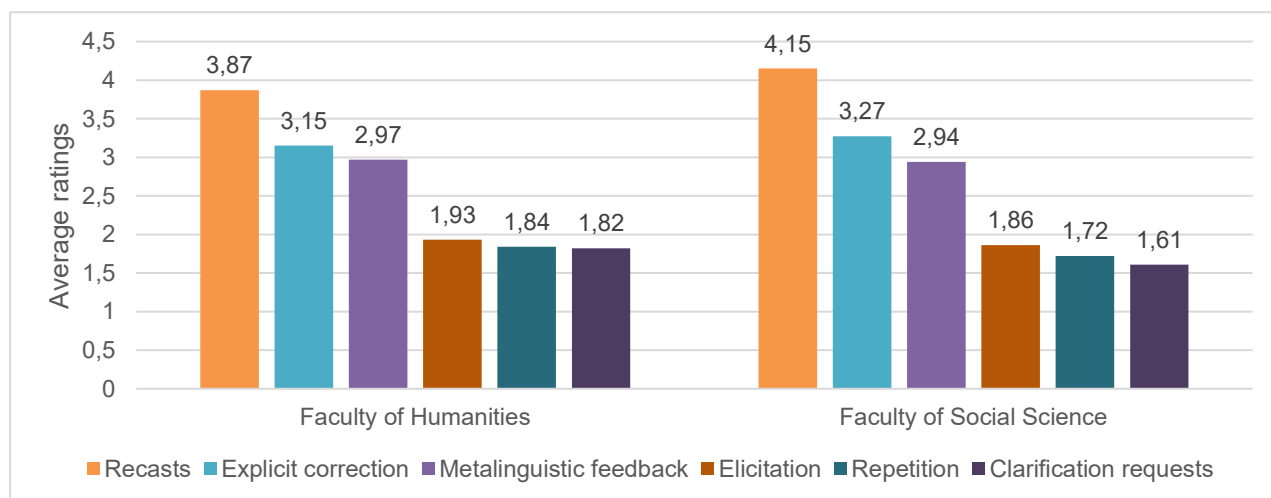


Figure 13. Finnish-speaking students' preferences for the types of oral corrective feedback based on their fields of study

In summary, the students of the faculties of Humanities and Social Science rated the OCF types in a similar order. No significant preferences were identified among the two faculties for either of the OCF type.

4.3 How do Finnish-speaking students' preferences vary from those of non-Finnish-speaking participants?

17 non-Finnish-speaking university-level students participated in the study, and their results are compared to the Finnish-speaking group. The obtained results from both groups are presented in Table 15 and Figure 14.

The non-Finnish-speaking students ranked recasts (3.92), explicit correction (3.50), and metalinguistic feedback (3.27) the highest. The least preferred types of OCF for the non-Finnish-speaking students were clarification request (2.24), elicitation (2.16), and repetition (2.10). According to the Friedman's post-hoc tests and a Bonferroni-adjusted level of significance, no statistically significant differences were found among these two groups: three highest-rated and three lowest-rated OCF types. No significant differences were found between metalinguistic feedback and elicitation and between metalinguistic feedback and clarification requests either.

Comparing Finnish and non-Finnish-speaking participants, both groups ranked recasts as their most preferred OCF, with Finnish-speaking students rating them slightly higher by 0.07 points. Explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback received higher ratings from non-Finnish students compared to Finnish-speaking students by 0.2 and 0.51 points, respectively. However, the preference order diverged from this point on. While Finnish-speaking participants ranked elicitation fourth, non-Finnish-speaking favoured clarification requests over elicitation and repetition. This resulted in a difference of 0.51 points for clarification requests, 0.26 points for elicitation, and 0.31 points for repetition between the analysed two groups, with non-Finnish-speaking students being more positive towards all three of them. In order to determine whether there were significant differences between these two groups based on their L1, the Mann-Whitney U-test was conducted. The test revealed that only the p-value for clarification requests ($p=0.015$) was lower than 0.05, indicating a significant difference. Consequently, the results suggest that Finnish-speaking students viewed clarification requests more negatively compared to non-Finnish-speaking students.

Table 15. Mean ratings for the types of oral corrective feedback from Finnish-speaking and non-Finnish-speaking students

	Recasts	Explicit correction	Metalinguistic feedback	Elicitation	Repetition	Clarification requests
Finnish-speaking	3.99 (SD=0.95)	3.20 (SD=0.82)	2.96 (SD=0.89)	1.90 (SD=0.67)	1.79 (SD=0.71)	1.73 (SD=0.67)
Non-Finnish-speaking	3.92 (SD=0.68)	3.50 (SD=0.67)	3.27 (SD=0.84)	2.16 (SD=0.83)	2.10 (SD=0.73)	2.24 (SD=0.89)
Sig	0.321	0.274	0.153	0.228	0.084	0.015

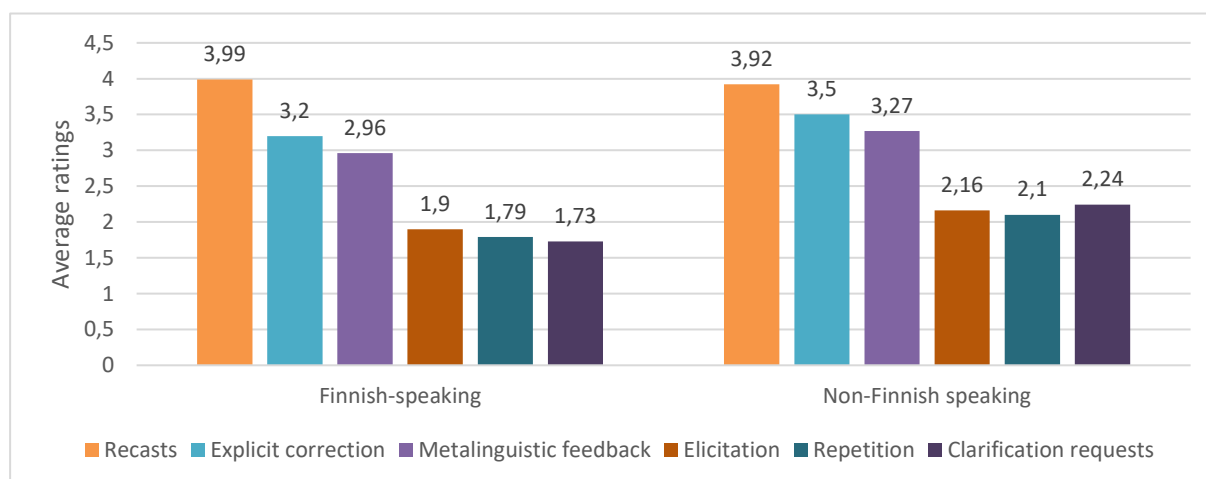


Figure 14. Mean ratings for the types of oral corrective feedback from Finnish-speaking and non-Finnish-speaking students

Following Li's (2003, 2005) classification of Asian and European/North American learners, raincloud plots were created for both groups separately and are presented in Figure 15 and Figure 16. In comparison to the Asian group of study participants, the pattern for the European/North American learners is more aligned with that of Finnish-speaking students and is indicated by the decline from metalinguistic feedback to elicitation. However, the European/North American group displayed clearer patterns rising from repetition to clarification requests. Therefore, both groups contributed to the significant difference in ratings for clarification requests between Finnish-speaking and non-Finnish-speaking students.

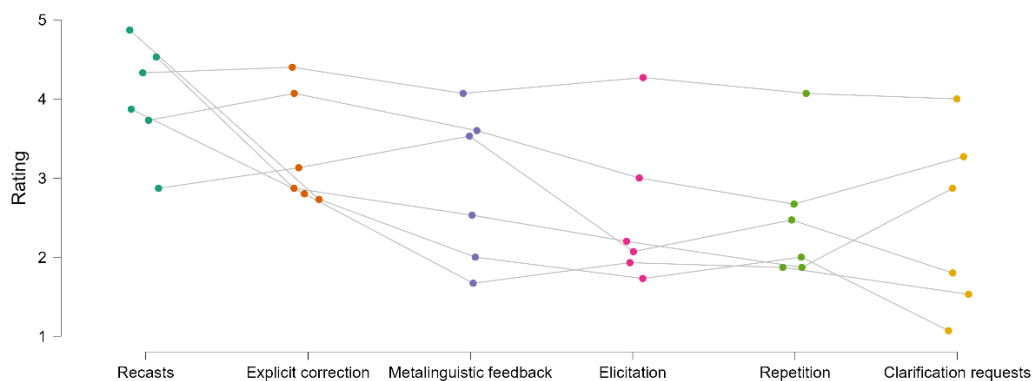


Figure 15. Raincloud plot of non-Finnish speaking students' (Asian group) average preferences for oral corrective feedback types

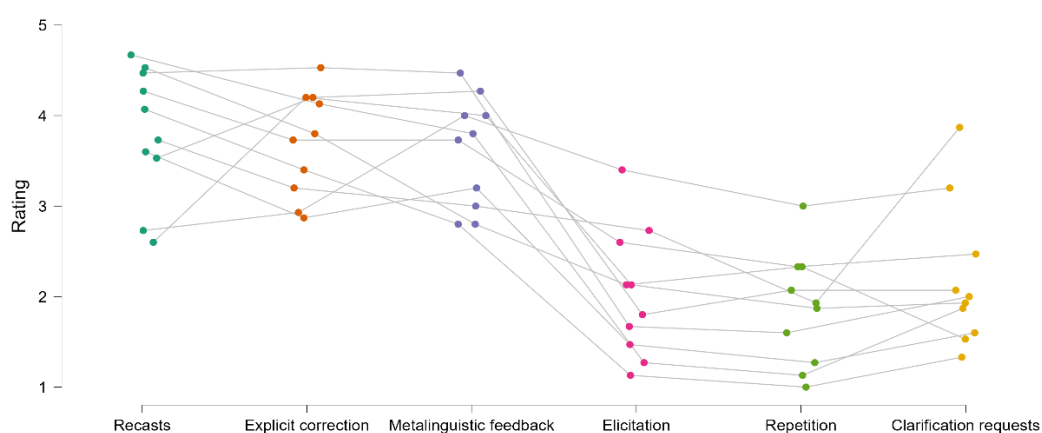


Figure 16. Raincloud plot of non-Finnish speaking students' (European/North American group) average preferences for oral corrective feedback types

A non-Finnish-speaking student (Participant 122) shared insights about the reasoning behind their rating of feedback instances which are similar to the ones of Finnish-speaking students. The respondent favoured **recasts** for the integration of mistake correction and the prevention of learner embarrassment. Additionally, they highlighted recasts' role in encouraging student participation in future interactions and not causing fear of making mistakes. **Explicit correction** was described as a “nice way” to correct a student. For lower ratings of **metalinguistic feedback**, the confusion and stress this type of feedback can cause were named to be the reasons. Moreover, similarly to the Finnish-speaking students, the participant highlighted the need to avoid complicated explanations of a mistake if a teacher comprehends the message. Concerns were also raised about the potential of **elicitation**, **repetition**, and **clarification requests** to confuse learners. The interviewee attributed such qualities as student embarrassment and discouragement to **elicitation**. The importance of using **clarification requests** only when the teacher genuinely does not understand the learner's message was also

stressed. The average ratings of the interviewed non-Finnish-speaking participant can be found in Table 19, which shows the ranking scores from both the interview and the survey answers.

Table 16. Mean ratings for feedback types of a non-Finnish-speaking participant (Participant 122)

Average ratings	Recasts	Explicit correction	Metalinguistic feedback	Elicitation	Repetition	Clarification requests
All survey questions	4,53	3,80	2,80	2,13	2,33	1,53
Two interview questions	5	4	3.5	2	2	1

Another interesting cultural insight from the interviews with Finnish-speaking students is that one of them elaborated on the Finnish context without being prompted to do so. The student emphasised that many Finnish students feel shy and do not favour being singled out or asked questions in class, especially when it puts them in the spotlight:

“...Finnish people are more quiet than others, and Finnish people are a little bit shy. And I've seen it in many of my own lessons where I've been that if a Finnish student or others... the teacher asked them something when they don't want to answer, and it is very common in here that people don't want to answer questions, and they try to look to different directions that the teacher doesn't question anything”.

“It doesn't give pressure for the learner, but it clearly states what part of the sentence is wrong and how you say it correctly. But it doesn't like, especially, probably here in Finland, put learner or student in spotlight that “You, say it now the right way””.

4.4 To what extent does Finnish-speaking students' awareness of the various functions of feedback influence their preferences for specific feedback types?

One of the objectives of this study was to investigate whether raising awareness about the functions of OCF and the reasons behind teachers' feedback would influence students' feedback preferences. The analysis was based on the ratings of OCF types from the interview sessions involving five participants.

The results from the analysis of the ratings provided by the interview participants were inconclusive, with some ratings increasing and others decreasing after the awareness-raising part of the interview (see Figure 17). The reasons for variations have probably been due to the wording variations of the feedback instance, such as the distinction between explicit corrections like "It's better to say [correct form]" and "You mean [correct form]?". Detailed individual ratings for the feedback instances used in the interviews are available in Appendix 4, covering ratings from both the interview and the questionnaire.

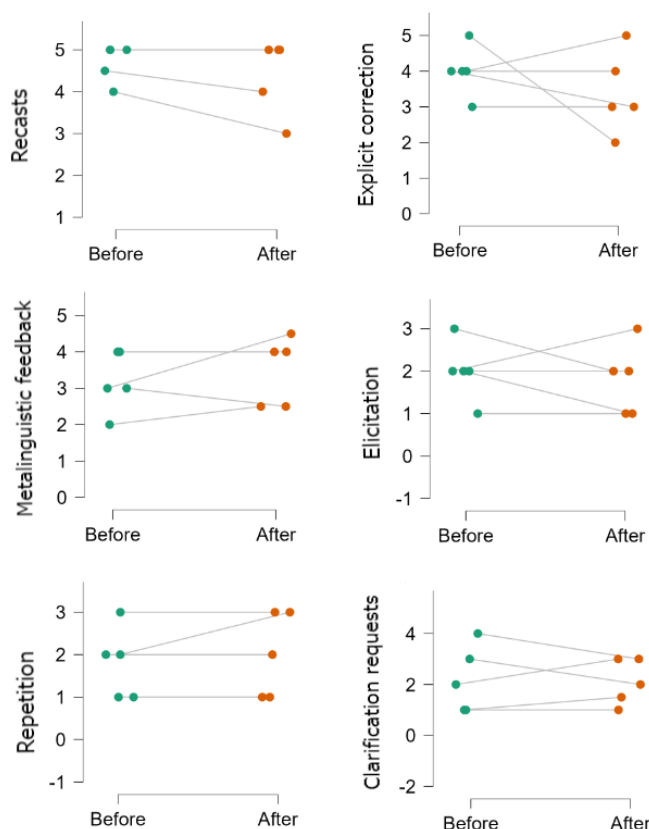


Figure 17. Ratings for the types of oral corrective feedback before and after the "raising-awareness" part of interviews

Despite the inconclusive results, some insights regarding the impact of the awareness-raising discussion emerged from some interview responses. One interviewee (Participant 45) noted that the "awareness part" of the interview influenced their perception of feedback. As a result, they rated clarification requests higher, from 2 to 3:

"Sorry, what do you mean by stay in front of the class?' I would give that three or two. I think my opinion has changed along this conversation to understand this more, and think myself better in these situations, but maybe I would now give that a three. Because again, that gives an opportunity to correct or explain yourself".

After being prompted to further reflect on the topic of their rating change, Participant 45 explained that they had changed their opinion regarding the teacher's request for additional explanation, which is typical for clarification requests. The interviewee decided that they could manage to correct themselves instead of simply receiving the correct form:

"I think my opinion has changed to more positive one, because at the start of the conversation of this I was, I thought very negatively on this kind of comments or feedback that made you explain yourself more. But now that I am making this through, I have talked a lot, I think I could manage myself in these kinds of situations, and then I can see that they are usable feedback to situations where you are trying to learn."

Another interviewee also referred to the part of the interview aimed to raise awareness. Participant 59 acknowledged the intention behind elicitation to provide students with time for correction. However, the respondent concluded that the argument was not strong enough to rate the feedback instance higher than the one before the "raising-awareness part":

"And the last one "'They're afraid to...' then pausing". I would rate it two. Because yeah, it gives the students some place to correct themselves, but still it's not direct or clear enough, in my opinion."

Overall, based on the quantitative results from the interviews, there was no evidence indicating that raising awareness affected students' preferences for different types of oral corrective feedback. However, one student showed a more positive attitude toward feedback that encouraged them to self-correct.

5 Discussions

In this chapter, I will discuss the results of data analysis separately for each research question. I will address the findings and their interpretations concerning the preferences of Finnish-speaking students for various types of teacher oral corrective feedback, as well as the influence of background variables on these preferences. Additionally, I will discuss the differences between the preferences of Finnish-speaking and non-Finnish-speaking students. Lastly, I will deliberate on the impact of awareness on the preferences of Finnish-speaking students.

5.1 Finnish-speaking university students' preferences for the types of teacher oral corrective feedback

5.1.1 Preferences for the types of oral corrective feedback

Recasts were found to be the most favoured type of teacher oral corrective feedback (OCF) among Finnish-speaking university students learning English. The second most preferred types were explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback. The least preferred types of OCF were elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests, with no statistically significant differences among them. When categorizing preferences, this pattern suggests a preference for input-providing explicit feedback (didactic recasts) over output-providing implicit feedback (repetition and clarification requests).

Regarding the top three highest-rated types of OCF in this study, the preference for recasts aligns with Cubukcu and Aksak's (2020) study in a Turkish primary school and university context, where recasts were also identified as the most favoured. Some other studies showed explicit correction and/or metalinguistic feedback overtaking recasts. In Lee's (2013) study of doctoral university students in the US, recasts were the second most preferred type of OCF, with explicit correction being the top choice. Roothoof and Breeze's (2016) study on secondary school and adult students in a Spanish context found explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback to be the most favoured types. Metalinguistic feedback was found to be the most preferred type in Oladejo's (1993) research on secondary school and Bachelor's level students in Singapore, in Zhang and Rahimi's (2014) study on Iranian university students, in Ha, Nguyen, et al. (2021) study on upper-secondary school students in Vietnam, and in Yang's (2016) study learners of Chinese at a Chinese university. While the previously described findings are comparably in line with this research results, university students

majoring in English in Ananda et al.'s (2017) study showed the opposite of this study result – recasts were indicated as the least preferred OCF type.

Regarding the least favoured OCF types, the results of this study are consistent with Yang's (2016) study, where elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests were viewed as ineffective. Similarly, in Lee's (2013) study in the US context and in Ha et al.'s (2021) study on Vietnamese upper-secondary school students, clarification requests were among the least preferred types of OCF, and in Roothoof and Breeze's (2016) repetition was found to be the least favoured type. However, the low preference for elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests in this study contrasts with Yoshida's (2008) study in Australia, where clarification requests and elicitation were preferred, and Ananda et al.'s (2017) study of Indonesian university students, where these three types were found to be the most favoured.

There might be two reasons for differences between the research findings of this study and the others. First, differences in cultural contexts may explain these variations. If we follow Li's (2003, 2005) classification of learners' language backgrounds, many studies that report contrasting results are from Asian contexts, while this study is based on European settings. While I do not have conclusive evidence to identify differences between these groups due to the limited sample size of students in the Asian group, there are indicators that suggest these two groups may differ (refer to Chapters 4.3 and 5.3). Furthermore, some studies are from other cultural contexts, which geographically and culturally refer to, for instance, the Middle East. Therefore, cultural practices and educational traditions of those cultures may lead to varied feedback preferences. Additionally, different research methodologies might contribute to these discrepancies. While this study used examples of corrective feedback utterances (e.g. "Oh, you mean "good 'at' languages") for participants to rate, others, like Yoshida's (2008), collected preferences through interviews, and Lee's (2013) study involved expressing the level of agreement to statements about feedback and answering open-ended questions in a questionnaire, followed by interviews. For instance, this study shows many consistent results with Yang's (2016) study, possibly due to the Yang's quantitative research methodology being similar to the one of this study.

Another contradiction arises from students' favouring explicit correction, which contrasts with Lyster et al.'s (2013) finding that this OCF strategy occurs less frequently compared to the other five OCF types. Roothoof and Breeze (2016) also observed this difference in students' and teachers' attitudes, as in their study students rated explicit correction

significantly more positively than teachers. They suggest that teachers may prefer more implicit correction methods. Additionally, teachers might perceive explicit correction as too passive, which makes them opt for feedback types that encourage self-correction and, therefore, language acquisition. However, this study shows that students appreciate explicit correction for exactly its explicitness and clarity. This variance in perspectives may explain the challenge of modifying students' preferences and attitudes toward OCF types by solely raising their awareness about their functions, as teachers and students possess fundamental differences in their expectations from oral corrective feedback.

5.1.2 Reasons for preferences

Interviews with Finnish-speaking students revealed reasons for preferring some OCF types over others and also explained their preference for input-providing explicit feedback (didactic recasts) over output-providing implicit (repetition and clarification) feedback types. The difference can be also seen between input- (recasts and explicit correction) and output-providing OCF types (metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests). Although the preferences for explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback were not significantly different, the two feedback types were appreciated and criticised for different characteristics.

The most common reasons for favouring recasts and explicit correction were the inclusion of the correct form, typical for input-providing types, and minimal disruption to the conversation flow. Recasts were also valued for reducing embarrassment, their polite approach, and indicating that the teacher understands the learner's explicit and implicit message. Explicit correction was appreciated for its directness and the lack of pressure on students. These findings are consistent with previous research (Fitriana, 2006; Lee, 2013; Lyster and Ranta, 1997) and highlight another significant aspect for students that has not been extensively discussed in prior research - the role of corrective feedback in minimizing pressure and embarrassment. As emphasised by one of the interviewees, maintaining a stress-free educational environment is highly valued in the Finnish context, which may explain why students seriously considered these feedback characteristics.

The four output-providing OCF types faced criticism for requiring students to self-correct and for lacking the correct form. Interviewees mentioned that these types of feedback cause embarrassment and stress, and disrupt the conversation flow which, in their opinion, is the goal of classroom communication. Specifically, metalinguistic feedback was criticised for

potentially using overcomplex terminology to explain mistakes. Elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests were also criticised for causing confusion, as students might not understand the teacher's intention. These common reasons for disliking elicitation, repetition, and clarification might explain why they were the least preferred and had no significant differences in their rankings. Comparable findings were observed in Lee's (2013) and Ha, Nguyen, et al.'s (2021) research, while this study also highlighted the direct mention of the absence of the correct form and the disruption of conversation flow as drawbacks.

Additionally, the challenge of understanding the terminology used in metalinguistic feedback is a noteworthy concern. This challenge may be attributed to the educational context of the Finnish-speaking participants, who study English as a Second Language (ESL) for academic purposes. This context increases the likelihood that the students may not be familiar with or might be confused by grammatical terms and concepts (e.g. adverb, syllable stress, double negative), which could differ for students majoring in the target language or studying it as a foreign language, as in Ananda's (2017), Ha, Nguyen, et al.'s (2021), Joshida's (2008), Roothoof and Breeze's (2001), and Zhang and Rahimi's (2014) studies.

However, despite the overall preference for recasts, explicit correction, and metalinguistic feedback, and the disfavour for elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests, each type of OCF elicited not only positive or negative but also opposite opinions, as evidenced by the survey results and interviews. For example, some students expressed concern that error correction through recasts might be unnoticed as it is not emphasized. Explicit correction faced criticism for teachers "sticking to" mistakes and perceived rudeness. Metalinguistic feedback was valued for its inclusion of the correct form, its promotion of self-correction, enhanced error recognition, and its direct approach. The main reason for appreciating elicitation was learning experience, as it elicits a correct form from a learner. Repetition was also valued for the learning experience, as well as for containing the erroneous part to be corrected, making it easier for students to identify their mistakes in teachers' feedback. Lastly, clarification requests were appreciated because they allow self-correction and self-explanation, providing time for utterance processing, and being potentially less aggressive (in the form of "What do you mean by...?"). A comprehensive list of the reasons for preferences among these OCF types is presented in Table 9. The output-providing feedback types received similar reasons for their appreciation in the prior research (e.g., Fitriana, 2016; Ha, Nguyen, et al., 2021; Yoshida, 2008).

The same characteristics of an OCF type can be both favoured and criticized by different students, as evident from the values from the quantitative survey and the reasons from the qualitative interviews. Recasts were valued for their seamless correction but criticized for the same quality, as it could lead to unnoticed corrections. Explicit correction was appreciated for the flow and criticised for the lack of flow at the same time, while the inclusion of the correct form was named as both an advantage and disadvantage of metalinguistic feedback.

Elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests were mostly disfavoured for causing confusion and lacking the correct form but were also seen as promoting learning experience.

This highlights the individual nature of preferences, where the same aspect can be perceived differently by different people. Thus, while there are patterns regarding the preference for OCF types, it does not suggest universal agreement among all students in a classroom.

The reasons for criticising certain OCF strategies align with Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). For instance, metalinguistic feedback with complex terms may confuse students if it is too advanced for them, falling outside their current understanding. Similarly, elicitation, repetition, and clarification request might confuse students if they do not realise the teacher's intent to elicit self-correction. In this case, OCF does not correspond to the current students' skill level. Conversely, the feedback is not appreciated if it underestimates learners' skills in the case of small accidental errors, as explained in one of the interviews. Therefore, the corrective feedback is appreciated and preferred when it considers students' ZPD, corresponding to Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) suggestion. Consequently, the mismatch not only between a teacher's selected OCF strategies and students' preferences but also between a teacher's chosen OCF strategies and students' ZPD may lead to deterioration of students' second language acquisition.

The reasons behind OCF preferences help explain correlations among feedback types. Students who rate one output-providing OCF type low (or high) tend to rate others similarly, which might be reflecting their preferences for receiving the correct form in feedback or avoiding confusion caused by certain types of feedback. A significant relationship was observed between explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback where preference for one indicates a similar attitude toward the other, possibly because both involve a direct approach with a clear correction by providing the correct form or explaining the mistake. Additionally, students who favour (or dislike) recasts often dislike (or favour) elicitation and repetition, which might be due to a preference for or against self-correction and their preference response to the likelihood of being confused by these two OCF types.

However, no significant correlation was detected between the two input-providing feedback types, recasts and explicit correction. This absence may possibly be explained by the shared valued characteristics of providing a correct form and enhancing conversation flow while differing in their approach. Explicit correction was appreciated for emphasising the correct form directly, whereas recasts could go unnoticed by learners. These both common and distinct reasons for favouring and disfavouring each type might have prevented a clear positive or negative correlation. Similarly, the situation might be comparable to the absence of a significant correlation between recasts and metalinguistic requests, an output-providing type, due to their shared goal of leading to accurate form use by either directly providing a correct form or explicit explanation of a mistake which might significantly help a learner's error correction, but different outcomes. Unlike recasts, metalinguistic feedback explicitly prompts self-correction from the student, which might make a student feel uncomfortable doing so in front of a class. Additionally, the absence of correlation between recasts and clarification requests, another output-providing type, could be attributed to their distinct functions. While the focus of recasts, from students' point of view, is on implicitly correcting errors, clarification requests should aim to genuinely clarify the information rather than correcting a mistake, since it may lead to confusion. Therefore, students' preferences for these two types of feedback might not be based on the same criteria.

The reasons for OCF preferences named in this study often align with those found in other studies, yet the preference order of OCF types varies. This difference may be attributed to the varying significance of these reasons in different contexts, such as the level of comfort in the Finnish context. The significance might influence which type of feedback students prefer to receive.

5.1.3 Preferences based on mistake types

The Finnish-speaking students' preferences for oral corrective feedback (OCF) were found to vary depending on the type of mistake being corrected. It is important to note that the preferences follow the main order pattern, but there are differences within the types. For instance, recasts were favoured more for lexical and phonological errors than for grammatical errors. Similarly, explicit correction was preferred for lexical errors over phonological errors. Conversely, elicitation was considered more suitable for grammatical errors than for lexical and phonological ones. Additionally, repetition was favoured for grammatical over phonological errors. Clarification requests were preferred for lexical mistakes over

grammatical or phonological ones. Metalinguistic feedback received consistent responses across different mistake types, with no significant differences observed.

Four out of six OCF types were generally less favoured for addressing phonological mistakes than compared to grammatical or lexical mistakes. This finding aligns with Mackey et al.'s (2007) suggestion that students recognize and respond to teachers' corrective feedback better on their lexical and morphosyntactic errors compared to phonological ones. Recasts, however, appeared to be an exception as students favoured this type of correction of phonological mistakes over grammatical mistakes. This finding is partly consistent with previous research by Yang (2016) and Huang and Jia (2016) that indicate that recasts are more useful and preferred for phonological corrections than for lexical or grammatical ones. Apparently, as highlighted by two interviewees in this study, recasts provide the correct pronunciation and do not interrupt the flow of conversation, which actually aids learning. Only in the case of metalinguistic feedback, OCF in phonological mistakes showed no significant difference from other mistake types. This absence of significant variations among mistake types, including phonological ones, suggests that advantages (mistake explanation, promotion of self-correction, help to recognise errors, directness) and disadvantages (confusing terminology, lack of correct form) of metalinguistic feedback remain constant regardless of the type of mistake, which maintains the consistency of responses within mistake types.

Interestingly, students show a preference for receiving feedback on lexical over grammatical mistakes in the cases of recasts and clarification requests but show the opposite preference for elicitation. This contradicts the previous finding of Yang (2016), where no significant difference was observed between these two mistake types for recasts. In this study, the preference for recasts could be attributed to the simplicity of correcting lexical mistakes by providing the correct word, while grammatical errors may require more detailed explanations. Similarly, clarification requests were favoured for lexical over grammatical mistakes due to the emphasised by students importance of teachers' using clarification requests to genuinely clarify misunderstandings, which are more common with lexical errors than grammatical ones. Conversely, the reverse preference in the case of elicitation might be explained by grammatical errors being more systematic and easier to correct through the questioning of elicitation.

5.1.4 Other insights

Interviews with Finnish-speaking students emphasised that individual preferences could also vary based on the student-teacher relationship, the tone of feedback, and the context of its delivery (in class or one-on-one). The students expected that a closer relationship with a teacher, a friendly tone, and a personal one-to-one feedback delivery would make their attitude to OCF feedback more positive.

Despite the fact that, as emphasized in Chapter 2.1, the distinction between errors and mistakes is not considered in this study and used interchangeably in the text, interviews suggest that students' attitudes may vary based on whether a mistake or an error is being addressed. One interviewee stressed the significance of correcting recurring mistakes, which might indicate a lack of awareness of the correct form, unlike occasional mispronunciations. While the distinction between mistakes and errors was not explicitly made by the student, they implied that correcting mistakes should be prioritised over correcting errors.

5.2 Background factors influencing Finnish-speaking students' preferences for the types of teacher oral corrective feedback

In this study, male students tended to favour recasts, explicit correction, and metalinguistic feedback over clarification requests, elicitation, and repetition. Female students similarly ranked recasts as their top choice, followed by explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback, and their least preferred types were elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests. The only significant difference found between the genders was that female students generally expressed more positivity towards recasts compared to male students. It is important to remember that the absence of significance for other OCF types could be due to the small sample size of male students which leads to the analysis limited statistical power (Larson-Hall, 2010, p. 55). Nevertheless, this difference between genders on their attitude aligns with Amalia et al.'s (2019) finding of female learners preferring recasts. In Amalia et al.'s (2019) study in the Indonesian context this difference was explained by male learners valuing directness and female students disliking the potentially embarrassing effect of OCF in front of the class. However, in the Finnish context of this study, female students also appreciated certain OCF types for their directness, and even the only male interviewee noted feeling more comfortable with one-to-one feedback sessions to avoid embarrassing students in front of the

class. Therefore, I would not assign the same reason for the different attitudes to recasts based on gender as in Amalia et al.'s (2019) study.

This study found no impact of perceived English proficiency level on students' preferences for oral corrective feedback. This could be because only the Intermediate and Advanced levels were compared due to the insufficient number of participants at other levels. The comparison of proficiency extremes (e.g. Elementary versus Advanced) might have provided different results. Additionally, the proficiency level was self-reported by the participants and may not reflect official proficiency levels determined by standardized tests. Since Finnish university students generally have a high level of English proficiency, the actual skill level might be higher or lower than what students reported. Despite the limitations, the study's results contradict the findings of Katayama (2006) and Papangkorn (2015), where learners with Advanced proficiency showed a preference for repetition and elicitation. This could be attributed to cultural differences or variations in the research methodologies used in each study.

No significant impact on students' preferences for oral corrective feedback (OCF) was observed based on their field of study, whether Humanities or Social Science. Similar to the influence of proficiency level, the fields of study in question may not differ enough in terms of content or focus, which could explain the lack of distinction. A comparison between more contrasting academic orientations between other fields of studies (e.g. STEM and Social Science) might provide different results.

5.3 Finnish-speaking students' preferences in comparison to non-Finnish-speaking students' preferences

Compared to non-Finnish-speaking students, Finnish-speaking had a more negative view of clarification requests. One Finnish-speaking interviewee noted that Finnish students often dislike being singled out, asked questions in class, or put in the spotlight, possibly because they tend to be more reserved compared to other cultures. This could explain why Finnish-speaking students rated clarification requests lower than non-Finnish-speaking students and in general rate oral corrective feedback types requiring self-correction, such as elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests, more negatively than providing-the-correct-form recasts.

The other types of oral corrective feedback had no significant differences between Finnish and non-Finnish-speaking students. However, it is important to note that the lack of

significance in these cases may be attributed to the relatively small sample size of non-Finnish-speaking students and the resulting limited statistical power of the analysis (Larson-Hall, 2010, p. 55). However, despite the small sample, the qualitative results confirm the quantitative ones, and the reasons given by the non-Finnish-speaking student during interviews for preferring different types of corrective feedback follow a similar pattern and align with those shared by Finnish-speaking interviewees.

5.4 Impact of awareness of oral corrective feedback functions on Finnish-speaking students' preferences

Awareness of feedback functions and the reasons why teachers use different types of oral corrective feedback (OCF) influenced one Finnish-speaking participant, making them more positive about clarification requests and more confident in their ability to self-correct. However, another participant, despite acknowledging the function of feedback, did not change their preference, indicating that increased awareness did not impact their choice.

The results of the interviewees' responses before and after the task that was aimed at raising awareness did not reveal generalisable changes. It appears that the variations within OCF types might be more significant than previously assumed. In other words, even though they theoretically belong to the same OCF type, different OCF instances can be delivered by a teacher in various ways, which leads participants to rate them differently. Therefore, the differences in the feedback instances could have influenced the comparison ratings, either with or without the raised awareness.

Given these mixed results from the interviews, it is unclear whether awareness of feedback functions generally affects students' preferences for OCF types. Nonetheless, there is evidence suggesting that it could impact at least some individuals. Additionally, as discussed in Section 5.1.1, it is not easy to align students' and teachers' preferences for OCF solely by raising students' awareness of OCF functions and reasons for utilisation due to their fundamentally different views on OCF.

6 Limitations and directions for future research

The results of this study should be interpreted with caution due to limitations related to context, study sample, and research design.

Firstly, the study results cannot be generalised to all Finnish-speaking students due to imbalances, including gender distribution, examination of only Intermediate and Advanced English proficiency levels, and two fields of study. Additionally, English proficiency levels were self-reported and may differ from actual language skills. Future research could address these limitations by including a wider range of proficiency levels and fields of study, which could also allow for better gender balance. Another emphasis could be placed on the distinction between students studying a language as a second or a foreign language, as well as the potential influence of intensive language studies, such as majoring in English at a university, on preferences for OCF types.

Secondly, regarding the comparison of cultural contexts, the groups of Finnish-speaking and non-Finnish-speaking participants were also disproportionate, which weakened the statistical power of the analysis. Future studies could intentionally and carefully explore the influence of first language or cultural background preferences for oral corrective feedback. Since Finnish universities host many international degree and exchange students, this provides an opportunity to explore this variable more thoroughly.

Regarding the qualitative data, the interview sample was limited to six participants, which may not represent the full diversity of students. Additionally, the interviews were conducted after the questionnaire results were analysed, which created a gap between the survey and interview data collection. This gap could have affected the consistency and relevance of the qualitative data. As shown by some research, learners' beliefs are dynamic (Leontjev, 2016), which was also visible by changing ratings of some of the students participating in both the survey and the interview. Moreover, the awareness-raising part of the interview was brief and cannot be called comprehensive as it was not validated whether it raised corrective feedback awareness. Longitudinal studies would be necessary to explore factors that affect students' beliefs throughout time and assess whether awareness-raising activities are among the influencing factors.

Another limitation is the laboratory-based nature of this study, which might not reflect classroom realities. This could lead to a discrepancy in reported preferences and actual

beliefs. Prior research indicated that expressed beliefs about oral corrective feedback might differ from actual attitudes (Roothoof & Breeze, 2016). Additionally, following learners' preferences does not automatically result in better learning or benefitting from feedback. For example, this study found that students generally favoured input-providing OCF types, whereas Lyster and Ranta (1997) reported that output-providing feedback can be more beneficial for students by engaging them in form-focused negotiation. Therefore, future studies could investigate the relationship between students' beliefs about different OCF types and actual classroom processes.

Another approach could involve experimenting with different research designs within the same cultural context. Since this study used a questionnaire that required students to evaluate examples of corrective feedback, it might be useful to compare it with a questionnaire like the one used by Ha, Murray, et al. (2021), which asks students to assess their level of agreement with feedback statements. Such a comparison could provide a broader perspective on students' preferences, offering a more comprehensive understanding of their views on oral corrective feedback.

One potential area for exploration for future studies is the examination of how students perceive corrective feedback differently depending on whether a "mistake" or an "error" is addressed. This could provide insights into the influence of distinction on students' feedback preferences and attitudes.

7 Pedagogical implications

The findings of the study carry practical implications for classroom teaching. Since the students' beliefs and preferences for the types of oral corrective feedback are significant in effective learning, as highlighted by previous research (e.g. Akiyama, 2017; Kartchava & Ammar, 2014), teachers may benefit from taking them into account.

Despite the general trend of this study favouring recasts, explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback over elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests, it is crucial to recognise that some individual students deviate from this common pattern. Therefore, it is beneficial for teachers to tailor oral corrective feedback to address each student's needs rather than relying on a uniform approach. Moreover, considering the diverse cultural backgrounds of students in university language classes, teachers should also be mindful of cultural differences when delivering OCF.

Furthermore, while matching the feedback to learners' beliefs is important, it does not automatically guarantee better learning outcomes. Teachers should balance students' preferences with their own pedagogical beliefs and knowledge to create an effective learning environment. Additionally, since no single type of OCF is perfect, as seen from this study's results, no type of corrective feedback is perfect, teachers may benefit from employing a combination of different types of OCF, as suggested by Lyster and Ranta (2012), to enhance the effectiveness of feedback.

8 Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to explore students' preferences for oral corrective feedback (OCF) in the language education setting of the Finnish context. The main objective was to investigate Finnish-speaking English language learners' preferences for OCF strategies and the reasons behind these preferences. Additional objectives included examining the impact of background factors on these preferences, comparing the preferences of Finnish-speaking and non-Finnish-speaking students, and assessing the influence of students' awareness of OCF functions on their preferences.

The results showed that Finnish-speaking students favoured recasts the most, primarily due to the inclusion of the correct form, the maintenance of conversation flow, the prevention of learning embarrassment, and its polite, soft approach. Following recasts, students favoured explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback, though for different reasons. Explicit correction was valued for its directness, inclusion of the correct form, enhancement of conversation flow, and reduction of pressure on students. Metalinguistic feedback was appreciated for providing mistake explanations, promoting self-correction, helping in recognizing mistakes, and its direct approach. However, metalinguistic feedback was also frequently criticised for its potentially confusing grammatical terminology and lack of correct form.

The least preferred types of OCF by Finnish-speaking students were elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests. They were mainly criticised for causing confusion, being indirect, and making students feel stressed and uncomfortable. The study revealed a correlative tendency for students to favour or disfavour the three lowest-rated OCF types (elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests) similarly. The same pattern was observed for the pair of explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback, as well as for the group of metalinguistic feedback, repetition, and clarification requests. Another finding was that the students who favoured recasts tended to disfavour elicitation and repetition, and vice versa.

Regarding mistake types, recasts and clarification requests were favoured more for lexical mistakes over grammatical ones, and explicit correction and clarification requests were favoured more for lexical mistakes over phonological ones. Elicitation and repetition were more appreciated for grammatical over phonological mistakes, with elicitation being more appreciated for grammatical over lexical mistakes. Additionally, recasts were more preferred

for phonological mistakes over grammatical ones. Clarification requests did not show significant variations across different mistake types.

When comparing Finnish-speaking students based on their gender, female students showed a more favourable attitude towards recasts compared to male students. However, no significant differences were observed based on the students' English proficiency levels or fields of study.

In comparison to non-Finnish-speaking students, Finnish-speaking students generally shared similar preferences for oral corrective feedback types and their reasons for favouring or disfavouring them. However, Finnish-speaking students had a more negative attitude towards clarification requests. Insights from interviews suggest that this difference can arise from students not appreciating being asked questions and singled out in the Finnish educational settings. Therefore, while the reasons for OCF preferences might align with other contexts, the varying significance of these reasons can lead to different preference orders in different contexts.

Regarding the influence of students' awareness of the functions and reasons for OCF types on their preferences, it cannot be generalised whether the influence took effect. However, the study suggests that such awareness can influence the preferences of some students.

The primary conclusion of this study is that while there exists a pattern of preferences for oral corrective feedback types among students, there are also individuals whose preferences diverge from this pattern. Since the study is relevant to educational practices, it is crucial to recognise that the preferences of the students who fall outside the typical trend are as important to be considered as the ones of the mainstream. Furthermore, every class possesses its own unique dynamics and is influenced by factors such as students' cultural backgrounds and other contextual variables.

Nevertheless, this study found that students' preferences may contradict what teachers in general or previous research consider to be beneficial for successful second language acquisition. Therefore, educators may find it beneficial to explain to their students the purposes and goals of corrective feedback in the classroom setting. By integrating these insights into their approaches, educators can improve their feedback practices which would facilitate the improvement of their students' second language acquisition processes.

References

- Akiyama, Y. (2017). Learner beliefs and corrective feedback in telecollaboration: A longitudinal investigation. *System*, *64*, 58–73.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2016.12.007>
- Aljaafreh, A., & Lantolf, J. (1994). Negative feedback as regulation and second language learning in the zone of proximal development. *The Modern Language Journal*, *78*(4), 465–483. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1994.tb02064.x>
- Amalia, Z. D. H., Fauziati, E., & Marmanto, S. (2019). Male and female students' preferences on the oral corrective feedback in English as Foreign Language (EFL) speaking classroom. *Humaniora*, *10*(1), 25–33.
- Ananda, D. R., Febriyanti, E. R., Yamin, M., & Mu'in, F. (2017). Students' preferences toward oral corrective feedback in speaking class at English department of Lambung Mangkurat university academic year 2015/2016. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *7*(3), 176–186.
- Anderson, J. (1985). *Cognitive psychology and its implications*. Freeman.
- Axinn, W. G., Fricke, T. E., & Thornton, A. (1991). The microdemographic community-study approach: Improving survey data by integrating the ethnographic method. *Sociological Methods & Research*, *20*(2), 187–217. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0049124191020002001>
- Axinn, W. G., & Pearce, L. D. (2006). Motivations for mixed method social research. In W. G. Axinn & L. D. Pearce (Eds.), *Mixed method data collection strategies* (pp. 1–27). Cambridge University Press.
- Baralt, M. (2011). Coding Qualitative Data. In A. Mackey & S. M. Gass (Eds.), *Research methods in second language acquisition: A practical guide* (pp. 222–244). Wiley-Blackwell. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781444347340.ch12>
- Chaudron, C. (1986). Teachers' priorities in correcting learners' errors in French immersion classes. In R. R. Day (Ed.) *Talking to learn: Conversation in second language acquisition* (pp. 64-84). Newbury House.
- Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second language classrooms*. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.utu.fi/10.1017/CBO9781139524469>
- Chomsky, N. (1986). *Knowledge of language: Its nature, origin and use*. Praeger.
- Cubukcu, F., & Aksak, K. (2020). Corrective feedback preferences of primary school and university students. *Revista Arbitrada Interdisciplinaria Koinonía*, *5*(9), 489–507.
<https://doi.org/10.35381/r.k.v5i9.668>

- Data Protection Act (1050/2018). Tietosuojalaki (1050/2018).
<https://www.finlex.fi/fi/laki/ajantasa/2018/20181050>
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies*. Oxford University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Csizér, K. (2011). How to design and analyze surveys in second language acquisition research. In A. Mackey & S. M. Gass (Eds.), *Research methods in second language acquisition: A practical guide* (pp. 74-94). Wiley-Blackwell.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/9781444347340.ch5>
- Fitriana, R. (2016). Students' preferences toward corrective feedbacks on students' oral production. *Script Journal*, 1(1), 46–60. <https://doi.org/10.24903/sj.v1i1.17>
- Flynn, S. (1988). Nature of development in L2 acquisition and implications for theories of language acquisition in general. In S. Flynn & W. O'Neill (Eds.), *Linguistic theory in second language acquisition* (pp. 277-294). Kluwer.
- Friedman, D. A. (2011). How to collect and analyze qualitative data. In A. Mackey & S. M. Gass (Eds.), *Research methods in second language acquisition: A practical guide* (pp. 180-200). Wiley-Blackwell. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781444347340.ch10>
- Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. Aldine.
- Gass, S. (2003). Input and interaction. In C. Doughty & M. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 224-255). Blackwell.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470756492.ch9>
- James, C. (1998). *Errors in language learning and use: Exploring error analysis*. Longman
- Johnson, K., & Johnson, H. (1999). *Encyclopedic dictionary of applied linguistics*. Blackwell Publishing.
- Ha, X. V., Murray, J. C., & Riazi, A. M. (2021). High school EFL students' beliefs about oral corrective feedback: The role of gender, motivation and extraversion. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 11(2), 235–264.
- Ha, X. V., Nguyen, L. T., & Hung, B. P. (2021). Oral corrective feedback in English as a foreign language classrooms: A teaching and learning perspective. *Heliyon*, 7(7).
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2021.e07550>
- Hashemi, M. R., & Babaii, E. (2013). Mixed methods research: Toward new research designs in applied linguistics. *The Modern Language Journal*, 97(4), 828–852.
<http://www.jstor.org/stable/43651724>

- Horwitz, E.K. (1988). The beliefs about language learning of beginning university foreign language students. *The Modern Language Journal*, 72(3), 125–132.
<https://doi.org/10.2307/327506>
- Hosenfeld, C. (1978). Students' mini-theories of second language learning. *Association Bulletin*, 29(2), 31–40.
- Huang, X., & Jia, X. O. (2016). Corrective feedback on pronunciation: Students' and teachers' perceptions. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 6(6), 245–254.
- Katayama, A. (2006). Perceptions of JFL students toward correction of oral errors. In *JALT2005 conference proceedings* (pp. 1248-1264). JALT
- Khorshidi, E., & Rassaei, E. (2013). The effects of learners' gender on their preferences for corrective feedback. *Journal of Studies in Learning and Teaching English*, 2(2), 71–83.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2003). *Teaching language: From grammar to grammaring*. Thomson & Heinle.
- Larson-Hall, J. (2010). *A guide to doing statistics in second language research using SPSS*. Routledge.
- Lantolf, J. (2006). Sociocultural theory and second language learning: A state of the art. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28, 67-109.
- Lazaraton, A. (2005). Quantitative research methods. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 209-224). Routledge.
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9781410612700-20>
- Lee, E.J.E (2013). Corrective feedback preferences and learner repair among advanced ESL students. *System* 41(2), 217–230.
- Lennon, P. (1991). Error: Some problems of definition and identification. *Applied Linguistics*, 12(2), 180–195. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/12.2.180>
- Leontjev, D. (2016). Exploring and reshaping learners' beliefs about the usefulness of corrective feedback: A sociocultural perspective. *ITL – International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 167(1), 46–77.
- Li, J. (2003). U.S. and Chinese cultural beliefs about learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95(2), 258–267. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.95.2.258>
- Li, J. (2005). Mind or virtue: Western and Chinese beliefs about learning. *Current Directions in Psychological Science: A Journal of the American Psychological Society*, 14(4), 190–194. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0963-7214.2005.00362.x>

- Li, S. (2010). The effectiveness of corrective feedback in SLA: A meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, 60(2), 309–365. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00561.x>
- Linck, J. A., & Cunnings, I. (2015). The utility and application of mixed-effects models in second language research. *Language Learning*, 65(S1), 185–207. <https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12117>
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (2000). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed., pp. 163–188). SAGE.
- Long, M. (1977). Teacher feedback on learner error: Mapping cognition. In H. D. Brown, C., A. Yorio & R. H. Crymes (Eds.), *On TESOL*, 77 (pp. 278-923). TESOL.
- Long, M. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. Ritchie and T. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413-468). Academic Press.
- Lyster, R. & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19(1), 37–66.
- Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (2012). Counterpoint piece: The case for variety in corrective feedback research. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 35(01), 167–184. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S027226311200071X>
- Lyster, R. & Saito, K. (2010). Oral feedback in classroom SLA: A meta-analysis. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32(2), 265–302. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990520>
- Lyster, R., Saito, K., & Sato, M. (2013). Oral corrective feedback in second language classrooms. *Language Teaching*, 46(1), 1–40. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444812000365>
- Majer, J. (2003). *Interactive discourse in the foreign language classroom*. Łódź University Press.
- Mackey, A., Al-Khalil, M., Atanassova, G., Hama, M., Logan-Terry, A., & Nakatsukasa, K. (2007). Teachers' intentions and learners' perceptions about corrective feedback in the L2 classroom. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 1(1), 129–152. <https://doi.org/10.2167/illt047.0>
- Mackey, A. & Goo, J. (2007). Interaction research in SLA: A meta-analysis and research synthesis. In Mackey, A. (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition* (pp. 408–452). Oxford University Press.

- Nassaji, H., & Kartchava, E. (2021). Corrective feedback in second language teaching and learning. In H. Nassaji & E. Kartchava (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of corrective feedback in second language learning and teaching* (pp. 1-20). Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108589789.001>
- Oladejo, J.A. (1993). Error correction in ESL: learner's preferences. *TESL Canada Journal*, 10 (2), 71–89.
- Papangkorn, P. (2015). SSRUIC students' attitude and preference toward error corrections. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 197, 1841–1846. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.07.244>
- Parlak, Ö. & Ziegler, N. (2017). The impact of recasts on the development of primary stress in a synchronous computer-mediated environment. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 39(2), 257–285. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263116000310>
- Pawlak, M. (2014). *Error correction in the foreign language classroom*. Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-38436-3>
- Porte, G. K. (2002). *Appraising research in second language learning: A practical approach to critical analysis of quantitative research*. John Benjamins.
- Roothoof, H., Breeze, R. (2016). A comparison of EFL teachers' and students' attitudes to oral corrective feedback. *Language Awareness*, 25(4), 318–335.
- Rosenbaum, P. R. (2001). Replicating effects and biases. *The American Statistician*, 55(3), 223–227. <https://doi.org/10.1198/000313001317098220>
- Russell, J. & Spada, N. (2006). The effectiveness of corrective feedback for the acquisition of L2 grammar: A meta-analysis of the research. In Norris, J. & Ortega, L. (Eds.), *Synthesizing Research on Language Learning and Teaching* (pp. 133-164). John Benjamins.
- Saito, K. & Lyster, R. (2012). Effects of form-focused instruction and corrective feedback on L2 pronunciation development of [r] by Japanese learners of English. *Language Learning*, 62(2), 595–633. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2011.00639.x>
- Schmidt, R. (1994). Deconstructing consciousness in search of useful definitions for applied linguistics. *AILA Review*, 11, 11–26.
- Schulz, R. A. (1996). Focus on form in the foreign language classroom: Students' and teachers' views on error correction and the role of grammar. *Foreign Language Annals*, 29(3), 343–364.

- Schulz, R. A. (2001). Cultural differences in student and teacher perceptions concerning the role of grammar instruction and corrective feedback: USA-Colombia. *Modern Language Journal*, 85, 244–258. doi:10.1111/0026-7902
- Sheen, Y. & Ellis, R. (2011). Corrective feedback in language teaching. In E. Hinkel (Ed.) *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning. Volume II* (pp.593-610). Routledge.
- Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. In G. Cook and B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), *Principle and practice in applied linguistics: Studies in honour of H. G. Widdowson*, (pp. 125-144). Oxford University Press.
- Thornbury, S. (2006). *An A-Z of ELT: A dictionary of terms and concepts*. Macmillan.
- Van Lier, L. (1988). *The classroom and the language learner*. Penguin.
- Vigil, N. & Oller, J. W. (1976). Rule fossilization: A tentative model. *Language Learning*, 26 (pp. 281-295). <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1976.tb00278.x>
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Harvard University Press.
- Yang, J. (2016). Learners' oral corrective feedback preferences in relation to their cultural background, proficiency level and types of error. *System*, 61, 75–86. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2016.08.004>
- Yoshida, R. (2008). Teachers' choice and learners' preference of corrective feedback types. *Language Awareness*, 17(1), 78–93. <https://doi.org/10.2167/la429.0>
- Zhang, L.J., Rahimi, M. (2014). EFL learners' anxiety level and their beliefs about corrective feedback in oral communication classes. *System*, 42, 429–439.
- Zhu, Y., & Wang, B. (2019). Investigating English language learners' beliefs about oral corrective feedback at Chinese universities: a large-scale survey. *Language Awareness*, 28(2), 139–161. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2019.1620755>

Appendices

Appendix 1 Survey questions

University Students' Preferences on Teacher English Oral Corrective Feedback

This study aims to explore the preferences of university-level students regarding the corrective teacher feedback on their oral speech.

1. I agree to the rules outlined in the privacy notice and hereby consent to participate in the study.

- Yes
- No

Background information

2. Gender

- Male
- Female
- Other
- Prefer not to say

3. My native language(s)

- Finnish
- Swedish
- English
- Other. Specify: _____

4. Evaluate your skills in English

Basic	Elementary	Intermediate	Advanced	Expert
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

5. Are you a degree student or an exchange student?

- a degree student (Bachelor's or Master's)
- an exchange student
- other _____

6. What faculty do you study at?

- Faculty of Education
- Faculty of Humanities
- Faculty of Law
- Faculty of Medicine
- Faculty of Science
- Faculty of Social Science
- Faculty of Technology
- Turku School of Economics
- Other _____

Imagine you are in an English class and say a sentence with a mistake. How would you prefer to be corrected by a teacher? Evaluate each corrective feedback from 1 to 5 where 1= "I would not like to be corrected this way at all" and 5 = "I would very much prefer to be corrected this way".

7. She is good in languages.

	1	2	3	4	5
- Oh, you mean "good at languages".	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- There's a mistake in your sentence. Can you find it?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pardon me?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- She is good "in" languages? (emphasizing "in")	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Good in languages? Good ...?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(pausing)					
She is good at languages. Which ones?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

8. Oh my, these new classroom chairs are so convenient!

	1	2	3	4	5
- You mean "comfortable", right?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- "Convenient" means "at a good time or in a good location". What adjective do you need to say that they're "pleasant to sit on"?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- What do you mean by "convenient"?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- These chairs are "convenient"? (emphasizing "convenient")	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- These chairs are ...? (pausing)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Oh yes, the chairs are comfortable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

9. It doesn't [fi:t] my schedule. (* [fi:t] = feet (incorrect); [fit] = fit (correct)).

	1	2	3	4	5
- You should say [fit].	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- [Fi:t] with the long [i:] sound means the lower parts of your legs. To say that it doesn't "suit" your schedule, you need short [i] sound.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Sorry? What do you mean by [fi:t]?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- It doesn't [fi:t] your schedule? (emphasizing "[fi:t]")	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- It doesn't ...? (pausing)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Oh yes, the chairs are comfortable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

10. It's hard for me to put attention before I've had my coffee.

	1	2	3	4	5
- It's better to say "pay attention".	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Not "put attention". You need another verb to say that it's hard for you to focus	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- What do you mean by "put attention"?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- It's hard for you to "put" attention? (emphasizing "put")	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- No, not that. It's hard for you to ...? (pausing)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- It's hard for you to pay attention. I understand.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

11. I didn't went to the university yesterday.

	1	2	3	4	5
- It's not "didn't went", you should say "didn't go".	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You need the infinitive form of "go" after "didn't".	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Sorry?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- I didn't "went"? (emphasizing "went")	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You didn't went? You didn't ...? (pausing and waiting for your answer)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You "didn't go" to the university yesterday?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

12. You asked a question “Have you died your hair?” with an incorrect falling intonation (which made it sound like a statement, not a question).

	1	2	3	4	5
- Sorry?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Have you died your hair? (A teacher says it with a correct rising intonation)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- How do we ask questions in English?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You should ask “Have you died your hair?” (A teacher says it with a correct rising intonation)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- A general question requires a rising intonation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- “Have you died your hair?” (A teacher uses the same incorrect falling intonation)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

13. When I finish my degree, my dream is to become an entrepreneur. (You stressed the 2nd syllable in “entrepreneur”. Here the stress on the last syllable (“entrepreneur”) would be correct).

	1	2	3	4	5
- Sorry?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- To become an entrepreneur. Wow!	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You dream is to become an ...? (pausing)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You should ask “Have you died your hair?” (A teacher says it with a correct rising intonation)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- It’s not entrepreneur. Stress the last syllable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You dream is to become an “entrepreneur”? (emphasizing “entrepreneur”)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

14. I'm torn among choosing two electives for next semester.

	1	2	3	4	5
- Sorry?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- To become an <u>entrepreneur</u> . Wow!	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You dream is to become an ...? (pausing)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You should ask "Have you died your hair?" (A teacher says it with a correct rising intonation)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- It's not <u>entrepreneur</u> . Stress the last syllable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You dream is to become an "entrepreneur"? (emphasizing "entrepreneur")	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

15. Me and him did the project together.

	1	2	3	4	5
- Sorry, who did the project together?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- He and I did the project together. Would you like to present the result?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Which pronouns do you use to talk about you and your classmate?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Use "He and I" instead of "Me and him".	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- We don't say pronouns this way in English. Could you find your mistake?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- "Me and him" did the project? (emphasizing "me and him")	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

16. I think I'm doing good in keeping up with the coursework.

	1	2	3	4	5
- What do you mean by "doing good"?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You're doing well? I'm happy to hear that.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You're doing ...? (pausing)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- It's better to say "I'm doing well" here.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- "Good" is an adjective. After the verb "do" you need an adverb.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You're doing "good"? (emphasizing "good")	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

17. I agree with what you said about the impact of technology on society. (You stressed the 2nd syllable in impact". Here the stress on the 1st syllable ("impact") would be correct).

	1	2	3	4	5
- Said about the ...? (pausing)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- About the "i <u>mp</u> act" of technology? (emphasizing "i <u>mp</u> act")	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- The 2nd syllable of the word "i <u>mp</u> act" is stressed when it's a verb, but in your sentence it's a noun.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Pardon me?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You should say "i <u>mp</u> act".	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- About the i <u>mp</u> act of technology. Why?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

18. I don't need no help.

	1	2	3	4	5
- Not "no". You don't need "hm" help?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You don't need "no" help? (emphasizing "no")	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- We don't use double negatives in English.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Sorry?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- It's correct to say, "I don't need any help".	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You don't need any help? Alright	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

19. Some people might be afraid to stay in front of the class and give a presentation.

	1	2	3	4	5
- They're afraid to... ? (pausing)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- They're afraid to "stay"? (emphasizing "stay")	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Stay means "remaining in one place", but you want to describe people physically being on their feet. What verb do you need to use?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Sorry? What do you mean by "stay in front of the class"?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You mean "stand" in front of the class?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- They might be afraid to stand in front of the class. That's true.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

20. I need to buy the new laptop.

	1	2	3	4	5
- No, not "the". You need to buy ... ? (pausing)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You need to buy "the" new laptop? (emphasizing "the")	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You need to buy any new laptop, not a particular one, right? Then use an undefined article.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- What do you mean by "the new laptop"?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Use "a" – I need to buy a new laptop.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You need to buy a new laptop? Why?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

21. Yesterday was a tough [taʊg] day. (*[tʌf] is correct)

	1	2	3	4	5
- Yesterday was a ... ? (pausing)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Yesterday was "[tʌg]"? (emphasizing "[tʌg]")	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- "No, not [tʌg]. How do we pronounce "gh" in (writes on a board) "enough" and "rough"?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Pardon me?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Oh, actually, the correct way to say it is "[tʌf]".	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Yesterday was a [tʌf] day. Why?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

In addition to this questionnaire, I would also like to conduct interviews to further explore students' feedback preferences. I would like to invite you to participate in the interview, and I would greatly appreciate your involvement. If you are willing to participate, please provide your email address. Your email will be kept separate from the questionnaire data and will only be used for contacting you. Details regarding consent and privacy will be discussed further before the interview.

22. Email _____

Appendix 2 Interview guide

[Interviewer]: The purpose of this interview is to gain a better understanding of the students' beliefs about oral corrective feedback. This interview will last approximately 30 minutes. You will be asked a series of questions about your feedback preferences. The participation in the study is voluntary and you can pause or stop taking part in the study at any time without giving a reason, and there will be no negative consequences for you. The interview will be audio recorded. Do you have any questions? Are you comfortable with proceeding?

Part 1

An interviewer shows a paper for Task 1 (see below).

[Interviewer]: Here is a sentence with a mistake that a learner could say during an English class, and they are being corrected by a teacher. You have seen this sentence and corrections in the online questionnaire. Could you please rate the corrections and explain why. 1 = You would not like to be corrected this way at all and 5 – you would very much prefer to be corrected this way. Don't worry if your answers will not match the previous answers, just think out loud.

Additional questions:

- What if a teacher replied "Sorry?/Pardon?" (About clarification request "What do you mean by doing good?")
- Would your rating be different if it was a grammar mistake? (example: I didn't went to the university yesterday.)
- Would your rating be different if it was a pronunciation mistake? (example: Yesterday was a tough [tʌg] day.)

Part 2

Same paper as for Task 1.

[Interviewer]: Let's talk about the feedback from the teacher's point of view and reasons why they use them.

- 1) A teacher tries to encourage a learner to reformulate themselves but doesn't provide a correct example. Why might a teacher use this kind of feedback, in your opinion?

- 2) A teacher raises the intonation of their voice to suggest that an error has been made but doesn't correct it by themselves. Why might a teacher use this kind of feedback?
- 3) A teacher aims to show a learner that there is something wrong with what they have said and offers a reformulation. Why might a teacher use this kind of feedback?
- 4) A teacher shows that there is a mistake and provides a description of why a learner cannot say something that way. Why might a teacher use this kind of feedback?
- 5) A teacher shows that they haven't understood the meaning, but they don't provide the correct option. Why might a teacher use this kind of feedback?
- 6) A teacher shows that something is wrong and offers a reformulation. Why might a teacher use this kind of feedback?

Part 3

An interviewer shows a paper for Task 3 (see below).

[Interviewer]: Here is another sentence with a mistake that a learner could say during an English class, and they are being corrected by a teacher. You have seen this sentence and corrections in the survey as well. Please, rate the feedback and explain why.

At the end:

[Interviewer]: is there anything you would like to add about oral corrective feedback? Thank you for your participation!

For tasks 1 and 2:

I think I'm doing good in keeping up with the coursework.	1	2	3	4	5
- What do you mean by "doing good"?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You're doing well? I'm happy to hear that.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You're doing ...? (pausing)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- It's better to say "I'm doing well" here.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- "Good" is an adjective. After the verb "do" you need an adverb.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You're doing "good"? (emphasizing "good")	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

For task 3:

	1	2	3	4	5
- They're afraid to... ? (pausing)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- They're afraid to "stay"? (emphasizing "stay")	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Stay means "remaining in one place", but you want to describe people physically being on their feet. What verb do you need to use?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- Sorry? What do you mean by "stay in front of the class"?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- You mean "stand" in front of the class?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
- They might be afraid to stand in front of the class. That's true.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix 3 Normality characteristics of data

Normality characteristics of Finnish-speaking participants' data

CF types	Outliers	Skewness	Q-Q plots. Are lines straight?	Shapiro-Wilk test values
Explicit correction	Yes	-0.370	Almost	0.048
Recasts	Yes	-1.048	No	<0.001
Clarification requests	Yes	1.821	No	<0.001
Metalinguistic Feedback	No	-0.104	Yes	0.474
Elicitation	No	0.918	No	<0.001
Repetition	Yes	1.320	No	<0.001

Normality characteristics of male Finnish speaking participants' data

CF types Male	Outliers	Skewness	Q-Q plots. Are lines straight?	Shapiro-Wilk test values
Explicit correction	No	0.293	Almost	0.119
Recasts	No	-0.573	No	0.023
Clarification requests	Yes	1.126	No	0.095
Metalinguistic Feedback	Yes	0.223	Yes	0.873
Elicitation	No	-0.061	No	0.171
Repetition	No	0.209	No	0.054

Normality characteristics of female Finnish speaking participants' data

CF types Female	Outliers	Skewness	Q-Q plots. Are lines straight?	Shapiro-Wilk test values
Explicit correction	Yes	-0.299	Almost	0.152
Recasts	Yes	-1.180	No	<0.001
Clarification requests	Yes	2.171	No	<0.001
Metalinguistic Feedback	No	-0.047	Yes	0.547
Elicitation	Yes	0.991	No	<0.001
Repetition	Yes	1.509	No	<0.001

Normality characteristics of Finnish speaking Humanities participants' data

CF types Humanities	Outliers	Skewness	Q-Q plots. Are lines straight?	Shapiro-Wilk test values
Explicit correction	Yes	-0.424	No	0.201
Recasts	No	-0.863	No	<0.001
Clarification requests	No	1.666	No	<0.001
Metalinguistic Feedback	No	-0.038	Yes	0.418
Elicitation	Yes	1.110	no	<0.001
Repetition	Yes	1.447	No	<0.001

Normality characteristics of Finnish speaking Social Science participants' data

CF types Social Science	Outliers	Skewness	Q-Q plots. Are lines straight?	Shapiro-Wilk test values
Explicit correction	Yes	-0.338	No	0.259
Recasts	Yes	-0.949	No	0.002
Clarification requests	No	1.227	No	0.003
Metalinguistic Feedback	No	-0.285	Almost	0.914
Elicitation	No	0.092	Almost	0.102
Repetition	No	0.369	Almost	0.022

Normality characteristics of Finnish speaking participants' with Intermediate English proficiency level data

CF types Intermediate	Outliers	Skewness	Q-Q plots. Are lines straight?	Shapiro-Wilk test values
Explicit correction	Yes	0.050	Yes	0.805
Recasts	No	-0.773	No	0.23
Clarification requests	No	1.116	No	0.005
Metalinguistic Feedback	No	-0.165	Almost	0.610
Elicitation	No	0.323	No	0.050
Repetition	No	0.574	No	0.036

Normality characteristics of Finnish speaking participants' with Advanced English proficiency level' data

CF types Advanced	Outliers	Skewness	Q-Q plots. Are lines straight?	Shapiro-Wilk test values
Explicit correction	Yes	-0.389	Almost	0.089
Recasts	No	-0.905	No	<0.001
Clarification requests	Yes	1.754	No	<0.001
Metalinguistic Feedback	No	-0.050	Almost	0.797
Elicitation	Yes	1.234	No	<0.001
Repetition	Yes	1.547	No	<0.001

Normality characteristics of non-Finnish-speaking participants' data

CF types	Outliers	Skewness	Q-Q plots. Are lines straight?	Shapiro-Wilk test values
Explicit correction	No	0.087	No	0.150
Recasts	No	-0.701	No	0.177
Clarification requests	No	0.840	No	0.057
Metalinguistic Feedback	No	-0.470	Almost	0.451
Elicitation	Yes	1.109	No	0.140
Repetition	Yes	1.028	No	0.193

Appendix 4 Interviewees' feedback ratings in comparison to their survey ratings

N	Questions	Explicit correction	Recasts	Clarification requests	Metalinguistic feedback	Elicitation	Repetition
Participant 45	Question 1. Interview	4	5	2	4	2	2
	Question 2. Interview	5	5	3	4	1	2
	Question 1. Survey	5	5	1	3	1	1
	Question 2. Survey	5	5	4	4	1	1
Participant 59	Question 1. Interview	4	4.5	1	3	2	2
	Question 2. Interview	4	4	1.5	2.5	2	3
	Question 1. Survey	2	2	2	3	1	1
	Question 2. Survey	3	3	2	3	1	1
Participant 61	Question 1. Interview	4	4	3	2	2	3
	Question 2. Interview	3	3	2	2.5	3	3
	Question 1. Survey	3	4	2	1	2	2
	Question 2. Survey	5	4	2	2	2	3
Participant 80	Question 1. Interview	3	5	4	4	1	1
	Question 2. Interview	3	5	3	4	1	1
	Question 1. Survey	1	5	1	1	1	1
	Question 2. Survey	1	5	1	1	1	1
Participant 92	Question 1. Interview	5	5	1	3	3	1
	Question 2. Interview	2	5	1	4.5	2	1
	Question 1. Survey	5	5	1	4	1	1
	Question 2. Survey	5	5	1	5	1	1