

The Caspian Sea Journal

ISSN: 1578-7899

Volume 10, Issue 1, Supplement 3 (2016) 56-65

The Effect of Corrective Feedback Strategy Types on Iranian EFL Learner's Willingness to Communicate

Azam Rashidi, Seyed Reza Basiro, Hossein Saadabadi Motlaq, Department of English Literature, Bushehr Branch, Islamic Azad University, Bushehr, Iran

ABSTRACT — The present study was designed to investigate whether using corrective feedback strategies and gender have any impact on the willingness to communicate. There were three research questions and null hypotheses. There were 60 male and female participants .They were in four groups. One male and one female group were to receive immediate corrective feedback and one male and one female group were to receive delayed corrective feedback. All the classes had the same teacher. The instrument applied in this study was a questionnaire prepared by McIntyre, but the revised version developed by Ganji (2000) was used. The reliability of questionnaire was assessed through Cronbach's alpha formula. The reliability index of the questionnaire was 0.78. The design which best fitted was quasi- experimental design. There were one dependent variable (WTC) and two independent variables (gender and corrective feedback). The results of the study were computed with the 16th version of Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS 16) software. Based on the data analyses presented in chapter 4, the researcher came up with some results. After conducting the treatment, all four groups of the study were compared based on the results obtained from the posttest.

KEYWORDS: Corrective Feedbacks, Willingness to Communicate, Gender

Introduction

Looking back over a century of second language acquisition, it is obvious that communicative language teaching is taking the lead during the 21st century (MacInyre, 2007). Communicative language teaching allows the learners to develop their communication competence. Therefore, the understanding of learners' communication competence and needs offer a basis for language teachers to design curricula, and develop the effectiveness of language teaching (MacIntrye, 2007). Research on second language acquisition shows that the current communicative approaches to second language (L2) instruction emphasizes the importance of learners using the L2 in tasks (Barjesteh ,2011.) Learners' competence in the second language is developed via performance and is reinforced by theories of second language acquisition (Swain, 2000). This focus on the active use of the second language in the language classroom has led to the emergence of an important construct, which is Willingness to Communicate (WTC). The concept of Willingness to Communicate (WTC) was originally developed with reference to first or native language (L1) verbal communication (MacIntyre, 2007). The above definition, however, is of a general nature; to some others, WTC in L1 and L2 are not totally synonymous - rather, it signifies different concepts. Under the same assumption, Dornyei (2003) maintains that Willingness to Communicate (WTC) in L1 is a fairly stable personality trait which is developed over the years, but with regard to L2 use, the situation is more complex, because there is a strong changing variable affecting the WTC in L2 which is one's L2 proficiency level, and particularly that of the individual's L2 communicative competence. Besides, the Willingness to Communicate (WTC) model of MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels (1998) hypothesized that willingness to speak is influenced not only by learners themselves, but also by the situation they are in, stating that situational variables such as topic and participants should be taken into consideration while investigating. The main function and goal for learners is to improve communicative competence, which coined by Hymes (1971). It is believed that communicative competence is referred to "the psychological, cultural and social rules which discipline the use of speech". (Basta, 2011; p.126). Such a concept includes a wide choice of abilities including the linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. Communicative competence is defined as the ability to construe and understand suitable social actions, and it also needs the active contribution of the students in the production of the target language (Canale and Swain1980; Celce-Murcia et al., 1995; Hymes 1972). In order to develop communicative competence in second language acquisition, that is found that "comprehensible input is not enough for learners. Therefore, the construct of comprehensible output suggests that when learners meet with communication difficulties, they will be pushed into making their output more defined, coherent, and accurate (Swain, 1985). As also pinpointed by Swain (1985), what drives the learners to resort to the means of expression in order to produce an L2 is mainly their goal of successfully conveying their intended meaning. In order to have an accurate output, learners can test comprehensibility and linguistic well-formation of their inter-language (IL) against feedback obtained from their interlocutors. In other hands, output can make the learner participate in more syntactic processing than is vital for the understanding of input. Output serves a consciousness-raising function. Producing the second language takes students attention to the gap in their interlanguage performance by external or internal feedback and may trigger mental processes involving in language learning. Yet,

People can differ in communication actions even in their first language. There are learners who may have many difficulties using it when they are learning a foreign language. For instance, some speak openly and actively, while some prefer to speak only when it is necessary. Based on this difference the notion of willingness to communicate or WTC was first developed in L1 communication by McCroskey and Richmond and applied to L2 communication by some experts in second or L2 contexts. McIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei and Noels (1998) defined WTC as a state of readiness to engage in L2, the final step of processes that prepare the learner to initiate L2 communication with a specific person at a specific time. Underlying WTC are two key communication-related constructs, communication apprehension and perceived competence (Macintyre, 1994). Perceived competence refers to the self-evaluation of one's ability to communicate appropriately in a given situation and communication apprehension means the anxiety that people experience in association with real or anticipated communication. In the L2 it is also known as language anxiety (McCroskey& Richmond, 1982). Therefore, factors leading to reducing anxiety and a positive selfimage in language learning could ascend one's willingness to communicate. With respect to the research conducted in the area of language anxiety (Cutrone, 2009; Aydin, 2008; Sook Park, 2010), types of corrective feedback that learners received are considered as a factor that can have an impact on learners' language anxiety. The impact of different corrective feedback is also discussed directly as Macintyre and Burns (2007) mentioned corrective feedbacks both as something that increases and as something that decreases students' WTC, depending on whether it is expected and how it is offered. With respect to the brief review, there is obviously a need for further study on the effect of different corrective feedback strategies on the willingness to communicate of language learners. This research on the impact of immediate and delayed corrective feedback strategies and gender on learners' willingness to communicate aimed at drawing English language teachers' attention to the importance of error correction and its effects on WTC. In order to do so, the following research questions were proposed:

Do corrective feedback strategy types have a significant impact on students' willingness to communicate?

Does gender have a significant impact on students' willingness to communicate?

Does the interaction between gender and different corrective feedback strategies have a significant impact on students' willingness to communicate? In order to investigate the above-mentioned research questions empirically, the researcher proposed the following null hypotheses: The corrective feedback strategy types do not have a significant effect on Willingness to Communicate.

Gender does not have a significant effect on Willingness to communicate.

The interaction between gender and different corrective feedback strategies does not have a significant impact on students' willingness to communicate.

Material and Method

The participants of the present study were 60 adult female and male learners from Kish Foreign Language Institute in Bushehr with the age range of 26 to 42 years old. The participants were selected from among intermediate classes at a language institute in Bushehr. There were 4 groups in this research, each group consisted of 15 learners. Two groups consisted of male learners and two others included female learners. Male and female students were not in the same classes. All the students had the same teacher. The One male group and one female group received immediate corrective feedback and one male and one female group received delayed corrective feedback.

Instrumentation

WTC Questionnaire

The questionnaire employed in this research was based on the WTC questionnaire prepared by MacIntyre et al., (2001). Since this research was designed to be performed in Iranian EFL context, the researcher used a version of WTC questionnaire developed by Ganji (2000). This questionnaire included twelve items, all of which examined the students' willingness to engage in communication tasks during class time or outside the class. Students were asked to indicate on a scale from 1 to 5 how willing they would be to communicate in various situations (where 1 = almost never willing, 2 = sometimes willing, 3 = willing half of the time, 4 = usually willing, and 5 = almost always willing). In addition, the questionnaire's reliability was assessed through *Cronbach's Alpha formula*. The reliability index of the questionnaire was 0.78.

Procedure

To accomplish the goals of the study, the researcher carried out the following procedures:

The data was collected by using a modified version of the four-part WTC questionnaire, originally developed by McIntyre al. (2001), upon administration of two types of corrective feedback treatments, namely immediate and delayed. Since this research was developed to perform in Iranian EFL context, the researcher used a version of WTC questionnaire originally developed by Ganji (2000). The test was administered to 30 male and female students. Reliability of WTC questionnaire was assessed through Cronbach's Alpha formula. Four classes of about 15 students at the same level (elementary level) were selected. Before the treatment students answered the questionnaire as pretest. Learners received the treatment for 20 sessions. In each session, about 15 to 20 minutes students were supposed to tell a short story. During this time, one males and one females' class received immediate feedback and one males and one females' class received delayed corrective feedback. Both types of feedback, namely

the immediate and delayed feedback were administered according to Ellis (2009) taxonomy of corrective feedback strategies which includes both explicit and implicit corrections. Implicit corrections include recast, repetition, and clarification request and explicit correction consist of metalinguistic explanation, elicitation, paralinguistic signals.

Table 1. Ellis (2009) Taxonomy of corrective feedback strategies

	Implicit	Explicit
Input-providing	Recasts	Explicit Correction
Output- providing	Repetition, and	Metalinguistic Explanation, Elicitation,
	Clarification Request	Paralinguistic signals

In immediate groups, learners were interrupted as soon as they made a mistake. All types of corrective feedbacks were used to correct the students immediately. Examples of immediate feedbacks which were used in classes are as follow:

Explicit feedbacks

Elicitation

The teacher repeats part of the learner utterance but not the error and uses rising intonation to make learner complete it.

L: I didn't went yesterday...

T: I didn't.....?

Paralinguistic signals

The teacher uses a gesture or facial expression or a special sign to show that the learner has made an error.

L: they study last weekend.

T: (zeee sound to indicate past)

Explicit correction

The teacher indicates a mistake has been made, identifies the error and provides the learners with the correct form.

Learner: in Monday she.....

Teacher: on Monday...not in. We say on Monday not in.

Metalinguistic explanation

The teacher provides students with the explanation that refers to the nature of the error.

L: I have eat Chinese food.

T: it is present perfect.

Implicit feedbacks

Recast:

The teacher uses the content words of the incorrect utterance and changes and corrects the utterance in some way (e.g., phonological, syntactic, morphological or lexical). In other word, Recast could be defined as a reformulation of a learner's erroneous output into a correct form.

L: He like sport...

T: He likes sport, what else?

Repetition

The teacher repeats the learner's utterance and highlights the error by means of emphatic stress.

L: Have you eat Chinese food?

T: Have you EAT Chinese food?

Clarification request

The teacher indicates that he/she has not understood what the learner said.

L: If I go to Canada I studied.

T: what?

Clarification request

Learner: She said man key leave...

Teacher: Pardon?

In delayed groups the technique mentioned by Hedge (2000) was employed. When the learners made an error, the teacher waited until the learners' finished talking about the content. The researcher avoided correcting the errors while the learners were speaking and noted down errors as students spoke and went through them afterwards in different ways. In delayed groups, teachers employed explicit corrective feedbacks. For example, teacher wrote some mistakes or error on the board and asked students to correct them.

Elicitation

The teacher repeats part of the learner utterance but not the error and uses rising intonation to make learner complete it.

L: I didn't went yesterday...

T: I didn't.....?

Explicit correction

The teacher indicates a mistake has been made, identifies the error and provides the learners with the correct form.

Learner: in Monday she.....

Teacher: on Monday...not in. We say on Monday not in.

Metalinguistic explanation

The teacher provides students with the explanation that refers to the nature of the error.

L: I have eat Chinese food. T: it is present perfect.

Explicit error corrections:

Learner: in Monday she..... Teacher: on Monday...not in

At the end of the study, WTC questionnaire was administered again as a posttest to investigate any probable significant differences.

Design

In this chapter, the random selection of the subjects was not possible. Thus, the design which best fitted was quasi-experimental design (Best and Kahn, 2006). There were one dependent variable (WTC) and two independent variables (gender and corrective feedback). Since it was a quasi-experimental design, pretest was given to the students before administering the treatment. Then students received delayed and immediate corrective feedback during sessions mainly on the speaking activities. After 20 instructional sessions, the students took part in the posttest.

Data Analysis

In order to answer the research questions posed in this study, several statistical procedures were used by the researcher. First, the reliability of WTC questionnaire was assessed through Cronbach's Alpha formula. In the next step, an independent t-test was run to compare the immediate and delayed groups' mean scores on the pretest of willingness to communicate (WCT). A two-way ANOVA was run to investigate the effect of type of corrective feedback - immediate and delayed - gender and their interaction on the performance of the students on the posttest of WTC. It should be noted that in this study, 0.05 alpha level of significance was chosen for testing the null hypotheses. The results of the study were computed with the 16th version of Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS 16) software.

As displayed in Table 2, the mean scores for the immediate and delayed groups on the pretest of WTC were 69.50 and 66 respectively.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for the Pretest of WTC

GROUPS	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Immediate	30	69.5000	14.12201	2.57831
Delayed	30	66.0000	9.82958	1.79463

The t-observed value for comparing the immediate and delayed groups' mean scores on the pretest of WTC was 1.11 (Table 3). This amount of t-value is lower than the critical value of 2 at 58 degrees of freedom. Based on these results it can be concluded that there was not any significant difference between the two groups' mean scores on the pretest of WTC. That is to say, the immediate and delayed corrective feedback groups enjoyed the same level of Willingness to Communicate prior to the administration of the treatments.

Table 3: Independent t-test results for the Pretest of WTC

	Levene for Eq of Vari	uality	T-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confider of the Dif Lower	
Equal variances assumed	2.05	.150	1.114	58	.270	3.50000	3.14140	-2.78819	9.78819
Equal variances not assumed			1.114	51.758	.270	3.50000	3.14140	-2.80438	9.80438

Although in case of balanced groups-designs it is not necessary to check the assumption of homogeneity of variances (Field, 2009), as displayed in Table 2, the Levene's F of homogeneity of variances is not significant (F = 2.05, P = .15 > .05). That is to say the two groups enjoyed homogenous variances on the pretest of WTC.

Administering the Post-test of WTC

After the treatment which took 20 sessions, the post-test was administered. Next, a two-way ANOVA was run to investigate the effect of type of corrective feedback – immediate and delayed – gender and their interaction on the performance of the students on the posttest of WTC. The F-observed value (Table 4) for the effect of the type of feedback was 11.37 which were higher than the critical value of 4.01 at 1 and 56 degrees of freedom. Based on these results it can be concluded that the two different corrective feedback strategies (delayed and immediate) had a significant impact on students' willingness to communicate.

Table 4: Two-Way ANOVA for the Posttest of WTC questionnaire by Groups and Gender

Source	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
GROUP	1490.017	1	1490.017	11.375	.001
GENDER	1430.817	1	1430.817	10.923	.002
GROUP *GENDER	62.017	1	62.017	.473	.494
Error	7335.333	56	130.988		
Total	422497.000	60			

As shown in Table 5, the delayed feedback group with a mean score of 87.86 outperformed the immediate feedback group on the posttest of WTC (m = 77.90). Therefore, the first null-hypothesis as immediate and delayed corrective feedback strategies do not have any significant impact on students' willingness to communicate was rejected.

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics for the Posttest of WTC questionnaire by Group

GROUP	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
IMMEDIATE	77.900	2.090	73.714	82.086
DELAYED	87.867	2.090	83.681	92.053

The F-observed value (Table 4) for the effect of the gender of the students is 10.92. This amount of F-value is higher than the critical value of 4.01 at 1 and 56 degrees of freedom. Based on these results it can be concluded that there was a significant difference between the male and female students' mean scores on the posttest of WTC. As displayed in Table 6 the male students with mean score of 87.76 outperformed the female students (m = 78).

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics for the Posttest of WTC questionnaire by Gender

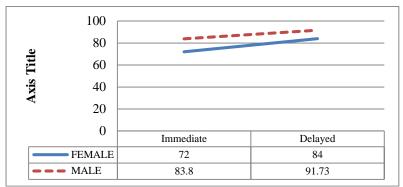
GENDER	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
FEMALE	78.000	2.090	73.814	82.186
MALE	87.767	2.090	83.581	91.953

Therefore, the null-hypothesis as gender does not have any significant impact on students' willingness to communicate was rejected. The F-observed value (Table 7) for the interaction between the type of feedback and gender of the students is .47. This amount of F-value is lower than the critical value of 4.01 at 1 and 56 degrees of freedom. Based on these results it can be concluded that there was not any significant interaction between the type of feedback and gender of the students on the posttest of WTC. As displayed in Table 7 irrespective of the gender of the students, the delayed feedback group outperformed the immediate feedback group. Therefore, the null-hypothesis stating the interaction between gender and different corrective feedback strategies does not have any significant impact on students' willingness to communicate was not rejected.

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics for the Posttest of WTC questionnaire Interaction between Groups and Gender

				95% Confidence Interval	
GROUP	GENDER	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
IMMEDIATE	FEMALE	72.000	2.955	66.080	77.920
	MALE	83.800	2.955	77.880	89.720
DELAYED	FEMALE	84.000	2.955	78.080	89.920
	MALE	91.733	2.955	85.814	97.653

Graph 1 shows the lack of significant interaction between the gender and different corrective feedback strategies on the posttest of WTC.



Graph 1: Interaction between Types of Feedback and Gender

The assumption of homogeneity of variances is met in the above two-way ANOVA analysis performed. The Levene's test of homogeneity of variances is not statistically significant (F = 1.07, P = .36 > .05).

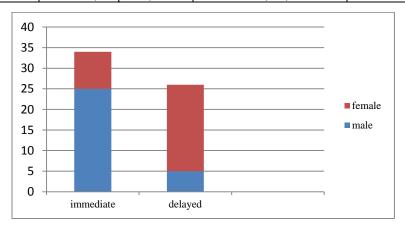
Table 8: Homogeneity of Variances Test

Tuble 0: Homogeneity of Variances Test						
F	df1	df2	Sig.			
1.074	3	56	.368			

In addition, students were asked about their preferable time of corrective feedbacks and their reasons. 56.6 percent of students preferred immediate corrective feedback and 43 percent preferred delayed one. 70 percent of female learners chose delayed corrective feedback while only 16.6 percent of male learners favored delayed error correction as their preferred one.

Table 9: Learners' preferable time of corrective feedback

Type of corrective Total number of learners		Female learners	Male learners
Feedback			
Immediate	34 (56.6 percent)	9 (26.4)	25 (73.5)
Delayed	26 (43.3 percent)	21 (80.7)	5 (19.2)



Graph 2: Learners' preferable time of corrective feedback

The most frequent reason given for preferring immediate correction was the importance of learning to speak English correctly. On the other hand, learners who were in favor of delayed feedback mentioned losing concentration and getting embarrassed the main reasons make them prefer delayed feedbacks to immediate feedbacks.

Discussion and conclusion

Based on the data analyses, the researcher came up with some results. After conducting the treatment, all four groups of the study were compared based on the results obtained from the posttest. In order to test the first null hypothesis of the study, the participants' scores in the immediate groups and delayed groups were compared. The results showed The F-observed value for the effect of the type of feedback was 11.37 which is higher than the critical value of 4.01 at 1 and 56 degrees of freedom. Thus, it could be concluded that the treatment was effective enough to make a significant difference between the means of the immediate groups and delayed one. As a result, the delayed feedback group with a mean score of 87.86 outperformed the immediate feedback group on the posttest of WTC (m = 77.90). As Macintyre et al (2001) and Yashima (2002) pointed out; perceived competence and actual competence were negatively correlated with language anxiety. The results of research by MacIntyre et al (1997) indicated that anxious students underestimate their language proficiency and communicate less than more relaxed students who overestimate their language proficiency. On the other hand, fear of making mistakes and corrective feedback strategies may affect language anxiety and indirectly WTC. Many studies on the impact of corrective feedback strategies on students' anxiety were conducted. (Zgutowicz, 2009; Cutrone, 2009; Aydin, 2008; Worde, 2003).It is pointed out that the reason learners do not participate in the classroom activities is the fear of committing verbal errors (Young 1991). It is showed that learners are afraid of making pronunciation errors in classroom (Price 1991). Aydin (2008) indicated that EFL learners suffer from language anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. Furthermore, fear of negative evaluation itself was a strong source of language anxiety. In another study run by Worde (2003), error correction was considered as anxiety-provoking by the participants. In this study Students reported that they got disturbed when teachers began to reprimand them for making errors. Students mentioned becoming frustrated when the teacher corrected the error before they completely gave a response. The unnatural classroom procedures, for example teachers' error correcting methods and the way teachers interact with students, are all ways that may arouse students' anxiety. As it was mentioned, regarding delayed and immediate feedback strategies, students who participated in this study were asked about their preferable corrective feedback. Despite the fact that 56.6 percent of the students preferred immediate corrective feedback to delayed corrective feedback, the result of the research showed that delayed groups outperformed the immediate groups on the WTC questionnaire. It is worth noting that most of the students who were in favor of immediate feedback explained that it is important for teachers to correct students' mistakes in a way that learners do not get ashamed or embarrassed. Cutrone (2009) believed that while students may say on a conscious level that they would like to be corrected strictly, their anxious reactions indicate otherwise. Curtone (2009) explained that overt error correction often inhibits students from expressing themselves freely and can lead to high levels of anxiety. In addition, the most frequent reason given for preferring immediate correction was the importance of learning to speak English correctly. It is possible that learners who preferred immediate feedback might have high levels of perfectionism. Gregersen and Hurwitz (2002) found that some students' language anxiety may root in their perfectionist tendencies. They concluded that anxious students share many similar expressions with perfectionists. Therefore, anxious learners were not easily satisfied with their performances and had a higher level of concern over the mistakes they made. They believed that when perfectionist learners are corrected consistently, they may perceive themselves as less competent and show a decrease in their WTC. Researcher did not find any studies related to the impact of corrective feedback strategies on learners' WTC as a trait-like behavior. However, the result of the research is in favor of the studies conducted by McIntyre on situational WTC. McIntyre (2011) found that adolescent immersion students would enjoy speaking to their teachers if the teachers were not perceived as too critical or focused on correcting every mistake. The implication seems to be that if the other presentations were excellent, or if no other presentations were available for comparison, WTC would have been lowered by the mistakes the students made. The available comparisons with others allowed the student to maintain a sense of relative competence, which can lead to enhanced state self-confidence. If the available comparisons leave a student feeling less competent than those around her or him, they can become unwilling to communicate, even if they are confident in their ability. Another research conducted by McIntyre (2007) indicated that several Anglophones felt unwilling to communicate because they felt they were being analyzed and evaluated by interlocutors, especially for accent and grammatical errors. On the other hand, there are studies with regard to the desire to communicate, mistakes and corrective feedbacks. Jamshidnejad (2011) believed that learner's perception of others is one of the main factors constructing the communication process in the target language. Others are mainly teachers, classmates and friends as interlocutors inside and outside the classroom. The fear of losing face in front of others is one of the sources of problems in EFL oral communication. Face is still of great importance to most EFL contexts such as the Far East and the Middle East. Saving face or not wanting to get embarrassed by making mistakes prevents many students from speaking (Jamshidnejad, 2011). The embarrassment caused by any language imperfection in front of others can enhance negative feelings in EFL learners and affect their self- concept and confidence. Language teachers are most important others in EFL communication. EFL speakers' perception of their errors and their teachers' reactions to those errors in class activities can also discourage EFL learners from speaking. If the learners who believe they must speak a language with a perfect accent and grammatically accurate sentences receive constant correction of their mistakes, they may feel foolish in front of others. However, McIntyre (1994) hypothesized that communication apprehension and perceived competence would be the causes of WTC when introversion would be related to both communication apprehension and perceived

competence, and self-esteem would be related to communication apprehension. The model suggests that people are willing to communicate when they are not apprehensive about communication and when they perceive themselves as capable of communicating effectively. To test the second null hypothesis, researcher compared the mean score of male and female students on WTC posttest. The F-observed value for the effect of the gender of the students is 10.92. This amount of F-value was higher than the critical value of 4.01 at 1 and 56 degrees of freedom. Based on these results it can be concluded that there was a significant difference between the male and female students' mean scores on the posttest of WTC. The male students with mean score of 87.76 outperformed the female students with respect to their WTC. This finding is not in accordance with the result of some previous research. In a sample of Canadian adolescents, McIntyre et al (2002) found combined English and French WTC to be higher among girls than among boys. Smith (1997) showed that adolescent girls engaged in conversation more frequently than did adolescent boys. He suggested that the girls may be higher in WTC than the boys. However, McIntyre et al (2004) pointed out that there was some evidence suggesting that patterns of WTC across different age groups are likely to be different in men and women. Males appear to increase in WTC as they grow toward adulthood, and females may show a parallel decrease in WTC but McIntyre and Donovan (2004) found no significant differences in WTC between men and women in either the high school or university group. But McIntyre (2004) stated the fact that the elevated communication apprehension and lower self-perceived competence observed in the university women might, over time, produce sex differences in WTC that disadvantage women. Moreover, in his study, Scold (2008) found that Boys were the most frequent users of English outside the classroom, while the girls were the ones who used English the least outside the classroom. The results of this study is not generalizable (due to few participants and sampling), but this difference may be rooted in differences in some personality traits among Iranian males and females which are related to WTC. For instance, as Burgeon (1976) argued a person with low self-esteem is unwilling to communicate because they may perceive that others negatively evaluate their efforts to communicate. McIntyre (1999) claimed that students with high self-esteem showed a high level of perceived competence, which led to a high level of WTC. There are studies (Asadi, 2010; Zeinvand, 2006; Nasiri, 2000; Zare, 1998) which indicated the differences between the self-esteem of Iranian men and women. In a research done by Asadi (2010), a significant relationship between self-esteem and gender was found. Males were higher on self-esteem than females. Zeinvand (2006) studied the relation between self - esteem, social support and student's educational progress in a high school in Iran. The data analysis showed no significant relationship between selfesteem and academic achievement. However, the research depicted the significant differences in boys and girls. The study revealed that boys enjoyed higher self- esteem. As it was mentioned before one of the main variables which influences WTC is anxiety. Some studies in Iran reported that females have significantly higher levels of test anxiety than males. (Mousavi & Haghshenas & Alishahi, 2008; Lashkaripour, 2006; Mehregan & Najjarian & Ahmadi, 2001). At the next stage of the study, the F-value for the interaction between gender and corrective feedback strategies was calculated. The F-observed value for the interaction between the type of corrective feedback and gender of the students was 0.47 which is lower than the critical value of 4.01 at 1 and 56 degrees of freedom. Based on these results it can be concluded that there was not any significant interaction between the type of feedback and gender of the students on the posttest of WTC. Although most of male learners in this study asserted that they would prefer immediate corrective feedback, the results indicated the same impact of delayed and immediate corrective feedback on male and female learners.

References

- 1. Asadi, A (2010).Prevalence of anxiety and its relationship with self steem among Zabol University students, Iran Educational Research. 1(5). 140-144 retrieved from http://www.interesjournals.org/ER
- 2. Aydin, S, (2008). An Investigation on the Language Anxiety and Fear of Negative Evaluation among Turkish EFL Learners, Asian EFL Journal, 31 Professional Teaching Articles October 2008
- 3. Baker, S., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2000). The role of gender and immersion in communication and second language orientations. Language Learning, 50, 311-341
- 4. Clément, R., & Kruidenier, B. G. (1983). Orientations on second language acquisition: The effects of ethnicity, milieu, and their target language on their emergence. Language Learning, 33, 273-291.
- 5. Cutrone, P. (2009). Overcoming Japanese EFL learners' fear of speaking.
- 6. Donovan, L. A., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2005). Age and sex differences in willingness to communicate, communication apprehension, and self-perceived competence. Communication Research Reports, 21, 420-427
- 7. Dornyei, Z. (2003). Attitudes, orientations, and motivations in language learning: Advances in Theory, research, and applications. Language Learning, 53, 3-32
- 8. Ellis, R, (2009), Corrective Feedback and Teacher Development, L2 Journal, 1, 3-18
- 9. Hedge, T. (2000). Teaching and learning in the language classroom, Oxford University Press.
- 10. Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. The Modern Language Journal, 70, 125-132.
- 11. Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. Philadelphia, PA: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- 12. International Journal of Educational Research, 37, 255-270.
- 13. Jamshidnejad, A. (2011). An innovative Approach to Understanding Oral Problems in Foreign Language Learning and Communication. Journal of Academic and Applied Studies, 1,3-21
- 14. Lashkaripour, K (2006). The relationship between test anxiety and academic

- 15. McIntyre, S., Ellaway, A. & Cummins, S. (2002) Place effects on health: how can we conceptualise, operationalise and measure them? Social Science and Medicine 55, 125-139
- 16. MacIntyre, P. (1994). Variables Underlying Willingness to Communicate: A Casual Analysis. Communication Research Reports, 11, 135-142.
- 17. MacIntyre, P. D. & Baker, S. C., Clément, R., & Conrod, S. (2001) Willingness to communicate, social support, and language-learning orientations of immersion students. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 23, 369-388.
- 18. Macintyre, P. D. (1994). Variables underlying willingness to communicate: A causal analysis. Communication Research Reports, 11, 135-142
- 19. MacIntyre, P. D. (2007). Willingness to communicate in the second language: Understanding the decision to speak as a volitional process. The Modern Language Journal, 91, 564-576.
- 20. Macintyre, P. D., & Charos, C. (1996). Personality, attitudes, and affect as predictors of second language communication. Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 15, 3-26.
- 21. Macintyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1989). Anxiety and second language learning: Toward a theoretical clarification. Language Learning, 39, 251-275.
- 22. MacIntyre, P. D., Babin, P. A., & Clément, R. (1999). Willingness to communicate: Antecedents and consequences. Communication Quarterly, 47(2), 215-229.
- 23. MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C. & Clement, R. (2001). Willingness to communicate, social support, and language-learning orientations of immersion students. SSLA, 23, 369-388.
- 24. MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clément, R., & Donovan, L. A. (2003). Talking in order to learn: Willingness to communicate and intensive language programs. Canadian Modern Language Review, 59(4), 589-607.
- 25. MacIntyre, P. D., Baker. (2003). talking in order to learn: Willingness to communicate and intensive language programs. Canadian Modern Language Review, 59, (4), 1-14.
- 26. MacIntyre, P. D., Burns, C., Jessome, A. (2011). Ambivalence about communicating in a second language: A qualitative study of french immersion students" willingness to communicate. The Modern Language Journal, 95, 81-96.
- 27. MacIntyre, P. D., Clement, R., Conrod, S. (2001). Willingness to communicate, social support, and language-learning orientations of immersion students. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 23, 369-388
- 28. MacIntyre, P. D., Clement, R., Dornyei, Z., Noels, K. A. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. Modern Language Journal, 82, 545-562.
- 29. MacIntyre, P. D., Dornyei, z. Clement, R., Noels, K. A. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation". The Modern Language Journal 82, 545-562
- 30. Macintyre, P. D., MacMaster, K., & Baker, S. C. (2001). The convergence of multiple models of motivation for second language learning: Gardner, Pintrich, Kuhl, and McCroskey. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), Motivation and second language acquisition (Technical Report #23, pp. 461-492). Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.
- 31. MacIntyre, P.D., Baker, S.C., Clement, R., & Donovan, L.A. (2003). Talking in order to learn: Willingness to communicate and intensive language programs. Canadian Modern Language Review, 59, 589-607.
- 32. MacIntyre, P.D., Jesslyn D. (2010). Willingness to communicate and action control. System 38, 161-171
- 33. MacIntyre, P. & Charos, C. (1996). Personality, attitude, and affect as predictors of second language communication. Journal of Language and Social psychology, 15, 3-26.
- 34. MacIntyre, P.D. Burns, C. Jessome, A. (2007). Ambivalence about communicating in a second language: A qualitative study of French immersion students' willingness to communicate. http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2010.01141.x/full
- 35. McCroskey, J. C (1992). Reliability and validity of the willingness to communicate scale. Communication Quarterly, 40, 16-25.
- 36. McCroskey, J. C. & Richmond, V. P. (1987). Willingness to communicate. In J. C. McCroskey and J. A. Daly (Eds.), Personality and interpersonal communication (pp. 129-156). Newbury Park, CA: SAGE.
- 37. McCroskey, J. C. & Richmond, V. P. (1990). Willingness to communicate: Differing cultural perspectives. Southern Communication Journal, 56(1), 72-77.
- 38.McCroskey, J. C. & Richmond, V. P. (1991). Willingness to communicate: A cognitive view. In M. Booth-Butterfield (Ed.), Communication, cognition, and anxiety (pp. 19-37). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- 39. McCroskey, J. C. & Richmond, V. P. (1993). Identifying compulsive communicators: The talkaholic scale. Communication Research Reports, 10, 107-114.
- 40. McCroskey, J. C. & Richmond, V. P. (1995). Correlates of compulsive communication: Quantitative and qualitative characterizations. Communication Quarterly, 43, 39-52.
- 41. McCroskey, J. C. (1978). Validity of the PRCA as an index of oral communication apprehension. Communication Monographs, 45, 192-203.
- 42. McCroskey, J. C. (1982). An introduction to rhetorical communication, 4th ed. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- 43. McCroskey, J. C. (1982). Oral communication apprehension: A reconceptualization. Communication Yearbook, 6, 136-170.
- 44. McCroskey, J. C. (1992). Reliability and validity of the willingness to communicate scale. Communication Quarterly, 40, 25-26.
- 45. McCroskey, J. C. (1997). Reliability and validity of the willingness to communicate scale. Communication Quarterly, 40, 16-25.
- 46. McCroskey, J. C. (1997). The communication apprehension perspective. Communication, 12(1), 1-25.
- 47. McCroskey, J. C., & Baer, J. E. (1985). Willingness to communicate: The
- 48. McCroskey, J. C., & McCroskey, L. L. (1988). Self-report as an approach to measuring communication competence. Communication Research Reports, 5, 108-113.
- 49. Mousavi, M., Haghshenas, H., & Alishahi, M.J. (2008). Effect of gender, school

- 50. Price, M., L. 1991. 'The Subjective Experience of Foreign Language Anxiety: Interviews with Anxious Students. In Horwitz E., K. and D., J. Young (Eds.). Language Anxiety: From Theory and Research to Classroom Implications. (Pp.46-58) Engelwood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall. Psycholinguistics, 28, 399-410
- 51. Richmond, V. P. & McCrosky, J. C. (1992). Communication: Apprehension, avoidance, and effectiveness. 3rd Ed. Scottsdale. AZ: Gorsuch Scarisbrick.
- 52. Swain, M. (1993). The output hypothesis: just speaking and writing aren't enough. The Canadian Modern Language Review 50, 158-164.
- 53. Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. In: Cook, G., Seidlhofer, B. (Eds.), Principle and Practice in Applied Linguistics: Studies in Honor of H.G (pp. 125–14). Widdowson. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- 54. Swain, M., (1985). Communicative competence: some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In:
- 55. University of Reading Language Studies Working Papers, 1, 55-63.
- 56. Worde, R. (2003). Students Perspectives on Foreign Language Anxiety. Inquiry, 8, 85-93
- 57. Yashima, T. (2002). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The Japanese EFL context. The Modern Language Journal, 86(1), 54-66.
- 58. Young, D. (1991). Creating a Low-Anxiety Classroom Environment: What Does Language Anxiety Research Suggest?' The Modern Language Journal, 75, 19-27
- 59. Zgutowicz, R. (2009). What Effects Does Language Anxiety Have on ESL Classroom, retrieved from https://www.hamline.edu/Content.aspx?id=2147502383. Students' Decisions to Speak English in a Middle School Classroom, retrieved from https://www.hamline.edu/Content.aspx?id=2147502383.