EFL College Students' Perceptions of Feedback and Autonomy-Supportive Teaching: A Contrasting Personality Type Comparison

조선대학교 대학원

영어교육학과

Reuven Ronin

EFL College Students' Perceptions of Feedback and Autonomy-Supportive Teaching: A Contrasting Personality Type Comparison

EFL 대학생들의 피드백과 자율성 지원 교육에 대한 인식: 대조적인 성격 유형 비교

2024 년 2 월 23 일

조선대학교 대학원

영어교육학과

Reuven Ronin

EFL College Students' Perceptions of Feedback and Autonomy-Supportive Teaching: A Contrasting Personality Type Comparison

지도교수   김 경 자

이 논문을 교육학 박사학위신청 논문으로 제출함

2023 년 10 월

조선대학교 대학원

영어교육학과

Reuven Ronin

Reuven Ronin 의 박사학위 논문을 인준함

위원장	강희조	(인)
위　원	차희정	(인)
위　원	박현규	(인)
위　원	장진실	(인)
위　원	김경자	(인)

2024 년　　　01 월

조선대학교 대학원

DEDICATION

To 장효선,

My partner, my best friend, and the love of my life.

To 로닌소희 and 로닌안나,

The greatest gifts and the source of my life's motivation.

*And to **Mikhail** and **Inna Ronin**,*

My parents, my greatest supporters, and my inspiration.

am today. The lessons and values you taught me in life, I promise to carry every day. I hope that I can always make you proud.

Next, I would like to thank my sister, though I would also like to apologize to her. Sofia, I was not always the best brother, and when I left to travel Korea "for one year," you took on a great role. For over 13 years, you have been there for mom and dad, our grandparents, and our relatives. I know that you have made a lot of selfless sacrifices and commitments, and for that I humbly apologize and thank you. I hope you know that you are a remarkable person with a beautiful soul. You are a beacon of strength in our family, and I am so proud of the woman you have become. I love you.

To my Ph.D. advisor and mentor, Dr. Kyung Ja Kim, I would like to express my deepest gratitude. Your wisdom, guidance, careful consideration, and thoughtful engagement played a crucial role in the success of my doctoral education, publishing of my research, and completion of my dissertation. I am truly appreciative of all the time and effort you dedicated to this important stage in my life and the milestones in my academic journey. Your guidance, commitment to academic excellence, dedication to fostering intellectual growth, and your willingness to share your knowledge have had a lasting impact on my personal development and my studies. I know that my success was because of your efforts, and I am truly honored and thankful for your mentorship and guidance, and your endless support. Once again, thank you for everything. I look forward to continuing our professional relationship together and future pursuits in academic and professional excellence.

To another mentor and inspiration of mine, Dr. Hijo Kang, I would like to thank you for your invaluable contributions to my doctoral studies and my dissertation. Your attention to detail, constructive feedback, and effective examination not only enriched the discussion but also contributed significantly to the overall quality of my research. Although it was not an easy endeavor, I appreciate the fact that you invested your time and efforts into pushing me towards becoming a greater professor and a greater researcher. I would also like to thank you for the

opportunities that you have provided me with. I hope you know how much it means to me and my family.

Finally, I would like to say thank you to all my close friends near and far. When I made the decision to come to Korea, I left my family, my friends, my culture, and my home. There were many times when the homesickness and loneliness felt unbearable… especially with the passing of loved ones. However, I was able to overcome these emotional struggles thanks to your support. For those in Korea, thank you for embracing me and becoming my new family. For those back home, thank you for always keeping in touch despite the distance.

Life is truly a magnificent journey. The family that we have, the friendships we create, and the relationships we develop guide us like a compass through the disasters and victories in life. I am forever grateful for the connections I have made and will always cherish the wonderful memories. I hope that all the people in my life are aware of the profound effect they have had on my existence. For it is through the tapestry of friendships, family, and relationships that we discover our strengths, our purpose, and the genuine essence of a fulfilling life. Thank you all.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CA	Conversation Analysis
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELL(s)	English Language Learner(s)
EMI	English-Medium Instruction
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESP	English for a Specific Purpose
IL	Interlanguage
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
MBTI	Myers-Briggs Type Indicator
N	Number
NES(s)	Native English Speaker(s)
PEGS	Posture, Eyes, Gestures, Smile
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SDT	Self-Determination Theory
SOLER	Squarely, Open, Lean, Eye, and Relaxed

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

ABSTRACT

EFL 대학생들의 피드백과 자율성 지원 교육에 대한 인식: 대조적인 성격 유형 비교

Reuven Ronin

Advisor: Kyung Ja Kim, Ph.D.

Department of English Education,

Graduate School of Chosun University

피드백은 필수적인 도구로 학습 기회에 직접적인 영향을 미친다. 학업 성취나 미래의 취업을 위해 외국어로 연설 및 프레젠테이션 기술을 학습해야 한다는 압박이 증가하는 환경에서 적절한 피드백은 학습자의 동기를 강화하며 개인적 성장과 성공에 기여할 수도 있고, 대중 연설 기술 숙달에 심각한 지장을 줄 가능성도 있다. 본 연구는 대학 EFL 연설과 발표(speech and presentation) 강좌에서 자율성 지원 수업(autonomy-supportive instruction)에 대한 대조적 성격 유형(내향적 *vs.* 외향적) 간의 인식 차이, 다양한(언어적 및 비언어적) 형태의 피드백과 칭찬에 대한 선호(preferences) 및 수용(acceptance) 등의 요소들이 개인 성과(individual performance)에 미치는 영향을 탐색하였다.

자료 수집은 국내 한 대학에서 EFL 연설과 발표(speech and presentation) 수업 5 개 분반에 등록한 총 115 명을 대상으로 하였다. 자료 수집을 위해 사용된 도구는 사전 설문조사, 종강 후 설문조사 및 인터뷰였다. 설문조사는 개방형 질문, 폐쇄형 질문, 객관식 질문, 5 점 리커트 척도(5-point Likert scale)를 포함하는 질문으로 구성되었다.

양적 자료는 기술통계(descriptive statistics)인 빈도, 평균과 표준편차를 사용하여 연구 참여자의 설문 응답을 분석하였고, t-검정을 통해 내향형 집단과 외향형 집단의 피드백, 자율성 지원 수업, 개인 성과에 대한 인식의 차이를 분석하였다. 질적 자료인 개방형 응답과 면담자료는 내용 분석을 하였으며, 삼각측량법(methodological triangulation)을 활용하여 분석 결과의 신뢰도를 높이고자 하였다. 사전 설문조사, 종강 후 설문조사 및 인터뷰를 통한 질적·양적 결과를 분석함으로써 피드백 및 칭찬의 효과에 대한 학생들의 인식과 신념, 교수자 및 실행된 수업방법에 대한 만족도, 수업 전반에 걸친 향상을 보다 잘 파악할 수 있었다. 그 결과는 내향형·외향형 학생들의 태도와 신념, 미래를 위한 대중 연설 기술 학습에 대한 학생들의 인식에 대한 몇 가지 핵심 요소를 보여주었다.

본 연구의 첫 번째 주요 결과는 학생들에게 제공되는 선택형 ESP 강의들 중 EFL 대중 연설 강의의 선택 가능성에 대한 욕구가 상대적으로 높음을 나타내었다. 영어 대중 연설 기술의 학습과 개발에 대한 학생들의 인식을 사전 분석한 결과, 선택 과목인 연설과 발표 강좌를 수강한 학생들의 54% 이상이 현재 직업, 잠재적 미래 직업과의 관련성 또는

개인적 발전을 위해 해당 과목을 수강한 것으로 나타났다. 종강 후 설문조사를 통해 수집된 자료에 따르면 내향형 참여자의 80%와 외향형 참여자의 85%가 본인의 장래를 위해 강의 내용이 가치 있다고 생각한다는 것에 동의(내향형 참여자 54.7%, 외향형 참여자 42.5%) 하거나 매우 동의(내향형 참여자 25.3%, 외향형 참여자 42.5%)한 것으로 나타났고, 두 성격 유형 간의 통계적으로 유의미한 차이점은 발견되지 않았다(t=.417, p=.677). 또한 종강 후 설문조사 및 인터뷰에서 명시된 의견을 보여주는 질적 결과는 내향형 집단(n=75)과 외향형 집단(n=40)에서 모두 학생들이 장래를 위한 영어 대중 연설 능력 개발의 필요성에 대한 긍정적인 의견(내향형 M = 4.0 $vs.$ 외향형 M = 4.3)을 나타냄으로써 영어 연설과 발표 기술을 학습하는 데에 높은 효용가치(utility value)를 보이는 점을 부각시켰다.

두 번째 주요 결과로는 수업 전반에 걸쳐 교수자(내향형 참여자 89.3%와 외향형 참여자 97.5%가 매우 동의함)와 강의(내향형 참여자 86.7%와 외향형 참여자 95.0%가 매우 동의함)에 대한 긍정적인 인식이 압도적으로 높게 나타났다. 연구에서 수업의 교수자는 피드백의 주체이자 원천이기 때문에 교수자에 대한 학생들의 인식을 파악하는 것은 중요하다. 피드백에 대한 선행연구를 토대로 하여, 본 연구 결과로 피드백 및 수업의 수용에 있어 교수자에 대한 긍정적인 인식이 중요함이 확인되었다.

본 연구에서는 내향형(89.3%)과 외향형(97.5%)의 성격유형에 관계없이 (t=.116, p=.908) 절대다수의 학생들이 교수자가 학생들을 배려하고 존중한다고 생각하였다.

이러한 분명한 확신은 교수자의 교과수업을 효과적으로 전달하는 능력에 대한 학생들의 인식(내향형 참여자 85.7%, 외향형 참여자 95%)으로 나타났다. 교수자의 효과적인 수업 전달 능력에 대해 두 집단 간 통계적으로 유의미한 차이는 나타나지 않았다(t=.232, p=.817). 학생들의 질적 반응은 양적 결과에 대한 태도와 신념을 그대로 반영하였다. 개방형 응답에서 학생들은 자율성을 촉진하고 동기를 촉진하며 지식의 습득을 가능하게 하고 과정 전반에 걸쳐 성장과 발달을 지원하는 자율성 지원 수업과 자기결정이론(Self-Determination Theory)의 활용에 대해 명백한 지지를 보였다.

피드백에 대한 인식은 리커트 척도 문항을 통해 교수의 피드백이 학생들의 언어발달에 도움이 되는지, 피드백의 직접적인 결과로서 대중 연설 능력이 향상되는지, 피드백이 학생들의 대중연설 및 발표 능력을 향후 더욱 발전시킬 수 있을 것이라는 동기에 어떤 역할을 하는지에 기초하여 탐색하였다. 그 결과는 첫째, 성격유형에 관계없이(t=.373, p=.710) 대다수의 학생들(115 명 중 107 명)은 교수의 피드백이 언어발달에 도움이 된다고 생각하는 것으로 나타났다. 두번째로, 교수가 제공한 피드백이 대중 연설능력 향상에 직접적인 도움이 되는지에 대해서는 외향형 참여자들(매우 동의함 65%, 동의함 20%, 보통 15%)이 내향형 참여자들보다 더욱 긍정적으로 인식하는 것으로 드러났다. 내향형 참여자들의 응답(매우 동의함 30.7%, 동의함 33.3%, 보통 34.7%)은 상당히 균등하게 분산된 결과를 보였다. 그러나 두 집단의 차이는 통계적으로 유의미하지는 않았다(t=.833, p=.407). 세 번째 항목에서는 학생들의

참여 증가를 유도하는 동기 향상의 성공여부를 탐색하였다. 이에 대해 내향형 참여자의 절반 이상(54.7%)과 외향형 참여자의 4분의 3(75%)이 매우 동의하였으며, 나머지 학생들은 '동의' 또는 '보통'이라고 응답하였다. 여기에서도 통계적으로 유의미한 차이는 발견되지 않았다($t=.648$, $p=.519$). 질적 자료에서 나타날 수 있는 차이점을 조사하기 위해 학생들의 태도와 신념을 검토하였으나, 개방형 질문에서 드러난 의견은 양적 분석 결과를 확인시켜 주었다. 이와 같이 참여자들은 교수자의 자율성 지원 교수법의 활용, 긍정적 피드백 및 칭찬의 빈번한 제공에 대해서, 반면 직접적인 교정적 피드백의 제한에 대해 긍정적으로 인식하고 있었다.

한편, 피드백 전달 방법에 대한 객관식 문항은 종강 후 설문 문항에서 제공되었다. 선행 연구와 유사하게, 본 연구의 참여자들은 서면 피드백(written feedback, 내향형 42.7%, 외향형 57.5%)과 긍정적인 언어적 피드백 및 칭찬(내향형 52%, 외향형 60%)에 대해 뚜렷한 선호도를 나타냈다. 반면, 교정적 피드백(corrective feedback)의 수용과 지각된 가치(perceived value)는 피드백이 포괄적이고 자발적이며 집단 전체에 제공될 때 긍정적으로 받아들여졌다.

세 번째 연구 결과는 성격 유형에 관계없이 학생들이 영어 대중 연설 능력의 발달에 대해 전체적으로 만족함을 보여주었다(내향형 85.3%, 외향형 87.5%가 동의하거나 매우 동의함). 외향형 학생들($M=4.3$)이 종강 후 질적 응답에서 자신의 대중 연설 능력 발달에 대해 보다 더 긍정적으로 인식하고 있었으나, t-검정에서는 통계적으로 유의미한 차이가

발견되지 않았다(*t*=.417, *p*=.677). 본 연구의 목표는 EFL 연설과 발표 수업, 피드백/칭찬 전달의 독특한 조합에 대하여 내향형 및 외향형 학생들의 인식의 차이를 조사하는 것이었다. 그러나 MBTI 연구 및 이론에 대한 기존 연구 결과들과 유사하게, 성격 이분법에 의한 구분과 관계없이 동기 스펙트럼(motivation spectrum)에서 본질적으로 내적으로 동기 부여된 부문(the intrinsically motivated sector)에 가까운 개인이 숙달-접근 목표 지향성(mastery-approach goal orientation)을 갖는 것으로 분류될 수 있는 일치된 행동을 할 가능성이 높은 것으로 나타났다. 이러한 성격적 특성과 변인들은 고립된 개체로 연구되는 경우가 많지만, 본 연구의 결과는 학생과 교수자의 상호작용이 학생의 동기 향상 및 전반적인 수행에 훨씬 더 중요한 역할을 한다는 것을 시사한다.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The following research is a comprehensive investigation into personality types and students' perceptions of feedback in an English as a foreign language (EFL) environment. In this chapter, the background of the study will be introduced by providing a general explanation of the study, the history of English-medium instruction (EMI) in South Korea, and the importance of developing English public speaking skills for English language learners (ELLs) in Korean universities. Thereafter, the purpose of the research will be discussed with the research questions and objectives of the study. Finally, the relevant paradigms and theoretical models will be discussed before outlining the research methodology and design of the current study.

1.1. Background

Countless research has greatly contributed to the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theory and assisted in identifying the numerous variables responsible for affecting acquisition. These cognitive and affective factors, as well as external factors, include transfer from the first language (L1), comprehensible input, attitudes and perceptions, motivation, and effectiveness of instructional methods. How do these factors influence speech development? What are the effects of positive feedback on students learning in an English language classroom and why are their personality types of an important factor to be considered?

Because personality has a direct influence on human behavior and social interaction, this study further explores students' perceptions and beliefs by investigating whether or not students with contrasting personality types are affected or influenced differently in their understanding and acceptance of feedback, and whether or not their preference on the method of delivery of feedback is affected by these contrasting personality types. To date, it appears that the complexity of the realm of positive feedback and its correlation to language learning is

rarely mentioned and discussed in SLA literature. Prior studies have introduced multiple feedback techniques and attempted to recognize factors that may impact the learning process and consequently assist in identifying the most effective techniques in those situations. However, a definitive correlation between varying personality types and their acceptance of feedback, particularly in the field of EFL, has often been overlooked or completely ignored. The current research focuses specifically on positive feedback, both verbal and nonverbal, and praise, and creates a detailed framework for the delivery of feedback, while providing suggestions for developing a cultivating environment for learners.

1.2. EMIs in South Korea

As the degree of globalization continues to increase, and with the dominance of English as the global *lingua franca*, it is certain that a competent command of English, particularly spoken English, is increasingly perceived as an indispensable and necessary requirement or skill in a variety of fields, including academia, business, and diplomacy. In an effort to persevere with this global trend, many non-English speaking nations are increasingly adopting English as the medium of instruction in higher education institutions worldwide (Byun, Chu, Kim, Park, Kim, & Jung, 2011; Coleman, 2006; Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2011; Kang, 2018; Wächter & Maiworm, 2014). Not only as a vital innovative tool in the internationalization movement, but also as a means of boosting the competitiveness of institutions in an increasingly global market, universities and higher education institutions are pushing to prepare students for future business endeavors or academic pursuits in this developing environment. According to Altbach and Knight (2007), in an effort to adapt to this changing global environment, governments and educational institutions have come up with a variety of practices and policies "to cope with globalization and to reap its benefits."

Institutions of higher education are prepared to accept the global spread of English as it is closely associated with marketability. These academic institutions are increasingly becoming

more like businesses, as an emphasis on greater mobility in the global market and free trade continues to spread. Coleman (2006) points out that "the student has become the customer" and "universities are no longer institutions but brands" (p.3). Furthermore, "higher education institutions are developing a consumerist mentality which transforms education into a product exchangeable in an open market" (Mitchell & Nielsen, 2012). Thus, universities are no longer just competing within their local or national market, but now they are competing with other universities around the world. In addition to making themselves more appealing to international students, who may be unwilling to learn the local language or perceive it as unnecessary for their future endeavors, offering an education that enables domestic students the opportunity to achieve careers in the international arena has become a necessity for these universities (Altbach, 2004).

English-medium instruction (EMI) is perceived to be one of the leading strategies that has been taken to accelerate the globalization movement in higher education. Around the world, universities and governments have been promoting English as a medium of instruction in order to adapt to this competitive environment. As Kang (2018) emphasizes, offering EMI courses is essential "in order to adapt to the reality that many prominent institutions are located in English-speaking countries, many renowned academic journals are published in English, and English is the most widely spoken second and foreign language in the world" (p.34).

As can be observed in many other parts of the world, South Korean society has also placed a great social value on English. Beginning in the late 1980s, international events, such as the 1986 Asian Games and the 1988 Olympic Games, were "clinched by the Korean government as important symbolic resources for the construction of a highly specific connection between globalization, modernization, and English" (Shim & Park, 2008). This was pushed further during the Asian financial crisis of 1997, when English began to be viewed not only as a scaffold in economic development, but as a necessary means for survival in the competitive international market (Kang, 2018; Shin, 2007). The financial crisis exposed the limitations of a

"material-oriented manufacturing economy," and, as Kim and Nam (2007) point out, the Korean government's proposal to shift to a "knowledge-based economy" became one of its primary policy goals. "Participation on the global stage was imagined as necessarily mediated by the global language of English, which no doubt served as a crucial ideology for shaping the meaning of the English language in Korean society" (Shim & Park, 2008). Thus, EMIs were specifically seen as a modern necessity for several reasons – the appeal to international students interested in studying in South Korea, the increase in the prestige and reputation of universities, and as a preparation for domestic students to enter the global market.

For these reasons, as one of the most substantive developments in higher learning, many universities in South Korea have required students to complete at least one EMI course from professors who are native speakers of English (Byun, et al., 2011). Among the top technology and engineering schools of Korea (i.e., the Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (KAIST), Pohang University of Science and Technology (POSTECH), Gwangju Institute of Science and Technology (GIST), and Ulsan National Institute of Science and Technology (UNIST)), English medium instruction was the primarily language of instruction (Bolton, Ahn, Botha, & Bacon-Shone, 2023; Kim, Kweon, & Kim, 2017).Seoul National University (SNU), the top ranked university in South Korea, as a prime example of elite universities to adopt EMI programs, established a long-term development plan that revealed goals to increase the proportion of EMI courses offered at the university from 15% in 2010, to 30% in 2015, and finally to 50% in 2025. One such course offered to students is one whose curriculum and coursework focuses on learning effective speech and presentation skills and preparing English language learners (ELLs) to enter a competitive globalized world.

1.3. Public Speaking and ELLs

The process of efficaciously interacting and transmitting information from one person to another, or to a group of individuals, is a complex process with many internal and external

factors that affect the success of the delivery and acceptance of this information. There is certainly little doubt that the ability to interact and present information in a practical and personable manner to one's audience is an essential skill in a myriad of professional and social environments. Whether it be at the workplace environment or an academic setting, possessing strong competence to speak in a public forum can assist in forming connections, persuade and inspire an audience, motivate change, and guarantee further opportunities to achieve success. The ability to successfully convey information before an audience is a dynamic communicative process and is perceived as a necessary skill. Although the ability to publicly convey one's message in an effective manner to an audience is a vital form of communication, it is also one of the most dreaded forms of communication.

Effectively delivering information begins in the first few minutes of an interaction, which Hull (2016) describes as a the "two-minute rule." Perceptions and responses to those perceptions are often determined and expressed within the first two minutes of contact with the speaker. Observers will determine their appraisal based on a number of nonverbal factors (which will be discussed in greater detail in a subsequent section). These factors may include the approach of the speaker, eye contact, posture, gestures, and other nonverbal cues. Responses to these nonverbal cues may be positive or negative and will often reflect or mirror the speaker's emotions and feelings. For example, listeners may tend to express feelings of frustration and anger when a speaker discloses an exasperating experience. Similarly, a speaker who expresses excitement and joy may see similar positive attitudes in their audience. Finally, a speaker who appears to be nervous and creates an uncomfortable atmosphere will likely find those in attendance to express similar anxiety-causing behaviors and expressions.

Thus, possessing the ability to express oneself or employing the skills of persuasion is seen as a necessary attribute in a social and business-related environment, particularly in the areas of public relations, team-management, and product marketing. Likewise, addressing one's peers, or leading instructions to a group of students, is equally vital in an academic setting. The art of

delivering information in a convincing and compelling manner, while maintaining a considerate attitude when addressing an audience or client can be incredibly difficult. Eliciting intrigue, curiosity, and interest can motivate an audience to change their behavior, persuade them to take action, and inspire them to reach objectives. The words used and the delivery of that information have the power to influence one's listeners and help achieve new goals. Simply possessing that knowledge and data, without mastering public speaking, deprives the speaker of building the type of relationships with the audience, necessary in gaining their trust and effectively delivering that information. This is considerably more difficult when having to do it in a foreign language.

1.4. Statement of Purpose

The ultimate goal of this study is to explore the effects of indirect corrective feedback, autonomous teaching methods, and direct positive feedback on contrasting personality types (introversion versus extraversion). A secondary goal is to determine whether this dynamic style of teaching and feedback has a positive impact on student-performance in an EFL speech and presentation course at a South Korean university.

1.4.1. Significance of the Study

Previous research has overwhelmingly focused on error correction and the issuance of negative feedback from the teacher. The research in this particular study, on the other hand, focuses on the delivery of positive oral feedback, as well as the use of non-verbal positive feedback, through physical cues and gestures. Both forms of feedback are provided by the instructor of the course and directed toward the individual language learners with the intention of alleviating the anxiety often associated with public speaking. As will be discussed, the indirect corrective feedback with autonomy-supportive teaching paired with direct positive

verbal and nonverbal feedback is meant to motivate the students and ultimately help them develop their presentation skills, while averting undesirable mannerisms and gestures, and utilizing learned methods and techniques of delivering information in formal orations. The research into the relationship between feedback and personality types may therefore contribute greatly to the realm of behavioral psychology and pedagogy by expanding our understanding of human behavior, students' perceptions on instruction, and acceptance of feedback by providing an interpretive value to personality types through a specific focus on personality types as predictors of language development and motivation.

Throughout the comprehensive observations, the researcher focused on precise tokens of nonverbal physical cues and gestures, as well as forms of verbal affirmation and praise, provided by the instructor in response to target language and key presentation skills achieved by students. Provision of frequent feedback to content delivered by students and statistics on competence of performance support the hypothesis that the form of feedback received has a direct impact on students in an EFL environment and thus must continue to be explored for its significance in pedagogy. Due to the severe lack of focus on the cultivating nature of positive feedback in SLA literature, and the importance of successful application in the EFL classroom, the extensive research and findings of this study are significant and vital in developing the ideal environment for academic and professional growth. Therefore, through continued research and successful application of positive feedback, as presented through this research, the execution of the methods discussed could further develop the field of language instruction and teacher feedback and provide a comprehensive framework for linguistic level promotion in students' foreign language acquisition, particularly in the area of public speaking.

1.5. Research Questions

To better understand students' perceptions and beliefs on utility value, the instructor and instructional methods, and the various components related to feedback and motivation, as well

as their overall progress and satisfaction throughout the course, the following research questions are to be determined through this study:

1. What are the differences between how introverted and extraverted students perceive learning public speaking skills through an English for a Specific Purpose (ESP) course?

2. How do students with contrasting personality types perceive the instructor and instructional methods, including feedback?

3. How do students (introverted and extraverted) perceive their overall development of speech and presentation skills?

The ultimate goal of this study is to explore the relative impact of direct positive feedback, indirect corrective feedback, and autonomy-supportive teaching as potential catalysts in the learning process. Using contrasting personality types to distinguish differences in perceptions, the current study primarily focuses on students' phenomenological experiences and their performance in a university EFL speech and presentation course in South Korea.

1.6. The Paradigm Models and Research Design

The literature review, Chapter 2, will be divided into several subchapters and will present multiple paradigms, each discussing vital components of the research which lead to the development of the empirical study.

The first subchapter (Section 2.1) of the literature review will explore multiple pedagogical factors on motivation, goal orientations, and learning opportunity. These factors will be presented from a number of paradigms. The first of which is the paradigm of motivational theories, particularly the self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985). The second is the goal setting paradigms, and this explores the work of Ames (1992), Dweck (1986), Nicholls (1984), and Elliot and McGregor (2001) and their contributions to the development of the achievement

goal theory. The elements from the first literature review subchapter will contribute to the understanding of the factors involved that affect students' perceived utility value in learning English public speaking skills.

Next, the second literature review subchapter (Section 2.2) will be on feedback and will present the new paradigm of feedback (Carless, 2015) while exploring the accumulation of various forms of interaction, stimuli, and uptake, where instructor input is utilized, but also student output is prioritized. This subchapter will explore the instructor, as the primary agent of feedback, and present a detailed framework for the issuance of feedback. Delivery of feedback will follow Hattie and Timperley's feedback process paradigm (2007), while simultaneously satisfying the strategies maintained through autonomous instruction and issuance of feedback and praise using the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) paradigm (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

The third literature review subchapter (Section 2.3) will focus on personality and personality types. This literature review will be presented from the psychodynamic paradigm, particularly the neo-psychoanalytical paradigm, as was introduced by Jung (1971) and further developed by the contributions of numerous others (e.g., Berens, 2000; Fekry, Dafoulas, & Ismail, 2019; Kroeger & Thuesen, 1988; Myers, 1987; Myers & McCaulley, 1985; Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 1998). As Schultz and Schultz (2016) describe, the psychodynamic paradigm is one where human nature is reflected by a deterministic view and emphasized for its role in the unconscious influence as the conductor and shaper of behavior. Under this paradigm, the researcher will present factors that may affect the contrasting personality types and their perceptions and acceptance of various forms of feedback and praise. For the purpose of this study, the psychodynamic perspective, an approach extracted from the psychoanalytical approach introduced by Carl Jung (Jung, 1971) and categorized according to the four bipolar psychological dimensions of personality types developed by Katharine Cook Briggs and Isabel Briggs Myers (Myers, 1987) will be used for organization of participants. This approach is a positive and optimistic portrayal of human nature in which one's personality

is as the psyche, a complex network of interconnected systems interacting with each other flowing continuously and seeking harmony at all times. Personality will be defined as the distinct and enduring aspects of an individual's character which impact and influence their individual behavior throughout the various settings and circumstances of their everyday lives (Jung, 1971). The focus of this subchapter will contribute to the understanding of why students may hold specific opinions and beliefs about the methods involved.

Fourth, the chapter on methodology will be divided into three sections: the participants, the procedure, and the instruments. The section on the participants will discuss the method of collection of participants for the study, the demographics of the participants, and the demographic division of the participants into their corresponding personality groups. The section on the procedure will detail the framework of the study. It will discuss the use of pre-course survey questions, the implementation of instructional methods, the process in which various feedback and praise was delivered, and the collection of post-course data through surveys and interviews. The last section will discuss the instruments used to collect and analyze the data, as well as describe how results were analyzed and interpreted for evaluation.

The fifth chapter will present the empirical study discussing the results. Results of the study will be presented, analyzed, and discussed based on the three core sections of the research questions (utility value of learning English public speaking skills; student perceptions about the instructor, instructional methods and evaluation, and acceptance of feedback and praise; and perceptions about overall development of English speech and presentation skills). The discussion will explore and present the results of students' preferences and perceptions using quantitative data collected from the surveys, and qualitative data collected from surveys and interviews.

The final chapter will present a conclusion in three sections: a summary of the research and the findings of the study, teaching implications and suggestions for future research, and a discussion on the limitations of the study. The results of the current study will be discussed

from a functionalistic paradigm. The functionalistic paradigm is founded on the premise that society has a tangible, genuine existence with a systemic nature, which is directed to generate an ordered and regulated condition of events (Morgan, 1980). It promotes a social theory approach that focuses on understanding individuals' roles within society, where one's behavior is understood as contextually bound by real-world tangible social relationships. The results will reflect the objectives of the research questions and summarize the findings of the study. Afterwards, the researcher will discuss teaching implications in correlation with the findings of the study. Finally, the limitations of the study will be discussed.

1.7. Chapter Summary

Throughout this chapter, the researcher introduced and described the background and core elements of this study. The researcher briefly discussed the framework for the study, which will focus specifically on the delivery of positive feedback, through verbal and nonverbal methods, the use of indirect corrective feedback to the general class, and the utilization of autonomy-supportive teaching. In addition, the researcher introduced the discussion about the relevance of the research in behavioral psychology and pedagogy by emphasizing how the methods to be discussed will affect students of various personality types. The outline of the dissertation, the goals of the research, and the research design and methods were also presented in this chapter.

Chapter two will begin the literature review with an exploration into student motivation, understanding and developing of ideal goal orientations, and limitations as well as favorable circumstances for developing optimal learning opportunities.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Utility Value - Motivation, Goal Orientations, and Learning Opportunity

Section 2.1 will explore the literature related to utility value in order to create the foundation necessary for the study of Research Question #1. This section will begin by defining and examining motivation and utility value, by introducing the studies of prominent researchers in the field, such as Ryan and Deci (2000), and discussing how motivation and utility value can affect engagement in the learning process, while also existing as a predictor of motivational outcomes. This section will then explore goal orientations by discussing the achievement goal theory, specifically orientations and structures within the theory, and present the argument for the development of a learning environment which follows a mastery-goal approach, due to the overwhelming evidence proving itself as a predictor for success inside and outside of the classroom. The final portion of this section investigates and analyzes learning opportunities, particularly in the field of second language acquisition (SLA). All of the mentioned elements will contribute to the understanding of how students may perceive the utility value of the course and the subsequent instructional and feedback methods involved.

2.1.1. Learning Opportunity: Intrinsic Motivation and Utility Value

2.1.1.1. Intrinsic Motivation

Motivation continues to remain a vital construct in education with researchers continually working towards understanding the catalysts which drive individuals to work towards goals and achieve success. In their empirical studies on motivation and how it influences students' emotions, cognitions, and behaviors, Ryan and Deci (2000) argue that for the conditions of an

experience or performance to result in high-quality learning and creativity, learners must be intrinsically motivated. Intrinsic motivation is a critical inclination that exists within individuals to naturally strive to complete a task or engage in an activity for its inherent satisfaction, rather than external outcomes and remunerations, such as consequences or rewards. As Ryan and Deci (2000) point out, intrinsic motivational tendency is "a critical element in cognitive, social, and physical development because it is through acting on one's inherent interests that one grows in knowledge and skill" (p. 56). Therefore, because many of the tasks and activities that educators assign their students to participate in are not always engaging or pleasurable, understanding and developing the ability to promote an academic environment, where intrinsic learning is fostered among their students, should be the strive for all teachers.

2.1.1.2. Utility Value

It has also been observed that, in addition to pursuing a goal because it is enjoyable and, thus, an intrinsic motivator, students must also see the utility value in it, or why it is relevant to their lives. Conclusive evidence from prior studies have indicated that there is a definitive relationship between the perceptions of utility value in a task and subsequent performance. For example, Bong (2001) found that exam performance and course efficacy were both influenced by students' perceptions about the usefulness of a course and, thus, could be used to predict academic achievements. Likewise, in their research on personal relevance and its enhancement on motivation in physical education, Simons, Dewitte, and Lens (2003) discovered that by informing their participants about the usefulness of an activity and how it could assist them in achieving their future goals, students exhibited increased persistence and performance. Similarly, Malka and Covington (2005) observed that students' performance in school was predicted by the relevance of the schoolwork to their future goals.

2.1.1.3. Intrinsic Motivation and Utility Value as a Predictor of Motivational Outcomes

Numerous research has shown that student behavioral engagement is directly affected by intrinsic motivation (Rodríguez, Piñeiro, Regueiro, & Estévez, 2020; Suárez, Regueiro, Estévez, Ferradás, Guisande, & Rodríguez, 2019; Trautwein, Lüdtke, Schnyder, & Niggli, 2006; Xu, Du, & Fan, 2017; Xu, Yuan, Xu, & Xu, 2014) and the perception of utility (Cooper, Robinson, & Patall, 2006; Fan, Xu, Cai, He, & Fan, 2017; Trautwein & Köller, 2003; Trautwein, Lüdtke, Schnyder, & Niggli, 2006). The impact of these implications is pivotal in the understanding of the behavioral and motivational factors initiating academic achievement. A general increase in behavioral engagement, commitment to the task, and students' self-managing elements of the learning process, as well as the activation of attentional resources, are all contributing factors in academic achievement when students are inherently interested and intrinsically motivated (Trautwein, Lüdtke, Nagy, Lenski, Niggli, & Schnyder, 2015).

Thus, student involvement in a task or activity, their commitment to learning, and the success of their efforts are directly correlated with clear objectives and significant goals. However, these factors are also influenced by the configuration and composition of these tasks or assignments. It is absolutely necessary that tasks and assignments are designed in a manner that is challenging, though achievable, within the range of students' interests and needs, and ultimately allows for the development of one's skills and abilities. In turn, students who recognize this commitment and perceive more utility from these tasks, will ultimately spend significantly more time on the tasks (Dettmers, Lüdtke, Trautwein, Kunter, & Baumert, 2010; Fernández-Alonso, Suárez-Álvarez, & Muñiz, 2015), complete more of the same or similar tasks, utilize their time better, and academically outperform their peers who have worse perceptions of the utility of those tasks (Trautwein & Köller, 2003; Trautwein, Lüdtke, Schnyder, & Niggli, 2006; Trautwein, Schnyder, Niggli, Neumann, & Lüdtke, 2009). In addition, Cooper, Robinson, and Patall (2006) assert that the amount of homework completed may also be a clear indicator of the direct influence it has on academic achievement (Rodríguez,

Piñeiro, Regueiro, & Estévez, 2020). For academic success to positively be reflected, these tasks will need to contribute to the learning process by clearly reinforcing and consolidating the core curriculum learning, and teacher feedback will need to be modified to have the necessary impact that promotes progression in language development and encourages academic achievement.

In addition to the aforementioned studies, there has been undeniable evidence that both intrinsic value and utility value have simultaneously been linked to the prediction of motivational outcomes. These studies include decisions on course-enrollment (Harackiewicz, Durik, Barron, Linnenbrink-Garcia, & Tauer, 2008; Meece, Wigfield, & Eccles, 1990; Updegraff, Eccles, Barber, & O'Brien, 1996; Wigfield, 1994), further intensions to pursue a school-based program (Xiang, McBride, & Bruene, 2004), self-reported effort in school (Cole, Bergin, & Whittaker, 2008; Mac Iver, Stipek, & Daniels, 1991), and interest in the classroom (Durik, 2004).

In conclusion, students experiencing the intrinsic value of the course content and materials, as well as those who are recognizing the value of the course to their future endeavors, create a personal connection that may facilitate more focused attention, a greater cognitive processing, increased effort, further interest, and a subsequent pursuit in the field of study (Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000).

2.1.2. Learning Opportunity: The Achievement Goal Theory

2.1.2.1. The Achievement Goal Theory

There is considerable evidence that when performing achievement-related activities or tasks, learners' motivation, and state of involvement, how these individuals define success, and how they demonstrate these perceptions can be clearly identified using the dichotomous model of achievement goals (Smith, Cumming & Smoll, 2008). Thus, in an effort to understand

student motivation and to predict possible cognitive and achievement outcomes, it is important to begin this study by focusing on the achievement goal theory and the relationship between goal structures and goal orientations and individual success.

For over four decades, the achievement goal theory has continued to play a predominant role in the theoretical framework in achievement motivation (Urdan & Kaplan, 2020). As a social-cognitive theory on achievement motivation, the achievement goal theory utilizes elements of expectancy-value theory (Eccles, 1983), attribution theory (Weiner, 1980), and social-learning theory (Bandura, 1986). The achievement goal theory proposes that, in addition to motivation, any accomplishment-related behaviors, or conceptualizations of competence during achievement activities, could be realized when considering the reasons and purposes that students engage in academic settings (Ames, 1992; Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Nicholls, 1984; Urdan, 1997). Although prior research focused on two general purposes (e.g., Ames & Archer, 1988), the framework proposed by more recent research (e.g., Elliot, 1999; Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Pintrich, 1999; Wolters, 2004) argues four principal goal orientations: a mastery-approach, a mastery-avoidance, a performance-approach, and a performance-avoidance goal orientation. The four goal orientations and their purposes can be seen in Table 1.

TABLE 1

Principal Goal Orientations of the Achievement Goal Theory

Goal Orientation	Purpose
Mastery-Approach	Completing a task or learning a new skill for the purpose of increasing one's knowledge, developing one's ability, or satisfying one's interest and curiosity.
Mastery-Avoidance	Actively avoiding a task or the learning of a new skill because of one's perception that failure is inevitable, or mastery is impossible.
Performance-Approach	Participating in a task for the purpose of publicly demonstrating superiority and higher levels of achievement compared to their peers.
Performance-Avoidance	Actively avoiding a task or the learning of a new skill because potential failure will result in public humiliation and perceptions of incompetence among their peers.

2.1.2.2. The Achievement Goal Theory: Orientations

The Mastery-Approach

Increasing one's level of competence, overcoming obstacles and challenges, and learning as much as possible are some of the goals that students focus on when pursuing a mastery-approach goal orientation. The core objective emphasized in a mastery-approach is the expanding and increasing of knowledge, while learning new skills and developing one's ability. It is often linked with genuine curiosity and interest, persistence, positive emotions, and deep-processing learning strategies (Urdan & Kaplan, 2020). Thus, as instructors strive to foster these qualities in the learning process among their students, the mastery-approach is considered

the ideal goal orientation for learners to possess, as it is linked with self-development through intrinsic motivation.

The Mastery-Avoidance

Students with a mastery-avoidance goal orientation are described as learners whose focus is to avoid a task or the learning of a new skill due to uncertainty about one's ability to succeed. A student may adopt this approach when it is perceived that a potential inability to complete the task exists, or limitations or inadequacies could prevent them from mastering the skill. Essentially, learning new skills or completing tasks are avoided in order to evade potential or inevitable failure.

The Performance-Approach

Students whose goal is to demonstrate competence in relation to their peers, or who are interested in proving their self-worth publicly, are classified as possessing a performance-approach goal orientation. Students engage in the task with a primary goal of demonstrating a higher ability of achievement than their peers. Outperforming their peers, senses of superiority, and extrinsic motivation are all elements related to a performance-approach.

The Performance-Avoidance

Students whose core objective is to avoid appearing less capable or less adequate than other students are classified as having a performance-avoidance goal orientation. Ultimately, these students, who may lack the ability to compete with their colleagues, perform for the sole purpose of avoiding negative perceptions about their competence, particularly in relation to their peers. Students possessing a performance-avoidance goal orientation are primarily

concerned with avoiding embarrassment, shame, and public failure specifically in comparison to others. Inevitably, disengagement and negative emotions often result in low achievement among students with a performance-avoidance goal orientation.

2.1.2.3. The Achievement Goal Theory: Structures

In addition to the goal orientation of students, achievement goal theory proposes that the goal structure of an environment may affect students' motivation, cognitive engagement, and achievement within that setting (Ames & Archer, 1988). The accomplishment objectives promoted by all prevailing instruction practices and the policies within a classroom, school, or other academic settings is referred to as the goal structure. The goal structure, which includes the assignments or tasks assigned, the grading systems and procedures, the degree of autonomy students are given, and the way that students are grouped and organized, is thought to directly influence the achievement goals that students adopt (Ames, 1992; Kaplan, Middleton, Urdan, & Midgley, 2002; Wolters, 2004; Urdan, 1997). Similar to the early classification of goal orientations, goal structures are divided into two distinct categories: a mastery goal structure and a performance goal structure.

Mastery Goal Structure

A mastery goal structure is depicted as a learning environment or academic setting in which all instructional methods, policies, rules, and norms convey that learning is essential, all students are valued, working hard is vital, and that, regardless of skill, all students have the ability to succeed if they work hard (Midgley et al., 1998).

Performance Goal Structure

A performance goal structure refers to an academic setting that conveys the notion that receiving extrinsic incentives, exhibiting greater abilities, and outperforming others are all the results of being successful (Midgley et al., 1998).

2.1.2.4. Goal Structure and Commitment

When a clear understanding of goals, which are appropriately challenging, is established, teachers and students are more likely to exhibit commitment to completing the criteria necessary for success. In addition, Locke and Latham (1990) argue that goals are more effective when developing a shared commitment among students has been nurtured and built, because students are more likely to seek and receive feedback. Furthermore, an overwhelming number of studies have shown that this commitment may be induced by a diverse group of sources. These sources could be individuals, such as authority figures, role models, competitive partners, or peer groups. Though, it may also come from other sources, such as statements about rewards or incentives, threats of punishment, or general valence and instrumentality (e.g., Bandura, 1986; Carroll, Houghton, Durkin, & Hattie, 2001; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Hollenbeck, Klein, O'Leary, & Wright, 1989; Latham & Locke, 1979; Lee, Locke, & Latham, 1989). Modeling may be another effective tool in developing commitment levels. For example, Earley and Kanfer (1985) conducted a study where participants watched a video of either a high-performing student or a low-performing student completing an assignment. Students were then encouraged to create tough goals. Those who saw the high-performing student in the film benefited greatly, as they exhibited much higher levels of commitment than those who saw the low-performing role model.

2.1.2.5. Goal Structure and Students' Motivation

In an investigation into student motivation, Bandura (1982) concluded that self-efficacy, how an individual perceives his or her ability to achieve success in a specific situation, directly affects motivation. Based on these findings, is there a significant connection between understanding achievement goal theory and its relationship to motivational engagement? One such assertion that supports this notion involves students' goal orientation and experiences with self-handicapping. Self-handicapping refers to a defense technique, where the individual either chooses simple or meaningless tasks, as a favorable outcome is easily achievable, or avoids challenging endeavors because success if doubtful. The possibilities of accepting credit for accomplishing the said tasks or excusing failure are, therefore, increased. The process of self-handicapping is a performance response, often developed by an individual as a method of self-protection from esteem-threatening situations (Curtis, 1994).

In studies conducted in respect to personal goal orientations (Midgley & Urdan, 1995; Midgley, Arunkumar & Urdan, 1996), it was discovered that a performance-goal orientation was linked to higher reported levels of self-handicapping, whereas a mastery-goal orientation was not. In their research on learning goals and perceived abilities, Miller, Greene, Montalvo, Ravindran, and Nichols (1996) found that secondary students who expressed a greater mastery goal orientation reported greater effort and perseverance.

Similarly, Wolters (2003) reported a link between university students with a performance-goal orientation and procrastination, a specific self-handicapping strategy. Students, who perceived their course objectives to lack a focus on mastery goals, believed that their classroom lacked an emphasis on learning and improving their abilities, and, thus, reported more frequent instances of procrastination. In a subsequent study on using goal structures and goal orientations to predict students' motivation, cognition, and achievement, Wolters (2004) observed adolescents in a secondary school math course. Students exhibited a higher commitment to learning, procrastinated less frequently, and were more willing to pursue

additional mathematics classes in the future. This research provided further novel evidence linking motivational engagement, procrastination, and goal structures.

2.1.2.6. Mastery-Approach Goals and Motivation

Perception of the value in participating in an activity is a key contributor in the motivation and progression of interest. It is evident that, according to the achievement goal perspective, the mental representations of an individual's competence, abilities, and possibilities of achievement are heavily reliant on the orientation that they adapt. Based on prior research, a mastery-approach goal has indicated and even predicted various motivational variables, such as an increase in classroom interest, effort, persistence, and subsequent perseverance (Ames & Archer, 1988; Harackiewicz, Barron, Tauer, & Elliot, 2002; Lee, Sheldon, & Turban, 2003; Elliot, McGregor, & Gable, 1999; Midgley, Kaplan, & Middleton, 2001; Pintrich, 1999; Wolters, Yu, & Pintrich, 1996). Adapting a mastery-approach provides individuals with the ability to genuinely explore an activity and the opportunity for knowledge to be cultivated, because learning and improvement are the focal point in the teaching methodology, not the product of the instruction. Students are able to concentrate on the process and focus on the learning experience, rather than the outcome of such task engagement (Renninger & Hidi, 2002). This coincides with the supported opinions and findings of Flum and Kaplan (2006) and their research on the developmental benefits of orientation goals in education. Students' motivation, persistence of efforts, and subsequent interest and engagement in the task may be refined through this experiencing of intrinsic and utility value. Consequently, the mastery-goals approach may also become a predictor of students' perceptions on task value and ensuing interest and performance (Rawsthorne & Elliot, 1999). A mastery-goal approach has even been linked to success outside of the classroom environment with learners of sports. In a comparative study that sought to explore the relationship between achievement with students in the classroom and athletes in sports camps, Hulleman, Durik, Schweigert, and Harackiewicz

(2008) found that both students and athletes performed better when their respective tasks were found to be personally meaningful and useful to their future. Promotion in interest and performance was synergistically achieved with the opportunity to find intrinsic and utility value in their tasks.

Therefore, the findings of prior research on goal structures support that, in addition to being a key predictor in motivational and strategy-use outcomes, an adoption of a mastery goal orientation is positively correlated with promotion of students' interest, motivation, use of learning techniques, performance, and accomplishment of objectives. The integration of a mastery-approach in expectancy-value models has identified patterns of positive goal effects and demonstrated optimal motivation.

2.1.3. Section 2.1. Conclusion: Utility Value

Section 2.1 was devoted to the exploration and investigation of motivation, goal orientations, and SLA learning opportunities in order to analyze the various theoretical paradigms that contribute to student motivation and utility value. Because teachers strive to assist their students in developing a mastery-goal orientation, positive perceptions of the value in any task or course content are seen as vital in increasing curiosity, effort, tenacity, and eventual perseverance in the classroom and producing naturally intrinsically motivated learners. Students who identify the intrinsic value of course materials and content and recognize the value of the course to their future endeavors, develop a mastery-goal approach, where personal connection leads to increased attentiveness and care, better cognitive processing, greater determination and effort, increased interest, and a possible subsequent pursuit in that field of study. Section 2.2 will be a comprehensive examination of feedback and praise.

2.2. Feedback

Section 2.2 will be an extensive and thorough investigation into feedback and praise. Acknowledged as one of the most critical components of great instruction, high-quality feedback has been seen as an imperative tool in pedagogy and language learning. This section begins with a look at teachers' expectations and self-fulfilling prophecies, and the use of feedback. The literature will then introduce the significant role that feedback has in education, before exploring the feedback process (i.e., the source of the feedback, the mode of the feedback, the content of the feedback, and the occasion when it is presented) using Hattie and Timperley's Model for Effective Feedback (2007). The next section examines the intended focus of the feedback (i.e., feedback about the task, feedback about the processing of the task, feedback about self-regulation, and feedback about the self). Next, the researcher will present the advantages and disadvantages of utilizing negative feedback and positive feedback in the classroom, based on the findings of prior research and pedagogical theories. Afterwards, a comprehensive chart on positive and negative nonverbal feedback will be provided and closely examined. Such a thorough examination into the research of nonverbal communication has never been organized and presented in any prior research. Finally, the chapter will close with a section on the appropriateness and delivery of various forms of feedback and praise.

2.2.1. Public Speaking Anxiety and Feedback

As discussed in Section 1, the public speaking process, which demands effective communication and delivery of information before an audience, is a complicated and dynamic communicative process. The capacity to convey information to one's audience in a practical and personable manner is a necessary skill in a myriad of professional and social settings. Unfortunately, because the fear of public speaking is a common communication-based anxiety, it is also one of the most dreaded forms of communication. Public speaking anxiety is a "situation-specific social anxiety that arises from the real or anticipated enactment of an oral

presentation" (Bodie, 2010, p. 72). Based on the findings of prior research, the high levels of anxiety associated with public speaking has resulted in a variety of negative consequences including poor decision-making (Beatty, 1988a; Beatty & Clair, 1990), poor speech preparation (Daly, Vangelisti, & Weber, 1995), and poor performance (Beatty & Behnke, 1991; Menzel & Carrell, 1994).

Presenters in a public speaking forum may often experience various episodes of public speaking anxiety, including physiological concomitants (e.g., increased heart rate and dilated pupils), physical behavioral responses (e.g., trembling body), and instances of negative self-focused cognitions (e.g., feelings of doubt, shame, and incompetence) during the expected or actual presentations (Bodie, 2010; Daly, McCroskey, Ayres, Hopf, & Ayres, 1997). Frequent public speaking anxiety has also been known to have a long-lasting impact on the speaker (Behnke & Sawyer, 1999; Sawyer & Behnke, 1997) and cause the speakers to become apathetic and demotivated (Beatty & Behnke, 1980; McCroskey & Beatty, 1984; McCroskey, Ralph, & Barrick, 1970).

According to Kelly (1997), specific elements of public speaking can be improved through techniques known as skills training (ST). Programs which incorporate ST are meant to help learners overcome obstacles in topic selection, organizational practices, and vocal, as well as nonverbal, delivery of information when presenting a speech or presentation (Hopf & Ayres, 1992; Watson, 1983; Whitworth & Cochran, 1996). In particular, Whitworth and Cochran (1996) emphasize that teaching these skills "reduces the ambiguity of the public speaking situation by providing knowledge and techniques necessary for effective public speaking" (p. 308).

How can instructors remedy the anxiety that learners of public speaking experience? Some research has suggested that the simple repetitiveness of practicing for a speech may help in the reduction of public speaking anxiety (e.g., Menzel & Carrell, 1994), while other research argues that speakers that suffer from public speaking anxiety do not utilize preparation time

effectively (Ayres, 1996). Other research has suggested that instructors utilize a variety of instructional techniques which focus on providing assignment structure as students prepare for their presentations (Daly & Buss; 1984; Daly, Vangelisti, Neel, & Cavanaugh, 1989; Daly, Vangelisti, & Weber, 1995), though this too was argued to only be effective for highly apprehensive students (Booth-Butterfield, 1986). Of the most common instructional techniques to be suggested in the reduction of public speaking anxiety has been in the presence of an encouraging and supportive audience (Beatty, 1988b) and/or instructor (Robinson, 1997). As Bodie (2010) points out, a vital technique for creating a more supportive environment for learners with public speaking anxiety is the use of appropriate feedback.

2.2.2. Teachers' Expectations and Self-Fulfilling Prophecies

By providing appropriate challenges, clarifying specific goals, and enhancing commitment through feedback, teachers strive to reduce the gap between actual performance and the intended objective in a variety of ways. However, there is a concern that must be reflected on. That is, instances of teachers' inaccurate achievement expectations resulting in a self-fulfilling prophecy. Prior research has shown that teacher expectations may be perceived as powerful predictors of future achievement among students (Gentrup, Lorenz, Kristen, & Kogan, 2020; Jussim, 1986; Ready & Chu, 2015). Inaccurate expectations, biased opinions, and differentiated treatment has resulted in mixed results within the same classroom.

Many authors agree with Jussim, Robustelli, and Cain (2009) that self-fulling prophecies in the classroom occur and follow a sequence of three major steps: (1) inaccurate expectations are formed by teachers; (2) teachers treat higher- and lower-expectancy students differently based on these expectations; (3) students naturally react to the differential treatment in a manner which confirms the teachers' initial expectations. Thus, lower-expectancy students achieve lower gains, whereas higher-expectancy students achieve greater gains. In other words, low

expectations may stifle students' development, but high expectations may promote learning opportunities and ultimately lead to larger accomplishment increases.

Under this assumption a four-factor model was presented. The model, which was first proposed by Rosenthal (1974), and then empirically evaluated by Harris and Rosenthal (1985) in their meta-analysis on expectancy research, was used by Jussim, Robustelli, and Cain (2009) to explain how teachers' expectations affect student behavior and learning outcomes. In their research on teacher expectations and self-fulling prophecies, it is noted that, first, the input provided by teachers may differ. Teachers, for example, may explain topics to lower-expectancy students in a less difficult manner than to higher-expectancy students. Next, teachers may give varied chances for their pupils to create output based on their expectations. Teachers are inclined to call on the lower-expectancy students less frequently than the higher-expectancy students. Then, the teachers' expectations may have an impact on their feedback, which may be less positive, constructive, and helpful for the lower-expectancy students than the higher-expectancy students. Last, interactions between the teachers and the students may be less pleasant, warm, and polite for lower-expectancy students than the higher-expectancy students.

From a pedagogical perspective, it is necessary to be aware of the abilities and limitations of our learners and, as such, goals should complement the possibility of completion of these tasks rather than dictate what the teacher desires. Thus, based on this evidence, emphasis should be placed on formative high-quality feedback so that teachers may concentrate on offering supportive feedback to all of their students, regardless of the level of success that teachers perceive or expect from their pupils.

2.2.3. Feedback in Education

The learning process is cultivated by the evaluation of information. Responses and reactions to particular activities or processes are carried out to signal whether the aforementioned activity or process is deemed correct. These responses or reactions are broadly referred to as feedback and the provision of effective and high-quality feedback has continuously been recognized as one of the key elements of quality teaching (Astin, 1991; Black & Wiliam, 1998; Hounsell, 1987; Ramsden, 2003; Rowe & Wood, 2008).

In both behaviorist and cognitive theories of L2 learning, the role of feedback has been pivotal in contributing to language learning – ensuring linguistic development and accuracy, while increasing student motivation. Educational research has supported the importance of teachers' feedback on student learning (Dean, Hubbell, Pitler, & Stone, 2012) and, for the enhancement of student learning, has been empirically identified as being one of the most crucial instructional practices in academia. In his research, which spanned 15 years and included over 800 meta-analyses relating to achievement, Hattie (2009) identified high-quality feedback as among the top ten investigated instructional practices. Hattie and Timperley's Model for Effective Feedback (2007) can be seen in Figure 1.

Purpose
To reduce discrepancies between current understandings/performance and a desired goal

The discrepancy can be reduced by:
Students
- Increased effort and employment of more effective strategies *OR*
- Abandoning, blurring, or lowering the goals
Teachers
- Providing appropriate challenging and specific goals
- Assisting students to reach them through effective learning strategies and feedback

Effective feedback answers three questions
Where am I going? (the goals)   Feed Up
How am I going?   Feed Back
Where to next?   Feed Forward

Each feedback question works at four levels:

Task level
How well tasks are understood/performed

Process level
The main process needed to understand/perform tasks

Self-regulation level
Self-monitoring, directing, and regulating of actions

Self level
Personal evaluations and affect (usually positive) about the learner

FIGURE 1

Model for Effective Feedback

2.2.4. Student Learning and Feedback

When questioned about possible various sources of information in regard to their own levels of accomplishment in school, students primarily mentioned teacher feedback as a core indication of their success in task completion (Weinstein, 1983). Because effective teaching does not only involve imparting knowledge and information to students, simply assessing or evaluating their performance cannot be adequate in a cultivating academic setting. Hattie and Timperley (2007) describe three core questions that teachers, or students themselves, should

consider and ask themselves when giving or receiving feedback: (1) Where am I going (i.e., What is the goal of a related task or performance?), (2) How am I going (i.e., How can achieving this goal be accomplished?), and (3) Where to next (i.e., What is the next step in the process to accomplishing the said goal?).

2.2.4.1. Where Am I Going?

Feedback is crucial because it informs students and teachers about the achievement of learning goals connected to the task or performance, and judgement on the attainment of these goals can occur on many levels. Judgment may be direct, such as the passing of an exam or completion of an assignment; it may be comparative in nature, recognizing improvements between previous attempts or evaluating oneself in relation to their classmates or peers; social, such as avoiding punishment or detention, or seeking teacher or peer approval; engagement-related, by participating in group or sport activities; or merely intrinsic in nature, such as for pure enjoyment or for seeking more challenging tasks. The final form of judgement may be directly associated with the adoption and integration of a mastery goal orientation, which, as previously noted, is linked to the enhancement of students' interest, performance, and optimal motivation. Bargh, Gollwitzer, Lee-Chai, Barndollar, and Trötschel (2001) discovered that cooperation on a task and a strive for goal achievement was promoted, even in the presence of other desirable alternatives. Furthermore, the establishment of such goals creates the intrinsic conditions necessary for further, ongoing learning.

2.2.4.2. How Am I Going?

The next question that should be asked is 'How am I going?' and this should provide details and methods about the process necessary for goal achievement to be accomplished. The instructor, a peer, oneself, or even the task itself offer information in relation to the objectives

of a task or performance. This is frequently accomplished by emphasizing an expected standard, referencing, or comparing with, a previous performance, and/or revealing or calling attention to the success (or failure) on a particular component of the task at hand. In essence, for the feedback to be effective, it must consist of information about the student's progress and should provide details about how to proceed.

2.2.4.3. Where to Next?

As students continue progressing through the lessons, guided by feedback, a final question in the process must be asked – "Where to next?" The unfortunate response that often answers that question is "more." As teachers provide frequent knowledge, assignments, or learning intents, students undertake more tasks, are provided with more information, and are faced with more challenges and greater expectations. However, the power of feedback may be leveraged to precisely address this concern by delivering information that leads to intrinsic value and higher learning opportunities. Such opportunities may include greater obstacles, increased self-regulation of the learning process, increased fluency and automaticity, additional techniques or strategies for working on tasks, deeper knowledge and understanding, and more information about what is and is not comprehended. This feedforward question has the potential to have some of the most profound effects on learning.

2.2.4.4. Integration of the Three Questions

The focus of the feedback and the integration of the three questions should ultimately work together, rather than in isolation. It is critically important to recognize that that the three questions and the effectiveness of the feedback is unequivocally influenced by the focus of the feedback which it is directed at. In the end, the power of feedback comes from its ability to

narrow or close the gap between where students are and where they ultimately want to be (Sadler, 1989).

2.2.5. The Focus of Feedback

It is certainly evident that based on prior research, feedback is critical. However, the focus of the feedback is equally as vital in its influence on the learning process. Hattie and Timperley (2007) claimed that there are four major levels and that when feedback is directed at one of these four levels, the effectiveness of the feedback varies. These four levels are feedback about the task, feedback about the processing of the task, feedback about self-regulation, and feedback about the self. The focus of the feedback, with the purpose and an example of each level is provided in Table 2.

TABLE 2

The Focus of Feedback (Purposes and Examples)

Focus of the Feedback	Purpose	Example
Feedback about the Task	Feedback which is provided to a learner about whether or not a task or product has been accomplished or performed correctly. This feedback may include instructions to seek and obtain additional, different, or accurate information.	"In the body paragraph of your essay, you need to provide more supporting details, such as facts and statistics, examples, and explanations, to better support your topic sentence."
Feedback about the Processing of the Task	Feedback which is directed towards the process of creating a product or completing a task. Feedback is related to information regarding the relationship with the environmental factors, the perceptions of a person, and the correlation between the person's perception of the environment	"You need to make the main idea of your essay clearer for your reader by including a direct thesis statement at the end of the introductory paragraph."
Feedback about Self-Regulation	Feedback which promotes stronger skills in self-evaluation and the confidence necessary to, ideally, intrinsically further engage in a task. It focuses on how students monitor, guide, and regulate their behaviors or actions in relation to learning goals.	"You already know that you should never use first-person pronouns in academic writing. Check to see that your body paragraphs do not include pronouns such as '*I*' or '*my*'."
Feedback about the Self	Feedback which is directed toward the self in the form of broad and overgeneralized statements that are positive expressions of evaluations.	"Well done on that great response" or "You are a great student."

2.2.5.1. Feedback about the Task

The first focus of feedback is about the task or product and may address whether the task is being accomplished or performed correctly, or address whether the product of the task itself is correct or incorrect. It may seek to acquire additional or alternative information or build on the learner's knowledge. The feedback may include instructions to seek and obtain additional, different, or accurate information. One such example of this would be the instructor of an academic writing course directing a student by saying, "In the body paragraph of your essay, you need to provide more supporting details, such as facts and statistics, examples, and explanations, to better support your topic sentence."

Feedback, which is specifically related to the task, may be conceived by the instructor through various dimensions of evaluation, including numerical notations and written observations, criticisms, or suggestions; individual or group performance; and feedback of varying complexities, such as high to low. Based on the findings of Balzer, Doherty, and O'Connor (1989), simple, rather than complex, feedback about the task performance appears to be both more beneficial and effective. In addition, although the feedback may be delivered and received in either individual or group situations, when delivered to the group, it may be perceived as more relevant as it allows each individual to interpret and reflect on the feedback to their own individual performance, the performances of other members of the group, or as relating to the group's performance as a whole. Certainly, varying levels of commitment and involvement will affect the validity and effectiveness of the feedback.

Feedback about the task is generally classified as corrective feedback due to its remedial nature in which it seeks to correct some aspect of the product of a task. This may be problematic, because, as Thompson (1998) points out, due to the nature of the feedback, when the focus of the feedback is about the task, progression is only demonstrated to that specific task. In other words, it does not generalize to other tasks. Furthermore, Winne and Butler (1994) stressed that the benefits of feedback about the task are heavily dependent on the learner's (a)

attentiveness to the varying importance of the feedback information while studying the task, (b) ability to accurately remember the features when, at the task's conclusion, outcome feedback is provided, and (c) ability to be sufficiently strategic to generate effective internal feedback about the numerous predictive validities (e.g., which of the factors may have boosted my performance?).

Nevertheless, according to the findings of Airasian (1997), approximately 90% of teachers' questions, both written and oral, are targeted towards this level of feedback. Moreso, the following meta-analyses found substantial effects and support the power of corrective feedback: Lysakowski and Walberg (1982), Tenenbaum and Goldring (1989), and Walberg (1982) reported significant results demonstrating that processing and self-regulation undoubtedly rely on having correct information.

2.2.5.2. Feedback about the Processing of the Task

The second focus of feedback is specifically about the processes underlying the task. When the focus of the feedback is about the processing of the task, it may be understood that the feedback is directed towards the process of creating a product or completing a task. In other words, it is more directly focused on the information processing, which requires comprehension and completion of the task. For example, the teacher may encourage the student to revise their writing by using the strategies learned in a previous lesson (e.g., "Remember, you need to make the main idea of your essay clearer for your reader by including a direct thesis statement at the end of the introductory paragraph.").

This feedback is related to information regarding the relationship with the environmental factors, the perceptions of a person, and the correlation between the person's perception of the environment (Balzer, Doherty, & O'Connor, 1989). Because a superficial understanding of the concept of learning necessarily entails the acquisition, storage, replication, and application of

knowledge for developing and constructing feedback about the processing of the task, there is a greater connection to the cognitive processes involved and, therefore, scaffolds the transference to other new and challenging tasks (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Marton, Dall'Alba, & Beaty, 1993; Purdie, Hattie, & Douglas, 1996; Watkins & Regmi, 1992; Watkins, Regmi, & Astilla, 1991). In relation to goal setting, Earley, Northcraft, Lee, and Lituchy (1990) asserted that the utilization of feedback about the processing of the task in conjunction with goal setting appeared to be a powerful direct means of molding the individual's task strategy, whereas feedback that focuses on the results and outcome tend to be far less efficient. This was previously supported by Balzer, Doherty, and O'Connor (1989) who had pointed out the superiority of processing feedback at the task level being far more effective in enhancing deeper learning.

2.2.5.3. Feedback about Self-Regulation

The third focus of feedback may be at the self-regulation level, which promotes stronger skills in self-evaluation and the confidence necessary to, ideally, intrinsically further engage in a task. As previously noted, commitment, self-management, and confidence all play a vital role in self-regulation. Self-regulation focuses on how students monitor, guide, and regulate their behaviors or actions in relation to learning goals. An example of this self-regulated feedback would be if the teacher were to say, "You already know that you should never use first-person pronouns in academic writing. Check to see that your body paragraphs do not include pronouns such as '*I*' or '*my*'."

Through the promotion of self-discipline, self-direction, and self-control, achievement is denoted through independence. As Zimmerman (2000) notes, the process of self-regulation is a process through which self-generated ideas, feelings, and behaviors are meticulously organized and cyclically altered in an effort to achieve personal goals. This, in turn, can lead to the need for, acceptance of, and accommodation of feedback information.

Furthermore, such feedback may have a significant impact on students' self-efficacy, self-regulation abilities, and their self-beliefs as learners. Learners are encouraged or instructed on how to continue with an activity or task effortlessly and efficiently. With the feedback as a catalyst, self-assessment strategies may prove to be crucial in how powerfully the information is interpreted and accepted. Paris and Winograd (1990) identified two key facets involved with self-assessment: self-appraisal and self-management. Self-appraisal relates to the ability of the learners to use self-monitoring approaches and processes to examine and assess their abilities, knowledge states, and cognitive strategies. Self-management involves the monitoring and regulation of students' subsequent behavior through detailed planning and consistent error correction, and the use of careful corrective strategies. Students equipped with this self-awareness and the metacognitive skills to assess their performance on a task, may evaluate their levels of comprehension, effort and techniques utilized on tasks, attributions and judgments of others about their performance, and improvement in connection to their objectives and expectations (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

2.2.5.4. Feedback about the Self

The fourth and final focus of the feedback may be directed to the self. Such personal feedback may include comments, such as "Well done on that great response" or "You are a great student," and it typically expresses positivity. Though they are broad and overgeneralized statements about the students – they are positive expressions of evaluations (Brophy, 1981). These positive evaluations, however, are often about the student rather than the task, which Hattie and Timperley (2007) point out is "rarely converted into more engagement, commitment to the learning goals, enhanced self-efficacy, or understanding about the task" (p. 96).

There is certainly a demand for recognition and praise. According to research on students' attitudes towards rewards and praise in a secondary school, Sharpe (1985) reported that 26% of adolescent students preferred to receive praise publicly and loudly, 64% preferred to be praised

quietly and privately, and only 10% of students preferred the teacher not say anything at all when the students achieved on an academic task successfully.

Thus, when students do learn and understand the necessary strategies for completing a task effectively, then feedback about the self as a person could have a positive impact on the learning process in terms of students' efforts and engagement in the task. There is also a direct positive correlation with their own feelings of self-efficacy, which may result in enhanced performance. Examples of this may be observed when the praise is directed towards the process, their efforts, their self-regulation, and their engagement in the task performance (e.g., "You're a wonderful student because you completed this task diligently by applying the methods we discussed in class and following the criteria outlined in the grading rubric.").

Research on elementary students' preferences on the target of the feedback or praise found that an overwhelming majority of students preferred praise for their efforts rather than their actual ability (Burnett, 2002; Elwell & Tiberio, 1994). Kohn (1993) addresses this factor in the discussion of praise by emphasizing that positive feedback need not be praised as it should focus on what the student does, while being specific about how well the task was completed. This is known as informational feedback and Kohn argues that this feedback is an essential element of the educational process. Students need to be aware if their actions have satisfied the requirements of a task. Kohn cites Brophy (1981), stating that feedback about students' classroom conduct and academic progress are essential to students, but actual praise is not necessary in order to master curriculum, acquire acceptable student role behaviors, or develop healthy self-concepts (p. 107).

2.2.6. The Feedback Process

Previous research by Rucker & Thomson (2003) involving the feedback process identified several constructs including the source of the feedback (instructors and peers), the mode of the

feedback (how it is presented), the content of the feedback (what type of information or response is conveyed), and the occasion (when it is presented). Additionally, these constructs are harmoniously effective when presented in a manner that is sensitive to student learning styles, is clear with identifying strengths and weaknesses, contains suggestions for improvements in future tasks, and is constructive, as well as motivating (Carpentier & Mageau, 2013; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Liu, Liu, & Zhang, 2021; Mouratidis, Lens, & Vansteenkiste, 2010; Parikh, McReelis & Hodges, 2001; Rowe & Wood, 2008, Rucker & Thomson, 2003).

2.2.6.1. The Source of the Feedback

Feedback is conceptualized as a "consequence of performance" and can occur from a multitude of agents, including teachers, parents, other students, books, or even oneself and their experiences (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Both teachers and parents may provide corrections based on their prior experiences, knowledge, or encouragement; students or peers may provide alternative strategies learned; books may provide information or clarification of ideas; and self-reflection allows a learner to reflect on their experiences or information provided to assess the correctness of a response. Although teachers may not always recognize the positive impact it has on students, the assessment feedback provided is crucial in education (Armitage & Deeprose, 2004). Feedback can be beneficial to both students and teachers, as teachers can use feedback to establish each individual students' learning preferences, recognize strengths and weaknesses in a given area, and provide the information and feedback necessary to assist the learner through direct instruction. As a result, students will achieve more if teachers use the appropriate feedback to assist students' development through modified instructional practices.

2.2.6.2. The Mode of the Feedback

Feedback is meant to enable learners with the ability to recognize inaccuracies they have made, to negotiate with the language, and to generate a new modified output with the correct language use. Yet, at the forefront of research on feedback is the debate on an ideal mode of feedback, or how it should be presented to the learner. Feedback may be presented in various modes including verbal feedback, nonverbal feedback, written feedback, visual feedback, and may be formal or informal in structure, source, and occasion.

Verbal feedback, and nonverbal feedback (which will be discussed in greater length in a subsequent section), are the most common modes of feedback as they are often provided immediately and face-to-face. Written feedback is, as its name suggests, provided in some written form, such as a comment on a document or assignment, an email or a text message, or some other form of written correspondence. Visual feedback, which is effective in explaining complex information, processes, and data, is a form of feedback that utilizes visual aids, such as graphs, charts, images, videos, or digital presentations. Despite substantial research on feedback, there remains a lack of empirical evidence supporting the use of only one ideal mode of feedback.

2.2.6.3. The Content of the Feedback

Feedback is often corrective and strives to push the learner to modify the output they produce. It provides useful information about one's own performance and how well they are doing at achieving the goals of the task. Particularly for the cognitively-minded scholars, Mackey (2006) states that feedback in the realm of language acquisition, "prompts learners to notice L2 forms" and ultimately promotes L2 learning. Feedback and its importance in the field of education has been discussed extensively throughout academic literature (Jussim, Soffin, Brown, Ley, & Kohlhepp, 1992; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Liu, Liu, & Zhang, 2021; Rowe &

Wood, 2008; Sansone, 1989). Inarguably, scholars agree that teachers' feedback remains one of the key elements to heavily influence the teaching and learning process.

Considering its function in the academic setting, feedback has a pivotal role in the fundamental theories on pedagogy and, more specifically, language acquisition. According to Selinger (1983), feedback is a clear response to a learner's speech; emphasizing whether the target language was conveyed correctly and understood by the receiver. Gass and Selinker (2008) similarly explain that feedback, in addition to being a crucial source of negotiation of meaning and information for learners, also provides them with further opportunities to continue focusing on production of the language. This negotiation occurs because of the correctional function of implicit feedback (Gass & Varonis, 1989; Pica, Holliday, Lewis, & Morgenthaler, 1989). By receiving feedback, learners are made aware of linguistic errors and utterances, encouraged to negotiate with the language, and finally, equipped with the opportunity to produce the correct modified response (Ellis, 2009; Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013).

Prior research has also found that feedback may also elicit students to naturally accomplish self-correction in the future (Milla & Mayo, 2014; Shiva, Mohammad, & Sajjad, 2015). Literature published on student awareness on the value of feedback has shown that students value feedback and are aware of its importance to the achievement of learning outcomes (Higgins, Hartley, & Skelton, 2002; Hyland, 2000; Rowe & Wood, 2008; Weaver, 2006). There are other dimensions, which must be considered about the provisions of feedback.

The feedback provided must be of high quality; specific, task-oriented, and related to students' learning goals. Providing students with specific learning goals is more successful than generic or non-specific goals, partly because they narrow students' attention and focus and ultimately provide for more targeted feedback (Latham & Locke, 1979). Goals and accompanying feedback are also more likely to provide information regarding the success criterion necessary for achievement than more generic goals. Hattie and Timperley (2007)

suggest that such feedback must assess student performance in order to achieve those objectives, while advising students on how to proceed for future success.

Thus, feedback is seen as crucial by both instructors and students and is conveyed to learners in an effort to modify behavior and performance in relation to expectations. In structural and communicative approaches, feedback is vital in contributing to the language learning process, and is known to develop or ensure linguistic accuracy, as well as help foster learner motivation. Instructors rely on feedback to ensure that learners of a language are accurately maintaining interactional flow and effectively relaying information with clarity and precision.

Teachers undoubtedly play a major role in the lives of their students. In addition to representing important authority figures, they also embody the roles of motivators, role models, confidants, and counselors. The words and actions of teachers have a profound impact on their learners' cognitive and emotional development, as well as the learners' behavior and performance. As such, the feedback they provide must carefully consider the impact it may have on their students, as its conveyance has a direct impact on the behavior and performance in correspondence to an instructor's expectations. In addition, the feedback provided by teachers may influence learning efficacy and affect student communicative interactivity.

Particularly in the EFL environment, where peer-to-peer or student-teacher communication is seen as an absolute necessity for language development, feedback discourse promotes certain pragmatic strategies for increasing student interactivity; allowing comprehensible input and creating opportunities to produce output. These are essential in the teaching of a foreign language and aid in determining the effectiveness of language development. Acceptance of feedback coincides with acceptance of comprehensible input and creates opportunities for students to participate and engage in language learning. As language instructors, Liu, Liu, and Zhang (2021) emphasize that "English teachers should focus not on what we should teach, but on the conditions for promoting foreign language learning and how to create these conditions in

the English language classroom." Therefore, feedback strategies are of vital importance in improving students' communicative competence.

2.2.6.4. The Occasion of the Feedback

The occasion of the feedback is the fourth and last construct in the feedback process. Hattie and Timperley (2007) emphasize that "teachers need to make appropriate judgements about when, how, and at what level to provide appropriate feedback" for the feedback to be effective. It is critical that students recognize and welcome any constructive criticism as an essential and cultivating element in the learning process. For educators, there is often an internal struggle about the most appropriate and most effective point in time to deliver feedback without hurting students' feelings and demotivating them from proceeding in an interaction, while also making sure not to delay the feedback to the point that errors will remain unresolved, and fossilization may occur. Cunningham (2000) emphasizes that small variations in initial conditions may create large differences in outcomes. For example, a small deficiency in understanding a mathematical principle in elementary school could have a great impact that results in failure of a high school algebra class. Nevertheless, simply providing feedback, without careful consideration about the nature, manner, and timing in which students receive this feedback, could be detrimental as students may misinterpret the intent and value of the feedback.

Recognizing when students receive feedback is the key to developing their skills, as the acceptance of information and further engagement in the lesson is futile for invoking positive results in the classroom and providing rich learning opportunities. The complex model of the occasion of feedback is certainly difficult to understand as contrasting occasions of feedback, immediate vs delayed, have been researched extensively to determine their benefits on accuracy, academics, and language acquisition with no clear solution.

On one hand, researchers have argued that feedback should be provided promptly and contextually, as an immediate response to the learner's utterance. Frequent, consistent, and instant feedback helps the students to overcome their mistakes and improve their skills. Jussim, Robustelli, and Cain (2009) argue that if the feedback is not offered regularly or is limited in information, students may be unaware that they have not fully understood the content nor mastered the materials and must continue working towards improving their abilities. This immediate feedback, however, has been proven to be effective in certain aspects of language learning, though detrimental in others.

For example, King, Young, and Behnke (2000) explored the efficacy of using immediate and delayed feedback, and how that feedback affected subsequent performances on tasks that had varying information processing requirements. Although immediate feedback was effective when automatic processing occurred, the researchers found that delayed feedback was more beneficial in producing greater change with tasks that required deliberate and effortful processing.

Mason and Redmon (1993) researched how immediate versus delayed feedback affected the accuracy of error detection. When time was limited, individuals who received immediate feedback had greater results than their counterparts who received delayed feedback, though the difference was significantly less in a self-paced environment. Similarly, Dihoff, Brosvic, Epstein, and Cook (2004) found that immediate feedback, rather than delayed feedback, increased students' ability for identifying initially correct and incorrect responses. However, prior research identified this to be detrimental to overall development of the skills necessary for successful performance once feedback was withdrawn (Schmidt, Young, Swinnen, & Shapiro, 1989). In addition, because immediate feedback competes for working memory resources, crucial information for recollection accumulation is ejected from retention (Schooler & Anderson, 1990). This too was witnessed in previous research by Sweller (1988), who suggested that there are negative effects, as learning is impaired because the processing of

feedback competes for limited cognitive resources. As feedback disrupts problem-solving skills, it demands the setting of new goals, and previous goals may be lost due to reliance on subsequent feedback. Thus, relevant information is forced out of working memory and acquisition of knowledge and understanding is diminished.

In relation to information taught in a series of lessons, the effectiveness of immediate and delayed feedback, and its function on varied degrees of difficulty of test items, was explored by Clariana, Wagner, and Roher Murphy (2000). They found that delayed feedback is not necessary on easy items because they do not require much processing and, thus, could be beneficial on feedback about the task. However, delayed feedback is more powerful because difficult items require greater degrees of processing about the task. Furthermore, when students received immediate or delayed feedback, superior memory performance and greater success was attributed to those students who received delayed feedback, based on the assessments and results of their final exams on vocabulary learning and retention (Metcalfe, Kornell, & Finn, 2009).

In conclusion, based on the findings of these various studies, research has shown that, though providing immediate feedback can be beneficial for short-term evaluations and assessments, it can be detrimental to long-term fluency building and overall acquisition and may lead to a dependence on feedback, which obscures the learning of secondary skills in task performance. These verbal rewards may be recognized as controlling factors that manipulate a dependency on someone's approval (Kohn, 1993). Ultimately, the instructor must internalize their goals for their students and determine if and when feedback should be provided.

Though, which feedback has the greatest effect on the learners' progress, and least detrimental to the learners' motivation? A majority of the studies conducted have often focused on negative feedback as it is intended to identify and correct linguistic errors. Negative feedback is traditionally known as the primary tool in the aversion of the repeatability of

undesirable behavior and methods of delivery and, despite reforms in pedagogical methods, remains at the forefront of chosen methods of feedback.

2.2.7. Corrective Feedback

2.2.7.1. Direct Corrective Feedback (Negative Feedback)

Corrective feedback, a form of feedback that is generally referred to or classified as negative feedback, is believed to serve two critical functions: motivate the learner and guide them towards performance improvement by avoiding errors. Lightbown and Spada (1990) identifies corrective feedback as any explicit or implicit indication that the target language used by the learner is incorrect. Schacter (1992) describes these implicit indicators as confirmation checks, repetitions, recasts, clarification requests, silence, and facial expressions which express confusion (as cited in El-Tatawy, 2002). Chaudron (1988) defines corrective feedback as a response by a teacher with the purpose of informing or attempting to inform the learner of the fact of an error. Essentially, the goal of change-oriented feedback is to change a targeted behavior. Similarly, Bloom and Hautaluoma (1987) describe change-oriented feedback as an assessment of inadequate or undesirable behavior that requires modification in order to ultimately achieve the goals or purpose of the objective. As Ellis (2009) states, negative feedback is corrective in intent. It indicates linguistic deviance or a lack of veracity by the learner and is perceived to be a necessary tool in language instruction.

Certainly, instructors routinely find themselves in a position where they observe, respond, and correct a learner's display of knowledge. Therefore, there is a natural tendency for teachers, particularly in the language classroom, to take control of their learners by explicitly pointing out and correcting errors. Although this may seem like an afflictive position for an individual to be in, for authority figures, controlling a particular situation is not unpleasant (Deci, Spiegel, Ryan, Koestner, & Kauffman, 1982), especially when there may be pressure or stress (Flink,

Boggiano, & Barrett, 1990). Likewise, Grolnick and Apostoleris (2002) suggest that by taking control, learners may be alleviated of the pressure they may experience in stressful environments. Instructors inevitably rely on feedback to improve optimal performance and maximize potential growth in the language classroom. Negative feedback is not malicious in intent, though how it must be provided to students is a continuous debate and struggle for teachers.

One of the core elements of presenting effective corrective feedback, as suggested through numerous research (Carpentier & Mageau, 2013; Cusella, 1987; Tracy, Van Dusen, & Robinson, 1987) is that the feedback should be delivered immediately (i.e., quickly, and promptly following the error or performance). However, as noted in the section on the occasion of feedback, providing immediate feedback in such a manner could be harmful in language development as it may ignore students' emotions and strike at their insecurities. According to Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994), the intervention of negative feedback is often used in the language classroom and is beneficial as long as it is sensitive to the learner's zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978). The zone of proximal development (ZPD) is the gap between a student's potential without aid and what the student may achieve with instruction and encouragement from a source of knowledge. Following a "regulatory scale" of sensitivity, feedback may range from implicit (indicating that an utterance contains an error) to explicit (providing the learner with a correction). When language proficiency is the goal, whether it be successfully completing exams or communicating efficiently, language instructors carry the burden of helping their students achieve this goal. Corrective feedback consists of three core elements for error correction; (1) some type of indication that the learner has committed an error, (2) the correct target language form is offered, and (3) provision of the metalinguistic information regarding the nature of the mistake.

Unfortunately, it is possible that by using frequent corrective feedback, instructors may be ignoring their learners' emotions and the supportive nature for their needs. Consequently,

despite its ultimate goal of achieving the best results, negative feedback, particularly when the tools designed to help instructors maximize potential positive consequences are not implemented correctly, may lead to detrimental consequences, such as anxiety, depression, decrease or loss in self-esteem, and the collapse of the student-teacher relationship (Baron, 1988; Fisher, 1979; Jussim, Soffin, Brown, Ley, & Kohlhepp, 1992; Sansone, 1989; Tata, 2002).

Controversial results have stemmed from error corrections in studies on second language acquisition. Ellis (2009) identified a number of issues concerning the polemics regarding corrective feedback: (1) does error correction genuinely contribute to L2 acquisition, (2) which errors must be corrected, (3) who should provide the corrections (the teacher or the learner), (4) which type of corrective feedback is the most effective, and (5) when should the error correction be provided (immediately or delayed).

The destructive elements of error corrections have been identified throughout numerous research. Krashen (1982) described error correction as "a serious mistake" (p. 74), noting that it has an immediate effect of putting students on the defensive. Furthermore, it only assists the development of "learned knowledge," lacking any contribution to its role in "acquired knowledge." Likewise, responding to the controversies of error correction, Harmer (1983) argued that teachers should not intervene, call attention to mistakes, insist on accuracy, nor request repetition when students are engaged in communicative activities. Further evidence of this was found in previous research which revealed that frequent error correction has resulted in a deterioration in communication fluency and coherent production (Azad, 2016; Kartchava & Gatbonton, 2020). VanPatten (1992) argued that ultimately "correcting errors in learner output has a negligible effect on the developing system of most language learners" (p. 24).

For these reasons, the communicative feedback provided to students must be meticulously and carefully contrived. Liu, Liu, and Zhang (2021) insist that, "Although there is a power gap between teachers and students as participants, teachers should adopt appropriate pragmatic

strategies to narrow the gap and try to sustain the interaction" (p. 119). Furthermore, Mouratidis, Lens, and Vansteenkiste (2010) propose that an instructor's communication style and feedback should avoid guilt-inducing criticisms targeting an individual's actions, specifically after a performance, as it is typically too late for the action to have been changed. In another particular study, Kamins and Dweck (1999) conducted experimental research with young children in order to determine the effects of person-related statements. The study found that when feedback focused on person-related statements, particularly concerning one's ability, goodness, or worthiness, individuals experienced a decreased sense of self-worth and exhibited increased vulnerability.

Many researchers agree that corrective feedback plays a pivotal role in the field of SLA (Chaudron, 1988; Flink, Boggiano, & Barrett, 1990; Gass, 1991; Grolnick & Apostoleris, 2002; Long, 1996). However, considering the research about the negative aspects of error correction (e.g., Azad, 2016; Kamins & Dweck, 1999; Kartchava & Gatbonton, 2020; Krashen, 1982; Mouratidis, Lens, & Vansteenkiste. 2010; VanPatten, 1992), and based on the evidence provided in subsequent sections, it is proposed that corrective feedback, though pivotal in L2 development, should instead maintain autonomous elements in an effort to facilitate language acquisition and activate internal processes.

2.2.7.2. Indirect Corrective Feedback with Autonomy-Supportive Teaching

Interventions using negative feedback serve two primary functions (Carpentier & Mageau, 2013; Weinberg & Gould, 2011). First, they motivate the learner by informing them about discrepancies between the actual performance and that which is the expected or desired performance. This is accomplished with the hope that it increases desire for a better performance in the future. Weinberg and Gould (2011) maintain that this desire further translates into greater effort and energy expenditure. Second, they guide the learner by focusing

on the specific and crucial changes that are necessary in order to improve future performances to an optimal level, while maintaining autonomy and support.

Considering the quantity and quality of students' phenomenological experiences, Deci and Ryan (1985, 2000) observed that the relative impact that corrective feedback has on successfully supporting student autonomy must be explored through the self-determination theory (SDT). SDT suggests that when their innate and psychological needs for competence, connection, and autonomy are fulfilled, individuals are intrinsically motivated to grow or change. The collective desire to feel that one's ability to gain mastery through the overcoming of challenges is cohesive with one's actions and values is essentially facilitated by the universal psychological need for autonomy (Carpentier & Mageau, 2013; Deci & Ryan, 1985). Essentially, when individuals feel in control of their own behaviors, actions, and goals, they feel equipped with the skills necessary for success. Along with the experience of feeling a sense of belonging or attachment to their peers, SDT prescribes that students will be oriented toward growth and development in completing the objectives of the targeted areas of improvement.

Despite this, it is necessary to note that the factors and conditions as outlined by SDT will not necessarily result in automatic nor continual progress. Deci and Ryan (1985) stress the importance of other predictors and social factors, such as encouragement through autonomy-supportive instruction, which must be organized within the aforementioned parameters necessary to compliment independence, acquisition of knowledge, and growth. Autonomy-supportive teaching is a student-focused method of instruction, which concentrates on supporting intrinsic motivation and supporting internalization, while also maintaining numerous autonomy-satisfying rules for providing feedback.

Providing choices, rational options, and other autonomy-supportive behaviors have been linked to self-determined motivation. Evidence of self-determined motivation and its link to autonomy-supportive behavior has been discovered outside the classroom, in a different and

unexpected educational setting: sports. The classroom and the sports venue are, in fact, quite similar in their educational missions and thrive for achievement. Both settings have a similar focus on learning, where learners are required to be taught lessons, complete homework assignments, take tests (Hulleman, Durik, Schweigert, & Harackiewicz, 2008). Similarly, long hours of commitment, repetitive drills, and the necessity to practice and undertake tedious, difficult and, at times, boring, projects are required in both domains. On account of these academic parallels, research on theories and motivation are applicable to both realms of learning.

Prior studies on sports and autonomy-supportive instruction concluded that athletes reported higher self-esteem, greater well-being, and more self-determined motivation when coaches incorporated autonomy-supportive instruction (Amorose & Anderson-Butcher, 2007; Carpentier & Mageau, 2013; Gagné, Ryan, & Bargmann, 2003; Quested & Duda, 2010; Reinboth, Duda, & Ntoumanis, 2004). In particular, Carpentier and Mageau (2013) sought to organize a structure where increased positive outcomes among athletes were greatly influenced by and the result of corrective feedback through change-oriented feedback, when presented in an autonomy-supportive way by their coaches.

In align with a previous study on autonomy-supportive change-oriented feedback in sports (Mouratidis, Lens, & Vansteenkiste, 2010), Carpentier and Mageau (2013) noted that the success of autonomy-supportive change-oriented feedback was defined by a framework consisting of 1) explanations to provide rationales and details about the importance of changing behavior, 2) a deep understanding of the perceptions and opinions of the athletes, 3) a provision of options and solutions to combat obstacles in development, and 4) the absence or avoidance of communication styles, which may be perceived as controlling, shame-inducing, or threatening in nature. Instead, autonomy-supportive corrective feedback required empathy and consideration of feelings and difficulties, while also paired with choices and solutions. Clear

and attainable objectives and assessing whether or not these were understood by the athletes was also necessary.

Additional characteristics for autonomy-supportive corrective feedback is 1) a necessary lack or absence of person-related statements, which could highlight the shortcoming of the said individual, 2) a compulsory pairing of feedback and tips with how future performances could be improved, and 3) communication that is considerate in tone and voice.

In particular, when considering SDT, researchers strongly emphasize that, in an autonomy-supportive context, attention to the task is absolutely necessary to avoid ego-involvement, which could ultimately lead to one's views about their performance, self-worth, and value as an individual (Koestner, Zuckerman, & Koestner, 1987; Nicholls, 1984; Plant & Ryan, 1985; Ryan, 1982). Further research into the meta-analysis of avoiding person-related statements found that an autonomy-supportive framework, where feedback intervention maintains attention on the task rather than the receiver, is necessary for enhanced performance (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996).

Furthermore, to maintain attention to the task, rather than the individual, it is critical that instructors provide tips and ways to improve performance and suggest possible solutions. By focusing on the learning process rather than the learner and their behavior, research shows a positive correlation between positive attitudes and improved future performances (Amorose & Weiss, 1998; Balzer, Doherty, & O'Connor, 1989; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996).

Carpentier and Mageau (2013) emphasize that providing tips supports autonomy in four ways. First, it reduces ego-involvement by shifting attention away from the self and refocusing the attention on the task at hand. Second, the learner feels a sense of protection when being actively involved in the solution to the problem. In their research on students' perceptions and SDT, Alfi, Assor, & Katz (2004) found that when considered active participants in the solution to the problem, fear of rejection and the experiences of shame were greatly reduced. In fact, participants felt sheltered from these negative experiences and protected by their instructors.

Third, by providing tips, there is no focus on prior failures nor accusations of blame. In addition to the emotional-scarring, guilt-inducing criticisms are often delivered too late for any changes to be made. Instead, students are equipped with the tools necessary to autonomously progress towards completing the objectives and tasks. This scaffolding prepares the learner and allows them to ultimately achieve success towards their desired goals. Finally, communicating at an appropriate level of understanding in a tone that is considerate of the learners' feelings is essential when providing concrete guidance and feedback. Prior studies and literature on feedback suggest that effective feedback must be respectful while maintaining an appropriate and calm volume (Cusella, 1987; Tracy, Van Dusen, & Robinson, 1987). These characteristics contribute to a non-controlling and non-accusatory dimension of communicative feedback.

In summary, based on prior literature published (Carpentier & Mageau, 2013; Cusella, 1987; Mouratidis, Lens, & Vansteenkiste, 2010; Tracy, Van Dusen, & Robinson, 1987), the researcher suggests that for indirect negative feedback with autonomy-supportive teaching to be effective, it must 1) be empathetic to the learner's emotions, 2) provide tips, options, and solutions for overcoming the obstacle(s) in the future, 3) avoid person-related statements, blame, and criticisms of prior actions, 4) provide clear, attainable goals or objectives for the learner to recognize and work towards achieving, and 5) be delivered in a calm and considerate tone of voice.

Therefore, although corrective feedback is classified as negative feedback, and can certainly be disadvantageous in student motivation, it is important to note that this form of feedback can result in positive outcomes, depending on the way that is presented to students (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999). Thus, instead of entirely avoiding negative feedback, it is vital that the instructor modify the feedback to effectively cater it to the students in a way that is not detrimental to their emotions, motivation, or, particularly in an EFL environment, language development.

2.2.8. Positive Feedback

Compared to its counterpart, positive feedback had often been avoided in language learning research (Wong & Waring, 2009). Unfortunately, in the past, many researchers presumed that positive feedback was traditionally used for the purpose of praise, rather than recognizing positive feedback as a potential catalyst in the language-learning process. Unable or unwilling to recognize the pedagogical benefits of positive feedback and its ability to foster motivation and continued learning, early educational studies on L2 learning, particularly in behaviorist and cognitive theories, often equated positive feedback to a minimal contribution to language learning. Because of the perception that positive feedback was a minor contributing factor to the development of language, it had continued to receive little attention throughout the years.

Waring (2008) proposed that one reason for the lack of empirical research is related to the intuitive belief that learning is accomplished through the "no pain, no gain" aphorism. In other words, many abide by the philosophy that the process of learning is only successful through the process of making mistakes. With the lack of errors in a correct response, very few opportunities and learning potentials are available to be explored. Brummelman, Nelemans, Thomaes, and Orobio de Castro (2017) went as far as to say that positive feedback resulted in decreased self-esteem and increased narcissism in children due to its diminishing of standards. Accordingly, positive feedback would foster the undesirable self-perceptions that it sought to prevent.

According to Ellis (2009), positive feedback had been overlooked due in part because positive feedback, under discourse analytical studies of classroom interaction, is frequently ambiguous. Positive feedback often takes the form of praise markers (Vigil & Oller, 1976). These vague verbal affirmation with positive assessment phrases, such as "*Okay*," "*Good*," "*Fine*," or "*Yes*" do not necessarily signal that a learner was indeed correct. Without the subsequent correction or modification of a learner's utterance, positive feedback was vague and lacked the versatility necessary in cultivating language development.

Recently, however, as prior research has shown, negative feedback, due to its traditionally behaviorist elements and condemning nature, has proven to be detrimental in student confidence and language development. Contrary to dated research, which expressed a low opinion of positive feedback, Fagan (2014) pointed out that, when reviewing a majority of recent literature on positive feedback, there is an undeniable emphasis on the use of praise and its positive correlation with building self-esteem and increasing learner motivation (Black & Wiliam, 2009; Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999; Irving, Harris, & Petersen, 2011). Positive feedback is effective, as it allows the students to feel like they are in a warm, accepting classroom climate (Moskowitz, 1976). Research on positive feedback and its corrective or constructive elements (Amorose & Weiss, 1998) has shown that when feedback targets behavior, rather than highlighting poor performance, it is positively linked to the learning process and subsequent performances (Balzer, Doherty, & O'Connor, 1989; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). In their research on praise and feedback in the primary classroom, Burnett and Mandel (2010) recognized a positive correlation between teachers' praise of students' efforts, rather than successful completion of a task, and student motivation. Jenks (2013) found similar results when English language learners received praise for success in specific elements of their English use (e.g., good pronunciation) rather than ambiguous phrases (e.g., good job). Finally, research has also shown that positive feedback increases the likelihood that students will see the value in an objective or task, self-report higher interests in these activities, and return to or persist in their efforts to complete the objective (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999).

2.2.9. Elements of Nonverbal Feedback

2.2.9.1. Nonverbal Physical Cues and Gestures

During communication, transmitting information effectively from one individual or group to another is certainly a complex process. Social interactions rely on a diverse assortment of complex signals and modalities. When considering human interaction, a strong emphasis is

placed on the vital role that spoken language plays in communication. Whilst studying these linguistic elements of verbal communication, the speed, the pitch, the intonation, the volume, and other elements of the paralanguage of speech are indirect indicators of how one may feel during an interaction. For example, speaking quickly, loudly, and with an exaggerated intonation could indicate enthusiasm, whereas a lack of interest or feeling of disapproval may be accomplished with the same utterance expressed in a more hesitant, monotonic tone. These vocal cues help listeners understand the emotions or intentions in verbal utterances and speech in general.

Having a heightened sense of awareness about how teachers should verbally communicate with their students is a significant component of many teacher-training programs. The skill necessary to communicate effectively with students is a solid determining factor in the success of an instructor. Teachers learn to be fundamentally aware of how they interact with learners, particularly during the process of error-correction and feedback, and learn how to address their students appropriately, so as not to discourage students, diminish the quality of the learning environment, nor damage the student-teacher relationship in the process of such interactions. Whether it be in a formal academic setting or through personal experience, teachers learn to identify and become sensitive to the catalysts for the learning process, understand the consequences and results of their interactions with students, exercise selecting appropriate vocabulary and managing their language-use, and practice methods to manipulate their speech to better cater themselves and their lessons to the learners' needs.

On the other hand, because it is often instinctive in nature and conveyed unconsciously, a crucial component of communication, which may often be overlooked by the instructor, is the use of facial expressions, physical proximity, hand gestures, and other elements of body language and their application when delivering information in a social interaction. Through voluntary and involuntary movements and reactions, these signals can create confusion among

communicators. Thus, it is imperative to understand the importance of these modalities known as nonverbal communication.

Nonverbal communication is an essential element of communication, and we respond to thousands of these cues, signals, and gestures on a daily basis. Think about how much information could be conveyed through a simple act, such as a grin or a frown. Nonverbal communication is not only powerful, but it is also reliable when communicating. Whether it be our facial expressions, handshakes, or posture, studies on behavior psychology have concluded that humans rely heavily on these signals and dynamic behaviors for expressing emotions and feelings, in addition to establishing personal and social relationships. For example, Hull (2016) notes that one of the earliest published literary works on nonverbal communication is found in Charles Darwin's "The Expressions of the Emotions in Man and Animal" (1872). Through his observations, Darwin concluded that the true primary mode of delivering information was through nonverbal communication, whereas verbal communication was merely an extension of this nonverbal form.

Further evidence of this phenomenon was found in later research. Based on research on how much communication is influenced by facial expressions and tone of voice, Mehrabian and Ferris (1967) concluded that solely words themselves were inadequate in expressing information and were inaccurate in conveying feelings. His research sought to understand how much of the meaning of conveyed messages were inconsistent, influenced by facial expressions and other forms of nonverbal elements. When words expressed communicate one idea, but in reality, mean something completely different, how much do we rely on nonverbal cues to understand the true meaning?

Consider a situation where one individual asks another individual about how they are feeling. The reply, "*I'm fine*," may reveal more when the responding individual is gazing down, their shoulders are slumped, they are frowning, and they are speaking in a low tone. The reply, "*I'm fine*," along with these micro-expressive actions may suggest the exact opposite of the

literal verbal information provided. They are obviously not fine. Now, consider a similar situation in an academic setting. A student gives a presentation and upon conclusion, the teacher says, "*Okay, good job.*" Would the seemingly positive comment have the same meaning if the teacher were crossing their arms without any eye contact or without any change in facial expression? It would certainly not be very reassuring.

According to the results of the research by Mehrabian and Ferris (1967), it was concluded that when information is expressed about true emotions and attitudes, understanding of this information was overwhelmingly reliant on nonverbal cues. In these situations, conveyance of meaning relied heavily on nonverbal communication, consisting of up to 93% of meaning and understanding. Similarly, recently conducted studies (e.g., Hull, 2016) further supported the results of previous research, finding that meaning derived from nonverbal communication accounts for between 70% and 93% of all communication – a significant and, thus, influential portion of feedback.

When considering this overwhelming percentage, it may be argued that the awareness and expression of feedback through nonverbal communication via physical cues and gestures is unequivocally vital in assisting students in understanding whether or not an utterance, an action, or a performance is not only accepted or understood, but has met or exceeded the standards of the opposite party. These wordless signals can be used to develop relationships and rapport, building trust, diminishing tension, and putting people at ease, while supplementing or even replacing verbal communication, in an effort to convey information. For example, if a student answered a question, the instructor's nonverbal action of nodding their head may signify that the answer is correct or has at least met the minimum requirements of an acceptable response. Thus, these nonverbal cues may continue to deliver information to the receiver even if verbal communication was not expressed or may have seized.

Nonverbal cues and body language may also imply or reveal true intentions and feelings when verbal communication is expressing something different. For example, responding,

"*Great,*" to a student while scowling one's face or rolling one's eyes may contradict the verbal statement and be perceived or accepted as an undesirable response, representing dejection. A student may understand the statement to be sarcastic and dishonest in intent. Similarly, the physical space between the instructor and the student during an interaction can be interpreted to be an act of dominance and aggression, resulting in a negative perception about the exchange. This close physical proximity can instead create an emotional distance, which would be detrimental to the student-teacher relationship.

When supplementing or replacing verbal responses with nonverbal signals, the way we move, the facial expressions we make, and other reactionary components have the potential to express different emotions to the individuals we are communicating with. They may help cultivate student development, or severely hinder the learner's motivation. Therefore, understanding how such common nonverbal cues or facial expressions, whether delivered consciously or unconsciously, is necessary when evaluating students through careful consideration of methods of delivery and the various elements of feedback. In accordance with literature on various forms of nonverbal communication and body language, the following examples of physical cues and gestures are explained in detail and organized into their respective sections (positive nonverbal feedback vs negative nonverbal feedback) in Table 3.

TABLE 3

Signals in Nonverbal Communication: Positive Feedback versus Negative Feedback

Type	Indications / Characteristics (Cues and Gestures)
Practical Nonverbal Physical Cues and Gestures (Positive Feedback)	• Maintaining eye contact • Leaning in • Nodding head • Tilting head to one side • Raising eyebrows • Open palms • Gesturing a thumbs up, • Smiling • Providing a (firm) handshake or high five
Nonverbal Physical Cues and Gestures to Avoid (Negative Feedback)	• Lack of facial expressions or undesirable facial expressions • Little or no eye contact, rolling eyes, or squinting eyes • Rapid blinking or infrequent blinking • Looking at clocks, watches, phones, or other distractions • Biting lips or tightening lips • Nail biting • Crossing arms or putting one's hands on their hips • Touching one's face, hair, or putting one's head in their hands • Rubbing of eyes or nose • Fidgeting fingers or tapping/drumming fingers • Placing one's fingertips together with palms apart • Finger pointing • Crossing legs away from an individual or leaning away • Locked ankles, slight kicking, or shaking/bouncing leg

2.2.9.2. Positive Feedback through Nonverbal Communication

Maintaining eye contact

Maintaining eye contact with the other individual is one of the most basic and effective forms of positive body language. It is a vital part of interpersonal communication and establishes a greater intimacy with the individual(s) we are communicating with. Maintaining eye contact is extremely powerful and instinctive and observers can interpret a lot from this visual cue. In fact, Goman (2008) proposes that the greater the eye contact is maintained, reflects in greater liking by the observer, particularly when this eye contact is maintained for intervals lasting four to five seconds. When mutual gazing occurs, more than two-thirds of the time of the interaction, feelings of appeal and fascination are produced. Various studies have shown that maintaining eye contact is necessary in enhancing a connection or rapport between individuals, while signaling that they are paying attention and find value in the conversation (e.g., Argyle & Dean, 1965; Calero, 2005; Goman, 2008; Hull, 2016; Kellerman, Lewis, & Laird, 1989). In addition to demonstrating engagement and active participation, the correlation between eye contact and honesty has been supported by numerous research for its social and psychological benefits (Barlund, 1968; Burns & Kintz, 1976; Exline, Thibaut, Hickey, & Gumpert, 1970; Goman, 2008).

Leaning in

Based on their studies on variations in physical posture and use as feedback on motivation and emotion, Riskind and Gotay (1982) suggested that the physical postures of the body are a significant cue that can affect emotional experience and behavior. Although the physical distance between the two parties may appear to be insignificant if communication is possible, leaning in while listening (or speaking) is a potential nonverbal cue during an exchange that may be recognized as a positive behavior. Facing the direction of the speaker while leaning in,

as long as it does not impose in another's personal space, indicates two key elements in the exchange. First, it illustrates a literal and figurative closeness between the speaker and the listener. Exhibiting comfort and contentment allows the speaker to feel a sense of safety or assurance during the exchange. Second, leaning in indicates that the listener is interested in the exchange and is engaged in the dialogue. It suggests that the listener is making a great effort to avoid missing any information that the speaker may provide. According to Goman (2008), the forward-leaning posture indicates an intent to listen and desire to cooperate. Similar perceptions have been found among physicians and counselors, with patients reporting greater satisfaction when experiencing these nonverbal indicators.

Nodding head

Various movements can convey different messages to the observer and the act of nodding one's head, for example, is no exception. In an academic setting, when nodding while interacting with the learner, the instructor is demonstrating a variety of possible messages to their student. Firstly, it may signal that the instructor is actively listening to the student's remarks or responses. It is an inclusive indicator of engagement with the speaker. Secondly, the nodding of the head could be perceived as a sign of approval. It may provide the student with reassurance that their utterance has been understood or accepted. Thirdly, nodding one's head may be realized as evidence that the learner has correctly responded to an inquiry, answered a question correctly, fulfilled the necessary requirements of a task, or completed an objective to the satisfaction of the instructor. In their research on perceptions of behavior within social interactions, Chartrand and Bargh (1999) revealed that individuals are perceived as better understanding and more approachable and friendly when nodding their head while listening to others. Nodding has also been shown to be a vital supplement in expressing support. Research on the social psychology of emotion and non-communicative behavior examined reactions that were elicited by observing an apparent painful injury (Bavelas, Black, Lemery, & Mullett,

1986). Microanalysis of motor mimicry was recorded as observers copied facial expressions, posture, or vocal tones of individuals feeling distressed, accounting for internal behavioral reactions, as well as verbal and nonverbal communicative responses. It was concluded that nodding was consistently decoded and interpreted as a 'knowing' and 'caring' response by subjects who witnessed the stimuli of an apparent painful injury.

The empathetic response of nodding was additionally recorded in research conducted by Stivers (2008), who found that participants' nods conveyed an emotional response that supported the stance of a storyteller. These interactions provided response tokens that supported the notion that nods consistently provided speakers with the opportunity and conditions to feel endorsed by their experiences. The findings of this research were further supported by research on nodding and the perception of empathy in storytelling, particularly how the empathetic function relates to two different story phases: build-up and climax (Voutilainen, Henttonen, Stevanovic, Kahri, & Peräkylä, 2019). Utilizing a database of 317 stories, the researchers observed and analyzed story recipients' nods and vocal continuers as they were expressed throughout the storytelling process, noting that these verbal and nonverbal cues display empathy and support.

Tilting head to one side

Tilting one's head, particularly while smiling and maintaining eye contact, is seen as another positive nonverbal signal. It communicates a sign of interest and engagement and can convey empathy to the speaker. Partially due to the appearance that the listener is attempting to hear more clearly, the act of tilting one's head is a gesture that is often associated with open-mindedness and a willingness to engage in the conversation. It shows that the individual is immersed in the information being provided and is positively processing the information (Calero, 2005). To further support this position, the findings of research conducted by Kang, Gratch, Sidner, Artstein, Huang, and Morency (2012) demonstrated that individuals displayed

more head tilts when highly intimate information was revealed, further immersing the listener into the interaction. Head tilts are also one of the indicators of recognition or response, and that the message is being well-received (Calero, 2005; Morris, 1977). Goman (2008) indicated that the submissive gesture of tilting one's head while looking up towards a speaker mimicked the upward gaze of an innocent child. This, she remarked, invoked a parental instinct among both men and women. Thus, the tilting of one's head may have profound effects due to the perceptions that this nonverbal gesture creates, allowing it to be favorable for developing positive social relationships.

Raising eyebrows

Facial expressions can convey a wide range of emotions and attitudes, and raising one's eyebrows is a versatile, yet subtle, nonverbal cue and a powerful way to signal a variety of positive emotions and attitudes. In their research on facial animation parameters and expression recognition, Pardàs and Bonafonte (2002) argued that the most significant contours of the face, the eyebrows and mouth, carry the maximum information in correlation with the expression of emotions, reporting recognition rates of 100% for expressions of surprise and 93.4% for expressions of joy. Hwang and Matsumoto (2015) noted that raising the eyebrows, while simultaneously providing another facial cue, is a biological method of expressing positive emotions which begins naturally at infancy, and these responses are vital for communication. Raising one's eyebrows, especially when paired with a smile or other gesture of happiness or excitement, conveys to the speaker that their audience is attentive, actively listening, and engaging in the conversation or speech. Raised eyebrows as a form of attentiveness was also expressed at the beginning of interactions. Brief raising of the eyebrows, along with eye contact, was revealed to be one of the most direct ways of initiating communication (Eibl-Eibesfeldt, 1972; Kampe, Frith, & Frith, 2003).

The height of one's eyebrows has also been studied in perceptions of honesty. As one of the four facial features, studied for its perceived trustworthiness, Todorov, Baron, and Oosterhof (2008) discovered that when faces with high inner eyebrows were observed, participants perceived these individuals to be more honest than their counterparts. They suggest that this may be contributed partially to the fact that raised eyebrows reveal eye gaze direction more clearly and allows the agent's eyes to be more visible. As will be discussed in later sections, eye gaze direction is easily identifiable (Anstis, Mayhew, & Morley,1969) and can either build support and rapport (Argyle & Dean, 1965; Calero, 2005; Goman, 2008; Kellerman, Lewis, & Laird, 1989) or severely hinder interpersonal communication (Davidhizar, 1992; Goman, 2008; Wirth, Sacco, Hugenberg, & Williams, 2010). Hence, by raising one's eyebrows, the listener's cue is associated with a variety of genuine and positive emotions, including surprise, interest, curiosity, agreement, and excitement, all of which can further engage the speaker by providing positive nonverbal feedback and encouraging a continued interaction.

Smiling

As previously mentioned, there has been an abundance of evidence resulting from empirical investigations on facial feedback that facial expressions directly influence emotional experience (e.g., Adelmann & Zajonc, 1989; McIntosh, 1996; Soussignan, 2002; Tourangeau & Ellsworth, 1979). Facial expressions trigger corresponding emotional experience through facial feedback, and a smile is perhaps the first and most common type of positive nonverbal communication as it expresses positive emotions, including happiness, interest, and satisfaction, and offers approachability and further engagement. Kappas, Krumhuber, and Küster (2013) found that smiling was an essential tool for interpersonal communication. Furthermore, smiling was discovered to assist in increasing feelings of rapport or social connectivity between individuals (Harker & Keltner, 2001).

In particular, the Duchenne smile is the type of smile that psychologists and researchers identify as a genuine smile, as it is achieved by the contraction of the zygomaticus major muscles, which raise the cheeks and cause orbicularis oculi activity, an action which results in the outside corner of the eyes to wrinkle (Ekman, 1989). This particular smile is often associated with a variety of positive emotional experiences and is valuable in determining authentic and salient positive communicative signals (Cacioppo, Petty, Losch, & Kim, 1986; Ekman, Davidson, & Friesen, 1990). The authenticity of a Duchenne smile is difficult to fake, particularly with a lack of sincere emotion. Thus, an unhappy person would be unable to use both the zygomaticus majoris and orbicularis oculi muscles necessary for creating a genuine smile. The Duchenne smile has even been documented to occur among infants when approached or interacting with their mother, while a risorius, or insincere, smile is utilized for all others (Dickson, Walker, & Fogel, 1997; Fox & Davidson, 1988; Navarro & Karlins, 2008). To further support the authenticity of a Duchenne smile, is demonstrated in the research of Matsumoto and Willingham (2009). In their research comparing congenitally and noncongenitally blind judo athletes at the 2004 Athens Paralympic Games with the sighted athletes from the 2004 Olympic Games, Matsumoto and Willingham found that when experiencing occurrences which were similarly emotionally evocative, blind athletes of 23 different cultures had produced the same facial expressions as sighted athletes. Furthermore, the winners and receivers of gold and bronze medals displayed Duchenne smiles, despite never having the opportunity to visually learn to produce or imitate these expressions from others. Thus, based on the evidence provided, the definitive biological evidence of the Duchenne smile being a genuine smile appears to be indisputable.

Due to its identification as an authentic and honest smile, the Duchenne smile is associated with attractiveness, amiability, and trustworthiness (Krumhuber, Kappas, & Manstead, 2013). In their investigations on whether or not individuals are able to identify the Duchenne smile, researchers found that both children and adults are overwhelmingly able to accurately distinguish between genuine and fake smiles when presented with images of individuals

expressing Duchenne and non-Duchenne smiles (Del Giudice & Colle, 2007; Sheldon, Corcoran, & Sheldon, 2021). This, of course, is evidence of the impact a teacher's smile may have on their students. In conclusion, a smile is an ideal invitation to the observer. It signals that the agent is both friendly and approachable, which are necessary characteristics for forming genuine connections. It has the potential to provide positive feelings for the observer as well as the producer and invokes feelings of honesty and social connectivity.

Open palms, open arms, and open posture

The acronym SOLER, which stands for Squarely, Open, Lean, Eye, and Relaxed was used by Egan (1982) to suggest an open and ideal posture for demonstrating attentiveness, willingness to interact and engage, and care. It conveys a sense of approachability, honesty, and openness to interact. Likewise, open palms are a representation of one's openness and acceptance of receiving information as the physical attributes displayed are perceived as that of honesty or, in extreme cases, vulnerability. Open palms show a lack of apprehension and aggression, rather indicating friendliness and receptivity, and can lead to positive social outcomes, as these physical cues are likely to be perceived as honest and confident by their peers (Calero, 2005; Carney, Hall, & LeBeau, 2005).

Based on prior studies that reported the effectiveness of an open body posture as an effective tool in counseling (Carkhuff, 1969; Cash, Scherba, & Mills, 1975; Egan, 1982; Gazda, Asbury, Balzer, Childers, & Walters, 1984). In their study on counselor body position, Ridley and Asbury (1988) sought to explore a direct correlation between posture and students' perceptions of the effectiveness of the counselor. In this study on body posture and its relation to counseling and human development, it was concluded that students perceived counselors with open postures as experts that were significantly more experienced, prepared, and skillful, than counselors who displayed a closed posture. This critical difference could potentially

facilitate or hinder communication and development and should certainly be considered as a vital element of nonverbal communication.

Gesturing a thumbs up

Gestures are movements and signals, often deliberate, with the purpose of expressing oneself, without the use of words. One common universal gesture for providing positive feedback is the use of the "thumbs up" sign: a combination of a clenched fist with the thumb extended upward. The thumbs-up signal is referred to as an emblematic gesture and such gestures are often learned in social environments, such as at school (Goman, 2008). In most cultures, it is commonly understood to symbolize "*good job*," or "*okay*." This could be magnified in intensity or meaning when doubled using both hands to display the gestures.

Providing a (firm) handshake, fist bump, or high five

The last form of nonverbal positive communication is a tactile element in the form of physical contact. Haptics, the sensation associated with touch, is a common and vital form of communication and humans utilize it a great deal, particularly when expressing support and care, sympathy and concern, and nurturance and affection. Wainwright (2010) suggested that a willingness to engage or show openness can be expressed through physical touch in the form of handshakes, high fives, hugs, pats, and placing one's arms around another's shoulders. Human touch, such as the holding of hands, has been found to be responsible for slowing down our heart rate, lowering blood pressure, lowering cortisol levels (the stress hormone), and promoting emotional bonding by triggering the release of oxytocin, which is the hormone connected to serotonin and dopamine levels and responsible for the promotion of pro-social emotional bonding (Field, 2010).

The first example of physical contact is providing a handshake, more specifically a firm handshake. A firm handshake is a confident and respectful motion that signifies agreement with the other party or the successful completion of a task. Hull (2016) states that a handshake should denote sincerity and genuineness. It should be warm, slightly firm, and, most importantly, not overpowering. Moreover, if the relationship is close between the two individuals, and the setting is appropriate, additionally placing your other hand over the handshaking hands provides further support and affection.

Much like a hug may represent a celebration of achieving a goal, a firm handshake may be an act of agreement, denote mutual trust and understanding, or similarly represent commemoration of praise and revere, or be a proclamation of achievement. Whereas the first example would be more likely to be presented in a business or social setting, the second example of physical contact to provide positive feedback through nonverbal communication, the high five or the more sanitary option, the fist bump, may be more common in an academic setting, particularly when encouraging younger learners. The high five is a hand gesture that is achieved by having one's open palms of the hand simultaneously slap and make contact with another individual's open palms while in the air, whereas the fist bump is achieved when both individuals lightly tap each other's clenched fists. Calero (2005) states that in many informal settings, such as sports games, handshakes have been replaced by high fives as a congratulatory gesture. Navarro and Karlins (2008) emphasize that many gravity-defying arm actions, such as high fives, are a universal display of elation and a common response to joy and excitement.

One should note that physical contact in many academic or professional settings is certainly frowned upon as personal space is meant to be respected and comfort levels maintained. However, the researcher believes that it is necessary to include this section due to the varying degrees of acceptable behavior as dictated by the social norms of each country and their cultural setting (as noted later, for the purpose of this study, all physical contact by the instructor was avoided).

2.2.9.3. Negative Feedback through Nonverbal Communication

As detailed above, various physical cues and gestures can be used to express positive nonverbal communication, an element of feedback which hasn't been thoroughly analyzed in academia. Due to the lack of information or data available, and its relevance to nonverbal communication, the researcher has additionally compiled a list of examples of nonverbal feedback that are considered negative and could be detrimental to students' emotions and motivation. The following collection of nonverbal cues has been organized into categories of facial and body cues. Though difficult to regularly self-monitor, when communicating verbally, simultaneously understanding, and examining nonverbal forms of communication, are vital for providing feedback, as well as accepting nonverbal cues from students. Teachers should be aware of the subsequent examples and strive to avoid using them when communicating with students, but also be aware of their utilization in communication.

Lack of facial expressions or undesirable facial expressions

Consisting of over 40 individual facial muscles, the human face is tremendously expressive and has the ability to convey a myriad of emotions without ever having to utter a word (Ekman, 2003). Humans are able to produce over ten thousand different facial expressions and the expressions we see engage a variety of cognitive processes. Facial expressions are one of the most common forms of nonverbal communication and serve as a cross-cultural human lingua franca – a universal language to facilitate understanding. Frith (2009) supports this claim, highlighting that humans are exceptional at explicitly recognizing and describing the various emotions conveyed through our facial expressions. The use of one's eyebrows, eyes, mouth, and facial muscles is a very effective method of conveying their emotions, attitudes, feelings, or other information to the receiver. In addition, unlike some of their nonverbal counterparts,

facial expressions that convey joy, disbelief, anger, sorrow, revulsion, and fear are universal across many cultures. Thus, the use of negative facial expressions, such as those expressing anger or disgust (a furrowed brow and a frowned lip), are easily recognizable and understood by the observer. There are subtle facial expressions, or a lack of facial expressions, that may be misinterpreted or understood as illustrations of negative nonverbal communication.

Although an expressionless face may seem natural or even harmless, a lack of facial expressions is often perceived as negative during any form of face-to-face communication. Humans rely on facial expressions as these emotional expressions are often a rapid response to a catalyst of information (Parkinson, 2005). They are not merely reflexive, but rather possess a vital communicative component. Furthermore, a lack of facial expressions may confuse or cause anxiety in the observer. An expressionless face may also be conveyed as a tactic of coercion carried out intentionally for the purpose of intimidating the receiver. In their study on evaluating the circumstances surrounding learners' speaking and anxiety, Wijayati and Ayub (2018) discovered that one of the core catalysts for speaking anxiety among students occurred when the lecturer displayed an expressionless face. Thus, regardless of whether deliberate or not, the desolate nature of an expressionless face is habitually perceived as negative and a root for learner anxiety.

Little or no eye contact, rolling eyes, or squinting eyes

The eyes are an accurate judgement on concentration and their necessity in expressing engagement in a conversation is essential in developing mutual understanding and interactivity among speaker and listener. However, little or no eye contact, rolling one's eyes, or squinting one's eyes may reveal negative feelings. Eyes are used to express a range of emotions and can indicate interest and attraction or hostility. In addition to expressing disinterest, uncomfortable attitudes, rudeness, or a lack of trust, negative signals from a lack of eye contact, or acts of rolling the eyes or squinting the eyes can hinder the development of social relationships.

Humans naturally look at one another more often and those gazes are held for longer periods of time to express intimacy and attentiveness (Goman, 2008). In addition, eye contact is necessary for a speaker to gauge reactions or recognize that the listener has understood and agreed with what was being discussed. Therefore, the lack of eye contact would certainly signal that interest, or any engagement in the discussion, has vanished. This is additionally evident when studying outside perceptions on the lack of eye contact and the effects of the observations. In their research on eye gaze as a relation evaluator, Wirth, Sacco, Hugenberg, and Williams (2010) argue that aversion of eye contact left participants feeling a relational devaluation. This perceived ostracism was a result of feelings of isolation, lack of fulfilment in fundamental and emotional understanding, lowered relational value, and, in extreme instances, increased inclination to react violently or aggressively toward the partner.

There is also a link between little or no eye contact and the signal as an expression of avoidance. Research on patients and medical advice found that patients used a variety of submissive behaviors, such as making little or no eye contact, to express resistance and were likely to be less involved in the medical care process (Kaplan, Greenfield, & Ware 1989; Patterson, 1983). Navarro and Karlins (2008) remarked that avoiding eye contact is an evasive gesture, often used by children to render themselves as not seen – a way of hiding in the open. Adults behave similarly – they will seldom make eye contact when in close proximity to strangers, such as an elevator.

Rapid blinking or infrequent blinking

As with an expressionless face, blinking is not often a calculated or premediated action that teachers consider when addressing students, especially considering that blinking is a naturally autonomic bodily function. Blinking is the nervous system's natural defense against outside particles, keeping eyes cleansed and lubricated. However, unnatural blinking (frequent blinking or reduced/limited rates of blinking) is linked to changes in emotional categories. These

instances of rapid blinking or infrequent blinking are both actions that are considered negative forms of nonverbal feedback. Research has shown that eye movement and blinking can often reveal what an individual is truly feeling or thinking (Goman, 2008). For example, rapid blinking may indicate discomfort, displeasure, or distress in a particular situation. When someone is blinking rapidly, it may suggest uncertainty and concern during the exchange. Infrequent blinking, on the other hand, is an indicator of deception. This intentional act of limiting blinks often occurs when an individual is attempting to withhold information or suppress their emotions. Thus, these irregular forms of blinking could signal deceit or dishonesty to the receiver. Unnatural blink rates, Calero (2005) points out, is a reason that professional poker players conceal their eyes by wearing sunglasses during the match, and why customs inspection officers at an airport may choose to thoroughly search every piece of baggage after asking a question.

Looking at clocks, watches, phones, digital devices, or other distractions

In addition to being a means of classroom management, the necessity of maintaining eye contact as an imperative gesture for demonstrating engagement and active participation through listening has been highlighted in the previous section on positive nonverbal forms of communication. Little or no eye contact, on the other hand, may have detrimental effects. Any aversion of the eyes to a different location, such as a clock, a watch, or a phone, may be interpreted as a number of negative signals and humans are very capable of recognizing these aversions. According to their study on the perceptions of where a face or television "portrait" is looking, Anstis, Mayhew, and Morley (1969) discovered that humans are very sensitive to the direction of eye gaze and can discover the target of this eye gaze with great accuracy. Eye contact is a vital dimension of interpersonal communication, and the lack of eye contact or loss of focus may be perceived as a form of dissatisfaction or boredom. Davidhizar (1992) emphasized the relationship between eye contact and expressing attentiveness, concern, and

interpersonal interest, as well as offering supporting, while a lack of eye contact may be interpreted as the opposite – a disruption in engagement of the activity, and a loss of productivity and focus.

Particularly, glancing at a clock or watch may signal urgency or pressure due to time constraints. This may signal to the speaker that they are no longer in control of their time and schedule, and this urgency may lead to increased levels of stress and anxiety. In addition to these detrimental psychological provocations, negative effects on the speaker's physical well-being may occur, such as increased levels of cortisol, a hormone linked to stress, and impaired decision-making (Svenson & Maule, 1993). Hull (2016) adds that the detrimental factors related to looking at clocks, watches, phones, digital devices, or any other distractions are a definitive signal that communication or interaction has ceased, and it is time to leave.

Biting lips or tightening lips

Exaggerated expressions using the lips and mouth, as with the examples of a grimace, a frown, or a dropped jaw, are often easily recognizable and understood by the observer to indicate or convey feelings of surprise, disgust, or dissent. However, more subtle mouth expressions may convey an unintentional negative connotation. One such example is the biting or chewing of the lips, which is often an indicator of worry or resistance. It may be an indicatory of stress or attempt to withhold information or a comment. These impressions of insecurity about the situation or the dialogue may have a negative impact on the exchange. Similarly, tightening or pursing of the lips may indicate objection or opposition. Generally speaking, such gestures related to lip movement are perceived as affective displays of reluctance to further engage with the speaker, and such prominent signals of aversiveness are often accompanied with eye gaze avoidance (Kendon, Sebeok, & Umiker-Sebeok, 2010). Consequently, any development in a relationship may be hindered and resistance from the observer to further interact or engage with the agent could occur.

Crossing arms or putting one's hands on their hips

There are a variety of body movements and gestures that may also affect how we are perceived by the observer. For example, although crossing one's arms may be an innocent response to cold temperature or a simple method of physical support due to fatigue, for the observer who is trying to understand the reason or meaning behind the gesture, crossing one's arms may represent defensiveness or disapproval. It may also indicate resistance (Hull, 2016). When understood as a defense mechanism, the observer may notice that crossing arms is a form of protection, closing oneself from the situation or interaction. Individuals may cross their arms to signal their discomfort, though they may use it to signal condemnation (Calero, 2005). When considered as disapproval, the crossing arms, particularly by a person of authority, such as a teacher or boss, is an indication that the superior does not agree with the interaction and may be preparing to intervene with a counterargument or rebuttal. Ultimately, crossing one's arms is perceived as a stance of anger and stubbornness. It is a gesture of defiance. Our arms act as physical barriers and distance us emotionally and socially from the undesirable environment.

This has also been supported by research on closed posture and acceptance of information. In one study, Goman (2008) discussed a group of volunteers who were invited to participate as audience members in a series of lectures. One group of participants were to have open casual postures, with legs and arms uncrossed, during the lectures, while the second group were instructed to keep their arms folded tightly across their chests. The results of the study showed that the group with a closed posture were 38 percent less likely to learn and retain the information provided during the lectures. Placing one's hands on their hips is perceived in a similar manner as the resistance of crossed arms. It is a particularly strong expression of aggression and intimidation often carried out to make the receiver feel uncomfortable and

inferior. This nonverbal expression of disapproval may be further reinforced with a tapping of one's foot while crossing the arms or placing one's hands on their hips.

Touching one's face, hair, or putting one's head in their hands

Similar to the distractive tendencies of breaking focus through a loss of eye contact, touching one's face or hair is perceived as expressing disinterest. It signals discomfort, negative attitudes related to nervousness and rudeness, and even hints of deception. Goman (2008) argues that adults may casually touch their mouths when being deceitful, while children may cover their mouths with one or both hands – in an exaggerated attempt to hold back a lie, recognizing that it is wrong. Harrigan, Kues, and Weber (1986) suggest that self-touching could potentially be a humanizing or sympathy-eliciting act. Spille, Grunwald, Martin, and Mueller (2021) point out that, regardless of an individual's age, ethnicity, or gender, touching one's face often occurs in emotionally demanding situations. Harrigan, Kues, and Weber (1986) emphasized that these negative perceptions of physical contact with oneself were supported by prior research on the subject, which concluded that self-touching occurred when there is anxiety and feelings of guilt (Ekman & Friesen, 1974), during instances of deception (Knapp, Hart, & Dennis, 1974), at times of discomfort, such as in crowded conditions (Stokols, Smith, & Prostor, 1975), and in settings that were considered anxiety-provoking (LeCompte, 1981; Ruggieri, Celli, & Crescenzi, 1982).

Rubbing of eyes or nose

Rubbing one's eyes or nose is another seemingly innocent form of self-physical contact. It can simply be a natural response to irritation or discomfort. However, as discussed above, self-touching has the potential to be perceived as negative nonverbal communication. Rubbing one's eyes or nose, in particular, conveys a sense of disinterest or fatigue, which ultimately

may be interpreted as a disrespectful lack of engagement. Rubbing one's nose also has a biological significance related to instances of deceit. When individuals are lying or preparing to lie, they may unconsciously rub their nose. This is due to the fact that surges in adrenaline, as may occur during deception, cause the capillaries in the nose to open, creating an itching sensation (Goman, 2008). This also occurs among individuals who are listening to someone they believe is lying. Navarro and Karlins (2008) shared similar attitudes, comparing rubbing of the eyes or nose, and other blocking behaviors, as manifestations of deceit or avoidance.

Nail biting

In addition to being perceived as unsanitary and unprofessional, as was the case of rubbing one's eyes or nose, nail biting is often associated with a variety of negative perceptions. First, nail biting is perceived as a sign of anxiety or nervousness. Individuals with high levels of stress or feelings of nervousness will often bite their nails along with a variety of other repetitive body-focused coping behaviors, such as hair pulling, skin picking, and thumb sucking. Goman (2008) argues that biting of the fingernails is a prevalent "hardwired response to stress." Such behaviors are related to underlying psychological or emotional issues and are classified as obsessive-compulsive and related disorders (Sisman, Tok, & Ergun, 2017). Second, nail biting suggests an insecurity or lack of self-assurance to the observer. This lack of confidence may be detrimental to the perceived validity of the individual's competence. Third, nail biting is believed to often be evoked by feelings of boredom (Ghanizadeh, 2011; Williams, Rose, & Chisholm, 2007). Nail biting is a disruptive and distracting behavior for the individual responsible, as well as those around them. It has the potential to create social discomfort and produce negative impressions for the observers. Navarro and Karlins (2008) further indicated the negative social assessments of poorly manicured nails and how people typically interpret nail-biting. Therefore, despite the underlying causes for nail biting, whether it be a coping

mechanism or a persistent habitual act, recognizing the negative perceptions associated with this behavior should certainly be recognized and avoided.

Fidgeting fingers or tapping/drumming fingers

As described in several of the previous forms of negative nonverbal communication, there are particular actions which indicate that someone has become disinterested or distracted during an exchange. The constant fidgeting of fingers, tapping fingers, drumming fingers, and other confusing movements are indicators that one may be bored, growing impatient, or even becoming frustrated with the situation. Hull (2016) attributes these behaviors to the fact that the individual is no longer listening and simply occupying or distracting themselves until the speaker has finished talking. These confusing movements are known as pacifying behaviors and although children use less subtle behaviors, such as thumb sucking, adults tend to use more socially accepting, subtle behaviors, such as those associated with finger movements.

Humans will engage in pacifying behaviors such as fidgeting of fingers, tapping fingers, and drumming fingers, and recognizing and decoding human pacifiers is critical for understanding feelings. Navarro and Karlins (2008) stress that pacifying behaviors reveal a lot about an individual's state of mind and are often conceived with "uncanny accuracy." Recognizing these behaviors can also provide insight into what may distress a person, as well as identify moments of agitation. These gestures are perceived as distracting and synonymous with dishonesty and a lack of patience. Rising levels of anxiety among the agent and the observer are also a common side effect of this behavior.

Placing one's fingertips together with palms apart (steepling fingers)

Placing one's fingertips together with palms apart, also known as steepling fingers, is a gesture that is often associated with authority and control. Depending on the context or

environment, for the observer, the gesture of steepling one's fingers may be perceived as a purveyance of arrogance and intimidation, and confrontational in nature. Steepled fingers are one of the most powerful signals of high-confidence and representations of displaying superiority (Navarro & Karlins, 2008). In an academic or business setting, in particular, this gesture is believed to be an act of dismissiveness, as it suggests that the observer's opinion is obsolete. This, in turn, has the potential to create feelings of inadequacy and insecurity, while demotivating further communication by the observer in the interaction.

Finger pointing

Teachers often intuitively, but thoughtlessly, use their index finger to directly point to students to speak or to designate them to take part in an activity, without considering the possible negative consequences of this seemingly innocent gesture. Finger pointing and finger waging are gestures often associated with parental figures and are frequently used to express scolding. It implies dominance and superiority. In a study on the role of nonverbal communication in EFL classrooms, Elfatihi (2006) revealed that a majority of students indicated that when pointed at, they often felt degraded and undervalued. In addition, the students perceived the teacher as bossy and arrogant.

Coinciding with the aforementioned description on the perceptions of an open palm, students felt more comfort and believed that using an open palm gave them value. The negative perceptions of finger pointing were further supported by Goman (2008), who expressed that pointing one's finger was often associated with a loss of control of a situation. Finger pointing was an attempt to retrieve authority and likened the gesture to playground bullying.

Crossing legs away from an individual or leaning away

Crossing one's legs away, usually with the entire body turned away, is a form of a closed body posture. Similar to the defensive nature of crossing one's arms, crossing one's legs, particularly when turned away from the receiver, indicates that the individual is not comfortable remaining in the current setting and no longer wishes to participate in the interaction. It's a nonverbal action synonymous with discontent and inconvenience. As Goman (2008) argues, individuals with open body positions are more likely to be perceived positively and more persuasively than those with closed body positions. Thus, without the crossed arms and legs as literal and figurative barriers, an individual is more likely to experience more meaningful interactions and develop a better rapport with the observer.

Our posture also reveals what we are feeling. Leaning away from the observer has a similar negative perception related to defensiveness. Unlike the harmonious gravitation of leaning in, leaning away is a natural instinct for humans to have the desire to distance themselves from undesirable or threatening people and situations. Leaning away, placing an object, such as a purse, on one's lap, or turning feet are all natural behaviors controlled by the limbic system of the brain when in an undesirable environment (Navarro & Karlins, 2008). It is the body's way of coping with emotions related to danger, a lack of comfort, or unhappiness. Hull (2016) shares similar findings, reporting that leaning away could indicate hostility towards the observer, their ideas, or their logic. How the recipient of these negative cues perceives these actions may result in a reluctance to further engage in the interaction.

Locked ankles, slight kicking, or shaking/bouncing leg up and down

The same resistance observed in the closed posture of crossed arms or legs is found in crossed or locked ankles. A foot lock or ankle lock is another example of a closed posture, where the foot wraps around the opposite leg under the calf or at the ankle. This gesture is

often perceived as a refusal to reveal information or a refusal to allow oneself to be open or vulnerable. It is a defense mechanism and, as Goman (2008) mentioned, is often witnessed by therapists when their patients are withholding information or not expressing emotion, by negotiators in a meeting when the opposite party is "holding back a valuable concession," and by dentists when their patients are feeling anxious or threatened. These behaviors also convey feelings of nervousness and a desire to escape the situation (Hull, 2016). Thus, locked ankles can be observed as a nonverbal expression of resistance, discomfort, deceptive behavior, or anxiety. Slight kicking and shaking or bouncing of the legs, sometimes referred to as twitching legs, are other forms of negative nonverbal communication. Our feet and legs react to positive emotions, but also to stressors and threats. Noticing an unnaturally high energy expressed in the form of foot and leg movements reveals a variety of emotions including anticipation, nervousness, and stress.

Unsuitable touching

There are numerous negative messages associated with touch that should be avoided when interacting with another individual. The first of these actions is associated with handshakes, though outside of a business or professional setting handshakes are rare in an academic environment. Weak handshakes or flat palms infer submissiveness, though may also convey a lack of confidence or a lack of interest. A handshake that is overbearing, too firm, and lingering is used by the bestower to create a display of dominance and can cause anxiety to the receiver. This insensitive handshake is perceived as an inappropriate demonstration of strength, overconfidence, and superiority.

Another example of a nonverbal action which delivers a negative message is a patronizing pat on the head. This condescending action is both an invasion of personal space and a belittling action. Patting someone on the head may be perceived as a patronizing gesture between superior and subordinate. The individual who is patted may experience feelings of

inferiority and interpret this as denigration. Furthermore, in some cultures and religions, touching one's head could be extremely disrespectful. For example, in many Asian countries, the head is often associated with the soul and is believed to be one of the most sacred parts of the body. Thus, touching the head is taboo in these cultures.

The last example of unsuitable touching is a firm or controlling grip on the shoulder or arm. The tightening grip, whether it be on the arm, shoulder, or other part of the body is a clear sign of annoyance and escalating discomfort. It is uncomfortable for both parties involved and is one of the most threatening nonverbal gestures. As previously mentioned, most forms of physical contact are undoubtedly inappropriate in an academic setting and, for the purpose of this research, were excluded as a form of feedback entirely.

2.2.10. The Next Step: Appropriate Feedback?

Kuo, Walker, Belland, and Schroder (2013) assert that a primary task for instructors in the field of language-learning is to discern the optimal tension between positive and negative feedback and to use that knowledge to create an academic balance. Long (1983) encourages teachers to experiment with different types of feedback techniques to determine the best method for developing students' linguistic accuracy. Systematically, the instructor must provide enough support and encouragement of the learner to build up motivation, while simultaneously maintaining an environment where errors are not overlooked or ignored. Considering the contradictory nature of positive and negative feedback, each form's appropriateness and efficiency in the academic setting has been questioned and researched extensively.

For example, in his study on a Princeton University German L2 course, Magilow (1999) sought to recognize a link between classroom affect and error correction. Through this research, Magilow was able to highlight the obstacles that language teachers endure when trying to

intricately maintain a delicate balance between a welcoming, inclusive, and friendly classroom environment, while simultaneously addressing and correcting students' errors in their interlanguage (IL). The findings of this study reveal that avoiding negative impacts on student self-perception through error correction is possible and effective, but only after a solid teacher-student relationship is established and positive affect is enacted through the use of humor, personal anecdotes, and an affable tone. Thus, to avoid the harmful consequences of critique, criticism, or any other form of negative feedback on student performance relies heavily on an existing or developing rapport.

In their study on teacher praise and feedback and students' perceptions of the classroom environment, Burnett (2002) surveyed 747 students from six Australian elementary schools using a Likert-scale questionnaire to determine which types of classroom feedback were preferred. From the findings of this research, Burnett concluded that students overwhelmingly preferred positive feedback, and specifically in the forms of praise, ability feedback, and effort feedback. Thomas (1991) and Blöte (1995) proclaim that, beyond general feedback provided in response to student behavior, praise is a more intense response and form of positive reinforcement which contains positive affect. Acceptance of ability feedback, which, as can be inferred from the name, is provided based on one's natural ability, was associated with students' perception of the classroom environment. Acceptance of effort feedback, which is given in assessment of perseverance on a task, was related to students' perceived relationships with their teachers. Praise, on the other hand, was not related to teacher-student relationships, nor classroom environment.

Further research on teacher praise was studied using secondary school students (grades seven through twelve), to better understand how older students perceive praise and whether they generally value it (Elwell & Tiberio, 1994). The researchers administered a 'Praise Attitude Questionnaire' to 620 students in three suburban schools in Rochester, New York. The findings revealed that students perceive praise as a vital element in education and feedback,

and that praise affects their social and academic behaviors. The study also revealed a stark difference from the research on primary education students. Although younger learners and older learners both value praise, the students in higher grades had less of a desire to receive public praise. Ward (1973) asserts that public praise delivered by a teacher, though reinforcing for adolescent learners and their interpersonal communication, can be punishing in the presence of peer groups.

Despite the overwhelming majority of students choosing praise as their preferred form of positive classroom feedback, Brophy (1981) suggested that only 6% of total instructional time on average is spent issuing praise. Similar findings were observed by Merrett and Wheldall (1987), who discovered that in a classroom, where the frequency of praise given is once every five minutes, the average rate of praise for individual students was once every two hours. Thus, it is clear that, although most students desire it, there is an inefficient amount of feedback and minimal frequency of praise provided.

2.2.11. Section 2.2 Conclusion: Feedback

The role that teachers play in the lives of their students is incredibly significant. In addition to being motivators, role models, confidants, and counselors, teachers are still key authoritative figures in their students' lives, responsible for academic development as much as emotional support. Therefore, teachers' words and actions have a significant influence on their students' cognitive and emotional growth, as well as their conduct and performance. Because of this, the feedback they offer must consider the influence it may have on their pupils, since its delivery has a direct impact on their behavior and performance in relation to an instructor's expectations. In this section, we explored the theory that effective feedback should answer three questions ('Where am I going?', 'How am I going?', and 'Where to next?') in order to help instructors and learners to establish clear goals, orient the best methods to achieve those goals, and encourage further development. In addition, the feedback process should satisfy several

constructs including the source of the feedback (instructors and peers), the mode of the feedback (how it is presented), the content of the feedback (what type of information or response is conveyed), and the occasion (when it is presented). When considering the appropriate form of feedback, the literature revealed that direct corrective feedback, though good in intention, has the power to be detrimental to students' emotions and language development. Therefore, using indirect corrective feedback with direct positive feedback (verbal and nonverbal) and praise demonstrated more positive outcomes according to theorists and researchers. Furthermore, in line with the SDT model and autonomous instruction, it allowed individuals to feel in control of their own behaviors, actions, and goals, and feel equipped with the skills necessary for success. Section 2.3 will introduce the role that personality may play in the understanding and acceptance of feedback.

2.3. Personality

This section will focus on defining personality from the perspective of research conducted by numerous personality theorists throughout the years, before identifying the theoretical background of Jung's personality type theory. Thereafter, the focus of the literature review on personality will focus on the evaluation of Jung's personality type theory, the development of his theory in modern research, the creation, development, and implementation of the Myers-Briggs Personality Type Indicator (MBTI), and the relevancy and findings of correlative research into contrasting personality types. Finally, this chapter will discuss how personality may affect learning opportunity.

2.3.1. Definition of Personality

Particularly in the realm of second language acquisition, Ellis (1985) identified several general factors that determine performance-level differences from learner-to-learner (i.e., group dynamics, attitudes towards the teacher and course materials, and individual learning techniques), as well as personal factors that contribute to the degree of effort (i.e., age, aptitude, cognitive style, motivation, and personality). Among personality theorists, there has yet to be one accepted general definition of personality, however, most definitions do include similar properties. They are that personality is a pattern of relatively permanent features, traits, and distinguishable characteristics which result in a unique and consistent standard of conduct (Maddi, 1996).

To better understand the relationship between biology and behavior, personality has been explored and defined by many researchers throughout the years. Eysenck (1947, 1967) and Gray (1972) defined personality by emphasizing the long-lasting fundamental characteristics of individual behavior. Similarly, Pervin (1996) believed that personality was a direct indicator to the traits of a person or correlated to people that demonstrate continuous patterns of behavior.

More recently, personality was defined as the dynamics that constitute all traits and attributes related to behavior, including feelings and emotions, self-perceptions, opinions and viewpoints, thinking styles, and habits (Akhavan, Dehghani, Rajabpour, & Pezeshkan, 2016).

These elements regulate the preference, approach, and behavior of an individual. Brown (2007) emphasized that personality is a significant and challenging element that teachers and researchers must consider due to the magnitude of its significance in classroom pedagogy and acquisition of a second language. Understanding personality is undeniably essential in understanding human behavior and recognizing the variables involved helps researchers understand why and how individuals behave in a variety of settings and situations.

2.3.2. Personality Types and Prior Research

The study of personality is a vital component in the study of human and organizational behavior and has long been a focal point in the general understanding of individual behavior (Hjelle & Ziegler, 1992) through quantitative (Cattel & Mead, 2008) and qualitative research and methodologies (Bellak, 1950; Golden-Biddle & Lock, 2006). For a number of years, numerous researchers have also sought to examine the variables involved in the interplay between personality, preference for one modality over another, and informational processing. Some examples of such research include Bruner (1951), who observed how personality variables may influence how stimuli are interpreted by subjects; Derryberry and Reed (1994), who studied how personality variables influence attentional orientation; Edwards and Weary (1993) who studied the impact of personality variables on motivational influence and their effect on the amount of effort applied on a task; and Pacini and Epstein (1999) who examined how personality variables influence individual strategies when processing information and making judgements.

Studies on personality types and academia have explored personality types and teaching styles (Cunningham, 1962); personality types and teaching preferences of prospective teachers (Carlyn, 1976); areas of future specialties of medical students based on their personality types (Myers & Davis, 1964); personality factors associated with success or failure on the United States medical licensing examination (Sherva, 2002); and the correlation between personality types and student survival in law school (Miller, 1967). Frederick (1975) researched self-actualization and personality types by studying doctoral majors in educational administrations. Hoffman, Waters, and Berry (1981) sought to understand how personality types are affected by computer-assisted instruction in a self-paced technical training environment. Personality types have also been researched in artistically talented students (Belnap, 1973) and personality characteristics among senior art students and their area of study (Stephens, 1973).

When pertaining to career paths, personality types have also been investigated when considering career choices (Hanson, 1980), career patterns (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2002), and health professionals (McCaulley & Morgan, 1982). There has also been various research on personality types and management styles (Hartston, 1975), management level and job foci (Church & Alie, 1986), leaders' personality characteristics in relation to the hierarchical level and focus of their roles in organizations (Church & Waclawski, 1998), career success in the accounting profession (Jacoby, 1981), success in retail store management (Gaster, 1982), and overall job satisfaction (Williams, 1975). Personality types have also been used to explore relationships among counseling clients' personalities, expectations, and problems (Arain, 1968).

In an overwhelmingly number of studies, research on the interactive effects on information processing, behavior, preference, and selection, are evaluated by assessing processing preference using one of the four indexes of the Myers-Briggs Personality Type Indicator (MBTI), a self-reporting instrument used to assess individual preferences, evaluate personality types, and classify individuals into a certain number of dimensions based on Carl Jung's personality type theory (Jung, 1971).

2.3.3. Personality Prediction and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

2.3.3.1. Jung's Personality Type Theory

In Chapter one, it was mentioned that this research would contextualize personality within a psycho-dynamic approach, specifically within the paradigm of Jung's analytical psychology. As DiCaprio (1983) asserted, Jung never denied individual uniqueness nor complexity, however, he did argue that individuals could be categorized into definable types of personalities. These various personality types differed in their interests, their values, and their needs. However, they also displayed categorical patterns in their behavior, perceptions, preferences, and judgements.

2.3.3.2. History of Jung's Personality Type Theory

In 1921, Swiss psychiatrist and psychoanalyst Carl Jung published his "type" theory on the concept of psychological types and natural preference (Jung, 1971), a theory which stems from analytical psychology. To better understand the psychological functioning of individuals, Jung developed a theory from research in numerous fields, including the natural sciences (e.g., biology, physics, and chemistry), the social sciences (e.g., psychology, psychiatry, theology, and philosophy), and the humanities (e.g., literature, mythology, history, anthropology, and archaeology) (DiCaprio, 1983; Möller, 1995; Pervin, 1989; Schultz & Schultz, 2016; Spoto, 1995).

It was through this research that he first proposed the notion that human beings are born with a predisposition to prefer one function, extraversion or introversion, over another (Möller, 1995; Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 1998; Spoto, 1995). Jung suggested that extraverted individuals' energies are characterized primarily by an orientation that is directed towards the external environment and towards other people, while introverted individuals'

energies are primarily directed inward towards their inner environment, an orientation towards one's individual thoughts and feelings (Ryckman, 2012; Schultz & Schultz, 2016; Spoto, 1995). Jung's theory took the seemingly random behavioral variations of individuals and revealed that they are in fact not so random, rather, these preferences and approaches are actually quite consistent and methodical. This identification of two contrasting personality-types lead to discussions and debates on patterns of human behavior, which he identified as types (Jung, 1971).

2.3.3.3. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

Jung's work was later expanded and further developed by Katherine Briggs and her daughter, Isabel Myers, into a practical and dynamic self-reporting instrument known as the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) (Myers, 1987). They sought to develop a questionnaire-based instrument which would assess individual preferences, evaluate personality types, and classify individuals into a certain number of dimensions. The result of their efforts was the MBTI. The MBTI is a test designed to measure and classify individuals into four unique bipolar dimensions based on Jung's personality theory (Berens, 2000; Myers, 1987, Myers & McCaulley, 1985). These four bipolar psychological dimensions are Introversion (I) – Extraversion (E), Sensing (S) – Intuition (N), Thinking (T) – Feeling (F), and Judging (J) – Perceiving (P). The Introversion – Extraversion dimension encompasses focus and orientations of mental energy, the Sensing – Intuition dimension encompasses the processes of perception and perspective of acquiring information, the Thinking – Feeling dimension encompasses the process of arbitration, how information is handled, and decisions are made, and the Judging – Perceiving dimension encompasses the attitudes and approaches of dealing with the outside world around us. Individuals assessed using the MBTI receive a four-letter type which indicates their individual preferences for each categorical dimension.

			Sensing Types (S)		Intuitive Types (N)	
			Thinking (T)	Feeling (F)	Feeling (F)	Thinking (T)
			-ST-	-SF-	-NF-	-NT-
Introvert (I)	Judging (J)	I--J	ISTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ
	Perceiving (P)	I--P	ISTP	ISFP	INFP	INTP
Extravert (E)	Perceiving (P)	I--P	ESTP	ESFP	ENFP	ENTP
	Judging (J)	I--J	ESTJ	ESFJ	ENFJ	ENTJ

FIGURE 2

Four-Letter Personality Type (MBTI)

Figure 2 illustrates the various combinations of attitudes and functions which produce the sixteen possible personality types in relation to each other (Myers, 1987). The sixteen personality types can also be classified into types and roles in societal groups or teams based on their corresponding behavioral characteristics (Fekry, Dafoulas, & Ismail, 2019). These personality types, when organized into team types and roles, can be used to predict, and identify organizational cultures (Bridges, 2000; Hirsh, 1992). If correct, personality types may be used to determine the qualities and weaknesses of members within an organization and determine which role is most suitable.

TABLE 4

Effects of Personality Types in Work Situations

Introvert (I)	Extravert (E)
• Like quiet for concentration	• Like variety and action
• Tend not to mind working on one project for a long time uninterruptedly	• Often impatient long, slow jobs
• Are interested in the facts/ideas behind their work	• Are interested in the activities of their work and in how other people do it
• Like to think a lot before they act, sometimes without acting	• Often act quickly, sometimes without thinking
• When concentrating on a task, find phone calls intrusive	• When working on a task, find phone calls a welcome diversion
• Develop ideas by reflections	• Develop ideas by discussion
• Like working alone	• Like having people around

Source: Hirsh (1992)

Table 4 summarizes some of the effects of personality types in work situations. Hirsh (1992) asserts that the use of personality types has become one of the most used psychological assessment tools with individuals and groups. People's personalities have a direct influence on their social behaviors and interactions, so to further explain the significance of the sixteen MBTI personality types in understanding individual preferences, motivations, perceptions, and decisions, Kroeger and Thuesen (1988) discussed the unique four-dimensional assessment in detail in their book entitled *Type Talk: The 16 Personality Types that Determine How We Live, Love, and Work*. Their assessment of the MBTI framework and various personality types allowed for individuals to use their verified four-letter personality type in order to easily

understand and pinpoint their natural strengths and weaknesses, recognize potential areas that could improve, and gain insight into understanding other behavioral characteristics of their personalities.

It is clear that the aspects that illustrate the myriad of personality types are abundant. Of all the various dichotomic combinations that illustrate one's personality, Ross (1992) maintained that people could generally be mentally placed into two distinct categorical dichotomies of general personality. Therefore, in an effort to provide a focused and comprehensible framework, this research focused on those two adverse varieties of personality index – introversion and extraversion.

2.3.4. Introversion - Extraversion

2.3.4.1. Index and Attitude

According to Kroeger and Thuesen (1988), the Introvert-Extravert dimension is a revelatory index that exposes how individuals derive their energy and helps us gain a better understanding of how these contrasting personality types may be related to academic achievement and aptitude. This is due to the fact that the introversion-extraversion index reveals contrasting categorical patterns of behavior and perceptions. Whereas introversion is an attitude of the psyche which may be categorized by an individual's orientation towards their own self, thoughts, ideas, and feelings, the extraverted attitude of the psyche is characterized by its orientation toward other individuals and the external world (Ryckman, 2012; Schultz & Schultz, 2016; Spoto, 1995). Therefore, the extraversion-introversion scale may also be referred to as 'energizing', as it indicates whether an individual's energy is drawn from the outside world of people or the internal world of one's impressions, ideas, perceptions, and emotions (Hirsh, 1992).

An introverted individual may be reserved, hesitant, cautious, and reflective; they are always slightly defensive, shrinking from objects, and prefer to conceal themselves from suspicion or public scrutiny (Ryckman, 2012). In contrast, the extraverted individual has characteristics that are perceived as friendlier, more outgoing, and fearless; they are more able to form attachments due to their accommodating and candid nature, willing to venture into unfamiliar situations, and quick to set aside any hesitations or reservations when faced with uncertainty, trying conditions, or tribulations (Ryckman, 2012).

TABLE 5

Vocabulary Words and Phrases Associated with Each Personality Type

Extravert (E)	Introvert (I)
• External	• Internal
• Outside thrust	• Inside pull
• Blurt it out	• Keep it in
• Breadth	• Depth
• Involved with people, things	• Work with ideas, thoughts
• Interaction	• Concentration
• Action	• Reflection
• Do-think-do	• Rethink-do-think

Source: Hirsh (1992)

Table 5 is a list of vocabulary words and phrases commonly associated with each personality type (Hirsh, 1992). It is also important to note that although the attitudes of introverts and extraverts are characterized by polar orientations, they do not necessarily represent an absolute dichotomy (Möller, 1995). Every individual's personality has both introverted and extraverted characteristics, though Jung (1971) argues that in every personality, one attitude is dominant and conscious, while the other attitude is inferior and unconscious (Myers, 1987; Myers & McCaulley, 1985; Segovia, 2017). In addition, Jung asserts that every individual is actually quite specific in how they observe and assign meaning to every experience.

2.3.4.2. Introversion

Introversion refers to individuals whose traits are associated with caution, composure, and restraint. One of the key characteristics of introverts is that they are described as rarely aggressive. This is attributed to the perception that introverts have a stronger grasp on controlling their emotions, are better prepared for maintaining restraint and composure, and generally possess a dislike for revealing excitement. Therefore, they may prefer to limit or completely resist participating in group events, instead choosing to focus on spending their time on individual activities, which are mentally stimulating, rather than attending communal or social affairs (Eysenck, 1947). Furthermore, when faced with anxiety, introverts are believed to possess the ability to concentrate on the obstacle(s) and solve them with greater success (Aron & Aron, 1980). Introverts do not want to be the center of attention and, thus, may choose to be more reserved and limiting of their social activities and interactions. Their dislike for excitement is reflected in introverts' quiet and reserved demeanor (Eysenck, Eysenck, & Barrett, 1985). Kroeger and Thuesen (1988) associate this behavior to the belief that introverted individuals derive their energy from an inner-world dynamic, established by self-assembled structures constructed on the psychological foundation of their ideas, thoughts, and

perceptions. By limiting their social relationships to a smaller number of interactions and connections, introverts can better maintain their social environment. They are identified as calm and collected, and although reliable, are perceived as partially pessimistic; they are cautious, rarely aggressive, and are known to control their emotions better than their extraverted counterparts (Gyngell, 2000). Whereas introversion is a behavioral trait associated with "subjective inner vision," extraversion, on the other hand, is associated with "objective vision" and is "focused on external perspective" (Akhavan, Dehghani, Rajabpour, & Pezeshkan, 2016).

2.3.4.3. Extraversion

Extraverts, unlike their calm and collected counterparts, are less restraint and lack caution (Eysenck, 1947). They are socially-skilled beings with a preference for interaction and external stimulation, which is perceived as beneficial for developing social relations (Doeven-Eggens, De Fruyt, Hendriks, Bosker, & Van der Werf, 2008). According to Kroeger and Thuesen (1988), unlike introverted individuals, whose energy is derived from the inner workings of their own consciousness and understanding, the energy of extraverted individuals is derived from the actions, experiences, and social interactions of the outside world. Socially involved with a wide spectrum of communities and personal relationships, extraverts are more likely to be gregarious and incautious with their connection. Thus, they are likely to be surrounded by peers and friends, and participate in collaborative social engagements, such as meetings and ceremonies. Sociable, easy-going, and optimistic, extraverts are described as possessing a craving for excitement (Eysenck, Eysenck, & Barrett, 1985). This, as Akhavan et al. (2016) point out, may be the reason why individuals who are extraverted tend to possess a carefree and positive attitude, and are quick to act or react based on impulse, without a lack of empathy or restraint. Nevertheless, their social skills warrant stronger relationships than their introverted counterparts.

2.3.4.4. Introversion and Extraversion

Studies by Tinajero and Paramo (1998) and later by Evans and Dirks (2001) emphasized the necessity in recognizing that individual variations in learning ability, visual and spatial perception, and personality are all factors that affect psychomotor learning. Considering the polar characteristics of introverted and extraverted individuals, as seen in Table 6, should personality be taken into consideration by teachers, school administrators, and curriculum designers in the design and execution of teaching and training curricula? According to the findings of numerous studies, it appears that many researchers agree that it should.

TABLE 6

Features of Introverts and Extraverts

Extraverts	Introverts
• External	• Internal
• Divulge out opinions	• Protection of opinions
• Width	• Profundity
• Action and reaction	• Centralized
• Involved with people, things	• Interested in thoughts
• Outside thrust	• Inside pull
• Do-think-do	• Think-do-think

Source: Adapted from Bradley and Hebert (1997)

Practicing the target language is a vital element in achieving proficiency in SLA. Because communication and social interaction are vital in speaking and language development, various

researchers sought to distinguish introverted and extraverted perceptions of interaction (e.g., Choi & Kim, 2020; Choong & Kim, 2021; Schneider, Smith, Taylor, & Fleenor, 1998). The results indicate that introverted students prefer to work independently or in small groups consisting of one or two other people. They speak less than their extraverted counterparts, though appear to be better at reflective problem-solving tasks, as well as tasks that involve long-term memory. However, extraverts prevail in interpreting body language and facial expressions. They respond better to these catalysts and are more confident in engaging in speaking and short-term memory activities compared to introverted students. Extraverts tend to be more sociable and experience less self-handicapping due to the abundance of social opportunities. Similar research was illustrated by Hirsh (1992), who outlined the effects of personality types on preferred methods of communication, as shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7

Effects of Personality Types on Preferred Methods of Communication

Extravert (E)	Introvert (I)
• Communicate energy and enthusiasm	• Keep energy and enthusiasm inside
• Respond quickly without long pauses to think	• Like to think before responding
• Focus of talk is on people and things in the external environment	• Focus is on internal ideas and thoughts
• Need to moderate expression	• Need to be drawn out
• Seek opportunities to communicate to groups	• Seek opportunities to communicate one-on-one
• Prefer face-to-face over written communication	• Prefer written over face-to-face communication
• In meetings, like talking out loud before coming to a conclusion	• In meetings, verbalize already well thought out conclusions

Source: Hirsh (1992)

With sponsorship from the Center for Advanced Language Proficiency Education and Research (CALPER), a National Foreign Language Resource Center at the Pennsylvania State University, Kinginger and Farrell (2004) sought to examine the relationship between achievement and utilization of authentic social opportunities with speakers of a native language throughout a study abroad program in France. It was found from the results of their research that a majority of introverted students attempted to avoid interaction with the native speakers. Embarrassment for being identified and corrected for making mistakes caused introverted students to perceive themselves negatively and exposed them to feelings of isolation.

Borna (2017) researched the role of extraversion and introversion in developing speaking skills of EFL learners as perceived by 40 Bangladeshi University EFL teachers. The study revealed the teachers' opinions and views regarding personality type and the development of speaking skills in the EFL classroom. 50% of the instructors strongly agreed and 45% agreed that "practicing English is necessary to develop speaking performance." According to the instructors, it was challenging to help the introverted students develop their speaking skills because the students feared the focus of attention on themselves and, consequently, had less tendency to speak. They missed out on valuable opportunities to develop their English-speaking skills. Introverted students were believed to be "afraid of being focused in the classroom." Shame surrounding making mistakes or fear of being corrected caused instructors to limit their interactions with introverted students and ultimately reduce their opportunities to participate. Extraverts, on the other hand, displayed more courage and focus than their introverted counterparts, participated more frequently in speaking activities, and had more opportunities to enhance their conversational skills. Greater self-confidence allowed for more spontaneous participation in speaking activities, such as role play, pair work, and group activities. This also led to the perception that extraverted learners were more motivated (45% of teachers strongly agreed and 35% of teachers agreed). In conclusion, acknowledging that introversion/extraversion plays an important role in SLA, the instructors in the study expressed an overwhelming disapproval of introversion as it decreased the speed of acquisition and limited opportunities for comprehensible input as well as production of comprehensible output.

The willingness to communicate in the target language combined with risk-taking behavior allows extraverts to seize greater opportunities in the classroom, whether they are successful or not (Zhang, 2008). As introverted students communicate less with their peers or instructors, they receive less input, resulting in less comprehensible output, and this ultimately influences the rate of development. The limited number of opportunities tend to be an obstruction in their target language development and fluency, an obstacle that extraverted students aren't challenged with (Ellis, 1985).

2.3.5. Personality and the Classroom

Previous research on knowledge acquisition has often focused on introducing a myriad of techniques, methods, and approaches to best explain how the distribution of information and understanding from the expert to the novice is most efficient in a variety of academic settings. Such literature has made attempts to recognize factors that impact the knowledge acquisition process and identify ways to manipulate the academic settings to best overcome the challenges or obstacles that instructors face. What the prior research has overwhelmingly often lacked is the bridge between these two elements: the impact of personality traits (introversion versus extraversion) and the effectiveness of knowledge-acquisition techniques. Considering the strong contrast between these two personality types, it must be recognized that instruction and feedback may be supportive to promote opportunities for learning or, on the contrary, have adverse effects and hinder the learning process. Therefore, the method of providing instruction and feedback may have a significant positive impact or be severely detrimental to the learning process.

2.3.6. Section 2.3 Conclusion: Personality

This chapter explored the various definitions and paradigms involved when trying to clearly understand how numerous researchers and theorists perceive personality and its characteristics. The literature review includes a copious number of references to studies on personality types and seeks to find a correlation between personality, pedagogy, and future employment. Thereafter, the focus of the literature review is specifically on Carl Jung's Personality Type Theory and the development of the MBTI. Using data, empirical evidence from prior research, and numerous tables, the chapter further explains the various personality types, the significance of the introvert-extravert dimension as a revelatory index and explores

how the introvert-extravert dimension may impact or hinder learning. Chapter 5 discusses the research design and methodology of the current empirical investigation.

3.1. Participants

The participants selected for the study (N=115) were English language learners enrolled in a private South Korean university located in the city of Gwangju. The demographic characteristics of the participants can be found in Table 8.

TABLE 8

Participants' Demographics by Grade and Gender (Introversion vs. Extraversion)

	Male ($n = 39$)		Female ($n = 76$)	
	Introverted	Extraverted	Introverted	Extraverted
Freshman	9 (12.0)*	10 (25.0)	28 (37.3)	9 (22.5)
Sophomore	2 (2.7)	0 (0.0)	5 (6.7)	1 (2.5)
Junior	12 (16.0)	3 (7.5)	13 (17.3)	12 (30.0)
Senior	1 (1.3)	2 (5.0)	3 (4.0)	5 (12.5)

* Indicates percentage of personality type

Of the 115 participants, 39 (34%) were male and 76 (66%) were female. 61 (53%) students were freshmen, 3 (2.6%) were sophomores, 40 (34.8%) were juniors, and 11 (9.6%) were seniors. The data for this study was collected from a larger corpus of 75 three-hour sessions in EFL speech and presentation courses (5 identical courses x 15 weeks). Regarding participants' personality types, self-assessed MBTI results based on the first index (the introverted-

extraverted dimension) reveal that 75 (65.2%) participants were introverted, and 40 (34.8%) participants were extraverted. When looking at the personality-related demographic data by gender, 23 (59%) males assessed themselves as introverted, whereas 16 (41%) males assessed themselves as extraverted. Of the 76 female participants' MBTI results, 51 (67%) females assessed themselves as introverted, whereas 25 (33%) assessed themselves as extraverted. Students' language proficiency ranged in level from lower intermediate to advanced. Students who did not complete the surveys or did not meet the requirements necessary to pass the course (75% or more attendance and completion of all five in-class presentations) were excluded from the current study. The EFL speech and presentation course was an English for a Specific Purpose (ESP) elective course, which was not required by students' majors, nor a graduation requirement.

TABLE 9

Pre-Analysis: Perceptions about Confidence and Ability

	Introverted		Extraverted			
Item	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
Confidence in Public Speaking	2.4	2.0	2.8	2.5	.935	.352
Ability in Public Speaking	1.9	1.4	2.1	1.7	.676	.500

Statistical analysis through a t-test was conducted to analyze students' self-perceptions before coursework and instruction began, the results of which can be seen in Table 9. During the pre-analysis, students' perceptions about their confidence and ability in English public speaking skills was explored utilizing Likert-scale questions, which were administered through the pre-course survey. During the investigation into their self-perceptions, it was discovered through a *t*-test analysis that there are no significant differences in self-assessed confidence and

proficiency in English speech and presentation skills between introverted and extraverted participants. Students with higher self-perceived levels of confidence or proficiency in public speaking, regardless of personality-type categorization, would undoubtedly be influenced by these factors, which would ultimately affect their perceptions and acceptance of autonomy-supportive instructions, feedback (positive or negative), and praise. Therefore, a lack of significant differences indicates that students' self-assessed confidence and ability levels are similar and, thus, perceptions of instructional and feedback methods might not be influenced. Furthermore, the results of each dichotomous groups' perceptions in the study would be independent.

3.2. Structure of the Speech and Presentation Courses and Feedback Methods

3.2.1. Overview of the Speech and Presentation Course

Students completed a 15-week EFL speech and presentation course, which taught English public speaking skills three hours per week through a variety of direct instructional methods and incorporated numerous methods of feedback and praise. This course aimed to provide students with a basic background in the theories and principles of public speaking, as well as to provide students with practical opportunities to experience participation in basic and complex forms of speeches and presentations.

All five speech and presentation courses were offered through the Department of English Language and Literature and were taught by the same instructor. The instructor was a male professor, who has studied English education and teaching English as a second language (TESL). Though the instructor has 14 years of overall teaching experience, he has been working for the Department of English Language and Literature at the university for six years.

Coursework began with formative instruction, where students were taught a variety of skills and techniques that would aid the development of their public speaking skills for a

variety of settings (academic, business, etc.) in which formal presentations are required. Instruction, which is described in greater detail below, focused on the cultural conventions of speech, perceptions of the audience and others, use of verbal and nonverbal messages, and techniques of oral presentation and persuasion. Students learned how to research, outline, and deliver short, informal presentations as well as longer formal speeches.

Differentiated instruction, a modification of curriculum to assess and cater coursework to the individual learner's needs and progress, was utilized based on the understanding that students' self-perceptions of their confidence and ability in English public speaking skills were on the lower end of the spectrum (82.7% of introverted participants and 72.5% of extraverted participants assessed their confidence as 'terrified', 'a bit nervous', and 'okay', while 88% of introverted participants and 72.5% of extraverted participants perceived their public speaking ability as 'poor' or 'okay'). Thus, to promote learning, skill building, and opportunities to succeed, lesson plans with varying degrees of difficulty, and structured lessons, were utilized throughout the courses. Methods of structuring lessons to adjust to students' strengths and weaknesses included anchoring, tiered-questioning, scaffolding, compacting, and using of entry points. Creating independent and meaningful assignments for individual learners allowed the students to further develop their skills and abilities throughout the courses. Using gradually more difficult questions or tasks of varying levels of complexity during in-class group work assignments allowed higher-level learners to be challenged, while allowing lower-level students the opportunity to ask for assistance when encountering difficult or unfamiliar content. Using cooperative learning techniques, students could learn from hearing each other's responses and interacting within the group as a community.

The core contents (course curriculum scope and sequence) and the assessment goals for each unit are outlined in Table 10. Each unit focused on developing skills that would collectively enhance students' speech communication abilities and emphasized the practical skills necessary for effective public speaking. Lessons included techniques to lessen speaker

anxiety, and methods to use visual aids to enhance speaker presentations. The goal was to prepare students for success in typical public speaking situations and to provide them with the basic principles of organization and research needed for giving speeches.

Felder and Brent (2005) suggested that students receive instruction in a combination of learning styles: the style which they prefer and would avoid discomfort or anxiety with their studies, and a style which is less preferred in order to develop their skills and function effectively in future careers. In accordance with this theory, the skills taught and later assessed in presentations were meant to force students to adopt techniques that scaffolded their abilities and developed their skills, but also was emotionally supportive, alleviating stress and reducing anxiety.

TABLE 10

Course Curriculum Scope and Sequence

Unit & Title	Key Skills Learned & Assessed	Presentation Topic
Unit 1: Introduction	• Strong Body Language (Stage Use and Gestures) • PEGS (Posture, Eye Contact, Gestures, Smile) • Stage Use (Deliberate Movements vs. Moving without Purpose) • Purposeful Gestures (Hand Movements) • Vocal Variety (Volume, Speed, Emotion, Tone, Intonation) • Audience Management & Audience Participation (Invitation to Think, Invitation to Raise Hands, or Invitation to Speak)	Self-Introduction (Time: Minimum of 5 minutes)
Unit 2: Motivation through Message	• Motivating Our Audience with Our Message • Choosing a Topic (Passion, Value, Knowledge) • Finding the Purpose of a Message (Inform, Persuade, or Inspire) • Knowing Our Audience (Building a Positive Relationship and Working towards a Common Goal) • Discovering the Message (How does the message benefit the audience?) • Ending a Speech with a Strong Takeaway	A Lesson I Learned through Experience (Time: Minimum of 5 minutes)

Unit 3: Purposeful Planning	• Creating a Great Outline (Organization of Thoughts, Clear Plan, Easy to Remember) • Impressive Introduction (Hook, Personal Narrative, Thesis Statement) • Body (Strong Point, Clear Point, Most Impactful Point) • Transitional Phrases (Chronological, Prepositions, Time Words that Begin Clauses) and Promise Transitions • Compelling Conclusions (Conclusion Clue, Restatement of the Thesis, Challenge the Audience or Focus on the Future, and Ending with a Punch)	Argumentative: A Speech on Something I Strongly Believe In (Time: Minimum of 7 minutes)
Unit 4: Successful Supporting Details	• Gathering Information (Researching for 4 Types of Support: Examples, Explanations, Expert Opinions, and Statistics) • Reliable and Trustworthy Sources • Avoiding Plagiarism (Quoting and Paraphrasing) • Supporting Points with Anecdotes and Analogies • Analyzing and Using Statistics (Simplifying Statistics, Using the Audience) and Expert Opinions	A Speech on the Benefits or Dangers of Something (Time: Minimum of 7 minutes)
Unit 5: Dynamic Design	• Trends in Presentation Design (PowerPoint & Alternative Options) • Visual Aids (Clarify Ideas for the Audience, Involve the Audience, Relate to the Audience) • Dos and Don'ts of Presentation Design (Recognizing and Avoiding Common Presentation Errors) • Tips and Techniques for Overcoming Stage Fright • Forgetting Information or Fixing Mistakes • Note-Taking Techniques • Using Technology during the Speech	Free Topic: Students' Choice (Time: Minimum of 10 minutes)

Upon completion of each unit, students were asked to prepare a presentation based on the suggested topic, utilizing the skills and techniques learned from the current and preceding units. Each presentation (five total presentations throughout the course) was progressively longer –

ranging between 5 minutes for the first two presentations to over 10 minutes for the final presentation. For each presentation, students had approximately a week or more after the completion of a unit to prepare and present a speech based on the topic suggested. Each speaker presented their speech in the order in which they had signed-up for, and audience members consisted of the other students in the class, as well as the instructor.

A unique framework for delivery of instruction and feedback delivery was designed for this course and can be seen in Figure 3. In-class instruction and feedback were provided in alignment with the SDT model on autonomy-supportive instruction. Covington and Omelich (1984) assert that a key mediating factor in learners' performance is motivation and, according to Shute (2008), feedback is the catalyst which precipitates powerful motivation, particularly in response to goal-driven efforts (Murtagh, 2014).
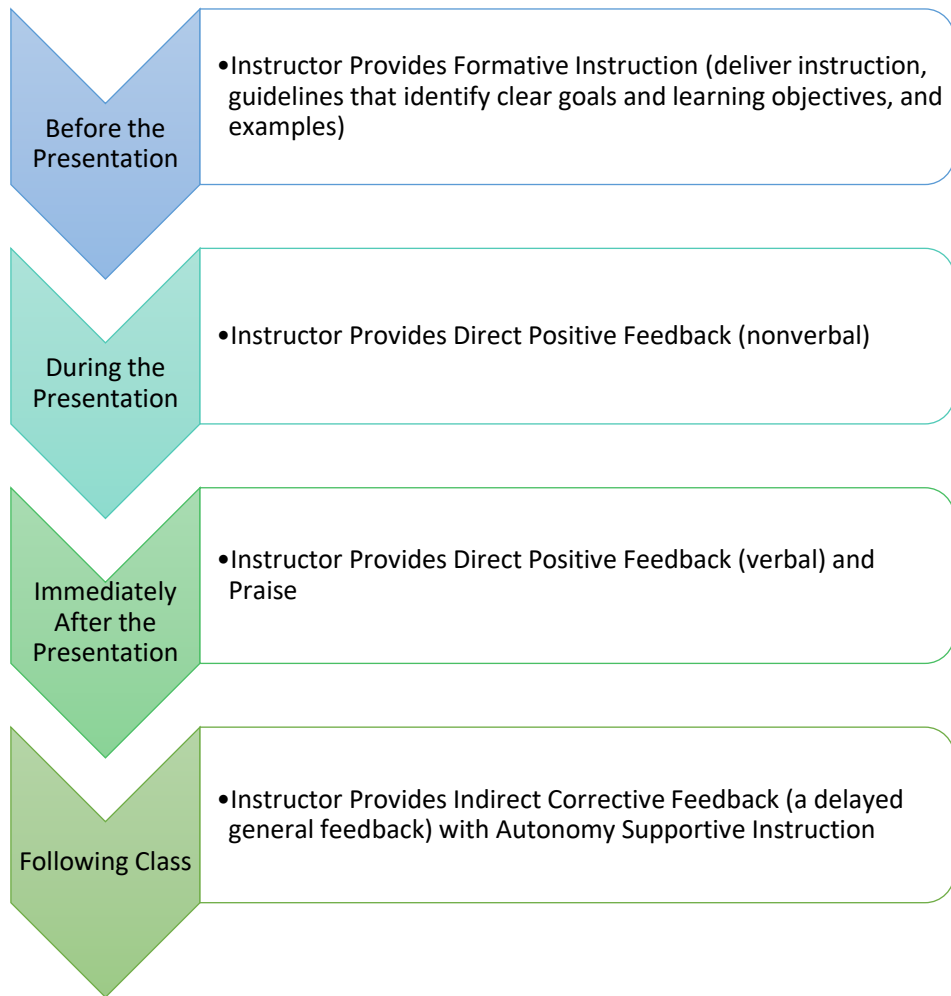
FIGURE 3

Process of Feedback Delivery

Students were allowed to present their speech during the time slot they had chosen, though the instructor gave no verbal nor nonverbal indication if students were under or over the allocated timeframe. During each presentation, the instructor used precise tokens of positive nonverbal feedback to the students regardless of the actual assessment. To show this engagement and positive approval of students' presentations, the instructor used various cues

and gestures, such as maintaining eye contact, raising their eyebrows, learning in/forward towards the speaker, nodding their head, tilting their head to one's side and smiling, and gesturing a thumbs up to the student presenting.

As mentioned earlier, in lectures prior to the presentations, as well as in lectures afterwards, the framework that was developed utilized autonomy-supportive instruction with indirect corrective and change-oriented feedback, so as to avoid the negative consequences or stigma, typically associated with such feedback. As an alternative, positive feedback (verbal and nonverbal) was delivered before, during, and immediately after students' presentations as a demonstration of support or reassurance from the instructor in the form of verbal and nonverbal feedback.

Immediately after each presentation, the instructor provided positive verbal feedback. This was done, once again, regardless of the true assessment of their performance. As Krashen (1982) proposed, feedback that rectifies the learners' mistakes may directly affect their emotions. It may render them self-protective, which would be detrimental to their language acquisition. Thus, any direct verbal feedback had to be sensitive to the students' emotions, while promoting understanding and increasing interactivity. It was necessary for the feedback to provide students with opportunities and motivation to increase output, while providing interpersonal communication that consists of necessary strategies for optimization of language development. Each form of direct verbal feedback was positive and satisfied at least one of the following categories:

Category 1: General Supportive Feedback

Among the various categories for providing direct verbal feedback, one of the simplest forms was general supportive feedback. General supportive feedback is an indication that the listener has received the speaker's dialog or expression and is, at the very least, satisfied with

the interaction. Some examples of general supportive feedback were responses, such as 'Yes', 'Yeah', 'Okay', or 'Uh-huh'. Such expressions do not necessarily have an exact meaning per se, but rather represent an implicit pragmatic meaning, demonstrating that the listener approves or is satisfied by the speaker's articulation or delivery of information. In addition to expressing some form of participation, acceptance, and recognition, general supportive feedback reassured the student that their presentation was completed and accepted. Being one of the most frequently used categories of direct verbal feedback, general supportive feedback specifically serves the purpose of being an indicator that the listener has accepted the information provided by the speaker and, to some degree, accepts and acknowledges the information. In addition, this category of feedback can significantly facilitate further interaction between the teacher and the student(s). It expresses participation, acceptance of information, and recognition of opinions. General supportive feedback is often followed by another type of direct verbal feedback, such as '*Positive Assessment*', as it is believed that the student will often be expecting some form of praise or evaluation.

Category 2: Positive Assessment

As general supportive feedback is completed, signifying that the task was completed, a positive assessment followed to overtly indicate that the task has met the standards of the instructor and the student's efforts have been recognized. Some examples of positive assessment could be explicit positive assessment terms, such as 'Wonderful', 'Excellent', 'Perfect', or 'Very Good'. This practice was meant to acknowledge that the student had overcome the obstacle of public speaking, in an environment that offers protection and empowerment. In addition, it showed the student that their effort was meaningful and allowed for the next category of direct verbal positive feedback.

Category 3: Acknowledgement

The next category for providing direct verbal positive feedback is known as acknowledgement. During this exchange, the listener expresses gratitude to the speaker (i.e., the student) for sharing the content with the listener (i.e., the instructor). This comes in the form of expressions of appreciation, such as 'Thank you', 'Thanks', and 'I appreciate that'. By expressing thankfulness to the speaker, the listener is providing feedback which expresses gratitude and cooperation through principles of politeness. In addition, acknowledgement shows appreciation for the speaker and works as an additional pragmatic signal that the task was completed.

Category 4: Explanation

The fourth type of positive feedback is the explanation. To reiterate a student's statement or opinion, to clarify information provided by the student, to supplement, explain, or emphasize a student's response, or to introduce new related information are all examples of providing an explanation through direct verbal feedback. In addition to aiding the audience with clarification about the content of a speech or presentation without putting further pressure on the speaker/presenter, explanatory feedback shows the speaker that you, as a diligent listener, were engaged in the presentation. The explanatory category of direct verbal feedback is cooperative and polite in its implementation. Although it is somewhat corrective in nature, it explains information provided by the speaker in a way that clarifies the information for the audience, while also focusing on language points. Though it is an important source for language input, this feedback avoids error rectification and deters any negative attention to the speaker, allowing the student to be more emotionally receptive to correction, while preventing any criticism.

Category 5: Further Questions

Another category type involves asking further questions. This mode, which frequently appears in the classroom setting, involves having the listener (the instructor) ask further questions to clarify information that was presented by the speaker (the student). Asking further questions may also be used to show that the listener was paying attention to the contents of the speech and was engaged by the speaker. It is the most direct way to facilitate further interaction and increase language output by the student. The opportunity to share opinions or introduce new knowledge is another positive result of using this type of direct verbal feedback.

Category 6: Evaluation

The final category for providing direct verbal feedback is the evaluation. In general, tasks have an ultimate goal. In the academic setting, simply finishing the task does not signify successful completion. Students rely on feedback as an analytical assessment of their efforts. Avoiding interjections or error corrections, the evaluation is a praise given by the teacher to the student(s) and generally reflects a high degree of support, while maintaining consideration for the student's emotions and further stimulating their interests and motivation. This is certain to achieve the best feedback effect.

Upon completion of the presentations, students were thanked for their participation and dismissed from class. The professor provided change-oriented and corrective feedback in the form of generalized comments to the entire class in a subsequent lecture. Comments were directed to the class as a whole and avoided using specific examples from students' presentations. As much as possible, comments were presented in a manner that supported autonomy and reduced ego-involvement and shame by shifting attention away from the self and refocusing the attention on the task at hand and allowing learners to feel a sense of protection. It is believed that, by using the SDT model, if participants felt sheltered from the

negative experiences mentioned, and protected by their instructors, progress and development throughout the course would not be hindered.

Providing tips on methods to improve future presentations and public speaking skills diverted focus away from prior failures and avoided accusations of blame. In addition to the emotional-scarring, guilt-inducing criticisms often delivered by corrective or change-oriented feedback, delayed and indirect corrective feedback, which was instead delivered to the class as a whole, equipped students with the tools necessary to autonomously progress towards completing future objectives and tasks.

An evaluation of each individual presentation was offered to students in the form of a rubric, which assessed individual presentation skills (i.e., body language and stage use, elements of vocal variety, purpose of the presentation, use of visual aids, and audience engagement). Students had the option to receive this rubric evaluation upon request.

3.3. Instrument

3.3.1. Pre-Course Surveys

At the beginning of the course, a pre-course survey was administered to all students enrolled in the courses. The pre-course surveys identified students' demographic data, purpose for enrollment in the course, and identified key perceptions that students held about studying English speech and presentation courses and their own abilities related to the course.

The completed pre-course surveys organized the participants into their respective personality categories (introverted vs. extraverted), using students' self-reported MBTI results (SEE Appendix A). In accordance with prior research that identified the introversion-extraversion index as the core revelatory index in individual perception (Kroeger & Thuesen, 1988; Ross, 1992), data on personality types was collected by means of the Myers-Briggs Personality Type Indicator (MBTI). In addition to helping the professor and researcher learn

more about the students and their goals, the survey explored three key items – motive for course registration, students' self-perceptions about their confidence in public speaking, and students' self-perceptions about their ability in public speaking.

Because enrollment was not mandatory, the first key item sought to understand the motivation behind student registration in the course. By understanding the motive behind their decision, the researcher could better understand students' expectations and goals for the course. It would also assist in understanding students' perceived utility value about learning English public speaking skills through an ESP course. As prior research has shown, students' perceived utility value has been linked to exam performance and course efficacy (Bong, 2001), enhancement in motivation (Simons, Dewitte, & Lens, 2003), and accomplishments (Malka & Covington, 2005). If students perceive the study of English public speaking skills with a high utility value, an increase in behavioral engagement, task commitment, self-management, and subsequent performance would all be essential contributing factors to students' development and success throughout the course.

The second key item sought to identify contrasting levels of anxiety among introverted and extraverted participants. A general fear of public speaking is one of the most common communication-based anxieties. The purpose for identifying students' self-acknowledged anxiety was necessary for recognizing the obstacles and negative consequences that could affect the learners. Anxiety from public speaking has been linked to poor decision-making (Beatty, 1988a; Beatty & Clair, 1990), poor speech preparation (Daly, Vangelisti, & Weber, 1995), and poor overall performance (Beatty & Behnke, 1991; Menzel & Carrell, 1994).

The third key item was used to identify participants' initial beliefs about their individual abilities related to public speaking. This key item explored their perceptions about their skills with two intentions. The first purpose of identifying the perceived contrasting levels of ability among the students was to allow the instructor to determine the best strategies for helping students overcome their fears and catering approaches and lessons to the contrasting

personality types.

Much like differentiated instruction is meant to appeal and challenge students at various levels of proficiency, identifying students' perceived abilities would allow for the modification of curriculum to assess and cater to the individual learners' needs and progress. Identifying effective techniques and constructing appropriate feedback for the varying personality types would be vital in their development throughout the course. The second purpose was to allow the instructor to assess their skills and development dependent on the perceptions of their pre-existing skills and compare it to their overall perceived development as identified in the post-course survey results.

3.3.2. Post-Course Surveys

At the end of the course, the researcher had students participate in post-course surveys, which consisted of open-ended questions, closed-ended questions, multiple choice questions, and questions containing a 5-point Likert scale. Questions included in the survey focused on students' perceptions about the instructor, instructional methods, methods of feedback, and modes of evaluation and feedback. Results were divided among both personality types and compared to identify differences in perceptions. The post-course surveys were allowed to be submitted anonymously and the results of selected questions were used for the current research to better understand students' beliefs about the various features of the course and their perceived development in mastering English public speaking skills. When necessary, clarification or elaboration of answers were refined through online correspondence or in-person communication so as to avoid any misinterpretation of the qualitative results. If further communication was not possible (e.g., participant anonymity), qualitative responses were omitted from the study. The appropriate consent and permissions were obtained when all documents and data were collected, ensuring privacy protection of all participants' personal information and data. The impact of these implications and findings are discussed in Chapter 4

and is pivotal in understanding the contributions this course's unique framework has in speech and presentation development in an EFL environment.

3.4. Data Analysis Method

3.4.1. Quantitative Data Analysis

Survey results were coded and organized to uncover target participants' opinions and attitudes towards key items related to the course. Quantitative data collected from the study was analyzed using descriptive statistics, such as frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations. The analyzed results of the items were then organized and grouped together according to their corresponding research question for statistical analysis. A *t*-test was performed to compare the means of the introverted and extraverted groups to recognize whether the aforementioned processes and elements of the course had an effect on the population of participants. The *t*-test formula ($t = \dfrac{m - \mu}{s/\sqrt{n}}$) was applied to the data and entered into the *t*-test function of a statistical software to calculate the *t*-value and *p*-value for comparison. The results of the *t*-test were then evaluated to recognize whether or not a statistical significance (*p*-value < 0.05) was present between the perceptions of the introverted and extraverted groups of participants.

3.4.2. Qualitative Data Analysis

A systematic and organized analysis process utilizing methodological triangulation (Carugi, 2016) was used for qualitative data collected from post-course surveys. Methodological triangulation was used due to the consistent and constructive characteristics this method determines by providing confirmation of findings, more extensive and comprehensive data, higher validity, and enhanced understanding of the phenomena being

investigated (Bekhet & Zauszniewski, 2012).

Initial codes related to the themes presented in the research questions, such as utility value, perceptions of the instructor and/or instruction, feedback (verbal and/or nonverbal), and public speaking development were assigned. The key factors discussed in the qualitative data were highlighted and organized by themes related to the research questions and gave the researcher further insight into the participants' perceptions about the various elements of the speech and presentation course.

The results were then compared to identify differences between introverted and extraverted participants' feelings, perceptions, and beliefs. A final review of the qualitative data was examined and included in the current study if the researcher found that the data supported, complemented, clarified, or contradicted the data from the quantitative survey results.

To ensure privacy and protect students' identities, all 115 participants included in the study were assigned a unique identification tag (i.e., S1 – S115) based on their student identification number, class, and semester when the course was taken. Qualitative data selected to be included in the study was attributed to individual students by referencing these unique identification tags.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Pre-Analysis

4.1.1. Perceptions about Learning Public Speaking Skills as an ESP

TABLE 11

Self-Perceptions about Public Speaking Skills

		Introvert (%) ($n = 75$)	Extravert (%) ($n = 40$)
Confidence in Public Speaking	Terrified	12.0	12.5
	A bit nervous	56.0	32.5
	Okay	16.0	25.0
	Quite confident	14.7	22.5
	Extremely confident	1.3	7.5
Ability in Public Speaking	Poor	21.3	15.0
	Okay	66.7	57.5
	Good	12.0	27.5
	Excellent	0.0	0.0

Through the pre-course survey, a pre-analysis of students' utility value about learning English speech and presentation skills was conducted, the results of which are presented in Table 11. Students' self-perceptions about their confidence and ability was assumed to be necessary for initial evaluation of the learning opportunities available for participants in the

study. Prior research on utility value identified considerable evidence that when performing achievement-related activities or tasks, learners' motivation, and state of involvement, how these individuals define success, and how they demonstrate these perceptions can be clearly identified using the dichotomous model of achievement goals (Ames, 1992; Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Nicholls, 1984; Smith, Cumming & Smoll, 2008; Urdan, 1997; Urdan & Kaplan, 2020).

In their research on learning goals and perceived abilities, Miller et al. (1996) found that secondary students who expressed a greater mastery goal orientation reported greater effort and perseverance. Similarly, Bandura (1982) discovered that self-efficacy, or how an individual believes his or her capacity to succeed in a particular learning environment, has a direct effect on motivational engagement and commitment to the task.

Students were asked to rate their current level of confidence in public speaking skills to gauge their perceptions about their self-confidence and recognize the anxiety associated with efficaciously interacting and transmitting information to an audience. To recognize students' self-perceptions of their confidence, students had to choose between five levels of confidence – terrified, a bit nervous, okay, quite confident, or extremely confident.

In an effort to find a balance between students' academic needs and their emotional needs, catering instruction, while promoting a learning environment where self-handicapping may be avoided, was necessary for student development throughout the course. By creating a nurturing learning environment, the instructor could manipulate their instruction to help students experiencing disengagement or negative emotions, which often results in low achievement and a performance-avoidance goal orientation. According to research by Wolters (2003), students who regarded their course objectives as lacking a focus on mastery goals perceived their classroom as lacking an emphasis on learning and increasing their talents, and consequently reported more instances of procrastination, a form of self-handicapping often witnessed in a performance-avoidance goal orientation. On the other hand, a greater dedication to their studies,

less frequent procrastination, and increased enrollment in additional academic classes in the future, were all results of a subsequent study by Wolters (2004). Thus, initial understanding of students' learning achievement opportunities (orientations and structures), would be vital in instructional methods utilized.

While analyzing the results of the pre-course survey, an unexpected finding was discovered. A greater percentage of extraverted students were 'terrified' of public speaking compared to their introverted counterparts, which contradicts prior research that identifies extraverts as less restraint, less cautious, and craving excitement (Eysenck, Eysenck, & Barrett, 1985). If Akhavan et al. (2016) are correct that extraverted individuals possess a carefree and positive attitude, why would participants in the current study exhibit more fear of public speaking than their introverted counterparts? One explanation for this phenomenon may be attributed to the fact that the students are performing in their L2 and, as extraverted students are likely to display spontaneity and impulsiveness in their behavior and language use (Hirsh, 1992), being formally assessed on their skills in an academic environment may create additional anxiety.

This unexpected result is meaningful in the fact that instructors may naturally and falsely assume that extraverts would have little hesitation performing in front of their peers. Such presumptions were witnessed in a study by Borna (2017), which found that teachers overwhelmingly perceived extraverts as courageous, focused, and naturally more motivated to participate in speaking activities than introverted students. This could be damaging to student performance as teachers may have unrealistic expectations, or instruction may be ignorant of these students' emotions and fears, resulting in increased public speaking anxiety. This, as discussed in Chapter 2, could be further detrimental to their success in the course as high levels of anxiety associated with public speaking has resulted in a variety of negative consequences including poor decision-making (Beatty, 1988a; Beatty & Clair, 1990), poor speech preparation (Daly, Vangelisti, & Weber, 1995), and poor performance (Beatty & Behnke, 1991; Menzel & Carrell, 1994).

In addition to their confidence levels, students in the current study were also asked to rate their own public speaking skills between four levels of competence – poor, okay, good, or excellent. As expected, students who perceived their public speaking skills as 'poor' or 'okay' were particularly higher among the introverted population, whereas the extraverted population was knowingly more confident in their public speaking skills, a majority of these participants selecting their perceived level as 'good'. These results were consistent in supporting the findings of prior research on extraverted students' confidence in speaking engagement in the academic environment, and introverted students' below average performance in the same tasks (Borna, 2017; Ellis, 1985; Hirsh, 1992; Zhang, 2008).

In accordance with these results, a majority of responses in post-course survey responses and interviews, particularly among the introverted population, mentioned an initial fear of public speaking. For instance, Participant S79 (female/introvert) described her initial nervousness as a significant weakness in her presentation skills. Some participants discussed experiencing physical symptoms related to their lack of confidence in public speaking. For example, participant S81 (male/introvert) described his first presentation as painful and an experience of extreme discomfort. Participant S90 (female/extravert) explained that she couldn't calm down as feelings of shyness and embarrassment caused her face to turn "as red as a tomato." Participant S86 (female/introvert) even described being so nervous that she wanted to vomit. Participant S80 (male/introvert) shared similar feelings of anxiety, re-counting their body as trembling, and describing their speech as unintelligibly rapid during the presentation (a sort of defense mechanism they attributed to their introverted personality).

Consequently, a unique methodology for teaching English speech and presentation courses was developed by the instructor in this study. A combination of direct positive feedback and praise, indirect corrective feedback, and autonomous instruction were utilized throughout the courses. Students' perceptions were documented and analyzed, based on their personality types, to answer the following research questions determined through this study:

1. What are the differences between how introverted and extraverted students perceive learning public speaking skills through an English for a Specific Purpose (ESP) course?

2. How do students with contrasting personality types perceive the instructor and instructional methods, including feedback?

3. How do students (introverted and extraverted) perceive their overall development of speech and presentation skills?

4.2. The Current Study

4.2.1. Research Question 1: Utility Value

The first research question sought to explore students' perceptions about the utility value of taking an English speech and presentation course. Recognition of utility value is a vital factor in developing intrinsic motivation among learners, and prior research has shown that there is a solid association between perceptions of utility value in a task and future performance. This includes course efficacy and prediction of academic achievements (Bong, 2001), students' performance and achievement when schoolwork was relevant to their future goals (Malka & Covington, 2005), and enhancement of motivation (Simons, Dewitte, & Lens, 2003). When exploring utility value among participants, the current study sought to understand two factors that could affect student utility value.
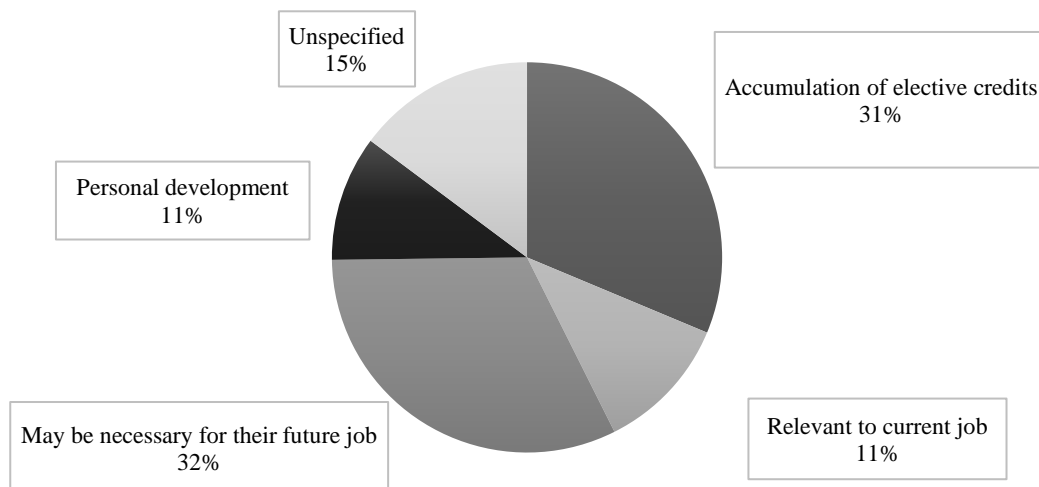
FIGURE 4

Primary Reason for Course Registration

The first factor was to recognize students' primary motive for course registration, as seen in Figure 4. Uncovering the reason for student registration was considered a vital attribute to students' utility value, as prior research found an undeniable link between intrinsic motivation, utility value, and course enrollment (Harackiewicz, Durik, Barron, Linnenbrink-Garcia, & Tauer, 2008; Meece, Wigfield, & Eccles, 1990; Updegraff, Eccles, Barber, & O'Brien, 1996; Wigfield, 1994).

In pre-course surveys, respondents were asked to choose their motive for registering for an ESP speech and presentation course. As the course was neither a mandatory major class, nor a graduation requirement, student enrollment would have been voluntary in this elective course. Therefore, course enrollment could be positive evidence of a high utility value among students. Although 36 (31.3%) of the 115 participants stated that they were enrolled in the course largely due to the fact that they needed to accumulate elective credits to graduate, 13 (11.3%) revealed that it was relevant to their current job, while 37 (32.2%) revealed that they believed it would

be necessary for their future job. In addition, 12 (10.4%) specifically stated that enrollment in the course was primarily for personal development. Therefore, more than half (54%) of participants showed evidence of an initial high utility value.

TABLE 12

Students' Perceptions about Utility Value of Studying English Speech and Presentation

Item	Personality	1*	2	3	4	5	*M*	*SD*
1. I see the value in the course content for my future.	Introvert (*n* = 75)	0 (0)**	2 (2.7)	13 (17.3)	41 (54.7)	19 (25.3)	4.0	3.6
	Extravert (*n* = 40)	0 (0.0)	1 (2.5)	5 (12.5)	17 (42.5)	17 (42.5)	4.3	3.8

* 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree

** Numbers in parentheses indicate the percentage of student responses to each item in relation to their personality type

The second factor sought to understand whether or not the participants saw value in the course content for their future. Post-course survey results recorded student responses using a 5-point Likert Scale and can be seen in Table 12. According to the results of the item in this portion of the survey, there weren't any students who didn't see any value in the class content for their future. A majority of students agreed (introverted at 54.7% and extraverted and 42.5%) or strongly agreed (introverted at 25.3% and extraverted 42.5%) that they saw value in the course content for the future. A general increase in behavioral engagement, commitment to the task, and students' self-management in the learning process, as well as the activation of attentional resources, are all contributing factors in academic achievement when students see value in what they are learning, are inherently interested, and are intrinsically motivated (Trautwein, Lüdtke, Nagy, Lenski, Niggli, & Schnyder, 2015).

TABLE 13

RQ1: Differences in Utility Value

	Introverted		Extraverted			
Item	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
1. Utility Value	4.0	3.6	4.3	3.8	.417	.677

As seen in Table 13, statistical analysis performed through a *t*-test comparing differences in personality types and their perceptions of the utility value of studying English speech and presentation for future success provided additional verification. Results from the *t*-test clearly identify a lack of significant difference between students' perceptions based on their personality type. The absence of a contrast between personality types was further evident when exploring students' comments from the post-course survey and interview questions pertaining to utility value.

When investigating a possible contrast in students' perceptions, a comparison of word frequency in students' qualitative responses to post-course survey and interview questions was examined to recognize whether any differences existed between introverted and extraverted students' responses. The qualitative responses, which were used to better understand students' attitude and beliefs, were transcribed and organized into their respective categories (introverted vs. extraverted). In addition to aiding in the identification of spelling and grammatical errors that would limit accurate results, all punctuation marks and special characters were removed, and text was converted to lowercase, to make the evaluation clearer, more uniform, and more concise. Introverted responses comprised of a total of 4,945 words, while extraverted responses comprised of a total of 3,120 words. A sample of how the qualitative data appeared after these modifications, though before word frequency was evaluated, can be seen in Figure 5.

for us to express ourselves as the topic is emerging as a problem in modern society i think its better not to pay too much attention to grammar but only to the content of what were trying to say rather than grammar to be honest if i made a presentation there was no comment about the content and i was pointed out about grammar i would not have been interested in english i think it would be good to have classes where students can participate in various ways instead of just taking classes theoretically if students do not participate and the

FIGURE 5

Sample Extract of Qualitative Responses

Processing data for the thousands of words collected for the introverted and extraverted corpus required a comprehensive framework for filtering the results. For a more accurate analysis of word frequency in participants' responses, the following word forms were omitted from the evaluation of word frequency: articles (e.g., a, an, the), subject pronouns (e.g., I, you, she, he, it, we, they), object pronouns (e.g., me, her, him, us, them), possessive pronouns (e.g., mine, yours, hers, his, its, ours, theirs), possessive adjectives (e.g., my, your, his, her, its, our, their), reflexive pronouns (e.g., myself, yourself, herself, himself, itself, ourselves, themselves), prepositions of place (e.g., in, on, at, by, near), prepositions of time (e.g., for, before, after, during, until, throughout), prepositions of movement (e.g., to, from, through, along), quantifying determiners (e.g., much, a little bit, a lot of), demonstratives (e.g., this, that, these, those), cardinal numbers (e.g., one, two, three), ordinal numbers (e.g., first, second, third), coordinating conjunctions (e.g., for, an, nor, but, or, yet, so), correlative conjunctions (e.g., whether/or, either/or, neither/nor), and subordinating conjunctions (e.g., because, although, until, when, though, whereas).

In addition, varying word forms (e.g., noun, verb, adjective, adverb) for words from the same family of terms were combined into a single item (e.g., the adjective 'confident' and the noun 'confidence' were grouped into one item). A similar procedure was utilized for varying verb tenses (e.g., simple past, simple present, present continuous) which were similarly

combined into a single item (e.g., the words 'learn', 'learns', 'learning', and 'learned' were grouped into one item), and for the singular and plural forms of a noun (e.g., the singular noun 'topic' and the plural form 'topics' were group into one item).

As many students used a diverse range of terminology to describe or identify the same item, synonym-use was also carefully considered for the analysis of word frequency. When students' responses used various words for the same vocabulary, these words were identified and combined into a single item. For example, students used the terms 'professor', 'instructor', and 'teacher' to identify the same individual. As the instructor is a male, the pronoun 'he' was also used in students' responses. These were all converted into the term 'professor' for classification as the same item.

Finally, repetitive generic words, which were the direct result of a response to a question, were highlighted, isolated, and segregated from the word frequency analysis. When analyzing sentences that were direct responses to a question (e.g., "When I do an English presentation, I think…"), generic words that were the result of students' responses to the open-ended questions were omitted from the analysis (i.e.., 'think', 'want', 'class', 'presentation', 'professor', and 'English' were all excluded from the analysis). When analyzing the remaining words, frequency of occurrence could be one of the core predictors in deviation.

TABLE 14

Filtered Word Frequency in Qualitative Responses

	Introvert			Extravert	
Rank	Word	Frequency (%)	Rank	Word	Frequency (%)
1	good, well	50 (1.01)	1	student(s), classmate(s), friend(s)	52 (1.67)
1	student(s), classmate(s), friend(s)	50 (1.01)	2	praise(s/d)	39 (1.25)
2	topic(s)	35 (0.71)	3	good, well	29 (0.93)
3	feedback	32 (0.65)	4	feedback	21 (0.67)
4	help(s/ed), helpful	29 (0.59)	5	opinion(s)	14 (0.45)
5	opinion(s)	28 (0.57)	6	confident, confidence	12 (0.38)
5	praise(s/d)	28 (0.57)	6	feel(s/ing, felt)	12 (0.38)
6	confident, confidence	27 (0.55)	7	compliment(s/ing)	11 (0.35)
7	learn(s/ing/ed), study(ied)	23 (0.47)	7	topic(s)	11 (0.35)
8	improve(s/d), improvement	19 (0.38)	7	improve(s/d), improvement	11 (0.35)
8	feel(s/ing, felt)	19 (0.38)	8	effort(s)	10 (0.32)
9	compliment(s/ing)	14 (0.28)	9	help(s/ed), helpful	9 (0.29)
10	effort(s)	13 (0.26)	9	learn(s/ing/ed), study(ied)	9 (0.29)
11	skill(s)	12 (0.24)	10	skill(s)	8 (0.26)
11	discussion(s)	12 (0.24)	10	discussion(s)	8 (0.26)
12	difficult	11 (0.22)	11	difficult	6 (0.19)

As seen in Table 14, the effect of the high-frequency words that produced the top 16 categorical items were identified for a comparative analysis after the aforementioned classification process. Frequency and the percentage of frequency in the collection of each personality type's qualitative responses were measured and logged. Based on the results of the analysis, a nearly identical set of key phrases were recorded and identified among both introverted and extraverted groups. Any noticeable distinction between the introverted and extraverted groups' responses was in the frequency, though no substantial variations were discovered. Extraverted participants mentioned words affiliated with 'peers' (1.67%) and' praise' (1.25%) slightly more often than introverted participants (1.01% and 0.57% respectively), however, analysis of this variation was statistically insignificant (SD=0.47). Therefore, as evident in Figure 6, a further lack of meaningful distinctions between the beliefs and attitudes of introverted and extraverted perceptions were found.
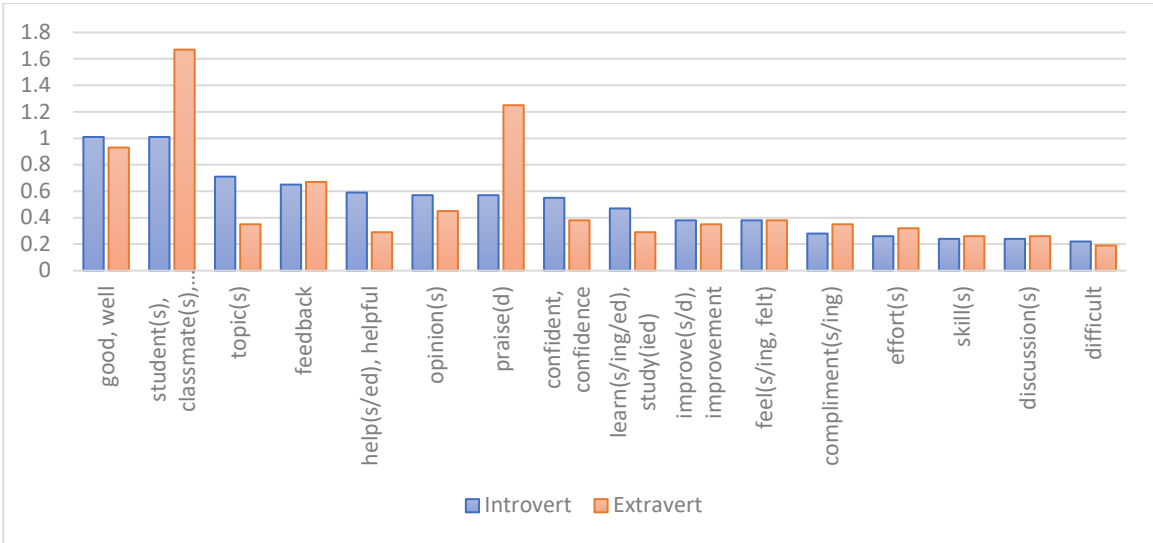
FIGURE 6

Word Frequency Comparison: Introverted vs. Extraverted

Due to the lack of significant differences in word frequency, analyzing students' opinions on the utility value of studying English public speaking skills from responses in post-course surveys was investigated. There were numerous mentions about the necessity of the course for current and future endeavors by participants in the study (e.g., S34, S79, S90, and S97). Consistent with the quantitative data, participants in the study expressed an overwhelmingly high utility value for learning English speech and presentation skills in the future, regardless of personality type. Among participants from varying personality types, there was a consistent discussion about overcoming their fear of public speaking for the future. For example, S54 (female/extravert) discussed overcoming her fears to develop her English public speaking skills for her future, in Excerpt 1.

> **Excerpt 1:** It was good to get helpful advice. Presentation is important and the class really helped me realistically. It reduced my fear in speaking English, motivated me to be confident, and served as an opportunity to prepare for my future. (S54)

In Excerpt 2, participant S80 (male/introvert) agreed with the necessity for Korean students to study English speech and presentation skills for their future, attributing introversion to the cultural norm in East Asia.

> **Excerpt 2:** The presentations can improve our skills and decrease shortage. Many Koreans and Japanese are really shy to speak in front of other people. So, getting rid of that shortage is really helpful to us for the future. (S80)

There were numerous introverted students who also discussed the frequency of presentations throughout the course and its contributions to their public speaking skills for the future. For example, S60 (female/introvert), S79 (female/introvert), and S86 (male/introvert) emphasized overcoming their fears and insecurities, despite the necessity for English public speaking skills for her future.

Excerpt 3: Presentation is good for our future and our job. Actually, I don't like to make presentations in front of others because my pronunciation is not good and I tend to get nervous a lot. However, I was able to make a lot of presentations and practice through [this] class. (S60)

Excerpt 4: It was helpful to experience presentations several times. At the first presentation, I was so nervous and felt my weakness. I was a little nervous at the last presentation. I think several experiences are important. I want to recommend [the class] to other students. This is because public speaking is an essential element in the future. (S79)

Excerpt 5: There's a lot to learn about presentations, and it's a course where you can experience presentations many times. We will need this. (S86)

Extraverted participants, such as S83 (female/extravert) and S94 (male/extravert) similarly discussed overcoming their fears to speak publicly in English as they believed that practicing giving speeches and presentations was vital for their future success. Participant S94 added that it was particularly helpful because it was learned through a native English-speaking instructor.

Excerpt 6: The reason I chose this class was to improve my presentation skills. Also, I have made many presentations in Korean, but I have never done it in English, so I wanted to try it. I was proud to see myself getting better and better after making several presentations… When I first started, I was so nervous. I could hear the sound of my heart. When I made the presentation afterwards, I was much less nervous and was able to present calmly. I think the main reason for this change is repetitive learning… As I did more and more [presentations], my fear disappeared a lot and I gained a lot of confidence. There are not many opportunities to give

English presentations now, and I think this experience will be very helpful in the future. (S83)

Excerpt 7: My goals for the class at the beginning of the semester were to improve my English-speaking fluency and skills for public speaking. I could learn lots of useful information about skills and strategies for public speaking. I highly recommend this course because students will be able to learn how to give public speaking successfully by learning strategies for presentations, and natural English expressions form an English native speaker for the future. (S94)

Along with the analyses of the data, these excerpts show undeniable evidence that both groups of participants, introverted and extraverted, recognize a necessity for studying English speech and presentation skills. As previously discussed, having a high utility value would afford them the opportunity to progressively develop their skills throughout the course as well as continue developing such skills in the future.

4.2.2. Research Question 2: The Instructor and Instructional Methods and the Acceptance of Feedback

The second research question sought to understand students' perceptions about specific elements of the course that could contribute to the development of English speech and presentation skills. These elements included students' perceptions about their instructor and the instructional approaches utilized, and the methods and delivery of feedback. Numerous items from the post-course survey and open-ended questions explored students' attitudes and beliefs and were divided into two separate categories: perceptions of the instructor and instructional methods, and perceptions, acceptance, and influence of feedback delivery and praise on motivation.

4.2.2.1. Perceptions about the Instructor and Instructional Methods

The learning process is cultivated by feedback and the evaluation of information, and the provision of effective and high-quality feedback has continuously been recognized as one of the key elements of quality teaching (Astin, 1991; Black & Wiliam, 1998; Ramsden, 2003; Rowe & Wood, 2008). Feedback can occur from a multitude of agents, including teachers, parents, other students, books, or even oneself and their experiences (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Therefore, students' perceptions of their instructor, a primary source of feedback in education and in this study, is relevant in understanding why change-oriented feedback, or corrective feedback, may or may not be accepted. It is critical that the feedback is simultaneously not detrimental to students' emotions, motivation, or, particularly in an EFL environment, language development. Thus, the following post-course survey questions sought to explore students' perceptions of the instructor, and instructional methods.

TABLE 15

Students' Perceptions about the Instructor and Instruction

Item	Personality	1	2	3	4	5	*M*	*SD*
2. The professor is caring and respectful of students.	Introvert	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (2.7)	6 (8.0)	67 (89.3)	4.9	4.4
	Extravert	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (2.5)	39 (97.5)	5.0	4.4
3. The professor explained the subject matter effectively.	Introvert	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (2.7)	8 (10.7)	65 (86.7)	4.8	4.3
	Extravert	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (5.0)	38 (95.0)	5.0	4.4

The results of two key items that were used in the post-course survey's Likert-scale questions to explore students' beliefs about their professor and methods of instruction are presented in Table 15. When considering students' opinions and perceptions about their instructor, students were asked to respond to a statement about whether or not they felt that the professor was caring and respectful of the students. The overwhelming majority of participants, 106 students (92.2%), strongly agreed with the statement. This group consisted of 67 introverts (89.3%) and 39 extraverts (97.5%).

To further explore students' perceptions, open-ended survey questions sought to understand individual opinions and attitudes related to the instructor. Participant S79 (female/introvert), participant S86 (female/introvert), and participant S96 (male/introvert) described the professor as always "considerate of the students," and participant S80 (male/introvert) believed that the professor cared a lot about the students. This was a common conviction among students when examining perceptions about the instructor. There were numerous comments from participants about the professor being caring, considerate, and/or encouraging (e.g., S6 (female/extravert), S20 (female/introvert), S22 (female/introvert), S23 (female/introvert), S40 (female/introvert), S44 (male/introvert), S87 (male/extravert), S94 (male/extravert), and S95 (male/extravert)). As can be seen in Excerpt 8, participant S100 (male/introvert) explained the motivation he felt from the nurturing environment the professor created.

> **Excerpt 8:** The professor created a comfortable atmosphere... Students felt comfortable asking questions at any time if there was anything [the students] didn't know.... I felt the support from the words [of the professor] to motivate to students. (S100)

Motivation was also mentioned by participant S2 (male/introvert), who stated that the professor gave them confidence in speaking and motivated them to present in English comfortably, as seen by S2's statement in Excerpt 9.

Excerpt 9: I could always feel that the professor was giving us [motivation]. I felt that he was concentrating on the presentation, and he was respectful... (S2)

When communicating with students on an individual level, participant S79 (female/introvert) and participant S85 (female/introvert) believed that the professor always addressed them in a manner that was personable and kind. The caring and motivating nature was also repeated by participant S35 (female/extravert), as can be seen in Excerpt 10.

Excerpt 10: [The professor] always cares about students, not only for understanding the class, but also about their school life and other parts. (S35)

The next item looked at the instructional methods utilized by the professor during the courses. These methods are described in great detail in Chapter 3. Lectures throughout the courses were conducted within the model of the SDT (Deci & Ryan, 1985), as this is believed to support students' innate and psychological needs for competence, connection, and autonomy, and further contributes to the development of intrinsic motivation. In accordance with the instructor's use of this model, which facilitates independence, acquisition of knowledge, and growth, students' opinions were collected.

Students were asked to choose whether they strongly disagreed, disagreed, were neutral, agreed, or strongly agreed that the subject matter was effectively explained through the professor's instructions throughout the courses. Once again, there weren't any students who disagreed nor strongly disagreed with the statement, and as per the previous findings, the overwhelming majority of participants, 103 students (89.6%), strongly agreed with the statement. This group consisted of 65 introverts (86.7%) and 38 extraverts (95%).

Student interviews about the instruction and methodology of the course were overwhelmingly positive. Most feedback on the instruction focused on the opportunities to participate and ask questions throughout the course. For example, participant S39

(male/introvert) discussed his satisfaction with the professor's patience while giving many opportunities to speak or ask questions, which can be found in Excerpt 11.

> **Excerpt 11:** There are so many opportunities to present, so I like this teaching style. The professor is always waiting for the students' opinions and did not make us hurry... I think that this teaching style makes students more active and effective for learning." always cares about students, not only for understanding the class, but also about their school life and other parts. (S39)

This was similar to participant S50 (female/extravert) whose response also mentioned that the atmosphere of the course allowed for opportunities to "ask questions without shame." In Excerpt 12, participant S26 (female/extravert) shares her experiences with asking the professor questions.

> **Excerpt 12:** Whenever there is something I don't know, I can ask [the professor] without any burden... When I ask a question, [the professor] kindly tells me again step by step. (S26)

Participant S42's comments reflected similar opinions, stating that the professor gave "individual opportunities," which also relieved his tension when speaking publicly. Participant S42, a male extravert, believed that this also gave him more confidence. Participant S83 (female/extravert) described the professor's instructions as meticulous and thoughtful in delivery, while participant S89 (female/extravert) stated that she appreciated the way the professor always verified with the students whether or not they understood the instructions or had additional questions. Similar sentiment can be seen in the comments of participant S49 (female/introvert), which are available in Excerpt 13.

> **Excerpt 13:** The professor created a good atmosphere for students to present and ask questions comfortably. In addition, the professor kindly explained to the students

when there was a problem and actively specified [a solution] without hesitation... It provided enough time for students to participate comfortable... [Lectures were] actively conducted for students rather than for [the professor]. (S49)

Because the student also added that they felt like lectures were "actively conducted for students rather than for [the professor]," it may allude to the course being one of the few student-centered learning courses available to them, or one of the few courses where they felt their academic needs fulfilled. Participant S43 (female/introvert) believed that her courage to speak publicly was directly derived from the professor's encouragement, advice, and feedback, and these comments can be seen in Excerpt 14.

> **Excerpt 14:** I was able to muster the courage to present because [the professor] respected and responded to every question and answer, always assuring us... Nothing was left unaddressed... Any small questions or curiosities [were answered]. There was always ample discussion time. (S43)

Furthermore, participant S43 felt that the professors use of personal anecdotes during instructions resulted in more "personal" and "engaging" lessons. This falls in line with the research of Magilow (1999), whose research revealed that avoiding negative impacts on student self-perception through error correction is possible and effective, but only after a solid teacher-student relationship is established and positive affect is enacted through the use of humor, personal anecdotes, and an affable tone.

4.2.2.2. Perceptions of Feedback and Praise

Method of Feedback Delivery

Before exploring students' ultimate perceptions about the instructor's use of feedback and praise, the post-course survey asked students to identify the method of delivery for feedback

and praise that they preferred. Because one of the fundamental components of a quality education is the construction, design, and distribution of high-quality feedback in an effective and fostering manner (Astin, 1991; Black & Wiliam, 1998; Ramsden, 2003; Rowe & Wood, 2008), understanding students' preferences would allow for a thorough investigation into the integration of various forms of feedback and praise into the instruction of the course. As evident in prior research (e.g., Weinstein, 1983), students recognize feedback as a core indication of their success in task completion and levels of accomplishment in school. Thus, how the use of corrective feedback, positive feedback (verbal and nonverbal), and praise were constructed and utilized, and their influence on the learners would need to be explored through the post-course surveys and interviews to better understand students' perceptions.

TABLE 16

Preferences in Evaluation and Feedback

		Introvert (%) ($n = 75$)	Extravert (%) ($n = 40$)
How do you prefer to be evaluated / receive feedback?	Rubric / Marking Sheet	14.7	12.5
	Written Comments	42.7	57.5
	Verbal Comments	40.0	30.0
	I do not want personal feedback.	2.7	0.0
How do you prefer to receive praise?	Verbal Comments	52.0	60.0
	Nonverbal Gestures	26.7	17.5
	Written Comments	20.0	20.0
	I do not want praise.	1.3	2.5

The results of two key elements in students' perceptions about the method of delivery of personal feedback and praise are presented in Table 16. The first question in the investigation

asked students the method in which they prefer to be evaluated and receive personal feedback. Similar to prior research on feedback preferences (e.g., Rowe & Wood, 2008), the most popular options among students surveyed were written comments and verbal comments. The most popular option was receiving written comments, with nearly half of the total participants choosing this method (55 respondents, or 47.8% of the total respondents). This group consisted of 32 introverts (42.7% of all introverted students surveyed) and 23 extraverts (57.5% of all extraverted students surveyed). The next popular option, with 42 students (36.5% of the students surveyed) was verbal comments. Respondents choosing verbal comments comprised of 30 introverted students (40% of all introverted participants) and 12 extraverted students (30% of all extraverted participants). 16 students, or 13.9% of the total population of participants, chose a rubric or marking sheet as their preferred method of personal feedback. 11 of the 16 participants were introverted students (14.7% of all introverted students surveyed) and the remaining 5 were extraverted students (12.5% of all extraverted students surveyed). Finally, two students, both introverted (1.7% of all participants and 2.7% of introverted participants) chose no personal feedback as their preference. Instead, they believe that general feedback administered to the whole class would suffice. Receiving evaluations and feedback in written form was overwhelmingly preferred and explicitly mentioned by a few students (e.g., S90) in post-course survey responses. One of the few participants to mention the specific method of feedback that they prefer, participant S90 (female/extravert) expressed a desire to receive feedback and evaluation through a written message, as can be seen in Excerpt 15.

Excerpt 15: I want a message because I think I will be able to know exactly what I couldn't feel and make up for it in the next presentation... (S90)

In addition to the form of feedback used for evaluation, the next portion of the investigation explored praise as a form of personal feedback. When it came to receiving personal feedback in the form of praise during the current study, students were surveyed about the form of praise that they preferred to receive. The most popular option among the students surveyed was

receiving praise through verbal comments and was more substantial among the extraverted population of participants. 63 students (54.8% of the total participants) chose verbal comments as their preferred method of receiving praise. They consisted of 39 introverts (52%) and 24 extraverts (60%). Nonverbal gestures, such as a thumbs up, nods, and smiles, were the next most popular method of receiving praise and was statistically more significant among the introverted population of participants. A total of 27 students (23.5% of the total participants) chose nonverbal gestures as their preferred method of receiving praise. The 27 students were comprised of 20 introverted students (26.7%) and 7 extraverted students (17.5%). A fifth of all students surveyed (23 students) chose written comments as the way in which they preferred to receive praise. 15 were introverted students (20%) and 8 were extraverted students (20%). Two respondents, one introverted individual (1.3%) and one extraverted individual (2.5%) stated that they did not want any form of praise.

There were numerous introverted participants who discussed praise in their post-course surveys and interviews. For example, participant S22 (female/introvert) said that she enjoys receiving praise and compliments because it makes her feel proud and feel like her efforts are being recognized. Participant S39 (male/introvert) insisted that praise is a natural desire for all students and shared his reasons why in Excerpt 16.

> **Excerpt 16:** All students want to be praised for their efforts. It is another way to check our results – if we did a good job or need more effort. So, I love to be praised for my efforts and it can make me more confident and active. (S39)

This was echoed by other participants. For example, participant S2 (male/introvert) shared a similar desire to be praised, particularly among his peers. His opinions can be found in Excerpt 17.

> **Excerpt 17:** Of course, I like to be praised and recognized. Being praised gives me motivation and energy. I think that I keep getting the idea and passion to work

harder. I can also feel the sense of accomplishment that I did well. I think there are many positive things about praise… Compliments are always welcome. I think I prefer to hear compliments in front of others. The praise I receive in front of others seems to [be accepted] more because I find it difficult to do something in front of others. (S2)

Participant S53 (female/introvert) asserted that receiving recognition for her efforts is a great encouragement. She added that it boosts her confidence and motivates her to continue working hard. When it came to the occasion of receiving praise, she insisted that being praised when she reaches important milestones or achieves challenging goals is when praise should be delivered. As evident in Excerpt 18, participant S43 (female/introvert) also enjoyed receiving praise as she believed it to be motivating for her particular situation.

Excerpt 18: At the beginning of the semester, actually, I felt awkward and struggled especially with my English skills because I returned to school after a two-year leave of absence from school. To compensate for my lack of proficiency, I prepared for each topic in advance, rehearsed my answers, and sought out questions to ask. Although there were moments of self-doubt, I appreciate [the professor's] warm words and open-mindedness in dealing with students. I appreciate compliments in any situation. (S43)

When asked about the occasion or focus of the praise received, she (participant S43) did not have any preference, though emphasized that although she feels good whenever she receives compliments from her professors and instructors, it should never be "comparisons that may make others feel down."

Participant S48 (female/extravert), one of the few extraverted participants to discuss praise in the post-course survey, admitted that she enjoyed receiving praise because "it's always good

to be praised," and believed that praise is best when delivered immediately "after participating and [delivered] in front of the other students."

Participant S41 (female/introvert) admitted that she too enjoyed praise, though felt that it should be limited in length and delivered privately. She believed that praised should be limited to short phrases, such as 'You're great!' and expressed privately as it would be "very embarrassing" to receive praise in front of the other students.

The anxiety of receiving praise in front of others was mentioned by participant S31 (female/introvert), who asserts that, although praise can confirm success, it would be "embarrassing and burdensome" to be praised in front of other students. This coincided with the results of Ward's research (1973), which found that public praise delivered by a teacher, though reinforcing for adolescent learners and their interpersonal communication, can be punishing in the presence of peer groups, particularly in older students. Participant S49 (female/introvert) shared a similar reaction, which she attributed to her personality and self-perceived poor English skills. Her comments are shared in Excerpt 19.

> **Excerpt 19:** I am just ashamed of myself and don't expect or want compliments. If I have to be praised, I would like to receive it personally. For example, it would be good to hear compliments such as 'you stuttered less than last time when speaking English' or 'you were speaking in a more grammatical English'. (S49)

As evident from her response, in addition to participant S49's preference for praise being delivered personally, she felt that the focus or target of the praise should be about areas in which her skills improved. This focus of praise was echoed by several other students, such as participant S26 (female/extravert), who wanted to be praised for her improvement in pronunciation and vocabulary, or participant S34 (female/extravert), who wanted to be praised for her efforts, rather than results or grades.

Whereas participant S34 felt that she may be embarrassed to be praised in front of the other students and would prefer to be praised after class, participant S26 stated that she would prefer the praise to be delivered in front of her peers because her "self-esteem will increase" and she "will gain confidence," though later admits that praise delivered personally would be more sincere.

Based on results from the survey and student responses to open-ended questions on the topic, there is certainly a demand for recognition and praise, and this finding is consistent with previous studies. For example, according to research on students' attitudes towards rewards and praise in a secondary school, Sharpe (1985) reported that 26% of adolescent students preferred to receive praise publicly and loudly, 64% preferred to be praised quietly and privately, and only 10% of students preferred the teacher not say anything at all when the students achieved on an academic task successfully. Thus, regardless of the method, mode, or target of the praise, there is an overwhelming desire for praise to be received.

Effectiveness of Feedback Delivery

Particularly in the EFL environment, where peer-to-peer or student-teacher communication is seen as an absolute necessity for language development, feedback discourse promotes certain pragmatic strategies for increasing student interactivity; allowing comprehensible input and creating opportunities to produce output. Acceptance of feedback coincides with acceptance of comprehensible input and creates opportunities for students to participate and engage in language learning. As the agent of feedback delivery was explored in the previous section, students' attitudes and beliefs about the effectiveness of the feedback in development throughout the course were the focus of the following items from the post-course surveys and interviews.

TABLE 17

Students' Perceptions about Feedback

Item	Personality	1	2	3	4	5	*M*	*SD*
4. The professor's feedback was helpful / useful for my language development.	Introvert	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (9.3)	24 (32.0)	44 (58.7)	4.5	4.0
	Extravert	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (2.5)	6 (15.0)	33 (82.5)	4.8	4.3
5. My public speaking skills improved because of the feedback that was provided.	Introvert	0 (0.0)	1 (1.3)	26 (34.7)	25 (33.3)	23 (30.7)	3.9	3.5
	Extravert	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	6 (15.0)	8 (20.0)	26 (65.0)	4.5	4.0
6. The professor's feedback motivated me to participate more.	Introvert	0 (0.0)	1 (1.3)	21 (28.0)	12 (16.0)	41 (54.7)	4.2	3.8
	Extravert	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (7.5)	7 (17.5)	30 (75.0)	4.7	4.2

As presented in Table 17, to understand students' perceptions about the effectiveness of feedback provided, students were asked about three feedback factors that may have contributed to their development and motivation throughout the English speech and presentation course.

First, when exploring students' perceptions about the helpfulness and usefulness of the professor's feedback in their language development, the overwhelming majority of participants believed that progress was made throughout the course. Once again, there weren't any students who disagreed nor strongly disagreed with the statement, signifying that feedback had some impact on their language development. The overwhelming majority of students (107 of the 115 participants) either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. Of the 77 students who strongly agreed about the helpfulness and usefulness of the professor's feedback towards their language development, 44 students were introverts (58.7% of the introverted population of participants) and 33 were extraverts (82.5% of the extraverted population of participants). Thus, regardless of their personality types, more than half of each group of participants experienced

language development, which is consistent with previous findings (Carrell, Prince, & Astika, 1996).

Because the study specifically focused on EFL speech and presentation courses, the second portion of the section investigating feedback's contribution towards language development throughout the course explored students' perceptions on the development of their public speaking skills. The extraverted participants' results exhibited a drastically higher difference in positive perceptions about the development of their public speaking skills than their introverted counterparts. The opinions of the introverted population were fairly equally dispersed among the 'neutral', 'agree', and 'strongly agree' options. Evidence from prior studies highlights the reason for this phenomenon, and this may shed light in understanding the innate differences between contrasting personality types and why these differences may negatively affect or positively contribute to language development.

Based on prior research on introverted and extraverted perceptions of interaction (Schneider, Smith, Taylor, & Fleenor, 1998), it was discovered that introverted students prefer to work independently or in small groups consisting of one or two other people. They speak less than their extraverted counterparts, though appear to be better at reflective problem-solving tasks, as well as tasks that involve long-term memory. However, extraverts prevail in interpreting body language and facial expressions. They respond better to these catalysts and are more confident in engaging in speaking and short-term memory activities compared to introverted students. Extraverts tend to be more sociable and experience less self-handicapping due to the abundance of social opportunities.

Due to the social nature of public speaking, introverts may have felt that feedback did not play as strong a role in developing their public speaking. Similar results found that the willingness to communicate in the target language combined with risk-taking behavior allows extraverts to seize greater opportunities in the classroom, whether they are successful or not (Zhang, 2008).

While exploring the qualitative results, it was discovered that numerous students, primarily introverted participants, shared their opinions about verbal and nonverbal feedback and their language development. For example, participant S41 (female/introvert) shared that feedback from the professor was targeted towards making students more confident and attributed greatly to the learning process. When asked about how she was personally affected by the professor's feedback, she shared the following information, which can be seen in Excerpt 20.

> **Excerpt 20:** I was reluctant to speak in front of others because I was not confident in my speaking skills. Then, the professor's teaching style was so helpful to me. I became confident in speaking, so I am really thankful to the professor. (S41)

Participants S80 (male/introvert) and S81 (male/introvert) similarly believe that their improvement in public speaking was also directly related to the professor's feedback. Participant S81 specifically stated that the professor's feedback was helpful to him. He always felt that the professor was trying to help him and other students, and he was "grateful for that."

There were several students who indicated the nonverbal forms of feedback as their motivating factors. Participants S38 (female/introvert), S79 (female/introvert), and S86 (female/introvert) specifically mentioned eye contact as one of the key components that helped them complete this objective. Participant S79's comments can be seen in Excerpt 21.

> **Excerpt 21:** Eye contact with close friends and the professor's eyes was most helpful. When I looked at the professor's eyes, I was able to do the presentation more comfortably. (S79)

Participant S80 (male/introvert) mentioned facial features, saying he found it helpful to see the professor's and other listeners' reactions during the presentation, going on to describe it as impactful "big feedback." Participant S90 (female/extraverted) described maintaining eye

contact as difficult at times. However, as shared in Excerpt 22, she found other aspects of nonverbal communication helpful.

> **Excerpt 22:** I gained confidence because the professor kept nodding, and I was able to finish the presentation well! Also, I became more confident because the professor looked positive. (S90)

Participants S98 (female/extravert), one of the only extraverted participants to explicitly discuss nonverbal feedback, and S99 (female/introvert) shared similar sentiments, which can be seen in Excerpt 23 and Excerpt 24 respectively.

> **Excerpt 23:** Personally, I love the feedback. The professor cared about the students. Especially when he [focused] on all of the students and nodded to them in order to show that he was listening to their presentation. (S98)

> **Excerpt 24:** [The professor] was always sitting in the back nodding and I was often reassured and felt a little more relieved. It helped me feel relaxed and reassured me that it's okay and I'm doing okay. (S99)

The last item in the current section explored motivation. The third focal question in the understanding of students' perception about feedback and praise focused on feedback and its effect on student motivation on class participation. In structural and communicative approaches, feedback is vital in contributing to the language learning process, and is known to develop or ensure linguistic accuracy, as well as help foster learner motivation. Determining the ideal balance between positive and negative feedback should be a primary focus for instructors in the field of language-learning and using it to create an academic balance that facilitates learning and higher motivation is absolutely essential (Kuo, Walker, Belland, & Schroder, 2013). Long (1983) advises teachers to experiment with various methods of feedback strategies and techniques in order to determine the most effective strategy for improving students' linguistic

accuracy. The teacher must consistently and systematically offer enough support and encouragement to the learner in order to generate and build up motivation to participate more actively in language building activities.

To explore the success of developing student motivation and cultivating students' confidence to participate more, the survey asked participants to select an option that best describes their views on the following statement: "The professor's feedback motivated me to participate more." More than half of the introverted participants (54.7%) and 75% of the extraverted participants strongly agreed with the statement and no students strongly disagreed with the statement, signifying a considerable success in increasing student motivation. With remaining selections in the 'neutral' or 'agree' category, evidence in the qualitative data to support this item was revealed in one of the open-ended responses.

Participant S90 (female/extravert) felt that the use of direct positive feedback provided by the professor immediately after a presentation was not only suffice, but also encouraging. Her opinion can be seen in Excerpt 25.

> **Excerpt 25:** Whenever the presentation was over, the professor always told us that we did a good job, so I felt confident and happy. I thought I should do better in the next presentation. (S90)

A t-test comparing introverted and extraverted students' perceptions about the five items (the instructor, instructional methods, feedback and language development, feedback and public speaking development, and feedback and motivation) were analyzed to see if a statistical significance existed beyond the Likert-scale and open-ended survey responses.

TABLE 18

RQ2: Differences in Perceptions of the Instructor, Instruction, and Feedback

	Introverted		Extraverted			
Item	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
1. The instructor	4.9	4.4	5.0	4.4	.116	.908
2. Instructional methods	4.8	4.4	5.0	4.4	.232	.817
3. Feedback and language development	4.5	4.0	4.8	4.3	.373	.710
4. Feedback and public speaking development	3.9	3.5	4.5	4.0	.833	.407
5. Feedback and motivation	4.2	3.8	4.7	4.2	.648	.519

Table 18 presents the statistical analysis of the five items that evaluate students' perceptions about their instructor, the instructional methods, and the perceived effects of feedback and praise. Despite uncovering varying beliefs among individual students through post-course survey questions and interviews, a clear and significant statistical distinction between personality groups was not found.

4.2.3. Research Question 3: Development of Speech and Presentation Skills

The final research question of the current study sought to recognize the participants' ultimate perception on their development throughout the course, the results of which are presented in Table 19. Students' perceptions about their overall development were recorded through a Likert-scale item and several open-ended questions presented in the post-course surveys. Students' overall satisfaction and perceived development throughout the course is believed to be imperative to the study due to the unique format of the course (as described in detail in Chapter 3).

TABLE 19

Students' Perceptions of English Public Speaking Development

Item	Personality	1	2	3	4	5	*M*	*SD*
7. I gained a lot of knowledge and skills from this course.	Introvert	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	11 (14.7)	34 (45.3)	30 (40.0)	4.3	3.8
	Extravert	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (12.5)	16 (40.0)	19 (47.5)	4.4	3.9

When students were explicitly surveyed about their final perception on their development throughout the course, no participants disagreed nor strongly disagreed with the statement that they had gained a lot of knowledge and skills from the course. 16 participants were neutral in their belief that they had gained a lot of knowledge and skills from the course, while 50 participants agreed and 49 strongly agreed that they had gained a lot of knowledge and skills from the course. The 16 participants, which is 13.9% of the total participants in the study, were comprised of 11 introverted students (14.7% of all introverted participants) and 5 extraverted students (12.5% of all extraverted participants). The participants that agreed (50 students or 43.5% of the total) consisted of 34 introverts (45.3% of the introverted participants) and 16 extraverts (40% of the extraverted participants). Of the 49 students who strongly agreed that they had gained a lot of knowledge and skills from the class, 30 students were introverted individuals (40% of all introverted participants) and 19 were extraverted individuals (47.5% of all extraverted participants). Together, these 49 participants formed 42.6% of the total number of participants, while the 50 participants who agreed were 43.5% of the total number of participants. Therefore, over 86% of the total number of participants expressed meaningful development in their English speech and presentation skills.

TABLE 20

RQ3: Differences in Perceptions of Overall Speech and Presentation Skill Development

	Introverted		Extraverted			
Item	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
1. Overall Development	4.3	3.8	4.4	3.9	.133	.894

When looking at the final analysis of this development by personality, as presented in Table 20, once again, no statistically significant differences were found between the introverted and extraverted groups of participants. This was consistent with the prior findings of numerous research on personality types and academic preference and success. There is a clear lack of correlation between personality types and academic achievement which has yet to be identified.

To further explore individual perceptions, open-ended questions and interviews from post-course surveys explored distinct references to overall development. Based on the results of the survey and interviews, general satisfaction with their development throughout the course was shared numerous times by participants. Participants S53 (female/introvert), for example, found the course to be "engaging and informative." She asserted that the experience was an opportunity to improve her "ability to convey opinions." She found that the course was engaging and informative, and "truly appreciated the learning experience." Hoping to eventually become a translator for an international company, participant S79 (female/introvert) discussed overcoming stage fright as her main goal during the course. The student believed that, although there are still feelings of nervousness, she feels like the strategies she has learned throughout the course have helped her to cope with the fear of public speaking.

As presented in Excerpt 26, participants S34 (female/extravert) believes that the class was beneficial for the overall development of her public speaking skills.

Excerpt 26: I think it was the best experience to create an environment so that I wouldn't be nervous about talking. I was always nervous and afraid of speaking English. However, when the professor gave me enough time, and showed me a gesture of understanding, I could say everything I had prepared without being nervous. I think this aspect helped me a lot in my learning. It has become the most passionate class to me, and I am so grateful for the passion the professor shows me. (S34)

As evident from her response in Excerpt 27, participant S97 (female/extravert) believed that, based on her observations of students' presentations throughout the course, a majority of students were also successful in completing the objectives and reaching the goals of the course.

Excerpt 27: Many of the students actually showed a change in their final presentation. Everyone has improved from the beginning. I believe this is the process and result of successful completion of the course. (S97)

Therefore, regardless of students' personality types, overall development of public speaking skills was perceived to have occurred among all participants, signifying successful utilization of autonomy-supportive instruction, indirect corrective feedback, and direct positive feedback and praise. With no statistically significant differences among introverted and extraverted students' perceptions, teaching implications for individual student achievement, recommendations for future research, and limitations of the current study will be discussed in further detail in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1. Summary

Feedback is an essential tool and directly influences learning opportunities. In an environment where there is increasing pressure to learn speech and presentation skills as a foreign language for academic achievement or future employment, proper feedback has the potential to enhance learners' motivation, contribute to their personal growth and success, or severely hinder their development of mastering public-speaking skills. This study aims to explore the differences in perceptions between contrasting personality types (introverted vs. extraverted) on autonomy-supportive instruction, their preferences and acceptance of various forms of feedback (verbal and nonverbal) and praise, and the impact these elements have on individual performance in a university EFL speech and presentation course.

The present study is the only known study to have ever explored university students' perceptions and beliefs on a number of specific factors related to the study of English speech and presentation skills in an EFL environment. Each course utilized an identical framework of instruction, consisting of direct positive feedback and praise, indirect corrective feedback, and autonomy-supportive instruction. Due to this unique framework during an English for a Specific Purpose (ESP) course, the study sought to understand students' perceptions on a variety of factors related to the course and the development of learning English public speaking skills.

Data was collected on 115 university students enrolled in five separate EFL speech and presentation classes offered through the English Language and Literature Department of a private South Korean university. The instruments used to collect data were pre-course surveys, post-course surveys, and post-course interviews. Surveys consisted of open-ended questions,

closed-ended questions, multiple choice questions, and questions containing a 5-point Likert scale.

Quantitative data was analyzed using descriptive statistics and statistical analysis through the form of *t*-tests, and qualitative data was analyzed using methodological triangulation. Analyzing the qualitative and quantitative results from pre-course surveys, post-course surveys, and post-course interviews, the researcher was able to better understand students' perceptions and beliefs on the effectiveness of feedback and praise, their satisfaction levels with the instructor and the instructional methods implemented, and their overall development throughout the course. The results revealed several key elements about the attitudes and beliefs of introverts and extraverts, and their perceptions about learning public speaking skills for their futures.

5.1.1. Research Question 1 Findings

The first key findings of this study indicate a relatively strong desire for the availability of EFL public speaking courses as part of the options of elective ESP courses offered to students. Pre-analysis of students' perceptions about studying and developing English public speaking skills reveals that more than 54% of students enrolled in the elective English speech and presentation courses registered for the course due to its relevance to their current job, a potential future job, or for personal development. Based on data collected in post-course surveys, 80% of introverted participants and 85% of extraverted participants agreed or strongly agreed that they saw value in the course content for their future, with no statistically significant differences ($t=.417$, $p=.677$) being uncovered among both personality types.

Qualitative results, featuring opinions expressed in post-course surveys and interviews upon completion of the course, further highlighted the fact that students among both introverted and extraverted groups exhibited a high utility value to learning English speech and

presentation skills, expressing favorable opinions about the necessity for developing English public speaking skills for their future.

5.1.2. Research Question 2 Findings

The second key findings indicated overwhelmingly positive perceptions about the instructor and instruction, and feedback application throughout the course. Because the instructor of the course was the primary agent and source for feedback in the study, understanding students' perceptions about the instructor was imperative. Based on prior research on feedback, it was confirmed that positive perceptions about the instructor were critical for the acceptance of feedback and instruction.

In the current study, the overwhelming majority of students (89.3% of introverts and 97.5% of extraverts) believed that the instructor was caring and respectful of students ($t=.116$, $p=.908$). Such distinct conviction was reflected in students' perceptions about the professor's ability to deliver coursework instruction in an effective manner (85.7% of introverts and 95% of extraverts strongly agreed). Once again, no statistically significant differences were recorded ($t=.232$, $p=.817$). Students' qualitative responses echoed their attitudes and beliefs to the quantitative results. In open-ended responses, students showed undeniable support for autonomy-supportive instruction and use of the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) model for facilitating independence, developing their motivation, enabling the acquisition of knowledge, and supporting growth and development throughout the course.

Perceptions about feedback were explored through Likert-scale questions based on the helpfulness of the professor's feedback to students' language development, the improvement in public speaking as a direct result of feedback, and feedback's role in their motivation to further develop their speech and presentation skills. The results of these found that, first, the majority of students (107 out of 115 students), regardless of personality type, thought that the

professor's feedback was helpful/useful to their language development ($t=.373$, $p = 0.710$). Second, when participants were asked if they believed that the feedback that was provided by the professor was directly responsible for improvements in their public speaking skills, extraverted participants shared higher positive perceptions (65% strongly agreed, 20% agreed, and 15% were neutral) than their introverted counterparts. Introverted participants had a fairly equal dispersion with their responses (30.7% strongly agreed, 33.3% agreed, and 34.7% were neutral). However, this difference was once again statistically insignificant ($t=.833$, $p = .407$). The third item in this category explored the success of developing student motivation in encouraging increased participation. More than half of introverted participants (54.7%) and three quarters of extraverted participants (75%) strongly agreed, with the remaining students choosing between 'agreed' or 'neutral' options. Yet again, no statistically significant differences were discovered ($t=.648$, $p = .519$). Students' attitudes and beliefs were examined to further investigate possible differences in qualitative data, though opinions shared in open-ended questions confirmed the results of the quantitative analysis. Thus, participants had positive perceptions of the instructor's use of autonomy-supportive teaching methods, frequent provision of positive feedback and praise, and restriction of direct corrective feedback.

Multiple choice questions about the method of feedback delivery were also provided in post-course survey questions. Similar to prior research, students in this study had a clear preference for written feedback and positive verbal feedback and praise. The acceptance and perceived value of corrective feedback was also positively received when said feedback was generic, autonomous, and provided to the group as a whole.

5.1.3. Research Question 3 Findings

The third key finding was in an overall satisfaction in students' English public speaking development, regardless of personality type (85.3% of introverted participants and 87.5% of extraverted participants agreed or strongly agreed). Though extraverted participants exhibited

slightly higher positive perceptions about the development of their public speaking skills in post-course qualitative responses, no statistically significant difference was found in the quantitative results ($t=.133$, $p = .894$). The methods utilized through the courses in this study were a unique combination of instruction and feedback/praise delivery and a difference between the perceptions of introverted and extraverted participants. However, in accordance with previous findings on MBTI research and theory, there appears to be a consistent replication of results that highly motivated individuals, closer to the intrinsically motivated sector of the motivation spectrum, are likely to act in an accord that may be classified as having a mastery-approach goal orientation, regardless of classification by personality dichotomies. Although these personality traits and variables are often studied as isolated entities, the results and findings of the current study suggests that student-teacher interaction has a much more significant role in the development of student motivation and overall performance.

5.2. Teaching Implications and Future Research

Based on the findings of this study, it is clear that students recognize the necessity for developing English speech and presentation skills, as it will allow students to foster the ability to interact in a myriad of professional and social environments, assist in forming connections, persuade and inspire an audience, motivate change, and guarantee further opportunities to achieve success. Offering EFL speech and presentation courses at universities as an elective course is recommended, as students in the current study expressed high utility value for learning English public speaking skills. For instructors of these courses, it is evident that maintaining a stimulating and cultivating environment for learners is necessary for fostering positive student-teacher relationships and peer relationships. Moreover, because the instructor is the primary source of instruction and feedback, it is critical that the perceptions students hold about the professor be positive for acceptance of feedback to occur. Instructors need to be mindful of the feedback which they provide, particularly considering students' sensitivity to the

feedback, the type and degree of feedback and/or praise, and the appropriate time to deliver the feedback.

Utilizing autonomous-supportive teaching methods, providing constant positive feedback and praise, and limiting direct corrective feedback allows students to develop respect for themselves and their peers in a safe, caring, and nurturing environment. Instructors need to focus on precise tokens of nonverbal physical cues and gestures, as well as forms of verbal affirmation and praise, to encourage the development of target language and key presentation skills. Provision of frequent feedback to content delivered by students and statistics on competence of performance support the hypothesis that the form of feedback received has a direct impact on students in an EFL environment and thus must continue to be explored for its significance in pedagogy.

In accordance with previous findings on MBTI research and theory, there appears to be a consistent replication of results that highly motivated individuals, closer to the intrinsically motivated sector of the motivation spectrum, are likely to act in an accord that may be classified as having a mastery-approach goal orientation, regardless of classification by personality dichotomies. Although these personality traits and variables are often studied as isolated entities, the results and findings of the current study suggests that student-teacher interaction has a much more significant role in the development of student motivation and overall performance. Regardless of personality type, the findings of this study suggest that due to the clear lack of an absolute consistent correlation between type/dichotomy and methods utilized, aiding students in developing a mastery-approach goal orientation in order to increase their level of competence, overcoming obstacles and challenges, and learning as much as possible to develop one's skills and abilities should remain at the forefront of teachers' objectives. Therefore, through continued research and successful application of positive feedback, as presented through this research, the execution of the methods discussed could further develop the field of language instruction and teacher feedback and provide a

comprehensive framework for linguistic level promotion in students' foreign language acquisition, particularly in the area of public speaking.

5.3. Limitations

As with all studies, there are certainly unavoidable limitations which may occur when gathering participants, collecting data, or analyzing information. One of the shortcomings of this study may lie in the participant demographic. Though the author did note this numerous times throughout the research, results from the current study are generalized to individuals of similar demographics (i.e., university students studying EFL in a private university located in a specific region of South Korea). Because of this, limitations reflective of the demographics may exist in certain classifications, such as gender. The role of gender or socioeconomic status, which should be considered irrelevant in a meritocratic educational environment, was omitted from the analysis of the demographic data. Nevertheless, although there is no reason to suspect that gender played a role in the learners' perceptions, future researchers studying this topic may consider pursuing results from participants that consist of data of a more gender-balanced sample to determine whether there is a gender effect. This may be necessary in order to support a balanced sample for validity. Regardless of gender, participants were of a proportional representation of age range and education levels, and of a qualified state to offer opinions and thoughts on their perceptions and preferences.

Another limitation is the sole focus on the instructor as the distributor of praise and feedback. Because social interaction is a natural and ultimately inevitable element of the classroom, there has been debate about the appropriateness, as well as the value, of peer feedback. In the language classroom, teachers strive to create an environment where interactions are scaffolded and the potential for misinformation is avoided. Whereas teachers promote communication and interactions that are considerate of students' emotions and feelings, introducing explicit peer feedback, for the sake of interaction, is seen as another

demotivating factor that may hinder language development and progression through the lesson (Fagan, 2014). In a dynamic environment, such as the classroom or lecture hall, where observers and peers are also present, the likelihood of receiving nonverbal feedback from individuals who are not the instructor (i.e., any of the audience members) is certainly possible and unfortunately unavoidable during the presentation. This feedback could be positive, though it may also be negative, and thus, could potentially affect the speaker's concentration, their confidence, or the overall quality of the presentation.

One final limitation of this study could be in the collection of students' MBTI results and the authentic legitimacy of MBTI validity. Due to insufficient funds, manpower, and time, MBTI results were self-reported by the participants in the study. Though the researcher has very little reason to believe it may have occurred, these circumstances could have resulted in false self-reporting by the participants, which would contribute to a less accurate organization of participants. Furthermore, because the MBTI does not measure traits, but rather sorts individuals into equally valued groups in accordance with developments on Jung's theory, slight variations in psychological traits or perceptions may exist, though are not considered as the instrument is not intended to measure how much a particular dichotomous characteristic, or index, a participant may possess. It is possible that in a quantitative assessment of an individual's personality, a participant could possess 51% traits of one dichotomy and 49% of the other, resulting in a lack of clear and accurate classification to one specific personality trait.

REFERENCES

Adelmann, P. K., & Zajonc, R. (1989). Facial efference and the experience of emotion. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *40*, 249–280. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.ps.40.020189.001341.

Airasian, P. W. (1997). *Classroom assessment* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Akhavan, P., Dehghani, M., Rajabpour, A., & Pezeshkan, A. (2016). An investigation of the effect of extroverted and introverted personalities on knowledge acquisition techniques. *VINE Journal of Information and Knowledge Management Systems*, *46*, 194–206. https://doi.org/10.1108/VJIKMS-06-2014-0043.

Alfi, O., Assor, A., & Katz, I. (2004). Learning to allow temporary failure: Potential benefits, supportive practices and teacher concerns. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, *30*(1), 27-41. https://doi.org/10.1080/0260747032000162299.

Aljaafreh, A., & Lantolf, J. P. (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/10.2307/328585.

Allwright, R. (1980). Turns, topics, and tasks: Patterns of participation in language learning and teaching. In D. Larsen-Freeman (Ed.), *Discourse analysis in second language research*, (pp. 165-187). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Altbach, P. G. (2004). Globalisation and the university: Myths and realities in an unequal world. *Tertiary Education & Management*, *10*(1), 3–25. https://doi.org/10.1023/B:TEAM.0000012239.55136.4b.

Altbach, P. G., & Knight, J. (2007). The internationalization of higher education: Motivations and realities. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *11*(3-4), 290–305. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1028315307303542.

Ames, C. (1992). Classrooms: Goals, structures, and student motivation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *84*, 261–271. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.84.3.261.

Ames, C., & Archer, J. (1988). Achievement goals in the classroom: Student's learning strategies and motivational processes. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *80*, 260–267. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.80.3.260.

Amorose, A. J., & Anderson-Butcher, D. (2007). Autonomy-supportive coaching and self-determined motivation in high school and college athletes: A test of self-determination theory. Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 8(5), 654–670. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.psychsport.2006.11.003.

Amorose, A. J., & Weiss, M. R. (1998). Coaching feedback as a source of information about perceptions of ability: A developmental examination. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, 20, 395–420, Retrieved from. http://journals.humankinetics.com/AcuCustom/SiteName/Documents/DocumentItem/1162.pdf.

Anstis, S. M., Mayhew, J. W., & Morley, T. (1969). The perception of where a face or television 'portrait' is looking. *The American journal of psychology*, *82*(4), 474-489. https://doi.org/10.2307/1420441.

Arain, A.A. (1968). Relationships among counseling clients' personalities, expectations, and problems (Doctoral dissertation, Rutgers University, 1967), *Dissertation Abstracts International*, *29*, 4903A. https://www.proquest.com/openview/e286ee4d35edb5581a407b7f26fdd554/1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=18750&diss=y.

Argyle, M., & Dean, J. (1965). Eye-contact, distance and affiliation. *Sociometry*, *28*(3), 289-304. https://doi.org/10.2307/2786027.

Armitage, C., & Deeprose, C. (2004). Changing student evaluations by means of the numeric values of rating scales. *Psychology Learning & Teaching*, *3*(2), 122-125. https://doi.org/10.2304/plat.2003.3.2.122.

Aron, A., & Aron, E. N. (1980). The transcendental meditation program's effect on addictive behavior. *Addictive behaviors*, *5*(1), 3–12. https://doi.org/10.1016/0306-4603(80)90016-7.

Astin, A. W. (1991). *Assessment for excellence: The philosophy and practice of assessment and evaluation in higher education*. New York. NY: Macmillan.

Axtell, R. E. (1993). *Gestures: The dos and taboos of body language around the world*. New York, NY: John Wiley.

Ayres, J. (1996). Speech preparation processes and speech apprehension. *Communication Education*, *45*, 228-235. https://doi.org/10.1080/03634529609379051.

Azad, M. A. K. (2016). Bangladeshi EFL learners' perceptions and preferences for oral corrective feedback. *ASA University Review*, *10*, 75-84. http://www.asaub.edu.bd/asaubreview/data/v10n2sl6.pdf.

Balzer, W. K., Doherty, M. E., & O'Connor, R., Jr. (1989). Effects of cognitive feedback on performance. *Psychological Bulletin*, 106, 410-433. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.106.3.410.

Bandura, A. (1982). Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. *American Psychologist*, 37, 122–147. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.37.2.122.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Bargh, J. A., Gollwitzer, P. M., Lee-Chai, A., Barndollar, K., & Trötschel, R. (2001). The automated will: nonconscious activation and pursuit of behavioral goals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *81*(6), 1014. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.81.6.1014.

Barnlund, D. (1968). *Interpersonal communication: Survey and studies.* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

Baron, R. A. (1988). Negative effects of destructive criticism: impact on conflict, self-efficacy, and task performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73, 199–207. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.73.2.199.

Bavelas, J. B., Black, A., Lemery, C. R., & Mullett, J. (1986). "I show how you feel": Motor mimicry as a communicative act. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 50(2), 322-329. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.50.2.322

Beatty, M. J. (1988a). Public speaking apprehension, decision-making errors in the selection of speech introduction strategies and adherence to strategy. *Communication Education*, *37*, 297-311. https://doi.org/10.1080/03634528809378731.

Beatty, M. J. (1988b). Situational and predispositional correlates of public speaking anxiety. *Communication Education*, *37*, 28-39. https://doi.org/10.1080/03634528809378701.

Beatty, M. J., & Behnke, R. R. (1980). An assimilation theory perspective of communication apprehension. *Human Communication Research*, *6*, 319-325. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2958.1980.tb00153.x.

Beatty, M. J., & Behnke, R. R. (1991). Effects of public speaking trait anxiety and intensity of speaking task on heart rate during performance. *Human Communication Research*, *18*, 147-176. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2958.1991.tb00542.x.

Beatty, M. J., & Clair, R. P. (1990). Decision rule orientation and public speaking apprehension. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 5(2), 105-116.

Behnke, R. R., & Sawyer, C. R. (1999). Milestones of anticipatory public speaking anxiety. *Communication Education*, *48*, 165-172. https://doi.org/10.1080/03634529909379164.

Bellak, L. (1950). The Thematic Apperception Test in Clinical Use. In L. E. Abt & L. Bellak (Eds.), Projective psychology: Clinical approaches to the total personality (pp. 185–229). Alfred A. Knopf. https://doi.org/10.1037/11452-006.

Belnap, D. D. (1973). *A study of the personality types of artistically talented students* (Doctoral dissertation, Wake Forest University, Department of Education). Winston-Salem, NC: Wake Forest University.

Berens, L. V. (2000). *Dynamics of personality type: Understanding and applying Jung's cognitive processes*. Canterbury, UK: Telos Publications.

Birenbaum, M. (1997). Assessment preferences and their relationship to learning strategies and orientations. *Higher Education*, *33*(1), 71-84. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02607470600655300.

Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (1998). Assessment and classroom learning. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice*, *5*(1), 7-74.

Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (2009). Developing the theory of formative assessment. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability*, *21*, 5-31. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11092-008-9068-5.

Bloom, A. J., & Hautaluoma, J. E. (1987). Effects of message valence, communicator credibility, and source anonymity on reactions to peer feedback. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 127, 329–338. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00224545.1987.9713712.

Blöte, A. W. (1995). Students' self-concept in relation to perceived differential teacher treatment. *Learning and Instruction*, *5*(3), 221-236. https://doi.org/10.1016/0959-4752(95)00012-R.

Bodie, G. D. (2010). A racing heart, rattling knees, and ruminative thoughts: Defining, explaining, and treating public speaking anxiety. *Communication Education*, *59*(1), 70-105. https://doi.org/10.1080/03634520903443849.

Bolton, K., Ahn, H., Botha, W., & Bacon-Shone, J. (2023). EMI (English-medium instruction) in South Korean elite universities. *World Englishes*, 42, 465–486. https://doi.org/10.1111/ weng.12623.

Bong, M. (2001). Role of self-efficacy and task-value in predicting college students' course performance and future enrollment intentions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *26*, 553–570. https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.2000.1048.

Boonma, N., & Swatevacharkul, R. (2020). The effect of autonomous learning process on learner autonomy of English public speaking students. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *10*(1), 194-205. http://dx.doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v10i1.25037.

Borna, T. A. (2017). Role of extroversion and introversion in developing speaking skill of Bangladeshi EFL learner: Teachers' perspective. *ASA University Review*, *11*(1), 61-74.

Boud, D., & Middleton, H. (2003). Learning from others at work: communities of practice and informal learning. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, *15*(5), 194-202. https://doi.org/10.1108/13665620310483895.

Bradley, J. H., & Hebert, F. J. (1997). The effect of personality type on team performance. *Journal of Management Development*, *16*(5), 337-353. https://doi.org/10.1108/02621719710174525.

Bridges, W. (2000). *The character of organizations: Using personality type in organization development*. Boston, MA: Nicholas Brealey Publishing.

Brophy, J. (1981). Teacher praise: A functional analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, *51*(1), 5-32. https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543051001005.

Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* (5th Ed.). New York, NY: Longman.

Brummelman, E., Nelemans, S. A., Thomaes, S., & Orobio de Castro, B. (2017). When Parents' Praise Inflates, Children's Self-Esteem Deflates. *Child Development*, *88*(6), 1799–1809. https://doi.org/10.1111/cdev.12936.

Bruner, J. S. (1951). *Personality dynamics and the process of perceiving.* In R. R. Blake & G. V. Ramsey (Eds.), Perception: An approach to personality (pp. 121–147). New York, NY: Ronald Press.

Burnett, P. C. (2002). Teacher praise and feedback and students' perceptions of the classroom environment. *Educational Psychology*, *22*(1), 5-16. https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410120101215.

Burnett, P.C., & Mandel, V. (2010). Praise and feedback in the primary classroom: Teachers' and students' perspectives. *Australian Journal of Educational and Developmental Psychology*, *10*, 145-154. http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ906941.pdf.

Burns, J. A., & Kintz, B. L. (1976). Eye contact while lying during an interview. *Bulletin of the Psychonomic Society*, *7*(1), 87-89. https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03337131.

Byun, K., Chu, H., Kim, M., Park, I., Kim, S., & Jung, J. (2011). English-medium teaching in Korean higher education: Policy debates and reality. *Higher Education*, *62*(4), 431–449. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10734-010-9397-4.

Cacioppo, J. T., & Petty, R. E. (1982). The need for cognition. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *42*, 116–131. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.42.1.116.

Cacioppo, J. T., Petty, R. E., Losch, M. E., & Kim, H. S. (1986). Electromyographic activity over facial muscle regions can differentiate the valence and intensity of affective reactions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *50*, 260–268. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.50.2.260**.**

Calero, H. H. (2005). *The power of nonverbal communication: How you act is more important than what you say*. Aberdeen, WA: Silver Lake Publishing.

Carkhuff, R. R. (1969). Helping and human relations: A primer for lay and professional helpers: I. Selection and training. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Carless, D. (2015). *Excellence in university assessment: Learning from award-winning practice*. London, England: Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315740621.

Carlyn, M. (1976). The relationship between Myers-Briggs personality characteristics and teaching preferences of prospective teachers (Doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1976). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, *37*, 3493A. https://www.proquest.com/openview/d371b8b652f7cd622e1b9a8f0ca3f168/1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=18750&diss=y.

Carney, D. R., Hall, J. A., & LeBeau, L. S. (2005). Beliefs about the nonverbal expression of social power. *Journal of Nonverbal Behavior*, *29*, 105-123. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10919-005-2743-z.

Carpentier, J., & Mageau, G. A. (2013). When change-oriented feedback enhances motivation, well-being and performance: A look at autonomy-supportive feedback in sport. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, *14*(3), 423–435. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.psychsport.2013.01.003.

Carrell, P. L., Prince, M. S., & Astika, G. G. (1996). Personality types and language learning in an EFL context. *Language Learning*, *46*(1), 75–99. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1996.tb00641.x.

Carroll, A., Houghton, S., Durkin, K., & Hattie, J. (2001). *Reputation enhancing goals: Integrating reputation enhancement and goal setting theory as an explanation of delinquent involvement*. In F. Columbus (Ed.), Advances in psychology research (Vol. 4, pp. 101-129). New York, NY: Nova Science.

Cash, R. W., Scherba, D. S., & Mills, S. S. (1975). *Human resources development: A competency based training program (Trainer's manual)*. Long Beach, CA*:* Authors.

Cattell, H. E. P., & Mead, A. D. (2008). The Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF). In G. J. Boyle, G. Matthews, & D. H. Saklofske (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of personality theory and assessment, Vol. 2. Personality measurement and testing* (pp. 135–159). New York, NY. Sage Publications, Inc. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781849200479.n7.

Chartrand, T. L., & Bargh, J. A. (1999). The chameleon effect: The perception-behavior link and social interaction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *76*(6), 893–910. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.76.6.893.

Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second language classrooms. Research on teaching and learning*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Choi, S. W., & Kim, H. S. (2020). Effects of an Interpersonal Relationship Improvement Program using MBTI on Self-acceptance, Self-esteem, and Acceptance of others of Professional Soldiers. *Journal of Korean Academy of Psychiatric and Mental Health Nursing*, *29*(1), 64-72. https://doi.org/10.12934/jkpmhn.2020.29.1.64.

Choong, E. J., & Varathan, K. D. (2021). Predicting judging-perceiving of Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) in online social forum. *PeerJ*, *9*, e11382. https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.11382.

Church, L. M., & Alie, R. E. (1986). Relationships between managers personality-characteristics and their management levels and job foci. *Akron Business and Economic Review*, *17*(4), 29-45.

Church, M., Elliot, A., & Gable, S. (2001). Perceptions of classroom environment, achievement goals, and achievement outcomes. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *93*, 43–54. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.93.1.43.

Church, A. H., & Waclawski, J. (1998). The relationship between individual personality orientation and executive leadership behaviour. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *71*(2), 99–125. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1998.tb00666.x.

Cialdini, R. B. (1993). *Influence: The psychology of persuasion*. New York, NY: William Morrow and Company, Inc.

Clariana, R. B., Wagner, D., & Roher Murphy, L. C. (2000). Applying a connectionist description of feedback timing. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, *48*(3), 5-22. https://doi.org/10.1007/bf02319855.

Cole, J. S., Bergin, D. A., & Whittaker, T. A. (2008). Predicting student achievement for low stakes tests with effort and task value. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 33, 609-624. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2007.10.002.

Coleman, J. A. (2006). English-medium teaching in European higher education. *Language Teaching*, *39*(1), 1-14. https://doi.org/10.1017/S026144480600320X.

Conley, T. (2010). *Toward a rhetoric of insult*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Cooper, H., Robinson, J. C., & Patall, E. A. (2006). Does homework improve academic achievement? A synthesis of research, 1987-2003. *Review of Educational Research*, *76*(1), 1–62. http://dx.doi.org/10.3102/00346543076001001.

Corbeill, A. (2004). *Nature embodied: Gesture in ancient Rome*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Covington, M. V., & Omelich, C. L. (1984). An empirical examination of Weiner's critique of attribution research. Journal of Educational Psychology, 76(6), 1214–1225. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.76.6.1214.

Cunningham, D.F. (1962). *A study of background and personality characteristics of teachers in teaching teams in Jefferson County, Colorado, public schools.* Unpublished thesis (Ed.D.). Colorado: University of Houston. https://uh-ir.tdl.org/bitstreams/410fb1f6-de1c-47eb-b2cb-5c90b7682c68/download.

Cunningham, P. B. (2000). Improved communication and teamwork through use of Myers-Briggs type indicator. In *Proceedings 1st Austin workshop on engineering management in technology-based organizations* (pp. 31-36). Austin, TX: IEEE. https://dx.doi.org/10.1109/EMBTO.2000.897349.

Curtis, R. C. (1994). Self-Defeating Behaviors. In V. S. Ramachandran (Ed.) *Encyclopedia of Human Behavior*, 4, S5-l0. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Cusella, L. P. (1987). Feedback, Motivation, and Performance. In F. M. Jablin, L. L. Putnam, K. H. Roberts, & L. W. Porter (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational communication. An interdisciplinary perspective* (pp. 624–678). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Daly, J. A., & Buss, A. (1984). The transitory causes of audience anxiety. In J. A. Daly & J. C. McCroskey (Eds.), *Avoiding communication*: *Shyness*, *reticence*, *and communication apprehension* (pp. 67-78). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Daly, J. A., McCroskey, J. C., Ayres, J., Hopf, T., & Ayres, D. M. (1997). *Avoiding communication: Shyness, reticence, & communication apprehension* (2nd ed.). Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.

Daly, J. A., Vangelisti, A. L., Neel, H. L., & Cavanaugh, P. D. (1989). Pre-performance concerns associated with public speaking anxiety. *Communication Quarterly*, *37*, 39-53. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/01463378909385524.

Daly, J. A., Vangelisti, A. L., & Weber, D. J. (1995). Speech anxiety affects how people prepare speeches: A protocol analysis of the preparation processes of speakers. *Communication Monographs*, *62*, 383-397. https://doi.org/10.1080/03637759509376368.

Darwin, C. (1872). The expression of the emotions in man and animals. London, England: John Murray. https://doi.org/10.1037/10001-000.

Davidhizar, R. (1992). Interpersonal communication: A review of eye contact. *Infection Control & Hospital Epidemiology*, *13*(4), 222-225. https://doi.org/10.1086/646513.

Dean, C. B., Hubbell, E. R., Pitler, H., & Stone, B. (2012). *Classroom instruction that works: Research-based strategies for increasing student achievement* (2nd ed.). Denver, CO: ASCD.

DeBacker, T. K., & Nelson, R. M. (1999). Variations on an expectancy-value model of motivation in science. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *24*, 71–94. https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1998.0984.

Deci, E. L., Koestner, R., & Ryan, R. M. (1999). A meta-analytic review of experiments examining the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation. *Psychological Bulletin*, *125*(6), 627. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.125.6.627.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York, NY: Plenum.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, *11*, 227–268. http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/S15327965PLI1104_01.

Deci, E. L., Spiegel, N. H., Ryan, R. M., Koestner, R., & Kauffman, M. (1982). Effects of performance standards on teaching styles: Behavior of controlling teachers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *74*(6), 852. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0022-0663.74.6.852.

Del Giudice, M., & Colle, L. (2007). Differences between children and adults in the recognition of enjoyment smiles. Developmental Psychology, 43(3), 796–803. https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.43.3.796.

Derryberry, D., & Reed, M. A. (1994). Temperament and attention: Orienting toward and away from positive and negative signals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *66*, 1128–1139. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.66.6.1128.

Dettmers, S., Lüdtke, O., Trautwein, U., Kunter, M., & Baumert, J. (2010). Homework works if homework quality is high: Using multilevel modeling to predict the development of achievement in mathematics. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *102*(2), 467–482. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0018453.

DiCaprio, N. S. (1983). *Personality theories: A guide to human nature*. New York, NY: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.

Dickson, K. L., Walker, H., & Fogel, A. (1997). The relationship between smile type and play type during parent–infant play. *Developmental Psychology*, *33*, 925–933. https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.33.6.925.

Dihoff, R. E., Brosvic, G. M., Epstein, M. L., & Cook, M. J. (2004). Provision of Feedback During Preparation for Academic Testing: Learning is Enhanced by Immediate but Not Delayed Feedback. The Psychological Record, 54(2), 207–231. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF03395471.

Dimberg, U., Thunberg, M., & Elmehed, K. (2000). Unconscious facial reactions to emotional facial expressions. *Psychological Science*, *11*(1), 86-89. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9280.00221.

DiTiberio, J. K. (1996). Education, learning styles, and cognitive styles. In A. L. Hammer (Ed.), *MBTI applications: A decade of research on the Myers–Briggs Type Indicator* (pp. 123−166). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Deeprose, C., & Armitage, C. (2004). Reports: Giving formative feedback in higher education. *Psychology Learning and Teaching*, 4 (1), 43-46. http://dx.doi.org/10.2304/plat.2004.4.1.43.

Doeven-Eggens, L., De Fruyt, F., Hendriks, J., Bosker, R. and Van der Werf, M. P. C. (2008). Personality and personal network type. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *45*(7), 689-693. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2008.07.017.

Doiz, A., Lasagabaster, D., & Sierra, J. M. (Eds.). (2011). *English-medium instruction at universities: Global challenges*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Durik, A. M. (2004). Personal and situational factors involved in the development of interest. Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering, 64(8-B), 4108. https://psycnet.apa.org/record/2004-99004-219.

Dweck, C. S. (1986). Motivational processes affecting learning. *American Psychologist*, *41*, 1040–1048. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.41.10.1040.

Dweck, C., & Leggett, E. (1988). A social–cognitive approach to motivation and personality. *Psychological Review*, *95*, 256–273. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.95.2.256.

Earley, P. C., & Kanfer, R. (1985). The influence of component participation and role models on goal acceptance, goal satisfaction, and performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *36*(3), 378-390. https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(85)90006-8.

Earley, P. C., Northcraft, G. B., Lee, C., & Lituchy, T. R. (1990). Impact of process and outcome feedback on the relation of goal setting to task performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *33*(1), 87-105. https://doi.org/10.5465/256353.

Eccles, J. (1983). Expectancies, values and academic behaviors. In J. T. Spence (Ed.), Achievement and achievement motives: Psychological and sociological approaches (pp. 75-146). San Francisco, CA: Freeman.

Edwards, J. A. (2003). The interactive effects of processing preference and motivation on information processing: Causal uncertainty and the MBTI in a persuasion context. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *37*(2), 89–99. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0092-6566(02)00537-8.

Edwards, J. A., & Weary, G. (1993). Depression and the impression formation continuum: Piecemeal processing despite the availability of category information. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *64*, 636–645. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.64.4.636.

Egan, G. (1982). *The skilled helper: Model, skills, and methods for effective helping (2nd ed.)*. Monterey, CA: Brooks Cole Publishing Co.

Eibl-Eibesfeldt, I. (1972) *Similarities and differences between cultures in expressive movements*. In *Non-verbal communication* (ed. R. A. Hinde), p. 297–311. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Ekman, P. (1989). The argument and evidence about universals in facial expressions of emotion. In H. Wagner & A. Manstead (Eds.), *Handbook of psychophysiology: The biological psychology of the emotions and social processes (*pp. 143–164). New York, NY: Wiley.

Ekman, P. (2003). *Emotions revealed: Recognizing faces and feelings to improve communication and emotional life*. New York, NY: Times Books.

Ekman, P., Davidson, R. J., & Friesen, W. V. (1990). The Duchenne smile: Emotional expression and brain physiology II. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *58*, 342–353. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.58.2.342.

Ekman, P., & Friesen, W. V. (1974). Detecting deception from the body or face. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *29*(3), 288. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0036006.

Ekman, P., Friesen, W. V., & Scherer, K. R. (1976). Body movement and voice pitch in deceptive interaction. Semiotica, 16(1), 23–27. https://doi.org/10.1515/semi.1976.16.1.23.

Elfatihi, M. (2006). The Role of Nonverbal Communication in Beginners' EFL Classrooms: Sale Junior High Schools as a Case. *Online Submission: eric.ed.gov*. http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED491813.pdf.

Elliot, A. J. (1999). Approach and avoidance motivation and achievement goals. *Educational Psychologist*, *34*, 169–189. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep3403_3.

Elliot, A. J., & McGregor, H. (2001). A 2x2 achievement goal framework. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *80*, 501–519. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.80.3.501.

Elliot, A. J., McGregor, H., & Gable, S. (1999). Achievement goals, study strategies, and exam performance: A mediational analysis. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *91*, 549–563. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.91.3.549.

Ellis, K. (1995). Apprehension, self-perceived competency, and teacher immediacy in the laboratory-supported public speaking course: Trends and relationships. *Communication Education*, *44*, 64-78. https://doi.org/10.1080/03634529509378998.

Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding second language acquisition*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (2009). Corrective feedback and teacher development. *L2 Journal*, *1*, 3-18. https://doi.org/10.5070/l2.v1i1.9054.

El-Tatawy, M. (2002). Corrective Feedback in Second Language Acquisition. *Studies in Applied Linguistics and TESOL (SALT)*, *2*(2), 1-19. https://doi.org/10.7916/salt.v2i2.1645.

Elwell, W. C., & Tiberio, J. (1994). Teacher praise: What students want. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, *21*(4), 322-328. https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1995-27151-001.

Eraut, M. (2007). Learning from other people in the workplace. *Oxford Review of Education*, *33*(4), 403-422. https://doi.org/10.1080/03054980701425706.

Evans, J. G., & Dirks, S. J. (2001). Relationships of admissions data and measurements of psychological constructs with psychomotor performance of dental technology students. *Journal of Dental Education*, *65*(9), 874-882. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.0022-0337.2001.65.9.tb03435.x.

Exline, R. V., Thibaut, J., Hickey, C. B., & Gumpert, P. (1970). *Studies in Machiavellianism.* New York, NY: Academic Press.

Eysenck, H. (1947). *Dimensions of personality*. Piscataway, NJ: Transaction Publishers.

Eysenck, H. (1967). *The biological basis of personality*. Piscataway, NJ: Transaction Publishers.

Eysenck, S. B., Eysenck, H. J., & Barrett, P. (1985). A revised version of the Psychoticism scale. Personality and Individual Differences, 6(1), 21–29. https://doi.org/10.1016/0191-8869(85)90026-1.

Fagan, D. S. (2014). Beyond "Excellent!": Uncovering the systematicity behind positive feedback turn construction in ESL classrooms. *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language)*, *8*(1), 45-63. http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1167306.pdf.

Fan, H., Xu, J., Cai, Z., He, J., & Fan, X. (2017). Homework and students' achievement in math and science: A 30-year meta-analysis, 1986–2015. *Educational Research Review*, *20*, 35–54. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2016.11.003.

Fekry, A., Dafoulas, G. A., & Ismail, M. (2019). The relation between student behaviours in group presentations and their teamwork modalities using Belbin and MBTI analysis. *Procedia Computer Science*, *164*, 292-300. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procs.2019.12.186.

Felder, R. M., & Brent, R. (2005). Understanding Student Differences. *Journal of Engineering Education*, *1*, 57-72. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2168-9830.2005.tb00829.x.

Fernández-Alonso, R., Suárez-Álvarez, J., & Muñiz, J. (2015). Adolescents' homework achievement in mathematics and science: Personal factors and teaching practices. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *107*(4), 1075–1085. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/edu0000032.

Field, T.M. (2010). Touch for Socioemotional and Physical Well-Being: A Review. Developmental Review, 30, 367-383. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dr.2011.01.001.

Fisher, C. D. (1979). Transmission of positive and negative feedback to subordinates: A laboratory investigation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 64, 533–540. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.64.5.533.

Flink, C., Boggiano, A. K., & Barrett, M. (1990). Controlling teaching strategies: Undermining children's self-determination and performance. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 59(5), 916-924. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.59.5.916.

Flum, H., & Kaplan, A. (2006). Exploratory orientation as an educational goal. *Educational Psychologist*, *41*, 99–110. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep4102_3.

Fox, N. A., & Davidson, R. J. (1988). Patterns of brain electric activity during facial signs of emotion in 10-month-old infants. *Developmental Psychology*, *24*, 230– 236. https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.24.2.230.

Frederick, A.H. (1975). Self-actualization and personality type: A comparative study of doctoral majors in educational administration and the helping relations (Doctoral dissertation, University of Alabama, 1974). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, *35*, 7055A. https://ir.ua.edu/handle/123456789/10321.

Freire, A., Eskritt, M., & Lee, K. (2004). Are eyes windows to a deceiver's soul? Children's use of another's eye gaze cues in a deceptive situation. *Developmental Psychology*, *40*(6), 1093-1104. https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.40.6.1093.

Frith, C. (2009). Role of facial expressions in social interactions. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, *364*(1535), 3453-3458. https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2009.0142.

Gagné, M., Ryan, R. M., & Bargmann, K. (2003). Autonomy support and need satisfaction in the motivation and well-being of gymnasts. Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 15(4), 372–390. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10413200390238031.

Garner, P. W. (1999). Continuity in emotion knowledge from preschool to middle-childhood and relation to emotion socialization. *Motivation and Emotion*, *23*, 247-266. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1021386725399.

Gass, S. M. (1991). Grammar instruction, selective attention and learning processes. In R. Phillipson, E. Kellerman, L. Selinker, M. Sharwood Smith, & M. Swain (Eds.), *Foreign/second language pedagogy research* (pp.134–141). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Gass, S. M., & Mackey, A. (2006). Input, interaction and output: An overview. *AILA Review*, *19*(1), 3-17. https://doi.org/10.1075/aila.19.03gas.

Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (2008). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course* (3rd Ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Gass, S. M., & Varonis, E. (1989). Incorporated repairs in NNS discourse. In M. Eisenstein (Ed.), *Variation and second language acquisition* (pp. 71-86). New York, NY: Plenum.

Gaster, W.D. (1982). A study of personality type as a predictor of success in retail store management. (*Doctoral dissertation, Louisiana Technical University).* Ann Arbor, MI: University Microfilms, No. 43, 4020A.

Gazda, G.M., Asbury, F.S., Balzer, F.J., Childers, W.C., & Walters, R.P. (1984). *Human relations development: A manual for educators.* Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Gelman, S. A. (2009). Learning from others: Children's construction of concepts. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *60*, 115-140. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.59.103006.093659**.**

Gentrup, S., Lorenz, G., Kristen, C., & Kogan, I. (2020). Self-fulfilling prophecies in the classroom: Teacher expectations, teacher feedback and student achievement. Learning and Instruction, 66, 1-17. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.learninstruc.2019.101296.

Ghanizadeh, A. (2011). Nail biting; etiology, consequences and management. *Iranian Journal of Medical Sciences*, *36*(2), 73. https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/23358880.

Gnepp, J., & Hess, D. L. (1986). Children's understanding of verbal and facial display rules. *Developmental Psychology*, *22*(1), 103. https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.22.1.103.

Golden-Biddle, K., & Locke, K. (2006). *Composing qualitative research*. New York, NY: Sage Publications.

Goman, C. K. (2008). *The nonverbal advantage: Secrets and science of body language at work*. Oakland, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Gray, J.A. (1972), "The psychophysiological nature of introversion-extraversion: a modification of Eysenck's theory", *Biological Bases of Individual Behavior* (pp. 182-205). New York, NY: Academic Press https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-515350-8.50017-X.

Grolnick, W. S., & Apostoleris, N. H. (2002). What makes parents controlling? In E. L. Deci & R. M. Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of self-determination research* (pp. 161–181). Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.

Hanson, H.A. (1980). *Occupational choice, role preference and personality: An empirical study of the career development of nurses and social workers*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Berkeley, CA: University of California.

Harackiewicz, J. M., Barron, K. E., Tauer, J. M., & Elliot, A. J. (2002). Predicting success in college: A longitudinal study of achievement goals and ability measures as predictors of interest and performance from freshman year through graduation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *94*, 562–575. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.94.3.562.

Harackiewicz, J. M., Durik, A. M., Barron, K. E., Linnenbrink-Garcia, E. A., & Tauer, J. M. (2008). The role of achievement goals in the development of interest: Reciprocal relations between achievement goals, interest and performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *100*, 105–122. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.100.1.105.

Harker, L., & Keltner, D. (2001). Expressions of positive emotion in women's college yearbook pictures and their relationship to personality and life outcomes across adulthood. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 80(1), 112–124. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.80.1.112.

Harmer, J. (1983). *The practice of English language teaching*. London: Longman.

Harrigan, J. A., Kues, J. R., & Weber, J. G. (1986). Impressions of hand movements: Self-touching and gestures. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, *63*(2), 503-516. https://doi.org/10.2466/pms.1986.63.2.503.

Harrington, R., & Loffredo, D. A. (2010). MBTI personality type and other factors that relate to preference for online versus face-to-face instruction. *The Internet and Higher Education*, *13*(1-2), 89-95. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iheduc.2009.11.006.

Harris, M., & Rosenthal, R. (1985). Mediation of interpersonal expectancy effects: 31 meta-analyses. *Psychological Bulletin*, *97*(3), 363–386. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.97.3.363.

Hartston, W. R., & Mottram, R. D. (1975). *Personality profiles of managers: A study of occupational differences*. London, England: Industrial Training Research.

Harvey, R. J., Murray, W. D., & Stamoulis, D. T. (1995). Unresolved issues in the dimensionality of the Myers–Briggs Type Indicator. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *55*(4), 535−544. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013164495055004002.

Harvey, R. J., Murray, W. D., & Stamoulis, D. T. (1995). Unresolved issues in the dimensionality of the Myers–Briggs Type Indicator. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *55*(4), 535−544. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013164495055004002.

Hattie, J. (2009). *Visible learning. A synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses relating to achievement.* London, England: Routledge.

Hattie, J.A., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research*, 77, 81-112. https://doi.org/10.3102%2F003465430298487.

He, A. W. (2004). CA for SLA: Arguments from the Chinese language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, *88*(4), 568-582. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0026-7902.2004.t01-19-.x.

Hidi, S., & Harackiewicz, J. M. (2000). Motivating the academically unmotivated: A critical issue for the 21st century. *Review of Educational Research*, *70*, 151–179. https://doi.org/10.3102%2F00346543070002151.

Higgins, R., Hartley, P., & Skelton, A. (2002). The conscientious consumer: Reconsidering the role of assessment feedback in student learning. *Studies in Higher Education*, *27*(1), 53-64. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075070120099368.

Hirsh, S. K. (1992). *MBTI team building program*: *Team members' guide*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Hjelle, L. A., & Ziegler, D. J. (1992). *Personality theories: Basic assumptions, research, and applications*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Hoffman, J. L., Waters, K., & Berry, M. (1981). Personality types and computer assisted instruction in a self-paced technical training environment. *Research in Psychological Type*, *3*, 81-85.

Hollenbeck, J. R., Klein, H. J., O'Leary, A. M., & Wright, P. M. (1989). Investigation of the construct validity of a self-report measure of goal commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *74*(6), 951-956. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.74.6.951.

Hopf, T., & Ayres, J. (1992). Coping with public speaking anxiety: An examination of various combinations of systematic desensitization, skills training, and visualization. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, *20*, 183-198. https://doi.org/10.1080/00909889209365328.

Hough, J. R., & Ogilvie, D. T. (2005). An empirical test of cognitive style and strategic decision outcomes. Journal of Management Studies, 42, 417-448. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.2005.00502.x.

Hounsell, D. (1987). *Essay writing and the quality of feedback.* In J.T.E. Richardson, M.W. Eysenck & D. Warren-Piper (Eds.), *Student learning: Research in education and cognitive psychology*. Milton Keynes: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

Hull, R. H. (2016). The Art of Nonverbal Communication in Practice. The Hearing Journal, *69*(5), 22-24. https://doi.org/10.1097/01.HJ.0000483270.59643.cc.

Hulleman, C. S., Durik, A. M., Schweigert, S. A., & Harackiewicz, J. M. (2008). Task values, achievement goals, and interest: An integrative analysis. Journal of Educational Psychology, 100(2), 398-416. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.100.2.398.

Hutchby, I., & Wooffitt, R. (2008). *Conversation analysis*. Cambridge, UK: Polity Press.

Hwang, H., & Matsumoto, D. (2015). Evidence for the universality of facial expressions of emotion. In M. K. Mandal & A. Awasthi (Eds.), *Understanding facial expressions in communication: Cross-cultural and multidisciplinary perspectives* (pp. 41–56). New York, NY: Springer Science & Business Media. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-81-322-1934-7_3.

Hyland, P. (2000). Learning from feedback in assessment. In P. Hyland & A. Booth (Eds.), *The practice of university history teaching* (pp. 233-247). Manchester: Manchester University Press.

Irving, S.E., Harris, L.R., & Petersen, E.R. (2011). 'One assessment doesn't serve all purposes' or does it? New Zealand teachers describe assessment and feedback. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, *12*, 413-426. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s12564-011-9145-1.

Jacoby, P. F. (1981). Psychological types and career success in the accounting profession. *Research in Psychological Type*, *4*, 24-37.

Jenks, C.J. (2013). 'Your pronunciation and your accent is very excellent': Orientations of identity during compliment sequences in English as a lingua franca encounters. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, *13*, 165-181. https://doi.org/10.1080/14708477.2013.770865.

Johnson, R. R. (2007). Race and police reliance on suspicious non-verbal cues. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, *20*(2), 277–290. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/13639510710753261.

Jung, C. G. (1971). Psychological types. In R. F. C. Hull (Ed.) & H. G. Baynes (Trans.), *The collected works of C. G. Jung* (Vol. 6, Bellinger Series XX). Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press. (Original work published in 1921).

Jussim, L. (1986). Self-fulfilling prophecies: A theoretical and integrative review. *Psychological Review*, *93*(4), 429–445. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.93.4.429.

Jussim, L., Robustelli, S., & Cain, T. (2009). Teacher expectations and self-fulfilling prophecies. In K. Wentzel, & A. Wigfield (Eds.). *Handbook of motivation at school* (pp. 349–379). New York, NY: Routledge.

Jussim, L., Soffin, S., Brown, R., Ley, J., & Kohlhepp, K. (1992). Understanding reactions to feedback by integrating ideas from symbolic interactionism and cognitive evaluation theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *62*, 402–421. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.62.3.402.

Kamins, M. L., & Dweck, C. S. (1999). Person versus process praise and criticism: Implications for contingent self-worth and coping. Developmental Psychology, 35(3), 835–847. https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.35.3.835.

Kampe, K. K., Frith, C. D., & Frith, U. (2003). "Hey John": signals conveying communicative intention toward the self activate brain regions associated with "mentalizing," regardless of modality. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, *23*(12), 5258–5263. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.23-12-05258.2003.

Kang, K. I. (2018). English-medium instruction policies in South Korean higher education. *Working Papers in Educational Linguistics (WPEL)*, *33*(1), 31-52. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-51976-0_4.

Kang, S.-H., Gratch, J., Sidner, C., Artstein, R., Huang, L., & Morency, L.-P. (2012). Towards building a virtual counselor modeling nonverbal behavior during intimate self-disclosure. In *Proceedings of the 11th International Conference on Autonomous Agents and Multiagent Systems Volume 1*, 63–70. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-23974-8_60

Kaplan, A., Middleton, M., Urdan, T., & Midgley, C. (2002). Achievement goals and goal structures. In. C. Midgley (Ed.), *Goals, goal structures, and patterns of adaptive learning* (pp. 21–53). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Kaplan, S. H., Greenfield, S., & Ware, J. E., Jr. (1989). Assessing the effects of physician-patient interactions on the outcomes of chronic disease. *Medical Care*, *27*, S110-S127. https://doi.org/10.1097/00005650-198903001-00010.

Kappas, A., Krumhuber, E. G., & Küster, D. (2013). Facial behavior. In J. A. Hall & M. L. Knapp (Eds.), Nonverbal communication (pp. 131–165). De Gruyter Mouton. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110238150.131

Kartchava, E., & Gatbonton, E. (2020). Oral corrective feedback: Pre-service English as a second language teachers' beliefs and practice. *Language Teaching Research*, *24*, 220-249. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818787546.

Kasper, G. (2004). Participant orientations in German conversation-for-learning. *The Modern Language Journal*, *88*(4), 551-567. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0026-7902.2004.t01-18-.x.

Kasper, G. (2006). Beyond repair: Conversation analysis as an approach to SLA. *AILA Review*, *19*(1), 83-99. https://doi.org/10.1075/aila.19.07kas.

Kellerman, J., Lewis, J., & Laird, J. D. (1989). Looking and loving: The effects of mutual gaze on feelings of romantic love. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *23*(2), 145-161. https://doi.org/10.1016/0092-6566(89)90020-2.

Kelly, L. (1997). Skills training as a treatment for communication problems. In J. A. Daly, J. C. McCroskey, J. Ayres, T. Hopf, & D. M. Ayres (Eds.), *Avoiding communication*: *Shyness*, *reticence*, *and communication apprehension* (2nd ed., pp. 331-365). Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.

Kendon, A., Sebeok, T. A., & Umiker-Sebeok, J. (Eds.). (2010). *Nonverbal communication, interaction, and gesture: Selections from semiotica* (Vol. 41). Berlin, Germany: Walter de Gruyter.

Kilner, J. M., Paulignan, Y., & Blakemore, S. J. (2003). An interference effect of observed biological movement on action. *Current Biology: CB*, *13*(6), 522–525. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0960-9822(03)00165-9.

Kim, E.G., Kweon, S., & Kim, J. (2017). Korean engineering students' perceptions of English-medium instruction (EMI) and L1 use in EMI classes. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 38*, 130 - 145. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2016.1177061.

Kim, K.-S., & Nam, S. (2007). The making of a world-class university at the periphery. In P. G. Altbach & J. Balán (Ed.), *World class worldwide: Transforming research universities in Asia and Latin America* (pp. 122–139). Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

King, P. E., Young, M. J., & Behnke, R. R. (2000). Public speaking performance improvement as a function of information processing in immediate and delayed feedback interventions. *Communication Education*, *49*(4), 365-374. https://doi.org/10.1080/03634520009379224.

Kinginger, C., & Farrell, K. (2004). Assessing development of meta-pragmatic awareness in study abroad. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, *10*(1), 19-42. https://doi.org/10.36366/frontiers.v10i1.131.

Kluger, A. N., & DeNisi, A. (1996). The effects of feedback interventions on performance: a historical review, a meta-analysis, and a preliminary feedback intervention theory. *Psychological Bulletin*, *119*, 254–284. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.119.2.254.

Knapp, M. L., Hart, R. P., & Dennis, H. S. (1974). An exploration of deception as a communication construct. Human Communication Research, 1(1), 15–29. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2958.1974.tb00250.x.

Koestner, R., Zuckerman, M., & Koestner, J. (1987). Praise, involvement, and intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *53*, 383–390. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.53.2.383.

Kohn, A. (1993). *Punished by rewards: The trouble with gold stars, incentive plans, A's, praise, and other bribes*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Harcourt.

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford, UK: Pergamon.

Kroeger, O., & Thuesen, J. M. (1988). *Type talk: The 16 personality types that determine how we live, love, and work*. New York, NY: Dell Publishing.

Krumhuber, E. G., Kappas, A., & Manstead, A. S. R. (2013). Effects of dynamic aspects of facial expressions: A review. Emotion Review, 5(1), 41–46. https://doi.org/10.1177/1754073912451349.

Kuo, Y. C., Walker, A. E., Belland, B. R., & Schroder, K. E. (2013). A predictive study of student satisfaction in online education programs. *International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning*, *14*(1), 16-39. https://doi.org/10.19173/irrodl.v14i1.1338.

Kwok, Y. L., Gralton, J., & McLaws, M. L. (2015). Face touching: a frequent habit that has implications for hand hygiene. *American journal of infection control*, *43*(2), 112–114. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajic.2014.10.015.

Lantolf, J. P. (2000). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2003). *Teaching language: From grammar to grammaring*. Boston, MA: Heinle ELT.

Latham, G. P., & Locke, E. A. (1979). Goal setting: A motivational technique that works. *Organizational Dynamics*, *8*(2), 68-80. https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616(79)90032-9.

LeCompte, W. A. (1981). The ecology of anxiety: Situational stress and rate of self-stimulation in Turkey. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 40(4), 712–721. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.40.4.712.

Lee, T. W., Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1989). Goal setting theory and job performance. In L. A. Pervin (Ed.), Goal concepts in personality and social psychology (pp. 291–326). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Lee, F. K., Sheldon, K. M., & Turban, D. B. (2003). Personality and the goal-striving process: The influence of achievement goal patterns, goal level, and mental focus on performance and enjoyment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*, 256–265. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.2.256.

Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (1990). Focus-on-form and corrective feedback in communicative language teaching: Effects on second language learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *12*(4), 429-448. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100009517.

Liu, Y., Liu, X., & Zhang, Y. (2021). A Pragmatic Study on Teachers' Feedback in EFL Classroom in China. English Language Teaching, 14, 109. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v14n5p109.

Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1990). *A theory of goal setting and task performance*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Long, M. H. (1983). Native speaker/non-native speaker conversation and the negotiation of comprehensible input. *Applied linguistics*, *4*(2), 126-141. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/4.2.126.

Long, M. H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie, & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413-468). New York, NY: Academic Press.

Lysakowski, R. S., & Walberg, H. J. (1982). Instructional effects of cues, participation, and corrective feedback: A quantitative synthesis. *American Educational Research Journal*, *19*(4), 559-572. https://doi.org/10.2307/1162544.

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.

Mac Iver, D. J., Stipek, D. J., & Daniels, D. H. (1991). Explaining within-semester changes in student effort in junior high school and senior high school courses. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *83*, 201–211. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.83.2.201.

Mackey, A. (2006). Feedback, noticing and instructed second language learning. *Applied linguistics*, *27*(3), 405-430. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/ami051.

Maddi, S. R. (1996). Personality theories: A comparative analysis (6th ed.). New York, NY: Cole Publishing.

Magilow, D. H. (1999). Case study# 2: Error correction and classroom affect. *Die Unterrichtspraxis/Teaching German*, *32*(2), 125-129. https://doi.org/10.2307/3531752.

Malka, A., & Covington, M. V. (2005). Perceiving school performance as instrumental to future goal attainment: Effects on graded performance. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *30*, 60–80. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2004.04.001.

Markus, H. (1977). Self-schemata and processing information about the self. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *35*, 63–78. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.35.2.63.

Marton, F., Dall'Alba, G., & Beaty, E. (1993). Conceptions of learning. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *19*(3), 277-300. https://espace.library.uq.edu.au/view/UQ:268a0ef.

Mason, M. A., & Redmon, W. K. (1993). Effects of immediate versus delayed feedback on error detection accuracy in a quality control simulation. *Journal of organizational behavior management*, *13*(1), 49-83. https://doi.org/10.1300/J075v13n01_05.

Matsumoto, D., & Willingham, B. (2009). Spontaneous facial expressions of emotion of congenitally and noncongenitally blind individuals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *96*(1), 1. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0014037.

McCarthy, A., & Lee, K. (2009). Children's knowledge of deceptive gaze cues and its relation to their actual lying behavior. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, *103*(2), 117–134. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jecp.2008.06.005.

McCaulley, M. H., & Morgan, M. K. (1982). Health professionals: Characteristics and student self-assessment. In M.V. Boyles, M.K. Morgan, & M.H. McCaulley, (Eds.), *The Health Professions* (pp. 57-78). Philadelphia, PA: W. B. Saunders.

McCroskey, J. C., & Beatty, M. J. (1984). Communication apprehension and accumulated communication state anxiety experiences: A research note. *Communication Monographs*, *51*, 79-84. https://doi.org/10.1080/03637758409390185.

McCroskey, J. C., Ralph, D. C., & Barrick, J. E. (1970). The effect of systematic desensitization on speech anxiety. *The Speech Teacher*, *19*, 32-36. https://doi.org/10.1080/03634527009377789.

McIntosh, D. N. (1996). Facial feedback hypotheses: Evidence, implications, and directions. *Motivation and Emotion*, *20*, 121–147. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02253868.

Meece, J. L., Wigfield, A., & Eccles, J. S. (1990). Predictors of math anxiety and its influence on young adolescents' course enrollment intentions and performance in mathematics. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *82*, 60–70. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.82.1.60.

Mehrabian, A., & Ferris, S. R. (1967). Inference of attitudes from nonverbal communication in two channels. *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, *31*(3), 248-252. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0024648.

Menzel, K. E., & Carrell, L. J. (1994). The relationship between preparation and performance in public speaking. *Communication Education*, *43*, 17-26. https://doi.org/10.1080/03634529409378958.

Merrett, F., & Wheldall, K. (1987). Natural rates of teacher approval and disapproval in British primary and middle school classrooms. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *57*(1), 95-103. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8279.1987.tb03064.x.

Metcalfe, J., Kornell, N., & Finn, B. (2009). Delayed versus immediate feedback in children's and adults' vocabulary learning. Memory & Cognition, 37(8), 1077–1087. https://doi.org/10.3758/MC.37.8.1077.

Midgley, C., Arunkumar, R., & Urdan, T. (1996). "If I don't do well tomorrow, there's a reason": Predictors of adolescents' use of academic self-handicapping strategies. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *88*, 423–434. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.88.3.423.

Midgley, C., Kaplan, A., & Middleton, M. (2001). Performance-approach goals: Good for what, for whom, under what circumstances, and at what cost? *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *93*, 77–86. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.93.1.77.

Midgley, C., Kaplan, A., Middleton, M., Maehr, M., Urdan, T., Anderman, L. H., Anderman, E., Roeser, R. (1998). The development and validation of scales assessing students' achievement goal orientations. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *23*, 113–131. https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1998.0965

Midgley, C., & Urdan, T. (1995). Predictors of middle school students' use of self-handicapping strategies. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, *15*, 389–411. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0272431695015004001.

Milla, R., & Mayo, M. P. G. (2014). Corrective feedback episodes in oral interaction: A comparison of a CLIL and an EFL classroom. *International Journal of English Studies*, *14*, 1-20. https://doi.org/10.6018/ijes/14/1/151841.

Miller, P. V. (1967). Personality differences and student survival in law school. *Journal of Legal Education*, *19*(4), 460-467. https://www.jstor.org/stable/42891811.

Miller, R., Greene, B., Montalvo, G., Ravindran, B., & Nichols, J. (1996). Engagement in academic work: The role of learning goals, future consequences, pleasing others, and perceived ability. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *21*, 388–422. https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1996.0028.

Mitchell, D. E., & Nielsen, S. Y. (2012). Internationalization and globalization in higher education. *Globalization–Education and Management Agendas*, 3–22. http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/48702.

Möller, A. (1995). Allport's theory of personality traits. In: *Perspectives on personality*. Durban, SA: Butterworths.

Morgan, G. (1980). Paradigms, Metaphors, and Puzzle Solving in Organizational Theory. Administrative Science Quarterly, 25, 605-622. https://doi.org/10.2307/2392283.

Morris, D. (1977). *Manwatching: A field guide to human behavior*. New York, NY: Abrams.

Moskowitz, G. (1976). The classroom interaction of outstanding foreign language teachers. *Foreign Language Annals*, *9*(2), 135-143. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.1976.tb02639.x.

Mouratidis, A., Lens, W., & Vansteenkiste, M. (2010). How you provide corrective feedback makes a difference: The motivating role of communicating in an autonomy-supporting way. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, *32*, 619–637. https://doi.org/10.1123/jsep.32.5.619.

Murray, J. B. (1990). Review of research on the Myers–Briggs Type Indicator. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, *70*(3, Part 2), 1187−1202. https://doi.org/10.2466/PMS.70.4.1187-1202.

Murtagh, L. (2014). The motivational paradox of feedback: teacher and student perceptions. *The Curriculum Journal*, *25*, 516-541. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585176.2014.944197.

Myers, I. B. (1987). *Introduction to type: A description of the theory and applications of the Myers Briggs Type Indicator — Form G*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Myers, I. B., & Davis, J. A. (1964). *Relation of medical students' psychological type to their specialties twelve years later.* Center for Applications of Psychological Type.

Myers, I. B, Kirby, L. K., Myers, K. D. (1998). *An Introduction to Types: A Guide to Understanding Your Results on the Myers-Briggs Types Indicator.* Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Myers, I. B., & McCaulley, M. H. (1985). *Manual: A guide to the development and use of the Myers–Briggs Type Indicator.* Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Myers, I. B., McCaulley, M. H., Quenk, N. L., & Hammer, A. L. (1998). *MBTI manual: A guide to the development and use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator* (3rd Ed.). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Nakahama, Y., Tyler, A., & Van Lier, L. (2001). Negotiation of meaning in conversational and information gap activities: A comparative discourse analysis. *TESOL Quarterly*, *35*(3), 377-405. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588028.

Navarro, J., & Karlins, M. (2008). *What every body is saying*. New York, NY: Harper Collins Publishers.

Nicholls, J. G. (1984). Achievement motivation: Conceptions of ability, subjective experience, task choice, and performance. *Psychological Review, 91,* 328–346. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.91.3.328.

O'Brien, T. P., Bernold, L.E., & Akroyd, D. (1998). Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and Academic Achievement in Engineering Education*. International Journal of Engineering Education, 14, 311-315. https://www.ijee.ie/articles/Vol14-5/ijee1039.pdf.

Ohta, A. S. (1995). Applying sociocultural theory to an analysis of learner discourse: Learner-learner collaborative interaction in the zone of proximal development. *Issues in Applied Linguistics*, *6*(2), 93-121. https://doi.org/10.5070/L462005219.

Ohta, A. S. (2001). Peer interactive tasks and assisted performance in classroom language learning. *Second language acquisition processes in the classroom: Learning Japanese*, 73-128. London, England: Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781410604712.

Pacini, R., & Epstein, S. (1999). The relation of rational and experiential information processing styles to personality, basic beliefs, and the ratio-bias phenomenon. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *76*, 972–987. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.76.6.972.

Pardàs, M., & Bonafonte, A. (2002). Facial animation parameters extraction and expression recognition using Hidden Markov Models. *Signal Processing: Image Communication*, *17*, 675–688. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0923-5965(02)00078-4.

Parikh, A., McReelis, K., & Hodges, B. (2001). Student feedback in problem based learning: A survey of 103 final year students across five Ontario medical schools. *Medical Education*, *35*, 632-636. http://dx.doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2923.2001.00994.x.

Paris, S. G., & Winograd, P. (1990). Promoting metacognition and motivation of exceptional children. *Remedial and special Education*, *11*(6), 7-15. https://doi.org/10.1177/074193259001100604.

Parkinson, B. (2005). Do facial movements express emotions or communicate motives?. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *9*(4), 278-311. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327957pspr0904_1.

Patterson, M. L. (1983). *Nonverbal behavior: A functional perspective.* New York, NY: Springer-Verlag.

Pervin, L. A. (1989). Personality: Theory and research (5th ed.). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Pervin, L. A. (1996), *The science of personality*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Pica, T., Holliday, L., Lewis, N., & Morgenthaler, L. (1989). Comprehensible output as an outcome of linguistic demands on the learner. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *11*, 63-90. https://doi.org/10.1017/S027226310000783X.

Pickering, M. J., & Garrod, S. (2004). Toward a mechanistic psychology of dialogue. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, *27*(2), 169-190. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0140525X04000056.

Pilar, M. D., Mayo, G. & Pica, T. (2000). L2 learner interaction in a foreign language setting: Are learning needs addressed? *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, *38*, 35-58. https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.2000.38.1.35.

Pintrich, P. (1999). The role of motivation in promoting and sustaining self-regulated learning. *International Journal of Educational Research, 31,* 459–470. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0883-0355(99)00015-4.

Plant, R. W., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). Intrinsic motivation and the effects of self-consciousness, self-awareness, and ego-involvement: an investigation of internally controlling styles. *Journal of Personality*, 53, 435-449. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.1985.tb00375.x.

Priem, J. S., & Solomon, D. H. (2009). Comforting apprehensive communicators: The effects of reappraisal and distraction on cortisol levels among students in a public speaking class. *Communication Quarterly*, *57*, 259-281. https://doi.org/10.1080/01463370903107253.

Purdie, N., Hattie, J., & Douglas, G. (1996). Student conceptions of learning and their use of self-regulated learning strategies: A cross-cultural comparison. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *88*(1), 87-100. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.88.1.87.

Quested, E. & Duda, J. (2010). Exploring the social-environmental determinants of well- and iii-being in dancers: A test of basic needs theory. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, *32*, 39–60. http://journals.humankinetics.com/AcuCustom/SiteName/Documents/DocumentItem/17775.pdf

Ramsden, P. (2003). *Learning to teach in higher education* (2nd Ed.). London, England: Routledge.

Rawsthorne, L. J., & Elliot, A. J. (1999). Achievement goals and intrinsic motivation: A meta-analytic review. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *3*, 326–344. https://doi.org/10.1207%2Fs15327957pspr0304_3.

Ready, D. D., & Chu, E. M. (2015). Sociodemographic inequality in early literacy development: The role of teacher perceptual accuracy. *Early Education & Development, 26*(7), 970–987. https://doi.org/10.1080/10409289.2015.1004516.

Reigel, D. (2008). Positive feedback in pairwork and its association with ESL course level promotion. *TESOL Quarterly*, *42*, 79-98. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1545-7249.2008.tb00208.x.

Reinboth, M., Duda, J. L., & Ntoumanis, N. (2004). Dimensions of coaching behavior, need satisfaction, and the psychological and physical welfare of young athletes. Motivation and Emotion, 28(3), 297–313. http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/B:MOEM.0000040156.81924.b8

Renninger, K. A., & Hidi, S. (2002). Student interest and achievement: Developmental issues raised by a case study. In A. Wigfield & J. S. Eccles (Eds.), *Development of achievement motivation* (pp. 173–195). San Diego, CA: Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-012750053-9/50009-7.

Ridley, N. L., & Asbury, F. R. (1988). Does counselor body posture make a difference? *The School Counselor*, *35*(4), 253-258. https://www.jstor.org/stable/23901303.

Riskind, J. H., & Gotay, C. C. (1982). Physical posture: Could it have regulatory or feedback effects on motivation and emotion? Motivation and Emotion, 6(3), 273–298. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00992249.

Robinson, T. E. (1997). Communication apprehension and the basic public speaking course: A national survey of in-class treatment techniques. *Communication Education*, *46*, 188-197. https://doi.org/10.1080/03634529709379090.

Rodríguez, S., Piñeiro, I., Regueiro, B., & Estévez, I. (2020). Intrinsic motivation and perceived utility as predictors of student homework engagement. *Revista de Psicodidáctica (English ed.)*, *25*(2), 93-99. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psicoe.2019.11.001.

Rosenthal, R. (1974). *On the social psychology of the self-fulfilling prophecy: Further evidence for pygmalion effects and their mediating mechanisms*. New York, NY: MSS Modular.

Ross, A. O. (1992), *Personality psychology (theories and processes*. New York, NY: Harper.

Rotenberg, K. J., & Sullivan, C. (2003). Children's use of gaze and limb movement cues to infer deception. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, *164*(2), 175-187. https://doi.org/10.1080/00221320309597976.

Rowe, A. D., & Wood, L. N. (2008). Student perceptions and preferences for feedback. Asian Social Science, 4(3), 78-88. https://doi.org/10.5539/ass.v4n3p78.

Rucker, M. L., & Thomson, S. (2003). Assessing student learning outcomes: An investigation of the relationship among feedback measures. *College Student Journal, 37*(3), 400-404. https://link.gale.com/apps/doc/A108836905/AONE?u=anon~4343726a&sid=googleScholar&xid=759ae4ec.

Ruggieri, V., Celli, C., & Crescenzi, A. (1982). Self-Contact and Gesturing in Different Stimulus Situations: Relationship with Cerebral Dominance. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, *54*(3), 1003–1010. https://doi.org/10.2466/pms.1982.54.3.1003.

Ryan, R. M. (1982). Control and information in the intrapersonal sphere: An extension of cognitive evaluation theory. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 43(3), 450–461. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.43.3.450.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25(1), 54–67. https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1999.1020.

Ryckman, R. M. (2012). *Theories of personality*. Boston, MA: Cengage Learning.

Saarni, C. (1979). Children's understanding of display rules for expressive behavior. *Developmental Psychology*, *15*(4), 424-429. https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.15.4.424.

Saarni, C. (1984). An observational study of children's attempts to monitor their expressive behavior. *Child Development*, 1504-1513. https://doi.org/10.2307/1130020.

Sadler, D. R. (1989). Formative assessment and the design of instructional systems. *Instructional science*, *18*(2), 119-144. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00117714.

Sansone, C. (1989). Competence feedback, task feedback, and intrinsic interest: an examination of process and context. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 25, 343–361. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0022-1031(89)90027-9.

Sawyer, C. R., & Behnke, R. R. (1997). Communication apprehension and implicit memories of public speaking state anxiety. *Communication Quarterly*, *45*, 211-222. https://doi.org/10.1080/01463379709370061.

Schacter, D. L. (1992). Understanding implicit memory: A cognitive neuroscience approach. *American Psychologist*, *47*(4), 559. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0003-066X.47.4.559.

Schmidt, R. A., Young, D. E., Swinnen, S., & Shapiro, D. C. (1989). Summary knowledge of results for skill acquisition: support for the guidance hypothesis. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, *15*(2), 352. https://doi.org/10.1037//0278-7393.15.2.352.

Schneider, B., Smith, D. B., Taylor, S., & Fleenor, J. (1998). Personality and organizations: A test of the homogeneity of personality hypothesis. Journal of Applied Psychology, 83(3), 462–470. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.83.3.462.

Schooler, L. J., & Anderson, J. R. (1990): The disruptive potential of immediate feedback. In Proceedings of the Twelfth Annual Conference of the Cognitive Science Society (pp. 702-708). Cambridge, MA: Psychology Press. https://doi.org/10.1184/R1/6618494.v1.

Schreuder, A. M. G., & Coetzee, M. (2002). The relationship between career patterns and personality types. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *28*(1), 53-59. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v28i1.41.

Schultz, D. P., & Schultz, S. E. (2016). *Theories of personality* (11th Ed.). Boston, MA: Cengage Learning.

Segovia, M. (2017) *The ultimate and official guide to extraversion and introversion*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press. (https://www.mbtionline.com/en-US/Programs/Ultimate-guide-to-Extraversion-and-Introversion)

Selinger, H. (1983). Learner interaction in the classroom and its effect on language acquisition. In H. Selinger & M. Long (Eds.), *Classroom oriented research in second language acquisition* (pp. 246-266). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Sharpe, P. (1985). Behaviour modification in the secondary school: A survey of students' attitudes to rewards and praise. *Behavioral Approaches with Children*, *9*(8), 109-112. https://doi.org/10.1080/0305569870130308.

Sheldon, K. M., Corcoran, M., & Sheldon, M. (2021). Duchenne Smiles as Honest Signals of Chronic Positive Mood. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, *16*(3), 654-666. https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691620959831.

Sherva, C. J. (2002). Personality factors associated with success or failure on the United States Medical Licensing Examination Step 1 (USMLE Step 1). *Theses and Dissertations, 1048.* Grand Forks, ND: University of North Dakota.

Shim, D., & Park, J. S. Y. (2008). The language politics of "English fever" in South Korea. *Korea Journal, 48*(2), 136-159. http://dx.doi.org/10.25024/kj.2008.48.2.136.

Shin, H. (2007). English Language Teaching in Korea. *International Handbook of English Language Teaching*. New York, NY: Springer.

Shiva, K., Mohammad, A. S., & Sajjad, S. (2015). Preferences for international feedback: Differences between learners and teachers. *Language Learning Journal*, *43*, 74-93. https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2012.705571.

Shute, V. J. (2008). Focus on formative feedback. Review of Educational Research, 78(1), 153–189. https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654307313795.

Simons, J., Dewitte, S., & Lens, W. (2003). "Don't do it for me. Do it for yourself!" Stressing the personal relevance enhances motivation in physical education. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, *25*, 145–160. https://doi.org/10.1123/jsep.25.2.145.

Sisman, F. N., Tok, O., & Ergun, A. (2017). The effect of psychological state and social support on nail-biting in adolescents: An exploratory study. *School Psychology International*, *38*(3), 304-318. https://doi.org/10.1177/0143034317690578.

Smith, R. E., Cumming, S. P., & Smoll, F. L. (2008). Development and validation of the Motivational Climate Scale for Youth Sports. Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 20(1), 116–136. https://doi.org/10.1080/10413200701790558.

Soussignan, R. (2002). Duchenne smile, emotional experience, and autonomic reactivity: A test of the facial feedback hypothesis. Emotion, 2(1), 52–74. https://doi.org/10.1037/1528-3542.2.1.52.

Spille, J. L., Grunwald, M., Martin, S., & Mueller, S. M. (2021). Stop touching your face! A systematic review of triggers, characteristics, regulatory functions and neuro-physiology of facial self touch. *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews*, *128*, 102-116. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neubiorev.2021.05.030.

Spoto, A. (1995). *Jung's typology in perspective*. Asheville, NC: Chiron Publications.

Stake, J. E. (1982). Reactions to positive and negative feedback: Enhancement and consistency effects. *Social Behavior and Personality*, *10*(2), 151-156. https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.1982.10.2.151.

Stephens, W. B. (1973). Relationship between selected personality characteristics of senior art students and their area of art study. *Studies in Art Education*, *14*(3), 54-67. https://doi.org/10.1080/00393541.1973.11651309.

Stivers, T. (2008). Stance, alignment, and affiliation during storytelling: When nodding is a token of affiliation. *Research on language and social interaction*, *41*(1), 31-57. https://doi.org/10.1080/08351810701691123.

Stokols, D., Smith, T., & Prostor, J. (1975). Partitioning and Perceived Crowding in a Public Space. *American Behavioral Scientist*, *18*(6), 792-814. https://doi.org/10.1177/000276427501800605.

Storch, N. (2002). Patterns of interaction in ESL pair work. *Language learning*, *52*(1), 119-158. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9922.00179.

Suárez, N., Regueiro, B., Estévez, I., Ferradás, M. M., Guisande, M. A., & Rodríguez, S. (2019). Individual precursors of student homework behavioral engagement: The role of intrinsic motivation, perceived homework utility and homework attitude. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *10*, 941. http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.00941.

Suda, W., & Fouts, G. (1980). Effects of peer presence on helping in introverted and extroverted children. *Child Development*, 1272-1275. https://doi.org/10.2307/1129571.

Surguladze, S. A., Brammer, M. J., Young, A. W., Andrew, C., Travis, M. J., Williams, S. C. R., Phillips, M. L., (2003). A preferential increase in the extrastriate response to signals of danger. *Neuroimage*, 1317-1328. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1053-8119(03)00085-5.

Svenson, O., & Maule, A. J. (Eds.). (1993). *Time pressure and stress in human judgment and decision making*. New York, NY: Springer Science & Business Media.

Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning* (pp. 97-114). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Sweller, J. (1988). Cognitive load during problem solving: Effects on learning. *Cognitive science*, *12*(2), 257-285. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15516709cog1202_4.

Tata, J. (2002). The influences of managerial accounts on employees' reactions to negative feedback. *Group & Organization Management*, 27, 480–503. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1059601102238358.

Tenenbaum, G., & Goldring, E. (1989). A meta-analysis of the effect of enhanced instruction: Cues, participation, reinforcement and feedback and correctives on motor skill learning. *Journal of Research & Development in Education*, *22*(1), 53-64. https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1989-41255-001.

Thomas, J. (1991) You're the greatest! A few well-chosen words can work wonders in positive behavior reinforcement. *Principal*, 71, 32–33. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ431181.

Thompson, W. B. (1998). Metamemory accuracy: Effects of feedback and the stability of individual differences. *The American Journal of Psychology*, *111*(1), 33-42. https://doi.org/10.2307/1423535.

Tinajero, C., & Páramo, F. (1998). Field dependence-independence in second-language acquisition: Some forgotten aspects. The Spanish Journal of Psychology, 1(1), 32–38. https://doi.org/10.1017/S1138741600005382.

Todorov, A., Baron, S. G., & Oosterhof, N. N. (2008). Evaluating face trustworthiness: a model based approach. Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience, 3(2), 119-127. https://doi.org/10.1093/scan/nsn009.

Tourangeau, R., & Ellsworth, P. C. (1979). The role of facial response in the experience of emotion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *37*, 1519–1531. https://doi.org/10.1037//0022-3514.37.9.1519.

Tracy, K., Van Dusen, D., & Robinson, S. (1987). "Good" and 'bad' criticism: a descriptive analysis. *Journal of Communication*, 37, 46–59. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1460-2466.1987.tb00982.x.

Trautwein, U., & Köller, O. (2003). The relationship between homework and achievement—Still much of a mystery. *Educational Psychology Review*, *15*(2),115–145. http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/A:1023460414243.

Trautwein, U., Lüdtke, O., Nagy, N., Lenski, A., Niggli, A., & Schnyder, I. (2015). Using individual interest and conscientiousness to predict academic effort: Additive, synergistic, or compensatory effects? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *109*, 142–162. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/pspp0000034.

Trautwein, U., Lüdtke, O., Schnyder, I., & Niggli, A. (2006). Predicting homework effort: Support for a domain-specific, multilevel homework model. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *98*(2), 438–456. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.98.2.438.

Trautwein, U., Schnyder, I., Niggli, A., Neumann, M., & Lüdtke, O. (2009). Chameleon effects in homework research: The homework-achievement association depends on the measures used and the level of analysis chosen. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *34*, 77–88. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2008.09.001.

Updegraff, K. A., Eccles, J. S., Barber, B. L., & O'Brien, K. M. (1996). Course enrollment as self-regulatory behavior: Who takes optional high school math courses? *Learning and Individual Differences*, *8*, 239–259. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1041-6080(96)90016-3.

Urdan, T. (1997). Achievement goal theory: Past results, future directions. In M. Maehr & P. R. Pintrich (Eds.), *Advances in motivation and achievement* (Vol. 10, pp. 99–141). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Urdan, T., & Kaplan, A. (2020). The origins, evolution, and future directions of achievement goal theory. Contemporary Educational Psychology, *61*, 101862. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2020.101862.

Van Lier, L. (1984). Analysing interaction in second language classrooms. *ELT Journal*, *38*(3), 160-169. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/38.3.160.

Van Lier, L., & Matsuo, N. (2000). Varieties of conversational experience: Looking for learning opportunities. *Applied Language Learning*, *11*(2), 265-288. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ619948.

VanPatten, B. (1992). Second-language acquisition research and foreign language teaching, part 2. *ADFL Bulletin*, *23*, 23-27. https://doi.org/10.1632/adfl.23.2.52.

Vigil, N. A., & Oller, J. W. (1976). Rule fossilization: A tentative model. *Language Learning*, *26*, 281-295. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1976.tb00278.x.

Voutilainen, L., Henttonen, P., Stevanovic, M., Kahri, M., & Peräkylä, A. (2019). Nods, vocal continuers, and the perception of empathy in storytelling. *Discourse Processes*, *56*(4), 310-330. https://doi.org/10.1080/0163853X.2018.1498670.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wächter, B., Maiworm, F. (2014). *English-taught Programs in European Higher Education. The State of Play in 2014*. Bonn, Germany: Lemmens Medien GmbH. https://www.lemmens.de/dateien/medien/buecher-ebooks/aca/2014_english_taught.pdf.

Walberg, H. J. (1982). What makes schooling effective? *Contemporary Education Review*, *1*, 1-34. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X012007004.

Wainwright, G. R. (2010). *Understand body language*. London, England: Hodder & Stoughton.

Ward, J. (1973). The use of teacher attention and praise as control techniques in the classroom. *Educational Review*, *26*(1), 39-55. https://doi.org/10.1080/0013191730260104.

Waring, H. Z. (2008). Using explicit positive assessment in the language classroom: IRF, feedback, and learning opportunities. *The Modern Language Journal*, *92*(4), 577-594. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2008.00788.x.

Watkins, D., & Regmi, M. (1992). How universal are student conceptions of learning? A Nepalese investigation. *Psychologia: An International Journal of Psychology in the Orient*, *35*, 101-110. https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1993-07501-001.

Watkins, D., Regmi, M., & Astilla, E. (1991). The Asian learner-as-a-rote-learner stereotype: Myth or reality? *Educational Psychology*, *11*, 21-34. https://doi.org/10.1080/0144341910110102.

Watson, A. K. (1982). The confidence model: An alternative approach to alleviating communication apprehension. *Communication*, *12*, 185-191.

Weary, G., Jacobson, J. A., Edwards, J. A., & Tobin, S. (2001). Chronic and temporarily activated causal uncertainty beliefs and stereotype usage. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *81*, 206–219. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.81.2.206.

Weaver, M.R. (2006). Do students value feedback? Student perceptions of tutors' written responses. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *31*(3), 379-394. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02602930500353061.

Weinberg, R. S., & Gould, D. (2011). *Foundations of sport and exercise psychology* (5th Ed.). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Weiner, B. (1980). The role of affect in rational (attributional) approaches to human motivation. Educational Researcher, 9, 4-11. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X009007004.

Weinstein, R. S. (1983). Student perceptions of schooling. *The Elementary School Journal, 83*(4), 286–312. https://doi.org/10.1086/461319.

Whitworth, R. H., & Cochran, C. (1996). Evaluation of integrated versus unitary treatments for reducing public speaking anxiety. *Communication Education*, *45*, 306-314. https://doi.org/10.1080/03634529609379060.

Wigfield, A. (1994). Expectancy-value theory of achievement motivation: A developmental perspective. Educational Psychology Review, 6(1), 49-78. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02209024.

Wijayati, P. H., & Ayub, A. F. M. (2018). "My lecturer's expressionless face kills me!" An evaluation of learning process of German language class in Indonesia. *REID (Research and Evaluation in Education)*, *4*(2), 94-104. http://dx.doi.org/10.21831/reid.v4i2.22466.

Williams, R. (1975). The relationship between the MBTI and job satisfaction: a preliminary report. *The American journal of Medical Technology*, *41*(2), 56-60. https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/1115081/.

Williams, T. I., Rose, R., & Chisholm, S. (2007). What is the function of nail biting: An analog assessment study. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, *45*(5), 989-995. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.brat.2006.07.013.

Winne, P. H., & Butler, D. L. (1994). Student cognition in learning from teaching. In T. Husen & T. Postlewaite (Eds.), *International Encyclopedia of Education* (2nd ed., pp. 5738-5745). Oxford, UK: Pergamon.

Wirth, J. H., Sacco, D. F., Hugenberg, K, & Williams, K.D. (2010). Eye gaze as relational evaluation: Averted eye gaze leads to feelings of ostracism and relational devaluation. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *36*(6), 869-882. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167210370032.

Wong, J., & Waring, H.Z. (2009). 'Very good' as a teacher response. *ELT Journal, 63,* 195-203. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccn042.

Wolters, C. A. (2003). Understanding procrastination from a self-regulated learning perspective. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *95*, 179–187. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.95.1.179.

Wolters, C. A. (2004). Advancing Achievement Goal Theory: Using Goal Structures and Goal Orientations to Predict Students' Motivation, Cognition, and Achievement. Journal of Educational Psychology, 96(2), 236–250. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.96.2.236/

Wolters, C. A., Yu, S. L., & Pintrich, P. R. (1996). The relation between goal orientation and students' motivational beliefs and self-regulated learning. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *8*, 211–238. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1041-6080(96)90015-1.

Xiang, P., McBride, R., & Bruene, A. (2004). Fourth graders' motivation in an elementary physical education running program. *Elementary School Journal*, *104*, 253–266. http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/499752.

Xu, J., Du, J., & Fan, X. (2017). Self-regulation of mathematics homework behavior: An empirical investigation. *The Journal of Educational Research*, *110*(5), 467–477. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00220671.2015.1125837.

Xu, J., Yuan, R., Xu, B., & Xu, M. (2014). Modeling students' time management in math homework. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *34*, 33–42. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2014.05.011.

Zacharias, N. T. (2007). Teacher and student attitudes toward teacher feedback. *RELC Journal*, *38*(1), 38-52. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0033688206076157.

Zeman, J., & Garber, J. (1996). Display rules for anger, sadness, and pain: It depends on who is watching. *Child Development*, *67*(3), 957-973. https://doi.org/10.2307/1131873.

Zhang, Y. (2008). The role of personality in second language acquisition. *Asian Social Science*, *4*(5), 58-59. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ass.v4n5p58.

Zimmerman, B. J. (1995). Self-efficacy and educational development. In A. Bandura (Ed.), *Self-efficacy in changing societies* (pp. 202-231). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511527692.009.

Zimmerman, B. J. (2000). Attaining self-regulation: A social cognitive perspective. In M. Boekaerts, P. R. Pintrich, & M. Zeidner (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation* (pp. 13-39). San Diego, CA: Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-012109890-2/50031-7.

Pre-Course Survey

Survey

Welcome to English Speech and Presentation! As part of this course, you will be trained to give speeches in a variety of settings (academic, business, etc.) in which formal presentations are required. Topics will include cultural conventions and speech, perceptions of others, verbal and nonverbal messages, and techniques of oral presentation and persuasion. You will learn how to research topics, outline presentations, and deliver speeches comfortably and confidently. The following survey is to help the professor get to know you better and cater this course to you. NOTE: The information provided may be used in future research. However, no personal information will be shared. If you do not wish to participate in the research, please check the box in the last question.

영어 스피치 및 프레젠테이션 수업에 오신 것을 환영합니다! 이 강의의 일환으로, 여러분은 공식적인 프레젠테이션이 필요한 다양한 환경(학술, 비즈니스 등)에서 연설을 할 수 있도록 교육 받습니다. 주제에는 문화적인 관습과 연설, 타인에 대한 인식, 언어적 및 비언어적 메시지, 구두 프레젠테이션 및 설득의 기술이 포함됩니다. 여러분은 주제를 연구하고, 프레젠테이션의 개요를 작성하며, 연설을 편안하고 자신 있게 전달하는 방법을 배우게 됩니다. 다음의 설문 조사는 본 교수가 여러분을 더 잘 알고 이 강의를 여러분에게 더욱 잘 맞출 수 있도록 돕기 위한 것입니다. 참고: 제공된 정보는 향후 연구에서 활용될 수 있습니다. 그러나 개인 정보는 공유되지 않습니다. 만약 연구에 참여하고 싶지 않다면 마지막 질문의 상자에 체크해 주십시오.

1. Name (성명): Click or tap here to enter text.

   Student ID (학번): Click or tap here to enter text.

2. MBTI (본인이 속하는 MBTI 유형): Click or tap here to enter text.
   - 모르시면 아래 링크를 이용해주세요

     https://www.humanmetrics.com/personality

3. Do you have a part-time job? (아르바이트를 하고 있습니까?)
   - ☐ No
   - ☐ Yes

     If so, what is it? (아르바이트를 하고 있다면, 어떤 일을 합니까?) Click or tap here to enter text.

4. What is your dream job or the career you wish to have after graduating Chosun University?

(조선대학교를 졸업한 후 귀하가 가지기를 희망하는 직업은 무엇입니까?)

Click or tap here to enter text.

5. What is the MAIN reason you are taking this class? **CHOOSE ONE**

(귀하가 이 수업을 듣는 주된 이유는 무엇입니까? **한 개만 선택**해 주십시오.)

☐ My current job requires it. (현재 직업에서 영어로 말하는 능력이 필요합니다.)

☐ My future job may require it. (미래 직장이 영어 말하기 능력을 요구할지도 모릅니다.)

☐ I need the credits / class to graduate. (대학 졸업을 위해 학점이 필요합니다. / 필수 과목입니다.)

☐ I chose the class because of the professor. (교수님 때문에 수업을 선택했습니다.)

☐ Other: 다른 이유: Click or tap here to enter text.

6. What sort of public speaking do you (wish to) do?

(귀하는 어떤 종류의 공개 연설을 하고자 합니까?)

☐ Presentations in meetings/business (미팅/비즈니스에서의 프레젠테이션)

☐ Speeches/Conferences (연설/회의)

☐ Performances (acting, comedy, theater, etc.) (공연 (연기, 코미디, 연극 등))

☐ Lecture / Teaching (강의 / 티칭)

☐ Other: 다른 이유: Click or tap here to enter text.

7. How would you currently rate your confidence in public speaking? **CHOOSE ONE**

(공개 연설에 대한 본인의 자신감을 현재 어떻게 평가 하시겠습니까? **한 개만 선택**해 주십시오.)

☐ Terrified (겁이 납니다.)

☐ A bit nervous (약간 떨립니다.)

☐ Okay (괜찮습니다.)

☐ Quite confident (꽤 자신 있습니다.)

☐ Extremely confident (매우 자신 있습니다.)

8. How would you currently rate your public speaking skills? **CHOOSE ONE**

(귀하의 공개 연설 실력을 현재 어떻게 평가 하시겠습니까? **한 개만 선택**해 주십시오.)

☐ Poor – I definitely need some help. (서투름– 저는 확실히 도움이 필요합니다.)

☐ Okay – I know I could improve. (괜찮음 – 도움을 받으면 훨씬 더 나아질 수 있을것이라고 생각합니다.)

☐ Good – I could improve with some tips. (잘함 – 몇 가지 조언을 통해 기술을 발전시킬 수 있습니다.)

☐ Excellent – I don't think I could improve much. (뛰어남– 이미 잘 한다고 생각합니다.)

Part 2: Personality

Directions: For the following questions please choose the number on the right side below that reflects your feelings. Please be as honest as possible. There is no right nor wrong answer.

(다음의 질문에 대해서는 본인의 감정을 반영한 번호를 선택해 아래 오른쪽에 기입해주시기 바랍니다. 최대한 솔직하게 답해 주시기 바랍니다. 옳고 그른 답변은 없습니다.)

(5) = Almost Always	(4) = Frequently	(3) = Occasionally
(거의 항상 그렇다)	(빈번하게 그렇다)	(가끔 그렇다)

(2) = Rarely	(1) = Almost Never
(거의 그렇지 않다)	(거의 전혀 그렇지 않다)

A. When writing, I try to show my individuality/uniqueness. (글을 쓸 때 개성과 독창성을 보여주려고 노력합니다).	A. Choose an item.
B. I dislike it when test questions are in a different form from what was learned in class (시험문제가 수업시간에 배운 것과 다른 형태로 출제되는 것을 싫어합니다).	B. Choose an item.
C. I try to avoid exaggeration when sharing personal experiences. (개인적인 경험을 공유할 때 과장을 피하려고 노력합니다).	C. Choose an item.
D. I lose control when I get angry (화가 나면 자제력을 잃습니다).	D. Choose an item.

A. I like to engage in reflective, philosophical thought and debates. (사색적이고 철학적인 생각과 토론에 참여하는 것을 좋아합니다).	**A.** Choose an item.
B. I prefer to have a theory or principle explained rather than studying it by myself. (이론이나 원리를 혼자서 공부하는 것보다 설명을 듣는 것을 선호합니다).	**B.** Choose an item.
C. I try to hide my disappointments. (실망감을 감추려고 노력합니다).	**C.** Choose an item.
D. I cry when I hear a sad story or watch a sad movie. (슬픈 이야기를 듣거나 슬픈 영화를 볼 때 눈물이 납니다.)	**D.** Choose an item.
A. I spend my free time reading poetry, stories, or plays. (여가시간에 시, 이야기, 또는 연극을 읽습니다).	**A.** Choose an item.
B. I am uninterested in discussions of a perfect society. (완벽한 사회에 대한 논의에는 관심이 없습니다).	**B.** Choose an item.
C. When I am displeased by people, I don't confront them. (사람들에게 불쾌감을 느낄 때 정면으로 맞서지 않습니다).	**C.** Choose an item.
D. I get worked up/excited when I argue. (말다툼을 하면 흥분합니다).	**D.** Choose an item.

9. Would you like your responses to possibly be used in future research (no personal information will be shared)? (답변 내용을 향후 연구에 활용하길 원하십니까(개인 정보는 공유되지 않음)?

   ☐ No, I do not want to participate in the research. (아니요, 저는 연구에 참여하고 싶지 않습니다.)

Post-Course Survey

Class Reflection and Feedback Survey
(semester), Professor Reuven Ronin

Survey

Thank you for the wonderful semester together. I am very proud of all your hard work. To better understand your feelings about my teaching skills, this course, and feedback, please complete the following class reflection and feedback survey. For the purpose of research, I may contact you after reviewing your responses. If you do not wish to participate in the research, please do not complete the personal information included in Question 1. If you do wish to participate, remember that all personal information will NOT be shared. I hope you have a wonderful vacation!

함께 멋진 한 학기를 보내주셔서 감사합니다. 여러분의 노고가 매우 자랑스럽습니다. 본 교수의 수업기술, 본 강좌 및 피드백에 대한 소감을 보다 잘 이해하기 위하여 다음 수업성찰 및 피드백 설문조사에 응해 주시기 바랍니다. 답변 검토 후 연구 목적을 위해 연락을 드리게 될 수 있습니다. 만약 연구에 참여하기를 원하지 않으신다면 질문 1에 포함된 개인정보는 작성하지 말아주시기 바랍니다. 참여를 원하신다면 모든 개인정보는 공유되지 않을 것임을 기억해주시기 바랍니다. 즐거운 방학 되시길 바랍니다!

1. Name (성명): ⎛Click or tap here to enter text.⎞

   Student ID(학번): ⎛Click or tap here to enter text.⎞

   Email: ⎛Click or tap here to enter text.⎞

2. MBTI: ⎛Click or tap here to enter text.⎞

Part 2: Class Reflection

Directions: For the following questions please choose the number on the right side below that reflects your feelings. Please be as honest as possible. There is no right nor wrong answer.

(다음의 질문에 대해서는 본인의 감정을 반영한 번호를 선택해 아래 오른쪽에 기입해주시기 바랍니다. 최대한 솔직하게 답해 주시기 바랍니다. 옳고 그른 답변은 없습니다.)

(5) = Almost Always	**(4) = Frequently**	**(3) = Occasionally**
(거의 항상 그렇다)	(빈번하게 그렇다)	(가끔 그렇다)

(2) = Rarely	**(1) = Almost Never**
(거의 그렇지 않다)	(거의 전혀 그렇지 않다)

1

CLASS REFLECTION & FEEDBACK SURVEY
(semester), Professor Reuven Ronin

A. The class content (lessons and materials) is interesting/engaging. (강의내용(강의 및 자료)이 흥미롭고 호감이 갑니다.)	**A.** Choose an item.
B. I see value in the content for my future. (미래를 위해 강의 내용이 가치 있다고 봅니다.)	**B.** Choose an item.
C. I enjoyed participating in group debates. (그룹 토론에 즐겁게 참여했습니다.)	**C.** Choose an item.
D. I gained a lot of knowledge and skills from this class. (이 수업을 통해 많은 지식과 기술을 얻었습니다.)	**D.** Choose an item.
E. I would recommend this class to other students. (이 수업을 다른 학생들에게 추천하고 싶습니다)	**E.** Choose an item.
F. I was not confident or too shy to participate well. (자신이 없거나 또는 부끄러워서 잘 참여하지 못했습니다.)	**F.** Choose an item.

A. The professor is caring and respectful of the students. (교수님은 학생들을 배려하고 존중합니다.)	**A.** Choose an item.
B. The professor gave students many opportunities to speak and participate in class discussions. (교수님은 학생들에게 발언 기회와 토론에 참여할 수 있는 기회를 많이 주었습니다.)	**B.** Choose an item.
C. The professor explained the subject matter effectively. (교수님은 주제에 대해 효과적으로 설명해 주셨습니다.)	**C.** Choose an item.
D. The professor gave students many opportunities to ask questions. (교수님은 학생들에게 질문할 기회를 많이 주었습니다.)	**D.** Choose an item.

A. The professor's feedback was helpful/useful for my language development. (교수님의 피드백은 본인의 언어 발전에 도움이 되었습니다.)	**A.** Choose an item.
B. I understood the professor's feedback and comments. (교수님의 피드백과 의견을 이해했습니다.)	**B.** Choose an item.
C. Feedback provided by the professor was specific to me. (교수님이 주신 피드백은 본인에게 특정된 내용이었습니다.)	**C.** Choose an item.
D. I improved my public speaking skills because of the feedback that was provided. (피드백을 받아서 대중 연설 기술이 향상되었습니다.)	**D.** Choose an item.
E. The professor's feedback motivated me to participate more. (교수님의 피드백은 본인이 더 참여할 수 있도록 동기를 부여했습니다.)	**E.** Choose an item.

Part 3 (See Below)

CLASS REFLECTION & FEEDBACK SURVEY
(semester), Professor Reuven Ronin

Part 3: Class Reflection

Directions: For the following questions, please answer each question honestly with a minimum of 30 words. (다음 질문은 각각의 질문에 최소 30 단어로 솔직하게 대답해주세요.)

1. What have you enjoyed most about this course? Why? (본 강의에서 어떤 점이 가장 좋았습니까? 그 이유는 무엇입니까?)

   a. Question 1 Answer: Click or tap here to enter text.

2. What have you disliked most about this course? Why? (본 강의에서 어떤 점이 가장 싫었습니까? 그 이유는 무엇입니까?)

   a. Question 2 Answer: Click or tap here to enter text.

3. What aspect of the professor's teaching style is most effective and helpful to your learning? (교수님의 수업방식 중 어떤 측면이 학습에 가장 효과적이고 도움이 됩니까?)

   a. Question 3 Answer: Click or tap here to enter text.

4. What specific advice would you give to help improve the professor's teaching? (본 교수의 강의가 향상될 수 있도록 어떤 구체적인 조언을 하겠습니까?)

   a. Question 4 Answer: Click or tap here to enter text.

5. If you could give a speech/presentation on another subject, which topic or theme would you like to do? (다른 주제에 대해 연설/발표를 할 수 있다면 어떤 화제나 주제에 대해 하고 싶습니까?)

   a. Question 5 Answer: Click or tap here to enter text.

6. What do you think is the purpose for feedback? (피드백의 목적이 무엇이라고 생각합니까?)

   a. Question 6 Answer: Click or tap here to enter text.

7. Do you want to be praised for your efforts? (본인의 노력을 칭찬받고 싶습니까?)

   a. Question 7 Answer: Click or tap here to enter text.

3

8. When do you want to receive praise (e.g., after participating and in front of the other students, not in front of the other students, not at all)? (언제 칭찬을 받고 싶습니까? (예시: 발표 후 다른 학생들 앞에서, 다른 학생들이 없는 곳에서, 또는 칭찬을 받고 싶지 않음 등))

   a. Question 8 Answer: ⬚ Click or tap here to enter text.

9. How do you prefer to receive praise? **CHOOSE ONE** (어떤 방식으로 칭찬받는 것을 선호합니까? **한 개만 선택**해 주십시오.)

   ☐ Verbal Comments (말로 하는 칭찬)

   ☐ Nonverbal Gesture (e.g., smile, thumbs up, nod) (비언어적 표시 (예: 미소, 엄지 척, 고개 끄덕임 등))

   ☐ Written Comments (글로 쓰여진 칭찬)

   ☐ Other (기타): ⬚ Click or tap here to enter text.

   ☐ I do not want praise. (칭찬을 받고 싶지 않습니다.)

10. How do you prefer to be evaluated/receive feedback? **CHOOSE ONE** (어떻게 평가/피드백 받기를 선호합니까? **한 개만 선택**해 주십시오.)

   ☐ Rubric / Marking Sheet (루브릭 / 표시 용지)

   ☐ Written Comments (서면상의 논평)

   ☐ Verbal Comments (구두상의 논평)

   ☐ Other(기타): ⬚ Click or tap here to enter text.

   ☐ I do not want personal feedback. General feedback to the class is sufficient. (개인적인 피드백은 원하지 않습니다. 수강학생 전체에 대한 전반적인 피드백이면 충분합니다.)