

**Chinese EFL University Teachers' and Student's Beliefs Towards Oral
Corrective Feedback in the English Class**

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Statement of originality

This is to certify that to the best of my knowledge, the content of this thesis is my own work.

This thesis has not been submitted for any degree or other purposes.

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ABSTRACT

In Chinese universities, English-speaking abilities of students have received considerable emphasis in recent years. When learning a second language, it is crucial for teachers to know how to deal with students' spoken errors. However, one of the most painful experiences for teachers is correcting errors, especially those that recur in students' oral production (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005). A possible explanation for these experiences might be the mismatch between teachers' and students' beliefs about OCF because students will be demotivated when their expectations are not met, and teachers will be more reluctant to provide OCF (Roothoof & Breeze, 2016). However, compared with the amount of research on the effectiveness of OCF, relatively few studies have investigated the mismatch between teachers' and students' beliefs towards OCF, especially in Chinese universities. This research study investigates the oral corrective feedback beliefs of Chinese EFL teachers and students in English-speaking classes and finds out how well their beliefs correspond. In addition, it also explores challenges or concerns teachers and students have during the OCF process.

To achieve the purpose, three research questions were designed: 1) What are Chinese EFL teachers' and students' beliefs towards OCF regarding its importance, linguistic foci, timing, and different types?; 2) How do Chinese EFL students claim to feel when they receive OCF and how do Chinese EFL teachers perceive their students' affective responses to OCF?; 3) What concerns and challenges do teachers and students have towards oral corrective feedback in the classroom?

This study adopted a mixed methods approach in which quantitative and qualitative methods were collected. Quantitative research included student and teacher questionnaires, and 349 students and 85 English teachers from Chinese universities participated in this study. Apart

from the questionnaire survey, 10 teachers and 12 students were recruited for individual interviews. The data were triangulated by using the explanatory sequential design. First, the questionnaires were given to teachers and students, and the results of the closed-ended questions were analyzed statistically using Excel and SPSS. Second, a semi-structured interview was conducted with sample participants to explore teachers' and students' thoughts deeply. Data collected from the semi-structured interview will be analyzed using the thematic analysis. The qualitative data collected from the interview was used to explain and extend quantitative data to give more comprehensive insights into the research.

The findings showed that both students and teachers considered that it was important to provide OCF, but students had a higher desire to be corrected than teachers did. Students wished their errors could be corrected constantly, while many teachers expressed mixed views about the necessity for correcting all oral errors. Moreover, teachers stated that pronunciation errors should receive the most attention, whereas students emphasized grammatical errors more because students were influenced by exam-oriented learning experiences.

The results indicated that students preferred receiving explicit OCF, but teachers preferred providing implicit OCF. This was because teachers emphasized promoting fluency instead of accuracy, and they considered explicit CF types were disruptive, which might influence students' emotional responses. In addition, both teachers and students indicated that they preferred immediate OCF. However, they both maintained that it more appropriate to wait until students completed their utterances instead of interrupting them immediately after students' erroneous utterances.

Most teachers thought OCF would trigger students' negative feelings, and students' willingness to speak English might be negatively impacted. On the contrary, students rarely reported negative feelings, and they believed it would not lead to a decrease in their motivation and enthusiasm to speak English. Lastly, the finding showed that teachers had many challenges and

concerns when providing OCF, specifically students' language proficiency, personality, classroom size, time constraints, students' motivation, and lack of inclusion in the standard test. However, most students did not perceive many challenges and kept expressing willingness to receive the teacher's OCF.

The current study has contributed a significant understanding of Chinese EFL teachers' and students' beliefs, actual practices, and challenges with oral corrective feedback. The findings provide recommendations for teaching and learning within Chinese higher education, and future research is articulated.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CF = Corrective feedback

EFL = English as a Foreign Language

ELT = English Language Teaching

ESL = English as a Second Language

L1 = First language

L2 = Second language

OCF = Oral corrective feedback

SLA = Second language acquisition

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

This section establishes the research context and introduces the rationale, key problem statement, and an overview of the research questions. It provides general information about OCF and emphasizes the main aims of this current study.

1.2 Theoretical Support for OCF

In L2 development, feedback is crucial for second language learners in classroom teaching because it can enhance their understanding of the language and communication abilities (Mackey & Goo, 2007; Nassaji, 2016). Quality feedback can therefore influence students' learning and outcomes (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Non-native English students often make errors when learning the target language, and corrective feedback becomes an integral part of teaching and learning in second language classrooms (Ha & Murray, 2021). Since the 1950s, corrective feedback has become a major aspect of language learning, with error analysis being a focus of researchers' debate.

In 1977, Chaudron conducted a descriptive study on CF which opened new avenues for research. Since then, results obtained from studies on corrective feedback have played important roles in constructing SLA theory and expanding foreign language teaching methods. Although corrective feedback is seen as an inevitable aspect of second language teaching, there remains unresolved debate regarding its role in second language development. The nativist view (Krashen, 1981) perceives language learning as an innate function since every human being possesses innate biological principles known as Language Acquisition Devices containing Universal Grammar. Nativists (e.g., Cook, 1991; Krashen, 1981) also believe that OCF would have a negative influence because it interrupts the flow of comprehensible input and influences the learning process.

On the other hand, cognitivist, socio-culturalist, and interactionist positions recognize the facilitative role of CF in L2 development (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2017). For example, the cognitivist and interactionist views claim that corrective feedback is necessary because an individual's knowledge of their first language will influence their cognitive abilities when learning a second language (Lightbown & Spada, 2021), and the second language learning process involves using L1 knowledge to produce correct L2 forms and structures (Ellis, 2009). Today, the issue of OCF has been largely influenced by the cognitive-interactionist framework (Lightbown & Spada, 2021; Yu et al., 2018).

The theoretical implications of CF research help verify opposing claims about its role in SLA derived from different theories (Pawlak 2014). Despite some scholars such as Krashen (1981) and Truscott (1999) discouraging error correction for students' mistakes, a large body of research investigating the effectiveness of CF has yielded a consensus that it is beneficial for learners' target language development. For example, many studies have shown that immediate corrective feedback has positive and durable effects on students' ability to produce more accurate language (Ellis, 2009; Li & Vuono, 2019; Lyster et al., 2013). Corrective feedback can be provided orally or in written form (Ha et al., 2021), both modes having been shown to be effective for learner development (Li & Vuono, 2019). These two feedback modes contain different features that need to be discussed separately (Li & Vuono, 2019). The current study only investigated oral corrective feedback; therefore, any mention of CF refers to its oral form.

1.3 Empirical Support of OCF for L2 Development Background of the Study

In L2 development, OCF is a common practice utilized by many teachers to draw attention to inaccuracies in second language learning and has received wide attention from

both researchers and language teachers alike. Over the past decades, numerous studies have examined the nature, use, and role of OCF in different contexts in second-language classrooms and laboratory settings. The effectiveness of OCF has been agreed upon by numerous researchers, facilitating L2 development in both descriptive and experimental studies (e.g., Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen, 2001; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Lyster et al., 2013; Mackey, 2006; Nassaji, 2016; Sheen, 2004; Yoshida, 2010). In addition to investigating the overall effectiveness of OCF, there have been extensive discussions on the frequency and pattern of its usage in various second-language classrooms. Much research has demonstrated that feedback frequently occurs in English classrooms (Brown, 2016; Wang & Li, 2020).

Hendrickson's (1978) study on corrective feedback sought to question the 'should,' 'when,' 'which,' 'how,' and 'who' aspects of the oral error correction process in the L2 classroom. Researchers over the past decades have been trying to find the best way to answer these questions which are still being explored. Major observational studies on CF have followed Lyster and Ranta's (1997) error treatment model to study the differential effects of different feedback types across various contexts and settings.

It was found that recast is the most frequently used feedback type but explicit corrections or prompts can elicit learner uptake more frequently (Lyster & Mori, 2006; Brown, 2016; Nassaji & Kartchava, 2020; Wang & Li, 2020). Research employing the pre-test and post-test methodology has found that all types of feedback are effective (Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Nassaji, 2017). Additionally, other individual and contextual factors can influence the effectiveness of OCF in practice (Brown, 2016; Goo & Mackey, 2013; Nassaji, 2018; Nassaji & Kartchava, 2020). Furthermore, these studies generally indicate that students desire more correction than their teachers believe to be necessary. Students also have

a more positive perception regarding the effectiveness and necessity of OCF (Brown, 2009; Davis, 2003; Jean & Simard, 2011; Kim & Mostafa, 2021; Li, 2017; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016).

1.4 Rationale of the Current Study

The effectiveness of OCF and the value of different types have been extensively researched, so there is no need to discuss whether the feedback is effective or which feedback type is more effective (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2020). In the area of corrective feedback research, CF beliefs have received the least attention in terms of research (Akiyama, 2017; Ha & Murray, 2020; Ha et al., 2021). Li (2017, p. 143) defines beliefs about corrective feedback as “attitudes, views, opinions and stances learners and teachers hold about the utility of corrective feedback in language learning and teaching and how it should be implemented in the classroom.” This means that teachers’ perception of the importance of OCF and their decision on how to implement it are influenced by their beliefs regarding its provision. Further exploration into teachers’ beliefs towards OCF is worthwhile because studying these beliefs would “enhance our understanding of how the process works” (Zheng, 2015, p. 13).

In addition, further investigation is needed into students’ beliefs because they impact both the process and product of learning (Ellis, 2008, pp. 8–9). Learners’ beliefs towards OCF reflect their preferences and attitudes regarding whether and how feedback should be provided when they make oral mistakes, which may influence the noticeability (Kartchava & Ammar, 2014) and effectiveness of OCF (Sheen, 2007). In recent years, researchers have conducted studies to investigate learners’ beliefs towards OCF (Agudo, 2015; Lee, 2013; Loewen et al., 2009; Zhu & Wang, 2019), while others have focused on teacher beliefs

(Agudo, 2014; Bitchener, 2012; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). There have been studies investigating the congruence and incongruence between teacher's stated beliefs and their practices (Bao, 2019; Dong, 2012; Kamiya, 2016; Kartchava, 2006; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2019; Roothoof, 2014). However, the relationships between teachers' and students' beliefs concerning corrective feedback remain to be under-researched, especially across a variety of EFL contexts.

Li (2017) pointed out the importance of examining and comparing teachers' and students' beliefs because mismatches between their beliefs may affect students' satisfaction and motivation for learning the language. It is crucial for teachers to understand students' expectations regarding how they wish to be corrected and their needs. For instance, some teachers were concerned that providing oral corrective feedback (OCF) would trigger negative emotions in students, but it was found that students expected their teachers to provide OCF. If teachers fail to meet students' learning expectations, it could lead to a loss of enthusiasm in participating in classroom activities (Bloom, 2007; Peacock, 2001), or even cause them to give up studying altogether (McCargar, 1993).

Therefore, investigating teachers' beliefs about OCF is significant in determining how they perceive its effectiveness or usefulness in language teaching and learning. By providing OCF, teachers can support students in observing, evaluating, and self-inspecting their English-speaking proficiency – which is the main reason why they are interested in studying oral corrective feedback (Walsh, 2006). Additionally conducting this current study can significantly help researchers determine whether preferences of both teachers and students align with research findings across different contexts.

In addition, OCF beliefs are context-specific (Schulz, 2001; Loewen et al., 2009), but little research has been conducted in Asian countries (Ha et al., 2021). There is a paucity of thorough research conducted in mainland China (Liu & Pange, 2015). The linguistic characteristics of Chinese and English and the Chinese education schema should be included to understand the teachers' beliefs. Chinese is a non-alphabetical language, and the English language is made by alphabetic. There is no grapheme-phoneme correspondence in the Chinese language, but in the English language, each grapheme represents a sound (DeFrancis, 1984). When speaking, most phonological systems create difficulties for Chinese students. For example, some phonemes in the English language do not exist in the Chinese language, and the way to stress and intonation is different.

Gan (2013) showed that 92.4% of Chinese students reported developing their thoughts in their first language and translating them from Chinese to English when speaking, leading to mistakes, such as lexical errors, syntactical errors, and discourse errors. Students' mental translation process can be problematic in English speaking since the Chinese language lacks a morphologically based grammar system, and meaning delivery highly depends on a shared understanding of the context (add references here). The statistics released by the Ministry of Education (MOE) of China (2016) showed that there were over 26 million college English language learners by 2015. Although corrective feedback issues have been widely discussed in ESL contexts, they have not been extensively considered in Chinese higher education contexts (Xu, 2012).

Compared with the amount of research on the effectiveness of OCF, relatively few studies have investigated teachers' and students' attitudes, especially in China. With the globalization of the world economy, universities in China have started to emphasize the

significance of developing students' ability to use oral English to better prepare them as global citizens. Therefore, it remains essential to investigate teachers' and students' beliefs towards OCF within Chinese universities.

1.5 Research Aims and Questions

Within the information mentioned above, the current study aims to investigate and compare teachers' and students' beliefs towards oral corrective feedback within English classes in Chinese universities. In detail, the purposes of this current study are as follows:

1. To understand teachers' and students' beliefs towards the importance and provision of OCF, including their preference for different feedback types, timing, and linguistic foci.
2. To investigate the alignment between teachers' and students' beliefs about OCF;
3. To understand students' emotional responses when receiving OCF.
4. To understand how teachers perceive students' emotional responses.
5. To understand what challenges teachers and students perceived in their OCF practice within the university English classroom in China.

In line with the aims stated above, this current study seeks to address the following research questions:

1. What are Chinese EFL teachers' and students' beliefs towards OCF regarding its importance, linguistic foci, timing, and different types?
2. How do Chinese EFL students and Chinese EFL teachers differ in their perceptions toward students' affective responses to OCF?
3. What concerns and challenges do teachers and students have towards oral corrective feedback in the classroom?

1.6 Context of the Study

This study is conducted in more than 8 different Chinese universities, and the average English classroom contains 30-40 students. To protect participants' personal information, detailed information of each university is not provided. The Chinese educational belief differs from the constructivist belief valued by many Western countries (Hu & Lam, 2010). In Chinese universities, English is compulsory, and the quality of teaching is commonly determined by the result of the CET (College English Test). University teaching methods mainly focus on tests and are teacher-centered (Gan, Humphrey, and Hamp-Lyons, 2004). Consequently, English textbooks still largely focus on grammar, translation, and reading skills (Gan, 2013). For non-English major students, writing accounts for 80 per cent of the CET component while listening and speaking are only required for majoring in English. Most University English teachers in China devote more time to teaching speaking skills through textbook reading activities with question answering and group discussions. Furthermore, many students state that they rarely have a chance to practice spoken English outside classroom activities. Therefore, speaking remains the most challenging aspect to improve for university students in China (Du, 2016).

1.7 Research Design and Methodology

This current study adopted a mixed methods research design, combining quantitative and qualitative research techniques to gain a better understanding of teachers' and students' beliefs toward OCF. One of the most advantageous characteristics of using a mixed methods approach is the possibility of triangulation, which appears to be the best fit for this study as it can enhance the validity and interpretability of the findings (Rocco et al., 2003). The present study employed an explanatory sequential strategy, where data were initially collected through questionnaires to analyze teachers' and students' beliefs, provision, emotional

responses, and challenges related to oral corrective feedback. Subsequently, semi-structured interviews were conducted with some participants to obtain more detailed explanations regarding their questionnaire responses. While the questionnaire provided comprehensive information on teachers' and students' beliefs towards OCF, the semi-structured interview served to clarify and expand upon these responses.

Convenience sampling was used to recruit the participants. Different universities were contacted through email and asked to distribute the questionnaire to teachers and students who met the requirements. The questionnaire was initially assigned online, with a voluntary interview invitation added at the end. The quantitative study involved a total of 85 university English teachers and 349 university students in the Chinese university context, all of whom were non-native speakers of English learning or teaching English in China. The questionnaire was first assigned online, and 10 teachers and 12 students expressed their willingness to participate in semi-structured interviews. The closed-ended questions in the questionnaire were analyzed using SPSS for descriptive statistics and basic data understanding purposes. Thematic analysis was employed for analyzing and reporting themes within the data gathered from interviews. Each research question was analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative approaches. This current study adhered to ethical considerations, ensuring privacy protection for all participants.

1.8 Significance of the Current Study

The results of this current study should contribute to our existing knowledge of teachers' and students' beliefs about OCF, their affective response, the challenges they are currently facing in their classrooms, and the alignment between these two groups. First, compared with teachers, there has been little comprehensive research discussing students' beliefs toward OCF. Most related research only investigates students' beliefs about the

usefulness and necessity of OCF as part of larger studies investigating other topics (Jean & Simard, 2011), and limited research comprehensively examines students' beliefs (Akiyama, 2017; Li, 2017). For example, few studies have discussed students' preferences toward different feedback types. Addressing students' beliefs is necessary because learners eventually receive teachers' OCF practices.

It is essential for teachers to fully understand students' needs in order to aid their L2 development. This current study will investigate not only teachers' but also students' beliefs towards OCF comprehensively. Although teachers' and students' beliefs within the context of ESL/EFL education have been widely discussed in the past few decades (Borg, 2015; Calafato, 2020), there has been limited research on the relationship between teachers' and students' beliefs concerning corrective feedback (Ha et al., 2021). Few studies have investigated both teachers' and student's comprehensive views on this topic. For example, Jean and Simard (2011) conducted an inquiry-based study to investigate teachers' and students' beliefs on different aspects of grammar instruction, but the result did not cover all aspects of OCF. Roothoof and Breeze (2016) provide several contributing findings to the field of OCF, but they did not include information on the timing and linguistic foci of OCF.

The issue of providing OCF is context-specific, and there is a paucity of thorough research conducted in mainland China (Liu, 2015). The current findings are useful because it will expand the understanding of teachers' and students' beliefs on more aspects of OCF, and it can provide an in-depth and comprehensive overview of oral corrective feedback within the Chinese context. Another significant implication of this study is findings can be useful for teachers to enhance effective communication between teachers and students. Knowing students' preferences is important for teachers because error correction has been proven to

assist L2 development (Li, 2018) and meet learners' expectations from their teachers (Li, 2017).

According to Nunan (1987), the mismatch between teacher and learner expectations about what should happen in the language classroom significantly affects learning outcomes. For example, students whose expectations are not met by a language course may be reluctant to participate in classroom activities. It does not mean that teachers should cater to students' preferences but considering students' beliefs towards their pedagogical practice is important for teachers. Understanding the mismatch can help them make more suitable pedagogical choices to enhance teaching effectiveness and the efficacy of OCF provision.

Second, there is a lack of research on students' affective responses to oral CF, and this current study will add to our limited knowledge about how both teachers and students feel about different types of oral CF as well as how they assess its impact on emotional wellbeing and motivation among students. In this way, we aim to increase our understanding of both student's beliefs as well as teacher's beliefs while also learning more about how these factors influence language teaching and learning processes. China launched national curriculum innovation in 2007 with emphasis placed on communicative ability.

It has been frequently reported that the implementation of communicative language is arduous in most Asian countries (Littlewood, 2007). This current study not only explores suitable context-specific strategies for providing OCF to Chinese students but also investigates challenges experienced by teachers and students. It also proposes potential suggestions that will make empirical contributions to EFL teaching, especially EFL teaching in Chinese universities. Given the important role of OCF in the English classroom,

investigating Chinese teachers' and learners' beliefs about OCF is influential when further improvements and reforms are needed for national curriculum innovation.

1.9 Definitions of Key Items

It is useful for readers not familiar with the literature in corrective feedback to gain an overview explanation of the following terms used in the current thesis. These terms are, however, selective, rather than comprehensive.

Beliefs towards OCF: Li (2017, p.143) defines beliefs about corrective feedback as "attitudes, views, opinions and stances learners and teachers hold about the utility of corrective feedback in language learning and teaching and how it should be implemented in the classroom."

Corrective feedback: "the feedback learners receive on the linguistic errors they make in their oral and written production in a second language" (Sheen & Ellis, 2011, p. 593). The comments that teachers provide on the appropriateness of learners' second language production or comprehension.

Oral corrective feedback: teachers' or peers' responses to learners' utterances. Goh and Burns (2012) stated that speaking activities could facilitate second language learning only if learners received feedback on their spoken performance. Oral corrective feedback addresses students' oral mistakes and miscommunications and points out the gap between students' current language and desired levels (Brown, 2016).

Students' Affective Response to OCF: Goh and Burns (2012) stated that "affective factors refer to people's feelings, emotions or psychological reactions to particular social situations" (p. 5), and these factors can be divided into the individual aspect and the relational aspect.

Students' affective response refers to how students emotionally respond when they are provided with OCF.

Students' beliefs towards OCF: refer to "what learners think about themselves, about the learning situation, and about the target community" (Wesely, 2012, p. 100). Interest in investigating learners' beliefs is because it impacts "both the process and product of learning" (Ellis, 2008, p. 8–9). Learners' beliefs about CF refer to their expectations and attitudes about whether and how their language teachers should give feedback.

Teachers' beliefs towards OCF: can be explained as the teacher's idea, thought, ways of implementation, and attitude toward how oral corrective feedback should be utilized when the teacher is giving instruction (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Interest in investigating teachers' beliefs about oral corrective feedback is built on the common view that teachers' beliefs have an impact on their teaching practices (Farrell & Kun, 2008).

1.10 Organization of the Current Thesis

This thesis comprises six chapters, references and appendices.

Chapter 1 (Introduction) presents a general overview. It describes the general background of the study, provides a sound rationale, and proposes a statement of the problem. It then discusses the research aim, followed by a succinct description of the research design and methodology. This chapter also provides the definition of key items, significance, implication, and delimitation of the study.

Chapter 2 (Review of the Literature) presents the literature review on OCF and issues pertaining to the subject of the research study. This chapter reviews both the theoretical foundations and related empirical studies. It starts with an introduction to the basic concept of OCF, including the theoretical foundation of the study and the role of OCF in second language development. Then, it reviews relevant empirical studies to support the role of OCF.

In the following paragraphs, the classification of OCF and the strategies for providing OCF are introduced, and an overview of research on OCF is included, both the research abroad and research in China. In addition, the notion that teachers' and students' beliefs may moderate the effectiveness of OCF in L2 development is introduced, and related empirical studies on teachers' and students' beliefs about OCF are reviewed.

Chapter 3 (Research Methodology) describes the methodology of this current study, which includes a rationale for the research design, research participants, context information, research instruments, description of data collection procedure, research process, and the relevant methods for data analysis. Then, the pilot study used prior to the main data collection process, confirmation of trustworthiness, and ethical considerations are described.

Chapter 4 (Findings) presents the findings of the research. This chapter is the most important part of this current study since it details the results derived from the quantitative and qualitative data analysis. This section is divided into three main parts: first, a description and comparison of teachers' and students' beliefs and provision of OCF. Second, students' affective response when provided with OCF and how teachers perceive their feeling. Third, factors which influence and challenge OCF practice in the classroom.

Chapter 5 (Discussion) discusses this current study, in which results are presented in the order of the research questions they answer. It discusses the findings regarding the research questions and discusses them with reference to related theoretical claims and previous empirical studies.

Chapter 6 (Conclusions) summarizes the major findings, discusses the major contribution of the research, makes implications for teaching practice, identifies the limitations of the research, and indicates the implications for future research.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the research pertinent to this current study relating to oral corrective feedback and teachers' and students' beliefs about it. When learning a second language (L2), the provision of corrective feedback (CF) regarding learners' errors has long been of interest to both second language teachers and researchers. This is because previous research shows that OCF is beneficial and necessary for L2 learners' language development (Lyster et al., 2013; Nassaji, 2016, 2017), and OCF frequently occurs in the second language classroom (Brown, 2016; Sheen, 2004; Wang & Li, 2020).

2.2 The Concept of Feedback

Sheen (2011) indicates that the main difference between feedback and corrective feedback is that corrective feedback entails the presence of an error, whereas feedback can be provided regardless of whether the learner's response is correct or incorrect. An earlier view of feedback primarily focused on correcting students' errors. Based on Coder (1967), errors are essential and inevitable factors when learning a new language because they can point out the distance between the student's current language level and their end goal and identify where they can make improvements. Corder and other specialists in error analysis (e.g., Richards, 1971) proposed that when learners begin to develop their English-speaking ability, their underlying knowledge of the language and their deficiencies, such as misuse of words, transfer features from their first language (L1) and over-generalizations could be reflected, and, at a certain stage, learners' errors can reflect their transitional competence. Undoubtedly, providing feedback can help teachers prevent these errors from getting fossilized and help learners with their second language learning process (Huong, 2020). Feedback, hence, is a crucial part of language acquisition (Gass et al., 2020).

Feedback is the information teachers provide students regarding their performance during the teaching and learning process, which is seen as the outcome of their learning (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Feedback can be useful for facilitating second language learning, and integrating feedback into the student's language learning is advocated by many scholars due to its potential benefit in supporting learners' second language learning development (e.g., Boud & Molly, 2013; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Hattie & Yates, 2013; Hounsell, 2003; Sadler, 1989).

Feedback can inform learners where they may need to improve and what they have done well. For example, learners can use teachers' feedback to improve their oral and written linguistic accuracy (Ferris, 2010; Frear & Chiu, 2015; Sheen, 2010), increase their motivation in learning (Lipnevich & Smith, 2009), and improve their ability to think independently, problem-solve, reflect, self-regulate, and adapt learning strategies to task demand (Pekrun et al., 2002; Sadler, 2010). High-quality feedback and effective commentary on students' performance are key to high-quality teaching (Hattie & Timperley, 2007), and extensive studies suggest that high-quality feedback should be timely, precise, rich in detail, meaningful, and driven by goals (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Lenz, Ellis & Scanlon, 1996; Silverman, 1992). The definition and effectiveness of feedback require discussion to provide a general perspective that errors are inevitable when learning a new language and feedback is a necessary factor to promote L2 learning.

2.3 The Concept of Oral Corrective Feedback

Over the last few years, corrective feedback has been defined by many scholars (Chaudron, 1977; Ellis, 2009, 2017; Ha & Murry, 2021; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster et al., 2013; Mackey, 2006; Nassaji & Kartchava, 2017; Russell & Spada, 2006; Sheen & Ellis, 2011), and it is generally accepted as "the

feedback that learners receive on the linguistic errors they make in their oral or written production in a second language (L2)" (Sheen & Ellis, 2011, p. 593).

Oral corrective feedback specifically addresses students' erroneous utterances (Ellis, 2006). According to Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006), oral corrective feedback has three functions. Firstly, teachers can use it as an indication of the student's verbal errors; secondly, it can provide the correct language form; thirdly, it can provide students with the relevant metalinguistic knowledge of their errors. Also, these three functions can work together to support the learner's language development. In general, teachers need to provide verbal feedback on students' oral performances to guide them in overcoming obstacles, such as mispronunciation, misuse of vocabulary, grammar mistakes, communication strategy, and ideas (Annie, 2011).

Lyster and Ranta (1997) proposed six types of oral corrective feedback: explicit correction, recast, clarification, metalinguistic, elicitation, and repetition. They also introduced the term "multiple feedback," which contains more than one identified feedback type. In addition, Lyster and Ranta stated that the way to distinguish feedback was to determine whether the feedback that teachers provide was explicit or implicit, which emphasizes whether teachers provide direct correction of students' errors. Based on the implicit-explicit type distinction, metalinguistic and explicit correction were classified as explicit feedback types: recast, clarification, elicitation, and repetition are seen as implicit feedback types. Since then, numerous researchers have widely discussed and developed the classification of OCF types (Fu & Nassaji, 2016; Lyster, 2002).

In addition, Li and Vonuo (2019) suggested that input-providing (reformulation) and output-promoting (prompt), which focus more on the encouragement of self-repair, could be used as another way of distinguishing OCF. In reformulation, the teacher repeats the learner's erroneous utterance using the correct form but does not making the learner focus on the error

itself (Nassaji, 2007). Using this strategy, the teacher provides the learner with a correct example of the target language when the learner may be ready to notice the difference between their erroneous utterance and the correct form. Ellis (2009) stated that reformulation could be regarded as 'input providing' as target language input was provided to the learner through this process. Reformulations include two feedback types: recasts and explicit corrections.

Prompts, on the other hand, were output-prompting since they did not directly provide the correct language form to the students (Ellis, 2009). Rather, they emphasize the self-correction of erroneous language forms made by students. Prompts could be classified into feedback types such as clarification, repetitions, elicitations, and metalinguistic. The definitions and examples of the different types will be illustrated in later paragraphs.

To sum up, this section introduces the concept of feedback and its facilitative role in second language learning. As a form of feedback, the concept of OCF and its wide range of strategies, which are used to respond to learners' erroneous utterances, has been clarified. Although OCF is an important component of second language learning, its role and effectiveness will be theoretically explained in the next section.

2.4 Negative and Positive Evidence

Feedback can be positive or negative (corrective), and according to Gass (1997), language learners have access to two types of input: *positive evidence* and *negative evidence*. The role of corrective feedback relates to the notion of whether *negative evidence* is needed in the second language learning process (Nassaji, 2015), and this will be illustrated in the following paragraphs.

Positive evidence is information about what is possible and grammatically acceptable in the target language (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2017). Learners can gain positive evidence by

being exposed to the authentic forms of the target or more simplified language forms during interactions (Long, 1991). However, positive evidence is not equal to positive feedback. Ellis (2008) and Nassaji (2015) stated that positive feedback, for example, when a teacher says, "Great!" after the learner's utterance, encourages and supports the learner emotionally. On the other hand, positive evidence not only affirms the student but also provides information about what is correct in the target language.

Negative evidence indicates what is unacceptable in the target language (Long, 1996; Saxton, 2000), and it can be obtained by explaining the grammatical rules, or it can also be obtained in the form of corrective feedback (Long, 1996). *Negative evidence* can be provided in direct or indirect form. Direct *negative evidence* is explicitly presented to the learner by pointing out errors in their utterances, whereas indirect *negative evidence* is inferred from the absence of ungrammatical utterances from input, such as repetition of the learner's error or clarification requests. (Chomsky, 1981; Nassaji, 2015).

While the terms *negative feedback* and *negative evidence* are different, it can be said that negative feedback is "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner's utterance" (Chaudron, 1977, p. 31) can be regarded as a form of *negative evidence*. Kartchava (2019) introduced that the terms *negative feedback* and corrective feedback could be used interchangeably because the use of corrective feedback was to indicate whether learners' use of the target language was correct. (Lightbown & Spada, 2021).

Even though OCF is typically seen as *negative evidence* (Doughty & Varela, 1998), some types of OCF can be seen as positive. For example, Lyster et al. (2013) argue that explicit corrections and recast feedback could be classified as positive evidence since they directly provide the correct target language form. In contrast, oral corrective feedback is a form of *negative evidence* containing implicit or explicit information about linguistic errors in

L2 learners' oral production (Sheen & Ellis, 2011). Therefore, OCF can contain both *positive* and *negative evidence* for learners because OCF types are not black or white in many cases since there can be both *positive* and *negative evidence* in the same feedback move (Bruton, 2000).

After explaining the concept of OCF and its types and subtypes, and the concept of *positive* and *negative evidence*, the next section will discuss the question of whether OCF has the potential to facilitate L2 development.

2.5 Can OCF Facilitate L2 Development?

This section aims to evaluate whether OCF has the potential to facilitate L2 development from theoretical and empirical perspectives and factors that may mediate its effectiveness. Therefore, the theoretical perspective and empirical studies mentioned in this section are used to highlight the importance of exploring this area of research.

2.5.1 Historical Perspective of OCF

While several researchers acknowledge the importance of OCF in L2 learning, there are others who believe that OCF is not useful (e.g., Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). One such position, for example, is the nativist view, which posits that language learning is an innate function of humans and occurs naturally with experience. Researchers such as Krashen (1978) and Truscott (2007) suggested that language acquisition was unconscious, and it was useless to teach the language that the learners were not ready for. Krashen (1978) later proposed the comprehensible input hypothesis, which indicated that in order for learners to produce language output, the teacher only needed to make language input roughly to the comprehension level of the learner. Truscott (1999) acknowledged that OCF could be useful to learners if it is given well and with extreme care. However, he

questioned most language teachers' abilities and he argued that it was better not to provide feedback student's language at all.

In addition, Krashen stated that learner' language acquisition followed a natural order embedded in their brains, and the learners would make up their mistakes and understand the new language items through the comprehensible input item provided in the context. This view implies that providing oral corrective feedback is unnecessary because if learners can access universal grammar, corrective feedback becomes useless (e.g., Flynn, 1988, 1996; Schwartz et al., 1993; Truscott, 2007; White, 1991). Krashen (1978) stated that the only other necessary condition for learners to acquire language is when they are ready for acquisition, and thus had a low "affective filter". In this view, oral corrective feedback would bring a negative influence on learners' acquisition because it interrupts the flow of comprehensible input, influences the learning process, and negatively affects learners' affective filter. Truscott (1999) also stated that corrective feedback disturbs ongoing communication and diverts the students' and teacher's attention from the communicative mastering error correction tasks. He also questions why a busy teacher should devote effort to correcting errors which in his view is most likely to be unsuccessful.

However, the nativist's view is based on a narrow definition of corrective feedback, which is perceived as a comprehensively overt form of feedback (Snow, 1986). Although the nativist's view assumes that children have innate language learning ability and explicit corrective feedback rarely occurs when they are learning language, feedback such as recasting or rephrasing children's utterances is provided frequently by their parents (Sokolov & Snow, 1994). However, this view was challenged both theoretically and empirically by the cognitive-interactionist view, which claims that positive evidence alone cannot support a learner's L2 learning, even if the input is comprehensible (Swain, 1985). Thus, to say that there is no need to provide OCF to the language learner is a narrow view of OCF.

2.5.2 Theoretical Frame Supporting the Effectiveness of OCF

The nativist's perspective has been challenged by other researchers (e.g., Gass, 2003, 2018; Long, 1991, 1996; Schachter, 1991) who take the cognitive or interactionist perspectives, suggesting that the way an individual learns a first and second language is different, and that *negative evidence* (corrective feedback) is significant and necessary (Gass, 2018; Swain, 1995).

Cognitive interactionists stated that SL learning happens when the learner's internal (cognitive) factors and external (environmental) factors interact (Gass, 2018; Swain, 1985, 1995), and the case for the role of OCF in L2 development is based on why and how the cognitive processing of (OCF) can lead to the modified output. This explains how input can interact with learners' cognitive resources and facilitate SL learning. According to this perspective, learners' L1 knowledge will influence their cognitive ability and how they learn L2 (Lightbown & Spada, 2021), and the L2 learning process will make students use their L1 knowledge to produce correct L2 forms and structures (Ellis, 2009). In addition, L2 learners draw upon their cognitive and problem-solving skills, in which OCF was essential (Schachter, 1991), and the cognitive interactionist thus demonstrated the importance of *negative evidence* (OCF) in SL (Gass, 2018; Swain, 1985, 1995).

Since the cognitive-interactionist perspective presumes that L2 learners do not have innate language learning devices (Long, 1981), oral corrective feedback, which is an external resource, is needed to supplement SL development. Consequently, the role of OCF is regarded as important because second language learning is progressed by using learners' cognitive and problem-solving skills (Schachter, 1991).

To theoretically argue for the facilitative role of OCF in the development of L2 knowledge, the cognitive theoretical framework will be discussed in the following paragraphs

as it provides a comprehensive discussion of how corrective feedback as a language input functions in L2 learning (Ellis, 2008).

Within this framework, which examines the cognitive processes in language learning, several models and hypotheses have been developed. One of the most salient ones is the Interactionist model advanced by Long (1996, 1998) who proposes that selective attention (noticing) and the learner's developing L2 processing capacity play a fundamental role in the negotiation of meaning. Through interacting with others, learners will be told what is correct in their speech and what is incorrect. The information about what is incorrect in speakers' utterances is called negative evidence. The Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1983, 1996) values feedback obtained from the interaction as an important factor in second language learning through two stages. The first stage is the negotiation of meaning, which is defined by Lyster (2004) as "various input modifications and interactional moves including semantically contingent feedback such as repetition and reformulation, provides learners with implicit negative evidence and thus serves to benefit L2 development" (p. 403). The second stage is interactional modifications, which is the process of solving the problem by using different types of strategies such as repetition (Pawlak, 2014). Once the negative evidence is noticed through interaction, the learner will locate the error and come up with a way to make modification to proceed with the interaction by resolving linguistic problems. Mackey (2006) then identifies attention and awareness as two cognitive processes that mediate input and L2 development through interaction.

This above hypothesis finds some foundations in Schmidt's (1994) noticing hypothesis, which argues that language input will only become intake (i.e., serve to trigger learning) if it is noticed by the learners, the teacher's oral corrective feedback will play a role of making students to notice their mistakes. Schmidt (1995) also states that it is highly necessary notice L2 forms because incidental language learning cannot provide enough

support for second language acquisition. Based on the noticing hypothesis, a form-focused pedagogical approach has been proposed by many researchers (i.e. Long, 1991; Long & Robinson, 1998), in which learner should notice a specific language feature to fully understand its function. Schmidt (2001) states that "attention must be directed to whatever evidence is relevant for a particular learning domain, i.e., that attention must be specifically focused and not just global. Nothing is free" (p.30).

In 2004, Lyster did a study to explore the effectiveness of form-focused instruction, which included activities that helped learners notice the orthographic and phonological patterns of French grammatical gender. He found that students who did not receive form-focused instruction failed to make any progress in figuring out grammatical patterns over time. Lyster (2004) thus states that form-focused instruction will be necessary for learning grammatical patterns, especially for difficult patterns. From this perspective framework, CF draws learners' attention so that they notice the gap between their interlanguage and the target language form.

Swain's Output Hypothesis (1985) points out that students can improve their language proficiency by making meaningful use of their L2 with the provision of negative evidence. The term negative evidence can be considered to refer to oral corrective feedback, which contains implicit and explicit information about the language learner's linguistic errors in order to allow for improvements (Sheen & Ellis, 2011). According to Swain (1995, 2005), output has three functions. The first one is to push learners to repair and modify their utterances by including more comprehensible input and/or reasonable reasons for their incorrect utterances (Sato & Lyster, 2007). The second functions is that learners can test their output their hypotheses about the target language through producing output. The third function is that output can promote automaticity. Learners will realize that proficiency in

comprehension does not mean they can produce high-quality output, and it will remind learners that they need to keep spending efforts in their learning.

Gass's (2018) theoretical framework points out that there are five stages in the learner's language learning process, and they are: apperception, comprehension, input, intake, and integration. Firstly, apperception is the stage at which learners can notice the difference between the input and their erroneous utterance. Secondly, the comprehension input stage is where learners use corrective feedback to understand input slightly beyond their current L2 knowledge. Thirdly, at the intake stage, learners assimilate the new knowledge they obtained from corrective feedback to improve their existing internalized prior knowledge. Fourthly, during the integration stage, learners make hypotheses and generalizations about the language, and the information they obtain from CF will help learners develop explicit knowledge for later use. Finally, at the output stage, learners test their hypotheses with opportunities to interact with teachers and produce new linguistic output. Thus, as a form of input, OCF can function as an external resource to facilitate learners' language development through each of these stages (Ellis, 2008; Gass, 2018).

To sum up, the underlying assumption is that OCF is theoretically posited to be extremely beneficial for L2 learning. The underlying assumption is oral corrective feedback can be seen as target input (Lyster, 1998) that promotes learners' acquisition of the second language by letting learners notice the distance between their interlanguage and the target language through interaction. Gass (2018) emphasized the role of interaction in SL, and learners can benefit more from comprehensible input if they are involved in negotiating to mean (Long, 2015). Therefore, cognitively, oral corrective feedback is an instructional input to make the learner process and repair their errors in the target language. Over the years, there have been several cognitive theories have explained both the nature of L2 knowledge and the cognitive processes of L2 learning. Although the cognitive framework addresses many

fundamental questions about how oral corrective feedback facilitates second language learning, it is important to notice that the cognitive processes of L2 learning is also influenced by the presence of individual and contextual factors (Brown, 2016).

2.5.3 Empirical Evidence Supporting the Effectiveness of OCF

Early studies on OCF (e.g., Chaudron, 1988; Mackey & Philp, 1998) display negative attitudes towards the effectiveness of OCF, suggesting that they would not lead to the development of L2 learning. For example, Lyster and Ranta (1997) found recasts ineffective in L2 learning, because it is difficult to be noticed by students. However, Ellis (2008) refutes these opinions by pointing out their limitations, such as excessive attention to limited feedback types, methodological shortcomings, and the examination of only a small number of languages. Moreover, the individual's immediate uptake, which is not an appropriate measure of learning, was used to demonstrate the efficacy of OCF. Also, Nassaji (2009) states that other factors, such as language proficiency and the explicitness of the OCF, influenced certain feedback types. Thus, it was not comprehensive to conclude that OCF was ineffective.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) comment that it is difficult to answer the most fundamental question – whether OCF should be provided. However, with the accumulation of research, Li and Vuono (2019) state that twenty years after Lyster's and Ranta's study, researchers are confident that the answer is positive, as numerous studies have demonstrated that OCF is effective for L2 development. The findings of these studies offer strong support for Gass's five stages of language development. With regard to Stage 1, concerning Schmidt's (1994) Noticing Hypothesis, studies (e.g., Ammar & Spada, 2006; Mackey & Gass, 2006; Yang & Lyster, 2010) confirmed the link between certain OCF types and subsequent second language development. These studies reinforced the fact that OCF could draw students' attention to the

gap between their current knowledge and their targeted language to develop their second language (Long, 2015).

Regarding Gass's Stage 2, studies (e.g., Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Oliver, 2002; Yang & Lyster, 2010) have confirmed that OCF is effective because it functions similarly to OCF provided in their L1. OCF provided in their L1 is provided in an understandable way, which can be seen as comprehensible input. These studies confirm that OCF provided in the target language may support learners in the understanding of the target language slightly beyond their current knowledge and finally lead to an improvement in their target language.

In terms of Gass's Stage 3, regarding Long's Interaction Hypothesis, studies (e.g., Li, 2010; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster & Saitp, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Nassaji, 2016; Panova & Lyster, 2002) demonstrate that OCF provides opportunities for students to engage in the process of negotiation thus producing a chance for them to focus on the targeted language to develop their second language proficiency.

When concerning Gass's Stage 4, studies have demonstrated that through the process of negotiation, OCF provides opportunities for learners to hypothesize and generalize the information they obtained from OCF to test their current language knowledge (e.g., Mackey et al., 2000; Nassaji, 2015). Moreover, after the above stage, learners should be able to generate modified output. Gass's Stage 5 can be informed by Swain's Output (1985) Hypothesis, with a wide range of studies (e.g., Loewen & Philp, 2006; Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; McDonough, 2005; Oliver & Mackey, 2003; Panova & Lyster, 2002) showing that OCF can provide chances for students to produce modified output, and consequently improve their language proficiency.

To further investigate the efficacy of OCF, it is necessary to discuss the meta-analysis of OCF research since much of the available research investigates the magnitude of related effect sizes across the primary study. Meta-analysis follows a strict statistical procedure, and

the results are highly trustworthy (Li & Vunou, 2019). Meta-analyses of CF research by Russel and Spada (2006), Macky and Goo (2007), Li (2010), Lyster and Saito (2010), Brown (2014), and Wisniewski, Zierer, and Hattie (2020) were reviewed, and the findings showed that all these studies support the effectiveness of OCF, even though their aims, focus and analysis are relatively different.

For example, Russell and Spada (2006) analyzed 15 studies to examine the effectiveness of corrective feedback, including studies examining oral feedback and those examining written feedback. It was found that the mean effect size for corrective feedback was 1.16, which showed that CF has significant effects on L2 learning. Moreover, although Mackey and Goo (2007) aimed to examine the effect of negotiated interaction on L2 learning, the effect of OCF was also included since corrective feedback is a very important feature of interaction. In this current study, a substantial proportion of studies examined the effectiveness of feedback, and the result indicated that the mean effect size for feedback on immediate post-tests was 0.71, and it was 1.09 on short-term post-tests, suggesting an increased effect of feedback over a short term. In Li's (2010) analysis, 33 primary studies were retrieved, and CF showed a medium effect ($d = 0.61$) on second language learning and maintained its effect over time.

Even though the effectiveness of OCF has been widely discussed in the field of SLA research, research reveals mixed results about how to make the best use of corrective feedback. As with other areas, the effectiveness of OCF is influenced by other individual and contextual factors in practice (Brown, 2016; Goo & Mackey, 2013; Nassaji, 2018; Wang, Yu, & Teo, 2018). For example, Lyster and Saito (2010) found larger effects for prompts than recasts, which indicated that prompts are more effective than recasts in classroom settings because they are more noticeable. Another finding was that CF influenced young learners more than older individuals, and researchers (e.g., Olive, 2000; Oliver & Mackey, 2003)

stated that OCF would develop children's implicit learning because it matched their learning mechanism.

In conclusion, the facilitative role of OCF has been demonstrated by numerous studies. OCF is beneficial for SL in the instructional context because OCF can support learners to produce modified output through interactions. However, despite its theoretical and empirical support, student-related variables, teacher-related variables, and classroom variables can influence the effectiveness of OCF, such as student proficiency, teacher experience, and second/foreign language context (Brown, 2016).

Li (2017) suggests that teachers' and students' beliefs can impact in-class practice and the effectiveness of CF. Therefore, one mediating factor in the efficacy of OCF is the beliefs teachers and students hold about OCF. This discussion is necessary because knowing their beliefs is the first step toward investigating the most effective way of providing OCF in certain contexts. For example, if teachers and students in certain contexts do not value the efficacy of OCF, they will not apply OCF to their teaching and learning practice.

2.6 Teachers' and Students' Beliefs Towards Oral Corrective Feedback

Compared with the amount of research on the effectiveness of CF, relatively few studies have investigated teachers' and students' beliefs regarding this topic. It has been demonstrated that studying teachers' beliefs (e.g., Lyster & Mori, 2006; Mori, 2002; Sheen, 2004) and students' beliefs (e.g., Farahani & Salajegheh, 2015; Kartchava, 2016; Schulz, 2001) regarding OCF is important. In addition, investigating whether teachers' and students' beliefs converge or are in conflict should also be considered because a mismatch between these beliefs might create potential conflicts in the process of second language learning (Brown, 2009). Brown (2009) believes that a consensus between the teachers' and the learners' beliefs will result in more optimistic learning outcomes since it helps teachers

provide more informed and effective instruction. By acknowledging and understanding this mismatch, teachers can better adjust their pedagogical practice to guide their students better to achieve more successful learning. Even though it has been recognized that teachers' and students' beliefs have an important impact on the teaching and learning process, few studies have compared EFL teachers' and students' beliefs about OCF in EFL university classes.

2.6.1 Definition of Teachers' and Students' Beliefs

2.6.1.1 Teachers' Beliefs

Teachers' beliefs refer to the statements teachers make about their ideas, thoughts, and the knowledge they express to evaluate what should be done and what is favored (Basturkmen et al., 2004). Skott (2015) defines it as "individual, subjectively true and value-laden mental constructs that were of relatively stable results of substantial social experience that have a significant impact on one's interpretations and contributions to classroom practices" (p. 19). Teachers' beliefs are important because they can influence their classroom behaviors, and understanding teachers' beliefs can provide insights into their teaching practices (Borg, 2003, 2015, 2017; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Zheng, 2015).

According to Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015), investigating teachers' beliefs is to "embrace the complexity of teachers' inner lives in the context of their activities" and to understand "what language teachers do, why they do it, and how this may impact how their students learn." (p. 436). In other words, this is to understand assumptions in teachers' cognitive systems with respect to OCF, the influences on teachers' teaching practice, and how their beliefs towards OCF can impact students' learning.

Teachers' beliefs about oral corrective feedback can be described as the teachers' ideas, thoughts, manner of implementation, and attitude toward the use of OCF in the instructional setting (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Interest in delving into teachers' beliefs about

OCF is driven by the view that teachers' beliefs impact their teaching practices (Farrell & Kun, 2008; Pajares, 1992). Furthermore, examining beliefs about OCF will aid in teachers' understanding of the factors involved in their practice, thus helping them improve (Phipps & Borg, 2009).

2.6.1.2 Students' Beliefs

In recent years, language learners' beliefs about language learning have received increased attention in SLA (Mercer, 2011; Zhong, 2014). Students' beliefs are described as "what learners think about themselves, about the learning situation, and about the target community" (Wesely, 2012, p. 100). This is an important factor to consider when explaining learning outcomes because it molds how students deal with learning tasks (Tanaka, 2004).

The early idea that students' beliefs are stable mental representations (Kalaja & Barcelos, 2007) has recently been opposed. It has been argued that students' beliefs are dynamic and situational, transforming over time according to different contexts (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011). Learners' beliefs are considered remarkably different than other individual difference factors because they impact "both the process and product of learning" (Ellis, 2008, p. 8–9). Students' beliefs reflect what students think about effective language instruction, which leads to increased learning (Kartchava, 2016).

With regard to the provision of CF, Pawlak (2014) suggests that learner beliefs, expectations, and preferences for OCF "should indubitably be taken into account if foreign language pedagogy aspires to be learner-centered and the guidelines furnished by scholars are to stand the chance of being transformed into actual instructional practices "(p. 69). Teachers should recognize that students will navigate learning opportunities and situations by utilizing factual knowledge and ideas gained from personal experience (Boldrin & Mason, 2009), which further establishes the need to understand students' beliefs.

This section reviews the studies regarding teachers' beliefs about the importance of the provision of OCF by using Hendrickson's (1978) five questions as a guide: (1) Should errors be corrected? (2) How should errors be corrected? (3) Which errors should be corrected? (4) Who should provide OCF? (5) When should errors be corrected? For the purposes of this current study, however, question (4) will be set aside since the research will mainly focus on teachers as the ones responsible for instituting the correction.

2.6.2 Empirical Studies About Teachers' and Students' Beliefs Towards OCF

This section reviews empirical studies about teachers' and students' beliefs towards the necessities, linguistic foci, strategies, and timing of OCF.

2.6.2.1 Teachers' and Students' Attitude Towards OCF

Empirical studies have shown that a large number of teacher participants were positive about providing OCF, and they trusted that providing OCF would benefit students' learning (e.g., Firwana, 2011; Ha & Nyuyen, 2021; Hernández et al., 2012; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2019) and further research has explored the reasons for this.

Roothoof and Breeze (2016) stated that providing OCF could help learners avoid repeating a mistake; Rahimi and Zhang (2015) suggested that OCF helped learners avoid confusion with the target language and is effective in ensuring that learners are using the correct target language form; Agudo (2014) proposed that providing OCF would make learners notice their errors, which was an important step in the language learning process; Uysal and Aydin (2017) implied that OCF could be a way to encourage students' self-correction; Sepehrinia and Mehdizadeh (2018) maintained providing OCF regarding students' errors was seen as a responsibility by some teachers; Ha, Nguyen and Hung (2020) believed OCF could improve students' exam performances.

On the contrary, some teachers were not positive about providing OCF (e.g., Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016), and there were two main reasons. First, teachers believed OCF would damage students' feelings and wished their students to speak without fear. Secondly, teachers would not see OCF as effective if they valued fluency over accuracy, as OCF might influence students' speaking flow. For example, Junqueira and Kim (2013) found that the two participants claimed that they did not see OCF as effective in speaking class because they placed more value on intelligibility and fluency in the communicative environment.

How teachers considered the importance of OCF might be related to the instructional context. For example, Li (2017) synthesized seven related studies (Agudo, 2014; Bell, 2005; Davis, 2003; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Schulz, 1996, 2001) of teachers' beliefs about OCF, and this showed that teachers are hesitant about whether to provide OCF and only 39% of the teachers agreed regarding the importance of providing OCF. This difference may be explained in relation to the teaching context because most of the reviewed articles were conducted in an EFL setting. However, Li's (2017) meta-analysis contained previous studies that were conducted in ESL contexts (e.g., Schulz, 1996, 2001). Within the ESL setting, students' communicative competence received more attention. However, within EFL settings, explicit language knowledge or language accuracy becomes more prioritized, especially in an exam-oriented context such as Vietnam.

In addition, the aim of the study might influence the outcome. For example, all the participants in studies (e.g., Ha et al., 2021; Özmen & Aydın, 2015) agreed on the necessity of providing OCF, but Agudo (2014) indicated only 33% of the teachers agreed about the importance of correcting all grammar errors, and 63% of teachers believed only some errors need correction. This discrepancy might be explained by the over-emphasis on grammatical errors in Agudo's (2014) study.

Another noticeable difference existed in Schulz's (1996) and Gurzynski-Weiss's (2010) studies. Schulz (1996) found that the agreement rate for providing OCF was 30%, whereas Gurzynski-Weiss (2010) said the agreement rate was 83%. It is not certain why such a disparity exists, but one possible explanation is that Gurzynski-Weiss's (2010) study was exclusively about the topic of OCF, which might have increased teachers' attention to OCF.

Although most teachers agree on the importance of OCF, factors such as the nature of the classroom (Junquera & Kim, 2013; Li, 2017), teachers' teaching experience (Li, 2017), and the instructional setting (Ha & Murray, 2020; Ha & Nguyen, 2021; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015) may influence how teachers view the necessity for OCF. For example, research has shown that teachers with more teaching experience value OCF more than inexperienced teachers (Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). This is because inexperienced teachers have the notion that OCF may threaten students' motivation and self-esteem. For another example, Rahimi and Zhang (2015) found that teachers from an EFL instructional context held different beliefs towards OCF than teachers from an ESL instructional context, whereas Roothoof and Breeze (2016) found that even teachers from the same instructional context had different beliefs.

Different teachers hold different beliefs about the importance of OCF. For example, teachers from different instructional contexts, such as EFL (Rahimi & Zhang, 2015) and ESL (Junqueira & Kim, 2013), expressed different beliefs towards OCF. Even teachers within the same context have also held contradicting beliefs (Agudo, 2014; Demir & Özmen, 2017; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016). In conclusion, teachers' beliefs may depend on many individual and contextual factors, and they can vary from one teacher to another.

A literature review regarding students' beliefs found that students were overwhelmingly positive about OCF (e.g., Firwana, 2011; Ha et al., 2021; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Zhu & Wang, 2019) because it could help them to acquire their second language better (e.g., Fajriah, 2018; Firwana, 2011; Ha et al., 2021; Tomczyk, 2013) because errors would be

corrected before habit-making to avoid fossilization of the errors (Ha et al., 2021; Tomczyk, 2013); errors can measure learner's language ability and help them to understand the linguistic features of the target language better thus improving accuracy (Ha et al., 2021); OCF can help learners to stop repeating the same mistake (Fajriah, 2018; Kartchava, 2016); OCF can improve learners' motivations for studying harder (Firwana, 2011).

Researchers from different countries agree that no matter what educational stage L2 learners are at, learners unanimously showed a positive attitude towards the importance of OCF. For example, in Singapore, an early study conducted by Oladejo (1993) found that 90.4% of high school and university ESL student participants thought OCF was desirable, and they preferred "comprehensive, not selective" feedback. Likewise, in Colombia, Schulz (2001) investigated students' and teachers' beliefs about grammar and correction, and it revealed that 90% of student participants wished to receive OCF. More recently, in the US, Lee's (2013) small-scale study with 50 intermediate ESL learners in the university showed that most students preferred to receive OCF, especially regarding their frequently occurring errors. In China, Zhu and Wang (2010) conducted a large-scale study with 2670 undergraduate EFL students, showing that the students favored correcting their oral errors. In Vietnam, Ha and Nguyen (2021) showed that the high school students in this study were very positive about the importance and necessity of CF regarding all kinds of errors, including less important errors.

Several mediating factors, such as students' language proficiency (e.g., Brown, 2009; Loewen et al., 2009), can influence students' beliefs towards OCF. Students with higher language proficiency exhibit a more positive attitude towards OCF. In addition, students' target language might have some impact on their preferences. For example, Loewen et al. (2009) find that students' attitudes toward grammar and CF vary depending on their target language. Students who learn English show a more negative attitude towards OCF, whereas

students learning Arabic show a more positive attitude. However, this has not been demonstrated by any empirical studies.

Although students in different contexts showed a generally positive attitude towards OCF, the extent to which students desired to receive OCF is different in accordance with their learning context. For example, in Schulz's (2001) large-scale study with post-secondary students, foreign language (FL) students showed a more positive attitude towards OCF than local students in the United States. Although Agudo (2015) replicated that of the large-scale study conducted by Loewen et al. (2009), the results showed that Spanish high school EFL students in this study were more positive about CF than undergraduate students in the US in Loewen et al.'s (2009) study. Thus, there is still a need to investigate this issue in a different context.

This body of research shows that students were generally much more positive about the necessity of OCF than teachers (e.g., Brown, 2009; Ha et al., 2021; Jean & Simard, 2011; Loewen et al., 2009; Schulz, 1996, 2001; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016;). The main reason for this discrepancy was because of teachers' concern about students' feelings and because they worried that OCF would disrupt students' communication flow, especially teachers who valued fluency over accuracy (Ha et al., 2021; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kartthava et al., 2020; Li, 2017; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016). To date, much of the research investigating teachers' and students' beliefs towards OCF beliefs has been conducted as part of larger projects concerning language learning and teaching. These studies usually included several questionnaire items eliciting teachers' and students' views on the efficacy or/and need of OCF as part of a broader survey, for example, some of them were beliefs about grammar instruction (Schulz 1996, 2001; Jean & Simard, 2011). Thus, there is more need to investigate teachers' and students' beliefs as a single topic by using more research methods.

2.6.2.2 Teachers' and Students' Beliefs towards Different Types of OCF

Multiple studies have investigated how teachers perceive the different types of OCF and attempted to identify different types of corrective strategies used in the classroom. Lyster and Ranta (1997) conducted a seminal study of the relationship between teacher OCF and learners' uptake in the French immersion classroom. They identified a classification of six types of oral corrective feedback (explicit correction, recast, clarification, metalinguistic, elicitation, and repetition) as well as a category they termed "multiple feedback," which involves more than one feedback type. An example of each type is illustrated in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1*Definition and Examples of Different Types of Feedback*

Type of oral CF	Description	Example
Explicit correction	The teacher supplies the correct form and clearly indicates that what the student said was incorrect.	S: The dog runs fastly. T: 'Fastly' doesn't exist. 'Fast' does not takely. That's why I picked 'quickly.'
Recasts	The teacher implicitly reformulates. all or part of the student's utterance.	S: Why you don't like Marc? T: Why don't you like Marc?
Elicitation	The teacher directly elicits a reformulation from the student by asking questions such as "How do we say that in French? " or by pausing to allow the student to complete the teacher's utterance, or by asking the student to reformulate his or her utterance.	S: My father cleans the plate. T: Excuse me, he cleans the?
Metalinguistic clues	The teacher provides comments or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, such as "We don't say it like that in English."	S: We look at the people yesterday T: What's the ending we put on verbs when we talk about the past?
Clarification request	The teacher uses phrases such as "Pardon?" and "I don't understand" following learner errors to indicate to students that their utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a reformulation is required.	T: How often do you wash the dishes? S: Fourteen. T: Excuse me?
Repetition	The teacher repeats the student's ill-formed utterance, adjusting intonation to highlight the error.	S: We is ... T: We is? But it's two people, right?

Source. Yu et al. (2018, p. 184)

Then, Lyster and Ranta (2007) classified these six types of OCF into two broad categories: reformulations and prompts. Reformulation includes recasts and explicit correction because they provide learners with target reformulation of their non-target output. Clarification, repetition, elicitation, and metalinguistic are categorized under the prompts category because they drive learners to self-repair their erroneous utterances. In addition, the other major distinction between these feedback types is whether the OCF is implicit or explicit (Li & Vuono, 2019). Whether the OCF contains metalinguistic information and directness can determine this distinction. Metalinguistic and explicit correction, which involve metalinguistic information or directly inform learners about the correctness of their language production, is considered more explicit than other CF types.

Apart from these six types, Xu (2012) described a type of feedback coined as "non-verbal signals" in the Chinese classroom, in which teachers use body language, facial expressions, and gestures to indicate students' mistakes or inappropriate usage. This current study will use Lyster and Ranta's (2007) distinction between explicit CF and implicit CF, as well as Xu's non-verbal signals category, to investigate teachers' choices.

Non-verbal behavior has the potential for forming communicative messages, which could elicit the correct form non-verbally. That can be achieved with movements of the hands, arms, or head or with nodding, eye contact, facial expressions, and various body movements (Wang & Loewen, 2015). In their study, Wang and Loewen (2015) found that teachers usually use facial expressions to signal students about their erroneous utterances. However, only a small amount of research has investigated the use of non-verbal cues in corrective practice (Davies, 2006; Schachter, 1991) and how it influences second language learning (Davies, 2006; Nakatsukasa, 2016; Wang & Loewen, 2016). Gesture, posture, facial expression, and eye behavior are four components of nonverbal behavior (Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2017).

By using non-verbal signals, teachers can control the interaction flow, catch students' attention, manage turn-taking, improve understanding, clarify meaning, and even show their emotional responses (Richmond et al., 2012). When providing OCF, teachers may use non-verbal signals to make learners notice and repair their erroneous utterances. (Davies, 2006; Nakatsukasa, 2016).

However, the effectiveness of non-verbal signals on learners' uptake is under-researched in the second language learning field. In Davies' (2006) study, non-verbal feedback was found to generate 100% uptake, and the feedback became more effective when it was combined with implicit feedback. Wang and Loewen (2016) found that nodding and shaking the head, and pointing to an object or person were the most frequently used feedback types. Nakatsukasa (2016) found that over half of the OCF provided in a language class was accompanied by gesture, and Nakatsukasa (2016) stated that the combination of non-verbal feedback and recast could help students to better understand the target of feedback and maintain the information they get from OCF, which leads to long-term improvements.

Kamiya (2012) revealed that OCF was often accompanied by gestures, but it varied in type depending on the different linguistic foci of the erroneous utterance. However, Kamiya (2012) was not concerned with learners' uptake or learning. Sato (2019) revealed that OCF with gestures is more effective for successful student repair than that without because gestures can help the learner notice the intention of corrective feedback.

Even though the use of gestures is facilitative, research investigating teachers' and students' beliefs towards non-verbal signal use is limited. Based on the studies reviewed above, only a few studies (e.g., Ha et al., 2021; Hernández et al., 2012) included non-verbal behavior. Hernández et al. (2012) reported that non-verbal language should be applied to beginners. In Hu, Murray, and Riaz's (2021) study, the usefulness of non-verbal cues was investigated, and students showed slight agreement regarding this OCF strategy. This might

be because their teachers did not frequently use non-verbal signals along with OCF, and non-verbal signals could not help them locate or correct their errors.

Subsequent research regarding types of feedback has been conducted using this framework, and many studies have discussed the effectiveness of different OCF types (Ellis et al., 2006; Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Fu & Nassaji, 2016; Jean & Simard, 2011; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Rahimi & Zhang, 2013; Yoshida, 2010). However, there remains no consensus regarding the effectiveness of different feedback types. In terms of teachers' beliefs about OCF types, many studies have been carried out in a range of contexts and resulted in mixed findings.

A review of the research shows that, in general, most teachers preferred to use recast and implicit OCF types over the explicit type (e.g., Brown, 2009; Huong, 2019; Kamiya, 2016; Mori, 2011; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Roothoof, 2015; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018). According to the findings of these studies, recasts seemed to be teachers' favorite among all CF types because they kept the communication flow without interrupting students and saved classroom time as they are quick to deliver (Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Kamiya, 2016; Lee, 2013; Roothoof, 2014; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018).

An example is Katchava's (2019) study, in which 37 teachers were interviewed and observed. The interview results show that 36/37 participants stated that they preferred to use recast because it was the most indirect strategy, which was unobtrusive to students' communication flow and would not damage their confidence and motivation to communicate. Roothoof (2014) reported that teachers favored recasts in their teaching because they were worried that using other OCF types would cause anxiety to students. In addition, much other research (e.g., Agudo, 2014; Bell, 2005; Dong, 2012; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015 Junqueira &

Kim, 2013; Kamiya, 2014) suggested that overall, teachers favor using recasts and more implicit OCF for the same reasons as previously stated.

However, some researchers (Ha et al., 2021; Jean & Simard, 2011; Özmen & Aydin, 2015; Fajriah, 2018) found that teachers prefer to use more explicit ways to provide OCF. For instance, Fajriah (2018) found that the teacher participant stated that she would use explicit OCF because explicit feedback makes it easier for students to identify the error and could make students more aware of the intentions of the teacher to avoid misunderstanding. In addition, Jean and Simard (2011) found that explicit feedback was the most frequently used feedback type because teachers maintained that providing implicit feedback to students would be time-consuming and would disrupt students' formulation and expression of opinions, influencing the class progress. However, these two studies were not representative enough due to the very limited number of participants. In Fajriah's (2018) study, there was only a female English teacher served as a respondent.

There are several factors influencing teachers' choices of OCF techniques, such as their instructional context, teaching experience, and the teacher's culturally informed teaching habits (Lyster & Mori, 2006). First, the research found that students' proficiency levels affected their use of different OCF types (Brown, 2016; Hernández et al., 2012; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018), and teachers should select an appropriate and compatible type of OCF based on the learners' proficiency levels and needs. For example, Brown (2016) found that teachers tend to provide reformulations with less proficient learners and more prompts for learners with higher language proficiency because teachers believe that learners with higher proficiency have the ability to self-correct their errors.

Second, teaching experience can affect teachers' beliefs about OCF types (Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Li, 2017; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). For example, Rahimi and Zhang (2015) found that the differences between the novice teachers' and experienced teachers' cognitions

about explicit CF and metalinguistic CF were statistically significant. The findings indicated that experienced teachers believed explicit and metalinguistic OCF are effective, but novice teachers did not acknowledge its effectiveness. This study also established that while novice teachers favored indirect feedback, experienced teachers usually had a more balanced view regarding OCF types. Novice teachers were concerned that explicit types would harm the student's self-esteem and motivation to speak, while the experienced teachers used varied OCF types according to their needs.

Thirdly, different contextual factors, such as the instructional context and different teaching objectives, may impact teachers' preferences (Llinares & Lyster, 2014). For example, teachers' choices of OCF types depend on teachers' pedagogical purposes. If the teacher's purpose is to move the lesson forward and not to interrupt the flow of communication, recast could be the most suitable choice (Lyster et al., 2013). However, if the teacher's aim is to elicit student correction, prompts are a more appropriate strategy (Lyster & Saito, 2010; Lyster et al., 2013). Moreover, there are only a few studies that were conducted in an ESL setting, and these are not comprehensive enough to draw any conclusion. Therefore, more research is needed to fill this gap.

In Ha, Nguyen, and Hung's (2021) study, Vietnamese teachers highly value the effectiveness of explicit and metalinguistic feedback, but this finding contradicts some other studies (Kamiya, 2016; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016; Zhang & Rahimi, 2015), which were conducted in different contexts. The most convincing explanation for this difference is that the Vietnamese EFL context is test-driven (Ha, 2017; Ha & Nguyen, 2021), and metalinguistic OCF, which explains the language rules, could help students improve their grammatical and lexical knowledge, which helps to enhance the results of subsequent high-stake exams since students' knowledge of grammar and vocabulary are the exam focus (Ha & Murray, 2021).

Fourthly, teachers' preferences are also affected by the types of errors committed. For example, Özmen and Aydin (2015) found that most teachers preferred to use explicit OCF, and they reported that they would use more explicit correction if students made pronunciation errors. However, if the students made grammatical errors, teachers said that they would use more implicit strategies, such as repetition, to signal that their students should self-repair.

Overall, the above studies suggest that teachers were more positive about implicit OCF strategies due to their concerns that explicit OCF would negatively influence students' feelings which would lead to their loss of enthusiasm and motivation to learn English. However, some teachers preferred explicit OCF types, and this difference might be related to different variables such as the teacher's teaching experience, students' proficiency level, types of errors, and study aim.

In terms of students' beliefs about OCF types, several studies (e.g., Fajrish, 2018; Firwana, 2011; Ha et al., 2021; Huong, 2020; Lee, 2013) have been carried out in a range of contexts and resulted in mixed findings. For example, Lee (2013) showed that advanced ESL learners in the US preferred explicit corrections the most, with metalinguistic feedback as their least preferred type, and students preferred explicit correction and recasts to elicitation, repetition, clarification requests, and metalinguistic feedback. This finding was different from Oladejo (1993), which showed that most ESL students in a Singaporean high school and university preferred metalinguistic feedback the most. In addition, Lee's (2013) finding also contradicts Firwana's (2011) study, which showed that metalinguistic correction was welcomed by most secondary students in Palestine because students expected to know why they made a mistake. The difference might be because of different teaching contexts or different study aims. In Oladejo's (1993) study, eliciting students' beliefs on types of OCF was part of a broader survey.

In other studies, explicit and metalinguistic OCF are rated as similarly effective. For example, Roothoof and Breeze's (2016) study, involving 395 learners (both adults and teenagers) and 46 teachers in the Spanish EFL context, showed that the students prefer to receive explicit kinds of OCF, such as explicit corrections and metalinguistic feedback. Similarly, Zhang and Rahimi's (2014) study with 160 Iranian EFL learners (80 high-anxiety and 80 low-anxiety learners) showed that students rated explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback as the most effective types, and elicitation, recast, repetition, and clarification requests as the less effective OCF types regardless of their anxiety levels. It is noteworthy that the students did not reject implicit feedback, and many participants in Zhang and Rahimi's (2014) study still perceived it as the most useful strategy. Nonetheless, the group of participants in this study was not representative enough because it involved high-anxiety students.

By contrast, some studies (e.g., Ananda et al., 2017; Ceteno & Barbeito, 2021; Milad & Mohammadzadeh, 2021; Zhu & Wang, 2019) showed contradictory findings. For example, Zhu and Wang (2019) found that the student participants showed a higher preference for prompts (e.g., repetition and metalinguistic feedback) rather than explicit corrections within a Chinese tertiary EFL context. However, the only instrument used in this study was a questionnaire, which did not provide any detailed explanations of student responses. Thus, there is a need to not only investigate students' preferences for OCF types but also to understand the reason and mediating factors affecting their choices.

Similarly, Milad and Mohammadzadeh (2021) showed that students preferred to receive prompting feedback, such as clarification requests or elicitation, because they wished to think about their mistakes independently, and some students supposed prompting OCF, such as using rising intonation made it easier for them to recognize their errors. Centeno and Barbeito (2021) conducted a case study with seven EFL students, and their teacher showed a

similar result in which students preferred prompts because this form of correction gave them a chance to self-correct and produce the correct language form, and students expected to receive explanations on their errors instead of being told the answer directly.

Based on the literature reviewed above, the most used research method was a survey, and it was rare to see another research method. Instead of using surveys, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) made use of small-group discussions triggered by a video of a lesson to determine their beliefs towards OCF. In this study, both groups of participants agreed that it was better to devote more time and more detailed explanations to these errors. Similarly, Yoshida (2010) combined classroom observations with stimulated recall interviews involving seven learners and two teachers of Japanese as a foreign language. It was found that even though teachers believed prompting learners to self-correct was more beneficial, in reality, they mainly used recasts. Six out of seven student participants, on the other hand, stated they preferred time to think and self-correct their errors.

In addition, this inconsistency might relate to student proficiency. For example, Kennedy (2010) recognized that learners with lower proficiency made more content errors than advanced-level students. They required the teachers to provide them with more timely content feedback since their ability could not afford self-correction. Although the high-proficiency students made more form errors, they appeared to be able to self-correct and usually received feedback with the corrected form. In addition, Yakisik (2021) investigated 664 high school EFL students' preferences and feelings about OCF with a specific focus on gender and grade, and it showed that student preference was linked to gender to some extent. For example, female learners requested more metalinguistic information.

Generally, students seemed to be positive about explicit OCF because they preferred receiving explicit hints from their teachers because that feedback type allowed them to notice their errors more easily (Fajriah, 2018; Ha et al., 2021; Katayama, 2007). In addition, Lee

(2013) indicated that explicit OCF could make students easily understand where they went wrong and how to correct it, which would not be time-consuming because students could get the most accurate answer from their teachers directly.

Overall, these studies suggest that students' preferences for feedback types are influenced by the instructional contexts, and EFL students tend to be more inclined to receive explicit OCF than ESL students. Generally, students seem to be positive about explicit feedback, but teachers are more inclined to implicit OCF due to their concern about students' emotional responses to feedback. Little is known about teachers' and students' preference towards OCF strategies in a Chinese higher education context, especially the reasons underlying their choices.

2.6.2.3 Teachers' and Students' Beliefs towards the Different Linguistic Foci of OCF

In order to fully investigate the issue of OCF, teachers may need to have a certain level of understanding and knowledge about the OCF concept, different types of errors and how to correct them, and whether these errors should be valued. One factor which influences the feedback process is the linguistic foci, indicating what to correct using oral feedback. Lyster, Saito, and Sato (2013) identified four linguistic foci that influenced the teacher's provision of OCF: grammatical, lexical, phonological, and pragmatic. Additionally, Xu (2012) affirmed that there should be an inclusion of unsolicited use of L1 within the EFL context, which means if students are unable to find the correct vocabulary in their target language, they should instead use their mother tongue. Table 2.2 presents detailed information on the four categories of linguistic foci with illustrations.

Table 2.2*Definitions of Linguistic Focus with Examples*

Linguistic focus and definition	Example
Phonological Error: Phonological errors refer to mispronunciation.	For example, when students pronounce the word "life" as /lif/, it will be considered a phonological error.
Lexical Error: Lexical errors refer to the misuse of words within the wrong context, which will create unacceptable meanings.	For example, when describing a person as very tall but use the word very "high", it is misusing because the word "high" to describe someone's height.
Grammar Error: These are errors concerning the misuse of tense, prepositions, pronouns, pluralization, auxiliaries, negation, etc.	For example, in the sentence, "He goes to the cinema yesterday," the verb should be "went," which is the past tense instead of "go"
Pragmatic Error: Pragmatic errors refer to misuse of language in communication, particularly those causing misunderstanding of relationships in the situations in which they are used.	For example, a student stated, "it was sure that he would keep its food." Though there is no error on the surface, it is confusing about what the pronoun it refers to.
Unsolicited Use of L1: When the learners are speaking a second language, if they are unable to find the proper vocabulary and use their L1, they will be considered to have made this type of error.	For example, when a student says, "They study very 努力(hard)," it will be coded as unsolicited use of L1.

With regard to linguistic foci of OCF, several studies (e.g., Agudo, 2014; Fajriah, 2018; Firwana, 2011; Hernández et al., 2012; Mori, 2011; Özmen & Aydın, 2015; Uysal & Aydın, 2017) have touched upon this aspect. In these studies, different teachers may have different opinions regarding what to correct, and the above studies demonstrate mixed findings.

Studies such as Mori (2011), Junqueira and Kim (2013), Uysal and Aydın (2017), and Yüksel et al. (2020) suggested that pronunciation errors should receive the highest attention because they maintained pronunciation significantly affects the understanding of communication, and some teachers believed their students expected to be corrected for their pronunciation errors. These findings suggest that some teachers believe that correcting pronunciation errors can help students to achieve oral language proficiency. However, these studies were small-scale studies, and the sample size might not be large enough to be representative. In addition, they were all conducted in the EFL context, and the ESL context has not been mentioned.

Other studies (e.g., Agudo, 2014; Ha et al., 2021; Hernández et al., 2012) emphasized the importance of grammatical errors because participants thought grammatical errors were the most critical errors to be corrected. Sluman (2015) argued that teachers were more likely to correct grammatical errors as this would serve to benefit all students while correcting pronunciation errors only served individual needs. It can be inferred from these findings that some teachers are inclined to correct errors in language structure and ways to prevent and correct linguistic errors as opposed to errors in semantics and meaning. However, these studies contained some shortcomings. For example, Agudo's (2014) study invited student teachers as participants, and they might not have enough practical teaching experience to stand from teachers' perspective to answer this question. In addition, teachers' teaching objectives were shaped by students' learning goals. Ha et al. (2021) mentioned that students

in the Vietnam context mainly learned English to pass the exam, thus teachers would emphasize correcting grammatical errors.

Argüelles, Méndez, and Escudero (2019) showed that teachers prefer to correct grammatical and pronunciation errors because these two aspects require more practice, and these two error types were easy to correct in the classroom. Overall, these studies suggest that the type of error can influence teachers' perceptions about the importance of correcting the error.

Interestingly, none of the studies rated pragmatical errors as important except for Özmen and Aydin (2015). In this study, pragmatical errors received the second highest answer from participants because teachers maintained pragmatical errors were difficult for students to recognize. If teachers did not provide OCF for this type of error, students would maintain the communication flow, but their communication would be misunderstood. It can be inferred that most teachers did not perceive pragmatical errors as important because grammatical and pronunciation errors need more attention as the more important part of speaking.

Regarding the extent to which teachers should provide OCF, Li (2017) requested teachers to comment on: "(1) the extent to which errors should be corrected (e.g., all or some errors), (2) whether CF should only target errors impeding communication, and (3) whether a correction should target only those errors that are the focus of the lesson" (p. 36).

The above research showed that, generally, teachers prefer to correct students' errors selectively. For example, Agudo (2014) showed that only 33% of the 55 participants supported the idea of correcting all grammatical errors, and most participants thought correcting only a part of the errors was more acceptable to avoid discouraging students. Jean and Simard (2011) found that only 16% of teacher participants agreed on correcting all the

errors. Bell (2005) found that only 19% of the teacher participants thought correcting most errors was necessary. This selectivity is based on several reasons.

Firstly, it depends on the focus of language learning (meaning vs. form) in the classroom. For example, Uysal and Aydin (2017) stated that CF is not only for the improvement of accuracy but also for fluency. They mainly focused on repetitious, meaning-distortion, and conversational errors because they wanted their students to express their meanings clearly and make appropriate use of the target language. Teachers would not provide OCF if the meaning students delivered was understandable within the classroom, which emphasized students' communication abilities (Roothoof, 2014), and this accounted for the reason why participants in these studies preferred to correct pronunciation errors rather than grammatical errors.

Secondly, it may depend on the student's linguistic and cultural background. For example, one participant in Mori's (2011) study in a Japanese context indicated that grammatical errors would be corrected the most because the logical and grammatical order between Japanese and English are different, and Japanese EFL students needed more support in this area. In addition, although Ha, Nguyen, and Hung (2021) didn't explore the issue of linguistic foci in detail, teachers stated that the explanation of language is very important, and they would focus more on vocabulary and grammatical errors because these two aspects are what the exam emphasized in Vietnam.

Thirdly, teachers would take students' emotional responses into consideration. Research suggests that many teachers maintained correcting all errors would damage students' confidence and motivation to speak English and would embarrass students in front of the whole class (e.g., Agudo, 2014; Firwana, 2011; Özmen & Aydin, 2015). Thus, they chose to correct errors that occurred several times, common errors that many students made, and errors causing ambiguity in communication.

Overall, teachers' beliefs about which linguistic errors should receive OCF are not congruent. Even within the same study, different participants might have different opinions. Contextual factors, students' feelings, and the teaching focus are the three main themes that influence teachers' choices and the extent to which they provide OCF. In addition, the studies suggest that teachers' beliefs about the effort they spend on different errors are affected by different error types. Thus, it is important to investigate how Chinese teachers treat different errors and to what extent these influencing factors can affect their beliefs. Most of the studies reviewed so far were either case studies or small-scale studies. There is a need to gain deeper insight into this issue within different contexts and from different angles.

For students' beliefs, several studies have touched upon the linguistic foci of OCF (e.g., Fajriah, 2018; Firwana, 2011; Ha et al., 2021; Milad & Mohammadzadeh, 2021; Tomczyk, 2013; Zhu & Wang, 2019). From students' viewpoints about types of errors, studies revealed mixed results. For example, Oladejo (1993) concluded that the students thought the correction of grammatical errors was imperative, followed by vocabulary errors, whereas Katayama (2007) found that the students preferred the correction of pragmatical and phonological errors the most. Zhu and Wang (2019) found that students desired to be corrected the most on their pragmatic errors, followed by lexical errors, phonological errors, and grammatical errors. Ha, Murry, Riaz (2021) found that some participants believed pronunciation errors were the most important because they influence communication, but others who learned English for exam purposes believed grammatical errors were the most important.

Regarding the extent to which teachers should provide OCF, Jean, and Simard (2011) revealed that 22.91% of ESL and 17.98% of FSL participants preferred all their errors to be corrected. In Lee's (2013) study, 60 participants concluded that they wanted their teachers to edit and revise their errors (the mean score being 4.42 out of 5). Ananda et al. (2017) found

that 52 % of participants agreed that all errors should be corrected. In Ha and Nguyen's (2021) study, most students were positive about OCF of all types of errors, and the reason was supported by the qualitative finding that students wished to improve their accuracy because exams were their highest priority. By reviewing these studies, it can be inferred that students generally welcome unfocused correction to focused correction, which means most students wished every error to be corrected.

In terms of the gravity of errors, research has shown different results. For example, Katayama (2007) and Kartchava (2016) showed that students preferred their teachers to only correct those errors that impede communication. However, most participants in Oladejo's (1993) study did not believe that teachers should focus only on errors that impact communication. Similarly, Jean and Simard (2011) reported only 23.84% of the FSL students and 21.69% of the ESL students agreed that only the errors that influenced communication should be corrected. Ha, Murry, and Riazi (2021) found that the most frequently occurring errors, errors that impede communication, and errors related to the lesson foci received a similar rate of agreement, and students supposed these were all worth correcting.

Student preference for linguistic errors is varied, and this might be influenced by the educational context and the nature of oral communication. For example, it seemed that students from ESL settings showed more agreement on only correcting errors that impeded communication, but students from EFL settings expected to have all of their errors corrected. Thus, there is a need to explore teachers' and students' beliefs towards what to correct within different contexts. As no consistent pattern can be derived from the limited studies, more research is needed to draw meaningful conclusions about teachers' and students' preferences for error types within different contexts.

When comparing teachers' and students' beliefs regarding what errors to correct, it was found that most students expected teachers to correct all of their errors, while most

teachers tended to provide OCF selectively. The main reason was that teachers worried correcting all errors would negatively affect students' emotional well-being, which led to students' embarrassment (e.g., Agudo, 2014; Firwana, 2011; Özmen & Aydin, 2015). It was found that most teachers would provide OCF if students' errors affect understanding. In addition, both teachers and students stated that OCF was needed when the error was related to the focus of the class. However, no obvious conclusions can be made about the linguistic foci of OCF, and this might be influenced by different instructional contexts.

2.6.2.4 Teachers' and Students' Beliefs Towards Timing of OCF

The timing of OCF emphasizes when the teacher should correct the students' oral errors, and it is mainly about whether to provide immediate or delayed OCF. Immediate OCF is provided as soon as an error occurs, while delayed OCF would not be provided until a pedagogical activity has been completed (Li et al., 2016).

Under this framework, Rahimi and Zhang (2015) categorized the timing of feedback into four types: 1) "immediately after the occurrence of mistakes, though oral production is interrupted"; 2) "right at the end of students' oral production"; 3) "after the activities end"; 4) "at the conclusion of the class." (p. 118). Within Rahimi and Zhang's (2015) classification, feedback either during or after students' oral production is seen as immediate feedback, and the rest are seen as delayed feedback.

Regarding teachers' beliefs on whether OCF should be immediate or delayed, several studies (Agudo, 2014; Brown, 2009; Firwana, 2011; Ha et al., 2021; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2019; Özmen & Aydin, 2015; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Tomczyk, 2013) have investigated this aspect. Regarding the timing of OCF, there are no congruent findings within the research.

Some studies (e.g., Brown, 2009; Özmen & Aydin, 2015; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Tomczyk, 2013) showed that teachers generally preferred delayed OCF and the core reason

was not to demotivate learners and not to hurt their feelings because teachers' concerns about students' emotional states and the possibility of disrupting students' communication flow if using immediate OCF (Ha et al., 2021; Roothoof, 2014; Tomczak, 2013) In addition, participants showed a strong preference for delayed feedback because it would not demotivate their students, and it was more convenient to apply within crowded classrooms because teachers would not have enough time to provide immediate OCF to individual students, and they trusted that delayed OCF could be generalized (Özmen & Aydin, 2015).

On the contrary, some studies (e.g., Agudo, 2014; Firwana, 2011; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015) showed that teachers prefer to provide immediate OCF because they believed learners' errors should be corrected as soon as they are made because they felt it was reasonable to do so. Sheen (2011) suggests that providing immediate OCF to students might have a positive cognitive effect on their L2 learning process. However, the reviewed studies did not report any awareness of this finding, suggesting that teacher participants did not consider this to be true.

It is a complex topic for most teachers to provide their beliefs regarding the timing of OCF. From the above-reviewed studies, one of the major dilemmas that teachers face, and which concerns them, is that immediate feedback will harmfully/adversely affect the students' self-confidence/morale and self-esteem (Kaivanpanah et al., 2015). Also, providing delayed OCF will not interrupt students' communication flow, and delayed OCF can benefit more than just individual students (Méndez & Reyez, 2012).

There are other factors affecting teachers' beliefs about the timing of OCF. Kartchava (2006) cited that teachers' educational background would play a pivotal role whereby the teachers who had taken language acquisition courses would prefer and adopt delayed OCF over those who had not attended the course. Ha, Nguyen, and Hung (2021) showed that

teachers expressed that their preference towards OCF timing was shaped by their professional development activities and the popular teachers' guides.

Moreover, the error type impacts teachers' decisions. For example, Roothoof (2014) reported that two out of ten teachers believed that there would be a connection between the error types and the feedback timing selection. For example, errors that would strongly impede understanding should receive immediate feedback, and other errors could wait.

Ha, Nguyen, and Hung (2021) reported teachers indicated that immediate OCF was appropriate for accuracy work only but not for fluency work. This was because OCF to accuracy work usually involves short questions and answers, and providing immediate feedback would not impact students' communication flow. Özmen and Aydin showed that nine out of 12 participants chose to use delayed OCF if the focus of the activity was on fluency in order to maintain the communication flow. Fajriah (2018) found that teachers tended to provide immediate OCF if students made pronunciation errors but provided delayed OCF for grammatical or lexical errors.

Teaching experience is also a vital factor. For example, Rahimi and Zhang (2015) found that 80 % of experienced teachers rated immediate OCF as very effective or effective. However, only 15% of the novice teachers agreed on this point. This research showed that novice teachers were more hesitant to provide immediate OCF than experienced teachers, as novice teachers cared more about their students' emotional responses.

In conclusion, there are differences across teachers in terms of their beliefs about OCF, and these differences influence the effectiveness of their OCF practices. Thus, it should be regarded as important when researching OCF. The differences in teachers' beliefs about different aspects of OCF can be attributed to different variables, such as contextual factors and individual factors. Thus, it is necessary to discuss it in this new setting as it is likely that beliefs can differ from one teacher to another.

Many studies have addressed the timing of OCF (e.g., Ananda et al., 2017; Fajriah, 2018; Ceiteno & Barbeito, 2021; Ha et al., 2021; Milad & Mohammadzadeh, 2021; Sakiroglu, 2020) from a student standpoint, and there is no consensus in the studies regarding when to provide OCF. Walker's survey research in 1973 observed that students were not willing to receive immediate OCF because it would undermine their confidence and waste their time on correcting details. Similarly, Yoshida showed that students preferred delayed OCF because immediate OCF didn't offer them the chance to self-correct. More recently, some studies (Centeno & Barbeito, 2021; Fajriah, 2018; Tomczyk. 2013) showed that students prefer to have delayed feedback, and their reasons were similar: delayed OCF was not obtrusive and would not interrupt the communication flow. In addition, Tomczyk (2013) suggested that immediate OCF would be stressful for students, and they would easily forget their initial aim of speaking, thus committing even more errors.

However, some research (e.g., Ananda et al., 2017; Ha et al., 2021; Lee, 2013; Rahimi & Zhang, 2014; Yakisik, 2019; Sakiroglu, 2020; Zhu & Wang, 2019) showed that students were more willing to receive immediate feedback after they made mistakes orally because students would easily forget what was said with delayed OCF, and students believed it would improve their speaking ability. In addition, immediate OCF could provide students with opportunities to repeat the correct form (Ha et al., 2021), Firwana (2011) showed that students indicated it was reasonable to provide them with immediate OCF, and this is explained by the simple fact that teachers are seen as the authority in a Palestinian context, and students are used to following teachers' directions under any circumstances.

Students' beliefs regarding the timing of OCF showed mixed findings, and students' second language proficiency might account for this. For example, participants in Lee's (2013) study were advanced-level students who were competent and able to resume their initial meaning of speaking once interrupted. On the contrary, those beginning- and intermediate-

level students in Tomczyk's (2013) study might be unable to maintain the flow of communication once interrupted. Thus, they preferred delayed OCF.

Another reason for this discrepancy could be the different methodologies used in these studies. For example, Zhang and Rahimi (2014) reported that students were introduced to the notion and importance of OCF before they completed the questionnaire. Consequently, they might put more focused attention on the effectiveness of OCF at the time the students made the error and thus emphasize the importance of immediate OCF.

In addition, some research (e.g., Ha et al., 2021) showed that the timing of OCF should depend on the error type. For example, Ha, Murray, and Riazi (2021) and Milad and Mohammadzadeh (2021) showed similar results. Students said that immediate OCF would be preferable when they made a pronunciation mistake. However, if students made a grammatical error, more explanation might be needed, so delayed OCF was more suitable.

Generally, a review of the studies reveals mixed results, and due to the limited number of studies, the question is still open as to whether immediate or delayed feedback is more effective, and which one is preferred by students. This line of research suggests that students are more positive about immediate OCF than teachers.

Generally, this line of research suggests that students are more positive about immediate OCF than teachers, but further studies are needed to gain a more conclusive understanding of teachers' and students' perspectives on feedback timing. This research evidence is important as it can help to inform more definite pedagogical implications in this regard.

2.7 Students' Emotional Responses When Receiving OCF and How Teachers Perceive Students' Emotional Responses

When considering the importance of whether to give OCF on students' oral errors, the issue of students' emotional responses has already been discussed (Roothoof & Breeze, 2016). Barcelos (2015) stated that students' beliefs and emotions intertwined in a non-linear way, and the way in which OCF was provided in the classroom would influence its impact on students' emotions (Ellis, 2017; Yoshida, 2010). Mendez López (2016) stated that OCF would extensively influence students' emotional experiences in the language classroom. Thus, Ellis (2017) stated that OCF "needs to be undertaken with care and tact to avoid negative affective response in students" (p. 13). Therefore, it is necessary to investigate students' emotional responses when they are provided with OCF in order to help teachers to adjust their OCF practices and help students maintain a positive attitude towards OCF, thereby supporting their pedagogical improvement.

Several previously cited studies (e.g., Firwana, 2011; Geteno & Bareito, 2021; Sakiroglu, 2020) have discussed the issue of students' emotional responses, and a conclusion has been made that students rarely report any negative feelings, and they express a strong desire to be corrected. Roothoof and Breeze (2016) showed that most students were happy to receive OCF. In addition, over 50% of student participants expressed their gratefulness for receiving OCF, and most students stated that they rarely or never felt negative feelings about being corrected. Although some students reported feeling intimidated, they were also aware that OCF could improve their English proficiency. Most of the teachers in Roothoof and Breeze's (2016) study, however, referred to negative feelings when asked about their students' reactions to OCF, and they appeared to be less positive about providing OCF to their students' errors, and this hesitancy was due to their concerns about students' emotional responses.

However, Agudo (2013) stated that EFL students' feelings toward OCF differed in various ways. Although most learners saw OCF as helpful and were emotionally positive about receiving OCF, some learners also found OCF to be inhibiting and embarrassing (Agudo & de Dios, 2014). For example, Firwana (2011) reported that only 45.44% of participants preferred OCF, and around 47.36% of participants believed that OCF provided by teachers highlighted their inability.

Sakiroglu (2020) suggested that students' beliefs and emotions towards OCF would be improved positively if teachers introduced the efficiency of OCF at the beginning of the courses. This is consistent with Zhang and Rahimi (2014), in which the participants expressed positive attitudes towards OCF in classes when they were introduced to the concept of the significance of OCF at the beginning of the course.

Further, a small number of participants indicated some negative feelings, such as feeling embarrassed, ashamed, annoyed, depressed, and worried. For example, Centeno and Barbeito (2021) found that some participants reported unfavorable feelings when receiving OCF, such as confusion, frustration, and tediousness; these negative emotions were particularly related to the teacher's interruptions when offering OCF. Similarly with Ha, Murray, and Riazi (2021), students' negative feelings were not mainly because of teacher's correctional strategies, but more about teachers' negative attitudes to students' errors.

2.8 Research Gaps

Even though the above-reviewed studies have identified several issues regarding teachers' and students' beliefs toward OCF across different grade levels and in different countries, further understanding and evidence in various language learning contexts are still required.

Overall, studies have added to our understanding of teachers' and students' beliefs toward OCF across different age levels and different countries. Previous studies, however,

have not provided a comprehensive picture of the issues pertaining to OCF, and there are three related reasons. First, some of these studies were only conducted in one single educational setting. For example, research was only conducted in one high school with 250 students in the Ha et al. (2021) study, and there was a need to extend the sample size to cover more schools to generate a more representative finding. Second, some of these studies (e.g., Davis, 2003; Agudo, 2015) did not exclusively address OCF beliefs; these studies contained several questionnaire items regarding OCF beliefs as part of a broader survey, and therefore it might be difficult to obtain an in-depth or comprehensive investigation of OCF beliefs. Third, methodologically, many of these studies only contain questionnaires as instruments, and there is a need to incorporate a qualitative method such as an interview to elicit more reasons underlying the findings of the questionnaire.

Many of the studies (e.g., provide references here for these studies) focus solely on teachers' beliefs or students' beliefs, and only a small number of research investigates both teachers' and students' beliefs, including a comparison between the two. Investigating whether teachers' and students' beliefs converge is important because consensus between the teachers' and the learners' beliefs will result in more optimistic learning outcomes, as it helps teachers to provide more informed and effective instruction to students (Brown, 2009).

By acknowledging and understanding the mismatch between teachers' and students' beliefs, teachers can better adjust their pedagogical practice in order to better guide their students to achieve more successful learning. Based on the reviewed studies, several previous studies (e.g., Brown, 2009; Farahani & Salajegheh, 2015; Fairiah, 2018; Firwana, 2011; Huong, 2020; Jean & Simard, 2011; Lee, 2013; Tomczyk, 2013) have discussed the comparison between EFL teachers' and students' beliefs about OCF in EFL classrooms. However, not many studies have compared EFL teachers' and students' beliefs about the provision and reception of OCF within the Chinese university context. Among the studies

which investigated both teachers' and students' beliefs, none covered all-around aspects of OCF. For example, Roothoof and Breeze (2016) did not cover the beliefs towards types of errors. Thus, there is a need to conduct research to compare teachers' and students' beliefs in China through a more comprehensive lens.

Third, although the studies reviewed above have demonstrated some conclusions regarding the beliefs of teachers and students about different aspects of OCF, research investigating teachers' and students' beliefs concerning feedback types, feedback timing, and linguistic foci is limited. Concerning teachers' and students' beliefs towards OCF, although most teachers and students expressed a positive attitude towards the importance of OCF, there is a discrepancy regarding the importance of OCF, and the relationship between teachers' and students' beliefs within a Chinese university context needs further discussion. In addition, the variables and the factors affecting students' and teachers' beliefs in this learning context have been under-explored. Thus, an in-depth and comprehensive investigation is needed.

There were no congruent findings about teachers' and students' beliefs related to the ideal timing of OCF because there were many mediating factors influencing different research findings, and timing issues in research on different aspects of OCF did not receive much attention (Li, Zhu & Ellis, 2016). Moreover, teachers' and students' interpretation of 'immediate' or 'delayed' OCF might be ambiguous (Quinn, 2014), and the time lapse between the occurrence of the error and the OCF needs to be clarified for the research participants. In this study, Rahimi and Zhang's (2015) detailed classification of OCF will be used in the questionnaire to guide participants.

Concerning which errors should receive OCF, different research displayed varying results. Even in the same research, teachers' and students' preferences are varied, and this is largely influenced by the educational context and the nature of oral communication. Teachers' and students' beliefs and their relationships towards the types of errors remain unknown in a

Chinese context. Thus, it is essential to further investigate the general pattern and the in-depth reasons.

When regarding how to correct learners' errors, previous studies have not resulted in congruent findings, and there is no general pattern that research can identify for teachers and students. It can be assumed that their beliefs varied in different contexts with regard to types of correction. Besides providing OCF orally, some teachers use non-verbal signals in the classroom as a way of indicating students' errors. However, this issue has not been explored in the previously reviewed studies. In this current study, non-verbal signals will be counted as a strategy for providing OCF.

It has been demonstrated by the above-reviewed studies that students' emotional responses influence their learning outcomes. However, research pertaining to students' emotional responses was limited. This study will investigate how students feel when they are provided with OCF and how teachers perceive students' emotional responses to find out if there is a discrepancy. Sometimes teachers are hesitant to provide OCF because they are worried that OCF will cause students to have negative emotions. Understanding their actual beliefs will hopefully have significant positive implications for teaching and learning.

Finally, even though many studies have discussed teachers' and students' beliefs towards different aspects of OCF, no research has - discussed the challenges/concerns teachers and students perceive in the classroom. Thus, this current study will investigate these challenges and hopefully identify more pedagogical implications for better English language teaching in China. There is, therefore, a need for more research to gain more nuanced insights into teachers' and students' beliefs concerning various aspects of OCF in a more varied range of contexts, and the current study is a timely one that seeks to address the following three research questions:

1. What are Chinese EFL teachers' and students' beliefs towards OCF in terms of its importance, linguistic foci, timing, and different types?
2. How do Chinese EFL students claim to feel when they receive OCF and how do Chinese EFL teachers perceive their students' affective responses to OCF?
3. What concerns and challenges do teachers and students have towards oral corrective feedback in the classroom?

CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology used to address the research questions of the current study. It presents the research design used to explore teachers' and students' beliefs toward the use of oral corrective feedback regarding students' erroneous utterances. This chapter explains the research philosophy underpinning the study and introduces the methodological approach, contexts, research participants, data collection instruments, data collection procedures, and data analysis procedures for each research question. Then, the pilot study is discussed prior to data collection, followed by the ethical issues considered for this study.

3.2 Research Design and Approach

According to Creswell (2008, p. 3), research is "a process of steps used to collect and analyze information to increase our understanding of a topic or issue" while Mertens (2005, p. 2) states that "the definition of research is influenced by the researcher's theoretical framework". In other words, how data are collected, analyzed, and interpreted is guided by a theoretical framework or paradigm (Glesne, 2011). Creswell (2009) defines a paradigm as a world view and Guba (1990, p. 17) sees it as "a basic set of beliefs that guide action".

In this current study, a theoretical perspective of interpretivism is used to investigate this current study. Interpretivism aims to understand human experience and actions from the assumption that social reality is neither singular nor objective but rather socially constructed and shaped by human experience. We can only understand someone's reality through their experience of that reality, which may be different from another person's shaped by the individual's historical or social perspective. Investigating beliefs should take into account factors such as cultures, social settings, and relationships with other people, with meaning

only captured through representations (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Therefore, how researchers understand social reality should be based on the perspective of the individual (Cohen & Fass, 2001).

This current study has adopted a mixed methods research design, which is defined by (2018) as "a strategy of inquiry that allows the researcher to explore a research question from multiple angles potentially avoiding the limitations inherent in using one approach, quantitative or qualitative, independently." (p. 104). In the field of applied linguistic, adopting a range of methods is important in understanding how languages are learned, taught, and used in different context. In general, quantitative research generates reliable outcomes which can be generalized across a population, and qualitative data aims at understanding the processes deeply and thoroughly rather than outcomes (Mackey & Gass, 2015). Mackey and Bryfonski (2018) explain that a mixed methods research design enables the researcher to gather qualitative data to explain and extend quantitative data to attain more unbiased and comprehensive insights into the research, which allows researchers to understand the same phenomenon from multiple angles. Integrating both quantitative and qualitative methods, a mixed methods approach, in a single study has recently gained momentum in applied linguistics research projects (Hashemi & Babaii, 2013).

One of the most advantageous characteristics of using a mixed methods approach is the possibility of triangulation, in which the researcher intentionally uses more than one data collection method and analysis to study a social phenomenon in order to obtain better converge and corroborate the results obtained from different methods, thereby eliminating the bias inherent in the use of a single method to examine the same phenomenon (Denzin, 1978; Greene et al., 1989). In other words, triangulation provides a chance for the researcher to understand the research question more thoroughly by approaching it using different research methods and techniques. Thus, it will improve the study's validity and interpretability through

the process of searching for convergence among different sources of information (Rocco et al., 2003).

Creswell (2003) identifies three methods when conducting mixed methods research, and these are (1) sequential procedures design: which uses one method to amplify the findings of another method; (2) concurrent procedures design: which analyses for the convergence of quantitative and qualitative data to attain a detailed and comprehensive analysis; (3) transformative procedures design which uses a "theoretical lens as an overarching perspective" (p. 16) in a design with quantitative and qualitative data. Since this current study is to investigate teachers' and students' beliefs, which is an unobservable attribute of OCF, it is necessary to amplify thought beyond the quantitative data. Thus, a sequential Procedures Design was selected.

The quantitative data (obtained from teacher and student questionnaires) was triangulated with the qualitative data (obtained from individual teacher and student interviews). In general, the questionnaire provides a wide range of information about the characteristics of teachers' and students' beliefs, while the semi-structured interview provides opportunities for the participants to clarify and amplify their questionnaire responses. Data were collected from the questionnaires administered to the teacher and student participants before conducting interviews with a subset of the teacher and student groups. While analyzing both the questionnaire and interview data, elaborations, overlaps, and emerging themes, patterns, or trends were identified. The research question was understood more thoroughly by approaching it using different research methods and techniques. The validity is improved through the process of searching for convergence among different sources of information (Creswell & Miller, 2000). The sequential procedure design is shown in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1 *Methodological Approaches of this Current Study*

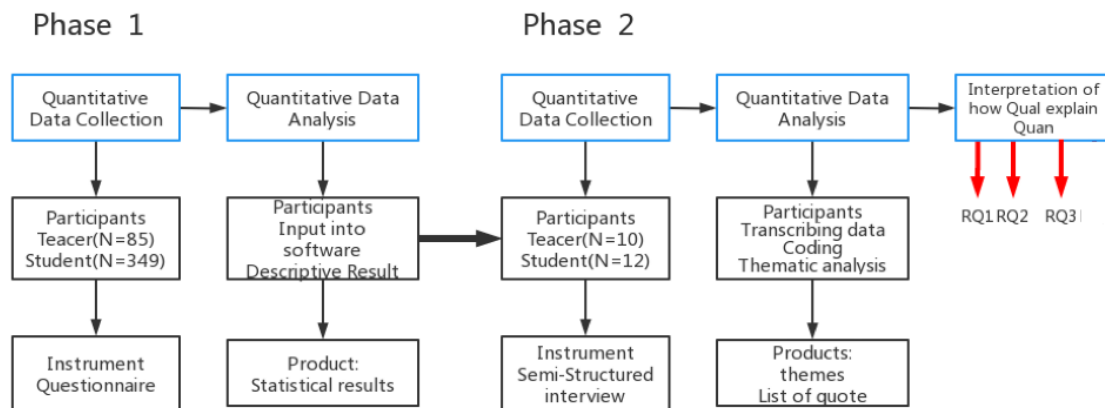


Figure 3.1 presents a sequential diagram that provides a clear visual representation of the data collection design of the current study. It outlines the steps involved as follows:

1. **Administer Questionnaire to 85 university EFL Teachers:** The questionnaire is given to teachers to gather their beliefs towards the provision of OCF in the English classroom.
2. **Administer Questionnaire to 349 university EFL Students:** Similarly, the questionnaire is distributed to students to collect their beliefs towards the provision of OC in the English classroom.
3. **Collect and Analyze Data from Teachers:** The responses from the teachers' questionnaires are collected and analyzed to gain insights.
4. **Collect and Analyze Data from Students:** Likewise, the responses from the students' questionnaires are collected and analyzed.
5. **Conduct Interviews with Teachers:** Interviews are conducted with teachers to delve deeper into their responses or gather additional insights.
6. **Conduct Interviews with Students:** Interviews are also conducted with students to explore their responses further or gather additional information.

3.3 Participants

Convenience sampling (Dörnyei, 2007) was used to recruit the participants. This refers to the selection of participants if they meet specific criteria, like proximity, availability, and willingness to volunteers. This sampling method was chosen because it was low-cost and easy for researcher to access. The researcher contacted different universities via e-mail, requesting them to provide support in the distribution of the questionnaire and the interview invitations. Many teachers and students who participated in this current study forwarded the questionnaire to other English university teachers. Before the administration of the questionnaires and interviews, the permission of the participants was obtained, and all participants were informed of the purpose of the study and the fact that taking part would be anonymous and all data would be treated confidentially.

The teacher and student participants were selected based on the following criteria:

1. Native Chinese speakers.
2. Teachers/students who taught/participated in university English classes.
3. Teachers/students who were willing to share their beliefs and provide comments on both the giving/receiving of feedback on students' oral performances.
4. Teachers/students who were willing to devote their time to this study

3.3.1 Teacher Participants in the Questionnaire Phase

Ultimately, there were 85 English teachers, and 349 university students participated in filling out the questionnaires, and among these, 10 teachers and 12 students participated in the semi-structured interviews. Regarding the 85 teachers, even though there were several differences between them about their academic background, teaching experience, and current teaching environments/grades, they were treated as one group for the purposes of this study.

Of the teachers who participated in the questionnaire, of the 85 participants, 76 were female (89.4%), and 9 were male (10.6%). The teachers were between 23 and 59 years old, with a mean age of 37 ($SD = 0.761$). Their teaching experience ranged from 3 months to 43 years, with a mean of 12.72 years ($SD = 8.894$). 6 held a bachelor's degree (7.1%), 76 had a master's degree (89.4%), and three a Ph.D. degree (3.5%).

In terms of their qualifications, 25 of them majored in English, 8 in TESOL (Teaching English Speakers of Other Languages), 22 in an English-related major such as English interpretation and English literature, 21 in a language related major such as Applied Linguistics, Foreign Language Linguistics or French. 6 majored in an education-related major, 2 in Business and Electronic Engineering, with one failing to indicate his/her major. Finally, only 84 participants answered the question about their class size, which ranged from 25 to 140 students, with a mean of 46.65 students per class ($SD = 16.276$).

Table 3.1
Demographic Information of Teachers in the Survey

Gender	N	Age	N	Academic degree	N	Experience (Y)	N	Major	N
Male	9	<25	3	Bachelor	6	0-5	21	English	25
		25-29	13			6-10	19	TESOL	8
		30-39	40	Master	76	11-20	30	English-related	22
Female	76	40-49	22			21-30	12	Language-related	21
								Education-related	6
		50-59	7	PhD	3	31 years and above	3	Business and electronic engineering	2
								unindicated	1
Total	85	85	85		85		85		85

3.3.2 Student Participants in the Questionnaire Phase

Regarding the 349 student respondents, even though there were several differences between them regarding their majors, grades, and experience of learning English, like the teachers, they are treated as one group for the purposes of this study. Of the 349 students who participated in the questionnaire, 230 were female (65.9%), and 119 were male (34.1%). 347/349 students indicated their age, which was between 17 and 23 years, with a mean age of 19.61 (SD = 1.276). They were from all kinds of majors such as English, Medicine, Business, Management, etc. 165 (47.3%) were first-year students, 148 (42.4%) second-year students, 28 (8%) third-year students, and 8 (2.3%) fourth-year students. They had a mean number of 2.26 English classes per week (SD = 1.663), and 340/349 students indicated that they had a mean of 44.46 students per class (SD = 8.484). 341/349 students stated that they started learning English at the mean age of 8.56 (SD = 2.401).

3.3.3 Teacher Participants in the Interview Phase

Ultimately, 10 University English teachers who had volunteered to participate in the study were selected to participate in the interview. Information on each of the participants is summarized in Table 3.2. As Table 3.2 shows, the participants included 8 female and 2 male teachers. They were all at master's level, and all of them held a language-related degree. The teaching experience of the participants spanned from 0.5 to 17 years. All the 10 research participants were non-native speakers of English who learned English in China, and only one of them had experience learning or teaching in an English-speaking country. To protect their personal information, pseudonyms were assigned.

Table 3.2*Teacher Interviewees Background Information*

Participant	Gender	Age	Experience (Y)	Degree	Grade teaching
Bob	M	25-29	0.5	Interpretation(M)	1-4
Christina	F	25-29	1.5	TESOL(M)	1
Lea	F	30-39	10	Foreign Language study(M)	1&2
Lily	F	25-29	1.5	TESOL(M)	1&2
Lucy	F	40-49	16	Foreign Language student(M)	1
May	F	25-29	3	TESOL(M)	1
Nancy	F	40-49	16	TESOL(M)	1
Tina	F	40-40	11	Interpretation(M)	1-3
Tom	M	30-39	17	Interpretation(M)	3
Vivian	F	25-29	3	TESOL(M)	2,4

3.3.4 Student Participants in the Interview Phase

Ultimately, 12 University students who had volunteered to participate in this questionnaire survey were selected for this interview. Information on each of the participants is summarized in Table 3.2. As Table 3.2 shows, the participants included 9 female and 2 male students. 2 of them were first-year students, six second-year students, three third-year students, and only one fourth-year student. The English learning experience of the participants spanned from 8 to 15 years. All 12 research participants were non-native speakers of English who learned English in China, and none of them had ever lived or studied in an English-speaking country. To protect their personal information, pseudonyms were also assigned. Their information is listed in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3*Student Interviewees Background Information*

Participant	Gender	Age	Grade	Major	Years of EL
Apple	F	19	2	Teacher education	10
Cathy	F	19	2	Teacher education	8
Lulu	F	20	2	Teacher education	10
Mia	F	19	2	Teacher education	8
Catherine	F	21	3	English	12
Dora	F	21	3	Electronic commerce	15
Jim	M	21	3	Accounting	15
Kyle	F	22	4	Optoelectronic Engineering	10
Lisa	F	18	1	Radio and TV director	10
Molly	F	19	2	Teacher education	12
Peter	M	18	1	Radio and TV director	13
Wendy	F	19	2	Economic	14

3.4 Description of the Sites for the Study

The study took place in several Chinese Universities. The original plan was to secure three universities in the city in which the researcher currently lived for the convenience of both the researcher and the students in the conducting of face-to-face interviews. However, due to the impact of COVID-19, face-to-face interviews were unavailable, and therefore this current study was conducted online only. The researcher sent e-mails to several universities asking them to forward the questionnaires to their English teachers and students' e-mails. Surprisingly, some teacher participants forwarded the online questionnaires to other English teachers they knew in different cities. For example, when the researcher was conducting the interview, one of the participants said that he forwarded the questionnaire to an English university teacher on the WeChat (a chatting APP in China) group, in which there were teachers from different regions in China. Similarly, some students also forwarded the questionnaire to their friends, peers, or siblings who were also university students.

Since the participants came from different cities or universities, the information collected in this current study was quite diverse. To protect participants' privacy, their university was an optional question on the questionnaire, and some participants chose to leave it blank. The questionnaire allocation website displayed their IP addresses, and these showed that participants were from different provinces. Although this meant that detailed information about each of the research sites was unable to be provided, it is very interesting to hear the views of teachers and students from different regions.

3.5 Research Instruments

As previously introduced, this study aims to investigate teachers' and students' beliefs regarding the importance of OCF, the practice of OCF, affective responses and challenges, and the relationship between the teachers and students. For this reason, mixed-method

research, including questionnaires and semi-structured interviews, was used for data collection. Questionnaires were selected as the appropriate method to determine large group participants' beliefs, and semi-structured interviews gave participants the opportunity to extend and explain quantitative data in order to obtain more comprehensive insights into the research. The following sections introduce each instrument and explain the reason for the selection of each method of data collection.

3.5.1 Questionnaire

According to Wagner (2015, p. 87), a questionnaire is "a written instrument in which respondents read questions or statements and respond to these questions by selecting a choice offered or writing their own response." It is a commonly used instrument because it can gather data from many participants in a short period of time. In this current study, two questionnaires were used as the first phase data collection instrument, one questionnaire for students and the other for teachers.

As Phakiti (2015) stated, a Likert-scale questionnaire is a useful instrument for measuring beliefs and opinions, or attitudes in different areas. The design of the two questionnaires was mainly adopted by Roothoof and Breeze (2016) since their research explores a similar theme to this current study, with some adaptations being made on certain items based on the specific needs of this study. The most significant change made was the Likert scale was changed from 4 points to 5 points, as the researcher wished participants to be able to choose a neutral response rather than having to choose an alternative answer that didn't reflect their thinking.

The questionnaire was written in Chinese to make it comprehensible for participants of all levels, and it was then translated into English after completion. The questionnaires

included Likert-scale items and several open-ended and multiple-choice items since these are effective for gathering data about people's beliefs (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Turner, 1993).

The questionnaire was composed of five sections. The first part aimed to gather background information about the participants, such as their years of teaching experience, educational experience, and information regarding their English classes. The second section was about general attitudes towards the use of OCF in their English class and how they valued the importance of OCF. The third section explored teachers' and students' preferences towards OCF practices, such as the timing of feedback, preferred feedback type, and the foci of language. The fourth section asked how students felt when receiving OCF from their teachers and how teachers perceived students' feelings. The fifth section aimed to understand the potential challenges students and teachers face regarding the OCF practice.

Teachers and students were given the same instrument. However, since teachers have more expertise and knowledge about OCF, and students do not have much understanding of the technical terms of OCF, the questionnaire for teachers and students used different language styles, in which students' versions are provided with more explanation and examples.

Even though the questionnaire contains varied items for the collection of data, they are all largely closed-form items. The researcher assumed and wished that both teacher and student participants would respond to the open-ended sections, but there was a need to consider the possibility that participants might leave the open-ended sections blank. For example, a teacher might respond negatively to the question, "Do you think it is important to give students feedback on language mistakes when they speak?" but might not respond to the open-ended sub-question, "Why not?". In this case, it would not be possible to know why this participant disagreed with the effectiveness of OCF. Hence the need to supplement the questionnaires with teacher and student interviews.

3.5.1.1 Questionnaire Reliability

To ensure that the research data were derived from reliable instruments or measures, it is necessary to find out their reliability, which is the overall consistency of a measure. A measure is said to have high reliability if it produces similar results under consistent conditions. To ensure reliability, the current researcher assessed the questionnaires before and after their distribution to the participants. Before distributing to the participants, the questionnaire was read and modified multiple times to make sure that the questions were simple and straightforward and that each item or question only had one targeted function (Brown, 2001). Moreover, a pilot study was conducted with several University English teachers and students to make sure that the questions were easily understood and answered.

In quantitative research, the reliability of the data is often determined by reliability Coefficients or measures of internal consistency. Since the questionnaires in this current research mainly used Likert-scale items, a Cronbach Alpha Coefficient is used to demonstrate the reliability. A reliability estimates ranges from 0 (0 percent reliable) to 1 (100 percent reliable). In general, a reliability Coefficient of 0.70 for a questionnaire is interpreted as reliable (Dörnyei, 2007). For the questions which used a Likert scale, the items were tested by using Cronbach's Alpha in SPSS.

Table 3.4*Reliability Coefficients of the Teachers' Questionnaire*

Dimension	Number of Items	Reliability Value
Beliefs towards provision of OCF	18	0.707
Affective response	7	0.822
Challenges	9	0.771

Table 3.5*Reliability Coefficients of the Students' Questionnaire*

Dimension	Number of Items	Reliability Value
Beliefs towards provision of OCF	17	0.917
Affective response	7	0.793
Challenges	9	0.908

Based on the above interpretations, both teachers' and students' questionnaire reliability measured through Cronbach's alpha for were considered reliable as they were all above 0.70. (See Tables 3.4 and 3.5). Meanwhile, for the open-ended questionnaire, an inter-reliability test was originally chosen, but it was found that many open-ended questions were left blank by respondents. Thus, the researcher decided to disregard the data collected from the qualitative part of the questionnaire.

3.5.2 Semi-Structured Interviews

Patton (1988) states that although the open-ended responses to questionnaires may reveal participants' feelings, they have "limitations related to the writing skills of respondents, the impossibility of probing or extending responses, and the effort required of the person completing the questionnaire "(p. 29), and, as mentioned above, some participants may leave them blank.

Thus, there is a need to complement the questionnaire with "detailed qualitative, open-ended interviews" (Creswell, 2003, p. 21) to collect detailed views of teachers' and students' beliefs, actual practices on oral corrective feedback and challenges encountered, since interviews help to collect large amounts of data in a short period of time, and to understand the meanings that everyday activities hold for people (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Thus, an in-depth semi-structured interview "generating empirical data about the social world by asking people to talk about their lives" (Holstein & Gubrium, 2004, p. 140) was used.

In-depth interviewing provides descriptive data that supplement the quantitative data gathered from the questionnaires. The interviews were considered important as they gave "an opportunity for the researcher to get information about beliefs, perspectives, and views from the participant" (Boudah, 2011, p. 137). The semi-structured interview aimed to explore the

participants' perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs toward OCF and current instructional practices and external influences on those practices.

The advantage of the semi-structured interview is that it allows space for the interviewer to adjust at any time based on participants' responses and it offers enough chance for the participants to express themselves. Moreover, a semi-structured interview allows the researcher to have both organization and spontaneity (Creswell & Poth, 2018) because it enables the participants to express themselves freely irrespective of the researcher's perceived ideas (Marshall & Rossman, 2016).

The design of the interview questions paralleled the sections in the questionnaire, with some modifications. Even though the interview is an expansion of the answers from the questionnaire, participants' answers were not used as the interview guide. For example, the researcher did not use the sentence "We'll now look at the questionnaire that you've filled in... In the first question, you seem to agree that OCF is important." Rather, the researcher repeated the question "Do you think OCF is important?" to ensure their answers from the questionnaire and interview corresponded with each other and to allow them to explain their reasons or deeper thoughts.

The interview was divided into four parts as was the questionnaire. Part 1 covered questions, including the participants' background information such as their educational degree, teaching experience, etc. In Part 2, participants were expected to express their beliefs about the importance of oral corrective feedback, participants' preferences about feedback type, timing, language foci, and their emotional responses. They were also asked to provide detailed information about what shaped their beliefs and feelings. Part 4 focused on the challenges they met when providing and receiving oral corrective feedback in the classroom and the intervention they wished to receive. During the interview, the participants were asked to

provide further explanations. Whiting (2008) suggested that the researcher needs to prepare the follow-up questions in advance to maintain the flow of the interview.

However, if the follow-up questions are spontaneous, the researcher may encourage the participants to expand on points to get more information. Due to the impact of COVID-19, the interviews were conducted online, and they were audio-recorded with the agreement of the participants and then transcribed later by the researcher. Since both the researcher and participants are native Chinese speakers, the interviews were conducted in the Chinese language. After the audio recordings were transcribed, the researcher re-listened to them and translated them into English.

3.5.2.1 Role of the Researcher

It is important to discuss the researcher's role and potential areas of bias in doing qualitative research because, consciously or unconsciously, personal biases might influence the participant's thinking, their responses, the interview process, and the ultimate interpretation of results. Before starting the interview, an oral consent form was read regarding confidentiality to make sure the participants were not concerned that their responses might be seen by others. In this way, participants were encouraged to be as candid as possible during the interview. After the confidentiality form was read, a casual follow-up chat session was conducted to encourage participants to warm up and feel comfortable. During the data analysis phase, the researcher consciously attended to personal awareness and checked interpretations for objectivity.

This current study was conducted primarily from an outsider's point of view, as the researcher was not a University English teacher in China. An attitude of mutual respect was encouraged between participants and the researcher, and conversations were undertaken in a relaxed environment. Any pre-existing knowledge that may have guided participants'

thinking and responses during the interviews was avoided, and the researcher simply played the role of asking questions and encouraging participants to expand on their answers.

3.6 Ethical Considerations

The University of Sydney's Human Ethics Committee approved this current study on 07 December 2021 (Project No: 2020/221). Prior to conducting the research, the Human Ethics Office was approached, and several formal documents were provided in order to inform them of this study and the stages involved in data collection. Throughout the research, both data and participant privacy and confidentiality were considered the number one priority.

Before accessing the online questionnaire, participants were provided with an information statement regarding the research procedures and the nature of their participation and a consent form. If the participants agreed to voluntarily take part in the study, they were asked to sign the electronic consent form. It was clearly stated on the consent form that there would be no consequences regarding their employment or academic study, social status, or grades at their schools and that they could terminate their participation in the research study at any time. The researcher's contact information was provided on the consent form so that participants could contact the researcher at any time if they wished to cancel their submission.

Prior to the data collection, three principles of implementation were considered. First, during the research, all participants would be treated with respect, and any questions that could harm, embarrass, or humiliate the participants would be avoided. It is also showed that participants will benefit from this study. The study aims to better understand English language teaching in Chinese universities, and the research participants who were recruited all share the same interest in improving their knowledge and oral corrective feedback

practices. Through their involvement, teachers and students could gain deeper insights into their own personal beliefs and a better understanding of the role of OCF in university English language education. Also, teachers and students will be able to access the results to increase their awareness of their beliefs regarding error correction, thus benefiting their language learning.

Second, teachers and students will be informed what their role was in the study and how the data that they provided benefited the research study. They were told that their main role was to provide data by filling in a questionnaire and responding to interview questions (if they participated in the interview). As previously stated, an information statement and a consent form were provided to the teachers prior to the completion of the questionnaire. For those who participated in the interview, an oral explanation of the study was given, and it was explained that conversations would be audio-recorded but not released for any other purpose besides this current study. Before the interview started, oral permission was obtained from each participant.

Third, the researcher is responsible for protecting the participants' personal information by using anonymized personal and identity information. They were also assured that any information they provided would be used solely and exclusively for the purpose of the research. Also, there was no mention of their school names. In addition, member checking was conducted by giving the transcripts of the interviews to the participants to allow them to exclude any parts with which they felt uncomfortable.

3.7 Pilot Study

Before the questionnaire and semi-structured interview were conducted, a pilot study was needed, as Boudah (2011) recommends that it is necessary for researchers to field test their instruments to test whether the questions existed in the instrument are "easy to use and

is understandable to bolster reliability and validity" (p. 166). The researcher needs to know whether the instrument is clear and coherent enough in advance to make better adjustments. In this way, the researcher can discover useful information about the research integrity, make the interview questions more relevant, and test whether the questions truly prompt the participants to provide their opinions and background information. By conducting the pilot study, the data collection process can be improved (Chenail, 2011).

To develop the final questionnaires, a preliminary pilot study was conducted. Boudah (2011) suggests that the pilot study should be conducted with "people similar to those in your target population and get their feedback" (p. 166). For this purpose, two questionnaires (one for the teacher participants and another for the student participants) were administered to 3 English teachers and five students from a Chinese university.

While participating in the pilot study, these participants pointed out the unclear parts, helped the researcher to make the necessary changes to the questionnaires, and indicated how much time was needed to complete the questionnaire. Both teacher and student participants expressed their concerns about the use of the English language, and they felt using Chinese would provide a more comfortable way to express their ideas. Thus, it was decided to use the Chinese version of the questionnaire to elicit more comprehensive and concise answers.

The interview questions were reviewed by one professor with an extensive background in the second language learning research field from a highly acclaimed university in Australia. Before conducting the interview, informed consent was obtained from each of the 8 participants. Through conducting the pilot interview, the form of the interview questions could be modified for the purposes of practicality, and the time needed for the interview could be better determined and prepared. The participants' responses helped to determine 1. whether the expression used was appropriate, clear, and detailed; 2. whether the

online meeting software used in this study was accessible; 3. whether enough information could be collected for further analysis.

3.8 Data Analysis

This section discusses the methods used to analyze the data for each of the research questions. In mixed-method research, quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed together to complement each other and to answer similar research questions (Ivankova & Greer, 2015). The raw data obtained from the data collection process were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. They are both applied in the research to validate the result and produce a thorough understanding of the research findings (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The analysis process will be introduced in the following chapter.

3.8.1 Analysis of Teachers' and Students' Questionnaires

The questionnaire provided responses for all three research questions and aimed to provide overall descriptive information about teachers' and students' beliefs towards OCF. In addition, it ascertained if there was any disparity between the two groups' beliefs. Since the questionnaire contained close-ended questions and open-ended questions, it was analyzed differently. The participants' responses to the Likert-type scale and multiple-choice questions in the questionnaire were analyzed for descriptive statistics. The results of the closed-ended questions were introduced into a database and analyzed statistically with the help of SPSS software.

For all calculations, the significance level was set at $p < 0.05$. Descriptive statistics for the quantitative data from the questionnaire were computed to identify any patterns in the participants' responses since it could help researcher to provide a simple overview of the data, and it will make researchers have a better understanding of the data set (Mackey & Gass,

2017). The two questionnaires were originally written in English and then translated into Chinese by a professional English Chinese interpreter to ensure the two versions were equivalent.

The questionnaire data were entered into an Excel spreadsheet to establish a database in SPSS. The data were initially checked and organized to make sure that all the personal details of the participants were completed, and the questionnaire items were answered accurately. The data that was found to be incomplete was not utilized in the analysis. Meanwhile, the completed data were assigned with an ID and used in the research.

For the questions in which a 5-point scale was employed, the descriptive statistics for the quantitative data from the questionnaire were computed to identify any patterns in the participants' responses. For Likert-scale questions, the quantities and mean values were calculated and compared. For multiple-choice questions, the frequency of response for each option was calculated and compared.

To compare the difference between teachers' and students' questionnaires, a chi-square test is used. A chi-square test is a statistical test used to compare observed results with expected results. The purpose of this test is to determine if a difference between observed data and expected data is due to chance or if it is due to a relationship between the variables (Mcgugh, 2013). If the Chi-square value is larger, the deviation between the two variables is greater. The correlation between them is smaller and the independence is stronger. When the value of Chi-square reaches 0, the two variables are exactly the same. Chi-square can provide information not only on the significance of any observed differences but also provides detailed information on exactly which categories account for any differences found.

To verify whether the differences in rating between teachers' and students' responses were statistically significant, chi-square tests of independence were carried out. By using the chi-square tests, the association between two categorical variables (teachers and students) and

their beliefs toward OCF was found. In detail, for example, when considering whether there are indeed significant differences between teachers' and students' opinions concerning different feedback types can be found., a χ^2 test for independence could be used.

To do this test, the researcher will collect data on the two chosen variables and then compare the frequencies. If there is no relationship between their belief, that is, if they are independent, then the actual frequencies should be expected to be approximately equal. This calculating process will be conducted under the support of SPSS software, and if the *p*-value is less than .05, it can be concluded that the variables are not independent of each other and that there is a statistical relationship between the categorical variables.

3.8.2 Statistical Procedures

The following section outlines the statistical analyses used to address each research question. Each research question is restated, followed by a description of the analyses employed.

Research question 1: what are Chinese EFL teachers' and students' beliefs towards OCF in terms of its importance, linguistic foci, timing, and different types?

For the first question, descriptive statistics were mainly used. For each of the four belief topics (necessities of OCF, types of OCF, linguistic foci of OCF, and timing of OCF), means and frequencies were calculated to generate the overall pattern. However, the belief in the importance of OCF was not investigated by using the Likert scale, and a following-up semi-structured interview was conducted. The interview themes and extracts were incorporated to provide the expressed reason.

Defining matches and mismatches required another statistical analysis: Chi-Square tests of independence. Pearson's chi-squared test was used to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the teachers' and students' responses, and the

calculation was conducted by using SPSS software. The reason for the differences was elicited through the interview.

Research question 2, How do Chinese EFL students and Chinese EFL teachers differ in their perceptions toward students' affective responses to OCF?

Data for this research questions were analyzed through descriptive statistics. The descriptive statistics were used to identify the general pattern of students' emotional responses and how teachers anticipate the extent of their students' emotional responses. Then, the Chi-Square test was applied to find the difference between their answers. More information and their expressed reasons were elicited through the interview.

Research question 3, what challenges/concerns do teachers and students have regarding oral corrective feedback?

The data for this research question required the use of Chi-Square tests of independence and descriptive statistics. Each of the potential challenges/concerns was listed on the questionnaire, and the means and frequencies were calculated to generate the general pattern. Then, Chi-Square tests were applied to find if there were differences between teachers' and students' responses. More detailed explanations were elicited from the interview.

3.8.3 Analysis of Teachers' and Students' Interviews

To supplement and extend the questionnaire data, a semi-structured interview was conducted. Lyster and Ranta's (1997) feedback type classification, Rahimi and Zhang's (2015) categories for feedback timing, and Lyster, Saito, and Sato's (2013) classifications of error types were used to facilitate understanding of the terminology used. In analyzing the interview, thematic analysis, which is a technique to identify, analyze, and report patterns

(themes) within data, were used. It minimally organizes and describes the data set in (rich) detail (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

However, frequently it goes further than this and interprets various aspects of the research topic" (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In other words, it is used to create a compressed and organized set of data that allows for patterns to emerge and conclusions to be drawn. This technique has been chosen because it can collect and analyze interview data about research participants' perspectives on issues being investigated (Duff, 2008). This current study follows Braun and Clarke's (2006) guideline for thematic analysis. The guideline includes four stages: (1) familiarizing with data, (2) creating initial codes, (3) determining themes, and (4) writing and reviewing reports. The detailed processes are listed in the following paragraphs.

Stage 1: Familiarizing Data

The first task for the researcher is to get familiar with the data (Nowell et al., 2017). For analysis, the interviews were transcribed verbatim. The original version was in the Chinese language, and the Xunfei Software was initially used to transcribe it into Chinese. Then, each interview was listened to again to make sure the transcripts were correct. After that, the Chinese version transcripts were sent to the interview participants for member checking, that is, returning the transcripts to the participants and asking them to check the correctness of the transcriptions. The participants were told that they were welcome to request the exclusion of any parts of the transcripts that they were unwilling to include in the research, and this was to increase the validity and trustworthiness of the qualitative results (Doyle, 2007). However, none of them chose to exclude anything. The interviews were then translated into English first by the researcher, and then a professional translation company was used to check the translation again in order to assure correctness and accuracy.

After these preparatory steps, the mass of data that had been collected and transcribed began to be organized and reduced. This data reduction stage helped to select and simplify data, and only the data that directly related to the aims of the study and the research questions were left. Any irrelevant data that had arisen during the interview and did not directly contribute to the research questions were excluded from the data set.

After the data reduction, the transcribed text was repeatedly read by the researcher in order to be familiar with them.

Stage 2: Generating Initial Codes

In phase two, initial codes were generated. This current study chose the descriptive coding approach to label data using a word or short phrase (Miles et al., 2014). All data were coded manually following a list of codes (see Table 3.6).

Table 3.6*Coding Schemes for the Analysis of Interview Data*

Importance Statement
Usefulness
Unusefulness
Preference Statement
OCF Types
OCF Timing
OCF Linguistic Focus
Amount of OCF
Feeling
Positive
Negative
Challenges
Perceived Challenges

Then the important features of the data were systematically coded, and the codes were sorted into various theme areas. These themes were further refined by breaking down themes into subthemes, and the irrelevant themes were disposed of. Then the codes were reviewed to ensure that they were suitable for all coded extracts, and each theme was clearly defined, and appropriate names given to each theme. Names needed to be selected by referring to relevant sections of the research questions and related studies. These themes and their sub-themes were then further refined and illustrated via the extracts in the Findings chapter. In this study, the researcher chose the descriptive coding approach to label data using a word or short phrase (Miles et al., 2014). An example of data coding can be seen in Table 3.7

Table 3.7*An Example of Initial Data Coding*

Raw data	Codes by student researcher
Vivian: <u>it can help them to notice their mistakes</u> , but it may not yield the expected result.	Noticing error
Vivian: <u>they may remind themselves that they have made the same mistakes in the past, so they will pay more attention in the future.</u>	Avoid repeating the mistakes
Nancy: <u>if your oral English is not good enough, you will be unemployed.</u>	Employment requirement
Lucy: Maybe <u>it will hurt his self-esteem</u> , so when I face some students like that, I generally won't correct them directly or I don't even correct their mistakes.	Protect students' feeling
Lucy: <u>The class time is not enough now, and there are many tasks arranged</u>	Limited class time
Christina: <u>because maybe Chinese students are very conservative, and they are used to listen to teachers' instruction and feedback</u>	See teachers as authorities
Lily: I think it may be not important <u>if the goal is mainly based on examination.</u>	Exam-driven
Tina: <u>for example, he knows that he should not make it again next time.</u>	Avoid repeating the mistakes
Tina: <u>a good teacher should always guide students to produce correct language forms.</u>	Teacher's responsibility
Tom: The more error correction, <u>the faster your will improve.</u>	Support second language learning
Tom: if your oral expression is not good, but your bilingual conversion ability is very strong, you can only concert in your mind. <u>If you can't express it out, it won't work.</u>	Importance of oral expression
Molly: I will <u>feel less pressure</u>	Feeling less pressure

Stage 3: Determining Themes

Emerging themes were identified using a color-coding method (as in Karim & Nassaji, 2015). Following that, the emerging themes were summarized in tables based on the main points raised during interviews. That is, the interview data were tabled to show the key points that were discussed in the interviews and what each teacher participant and student participant had stated about the points. In detail, through repeated readings, the teachers' answers to the interview questions were revealed through open coding. The researcher highlighted the passages that related to the research questions with informative labels. The main themes were identified by their frequency (recurrence and repetition).

For instance, the theme of the reason expressed for agreeing with providing corrective feedback emerged in the interview data from several teachers, with subthemes under that of letting students notice their errors, avoiding students repeating mistakes, ensuring students used correct language, and teachers' responsibilities. Table 3.7 shows an example of the draft themes and sub-themes related to perceived usefulness.

In addition to looking at what each teacher participant and student participant had stated during the interviews, teachers' and students' responses were examined, and patterns of beliefs that could be compared between these two groups were identified. For example, when asked about their beliefs on whether students wish to be corrected on their oral errors, the majority of teachers said they felt their students didn't want to be corrected. On the contrary, student participants expressed that they would appreciate it if their teachers could correct their mistakes. This pattern of belief was identified and then compared between teacher and student groups to determine if they held similar or different beliefs.

Stage 4: Writing and Reviewing Report

Finally, the data were analyzed, and conclusions were drawn in order to address the research questions. The researcher first read and checked all data, then coded these data several times to ensure the founded theme could form a coherent pattern. Even after the conclusions were reached, data were revisited constantly and periodically to verify the conclusions that had been made, look for emerging themes, and check the validity of the previously identified themes to provide rich, detailed, and relevant responses to the research question. Even though there were multiple versions of computer software that could be used to analyze qualitative data, themes were coded and defined manually since the software was unable to replace the intuition of the researcher who was there when the data were collected.

Reliability of Interview Data

To assess the reliability of interview data coding, coder checks proposed by Duff (2008) were used. First, the student researcher calculated the intra-coder reliability. After the first-round coding process of all interview transcripts ($N = 22$), 5 of them were randomly selected from the entire data set, and the researcher redid the coding by using the same coding method after a month. Second, the researcher assessed the inter-coder reliability by inviting another doctoral student in this field. This doctoral student was invited to code 4 randomly selected transcripts to generate themes following the same coding method. The agreement rate was 0.87 and 0.81, respectively. When there were disagreed points about coding, coders held a discussion session to inspect the codes, and the transcripts were reviewed again to produce commonly agreed codes and themes.

3.9 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness relates to the design and data analysis of this study. Lincoln and Guba (1985) note that trustworthiness can be obtained through appropriate credibility measures, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. In detail, credibility refers to the extent of the reality and rightness of a study's findings (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Transferability is making sure that the findings of the study can be applied to other groups or settings (Cope, 2014). Dependability is "the constancy of the data over similar conditions, and confirmability refers to the researcher's ability to demonstrate that the data represent the participants' responses and not the researcher's biases or viewpoints" (Cope, 2014, p. 90). Creswell (2013) claims that at least two of these four strategies are adequate to establish trustworthiness for high-quality research, and the strategies used in this current study will be introduced in the following paragraphs.

In this current study, credibility was achieved through triangulation (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Multiple data sources, including questionnaires and interviews, were included to reach the findings in this study. Greene et al. (1989) noted that all methods have inherent biases and limitations, and using two or more methods will enhance the validity. With this mixed method study, triangulation converges quantitative data in conjunction with qualitative data to enhance validity. Credibility was also achieved through member checking by providing the interview participants with the interview transcripts so they could check for accuracy to make sure the content accurately reflected their thoughts, and that there was no misunderstanding.

To ensure credibility, a detailed audit trail has been provided to show how this study progressed. All the research stages have been clearly described, from data collection to the research design to the reporting of the findings. Every step is transparent, and the findings were reviewed retrospectively to check for and avoid subjective bias. Participants were

invited to provide feedback and suggestions to make sure that their views were adequately reflected and not influenced by any possible bias.

Transferability refers to the fact that the results of the finding can be applied under different conditions. This study achieved transferability by providing detailed descriptions. A comprehensive and thick description can allow conclusions to be drawn in other similar contexts and with other participants. When completing this current study, rich details on the contexts, participants, and different stages of the study were provided. For example, audit trails are provided to demonstrate how the qualitative study was constructed, and all the research stages are described. Field notes were used during the interview session to document not only the conversation that took place but also the thoughts about various issues of the study. Moreover, Cope (2014) indicates that triangulation can enhance the transferability of a study. Two methods of data collection were utilized in this study with the replication of several questions, and this allowed thematic inconsistencies to be addressed and improved the measure of transferability (Marshall & Rossman, 2016).

3.10 Summary

This chapter has provided a detailed description of the research methodology used, which includes research participants, research context, data collection processes, and analysis procedures, followed by a discussion of validity and reliability and related ethical issues. An explanatory procedure design approach was chosen to investigate the teachers' and students' beliefs regarding the importance of OCF, practices of OCF, affective feelings regarding OCF, challenges faced regarding OCF, and the relationship between teacher and student groups. This current study used a mixed-method approach to data collection to enhance the understanding of the teachers' and students' OCF beliefs. Qualitative data were gathered to explain and extend quantitative data to attain more comprehensive insights into the research.

Using the explanatory sequential design, quantitative data and qualitative data were triangulated. Each research question was analyzed through a quantitative and qualitative approach, and the chapter concluded with the study's ethical considerations and the steps taken to ensure the participants' privacy.

CHAPTER 4 FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the research questions that this current study has sought to address. RQ1 addressed teachers' and students' beliefs regarding the importance and provision of OCF, aligned with the mismatch between their beliefs. RQ2 investigated students' emotional responses and how teachers perceive and anticipate students' emotional responses, and the reasons for the mismatch between their beliefs. RQ3 explored teachers' and students' major concerns about giving/receiving OCF in speaking classes at Chinese universities.

As presented in the methodology chapter, the design of the explanatory procedures addressed all three research questions. Quantitative data (questionnaires) was triangulated with qualitative data (interviews) by gathering qualitative data to explain and extend quantitative data. The findings are presented in four sections: teachers' and students' beliefs about the importance and provision of providing OCF (Section 4.1), students' emotional responses and teachers' perceptions about students' emotional responses (section 4.2), concerns/challenges teachers and students face (Section 4.3), and summary of key findings (Section 4.4).

4.2 Answers Relevant to Research Question 1 (What are Chinese EFL teachers' and students' beliefs towards OCF in terms of the importance, linguistic foci, timing and different types?)

4.2.1 Teachers' and Students' Beliefs Towards Feedback Efficacy and Necessity

Table 4.1 presents the results of teachers' responses to the question regarding the importance of providing oral corrective feedback of students' erroneous utterances. Table 4.1

shows that out of 85 participants, 55 (64.7%) agreed on the importance of OCF, while 30 (35.3%) did not deem it to be that important. It is gratifying to see that most teachers were positive about providing OCF, indicating that they considered that offering OCF was beneficial for students' language development. In addition, around 35% of teacher participants stated that OCF might not be important and that they either rejected or were hesitant to provide OCF to their students, and further reasons would be illustrated in the interview. Overall, it could be inferred that most teachers thought it was necessary to provide OCF, and they were willing to provide OCF in their classrooms.

Table 4.1

Teachers' Beliefs Towards the Importance of OCF (n = 85)

Answer relevant to Research Question 1	Yes, it is important	No, it is not important	Total(n)
All teachers	55	30	85
Percentage	64.7	35.3%	100%

Analyses of the teachers' interview data confirmed the findings from the questionnaire, which showed that most teachers generally believed OCF was necessary for L2 development. Nine out of ten teacher participants interviewed expressed that providing OCF plays an essential role, and there were four recurring themes provided as the main reasons for their supportiveness.

Firstly, teachers considered errors to be part of student's language learning and supported that providing OCF was the teacher's responsibility because it would support SL learning. For example, participant Tom stated, "I think the most important thing in the process of English learning, whether English or other languages, is the process of error correction... The more error corrections, the faster they will improve." Teachers stated that errors were inevitable when learning a second language and providing OCF was one of the

core teaching activities because it was the teacher's responsibility to help students learn how to use the language more accurately.

Secondly, teachers thought that OCF could make students notice their errors. Without the provision of OCF, students might not realize their mistakes and continue to make the same errors. For example, Christina said, "If I can't understand what he says and I can't understand what he is talking about, I will remind him a little bit in an indirect way and let him repeat what he just said...Teacher can let him see his shortcomings and defects when they receive the OCF." If teachers do not provide OCF, students cannot identify their errors alone. This can be linked with Schmidt's (1994, 2001) Noticing Hypothesis, which argues that language input will only become intake if the learners notice it.

Thirdly, teachers maintained that OCF could help learners avoid repeating a mistake. For example, Vivian said, "If they are provided with OCF before, they may have an alarm in their brain, which may remind them that they may have made the same mistakes in the past, so they will pay more attention when they use the language." If the oral errors were not corrected, participant Tom said that "students can speak wrongly forever." It could be inferred that OCF would help students remember the correct language over time, and mistakes could motivate corrections, which results in a deeper understanding of the language.

Finally, teachers considered that OCF could help not only the individual target students but also others in the classroom involved in the learning process. Participant May said, "The other students can also learn from the difference between teachers' and students' expressions. I believe the rest of the students will use the tense more carefully to avoid similar mistakes." It can be inferred that providing OCF to an individual student might signal other students to be aware of the difference between teachers' correct utterances and students' erroneous utterances through effective comparisons, which could enhance overall learning.

The teachers also made some comments regarding the necessity of providing OCF for situations, depending on teachers' concerns about students' emotional responses, the lesson focus, and students' uptake, and these might account for the reasons why some teachers were hesitant to provide OCF. First, most teachers (8/10) said that not all oral errors should be corrected because they worried that frequent OCF might adversely impact students' feelings and motivation to speak English in the classroom. For example, Lucy said "If I correct too much, it will certainly affect their enthusiasm and motivation to speak English...I think the student's heart may not accept it if I correct all of the mistakes, so I only focus on one or two". She worried that OCF, especially "too much" OCF, would damage the student's confidence and negatively impact their feelings, especially for a student with lower English proficiency who may make more mistakes. Those students may feel extremely embarrassed if corrected by the teacher in front of the class.

Second, it depended on whether the lesson focus was fluency-driven or accuracy-drive. In the interviews, six out of ten participants prioritized fluency over accuracy, and they would not provide OCF for every mistake a student made unless the error severely influenced understanding. For example, Vivian said, "More importantly, if we are discussing a topic, I may not worry too much about his wrong expression in grammar but pay more attention to his output or content." Similarly, Christina said "The main thing is if his mistake contains very serious or basic point. He should have this consciousness, that he even makes the most basic mistake, and I must correct it. If what he said is not particularly serious, I may not interrupt him if I can understand his meaning" In addition, all the interview participants stated that errors should be corrected if they were the linguistic foci of the class, as they might then impact the exam result. For example, Vivian stated, "If the lesson focus is learning past tense, but the students still make mistakes using it, I will definitely provide OCF because it is the important learning point, and he has to use it correctly."

Third, some participants stated that their students' reactions to their provision of OCF would influence their motivation to provide OCF. For example, Lucy was frustrated by providing OCF and said, "I think students can't really remember what they did wrong after being corrected once or twice. I don't think providing OCF is very useful. Anyway, I think if they want to improve their oral English, they still have to rely on themselves." During the interview, Lucy kept stating that her students were not motivated to learn English, and her students showed a careless attitude towards the OCF she had provided in the past. Thus, she gave up on providing further OCF because if students lacked the motivation to learn, it was useless to correct anything. Another two teachers provided deeper discussion regarding this issue, and they believed students' lack of motivation to improve their oral English was related to their past learning experiences since oral English was not emphasized in their past curriculum.

There was only one teacher, Tina, who in the interview said she thought OCF was unnecessary: "I don't think providing OCF is very useful. Anyway, I think if they really want to improve their oral English, they still have to rely on themselves. For example, they can look up in a dictionary or find some audio, and then read aloud. After repeated practice, it should be more effective." Through deeper discussion with her, she stated that corrective feedback would be more effective in writing, and she believed speaking proficiency could only be obtained through listening to the authentic language and practicing repeating it. Providing OCF would not be helpful to students' speaking because if students did not practice, it would be useless to provide one or two examples of OCF.

Table 4.2 shows that 336 out of 349 student participants (96.3%) stated that they believed OCF was important, and 13 out of 349 participants (3.7%) believed it was unimportant. Therefore, it can be concluded that nearly all students regarded OCF as essential for their learning and preferred teachers to provide OCF to improve their oral performance.

They highly valued the importance of OCF, and they desired to receive OCF from their teachers. In other words, they were willing to receive OCF when making oral mistakes, and it was gratifying to see that students were humble and enthusiastic about English language learning.

Table 4.2

Students' Beliefs Towards the Importance of OCF (n = 349)

	Yes, it is important	No, it is unimportant	Total(n)
All students	336	13	349
Percentage	96.3%	3.7%	100%

The questionnaire data showed that nearly all students agreed that the provision of OCF was important, and all the participants in the interview confirmed this result. The interview data revealed three main reasons for this. Firstly, OCF could make students notice their errors. Without the provision of OCF, they could not determine their mistakes, causing issues in their learning. For example, Dora said, " I don't have many opportunities to speak English and I really cherish teacher's feedback. Sometimes I can't realize my mistakes, but once the teacher hears it and points it out to me, it can also help me to find my mistakes." Molly said, " For fluency, I think it can be improved through practice, but sometimes we don't know about our accuracy, and it is hard for us to realize whether we are accurate or not. Thus, the teacher has to help me, that is to make me realize that I have made a mistake." It could be inferred that students expected OCF because it was difficult for them to realize their mistakes. The teacher was the expert who could notice their errors, and through the process of providing OCF, the student could locate the error and then make improvements.

Secondly, students stated that OCF could help them avoid repeating mistakes and therefore avoid further embarrassment in the future. Students believed OCF functioned as an alarm that would consciously remind them not to make the same mistake again. For example, Catherine said, "When I make a mistake and my teacher reminds me, maybe I'll pay more attention to this problem when I practice oral English later. I will prevent this mistake from happening again. It could deepen my impression and I will watch my language when I use it". In addition, students would react to teachers' OCF seriously, believing that if the teacher had already provided them with OCF, they should not make the same mistakes in the future. For example, Molly said "You can make a mistake once. However, you will keep making the same mistake if the teacher doesn't correct you, and you will make a fool of yourself in front of others next time and it is embarrassing."

Thirdly, most student participants (10/12) suggested that feedback should be provided for every mistake because they valued accuracy over fluency, and they assumed it would help them to improve their English to the greatest extent. For example, Peter said, "Well, if the teacher only corrects a part, I may only correct the part (in which) he corrects me. However, if he corrects all, I may correct more mistakes." Students trusted correcting all the mistakes would help them to make more improvements. If teachers only provided correction of some of their mistakes, they would not notice the rest of the errors and might keep making the same mistakes in the future. Wendy pointed out, "I think accuracy is a basic thing, and it set(s) the foundation for my English learning. For my current oral level, I think accuracy goes first." In Wendy's mind, she needed to ensure the language she spoke was correct, and she believed fluency would come naturally if accuracy was guaranteed. If she could not accurately use the language, it was useless to consider fluency.

It can be inferred from the interviews that most students expected teachers to give feedback on all their mistakes because more OCF could help students discover more problems and thus lead to more improvements. It seems that students cared more about language form than language content. One possible reason is that they were not confident about their English-speaking proficiency and treated fluency as a higher-level achievement, which could be achieved after ensuring the correct use of the language.

Although students all agreed on the importance of OCF and hoped to receive OCF from their teachers, some commented on the necessity of OCF in certain situations. For example, OCF could be adjusted based on students' study aims. Rose said, "If I want to improve my oral ability and avoid making mistakes, I hope the teacher can correct my mistakes. However, if I aim to dare to speak English and communicate with foreigners, I think it is more important to understand them and let them understand me. If I think this way, I may not want the teacher to correct me." Rose might have expected OCF if she aimed to improve the accuracy of the language. However, if she aimed to communicate, she would not expect OCF because it would interrupt her communication flow and make her feel nervous.

In addition, students stated that whether they wanted the teacher's feedback depended on how the teacher gave them feedback. When a teacher gave feedback politely and gently, it would be accepted positively. However, if the teacher's language was not respectful enough, they could not accept the teacher's OCF. For example, Apple said, "If the teacher corrects me in a gentle way, I am ok. However, if he uses humiliating or fierce language, such as 'Why do you make such a stupid mistake?', I am unable to accept it." When providing OCF, teachers should pay attention to their language to protect students' self-esteem and confidence. Errors are inevitable when learning a second language; blaming or humiliating language would cause students to have negative feelings.

When the attitudes of teachers and students regarding the importance of OCF are compared, the percentage of students who agreed regarding the importance of OCF was higher than teachers (96.3% versus 64.7%). Evidently, both the teachers and students had a positive attitude toward OCF, but students' willingness to accept the correction of oral errors was overwhelmingly stronger than their teachers' willingness to make corrections.

This discrepancy might be because most (10/12) students wanted to be corrected all the time, whereas most teachers (8/10) thought a correction to be important but did not think it was necessary to correct all the errors students made. In the interviews, most teachers stated that they would pay more attention to errors that impede students' communication because they attached more importance to promoting fluency and they worried that "too many" corrections would damage students' motivation and emotions. Overall, some teachers showed hesitancy in providing OCF because they considered students' well-being when making OCF decisions. They worried that OCF would bring negative feelings such as frustration and anxiety. However, most students regarded OCF as a supportive tool for language learning and stated that they would not feel negative.

Most students preferred teachers to provide OCF for all their errors rather than selective errors because they valued accuracy over fluency. This discrepancy might be because Chinese students' past educational experiences gave primary importance to language accuracy due to its exam-oriented nature. In the interviews, seven out of 12 student participants said that they were not confident in speaking English due to a previous lack of opportunity to speak English, and they wished to improve accuracy first as the foundation of fluency. Thus, they generally believed that all their errors should be corrected.

4.2.2 Teachers' and Students' Beliefs Towards Linguistic Foci of OCF

In response to "What kinds of mistakes tend to receive OCF of individual students' oral mistakes?", there were no big differences regarding teachers' preferences of what type of

oral errors should be corrected. Table 4.3 shows that the mean values of all five types of oral errors are all between 3 (3 ="neither important nor unimportant") and 4 (4 = "important"), inferring that teacher generally showed a positive attitude towards providing OCF to students' different oral errors. The mean value given in Table 4.3 suggested that teachers' preferences could be ranked as pronunciatonal > lexical > unsolicited use of L1 > grammatical > pragmatical. Among the five types of errors, a strong tendency towards reporting pronunciation errors and lexical errors as the main types was identified.

Table 4.3*Teacher's Beliefs Towards Linguistic Focus of OCF (n = 85)*

Frequency (percentage)							
Types of mistakes	Not at all important	Unimportant	Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very important	Mean	Std. Deviation
Grammatical	2(2.4%)	19(22.4%)	31(36.5%)	25(29.4%)	8(9.4%)	3.21	0.977
Pronunciational	0(0%)	10(11.8%)	24(28.2%)	37(43.5%)	14(15.5%)	3.65	0.896
Lexical mistake	1(1.2%)	6(7.1%)	28(32.9%)	38(44.7%)	12(14.1%)	3.64	0.857
Pragmatical	4(4.7%)	12(14.1%)	39(45.9%)	24(28.2%)	6(7.1%)	3.19	0.932
Unsolicited use of L1	2(2.4%)	13(15.3%)	30(35.3%)	33(38.8%)	7(8.2%)	3.35	0.922

Table 4.4*Teachers' Beliefs on Linguistic Focus and Reasons from the Interview*

Participants	Preferred linguistic focus	Reasons
Lucy	Pronunciation errors lexical errors	Most students cannot pronounce correctly, cannot make up meaning without vocabulary
Lea	Grammatical errors Pronunciation error	Most basic factor to make sentences. It is important in her classroom for exam, but forgivable in daily life/ pronunciation errors occurs the most. Low proficiency in making correct sounds.
Christina	Pragmatic errors Lexical errors	Make more authentic language, avoid strange expression. / wrong meaning lead to misunderstanding
May	Grammatical errors Pronunciation errors	Grammatical errors are very basic types of mistakes/pronunciation affects understanding
Nancy	Pronunciation errors Lexical errors	Affects understanding/ vocabulary builds meaning
Tina	Pronunciation errors Lexical errors	Students like to make pronunciation errors, and it affects understanding. If pronunciation and vocabulary affect expression
Tom	Pronunciation errors Lexical errors	Pronunciation errors can be erased through practicing, and it affect understanding. Vocabulary is the basic unit of meaning.
Vivian	Lexical errors Pragmatical errors	Vocabulary affects output/ Pragmatic makes students convey meaning clearer
Bob	Pronunciation errors Lexical errors	Both affect understanding
Lily	Grammatical errors Pronunciation error	For exam/ students expect more on pronunciation errors

Teachers' beliefs from the interview were related to the quantitative findings that teachers tended to pay much attention to students' pronunciation and lexical errors. Typically, these teachers believed pronunciation and vocabulary were the basis of accurate expression when speaking English. Participants concluded that incorrect pronunciation could affect people's understanding, and teachers deemed errors in pronunciation to be the most frequently occurring mistake in their class. For example, Tina said, "I think at present, our students are more likely to make pronunciation mistakes...if a student says something and doesn't pronounce it well, it may be more difficult for me to understand."

Teachers regarded lexical errors deserved OCF because of the importance of ensuring the meaning of the communication. Vocabulary was believed to be the most basic language unit, and inappropriate words could alter the original intended meaning. For example, Vivian stated, "If the pronunciation and vocabulary are not accurate, the expression is not appropriate." Moreover, teachers considered their students lacked the vocabulary repertoire, and it was difficult for them to search for the right word when speaking. Teachers may need to provide OCF to their lexical errors to raise their awareness of the importance of vocabulary.

However, different teachers had different thoughts about which errors should be corrected. In the opinion of three out of ten participants, grammatical errors should receive OCF since they could enhance the accuracy of expression and be closely related to writing, which appeared in the standard test. However, the fact that grammatical errors were not rated as the most important errors to correct was because some teachers believed they would not influence understanding as much as pronunciation and lexical errors would.

Meanwhile, two participants deemed pragmatic errors to need more attention because they could help students produce a more authentic target language and avoid misunderstanding during communication. As a result of the interlanguage process, pragmatic

errors could confuse the audience regarding the logical relationship in the sentence, or the expression might not be appropriate for the target language's context. However, it was not an influential error because teachers were not confident about their students' proficiency levels, and they believed pragmatic issues were for students with higher-level speaking abilities. In addition, since many teachers were also second language learners, they were not sensitive to pragmatic errors that students made, and some of them reported that they had never thought about it.

For the students' unsolicited use of L1, respondents unanimously said that it was a highly common phenomenon in their classroom, which could be avoided. Teachers said they would remind students how to say something in the target language; otherwise, students would not know how to express it in English. Teachers assumed the main reason causing students to use their L1 was because they did not know how to pronounce what they want to say in English or they could not find the right vocabulary to do what?. Thus, they should help students with pronunciation and lexical errors first.

In summary, all teacher interviewees trusted that lexical, grammatical, pronunciation, pragmatical, and use of unsolicited L1 should be corrected for their students. They tended to focus more on correcting students' pronunciation and lexical errors than on grammatical and pragmatic errors because these two affected understanding the most.

Based on the descriptive statistical result of the students' questionnaires, Table 4.5 shows that the mean values of all five types of oral errors are all between 3 (3 = "neither important nor unimportant") and 4 (4 = "important"), and thus the mean did not show a big difference. It could be inferred that student participants in this study showed a positive attitude towards receiving OCF for their different oral errors, and there was a tendency for students to expect more OCF from the teacher in terms of different kinds of spoken errors. Concerning the types of errors that tended to receive more OCF, it is noteworthy that the

students were nearly evenly divided between each type. The mean value given in Table 4.4 suggested that students' preferences could be ranked as grammatical > lexical > pronunciational > pragmatic > unsolicited use of L1. Thus, the questionnaire findings showed that most participating students responded favorably to the correction of grammatical errors and lexical errors. These beliefs were confirmed in the students' interviews.

Table 4.5*Students' Beliefs Towards Different Linguistic Focus of OCF (n = 349)*

Frequency (percentage)							
Types of Mistakes	Not at all effective	Ineffective	Neither effective nor effective	Effective	Very Effective	Mean	Std. Deviation
Grammatical	15(4.3%)	38(10.9%)	74(21.2%)	150(43%)	72(20.6%)	3.65	1.058
Pronunciational	12(3.4%)	39(11.2%)	93(26.6%)	144(41.3%)	61(17.5%)	3.58	1.013
Lexical mistake	12(3.4%)	46(13.2%)	80(22.9%)	145(41.5%)	66(18.9%)	3.59	1.045
Pragmatical	14(4%)	49(14%)	80(22.9%)	145(41.5%)	61(17.5%)	3.54	1.059
Unsolicited use of L1	18(5.2%)	55(15.8%)	77(22.1%)	130(37.2%)	69(19.8%)	3.51	1.129

Table 4.6*Students' Beliefs Towards Linguistic Foci and Reasons from the Interview*

Participants	Preferred Linguistic Foci	Reasons
Rose	Grammatical errors Lexical errors	Influence listening and writing, make others laugh at, avoid fossilization/ the core of language, affect understanding
Peter	Grammatical errors Pragmatical errors	Grammar is the core of language, avoid fossilization of using wrong form/ reach accurate and authentic language
Cathy	Grammatical Lexical	For exam/ hard to realize when there is misuse of word, affect understanding
Mia	Pronunciation errors Lexical errors	She is good at grammar. Good pronunciation brings confidence to speak. Both types of errors affect understanding
Catherine	Lexical errors Grammatical errors	Affect understanding/wrong voice and wrong tense lead to misunderstanding
Molly	Pronunciation errors Lexical errors	Avoid fossilization of wrong pronunciation/ wrong pronunciation make others laugh at/ vocabulary makes up meaning
Lisa	Pronunciation errors Lexical errors	Affect understanding
Jim	Grammatical errors Lexical errors	Grammatical errors make expression not proficient, strong emphasis in the past learning experience/ affect understanding

Table 4.6 (continued)*Students' Beliefs Towards Linguistic Foci and Reasons from the Interview*

Participants	Preferred Linguistic Focus	Reasons
Apple	Grammatical errors Lexical errors	Exam-driven
Lulu	Grammatical errors Lexical errors	Personal needs, avoid fossilization of incorrect language form, exam/ affect understanding
Wendy	Grammatical errors Pronunciation errors	Exam-driven, past learning experience/ affect understanding
Dora	Grammatical errors Lexical errors	Cause misunderstanding with wrong grammar/ causing misunderstanding

Table 4.6 shows the general pattern of students' preference towards different linguistic errors. In the interviews, most participants reported preferring their grammatical and lexical errors to be corrected. The students' first and second choice of grammatical and lexical errors might be affected by their past exam-oriented education experiences since grammar and vocabulary are highly linked to their exam performance. In addition, students believed that correcting grammatical errors could help them avoid embedding the use of the wrong form. For example, Jim stated, "Since childhood, English education focused on written tests, and grammar is an important factor in the written test. Thus, grammar may need special attention when learning English." Thus, students' views on written English or exam content influenced their views on oral errors when speaking.

Similarly, students expressed a strong desire for their teachers to correct their lexical errors because they believed vocabulary was the basic unit of learning a language and it was very important for them to pass the exam. For example, Lulu said "If the teacher doesn't point out vocabulary mistakes, the students may always use the wrong words to express the wrong meaning in the exam. Vocabulary represents the sentence's meaning, and vocabulary must be accurate." Most students said that vocabulary was the most challenging part when learning English because they did not have sufficient vocabulary reserves and often failed to find an accurate word to express their meaning. It seemed that some students only cared about the vocabulary covered in the exam, and subconsciously and/or intuitively linked OCF to their English exam performance.

However, although grammatical and lexical errors were reported the most and regarded as the most important linguistic foci, students still expressed different thinking. Four out of 12 students mentioned pronunciation errors needed OCF because they could adversely affect listeners' understanding. For example, Wendy said, "If the pronunciation is not accurate, I think, for example, others will misunderstand the meaning of what you said.". In

addition, these students insisted that pronunciation errors would lead to the fossilization of incorrect language. If a student kept pronouncing a word incorrectly, it would form a habit, which would be more difficult to correct in the future.

Even though pragmatic errors might not be students' most desired linguistic foci, four out of 12 students expressed a willingness to receive OCF on their pragmatical errors because it could help them achieve authenticity in the target language. These students believed that it seemed that teachers rarely provided them with pragmatic information, and students had little access to this aspect. Thus, to improve their English speaking to the greatest extent, those students expected teachers to provide them with this kind of information. Some students supposed correcting unsolicited use of L1 was necessary because they would keep using Chinese to replace English if no OCF was provided. In addition, it would help teachers and students to better understand students' current English level, as it would be straightforward to realize the areas in which students require Chinese.

In summary, different students held different views, and all error types were reported by different students during the interviews. Even though some students expressed their willingness to receive OCF of different spoken errors, they still reported their grammatical and lexical errors the most because they were included in the exam and these two factors were the areas in which they wished to improve the most.

Chi-square tests of independence were carried out to verify whether the differences in ratings between the attitudes of teachers and students pertaining to the linguistic foci of OCF were statistically significant. As Table 4.7 shows, there were indeed significant differences (indicated in bold) between the opinions of teachers and students concerning grammatical errors, pragmatical errors, and unsolicited use of L1. However, no significant differences were found for lexical and pronunciation errors. Generally, students had a higher desire to

correct grammatical errors, pragmatical errors, and unsolicited use of L1 errors in speaking than the teachers.

Table 4.7

Chi-square Test of Students' and Teachers' Beliefs Towards Linguistic Foci of OCF

	X ²	p-value
Grammatical error	21.874	0.000
Pronunciation error	3.132	0.536
Lexical error	7.098	0.131
Pragmatical error	21.138	0.000
Unsolicited use of L1	11.296	0.024

Regarding grammatical errors, more students believed it was "effective" and "very effective" to correct their grammatical errors than teachers and this was not surprising given that grammatical errors were students' first choice. This discrepancy might be because students gave greater value to their exam performance, and grammar was crucial to having an effective performance in the English exams. However, teachers concluded grammar was not a very influential factor when speaking because it might not influence understanding. For example, Tom said "If students use present tense when describing a thing (that) happened yesterday, I can still understand them, so it is unnecessary to provide OCF in that case." In addition, students were influenced by their past educational experience, which highlighted the importance of grammar. It also demonstrated that Chinese university teachers did not emphasize the importance of grammar as middle school or high school teachers did as they value fluency more than accuracy.

The other significant difference was the views of students and teachers on pragmatic errors and unsolicited use of L1. More students believed it was "effective" and "very effective" to correct their pragmatical errors and unsolicited use of L1 than teachers. Even though some students paid more attention to the form of their language expression, many

students still expressed the willingness to receive teachers' feedback on all of their mistakes in order to improve more. They wished to have their pragmatical errors corrected in order to speak more authentic English and they showed a stronger desire than teachers to correct their use of L1 in order to make improvements. However, teachers believed pragmatic issues were currently not part of the core learning target and some of the teachers stated that they could not guarantee that their OCF was authentic. Pragmatic issues had not been reported substantially in their language teaching progress, so a few were not fully familiar with the concept. Moreover, teachers maintained students' use of L1 could be solved once their pronunciatonal and lexical ability improved. Thus, they would put these two linguistic foci in the most important place.

There was no significant difference between their beliefs on pronunciation and lexical errors because both teachers and students believed these two factors would affect the delivery of meaning. Both teachers and students admitted pronunciation errors needed OCF because it was the most commonly occurring error type in the classroom and they believed pronunciation errors could lead to misunderstanding. Without appropriate pronunciation, others might not understand students' content. In addition, since pronunciation was not emphasized in the student's past educational experience, there was a need to improve this aspect when developing a student's speaking proficiency at the university level. In addition, both teachers and students gave lexical errors as their first or second choice because vocabulary was the most basic unit of composing content. They agreed that without vocabulary, it was difficult to deliver meaning. For students, they believed that vocabulary was also important for them to pass the exam.

4.2.3 Teachers' and Students' Beliefs Towards OCF Types

The teachers and students rated seven types of OCF on a scale of one to five, with one being the most negative and five being the most positive. Table 4.8 shows that the mean value of teachers' beliefs towards explicit correction, recast, metalinguistic, elicitation, and repetition methods was close to 4 (4 = effective), demonstrating that teachers and students welcomed the use of all these five OCF methods in their teaching. However, the mean value of clarification and non-verbal language methods is below 3 (3 = neither effective nor ineffective), indicating that teachers did not like to use gesture or body language to remind and correct students' oral errors, and they believed request students to reformulate their utterance as a reminder of errors was not an effective way. Also, it could be inferred that teachers who did not favor these two methods did not show much interest in them in English-speaking classes.

Here, elicitation ($M = 3.8$, $SD = 0.613$) ranked first by teachers, followed by repetition ($M = 3.6$, $SD = 0.775$), metalinguistic ($M = 3.6$, $SD = 0.848$), recast ($M = 3.59$, $SD = 0.729$), and explicit correction ($M = 3.49$, $SD = 0.796$). It can be inferred that teachers preferred to provide hints to students to help them complete their utterances, reformulate their utterances, or highlight the students' ill-formed utterances by raising their intonations. In other words, teachers prefer giving students a second chance to produce correct answers instead of directly providing the correct language form. The results have shown that teachers preferred using more implicit methods to provide students with OCF.

Table 4.8*Teachers' Beliefs Towards Different OCF Types (n = 85)*

Frequency(percent)							
Feedback Type	Not at all Effective	Ineffective	Neither Effective nor Effective	Effective	Very effective	Mean	Std. Deviation
Explicit correction	2(2.4%)	5(5.9%)	32(37.6%)	41(48.2%)	5(5.9%)	3.49	0.796
Recast	0(0%)	4(15.8%)	35(36.7%)	38(32.4%)	8(9.2%)	3.59	0.729
Clarification	5(5.9%)	23(27.1%)	32(37.6%)	24(28.2%)	1(1.2%)	2.92	0.916
Metalinguistic	2(2.4%)	7(8.2%)	21(24.7%)	48(56.5%)	7(8.2%)	3.60	0.848
Elicitation	0(0%)	1(1.2%)	23(27.1%)	53(62.4%)	8(9.4%)	3.80	0.613
Repetition	2(2.4%)	4(4.7%)	25(29.4%)	49(57.6%)	5(5.9%)	3.60	0.775
Non-verbal Language	12(14.1%)	24(28.2%)	28(32.9%)	19(22.4%)	2(2.4%)	2.71	1.045

Table 4.9*Teachers' Belief Towards Types of OCF and Reasons*

Participants	Implicit/Explicit	Reasons	Preferred Feedback Type	Reasons
Lucy	Implicit	Self-correction leads to more improvements/ deepen students' memory	Elicitation Metalinguistic	provide some clues and it drives students to self-correct
Lea	Implicit	Get more knowledge because there is a reflective process	Clarification Repetition	Make student to find out his problem
Christina	Implicit	Explicit OCF causes negative feelings/help them to identify where they are wrong	Elicitation Repetition	Protecting their feelings and confidence / encourage them to self-correct
May	Implicit	Quick to deliver/students can realize mistakes soon	Metalinguistic	Avoid negative feeling/ benefit whole class
Nancy	Implicit	Students have basic knowledge, and they don't need more explanation. Are for emotional feeling	Elicitation Repetition	Provide hints but still provide opportunities to self-correct
Tina	Implicit	Long term memory/teacher's responsibility	Elicitation Metalinguistic	Benefit the whole class, other students can reflect on this mistake/more hints
Tom	Implicit	Reflective process, long term memory. responsibility of a good teacher	Repetition Elicitation	Make student to find out his problems/if he cannot find his problem, elicitation provides more hints

Table 4.9 (continued)*Teachers' Belief Towards Types of OCF and Reasons*

Participants	Implicit/Explicit	Reasons	Preferred Feedback Type	Reasons
Vivian	Implicit	Deepen impression/avoid repeating the same mistakes in the future. Benefits the whole class	Elicitation Body language	Provide hints for students to self-correct. Find his own problem/ body language signals them to have a second try
Bob	Explicit	Quick to deliver/students can realize mistakes soon	Metalinguistic Explicit correction	Avoid negative feeling/ benefit whole class because there is more explanation
Lily	Implicit	Concerns about students' feeling	Metalinguistic Elicitation	Help students to locate their errors quickly

Table 4.9 presents the general information from interviews of teachers. In the interviews, most teachers (9/10) said that they preferred to use the implicit method because it was easy to provide OCF to students. According to the interview, four recurring themes were identified: firstly, it would help students to understand their errors and give them a chance to self-correct, leading to a deeper understanding. Teachers believed self-correction involved making students think more deeply about their errors and the target language form. For example, Lea said, "If you prompt students or guide them, they will get more knowledge because student will more the reflective process". Explicitly providing students with the correct answers cannot guarantee that students will consider their errors which cannot lead to long-term recall. For example, Tina said, "It is useless to tell students the answer directly because they will forget it in a short time."

Secondly, teachers' preferences for implicit OCF could be explained by their fear of 'demotivating' or 'embarrassing' students. The teachers were concerned that explicit feedback would hurt students' feelings and lead to them losing motivation to learn English. For example, Lily said, "I think it is very rude to treat students like that. If I do that, it will hurt students' feelings...If the teacher gives OCF directly, it gives students the feeling that they don't have the ability to correct it, and the students may not be able to accept it in their hearts. It will affect their mood and self-confidence."

Thirdly, guiding students could benefit other students in the classroom. For example, Vivian said, "If I emphasize the word 'yesterday,' the rest of the students will notice this error and realize that they should use past tense." If the teacher used implicit ways to provide OCF, the rest of the students in the classroom would also think about the teacher's feedback concerning the student's original mistake. Through this process, the rest of the students could learn from others' mistakes. On the contrary, if teachers provided explicit OCF, the rest of the students might not get involved in this reflective process.

Fourthly, two participants stated that guiding students to self-correct was the teacher's responsibility and a proxy of conscientiousness. Participant Tom stated that students liked the guidance and inspiration from teachers, and it was how students could improve. For example, Tom said that " In fact, teaching and educating people is a matter of conscience...Also, we all know that guiding student could produce better outcomes but is time-consuming. What you decide to do is entirely your teacher's spontaneous consciousness and willingness. To sum up, to strengthen teachers' willingness to devote themselves to education."

After the teachers expressed their beliefs about various OCF types, they provided a more in-depth discussion. The teachers expressed some tensions between their preferred feedback type and the reality of their teaching contexts. Before deciding which feedback type to give, teachers generally considered factors such as the classroom size, the time constraints, the student's personality, the student's language proficiency, the student's emotional state, etc. For example, Nancy believed the use of prompts to be effective, but she stated that recast was her most frequently used feedback type due to the time constraints within the class. Nancy's practical decision also depended on the students' personalities. She said, "If a boy is outgoing and not shy, I may say you are wrong, and directly provide OCF...It depends on the student's personality."

However, the mean score of clarification and non-verbal language was below 3, indicating that students using body language, facial expressions, and gestures to indicate their mistakes was not welcomed by most teachers in this current study because it was difficult for them to realize their errors. Teachers did not prefer body language mainly because it had unclear indications, which could trigger negative emotional responses in students. Even though clarification was a subtype of prompting, teachers believed it was difficult for students to react since no hint was included. For example, Catherine said, "If I provide the

student with a hint, what I am trying to remind him of would be too obvious. It would waste time, and this student couldn't reflect on anything."

Table 4.10 shows that, besides the clarification and non-verbal language methods, the mean values of students' beliefs towards recast, explicit correction, metalinguistic, elicitation, and repetition methods were beyond 3 (3 = neither effective nor ineffective). This demonstrates that students welcomed all five OCF methods. The mean value of non-verbal language was 3 (3 = neither effective nor ineffective), indicating that most students held a neutral attitude toward it.

Most students ranked explicit correction ($M = 3.74$, $SD = 0.951$) first followed by metalinguistic ($M = 3.62$, $SD = 0.992$), elicitation ($M = 3.52$, $SD = 0.964$), repetition ($M = 3.48$, $SD = 0.961$), and recast ($M = 3.23$, $SD = 1.019$). The highest mean value was an explicit correction, meaning most students preferred their teachers to directly offer them the correct form with grammatical explanations. The second highest feedback type was the metalinguistic method, indicating that students preferred teachers to provide information on their erroneous utterances without providing the correct form, as they would feel anxious without any clarification. It can be inferred that students prefer more explicit ways of providing OCF by their teachers because students expected a clear indication of where they committed errors and a detailed explanation of their actions. It can be inferred that students were used to relying on their teachers for the correct form and preferred their mistakes to be corrected as soon as possible. This explained why clarification and non-verbal feedback, which contain fewer hints regarding student errors, were not welcomed.

Table 4.10*Students' Beliefs Towards Different OCF Types (n=349)*

Frequency (percent)							
Feedback Type	Not at all Effective	Ineffective	Neither Effective nor Effective	Effective	Very Effective	Mean	Std. Deviation
Explicit correction	12(3.4%)	19(5.4%)	85(24.4%)	164(47%)	69(19.8%)	3.74	0.951
Recast	21(6.0%)	55(15.8%)	128(36.7%)	113(32.4%)	32(9.2%)	3.23	1.019
Clarification	42(12.0%)	71(20.3%)	119(34.1%)	90(25.8%)	27(7.7%)	2.97	1.120
Metalinguistic	17(4.9%)	22(6.3%)	96(27.5%)	157(45.0%)	57(16.3%)	3.62	0.992
Elicitation	13(3.7%)	31(8.9%)	115(33%)	142(40.7%)	48(13.8%)	3.52	0.964
Repetition	15(4.3%)	30(8.6%)	117(33.5%)	145(41.5%)	42(12.0%)	3.48	0.961
Body Language	38(10.9%)	70(20.1%)	124(35.5%)	88(25.2%)	29(8.3%)	3.00	1.106

Table 4.11*Students' Beliefs of the Types of OCF and Reasons from the Interview*

Participants	Implicit/Explicit	Reasons	Preferred OCF Types	Reasons
Rose	Explicit	Avoid embarrassment if cannot react on teachers' OCF	Metalinguistic Explicit correction	More metalinguistic information needed/ saving time/avoid embarrassment
Peter	Explicit	More explanations needed to realize the mistake faster	Metalinguistic Explicit correction	Depends on types of the error. Easy error-implicit/difficult errors-explicit because it is hard to realize and react on
Cathy	Implicit	Teachers' responsibility to guide students/deepen impression with self-reflective process	Elicitation Metalinguistic	More hints needed to locate the error and easier for students to self-correct
Mia	Explicit	More explanation makes students link it to her erroneous speech and thus promote reflective process	Explicit correction Metalinguistic	Easier to identifying errors/avoid embarrassment if cannot react on teachers' OCF
Catherine	Implicit	More attention to this problem in the future	Repetition Elicitation	More hints to guide student/better learning outcome
Molly	Explicit	Faster to understand where the errors are and how to improve	Explicit correction Metalinguistic	Depends on the difficulty of error Easy error-implicit/difficult error-explicit

Table 4.11 (continued)*Students' Beliefs of the Types of OCF and Reasons from the Interview*

Participants	Implicit/Explicit	Reasons	Preferred OCF Types	Reasons
Lisa	Explicit	Avoid embarrassment if cannot react on teachers' OCF	Metalinguistic Explicit correction	Locate errors faster, knows how to improve faster
Jim	Explicit	Timesaving/realize mistakes faster	Explicit correction Metalinguistic	Not wasting other students' time
Apple	Implicit	Bad feeling if it is explicit	Repetition Elicitation	If teacher repeat, students will know there is a mistake and student can do self-correction
Lulu	Implicit	More impressed	Elicitation Repetition	Have enough hints to locate error and self-correct
Wendy	Explicit	Hard to locate error/avoid embarrassment	Explicit correction only	Easy to know where the error is/ not wasting other students' time
Dora	Implicit	More attention to this problem in the future /deeper impression	Repetition Elicitation	More hints

Table 4.11 presents the general information from students' interviews. Analyses of the students' interview data were confirmed in the interviews, in which students preferred more explicit ways of providing OCF. Most students who took part in the interviews (7/12) reported preferring metalinguistic comments and explicit correction the most, and three recurring themes accounted for the reason. First, explicit corrections and metalinguistic comments contained metalinguistic information, which not only located their errors but gave them more explanations and clues to help them understand their errors quickly. For example, Cathy said, "Well, maybe tell me the grammar point such as 'What should we say when we talk about the past?' If the teacher does not give me any clue but just says 'Pardon?', I may not realize what I did wrong." In the students' beliefs, implicit OCF might not straightforwardly help them locate their errors, and they expected teachers to help them locate their errors and explain why they made such errors directly.

Second, students believed that explicit OCF could help them to avoid embarrassment in front of the class. Students seemed to worry about their ability to appropriately react to the teacher's implicit correction, especially when they did not understand their mistakes. For example, Wendy said, "If I don't know how to say something, and my teacher keeps guiding me, I will feel embarrassed because I still don't know how to correct it. I hope the teacher will take the initiative to tell us." For her, it would be embarrassing to stand up and not respond to the teacher's OCF, and thus she preferred the teacher to take the initiative to provide correct answers with explanations.

Third, students worried that implicit OCF would influence the teacher's teaching progress and waste other students' time. Students believed implicit OCF would take longer because it included students' reflective processes. However, explicit OCF was not time-consuming because teachers would explain the errors and reasons directly, and students would not feel guilty about using the class time to correct their mistakes.

After the students were given examples of various OCF types to discuss, they provided more in-depth comments regarding their preferences for feedback types. Although students preferred their teachers to provide explicit correction, many admitted the advantages of implicit OCF as it could deepen their understanding of their mistakes because there was a self-thinking process, which improved long-term memory. In the interview, three students believed implicit OCF was more welcomed, and this was due to two reasons.

First, it was believed that implicit OCF provided them with opportunities to think about their errors, and they believed that this would generate more permanent learning outcomes. However, they deemed explicit OCF could only result in short-term memory. For example, participant May said, "I prefer my teacher to be indirect because when the teacher points out my mistakes, I will think about it myself, and there will be a thinking process. If the teacher directly tells me that I am wrong and provides me with the correct answer, I may be wrong this time, and I may make this mistake again next time, and I might not have an understanding of this mistake."

Second, two out of 12 students stated that explicit OCF would negatively affect their feelings and confidence to speak English. For example, participant Apple stated that explicit OCF such as "No, you are wrong" would be humiliating and that she would feel embarrassed in front of the class. However, implicit OCF sounds more objective, and the language use was not as harsh as explicit OCF.

When considering the types of implicit OCF, three out of 12 learners found elicitation highly useful. Students stated that elicitation would lead to longer-term memory since it made them think and self-correct their errors, and this type of feedback would help them solve the problem step by step, which would deepen their understanding. Unlike other implicit OCF types, elicitation contained more hints to better remind students of their errors. One participant believed that elicitation made it possible for her to remember the language rules

she had forgotten. In addition, repetition was useful because it provided more hints to students to find their errors by stressing the intonation shift on the error.

When considering clarification, students did not find this form of corrective feedback useful because it was confusing, and they might think that their teachers could not hear what they said. In addition, this feedback type was not explanatory, and students might not understand the error. In addition, students did not favor body language because it would be difficult for them to locate their errors, and it was seen as a disrespectful and impolite sign. Last, recast was not seen as effective because students maintained only hearing the correct form would not be enough to understand their errors. Moreover, students expected answers which contained more metalinguistic information.

However, although some students admitted implicit OCF was more beneficial to their language learning, they still expected direct and explicit OCF from their teachers. It might be because Chinese students lacked opportunities to practice oral English and were not confident about their ability to understand and react to teachers' OCF prompts. This accounts for why students more welcomed explicit OCF.

Students further explained that the difficulties of the error would influence their preference toward different OCF types. For example, participant Peter stated that if the mistake was easy to understand and correct, he preferred implicit OCF since he could self-correct under teacher guidance. However, he would expect explicit OCF if the mistake was difficult since he might not be able to realize it and correct it. The chi-square test of independence was used to test whether there were statistically significant differences between teachers' and students' ratings of various types of OCF. According to Table 4.12, teachers' and students' opinions concerning the explicit correction, recast, and elicitation differed significantly (indicated in bold), while no significant differences were found for the other types of errors.

Table 4.12*Chi-Square Test About Students' and Teachers' Beliefs Regarding Types of OCF*

	X^2	P Value
Explicit correction	12.508	0.014
Recast	14.616	0.006
Clarification	8.774	0.067
Metalinguistic	6.518	0.164
Elicitation	17.557	0.020
Repetition	8.686	0.069
Non-verbal Language	6.482	0.164

The students favored explicit correction as the percentage of teachers who regarded explicit correction as "effective" or "very effective" is lower than students. This demonstrated that explicit correction was more popular among students because they expected clear and straightforward indications of their errors. This was because students preferred receiving more metalinguistic information on their errors, and they liked to avoid embarrassment in the class if they could not react to teachers' OCF.

However, teachers were more concerned about students' negative emotions, and they believed that guiding students to produce the correct language form was more beneficial for their long-term learning outcomes due to the benefits of deepening students' understanding of their mistakes. Interestingly, teachers stated explicit OCF would cause students' negative feelings because it was a form of negation. However, students believed explicit OCF protected their feelings since they worried they could not react to teachers' implicit OCF.

The other significant difference was regarding elicitation. It can be inferred that elicitation was the teachers' most popular feedback type, but it ranked third for students. During elicitations, teachers typically used a hint/keyword to guide students toward finishing

the rest of the utterances. Most teachers said that using a keyword would indirectly indicate the area of a mistake, but the students thought this kind of hint lacked directness.

The third significant difference was recast, and the percentage of teachers who believed recast was "effective" or "very effective" was more than students. This discrepancy might be because teachers used recast more frequently in the classroom as it was faster and more convenient to deliver. However, most students assumed it was not that useful because it did not include any metalinguistic information, and directly throwing out the correct answer might not lead to long-term remembering.

Overall, the findings revealed that the teachers had different views from their students regarding OCF types, with teachers preferring more implicit ways of providing OCF, but most students preferring explicit ways. The main reason for this was that teachers believed students could benefit more from self-correcting their erroneous utterances, and they worried about the negative effect of demotivating or embarrassing students if explicit OCF was provided. However, students trusted explicit OCF could help them locate their errors sooner and expected more straightforward guidance. In addition, students expressed that they would not be demotivated by explicit OCF.

4.2.4 Teachers' and Students' Beliefs Towards Feedback Timing

This section elicited teachers' beliefs about the effectiveness of the four different timings in correcting learners' oral production errors. The category comprised four items: (1) immediately after errors occur even if it interrupts oral production; (2) right at the end of students' oral production; (3) after the activities end; and (4) after class.

Table 4.13 shows the teachers' beliefs towards OCF timings regarding whether oral error corrections should be provided immediately or delayed until the pedagogical activity is completed. In this current study, both the options of "immediately" and "after student's oral

production" were classified into "immediate feedback," and the options of "after the activities" and "at the end of class" were classified into "delayed feedback."

As shown in Table 4.13, the teachers believed that feedback should be provided after students finished speaking or at the end of the teaching activity since the results explicitly show that the highest mean value was "right at the end of student's production" (Mean = 3.74; SD = 0.758). This indicated that most teachers would like to provide OCF shortly after (not immediately after) students' oral errors were committed. The option "after the activities end" received the second highest mean value (M = 3.51; SD = 0.854). Thus, it indicated that teachers admitted providing OCF after speaking activities was reasonable. However, as a form of immediate OCF, the option "immediately after errors occur even if it interrupts oral production" received the lowest mean (M = 2.73; SD = 0.697), indicating that although teachers preferred to provide timely OCF, they disliked interrupting students in the middle of speaking.

Table 4.13*Teachers' Beliefs Towards Timing of Feedback (n = 85)*

Frequency (percent)							
Timing of Feedback	Not at all Effective	Ineffective	Neither Effective nor Effective	Effective	Very effective	Mean	Std. Deviation
Immediately after errors occur, even cause interruption	4(4.7%)	23(27.1%)	50(58.8%)	8(9.4%)	(0.0%)	2.73	0.697
At the end of oral production	1(1.2%)	2(2.4%)	26(30.6%)	45(52.9%)	11(12.9%)	3.74	0.758
After the activity ends	3(3.5%)	5(5.9%)	29(34.1%)	42(49.4%)	6(7.1%)	3.51	0.854
At the conclusion of class	7(8.2%)	10(11.8%)	29(34.1%)	33(38.8%)	6(7.1%)	3.25	1.034

Table 4.14*Teachers' Beliefs Towards Timing of Feedback and Reasons from the Questionnaire*

Participant	Immediate/delayed	More explanations
Lucy	Immediate, but after finishing oral production	Immediate but after student's oral production for not affect emotional feeling and flow of communication. / Based on activity types. Delayed OCF for group activity
Lea	Immediate- immediate interruption	Timely reminder can benefit students to the most extent. Students easily forget what they just said with delayed OCF
Christina	Immediately but after finishing oral production	Maintain communication and thinking flow, manner
May	Immediately but after finishing oral production	Keep the communication flow. but it depended on the length of the oral production. Might interrupt in the middle if the oral production is too long.
Nancy	Immediately-depends on the number of errors	Interrupt students in the middle if there are too many mistakes because errors would be forgot after oral production ends.
Tina	Immediate after finishing oral production	Delayed OCF was not ideal because teachers would forget mistakes students make/ not effective
Tom	Immediately, but after finishing oral production	Keep the communication flow, and the integrity of meaning.
Vivian	Immediate, but after finishing oral production	Keep the integrity of speech, not interrupting students' thinking, protecting their emotional feeling and confidence.

Table 4.14 (continued)*Teachers' Beliefs Towards Timing of Feedback and Reasons from the Questionnaire*

Participant	Immediate/delayed	More explanations
Bob	Immediately, but after finishing oral production	Protect courage and emotional feeling
Lily	Immediately, but after finishing oral production	Manner. Protecting emotional feeling

Table.14 presents the information collected from teachers' interviews. Regarding the teachers' interviews about feedback timing, most participants (9/10) disagreed with providing OCF immediately after students' errors because it interrupted students' thoughts and the flow of speech. For example, Christina said, "Students' thoughts will be inconsistent. If you suddenly interrupt them, maybe his idea will be interrupted." In other words, immediate feedback might make students forget their original purpose in speaking and their ideas. If it is in a group activity, interrupting one student's speaking might influence the integrity of the activity.

In addition, interrupting a student's speech in the middle could bring negative feelings and discourage the student's future participation in classroom learning. Some participants stated that not interrupting others when speaking was good manners, and people should conform to this because it was related to politeness and respect. For example, Vivian said, "The most important thing is to let him express his view consistently. Don't interrupt him because he may miss the point if you interrupt. He cannot find what he should continue to say, and the teacher may hurt his confidence at this moment, and he might be unwilling to express." Therefore, from the teachers' perspective, providing OCF after students finish speaking should be their teaching principle.

Teachers did not highly value delayed OCF. Even though teachers disliked interrupting students when speaking, as the other form of immediate OCF, most preferred to provide OCF right after students finished speaking. If teachers provided OCF after the activity or at the end of class, some teachers worried that the time interval was too long, and both teachers and students might forget the mistakes. For example, Christina said, "If I provide OCF at the end of class, students' attention may not be so focused because they might forget what they just said."

Through deeper discussion, the teachers also considered that OCF timing was related to students' study aims. For example, Lea claimed that immediate feedback was better than delayed feedback since oral English was not included in the standard test, and she would rather use the immediate way to save time because the student's main aim was to pass the exam. Some participants commented that students' proficiency levels might be an influential factor. If they continuously made mistakes, it would be difficult for teachers to remember and reflect on students' oral errors. Teachers might provide OCF immediately after students' oral errors in this situation. Some teachers believed that the timing was related to the activity type. If the activity involved interaction between the teacher and the student, teachers would provide OCF after the students spoke. However, if it were a group activity such as a presentation, teachers would provide OCF after the activity ends to protect its integrity.

This section elicited students' beliefs about the effectiveness of the four different timings regarding the provision of OCF. As shown in Table 4.15, the students generally preferred immediate feedback to delayed feedback because the option "At the end of oral production" received the highest mean ($M = 3.83$; $SD = 0.904$). A high percentage of respondents (75%) expressed that correcting their oral errors shortly after they occurred (not immediately) was the most effective and the most welcomed feedback timing by students. However, the option "immediately after errors occur even if it interrupts oral production" received the lowest mean ($M = 2.88$; $SD = 1.041$). It could be inferred that although students preferred more immediate OCF, they disliked being interrupted in the middle of their speech. The mean value of the other two options, "after the activities end" and "at the end of class," was around 3 (3 = neither effective nor ineffective), indicating that students did not highly value these two types of timing.

Table 4.15*Students' Beliefs Towards Timing of Feedback (n = 349)*

Timing of Feedback	Not at all Effective	Ineffective	Frequency (percent)			Mean	Std. Deviation
			Neither Effective nor Effective	Effective	Very effective		
Immediately after errors occur, even causing interruption	44(12.6%)	60(17.2%)	159(45.6%)	66(18.9%)	20(5.7%)	2.88	1.041
At the end of oral production	12(3.4%)	13(3.7%)	67(19.2%)	189(54.2%)	68(19.5%)	3.83	0.904
After students' oral activities are concluded	14(4.0%)	39(11.2%)	117(33.5%)	136(39.0%)	43(12.3%)	3.44	0.980
At the conclusion of class	28(8.0%)	32(9.2%)	121(34.7%)	125(35.8%)	43(12.3%)	3.35	1.069

Table 4.16*Students' Beliefs Towards the Timing of OCF and Reasons from the Interview*

Participant	Immediate/Delayed	More Explanations
Rose	Delayed	Mistakes might be made by accident. Teachers should wait to see if the same occurs again during the speaking activity. If it does not occur again, no need to provide OCF.
Peter	Delayed	Delayed OCF is more like a summary, which will make the impression deeper
Cathy	Immediately but after finishing oral production	Bring nervous if immediate interrupt, interrupt communication flow. It is difficult to recall memory with delayed OCF. but prefer delayed OCF-group activity
Mia	Immediately but after finishing oral production	Keep the communication flow. "Too immediate"OCF cause anxious.
Catherine	Immediately-but after finishing oral production.	"Too soon" OCF interrupt thought. get comprehensive OCF. But it depends on the activity types. Delayed OCF would be better-group activity.
Molly	Immediate after finishing oral production	"Too immediate"OCF causes anxious and interrupt thinking
Lisa	Immediately after the occurrence of the error	Realize the mistake immediately. This led to deeper memory
Jim	Immediate, but after finishing oral production	Keep the integrity of speech, not interrupting communication flow, not causing anxious. But delayed OCF for group activity.

Table 4.16 (continued)*Students' Beliefs Towards the Timing of OCF and Reasons from the Interview*

Participant	Immediate/Delayed	More Explanations
Apple	Delayed	Not wasting class time. Summarizing the typical errors later benefit the whole class.
Lulu	Immediately, but after finishing oral production	Delayed OCF will make students forget their initial utterance. "too immediate" OCF would interrupt thinking, and causing negative feeling.
Wendy	Immediately, but after finishing oral production	not causing anxious. Showing respect to students/good quality of a teacher/
Dora	Immediately, but after finishing oral production	Cause anxious if it is too "immediate" Prefer delayed OCF-group activity

In the interviews, most students reported that they would not like their teachers to interfere while they were speaking, and the students noted that they wanted to be corrected after completing their utterances. The most important reason was that it would interrupt their thinking and the flow of communication, and it would make students experience negative feelings having an adverse effect on their confidence to speak English in the future. For instance, Wendy said: "Because once the teacher interrupts me, I might be more nervous because I knew I was wrong, and my thought would be interrupted, and my language and thinking will become incoherent". Mia also said "Oh, I hope he can give me feedback after I finish my speech because if the teacher interrupts me, I may forget what I want to say next, I will be quite nervous if I am in front of the class or communicate with the teacher."

When students were interrupted, they would feel nervous in front of the class, which might cause them to forget the ideas they wanted to express. Some students even said they would be afraid to continue speaking or lose confidence in speaking English. In addition, not interrupting students' speeches was a prerequisite to becoming a good teacher because it showed the teacher's seriousness, respect, and patient attitude toward their students. For example, Wendy said, "I think if the teacher can finish listening to me and write down my mistakes, I will think he is a good teacher, very serious, listening carefully to others, and a patient teacher."

Most students (9/12) said they would like to receive immediate OCF (OCF after they finished their utterance) and elaborated on their preferences for feedback timing. Typically, students considered that OCF after their oral production could help them realize their errors immediately, and delayed OCF would allow them to forget what they said or what errors they made. Some examples are listed below:

"If he interrupts directly, I can immediately know where my mistakes are." (Jim)

"I may not remember what I just said, and there will be a feeling that my memory will stagnate." (Cathy)

"I am sure the shorter the interval is, the better the outcome is...if the interval is too long, the teacher may only remember some key points and ignore other detail(s)." (Wendy)

Delayed OCF, especially OCF provided at the end of class, might mean that students would not concentrate and would be more easily distracted when the class was almost over, as they might be thinking about their activities after the class. For example, participant Lulu said, "To be honest, for example, if I want to eat or do something in a hurry, I may not care about the teacher's OCF." It can be inferred that the students also considered the ideal OCF timing to be different with different activity types. For example, students believed delayed OCF was more effective in the case of group activities because it would avoid the interruption of the flow of the activity. In addition, the interruption could cause stress to other participants, resulting in poor activity performance. For example, Mia said, "If he interrupts me, the following students may be more nervous and lose confidence to continue speaking and show the result of their preparation." In this case, students believed immediate feedback was more effective in one-on-one activities.

Table 4.17 presents the finding of the match and mismatch between teachers' and students' beliefs towards the timing of OCF. Based on the chi-square test results, one significant difference regarding providing OCF was "immediately after the occurrence of mistakes." More student participants selected the choice "effective" and "very effective" than teacher participants did. The mean value of students' attitude (Mean = 2.88, SD = 1.041) is higher than that of teachers (Mean = 2.73, SD = 0.697), and the percentage of students selecting "effective" and "very effective" was higher than that of teachers. It can be inferred that more students agreed that immediately correcting students' oral mistakes was effective.

The results of the other three items show that teachers and students shared a common view, and no significant difference can be found in the attitudes of teachers and students.

Table 4.17

Chi-Square Students' and Teachers' Beliefs Towards Timing of OCF

	χ^2	<i>P</i> -value
Immediately after the occurrence of mistakes	18.324	0.001
After students' oral production is completed	7.305	0.121
After students' oral activities are concluded	5.430	0.246
At the conclusion of class	2.332	0.675

The reason for this difference might be that students might be concerned that they would forget what they said if they received delayed feedback, and immediate feedback gave them timely feedback. Moreover, teachers might be more concerned about students' emotional responses believing that immediate interruption would decrease students' enthusiasm for speaking, and they regard it as disrespectful behavior.

4.3 Answer Relevant to Research Question 2 (How do Chinese EFL students and Chinese EFL teachers differ in their perceptions toward students' affective responses to OCF?)

RQ2 investigated students' emotional responses, how teachers perceive and anticipate students' emotional responses, and the mismatch between their beliefs. Table 4.18 presents the findings of how students feel when they are provided with OCF, and the result showed that students expressed their feelings towards OCF in a very positive light. Most students responded that they were sometimes (36.1%), often (18.1%) or always (6%) happy to receive OCF, and a clear majority indicated that they were sometimes (40.1%), often (33.9%) or always (10.9%) grateful for their teachers' OCF. On the other hand, most students answered

that they rarely or never experienced negative emotional responses to corrections. For example, it has been shown that over 60% of students never (19.2%) or rarely (45.8%) felt frustrated, and never (12.6%) or rarely (41.5%) felt embarrassed. It can be inferred that teacher's OCF will not bring students negative feelings.

Around half of the students reported that they would never (14.9%) or rarely (35.2) feel bad about their English-speaking skills, and over 60% of them said that they would never (24.9%) or rarely (39.0%) be inhibited and unwilling to speak English in the future. It can be inferred that most OCF will not negatively impact students' motivation and enthusiasm to learn and speak English. The overall result indicates that most students were not feeling negative about their teacher's OCF, and they did not believe OCF would negatively impact their learning of English.

Table 4.18*Students' Feeling when They Receive OCF (n = 349))*

Students' feeling	Frequency(percent)					Mean	Std. deviation
	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always		
Happy	21(6%)	118(33.8%)	126(36.1%)	63(18.1%)	21(6.0%)	2.84	0.989
Frustrated	67(19.2%)	160(45.8%)	79(22.6%)	36(10.3%)	7(2.0%)	2.30	0.961
Embarrassed	44(12.6%)	145(41.5%)	94(26.9%)	52(14.9%)	14(4.0%)	2.56	1.020
Grateful	16(4.6%)	75(21.5%)	140(40.1%)	80(33.9%)	38(10.9%)	3.14	1.023
Freeze-up	58(18.8%)	154(44.1%)	92(28.4%)	35(10%)	10(2.9%)	2.38	0.972
Feel bad because they speak English very badly	52(14.9%)	123(35.2%)	113(32.4%)	44(12.6%)	17(4.9%)	2.57	1.044
Speak less English in the future	87(24.9%)	138(39.5%)	73(20.9%)	38(10.9%)	13(3.7%)	2.29	1.072

These beliefs were confirmed in the students' interviews. Most of the students who participated in the interviews (9/12) showed positive feelings towards teachers' OCF, believing it would facilitate their English learning and reinforce their confidence. Students believed teachers' OCF could facilitate their language learning and was also a sign of teachers trusting their capabilities to improve. Because of this, students were delighted when they received attention from teachers. For example, Cathy said "First, it proves that the teacher is listening to me carefully. Second, the teacher also thinks that I have the ability to solve this problem and that I can do better. Then, from my point of view, if the teacher points out these problems, I can really improve my English." (Cathy)

Three out of 12 participants stated that their feelings would depend on how teachers provided OCF and the level of students' preparation. Students said they would experience negative feelings if the teachers used a negative tone to offer feedback. For example, Apple said, "If the teacher uses straightforward ways to correct me, or it's a little emotional, and it's accusing, I may be unhappy, and it will hurt my confidence. If he can point it out to me fairly and objectively, I think it is no problem." Thus, teachers might take note of how they provide OCF.

Table 4.19*How Teachers Anticipate Students' Emotional Responses (n = 85)*

Students' feeling	Frequency(percent)					Mean	Std. deviation
	Never	Rarely	Often	Usually	Always		
Happy	13(15.3%)	53(62.4%)	11(12.9%)	8(9.4%)	0(0.0%)	2.16	0.800
Frustrated	3(3.5%)	26(30.6%)	34(40.0%)	16(18.8%)	6(7.1%)	2.95	0.962
Embarrassed	15(12.6%)	0(0.0%)	38(44.7%)	24(28.2%)	8(9.4%)	3.29	0.870
Grateful	3(3.5%)	46(54.1%)	24(28.2%)	11(12.9%)	1(1.2%)	2.54	0.810
Freeze-up	3(3.5%)	42(49.4%)	23(27.1%)	12(14.1%)	5(5.9%)	2.69	0.964
They feel bad because they speak English very badly.	2(2.4%)	30(35.3%)	28(32.9%)	18(21.2%)	7(8.2)	2.98	1.000
They will speak less English in class in the future	5(5.9%)	34(40.0%)	22(25.9%)	21(24.7%)	3(3.5%)	2.80	0.998

However,, as shown in Table 4.19, most teachers (N = 66, 77.7%) expressed that their students rarely or never feel happy to receive OCF from their teachers, and most teachers (N = 49, 57%) believed that students were never or rarely grateful to receive OCF. On the other hand, most teachers answered that their students often, usually or always experienced negative emotional responses to corrections. For instance, Table 4.19 showed that the majority of teacher participants held that their students would often (40%), usually (18.8%) or always (7.1%) feel frustrated on receiving OCF, and most participants stated that their students would often (44.7%), usually (28.2%) or always (9.4%) feel embarrassed on receiving OCF.

Moreover, teachers maintained OCF would damage students' confidence in learning English. Around half of the teachers felt that students' confidence and motivation to speak English would be negatively affected because they would feel bad about their language skills and might be unwilling to speak English in the future. Generally, teachers were not pleased with how students felt about OCF and believed it would negatively affect their English learning. Thus, it can be inferred that most teachers thought their students were unwilling to receive OCF from their teachers, and OCF may result in students' negative emotional feelings and influence their future language learning.

Most interviewed teacher participants (8/10) said that OCF would bring some negative feelings to their students as they could see their students become nervous or embarrassed, and some teachers worried that their OCF would damage students' confidence to speak English in the future. Some examples are listed below:

"In terms of their facial expression, I feel that they are between a little embarrassed and the hope of being corrected. because my tone of voice is not so strong, I just give them a suggestion. At the same time, I also encouraged them, and they can agree on my correction. But the expression still looked embarrassed." (May)

" Well, a lot students may be nervous, that is, they are like, why do you call my name, this kind of emotion. Of course, some students may have no special emotions when I call them to answer questions. Maybe they are ready. " (Vivian).

Most participants (9/10) stated that they would consider students' emotional responses before providing OCF in order not to demotivate students' self-esteem and motivation to speak English. Even though students may have negative emotional responses when provided with OCF, teachers purposefully paid attention to how they provided feedback to avoid students feeling rebellious towards OCF. A few participants (3/10) pointed out that their students generally reacted positively to OCF and did not refer to negative feelings. For example, Bob said, "I think they should be very grateful for this because Chinese students are very modest."

Table 4.20 displayed the match and mismatch between students' emotional responses when they were provided with OCF, and how teachers anticipate their students' emotional reactions.

Table 4.20*Chi-square Test of Teachers' Anticipation and Students' Emotional Response to OCF*

	X^2	<i>P VALUE</i>
Happy	41.491	0.000
Frustrated	31.988	0.000
Embarrassed	54.564	0.000
Grateful	39.248	0.000
Freeze up	11.623	0.020
Speak Badly	13.567	0.009
Inhibited	22.077	0.000

Regarding the differences between the teachers and students, the results of the independence chi-square tests showed significant differences (indicated in bold) for all of the items. The teacher and student questionnaires indicated that teachers believed their students were unappreciative and unhappy when they received OCF, while most students expressed their willingness and positive reactions to receiving OCF from the teacher.

Moreover, most teachers thought their OCF would lead to students' negative feelings, such as embarrassment and frustration. However, most students said they rarely or never had negative emotional responses due to teachers' OCF. In addition, most teachers supposed that OCF would damage students' confidence and inhibit their motivation to learn English in the future. However, most students indicated that there would be no negative influence on their motivation and confidence.

The overall results showed that students felt positive about the teacher's OCF and believed it would not have negative impacts. The results have also shown that most students were happy or grateful and rarely or never reported experiencing negative feelings because of being corrected. The problem arises from teachers worrying too much about their students'

psychological health and emotional responses when most students see OCF as a positive sign of support and care from their teachers, which benefits their future learning.

4.4 Answer relevant to Research Question 3 (What challenges/concerns do teachers and students have towards oral corrective feedback?)

This section addresses the research question 3. Teachers' and students' beliefs towards the factors which influence OCF practices are discussed.

4.4.1 Teachers' Beliefs Towards the Factors Affecting Teachers' OCF Practice

To investigate Research Question 3, the teacher participants were required to evaluate the extent to which different factors would affect OCF practice. The results are listed in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21*Factors Affecting Teachers' OCF Practice (n = 85)*

	Not at all important	Not important	Neither important nor unimportant	Frequency (percent)		Mean	Std. deviation
				Important	Very important		
Students' English Level	2(2.4%)	10(11.8%)	32(37.6%)	25(29.4%)	16(18.8%)	3.51	1.007
Students' personality	3(3.5%)	8(9.4%)	39(45.9%)	28(32.9%)	7(8.2%)	3.33	0.892
Classroom size	3(3.5%)	7(8.2%)	35(41.2%)	23(27.1%)	17(20%)	3.52	1.019
Time constraints	0(0.0%)	12(14.1%)	35(41.2%)	22(25.9%)	16(18.8%)	3.49	0.959
Personal relationship	20(23.5%)	26(30.6%)	29(34.1%)	10(11.8%)	0(0.0%)	2.34	0.970
Motivation	4(4.7%)	10(11.8%)	38(44.7%)	28(32.9%)	5(5.9%)	3.24	0.908
Not included in the CET test	1(1.2%)	19(22.4%)	30(35.3%)	26(30.6%)	9(10.6%)	3.27	0.968

Table 4.21 shows that, besides the student-teacher relationship and the lack of professional knowledge regarding the provision of OCF, the mean value of teachers' beliefs about students' language proficiency, personality, classroom size, time constraint, students' motivation, and lack of inclusion in standard tests was more than 3 (3 = neither important nor unimportant). This demonstrated that most teachers saw these six factors as influential in their OCF practice. The teachers' opinions of affecting factors of OCF were complicated, and they were concerned about providing CF on their students' oral errors.

Classroom size ($M = 3.52$; $SD = 1.019$) was ranked first by teachers, followed by students' language proficiency ($M = 3.51$, $SD = 1.007$), time constraints ($M = 3.49$, $SD = 0.959$), students' personalities ($M = 3.33$, $SD = 0.892$), not included in the CET test ($M = 3.27$, $SD = 0.968$), and motivation ($M = 3.24$, $SD = 0.908$). The reason will be elicited in the interview.

In the interview, all ten teachers indicated that there were around 40 students on average in their classrooms, and teachers could not take every student into account. For example, Christina said, "Well, if there are many students, the amount of feedback you can offer is limited. There will be a limitation: you can't take care of everyone". - Most teachers felt their classroom numbers were too large to provide individual students with timely, targeted, and detailed feedback. Participants also noted that a large classroom size was unsuitable for communicative activities. For example, if teachers conducted a group communication activity, it was difficult for teachers to trace students' utterances because there were too many students. Even though most teachers focused more on fluency than the accuracy of students' English, they could not provide many communication opportunities for students to do speaking activities.

Eight out of 12 of the teachers reported that their students' proficiency levels were relatively low, which would influence their OCF practice and experience, and it might be

because students' past learning experience rarely provided them with opportunities to practice English speaking. Teachers complained that sometimes they were hard to provide students with OCF because their students' English proficiency level was too low to form a complete utterance. In cases where a student's English proficiency is low, the teacher might also have difficulty providing OCF if there are too many errors since this may hurt the student's feelings and confidence. For example, teacher Christina expressed her dilemma: "I can't say that he does everything wrong, as it will hurt his heart...However, if he makes too many mistakes... I can't say he is correct, either. It is very difficult and requires teachers to think a lot."

Moreover, fewer interactions might occur during the OCF process for students with lower proficiency since they might not understand their teachers' feedback. For example, participants Lily said "Because I think the level is too low, it is difficult to have an effective communication with students. If student can't get the point you said, then you have to go from indirect feedback to direct feedback. If the student cannot understand teachers' feedback, and then the whole class may say the correct answer and remind this student together. and this student will feel more embarrassed and feel that his peers know the correct answer, but I don't know." Providing OCF without interaction with students would result in a decrease in teachers' enthusiasm and a decrease in their motivation to provide OCF. Since high school and middle school in China emphasized more grammatical accuracy, students' speaking ability was neglected, which caused more difficulties for university teachers to provide OCF.

All 10 participants trusted that time constraints were challenging because they could not provide students with sufficient OCF. Based on information from the interviews, the average length of one session was around 40-50 minutes. If an English class contained two sessions per week, then there would be a high level of time pressure on the teachers, and

teachers would have to reduce the amount of feedback, as they might not have the time to focus on individual students because they had to consider their teaching progress. For example, Tina said, "I will spend time on more typical errors made by a majority, and I will not target at an individual. You do not have enough time to care about everyone". In addition, since most universities only offer two English classes per week, some teachers intentionally decreased the time for speaking activities because they needed to spend time teaching the textbook.

Four out of ten of the teachers believed students' self-motivation would affect their OCF practice because it would determine students' attitudes toward learning oral English, and it would further influence students' perception regarding their reaction to teachers' OCF. Students who are unmotivated to practice oral English would not listen carefully to teachers' OCF and might react negatively. These teachers complained about their students' motivation, and they held providing OCF to a student would be useless if he/she did not value oral English. For example, teacher May stated: "If he said he did not want to practice his oral English, no matter what you do, he would feel very unbearable, and he would think you were embarrassing him." Participants explained that students' low motivation might be because they regarded oral English was useless in their future careers and would not care about it and teachers' OCF.

Three out of ten of the teachers suggested that students' personalities would affect their OCF choices. For example, Vivian said, "Some students may not be very afraid of making mistakes and saying incorrect answers in front of the class, and they may have a higher degree of participation." If a student is primarily extroverted, then the teacher would be more likely to give them greater feedback since the teacher would be less concerned about their emotional state. On the contrary, teachers said they would be more careful in providing OCF if the students were more introverted because, as Lily said, "Introverted students are

more likely to be embarrassed." Students with more extroverted personalities might not be afraid of making mistakes, and teachers would be less selective when providing them with OCF.

Three out of ten of the participants believed that the other factor affecting teachers' OCF practice was that oral English was not included in the CET tests. Regarding teachers, since teaching oral English was not included in their teaching objectives, some did not offer many oral activities in the class or emphasize English oral ability.

They might consciously or unconsciously spend meaningful time teaching exam strategies and ignoring students' oral mistakes. Moreover, this would decrease the students' enthusiasm to learn oral English, resulting in them not caring about teachers' OCF. In addition, it might influence students' motivation to practice oral English and learn from teachers' OCF.

In addition, nine out of ten of the participants maintained that teacher-student relationships did not play an important role and would not affect their OCF practice because a high-quality teacher should treat students objectively, and they should provide OCF no matter what their relationships were. Moreover, some teachers expressed that they only had two English classes per week, which kept them from developing deeper relationships with their students.

When asking about the improvements teachers hoped to make in the area of provision of OCF, their responses could be categorized into four areas. Firstly, teachers might need more professional knowledge on providing OCF. Seven out of ten teachers were not confident in their professional knowledge to provide students with OCF and did not express confidence in their knowledge and capability for providing OCF. Teachers reported that they rarely considered this topic before participating in this survey and hoped that more teacher training opportunities could be provided to them.

Secondly, related departments should consider including English speaking in the standard test such as CET because many students are exam-driven, so it would encourage students to practice English speaking. For example, Lea said, "Students knew their task is to pass the exam. Not only the written test but also the oral test, and they would treat oral English more carefully if it was included in the exam. Once students were more motivated to improve their oral English, they would pay more attention to teachers' OCF."

Thirdly, it would be better if the class time could be longer, and the class sizes could be smaller. Many teachers complained that they lacked the time and energy to provide detailed OCF to individual students within a limited time and among many students. Fourthly, some teachers suggested universities hire more teachers from English-speaking countries because their oral English would be authentic. Chinese English teachers were still second-language learners and might be unable to provide the most appropriate native-style English, including the OCF.

4.4.2 Students' Beliefs Towards the Factors Affecting OCF Practice

To investigate students' beliefs towards research question 3, the student participants were required to evaluate the extent to which different factors would affect OCF practice. The results are listed in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22*Factors Affecting Students' OCF Experience (n = 349)*

	Frequency (percent)					Mean	Std. deviation
	Not at all important	Not important	Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very important		
English level	28(8.0%)	92(26.4%)	128(36.7%)	64(18.3%)	37(10.6%)	2.97	1.093
Students' personality	36(10.3%)	99(28.4%)	122(35%)	67(19.2%)	25(7.2%)	2.85	1.074
Classroom size	48(13.8%)	116(33.2%)	109(31.2%)	57(16.3%)	19(5.4%)	2.66	1.022
Time constraints	59(16.9%)	124(35.5%)	113(32.4%)	40(11.5%)	13(3.7%)	2.50	1.100
Personal relationship	113(32.4%)	99(28.4%)	85(24.4%)	45(12.9%)	7(2.0%)	2.24	1.100
Motivation	106(30.4%)	100(28.7%)	87(24.9%)	42(12.0%)	14(4.0%)	2.31	1.142
Not included in the CET test	106(30.4%)	106(30.4%)	81(23.2%)	38(10.9%)	18(5.2%)	2.30	1.161

Table 4.22 shows that the mean value of all factors listed is below 3 (3 = neither important nor unimportant). It demonstrates that most students saw these seven factors as less influential in their OCF experiences. Unlike the teachers' concerns, students' concerns were not very complex and could be analyzed easily. Here, the primary reason for this discrepancy could be that students were more willing to receive teachers' OCF and were appreciative and humble in receiving teachers' OCF under any circumstance.

In this interview, nine out of 12 participants believed time constraints and classroom size to be unimportant because students said they never felt their class time was insufficient nor that their class was too large for their teachers to provide OCF. They stated that their learning progress was guided by the timeline designed in their textbooks, and they would not feel any time pressure if teachers strictly followed the textbook. Furthermore, students assumed it was not about class time but efficiency. The learning outcome would be the same if the teacher could integrate well with the students and produce as much useful information as possible in the limited class time. In addition, students stated the class size was not large compared to the class size in their high school, which might normally be around 50-60 students in one class, so they were used to a large number of students in one class.

However, three out of 12 of the participants said that the class was too large, and they said it would limit the amount of OCF teachers provided to them, and teachers might not be able to target an individual student. In addition, they complained that there were only two English classes per week, which would not be enough for them to interact with teachers and get opportunities to practice English speaking.

All 12 participants stated that personality was not seen as an important role in their OCF experience because they were humble in receiving teachers' OCF, and most students saw it as reasonable for teachers to correct students. Even though some students identified themselves as introverted and would be timid when speaking, they were still willing to

receive OCF. For example, Dora said, " I don't know what my classmates think, but I think most of us show a very respectful attitude towards teachers, and we are also modest in receiving feedback. I know the teacher is supporting us in this way. "

Moreover, motivation was not seen as an influential factor because all 12 students stated that they could realize the importance of OCF and were highly motivated to learn English and improve their English-speaking ability. Even though English speaking was not included in the CET test, ten out of 12 of the students believed it would not affect their enthusiasm to learn oral English because they knew it would benefit their future. However, two out of 12 students stated that if they knew oral English was not included in the CET test, they would put their efforts into grammar and listening instead of spending time on improving their English speaking.

English proficiency was not rated as an influential factor because all 12 students believed teachers should provide OCF regardless of their proficiency level. Some students rated their proficiency level as low and expressed a high willingness to receive teachers' OCF because they expected OCF to help them improve. Students who rated their English proficiency level as high seemed more willing to receive OCF from their teachers because they displayed higher motivation for improving their English-speaking ability. Even though some students reported that their proficiency level sometimes influenced their understanding of teachers' OCF, they believed teachers should adjust their way of providing OCF based on students' needs in order to make every student understand their mistakes and how to make improvements.

When students were asked their expectations of teachers' OCF, their answers varied and could be summarized in five ways: Firstly, they hoped their teachers would consider their English proficiency before providing OCF. Although many students did not regard their proficiency level as influential, they wished their teacher could provide reachable OCF. For

example, Mia said, " Because indeed, my English level not very high and I won't understand very difficult feedback. I hope my teacher can consider my level and tell me something that I have ability to reach. If it is too advanced, I may not understand it so much. " Students expected teachers to provide OCF that did not exceed their current knowledge because some of them reported that their teachers' OCF was confusing. Some students suggested that if teachers provided OCF in English, they would use some simple expressions and speak slower to ensure their understanding. Moreover, explanations in Chinese could be supplied when necessary.

Secondly, students would expect a smaller size classroom. Most students were not concerned about classroom size because they were used to studying in big classes from the early stages of their educational experience. However, many interview participants still expected a smaller classroom since large classrooms could not provide many opportunities for students to speak English and get the teacher's attention. Teachers might also choose to limit the number of activities in a large class, as they could not devote too much time to each student. The large class size was proposed as a concern by several respondents, who said they would be afraid to make mistakes in front of strangers. For example, Wendy said that "because there are 40 students, (and) some students may only answer questions once or twice in a semester if they are not very active. The teacher teaches many classes in a semester, and he may not be able to remember you and your mistakes in your English learning".

Thirdly, students suggested that including speaking in the standard exam would improve their motivation to learn English. Even though many knew that improving their English speaking would benefit their future, they still lacked the motivation to pay lots of attention to it because it was not included in their exam. Some students might not benefit from their teachers' OCF if they were not motivated to improve their English speaking.

Fourthly, students expected teachers to provide OCF gently and politely. Many expressed that whether they liked teachers' OCF was primarily related to how teachers offered OCF. Students were more willing to accept teachers' OCF when teachers could provide useful feedback while checking their tone to avoid offensive or harsh responses.

Fifthly, seven out of 12 students stated that their relationships with teachers would not influence their OCF experience. Students' responsibilities were to study, listen to teachers' suggestions, and make improvements based on teachers' feedback. They believed personal relationships should not affect their learning process, and teachers should always be objective when providing them with OCF. On the contrary, five students expressed that relationships would be influential because they sometimes would feel reluctant to accept OCF if the teacher who provided OCF had a negative personal relationship with them.

Overall, based on the information collected above, it seemed that teachers' concerns and perceived challenges were overwhelmingly more than students had, and this discrepancy might be due to the following reasons. First, students' stated beliefs and feelings about OCF might not correspond to how they felt when provided with OCF (Roothoof & Breeze, 2016), and their answers might be designed to cater to the researcher. For example, it seemed that students rated their motivation to learn English speaking as high, but most teachers did not see that as the truth. Second, students were used to the exam-driven teaching practice. They were used to traditional teaching modes based on their past educational experience. However, the teachers in the university were not as exam-driven. They would like to apply communicative teaching pedagogy, which accounted for why they reported factors such as large classroom numbers and limited class time as influential factors because these factors hindered their communicative teaching pedagogy.

4.5 Summary

This chapter addressed the research questions. The first research question focused on teachers' and students' beliefs regarding the importance, timing, linguistic foci, and types of OCF. Quantitative and qualitative data used to answer the three questions were based on the analysis of the participants' questionnaires and interviews. The result generated some discrepancies between teachers' and students' beliefs. Firstly, students were more positive about the importance of OCF, and students expected to be corrected constantly. Secondly, students wished to be corrected more on their grammatical errors, but teachers paid more attention to students' pronunciation errors. Thirdly, students preferred explicit correction because they expected teachers to indicate their errors clearly, whereas the teachers preferred to provide more implicit corrections. Fourthly, teachers and students preferred to have immediate OCF after the end of oral production and disliked being interrupted in the middle. In the next chapter, the results related to research question 1 are discussed by referring to SLA theories and OCF studies as reviewed in Chapter 2.

Research question 2 investigated students' emotional responses when receiving OCF and how teachers perceived students' emotional responses as a consequence of providing OCF. The result found that most students did not report negative feelings and rarely felt that OCF would damage their enthusiasm or motivation to speak English. On the contrary, students expressed their positive and thankful attitudes towards teachers' OCF and were willing to receive OCF from their teachers. However, most teachers said that providing OCF to students would give them negative feelings and OCF would affect students' willingness to speak English. They worried it would damage students' confidence and motivation.

Research question 3 investigated teachers' and students' concerns and perceived affecting factors when providing/receiving OCF. The results showed that teachers' concerns were more complex than students. They thought factors such as students' language

proficiency, personality, classroom size, time constraints, motivation, and lack of the inclusion of oral English in standard tests would all impact their delivery of OCF. On the contrary, most students did not see these as affecting factors. Data gathered from the interviewed participants were used to elicit their questionnaire responses to enrich later discussion in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the findings of the present study are discussed and compared with the empirical studies and theoretical arguments reviewed in the previous studies in relation to the Review Questions (RQs) of the study. The aim is to present and discuss the results and their possible reasons in light of previous related study results. The three research questions are discussed in order: that is, RQ1 is discussed first, followed by RQ2 and RQ3. The main findings relevant to the research questions are discussed in relation to existing theories and the empirical studies reviewed in Chapter 2.

5.2 Discussion of the Findings Related to Research Question 1

RQ1 (what are Chinese EFL teachers' and students' beliefs towards OCF in terms of the importance, linguistic foci, timing, and different types?) investigates teachers' and students' beliefs towards OCF and the comparison between their beliefs.

5.2.1 Beliefs of teachers and students towards the necessities of OCF

In this current study, it was found that both teachers and students have a positive perception towards the use of OCF based on their beliefs that OCF can benefit students' English learning because it can help students to recognize their errors, avoid repeating the same error and assist students in developing their second language learning. This finding is aligned with many previous research articles (e.g., Fajriah, 2018; Ha et al., 2021; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016).

The finding that teachers and students believe oral corrective feedback is effective is in accordance with existing theoretical claims. Chinese teachers' and students' support for OCF can also be explained theoretically by means of Gass's (2018) theoretical framework, which explains that to make improvements when learning a second language, the role of interaction should be emphasized, and learners can benefit more from comprehensible input if they are involved in negotiating the meaning. Students should notice the gap between their current language production and the target language forms in order to make modifications. They then need to understand the oral corrective feedback input that has been given. This above hypothesis is aligned with Schmidt's (1994) noticing hypothesis, which argues that language input will only become intake if it is noticed by the learners, thus students will notice their mistakes when receiving teachers' OCF. Therefore, OCF can increase students' attention to correct language forms and allow them to modify their current oral production (Gass, 2018).

It can also be explained by Long's (2015) Interaction Hypothesis, which is believed that OCF is supportive for students because students can negotiate their language mistakes with their teachers in order to provide modified output, thus improving their L2 proficiency. Multiple studies (e.g., Gass, 2018; Loewen & Sato, 2018; Long, 1996, 2015; Lyster & Ranta, 1997) have demonstrated this point and shown that students can better comprehend the meaning and pay more attention to the target language form through interaction within the process of attaining OCF.

Despite teachers' overall support for OCF, the general pattern was different from some studies conducted in the ESL context. For example, Li (2017) indicated that only 39% of teachers were positive about providing OCF, and this discrepancy may be explained in relation to the teaching context and their teaching aim. Within the ESL context, the teaching focus is mainly on improving students' communicative ability, and the evaluating standard is

more content-based than accuracy-based. By contrast, even though most teachers were aware of promoting students' communicative ability when speaking, they still expressed that their classrooms were more written exam-oriented because English speaking was not an important component in the teaching curriculum. In addition, Chinese students rarely had opportunities to practice oral English before entering university, and many of them, especially those with low English proficiency, need teachers' OCF to help them pronounce words correctly. It can therefore be inferred that the EFL teaching context in this study was influenced by the effect of an exam-oriented system and the lack of oral English in students' past education.

This finding resonates with previous research, especially research in Asian countries (e.g., Firwana, 2011; Ha & Murray, 2020, 2021; Ha. et al., 2021) since teachers in these contexts are used to teaching in exam-oriented environments, and they were positive about providing OCF to improve students' language accuracy. This explains why teachers from an EFL setting showed a more positive attitude towards OCF than teachers from an ESL setting, and it suggests that teaching contexts influence teachers' beliefs. Also, this current study shows that teachers consider providing OCF their responsibility. This finding is also reported in prior studies (e.g., Chaudron, 1988; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Ha et al., 2021). The finding of this current study also suggests that providing OCF to students can aid the whole classroom by allowing the rest of the class to detect the difference between teachers' correct utterances and students' erroneous utterances and thus be more aware of the erroneous statements.

Despite teachers' overall support for OCF, this study also found that teachers, when interviewed, repeatedly expressed their preoccupation with their students' emotional responses. Teachers were concerned that too much OCF could affect learners' emotions negatively and hamper their motivation to learn English. Teachers' concerns about the negative effects of OCF can also be understood from a theoretical perspective. For example,

Krashen (1982) and Schulz (1996) stated that negative emotions can affect students' learning. Even though most teachers in this study were supportive of OCF, some participants expressed concerns about OCF because they believed OCF would negatively affect students since it could lead to anxiety, make them unwill to learn and affect learners' motivations and confidence (Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Kimiya, 2014; Li, 2017; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016). For instance, Kamiya (2014) found that the four ESL teachers participating believed that protecting students' motivation and emotional responses was more important than providing explicit OCF, which might negatively affect students' feelings.

Moreover, this current study aligns with studies conducted by Vásquez and Harvey (2010) and Roothoof (2014), which found that despite teachers' positive attitudes towards OCF, they also expressed concerns about the negative effect that OCF might bring. Thus, this current study corresponds to the studies of Vásquez and Harvey (2010), Roothoof (2014), and Kamiya (2014), which indicated that teachers might be hesitant when providing OCF due to the possibility that OCF could negatively affect learners' motivation and feelings. Despite the teachers' positive attitudes towards OCF, they may also have doubts about it.

On the contrary, and also in line with what previous studies have revealed (e.g., Agudo, 2015; Davis, 2003; Fajriah, 2018; Firwana, 2011; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016; Schulz, 1996, 2001), students in this current study held an overwhelmingly positive attitude towards OCF and notably tended to believe that OCF was important for their English learning and their beliefs are consistent with the effectiveness of OCF reported by meta-analyses (Brown, 2014; Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Macky & Goo, 2007; Russell & Spada, 2006). Students rarely reported negative feelings and saw teachers' OCF as supportive of their learning.

In this current study, the results confirm previous findings that a mismatch exists between teachers' and students' beliefs regarding OCF. This finding corresponds to previous

studies (e.g., Brown, 2009; Jean & Simard, 2011; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016; Schulz, 2001), which generally find that students want to be corrected much more than their teachers seem to think necessary, and students wish to be corrected constantly. One of the possible explanations for students' stronger support for teachers' OCF is that Chinese students are influenced by Confucian philosophy. Teachers are seen as the authority in the Chinese classroom and are conventionally seen as the primary source of knowledge (Gan, 2013). It was noticed that, for example, students in the interview stated that teachers were the only ones who could point out their errors, and they would be modest in receiving teachers' OCF. This finding is aligned with some other studies, especially research conducted in Asian areas (e.g., Firwana, 2011; Ha & Murray, 2020; Ha & Nguyen, 2021).

Another possible reason for this mismatch is that students attached more importance to accuracy over fluency. Similar findings have also been presented by Jean and Simard (2011). One possible explanation for their great emphasis on accuracy is students' past educational experiences which emphasize correct language form over language content; students consciously believed that correcting all errors would help them to improve to the greatest extent. Another possible reason is that Chinese students lacked opportunities to practice English speaking, and they were unconfident about their English-speaking proficiency and treated fluency as a higher-level achievement, which should be achieved after ensuring the language's accuracy.

However, most teacher interview participants attributed greater significance to fluency than accuracy, and they did not deem it necessary to correct all of the students' mistakes. This can be attributed to teachers' concerns about students' affective feelings. Also, in the teachers' minds, language is a tool for communication. They deemed OCF to be unnecessary if the students possessed the capability of expressing meaning, and they would only provide OCF when the mistakes seriously influenced understanding. This finding

corresponds to Junqueira and Kim (2013) and Kamiya (2014), which also highlighted that teachers place greater significance on fluency and content than accuracy, thereby expressing limited positive attitudes towards OCF. This also revealed that teachers considered oral communication fluency more important than grammatical accuracy and believed OCF should mainly focus on increasing learners' communicative skills.

Even though most teachers believed fluency is more important than accuracy, teachers also reported that the practical situation in Chinese university classrooms was not ideal because improving language speaking requires meaningful interaction in the target language, in which speakers concentrate not on their words but on their communication. Since students rarely had a chance to practice oral English in their past education, most of them could hardly produce meaningful speaking output. Thus, the current environmental conditions lack the necessary elements for teachers to concentrate on fluency. In addition, if teachers focused on every mistake a student made, it would take too much time, thereby impeding teaching progress. Some teachers reported that students' lack of motivation also influenced their OCF practice. Since English-speaking is not included in the standardized exam, many students were careless about teachers' OCF, which influenced teachers' motivation to provide OCF.

To sum up, the results of this current study confirm previous findings that a mismatch exists between teachers' and students' beliefs towards OCF. Although both teachers and students agreed regarding the importance of OCF, students were overwhelmingly more positive about OCF. This is consistent with the synthesis of Li (2017) that students have a greater positive attitude toward OCF. Previous studies have also highlighted that EFL students wished to be corrected constantly (e.g., Jean & Simard, 2011; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016; Schulz, 2001), which is consistent with this current study. However, most teachers showed mixed views towards the importance of OCF, as they valued fluency over accuracy and deemed it unnecessary to correct students' errors constantly.

5.2.2 Beliefs of Teachers and Students towards the Different Linguistic Foci of Oral Errors

In response to "What kinds of mistakes tend to receive OCF on individual students' oral mistakes?", teachers' preferences can be ranked as pronunciation > lexical > unsolicited use of L1 > grammatical > unsolicited use of L1 > pragmatical. The teachers did not correct different types of oral errors in significant ways. However, each of these five types of errors had a mean between 3 (neither important nor unimportant) and 4 (important), suggesting they corrected these five types of errors selectively. The questionnaire findings showed that pronunciation errors are rated as the errors teachers believed should receive more feedback, and this aligns with previous findings (e.g., Araven, 2015; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Mori, 2011; Uysal & Aydin, 2017; Yüksel, Soruç & McKinley, 2020), which pointed out that pronunciation errors should receive the highest attention. The reason was that teachers in this current study perceived pronunciation mistakes to be the most commonly occurring mistakes, which ultimately hindered the clarity of communication. One explanation for this difference might be that many teachers believed that Chinese students lacked the opportunities to practice their pronunciations in their past educational experience, and many students' language-speaking foundations were too weak to achieve correct pronunciation. In addition, the interview participants also claimed that they would pay more attention to pronunciation errors in speaking activities but more to corrections on grammatical errors in grammatical activities, which indicates that the teachers had different prioritized objectives for different study aims.

Teachers in this current study believed that lexical errors were the second most important error type, and this finding is aligned with Araven (2015) and Yüksel, Soruç and McKinley (2020), which stressed that lexical errors should receive attention because they

would affect students' language proficiency to the greatest extent. Teachers believe that vocabulary is the basis of delivering content. Thus, correcting lexical errors can ensure the accurate meaning of the communication. In addition, teachers believed students expected to receive OCF on their lexical errors because most students favor grammatical and lexical errors because these are both important components of the standardized test.

However, some previous research (e.g., Al Shahrani & Storch, 2014; Brown, 2016; Méndez & Reyez, 2012; Sluman, 2015) showed teachers have a greater preference for correcting grammatical errors because they pay more attention to language structures rather than meanings, and correcting grammatical errors can capture the attention of all the other students in the classroom. The difference between this current study and previous studies is mainly because, in China, students' English-speaking ability has not been emphasized because it is excluded from the standard exams. Students' pronunciation thus becomes their biggest challenge, and pronunciation errors frequently occur because students rarely practice English before entering college. Teachers would therefore pay more attention to correcting pronunciation errors to provide more opportunities to improve students' pronunciation. These findings (pronunciation and lexical as main targets) implied that these teachers paid more attention to language meanings than form when providing OCF, and they see OCF as a way to prevent or correct meaning-oriented errors. However, they care less about pragmatic meanings, which does not correspond to focusing on meaning instruction. In the interviews, many participants reflected that the major issue was not about form-oriented or meaning-oriented teaching but about spending more time helping students be confident to open their mouths and use the appropriate pronunciation.

In this current study, the questionnaire results showed that student participants had a positive attitude towards receiving OCF on their different oral errors, and students' preferences could be ranked as grammatical > lexical > pronunciational > pragmatic >

unsolicited use of L1. In this current study, grammatical and lexical errors received the highest attention because grammar was strongly related to students' exam performance, and they were influenced by their past learning experiences where grammar was the main focus. In addition, students also believed that vocabulary was the key to meaning and that self-correcting vocabulary errors was difficult. This finding is consistent with Oladejo (1993), which showed that Singaporean students trusted grammatical errors and vocabulary errors were important.

However, other research showed mixed results. Katayama (2007) found that Japanese students most preferred the correction of pragmatic and phonological errors, and this study attributed Japanese students' strong preference for correcting pronunciation errors to the absence of native speakers in their learning context, meaning that their teachers were the most reliable source of native-like pronunciation. In addition, Zhu and Wang (2019) reported that students most preferred to be corrected on their pragmatic errors and least preferred correction of grammatical errors. One possible reason for this difference might be that Zhu and Wang used a large-scale questionnaire that contained more than 1000 participants, while this current study contained a smaller sample size surveying only 384 students. Another possibility might be the difference between participants' levels of English proficiency. Students with higher English proficiency might have a greater desire for pragmatic corrections. In Zhu and Wang's study, nearly half of the participants were from an economically developed province, and many of them were from key universities. Given this situation, these students might have had a higher level of English language proficiency. However, since Zhu and Wang's study did not involve the use of interviews, it is difficult to investigate these students' background reasons. Attribution to the different regions and to students' different English language proficiency levels is conjecture. These two studies were conducted in different regions, and students' proficiency levels were unknown. Even though

the present study and the two aforementioned studies were carried out in the Asia-Pacific area, normally regarded as sharing many educational and cultural similarities, the results were different. The reason might be similar to Ha, Murry, and Riaz (2021), in which students' learning goals shaped their preferences for linguistic foci.

When it comes to how much OCF should be provided, eight out of ten teacher participants stated that they would not correct all errors because they paid more attention to the contents and because they worried that too many corrections would discourage students from speaking English. This finding is also consistent with previous studies (Agudo, 2014; Bell, 2005; Jean & Simard, 2011; Schulz, 1996), which also highlighted that most teachers did not support the idea of correcting all the errors. None of the teacher participants showed a negative attitude towards the view that OCF should be provided for the errors that were the focus of the class.

From the students' perspective, most of the interview participants (10/2) suggested that feedback should be provided for every mistake for them to make better progress. These findings are also consistent with previous studies (Sakui & Gaies, 1999; Jean & Simard, 2011). Some other studies found that students believed teachers should not correct all their mistakes since excessive correction would demotivate their confidence, especially when they are corrected in front of others (Calsiyao, 2015; Elsaghayer, 2014;). One of the reasons for this discrepancy could be cultural. Respect for corrections is fundamental to Chinese students' ways of thinking, and they accept teachers' OCF with humility since they believe that it is the best way to improve.

Overall, regarding the best way of providing oral CF, it appears students regarded grammatical errors, pragmatical errors, and unsolicited use of L1 to be more important than their teachers believed them to be. This might relate to the fact that students want to get all their errors corrected, while most teachers believe only errors that severely impede

understanding should be corrected. Both teachers and students showed a positive attitude towards the correction of different types of oral errors, with teachers preferring pronunciation and lexical errors and students preferring grammatical and lexical errors.

Students maintained that grammatical errors need more OCF because they are influenced by their past learning experiences as well as their exam-oriented approach to learning English. When it comes to speaking, teachers believe that pronunciation influences students' English expression the most, and it is currently the most challenging aspect of English language learning.

For pragmatic errors, students expressed more willingness to reach the authentic target language because they rarely had access to it. However, teachers believed pragmatic information should be provided once students achieved a higher level of proficiency, and teachers expressed that pronunciation and vocabulary are the basis of English speaking. For unsolicited use of L1, students wished to be corrected because they wanted to know how to express themselves in English, and they thought this could help them to improve.

5.2.3 Beliefs of Teachers and Students Towards the Different Feedback Types

As for teachers' beliefs about OCF types, the mean value of elicitation, repetition, metalinguistic, recast, and explicit corrections was above 3, which indicated that these five types of feedback were well received by the teachers. The result showed that implicit feedback types received greater preference from teachers, and these findings confirmed previous results that most teachers tended to value implicit over explicit OCF (e.g., Brown, 2009; Dong, 2012; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Huong, 2019; Kamiya, 2016; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Roothoof, 2015; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018). However, this finding contradicted some previous studies (e.g., Ha et al., 2021; Jean &

Simard, 2011) in which teachers believed implicit OCF could promote students' autonomy, avoid demotivating and embarrassing students, benefit the whole class, fulfill teacher's responsibility, and act as a proxy for conscientiousness.

In the above study, which supports implicit OCF, recast was rated as teachers' favorite OCF type because it is convenient to deliver and allows communication flow to continue. However, the teachers in this current study did not rank recasts in the first place, although they were aware that it was timesaving. The main reason given was that teachers believed recast to be too straightforward, and it did not leave any space to promote students' self-corrections. The results found that teachers primarily favored the method of elicitation, which implied that they preferred asking students to reformulate their utterances, and this was similar to the results of Roothoof and Breeze (2016), which also reflected a preference for elicitation. By using elicitation, teachers could provide enough hints to students about where they needed to make changes while offering opportunities for students to give the correct answer. Repetition was the second most popular type of feedback, indicating that most teachers emphasize students' ill-formed statements by increasing their intonations. Teachers explained in the interviews that they preferred these two types of OCF due to the value of self-correction, which teachers believed could facilitate deeper processing and learning. Teachers in the interview often discussed teacher conscientiousness, believing that a qualified teacher should guide students toward finding out their problems and making improvements instead of providing the correct answers directly for the sake of saving time. This belief was heavily influenced by the Confucian teaching philosophy, and thus teachers saw implicit OCF as a sign of their career responsibility.

In addition, teachers in the interview stated that no matter how they perceived different feedback types, their actual practice might be influenced by restrictions such as instructional context (Lyster et al., 2013), teaching experience (Li, 2017; Rahimi & Zhang,

2015), learner's proficiency level (Brown, 2016); and culturally informed teaching habits (Lyster & Mori, 2006). Despite the support for implicit feedback, some teachers in the interview indicated that due to time constraints, recast was the most frequently used feedback type in practice (Jean & Simard, 2011).

Furthermore, this current study found that non-verbal language was not welcomed by teachers when providing feedback because this type of feedback could be confusing to students without additional hints. Nonetheless, some previous research studies did view non-verbal feedback as effective when combined with other feedback types (Davies, 2006; Nakatsukasa, 2016). Many Chinese teachers also perceived some types of non-verbal signals as impolite or disrespectful, which could make students feel uncomfortable or embarrassed.

For students, besides the clarification and non-verbal language methods, explicit correction, metalinguistic, recast, elicitation, and repetition methods received a mean value above 3. The explicit correction was ranked first by students, which showed that students preferred their teachers to offer them the correct form with grammatical explanations directly. The metalinguistic method was the second most popular form of feedback, as students preferred teachers to inform them of incorrect statements. It can be inferred that students prefer explicit types of OCF, a finding which is aligned with many previous research articles (e.g., Firwana, 2012; Oladejo, 1993; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016; Zhang & Rahimi, 2014). Students prefer that teachers provide explicit corrections since they are concerned that they will not be able to react to teachers' OCF unless they are clearly aware of their mistakes and are given a detailed explanation of their actions.

Besides, students stated that implicit feedback was time-consuming, and they did not want to interfere with teachers' teaching progress. Lee (2013) highlighted the fact that students rated recast highly but rated metalinguistic information the least. This discrepancy might be because students in this current study showed a greater desire for a detailed

explanation of their errors instead of being corrected directly without any indication of errors. This was because students in this current study highly valued grammatical rules that would help enhance the results of subsequent high-stakes exams. Chinese students grew up with exam-driven English, and they had embedded thinking that language rules were the most important part of English language learning. However, students did not appreciate clarifications and non-verbal feedback because these two types of feedback do not clearly indicate the error, and students may interpret non-verbal signals negatively, thereby causing negative feelings.

Regarding oral feedback, students' and teachers' opinions about explicit correction, recasting, and elicitation appear to differ significantly. According to the results, students rated explicit correction more positively than their teachers. This discrepancy might relate to teachers' preferences to avoid embarrassment for students and promote fluency because explicit CF types tend to be more disruptive. Additionally, students lack confidence in their language proficiency and are concerned that not being able to respond to the teacher's OCF in a timely manner might result in embarrassment in front of the class. Another way to put this is that students need to be aware of what errors their teachers are trying to correct. Therefore, teachers should provide OCF in a more understandable, clear, and straightforward manner so that learners can identify their errors and correct them immediately (Ellis, 2009;). Additionally, students feel guilty when they receive implicit OCF because it wastes other people's time and negatively impacts teaching progress. Therefore, teachers should emphasize to all students that OCF is beneficial to the entire class as well as for individual language learning.

Furthermore, teachers rated recast and elicitation feedback more positively than students. Recast is the teachers' repetition of the student's utterances in the correct form without pointing out the specific mistakes, and elicitation involves teachers asking students to

complete or reformulate their utterances. It is also noteworthy that these types of feedback did not contain direct explanations, and it could therefore be inferred that students expect their teachers to point out their mistakes and explain why they made them. Students thought this kind of OCF was too indirect and lacked sufficient explanations. Teachers believed students could see their mistakes if they provided appropriate language or hints, but students disagreed. Therefore, teachers could provide more detailed explanations when they provide OCF. Previous studies have compared the effect of implicit and explicit feedback and revealed that explicit feedback had a larger effect on students' language learning (Lyster, 2004; Sheen, 2007; Yilmaz, 2012). Other studies have shown that the most implicit type of CF, recasting, is not always interpreted as correct by students (Kim & Han, 2007; Mackey, Gass & McDonough, 2000). Teachers could use an array of explicit OCF types in their instruction instead of implicit ones if it is obvious that explicit OCF is more effective and that students prefer it.

5.2.4 Teachers' and Students' Beliefs Towards the Timing of Feedback

In this current study, the option "right at the end of student's production" received the highest mean value, which indicated that most teachers would like to provide OCF shortly after (not immediately after) students' oral errors were committed. However, as the other form of immediate OCF, the option "immediately after errors occur even it interrupts oral production" received the lowest mean ($M = 2.73$), indicating that although teachers prefer to provide timely OCF, they disliked interrupting students in the middle of speaking, and this was not favored by most teachers. This finding is akin to the previous studies that reflected similar results (Brown, 2009; Bell, 2005; Davis, 2003; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016) that teachers are hesitant to provide "very soon" OCF because interrupting students immediately would disrupt their thinking process, the flow and integrity of their speech (Méndez & Reyez,

2012), and demotivate their confidence and emotional feelings (Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Ozmen & Aydin, 2015).

Additionally, teachers in this study considered that it was not respectful or polite to disrupt students in the middle of their speech. Li, Zhu, and Ellis (2016) found that immediate feedback was perceived as more effective than delayed feedback in a high school English class in China, and the reason for this may be the pressure of exams in China and the belief that mistakes should be corrected quickly to ensure accuracy. In this current study, teachers might share the same reason for their preference for immediate OCF, and they believed students would easily forget the mistake they made if they provided delayed OCF, and there would be more distractions at the end of class. Moreover, within the Chinese university context, since English speaking is not included in the standardized exam, some teachers said immediate OCF is more effective because delayed OCF is time-consuming, and it would influence their teaching progress on the aspects that were included in the standardized exam.

Unlike many previous studies (e.g., Agudo, 2014; Firwana, 2011; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015), which only discussed teachers' preferences towards immediate and delayed feedback, this study classified the notion of "immediate" and "delayed" OCF in a more detailed layer. On the question of how immediate OCF should be, most of the teachers said that they would like to provide OCF immediately after they completed a sentence or an utterance rather than interrupting students in the middle of their speech.

Students generally preferred immediate feedback to delayed feedback, and this finding is in agreement with some previous studies (e.g., Ananda et al., 2017; Davis, 2003; Harmer, 2007; Lee, 2013; Rahimi & Zhang, 2014; Sakiroglu, 2020; Yakisik, 2019; Zhu & Wang, 2019), which showed that students were more willing to receive immediate OCF. However, this finding was different from some previous studies in an ESL context (e.g., Brown, 2009; Walker, 1973). It seems that students from an ESL context were inclined to

prefer delayed OCF. This difference might be due to the different social contexts in which participants in these studies were situated. Students in an ESL context had more opportunities for communicating in English, and thus they would prefer to keep the communication flow and were unwilling to be interrupted in the middle. On the contrary, Chinese students who studied English in an EFL context would prefer timely OCF. Similar to Zhu and Wang (2019), which was also conducted in a Chinese university, students were learning English in a 'text-centered and input-based context (Wen, 2018, p. 527), and thus they preferred to receive OCF at the cost of the entirety of communication. In addition, their less favorable attitude toward delayed correction is in line with Li et al.'s (2016) quasi-experimental study, which showed the fact that immediate OCF is more advantageous than delayed OCF.

Even though immediate OCF was preferred by most students, the option "immediately after errors occur even if it interrupts oral production" was the least preferred option to provide OCF in this study. Although students prefer immediate OCF, they dislike it when their teachers interrupt them in the middle of their speech because it can damage their confidence and motivation to speak English and disrupt their flow. Especially in the group activities, they worried their peers would feel stressed if teachers immediately offered OCF, and thus influence the outcome of the group activity. Students did not prefer delayed OCF, especially OCF provided at the end of class, because delayed OCF might not make them concentrate on the errors they made, and students would be easily distracted. Some students said that the timing of OCF was related to the activity types. Delayed OCF was more welcomed in the group activities because it could avoid the interruption and the integrity of the group activities, and OCF immediately after an individual's speech would cause stress to other participants, resulting in poor performance in the activity.

The finding of this current study in comparing teachers' and students' preferences for feedback timing is that both students and teachers preferred to have immediate OCF, but with

the proviso that it is not given until students finish their sentences or utterances. Students wished to receive immediate OCF as soon as their utterances had been completed because delayed OCF would make them forget the mistake they made after the time interval. However, students were not supportive of receiving OCF immediately after the occurrence of their errors because it would cause negative feelings or have other possible negative effects, such as stressing another group member. Both teachers and students believed the timing of OCF was related to the activity type, with the immediate OCF being more reasonable for the one-on-one OCF process and the delayed OCF more suitable for group activities in order not to influence the integrity of performance. In addition, teachers considered students' proficiency levels could determine the timing of OCF: students with lower proficiency should be provided with more immediate OCF because they might make more mistakes, and delayed OCF makes it difficult for teachers to reflect on and remember every mistake a student has made.

When considering the chi-square test, one significant difference can be found regarding providing OCF immediately after the occurrence of mistakes. The mean value of student beliefs was higher than that of teachers' beliefs, and students selected "effective" and "very effective" in higher percentages than teachers, suggesting that students prefer "very soon" OCF more than teachers. The potential reason might be students would easily forget what they said, and they expected teachers to provide them with timely OCF. In addition, students believed OCF could facilitate their language learning, and they appreciated teachers' feedback at any time.

5.3 EFL Students and EFL Teachers' Perceptions toward Affective Responses OCF

In this current study, most teachers believed that their students had significantly negative feelings about receiving OCF and did not want teachers to correct their mistakes. Consequently, the teacher participants in this study developed the perception that their OCF would lead to students' negative feelings and demotivate students' willingness to speak English in the future. Overall, teachers were unhappy with students' attitudes toward OCF and feared it would negatively affect English skills. The results of the study confirm previous studies (Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Kamiya, 2014; Roothoof, 2014; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016), which also reflected teacher participants' concerns about providing OCF.

Although Truscott (1999) warned that OCF could potentially damage students' feelings and demotivate students' confidence to learn English, and although most teachers in this study referred to negative feelings when asked about their students' response to OCF, the results in this current study showed that students reported overwhelmingly positive attitudes toward OCF given by teachers and that they would appreciate teachers for making an effort to correct their mistakes. This finding corresponds with the research conducted by Roothoof and Breeze (2016). In addition, students reported that they seldom or never had negative feelings as a result of teachers' criticism and feedback in class. Most students indicated that OCF would not demotivate their motivation and confidence to speak English in the future. The overall results indicated that they did not have negative reactions such as embarrassment or unhappiness on being interrupted by teachers' oral corrections. Students understood that OCF would benefit them instead of bringing negative effects on their learning. Some students said that their emotional responses were only affected by the way their teachers conveyed their OCF, and the use of harsh language negatively impacted their emotions.

Although students' stated beliefs may not correspond to their actual feelings, these results can also inform teachers that they should not feel reluctant to provide OCF or make

use of more explicit types of OCF. The difference between teachers' and students' beliefs arises when teachers are too concerned with the psychological and emotional well-being of their students. However, students see OCF as a positive sign of teacher support, which can be beneficial to their future learning. OCF is viewed by students as a way teachers show attention to them, and it is perceived by them as a sign that teachers have confidence in them.

5.4 Challenges and Concerns for Teachers and Students Towards Oral Corrective Feedback

Many interview participants, no matter their preference for feedback type, timing, or linguistic foci, made statements with comments such as "it depends on the students' proficiency/ the student/ the classroom atmosphere/ the topic/ the time constraint, etc." Thus, it is necessary to discuss the influential factors that both teachers and students confront in order to obtain more insight into the OCF practice in Chinese universities.

The results of the questionnaire showed that students' language proficiency, personality, classroom size, time constraints, students' motivation, and lack of inclusion were seen as influential by most teachers in their OCF practice. Classroom size was ranked first by teachers, as they felt that the number of students in their classrooms was too large. In the interview, both teachers and students stated that the average number of students in the classroom was around 40-45, and it was not the most ideal environment for teaching English. From teachers' perspectives, the large size made it difficult to take every student into account and provide them with timely, targeted, and detailed feedback. With this number of students, it was also difficult to provide opportunities for students to communicate in English, and the task type was limited. Classroom size also influenced teachers' OCF practice. One participant specifically said that in larger classes, he would provide less OCF, and he would use more

immediate and implicit types of OCF to save time. Many factors impacted this issue, such as the Chinese habitual teaching context, large numbers of students in the university, limited resources of teachers etc.

In addition, time constraint was another contextual factor that affected teachers' OCF practice. According to the interviews, many universities only offer two English classes per week, and each session only lasts for 45 minutes. The class time is too limited to provide students with sufficient OCF, and there is a high level of time pressure on the teachers. Consequently, teachers needed to reduce the quality and amount of feedback, and they were unable to focus on individual students. Moreover, since English speaking is not included in the standard examination, and there were no strict curriculum requirements, many teachers reflected that they had to decrease the time for students to practice oral English. The interview results showed that some teachers did not offer notable oral activities in the class or emphasize oral English ability, as their teaching was exam-oriented, which therefore ignored students' oral mistakes. Teachers believed that it could be damaging to students' enthusiasm to practice speaking, which would result in them not caring about teachers' OCF. These findings are in line with previous research studies (Al-Bakri, 2016; Alshahrani & Storch, 2014; Borg, 2003; Ha & Nguyen, 2021), which have shown that contextual factors such as instructional context and curriculum requirements affect teachers' beliefs.

Students' language proficiency was rated as the other important concern by teachers, and the majority of them held the opinion that students' language proficiency would influence their OCF. In the case of students with low English proficiency, teachers expressed a willingness to spend more time and effort helping students, but they would worry more about the students' emotional well-being if there were a high frequency of errors. They had the concern that too much correction could discourage students from participating in future activities, and this finding had been reported in previous studies (Ha & Nguyen, 2021; Li,

2017; Roothoof, 2014; Kamiya, 2016; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016;). The qualitative findings showed that teachers believed students with higher language proficiency might better resonate and interact with their OCF, and students with lower proficiency might interact less with teachers due to the lack of knowledge and ability to interpret teachers' OCF. Thus, Fu and Nassaji (2016) have stated that teachers might be more willing to provide OCF to students with higher language proficiency because their own enthusiasm and motivation would decrease if students showed inappropriate reactions. In this current study, many teachers considered their students' English proficiency to be inadequate, and some of them stated that their enthusiasm to provide OCF would decrease if students were unable to react to their OCF. Students' proficiency levels might be influenced by their former exam-oriented learning experiences, which caused students to be good at studying for exams, but not so good at applying their knowledge to oral English.

The results showed students' personalities to be another factor that influences teachers' OCF practice because they would provide less OCF to students who are introverted because they worried it would negatively influence their emotional state. Normally, teachers were more concerned about introverted students because they were emotionally more sensitive, and their errors, therefore, needed to be treated more tactfully so that their emerging self-confidence and their desire to communicate would not be undermined. The results also showed students' motivation for learning English to be another challenge because motivation would determine students' attitudes toward learning oral English, and it would further affect students' reactions to teachers' OCF. Teachers believed students with higher motivation would pay more attention to their OCF and react positively. As a result, OCF had no effect if the students were not motivated to practice oral English. Ushioda (2009) explains this finding by demonstrating that motivation is the most important factor in second language acquisition.

However, this current study did not find teacher-student s to be an important challenge, and this contrasts with the findings of Ellis (2010) that OCF experiences are considerably affected by teacher-student interpersonal relationships. The discrepancy might be because most teachers believed that it was their responsibility to provide OCF to students and that interpersonal relationships should not be involved in the OCF process. Furthermore, in this current study, the context differs from those in previous studies, as teachers rarely had the opportunity to build interpersonal relationships with students outside of class time.

Through interviewing teachers, some tensions were discovered between their actual teaching goal and the more practical objectives in the teaching context. Many teachers stated that they expected to develop students' speaking competence, and their initial wish was to promote fluency instead of focusing on accuracy. However, in the current study, the reality was that teachers had to place more emphasis on language structures for the sake of helping students achieve good results in standardized exams. Previous studies about teachers' beliefs showed that tensions between beliefs might lead to mismatches between their beliefs and practices (Phipps & Borg, 2009; Ha & Murray, 2020).

For students, all the factors listed in the questionnaire were seen as not highly influential to their OCF experiences. The primary reason could be that students were more willing to receive a teacher's OCF, and they appreciated it under any circumstance. Furthermore, students in China are deeply influenced by Confucian philosophy (Moloney & Xu, 2016), in which teachers are seen as authoritative, and students are expected to receive teachers' advice humbly. In this current study, most students did not perceive their proficiency levels as an affecting factor because they believed that even though their proficiency level was not high enough, they still expected to improve their English. The student said that their role as students meant they should ask their teachers to clarify the OCF if they had difficulties understanding it because of their proficiency levels. Students were also not concerned about classroom size and time

constraints because they had previous experiences learning in this type of environment. Most students trusted that bigger classes would lead to more types of mistakes being made by students and that they would therefore be better able to learn from the mistakes of others.

Despite their nervous emotional status when receiving OCF, the introverted students expressed a willingness to participate as they knew it would benefit their academic performance. According to them, personalities have no bearing on student success academically. Most students in this study expressed their willingness to practice English because they knew that while it was not included in the CET test, oral English would benefit their learning and future prospects. Personal relationships with teachers were generally viewed as less important by students. Participants did not see teacher-student relationships as important because most students did not have the opportunity to build relationships with teachers. The students stated that they were more concerned about the appropriateness of the feedback provided by teachers and the methods used for the purpose.

Concerning differences between the beliefs of teachers and students towards factors affecting OCF, the results showed that students found that none of the factors significantly affected their OCF experience, but teachers felt more challenges in providing OCF. A contributing factor to this discrepancy may be students' strong willingness to accept teachers' OCF since they perceive it as a tool for facilitating their English learning, so they accept it humbly regardless of the circumstances. On the contrary, teachers generally had limited satisfaction with their OCF practices, and they expected to provide students with more useful, timely, encouraging, and facilitating OCF. The study found that teachers were more concerned about the quality of their OCF and the impact it would have on students, but students showed little concern, and they had a more grateful attitude toward it.

CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Introduction

This final chapter firstly revisits the thesis's aims and methodological approach. Secondly, it summarizes the major findings of the study. Thirdly, it provides a discussion of how this current study has contributed to the growing body of research on oral corrective feedback in SLA, highlighting its implications for theory, methodology, and practice. Fourthly, it discusses the limitations of the study and suggestions for future research. Finally, it concludes with some remarks based on insights from the current study.

6.2 Aims and Methodology of the Thesis

The main aim of this current study was to explore students' and teachers' OCF beliefs in Chinese higher education contexts, revealing some matches and mismatches between the teachers' and students' beliefs. More specifically, this study aimed to explore their beliefs towards the importance of OCF, types of OCF, linguistic foci of OCF, and timing of OCF. This study further investigated students' emotional responses when receiving OCF and how EFL teachers perceive their students' affective responses to OCF and to identify factors that may affect the application of OCF in the classroom. To address these aims, this study adopted a mixed methods approach in which data were collected using a quantitative methodology followed by semi-structured interviews. The data were triangulated by using the explanatory procedures design. The quantitative data were collected from teacher and student participants, and then the semi-structured interviews were conducted with a subset of the teacher and student groups. The qualitative data collected from the interview was used to explain and extend quantitative data to give more comprehensive insights into the research. Thematic analysis and descriptive analysis were used to analyze data from the semi-structured

interviews and the questionnaire. The findings of this current study are summarized in the next section according to the research questions.

6.3 The Major Findings of the Present Study

To begin with, both students and teachers in this study believed that OCF was beneficial and necessary for learning and teaching, but students showed a more positive attitude about OCF than teachers did. Most Chinese university students in our study revealed that they wished their errors could be corrected all the time, while many teachers expressed mixed views about the necessity for correcting all oral errors. The students had a higher desire to be corrected than teachers thought necessary, and the potential reason was that students attached greater importance to accuracy over fluency, and teachers worried that too much OCF would have a negative impact on students' feelings. In general, there was a tendency for students to wish for more OCF from the teacher, but the teachers preferred to correct students selectively.

Secondly, regarding the question of the teachers' and students' beliefs towards which errors should be paid more attention, teachers' preferences was different from that of the students. Teachers believed that pronunciation errors were the most important error type, whereas students expected to receive more OCF on their grammatical errors. The main reason for this difference was that students were heavily influenced by their previous exam-oriented language learning experience, and teachers maintained that pronunciation errors occurred most frequently in the classroom. It could be concluded that teachers expected to have a more meaning-based teaching environment, but students were still used to form-based language learning.

With regard to the different methods of giving OCF, teachers' and students' beliefs towards types of OCF were not congruent. The results indicate that students favored explicit OCF, but this method was not popular among the teachers. From the teachers' perspective, this might be because teachers put more importance on promoting fluency instead of accuracy and also because of their concerns about students' feelings since more explicit CF types are potentially more disruptive. From the student's perspective, this might be because students were not confident with their English proficiency, and they needed teachers to indicate their errors in a straightforward way to avoid embarrassment if they could not respond to the teacher's OCF. Moreover, teachers rated recast and elicitation types more positively than students did. The discrepancy is because these two types of feedback don't include direct explanations, and students expected their teachers to not only point out their mistakes but also provide some explanation.

Regarding the question of when oral corrections should occur, both teachers and students shared a common view that they preferred immediate OCF. However, although both groups preferred immediate OCF, they both admitted it best to wait until students finished their sentences or utterances instead of interrupting them in the middle while they were speaking. Both teachers and students regard "very timely" feedback would disrupt students' thinking and flow of communication, thus creating stress. For delayed OCF, both groups believed they would easily forget their mistakes after speaking. Thus it was not ideal timing.

Thirdly, most teachers supposed OCF would lead to students having negative feelings and students, therefore, not being willing to be corrected. On the contrary, the students expressed an overwhelmingly positive attitude toward the teacher's OCF, and they did not believe it would decrease their self-confidence or cause negative feelings. Rather, most students said they were happy or grateful to receive teachers' OCF. Some students even regarded their teachers' feedback as a kind of 'teacher-care,' and they were happy to receive

the teacher's attention. Although sometimes students' stated beliefs are different from their actual feelings, these results nonetheless revealed that students had positive attitudes and feelings towards OCF.

Lastly, the result of this current study shows that teachers had varied concerns about providing oral CF, specifically students' language proficiency, personality, classroom size, time constraints, students' motivation, and lack of inclusion in the standard test. However, most students in this current study did not have these concerns, and they were more willing to accept and grateful to receive the teacher's OCF. It seemed that most of the teachers felt challenged in providing OCF, dissatisfied with their current OCF practice, and preoccupied that their OCF would have a negative effect on the students.

6.4 Theoretical Contributions

This section presents the theoretical implications of this current study for research on OCF. Firstly, it identified the cognitive theoretical perspectives to conceptualize OCF in second language learning, which provides a cognitively oriented understanding of the nature of OCF and illustrates the complexity of oral feedback as an instructional phenomenon. It discusses why OCF is seen as beneficial for L2 learning. It was illustrated in this thesis that OCF can make SL learner notice the gap between their interlanguage and the target language through interaction. OCF can be seen as an instructional input to make the learner repair their erroneous utterance. Then, it discussed the contribution to an understanding of the role of OCF in developing L2 knowledge by illustrating how the findings contribute to an understanding of the teachers' and students' beliefs towards the effectiveness of OCF, including the importance, timing, linguistic target and the type of feedback, students' feelings and influential factors which might impact their OCF practice. Third, it presents a more

comprehensive picture of the impact of various contextual factors on teachers' and students' OCF beliefs, and it deepens our understanding of the alignment between teachers' and students' OCF beliefs.

6.5 Empirical Contributions

The results of this study contribute to our current knowledge of teachers' and students' beliefs about the provision of OCF, their affective response, the challenges they are currently facing in their classrooms, and the alignment between these two groups. While some of the findings support the results of previous studies, new findings also appeared, which can augment the existing studies.

Regarding findings that support the existing studies, some findings in this current study showed similarities in different areas. For example, in line with earlier studies (e.g., Ha et al., 2021; Lee, 2013; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016; Tomczyk, 2013), this study found that both teachers and students showed positive beliefs about oral OCF, and they believed it would be beneficial for English language learning. Also, this study supported previous findings (e.g., Roothoof & Breeze, 2016) that EFL students rarely had negative feelings towards OCF, and they would be appreciative and willing to receive OCF while most EFL teachers were hesitant to provide OCF for the sake of protecting their students' feelings and motivation for learning English. Similarly, this study confirmed that individual and contextual factors such as classroom size, class time, and students' proficiency levels could affect teachers' beliefs about the provision of OCF (Brown, 2016; Goo & Mackey, 2013; Nassaji, 2018, Wang, Yu, & Teo, 2018).

In addition to the findings that support the previous research, this current study produced some new findings, including more detailed insights into teachers' and students'

OCF beliefs. As a result, this study has several main contributions to empirical knowledge on OCF. The first contribution was that it geographically expanded the findings in a Chinese university context. Even though the issues of providing corrective feedback have been widely discussed, they have not been well-researched in Asian regions in the past few years. Although there were some researchers (e.g., Ha et al., 2021; Ha & Murray, 2021; Zhu & Wang, 2019) who explored this topic in Asia, much of this research was conducted in a high school context rather than a university context. Moreover, very few were conducted in China. For example, Mori's (2011) study was conducted in Japan, and Ha et al.'s 2021 study was mainly conducted in Vietnam. Even though Zhu and Wang's (2019) study was conducted in a Chinese university context, it only covered students' beliefs, not those of teachers. This current study is an important contribution because it will expand our understanding of teachers' and students' beliefs on more aspects of OCF and provide a deep and comprehensive overview of oral corrective feedback within Chinese universities.

Secondly, in comparison with the amount of research on the beliefs of OCF, most of the previous research (e.g., Brown, 2009; Loewen et al., 2009) was conducted as part of larger projects that concerned language teaching and learning, and relatively few studies have investigated both teachers' and students' beliefs on this topic in a focused and comprehensive way. For example, Jean and Simard (2011) conducted an inquiry-based study to investigate teachers' and students' beliefs on different aspects of grammar instruction, but the results did not cover the all-around aspects of OCF; Roothoof and Breeze (2016) provided many contributing findings to the field of OCF, but the timing and linguistic foci of OCF was not included.

In addition, there has been little research discussing both teachers' and students' beliefs towards OCF, including the congruence of these beliefs. Most previous studies discussed teachers' and students' beliefs separately. For example, some studies (e.g., Agudo,

2014; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Mori, 2011) only focused on teachers' beliefs, and other studies (e.g., Fidan & Oztürk, 2015; Sakiroglu, 2020; Zhu & Wang, 2019) only investigated students' beliefs. However, understanding the discrepancy and difference between teachers' and students' beliefs is important because the mismatch between these beliefs might cause potential conflicts in the language learning process (Brown, 2009) and the mismatch between teachers' and students' beliefs needs exploration, since it may have major repercussions on teaching practice, as students whose expectations are not met by a language course may be reluctant to participate in classroom activities. For example, this current study found that Chinese EFL students prefer more explicit OCF, while teachers prefer more implicit OCF because students expect more straightforward guidance about where they made mistakes and how to correct them. By knowing this discrepancy, teachers can adjust their OCF strategies in order to meet students' needs.

Unlike much previous research, which only focused on Hendrickson's (1978) five questions, this current study looked at different aspects of OCF. For example, there is a dearth of research on students' affective responses to OCF, and this study investigated how students claim to feel when they receive OCF and how EFL teachers perceive their students' affective responses to OCF. This current study will add to the limited knowledge of how teachers and students feel about OCF and how teachers assess the impact of oral corrective feedback on students' emotional well-being and motivation. There is a need to increase our understanding of students' and teachers' beliefs and to learn more about the ways in which these can influence language teaching and learning.

Although earlier studies (e.g., Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Long, 2000; Mori, 2002; Sheen, 2006; Yang, 2016) explored the relationship that various factors (such as learner's proficiency, gender, and teacher-student relationship) had on teaching and learning, none of them discussed teachers' and students' perceived influential factors/challenges on the practice,

especially in a Chinese context. This study went one step further by exploring whether these factors would potentially influence teachers' and students' OCF practice. By looking at these factors, this current study can provide a more comprehensive picture of these mediating factors in investigating OCF and thus generate more potential suggestions, which will make empirical contributions to EFL teaching, especially EFL teaching in Chinese universities. By gaining a better understanding of the oral corrective feedback process from teachers and students, related departments can provide targeted teacher training programs for pre-service teachers, which will be significant in implementing further innovations to China's national curriculum.

This current study provided more detailed information on the provision of OCF. For example, concerning the timing of feedback, many previous researchers only used the classification "immediate" or "delayed". However, in this study, a more fine-tuned classification proposed by Rahimi and Zhang (2015) was adopted. Based on this category, it generated more detailed information that although both teachers and students prefer immediate OCF, they did not prefer "very immediate" OCF. Rather, their ideal timing for OCF was after students finished their utterances or sentences.

6.6 Methodological Contributions

Methodologically, this current study adopted a mixed methods research design to collect and analyze research data through quantitative and qualitative approaches. The use of a mixed-method study approach benefited the aims of the study as it allowed for the possibility of triangulation, in which the results are obtained by using different methods. A large number of studies reviewed in Chapter 2 only used questionnaires, but this current study went beyond that and was concerned with how and why teachers and students held

their beliefs. As a result of using more than one method, a more comprehensive picture of the teachers' and students' beliefs and the reason for discrepancies between them was discovered. In this way, the findings obtained can be understood more thoroughly through the convergence of the questionnaires and the interviews. Thus, further studies could incorporate a multi-layer approach when investigating more aspects of teachers' and students' beliefs toward OCF. This current study, to the best of our knowledge, is the first one that provides a comprehensive account of EFL teachers' and students' beliefs about OCF in the whole community. The findings could add to our understanding of the underlying constructs in teachers' and students' OCF beliefs. In addition, the teachers' and students' beliefs are compared, and caution should be exercised as students' OCF beliefs do not always correspond to teachers' beliefs or empirical evidence of OCF effectiveness.

6.7 Implications for TESOL Practice

This current study has implications for both teachers and teacher educators/related departments, both of which are explained in this section.

Several recommendations for teachers' OCF practices can be drawn from this current study. Firstly, from the discrepancies between students' and teachers' preferences with regard to OCF, the most significant implication of this study is for teachers to enhance communication between teachers and students. In this study, both teachers and students stated that they rarely exchange their ideas on OCF, but knowing students' preferences is important for teachers because error correction is not only proven to assist L2 development (Li, 2018) but it is also what learners expect from teachers (Li, 2017). According to Brown (2009), the mismatch between teacher and learner expectations about what should happen in the language classroom would significantly affect the learning outcome. It doesn't mean that

teachers should cater to students' preferences, but it is important for teachers to consider students' beliefs towards their pedagogical practice. Teachers may review the results from this study take students' expectations and reasons into consideration and adjust their OCF practice. In addition, they may send students questionnaires to investigate their preferences on a regular basis. If teachers cannot modify their classroom practice under some circumstances, they may instead explain their OCF rationale to their students. For example, students may expect more explicit feedback, and the teacher could explain to them that using implicit feedback can deepen their memory, which would be more beneficial for their language learning.

Secondly, teachers would do well to be open to experimenting with different OCF techniques. Based on the previous discussion in which it was seen that there are many factors that could influence the OCF practice, it is important for teachers to realize the extent to which they are able to apply their OCF beliefs to classroom practices. In a practical teaching environment, how teachers provide OCF may differ from the way they think errors should be corrected. To continually increase the overall effectiveness of their OCF practices, teachers could experiment with different OCF techniques that might even be different from their held beliefs to determine the most suitable techniques for their students. For example, the teacher could use different types of OCF to correct students' errors and observe what effect it had on their students. If they find which techniques can support their students most effectively, the teacher could reflect on this process and consciously attempt to change their initially held beliefs. In addition, teachers' and students' OCF beliefs may be different from country to country and between ESL and EFL contexts. Thus, it would be useful for teachers to have a clear understanding of learners' preferences and attitudes regarding error correction in a particular educational context.

Thirdly, teachers may need to increase their knowledge of OCF theoretically and empirically. In the interviews, many teachers reflected on the fact that they lacked the theoretical knowledge of OCF and that they had never received any training in this area. Their beliefs on students' spoken errors and their beliefs guiding their OCF practice mainly came from their teaching experience, without any theoretical or pedagogical support. It has been suggested that teacher educators in China could help teachers understand different aspects of OCF by designing workshops or teaching programs that specifically inform teachers of all the necessary information and techniques related to both oral and written CF. In addition, teacher educators could encourage teachers to experiment with different OCF types and develop their own understanding and suitable practice of OCF. Teachers could be encouraged to observe each other's classrooms and learn from each other since different teachers' teaching concepts vary, and the strategies for dealing with oral errors will be different. For example, after observing different teachers' classes, they could hold a group discussion to communicate their feelings, perceived difficulties, advantages, and suggestions. In this way, teachers could learn from each other's practice and know how other people view their OCF practice. The teachers could do some regular mutual classroom observation as it is a very effective way for teachers to find out the problems and shortcomings of their teaching.

Finally, many teachers reflected that the classroom size was too big to conduct effective oral learning. Even though they wished to conduct oral communication tasks, the size of the classroom hindered their practice, and there was little chance for them to get everyone involved in a speaking activity. The most frequently used oral activity is still Q & A between teachers and students. Even though there are other oral activities, such as presentations, students only have limited opportunities to perform because there are too many students. In addition, most English classes are around 40-50 minutes long, and therefore there are time constraints. Teachers can hardly allocate time for each student and give them the

opportunity to participate in speaking activities. Thus, in order to create a more facilitating language learning classroom, the related department could consider designing more small-size English classrooms and making each English class longer. Since English speaking is not included in the CET test, many teachers stated that they would not emphasize oral English because it is not included in their teaching objectives. Both students and teachers stated that the inclusion of oral tasks could lower students' motivation for learning English speaking, and thus they may not pay attention to teachers' OCF on their oral errors. It could be suggested that the Chinese education department could address the importance of English speaking more in higher education. In order to increase teachers' motivation for teaching oral English, schools or education departments could include it in their teaching objectives and set up some material rewards for outstanding teaching outcomes.

6.8 Limitations of the Current Study

There is no perfect empirical study, and it is important to consider and acknowledge potential limitations as they affect the validity and trustworthiness of a given study. This section aims to do this. The first limitation of this current study was that it focused specifically on teachers' and students' stated beliefs. However, participants' stated beliefs might be different from their beliefs in practice (Basturkmen et al., 2004; Zheng, 2013, 2015). This could be seen as a limitation because teachers' and students' stated beliefs may be different from the set of beliefs they hold in their hearts. The researcher did not collect data in relation to their actual classroom practices in providing OCF. Teachers' and students' stated beliefs about OCF may not always coincide with actual practice (Basturkmen et al., 2004). For example, teachers may prefer to use implicit OCF because they believe it would lead to student's long-term memory. However, in reality, they just use the recast method in order to save time. It is the same for the students' stated emotional responses to OCF, which might not

correspond to how they actually felt when they were corrected. For this current study, an important caveat needed to be taken into account, namely that this work dealt with stated beliefs, and there was the possibility that the participants were answering what they felt the researcher wanted to hear, what was known as "acquiescence bias" (Wagner, 2010).

A second limitation of this current study concerns the generalizability of the findings that investigating teachers' and students' beliefs cannot draw a complete picture of the students' and teachers' reality of OCF in Chinese universities. There are regional and tier differences in different Chinese universities, which may influence factors such as students' proficiency levels, teaching objectives, and school policy. In this study, this information has not been well-distinguished because the survey was allocated online, information such as participants' schools, provinces, and proficiency levels were unknown, and the data sources and the survey scope were not clear. In addition, the sample size was relatively small. As in some previous research, such as Zhu and Wang (2019), the participants' number was about 3000 student participants, and thus the generalizability of the study to a larger population needs to be considered carefully. Because the sample size of each group in this study was not as large as in other studies, their answers may have affected the distribution of the data, rendering the data less representative of the population.

A third limitation of this current study was that the questionnaire and interview were constructed and administered in the Chinese language since many students' proficiency levels could not support their English expression, and many teachers stated that they would be more comfortable if the interview was in Chinese. Thus, the researcher used the non-English version, and it was translated after the data were collected. There might be some loss of or misunderstanding of the information through translation,

Some other limitations were unavoidable with the methods chosen. First, the answers given in the questionnaire might not align with the answers given during the interview, and

this was unavoidable. During the interview, the researcher did not remind the participants of what they put on the questionnaire, and some of their answers may not have been what they were actually thinking at the time of filling out the questionnaire. It can be inferred that participants' stated beliefs may not accurately report their true opinions during the face-to-face interviews, or their opinions were inconsistent over time. In addition, due to the lack of research experience of the researcher, the design of the instrument might not have been perfect. For example, when asking about teachers' and students' beliefs regarding the importance of OCF, the researcher only put two answers, "yes" or "no," and did not leave a third choice, and the researcher had to collect more complimentary information through semi-structured interviews. For another example, the researcher found that there were some useless questions in the interview, the answers to which were not supportive of the research questions.

Lastly, only a few existing studies on teachers' and students' beliefs toward OCF in China could be found. Many reviewed research articles were conducted in the ESL context, which could not be fully applied in the EFL context. In addition, there were few articles that could provide supportive information in a Chinese university context. Consequently, the present study lacks theoretical support, and there is not a lot of comparative information for the discussion of the results.

6.9 Recommendations for Future Research

To begin with, this current study is an exploratory study of teachers' and students' beliefs towards OCF, which could help to refine the categories and examine how the beliefs reflect actual practice. However, there has been no data collected in relation to the actual classroom practices around OCF. Teachers' and students' stated beliefs about OCF may not

coincide with actual practice, and future study could further explore teachers' and students' beliefs, their classroom error correction practice, and the link between the two. In addition, it is necessary to conduct studies for further investigation on the effects of OCF in general and of different types, timing, and linguistic foci of OCF. Researchers could conduct research that systematically examined the effects of specific types, timing and linguistic foci, and combinations of OCF and then discuss the links between teachers' and students' beliefs toward feedback and the effects of feedback. All this could be further explored.

Second, future researchers are encouraged to conduct similar studies in different contexts with different participants. This is because, while there may be some similarities found in other EFL and ESL contexts in comparison to this study's findings, there will be many differences among contextual factors. Thus, future studies could explore the same topic in different instructional contexts with other participants.

Thirdly, future research could explore factors that influence participants' beliefs and practices and how these factors may interact simultaneously in a complex way. In addition, it would be valuable to find out the extent to which these factors and their interaction can moderate teachers' OCF beliefs and practices because this information could help researchers understand the reasons behind participants' OCF beliefs and practices.

In addition, instead of paying more attention to linguistic considerations when providing OCF, more attention could be paid to individual learner factors such as gender, anxiety, language proficiency, cultural background, prior experience etc. To advance this line of research, future research could explore how different learner variables affect how L2 students perceive and react to oral feedback. Regarding the contextual issues involved in OCF, teacher-student interpersonal relationships and interactional contexts have rarely been investigated, and future investigations could examine in depth how these factors influence OCF practice in detail.

6.10 Personal Reflections and Remarks

I began this Ph.D. topic because I was interested in improving my English speaking in China. My teaching experience and many observations of different language classrooms in different countries made me consider how to correct students' mistakes when they were speaking. This in-depth investigation of teachers' and students' beliefs towards OCF made me realize that both teachers and students had a wide range of different opinions about how errors should be corrected, and I understand that their different beliefs might generate different learning/teaching outcomes. Another reason for me to choose this topic was that, in Asian contexts, especially the Chinese context, this topic had not been explored and compared before, and I believed that insights into the Chinese higher education context could help English teachers in China to provide OCF more effectively and to improve the quality of their English teaching. For students, I believe this topic could help them to be aware of the importance of OCF, thus correcting their oral errors more effectively.

Through investigating this specific topic and having connected with many teachers and students in China, I have not only become aware of their preference towards the provision of OCF and how they feel about OCF but also have come to understand how complex and interconnected teachers' and students' beliefs are. In addition, I obtained information about what factors can affect teachers' and students' beliefs and what they could do to increase the effectiveness of their OCF practices. It is my hope that more researchers will conduct similar research to that undertaken in this study, focusing on finding out how different factors affect teachers' and students' OCF practice and what the underlying beliefs of those practices are thereby improving the use of OCF in English language learning.

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Appendix 1 Participant Information Statement (Chinese)

TESOL 学科



悉尼大学教育与社会工作学院

艺术与社会科学系

ABN 15 211 513 464

816 室

教育大楼 A35

悉尼大学

Aek Phakiti 博士

澳大利亚新南威尔士，2006

TESOL 副教授

电话：+61 2 9351 6312

传真：+61 2 9351 2606

电子邮箱：aek.phakiti@sydney.edu.au

网站：<http://www.usyd.edu.au/>

参与者信息声明

中国 EFL 大学教师口语纠错反馈的信念、现状和挑战

(1) 这项研究关于什么？

本研究旨在探讨中国 EFL 教师在英语口语课上口头纠正反馈的信念、实践和挑战。研究结果将有助于深入理解中国高等教育中的口语纠错反馈，并有望揭示其对职前和新手中国 EFL 教师的启示。

敬邀您参与本研究，您将参与师生反馈互动，您的发言可能会被转录作研究之用。此参与者信息声明是告知您有关研究的信息。了解相关内容将有助于您决定是否参加本研究。请仔细阅读本表，如有任何不理解或想了解的问题，请随时提问。

您完全是自愿参与本研究。

同意参与本研究即表明您：

理解自己看到的内容。

同意参加下列研究。

同意我们使用您所描述的个人信息。

您将获得一份此参与者信息声明的副本。

(2) 谁负责这项研究？

本研究由 Chenrui Jia 负责，旨在为获得悉尼大学教育博士学位奠定基础。本研究在 Aek Phakiti 博士和教授 Jack C. Richards 博士的指导下进行。

(3) 这项研究对我有什么意义？

研究者将根据教师参与者的情况观察 2-4 次您的英语课堂情况。研究者将坐在教室的后面观察和记录信息，不会干扰自然的教室环境。所有课程均会被录像，如果任何老师因为个人原因不愿意被录像，则使用录音机将作为辅助工具。录像或录音课堂观察的重点是老师的发言，而记录稿仍将包括您的发言，供以后分析。

(4) 这项研究将占用我多少时间？

访谈将花费您大约 2 个小时的时间，课堂观察将花费 2-4 个小时。

(5) 我是否必须得参加这项研究？开始研究后我是否可以退出？

参加本研究完全是出于自愿，而并非必须参加。如果您不想被记录，那么我们会将您安置在摄像机覆盖不到的区域，研究人员会故意避免记录您。您在视频中所做的任何发言都不会被转录并用于研究目的。无论您决定是否参与都不会影响您现在或将来与悉尼大学的研究人员或其他任何人的关系。本研究不会影响您的成绩和您与大学的关系。

如果您在决定参与研究之后改变主意，也可以随时退出。您可向研究人员（cjia6506@uni.sydney.edu.au）发送电子邮件申请退出即可。

(6) 参与这项研究是否有任何风险或成本？

除了浪费您的时间之外，我们不认为参与本研究会有任何风险或成本。

(7) 参与这项研究是否有任何好处？

我们并不能保证您会从学习中获得任何直接的好处。

(8) 研究过程中收集的关于我的信息会发生什么变化？

这些信息将被用于研究人员的博士论文，论文可能会发表，但您的信息将被匿名。本研究将被严格保密，只有研究人员及其主管才能接触到您的信息。存储在硬盘中的数据将在 5 年后销毁。

(9) 我能把这项研究告诉别人吗？

可以，欢迎您把本研究告诉其他人。

(10)如果我想了解更多关于这项研究的信息呢？

您阅读完此信息后，Chenrui（[cjia 6506@uni.Sydney.edu.au](mailto:cjia6506@uni.Sydney.edu.au)）将与您进一步讨论并回答您的任何问题。如果您想在研究的任何阶段了解更多信息，请随时联系研究人员的导师 Aek Phakiti 副教授，电话：+61 2 9351 6312 或（aek.phakiti@sydney.edu.au）。

(11)会把研究结果告知我吗？

您有权获得本研究的全部结果。您可以向研究人员发送电子邮件（cjia6506@uni.sydney.edu.au）告诉我们您希望获得反馈。该反馈将以一页总结的形式提供，研究完成后，您将收到该反馈。

(12)如果我对这项研究有任何投诉或担忧，该怎么办？

澳大利亚涉及人类的研究由一个名为人类研究伦理委员会（HREC）的独立小组审查。本研究的伦理方面已经获得悉尼大学 HREC[一旦获得批准会立即补充协议编号]的批准。作为该过程的一部分，我们已经同意根据《国家关于人类研究伦理行为的声明》（2007 年）开展本研究。本声明是为了保护同意参加研究的人。

如果您对本研究的进行方式感到担忧，或者您想要向独立于本研究的人投诉，请根据下列方式联系学校。请注明研究标题和方案编号。

悉尼大学道德管理经理：

- 电话：+61 2 8627 xx
- 电子邮箱：human.ethics@Sydney.edu.au
- 传真：+61 2 8627 8177（传真）

如果您对项目有意见，请联系下列当地联系人。

- 姓名：Yang Zhao
- 职位：河南工业大学讲师
- 电话：+86 15515323000
- 电子邮箱：Zhaoyang1982@qq.com

本信息表由您保管

Appendix 2 Participant Information Statement (English)



Discipline of TESOL

Sydney School of Education and Social Work

Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences

ABN 15 211 513 464

Room 816

Education Building A35

The University of Sydney

Dr. Aek Phakiti

NSW 2006 AUSTRALIA

Associate Professor in TESOL

Telephone: +61 2 9351 6312

Facsimile: +61 2 9351 2606

Email: aek.phakiti@sydney.edu.au

Web: <http://www.usyd.edu.au/>

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION STATEMENT

Chinese EFL University Teachers' and Student's beliefs towards Oral Corrective Feedback in the English Class

(1) What is this study about?

This research study is about investigating the oral corrective feedback beliefs of Chinese EFL teachers and students in English speaking classes. The findings will delve into understanding oral corrective feedback within Chinese higher education and hopefully uncover the implications for English education in Chinese University.

You have been invited to participate in this study because you are involved in teacher-student feedback interaction and your interview might be transcribed for research purpose. This Participant Information Statement informs you about the research study. Knowing what is involved will help you decide if you want to take part in the study. Please carefully read this sheet and ask questions about anything that you don't understand or want to know more about.

Participation in this research study is voluntary.

By giving consent to take part in this study, you are telling us that you:

Understand what you have read.

Agree to take part in the research study as outlined below.

Agree to the use of your personal information as described.

You will be given a copy of this Participant Information Statement to keep.

(2) Who is running the study?

The study is being run by Chenrui Jia to form the basis for earning a PhD degree in Education (TESOL) at the University of Sydney. This study is under the supervision of Associate Professor Dr. Aek Phakiti and Professor Dr. Jack C. Richards.

(3) What will the study involve for me?

The researcher will send you a questionnaire to fill and this questionnaire will investigate your belief of oral corrective feedback you received/provided in your English class. The researcher might invite you to do an online audio-recorded interview if you are willing to. Your answer on the questionnaire and your audio-recorded interview transcripts will be analyzed for a study about oral corrective and language teaching.

(4) How much of my time will the study occupy?

The questionnaire will take approximately 20 minutes for you to fill. The interview will take 40 minutes to an hour if you are invited to participate.

(5) Do I have to be in the study? Can I withdraw from the study once I've started?

Participation in this study is completely voluntary and you do not have to take part. If you have already started, what you have answered on the questionnaire and interview will not be used for further data analysis. Your decision on whether to participate will not affect your current or future relationship with the researchers or anyone else at the University of Sydney. This research will not affect your grade and the relationship with your university.

If you decide to take part in the study and then change your mind later, you are free to withdraw at any time. You can do this by sending the researcher an e-mail (cjia6506@uni.sydney.edu.au).

(6) Are there any risks or costs associated with being in the study?

Aside from the loss of your time, we do not expect there to be any risks or costs associated with taking part in this study.

(7) Are there any benefits associated with being in the study?

We cannot guarantee that you will receive any direct benefits from being in the study.

(8) What will happen to the information about me that is collected during the study?

This information will be used in the researcher's PhD thesis, which might be published, but your information will be anonymized. This study will be kept strictly confidential with only the researcher and her supervisor having access to your information. The data stored in the hard-drive will be destroyed after 5 years.

(9) Can I tell other people about the study?

Yes, you are welcome to tell other people about the study.

(10) What if I would like further information about the study?

When you have read this information, Chenrui (cjia6506@uni.sydney.edu.au) will be available to further discuss it with you and answer any questions you may have. If you would like to know more at any stage of the study, please feel free to contact the researcher's supervisor, Associate Professor Aek Phakiti, at +61 2 9351 6312 or (aek.phakiti@sydney.edu.au).

(11) Will I be told the results of the study?

You have a right to receive the overall results of this study. You can tell us that you wish to receive feedback by sending the researcher an e-mail (cjia6506@uni.sydney.edu.au). This feedback will be in the form of a one -page summary and you will receive this feedback after the study is finished.

(12) What if I have a complaint or any concerns about the study?

Research involving humans in Australia is reviewed by an independent group of people called a Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC). The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the HREC of the University of Sydney [INSERT protocol number once approval is obtained]. As part of this process, we have agreed to carry out the study according to the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007). This statement has been developed to protect people who agree to take part in research studies.

If you are concerned about the way this study is being conducted or you wish to make a complaint to someone independent of this study, please contact the university using the details outlined below. Please quote the study title and protocol number.

The Manager, Ethics Administration, University of Sydney:

- Telephone: +61 2 8627 xx
- Email: human.ethics@sydney.edu.au
- Fax: +61 2 8627 8177 (Facsimile)

If you have complaints about the research project. the local, readily accessible contact are outlined below.

- Name: Yang Zhao
- Position: lecture, Henan Technology University
- Telephone: +86 13525431282
- Email: 110982326@qq.com

This information sheet is for you to keep

Appendix 3 Letter of recruitment



Discipline of TESOL

Sydney School of Education and Social Work

Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences

ABN 15 211 513 464

Dear _____,

My name is Chenrui Jia and I am a PhD student from the School of Education and Social Work at the University of Sydney in Australia. My PhD thesis topic is “Chinese EFL University Teachers’ and student’s beliefs towards Oral Corrective Feedback in the English Class” and I am conducting my study under the supervision of Associate Professor Aek Phakiti (aek.phakiti@sydney.edu.au). This research study is about investigating the oral corrective feedback beliefs of Chinese EFL teachers and students in English speaking classes and finding out how well their beliefs correspond with each other. This study will help us to understand Chinese EFL teachers’ and students’ beliefs, actual practices and challenges they have on oral corrective feedback. The findings will delve into understanding oral corrective feedback within Chinese higher education and hopefully uncover the implications for English education in Chinese University.

This study will use 2 different data collection techniques. First, the questionnaire will be given to a large number of teachers and students to explore their beliefs and a semi-structured interview will be conducted with sample participants (5-8 teachers, 5-8 students). In order to collect representative and comprehensive data, I would like to recruit participants from your school since it is a comprehensive university which offer assorted majors and there are full-time students come from different provinces all over China. Your school offer English speaking class and there are many EFL teachers who meet my participants criteria. Could you please send this e-mail to the teachers in your English department to see who might interested in my study? Also, Could you please forward this e-mail to students’ university e-mail address? (There is no criteria for selecting participants). Anyone who are interested in participating this study may contact me (cjia6506@uni.sydney.edu.au) if they have any questions or they wish to become sample participants. No participation is required from you.

Thank you.

Yours sincerely,
Chenrui Jia

Appendix 4 Safety protocol



Discipline of TESOL
Sydney School of Education and Social Work
Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences

ABN 15 211 513 464

Dr. Aek Phakiti
Associate Professor in TESOL

Room 816
Education Building A35
The University of Sydney
NSW 2006 AUSTRALIA
Telephone: +61 2 9351 6312
Facsimile: +61 2 9351 2606
Email: aek.phakiti@sydney.edu.au
Web: <http://www.usyd.edu.au/>

Beliefs, Current Practices and Challenges in Oral Corrective Feedback by Chinese EFL University Teachers

SAFETY PROTOCOL

- The student researcher will be conducting interviews alone or however her supervisor considers that the safeguards provided in this safety protocol are sufficient to manage the safety risks.
- The student researcher will discuss interview safety and perform practice interviews with her supervisor prior to travelling overseas.
- The student researcher has confirmed there is mobile phone coverage in the areas where the research will take place, has access to global roaming and will take her mobile phone to every interview.
- The student researcher will provide a schedule to her supervisor of the date, time and place of all interviews. She will confirm the safe completion of each interview by mobile telephone with her local contact person. She will maintain contact with her supervisor at least twice a week by email.
- The student researcher will conduct the majority of interviews in safe, public places. She will provide her local contact with a protocol to be followed if she fails to call within a specified time.
- The student researcher has confirmed that there are currently no travel warnings from the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade for China. She has subscribed to the travel advice to receive email updates each time the travel warning is reissued.
- The student researcher undertakes to follow the University of Sydney guidelines on Fieldwork Safety Standards
- The student researcher is a Chinese citizen and she is confident in travelling in the area. She has the knowledge of the local language, culture and customs.
- This safety protocol has been agreed and accepted by the researcher and the supervisor.

Page 1 of 2

Signature of Chief Investigator or Supervisor

Name: AEK PHAKITI

(print)

Signature: .

[REDACTION]

Date:

16/03/2020

Signature of Associate Researcher(s) or Student(s)

Name: Chenrui Jia

Signature:

[REDACTION]

(print)

Date:

13/03/2020

Appendix 5 Consent form (English)



Discipline of TESOL
Sydney School of Education and Social Work
Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences

ABN 15 211 513 464

Research supervisor:

Aek Phakiti

Associate Professor in TESOL

Room 816

Education Building A35

The University of Sydney

NSW 2006 AUSTRALIA

Telephone: +61 2 9351 6312

Facsimile: +61 2 9351 2606

Email: aek.phakiti@sydney.edu.au

Web: <http://www.usyd.edu.au/>

Auxiliary supervisor:

Jack Richards

Email:

[REDACTION]

Honorary Professor in TESOL

Chinese EFL University Teachers' and Student's beliefs towards Oral Corrective Feedback in the English Class

Teacher Participant Consent Form

I, [PRINT NAME], agree to take part in this research study.

- I understand the purpose of the study, what I will be asked to do, and any risks/benefits involved.
- I have read the Participant Information Statement and have been able to discuss my involvement in the study with the researchers if I wished to do so.
- The researchers have answered any questions that I had about the study and I am happy with the answers.
- I understand that being in this study is completely voluntary and I do not have to take part. My decision whether to be in the study will not affect my relationship with the researchers or anyone else at the University of Sydney now or in the future.
- I understand that I can withdraw from the study at any time.
- I understand that I may stop the interview and questionnaire at any time if I do not wish to continue, and that unless I indicate otherwise any recordings will then be erased and the information provided will not be included in the study. I also understand that I may refuse to answer any questions I don't wish to answer.

- I understand that personal information about me that is collected over the course of this project will be stored securely and will only be used for purposes that I have agreed to. I understand that information about me will only be told to others with my permission, except as required by law.
- I understand that the results of this study may be published, and that these publications will not contain my name or any identifiable information about me.

I consent to:

- **Audio-recording** YES ☐ NO ☐
- **questionnaire** YES ☐ NO ☐
- **Being contacted about future studies** YES ☐ NO ☐

I would like to review my interview transcripts YES ☐ no NO ☐

I would like to receive feedback about the overall results of this study YES ☐ NO ☐

If you answered **YES**, please indicate your preferred form of feedback and address:

☐ Postal: _____

☐ Email: _____

.....
Signature

.....
PRINT name

.....
Date

Appendix 6 Consent Form (Chinese)



TESOL学科

悉尼大学教育和社会工作学院
艺术与社会科学学院

ABN 15 211 513 464

Dr. Aek Phakiti
TESOL副教授

澳大利亚新南威尔士州2006
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网址: <http://www.usyd.edu.au/>

中国高校英语教师和学生英语课堂中学生口语口头纠错反馈的看法

实验参与同意书

我, [[印刷体姓名], 同意参加本研究。

- 我了解研究的目的, 我将被要求做什么, 以及涉及的任何风险/利益。
- 研究人员已经回答了我对这项研究的任何问题, 我对答案很满意。
- 我明白参加这项研究完全是自愿的, 我也有不参加的权利。我是否参加这项研究的决定不会影响我和研究人员的关系, 也不会影响我现在或将来与大学里任何人的关系。
- 我明白我可以随时退出这项研究。
- 我明白在这个项目过程中收集的关于我的个人信息将被安全地存储, 并且只用于我同意的目的。我明白, 除非法律要求, 否则只有在我允许的情况下, 才会将有关我的信息告诉其他人。
- 我明白本研究的结果可能会被公布, 并且这些公布不会包含我的姓名或任何关于我的可识别信息。

我同意：

- 录音

是 ☐ 否 ☐
- 问卷

是 ☐ 否 ☐
- 联系了解未来的研究

是 ☐ 否 ☐

我想回顾一下我的采访和教师观摩记录

是 ☐ 否 ☐

我想得到关于这项研究总体结果的反馈

是 ☐ 否 ☐

如果您回答是，请注明您希望的反馈形式和地址：

☐ 邮政：

☐ 电子邮件：

.....

签名

.....

印刷体姓名

.....

日期

Appendix 7 Questions for Interview (Student)

Student Interview Questions

1. Background information

1. What is your major?
2. What's your grade?
3. Have you lived or worked in an English-speaking country (US, England, Canada, ...)? If yes, where and for how long?
4. How many English class do you have a week?
5. How many students in your classroom?
6. Are you learning English anywhere else now, apart from at this school? If yes, what do you do? Where and how many hours a week?
7. Do you like speaking English in your class? Why or why not?
8. How many students in your English classroom?
9. What is the usual length of your English class?
10. Do you speak English in your class a lot?
11. What kind of activities do you normally do in your English class? (Prompt: reading a text, playing games...)

2. Beliefs

1. If you need to speak English in class and you make a mistake, would you like your teacher to correct you? Why or Why not?
2. How often do you receive OCF?
3. What are your general beliefs about oral corrective feedback?
4. How do you value its importance?
5. Do you think it is useful? In which way?
6. Whose responsibility do you think it is going be?
7. What kind of factors helped shaping your beliefs?
8. Do you receive oral corrective feedback in your English class?

3. Practices

1. Can you explain how oral activity happen in your class?
2. Do you receive enough oral corrective feedback?
3. When do you want your teacher to provide oral corrective feedback? (Prompt: immediate after mistakes, after the whole conversion....) Why?
4. Which two types of oral corrective feedback do your teacher use most/least?
5. Which two types of oral corrective feedback do you wish your teacher use most/least? Why?
5. Which types of oral corrective feedback do you think is the most effective? Why?
6. What kinds of errors do you wish your teacher to provide oral corrective feedback? Why? (Prompt: grammar/ lexical/....)
7. What factors might affect your oral corrective feedback process? (Prompts: your' proficiency level, your personality/preferences, time...)
8. What normally happens after the you have received your teacher' feedback? Explain
9. Do your teacher ever ask you about your oral corrective feedback preferences?
10. Are you satisfied with your teacher's oral corrective feedback practice? Why or Why not?
11. Do you think the feedback you receive are effective?
12. Do you think your ever considered your feeling when providing you oral corrective feedback? Why or Why not?
13. How do you normally feel when your teacher correct you?

4. Challenges/Improvement

1. What challenges, if any, do you face while receiving OCF?
2. What intervention/support do you wish to receive in order to improve your oral corrective feedback experience?

Appendix 8 Questions for Interview (Teacher)

Teacher Interview Questions

1. Background information

1. What academic degree do you hold?
2. Where did you get your degree from?
3. Do you have overseas experience?
4. How many years have you been teaching?
5. How many years have you been teaching at your current context?
6. What kinds of teaching training have you ever had?
7. How many hours a week do you teach?
8. How many students in your English classroom?
9. What grade are you teaching?
10. What is the usual length of your English class?
7. What is your training experience on giving oral corrective feedback?
8. Thinking about your past education experience, what is your experience of receiving feedback, especially oral corrective feedback?

2. Beliefs

1. What are your general beliefs about oral corrective feedback?
2. How do you value its importance?
3. Do you think it is useful? In which way?
4. Whose responsibility do you think it is going to be?
5. What kind of factors helped shaping your beliefs?

3. Practices

1. Can you explain how oral activity happens in your class?
2. Do you give enough oral corrective feedback to students?
3. When do you provide oral corrective feedback?
4. Which type(s) of oral corrective feedback do you use most/least? Why?
5. Which types of oral corrective feedback do you think is the most effective?
6. What kinds of errors tend to receive oral corrective feedback? Why? (Prompt: grammar/lexical/....)
7. What factors might affect your oral corrective feedback process? (Prompts: students' proficiency level, students' expectations/preferences, time)
8. What happens after the student has received your feedback? Explain
9. Do you ask your students about their oral corrective feedback preferences? Why?
10. Are you satisfied with your feedback practices?
11. Do you think the feedback you provided are effective?
12. Are you confident about your feedback quality as a second language learner as well?
13. Have you ever considered your students' feeling when you provide them oral corrective feedback? If yes, how do you think your students will feel.

4. Challenges/Improvement

1. What challenges, if any, do you face while providing OCF?
2. What intervention/support do you wish to receive in order to improve your oral corrective feedback practice?

Appendix 9 Questionnaire for Teachers (Chinese)

中国高校英语课堂口语纠错反馈问卷调查-教师版本

参与者声明：

请您仔细阅读参与者信息声明本知情同意书，清楚了解本研究的目的和过程，并在仔细阅读以上有关说明后，经过充分的考虑，自愿成为此项研究的参与者，积极配合研究人员进行本项研究。

参与者姓名：

[填空题] *

第一部分：个人信息

此部分将帮助我们了解您的大概个人背景和目前的工作情况。

性别 [单选题] *

☐男

☐女

年龄 [填空题] *

学历 [单选题] *

☐高中

☐本科

☐研究生

☐博士

☐博士后及以上

您所持学历的专业是什么？ [填空题] *

请问您是否曾在英语国家生活或工作过（例如美国、英国、加拿大等）？ [单选题] *

☐是

☐否

如果是，请问您在哪个国家？生活了多久？ [填空题] *

依赖于（题目：请问您是否...）第 1 个选项

您教书几年了 [填空题] *

您在哪所大学教书 [填空题] *

您现在教大学几年级的英语？ [多选题] *

- ☐一年级
☐二年级
☐三年级
☐四年级

您有几个班级要教？ [单选题] *

- ☐1
☐2
☐3
☐4
☐大于等于 5

您一节英语课多长时间？ [填空题] *

每周英语课节数 [填空题] *

每个班级平均人数是多少？ [填空题]

您是全英文教学吗 [单选题] *

- ☐是
☐否

标题[矩阵文本题] [输入 0 到 100 的数字] *

如果不是全英文教学，请问您用英语教学的时间占课堂的时间的比例是多少	

您在英语课上做以下活动的频率如何？请在对应栏中标记[矩阵单选题] *

	从不	很少	经常	通常	总是
语法或词汇讲解练习	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
跟读课文	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

听录音对话练习听力	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
阅读文章	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
用英语玩游戏	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
用英语进行小组讨论	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
以课堂为单位，在全班面前说英语	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

第二部分：此部分将帮助我们了解您关于口语纠错反馈的一些看法。

您一般通过什么活动带领学生开口说英语？[矩阵单选题]*

	从不	很少	经常	通常	总是
朗读课文	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
做游戏	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
根据话题以小组为单位讨论	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
根据话题以班级为单位讨论	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
PPT 展示	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
其他	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

如果您选择了其他，请告诉我们是什么活动。如果没有，请略过 [填空题]

您一般会花多少时间在小组或同伴合作上？[矩阵文本题] [输入 0 到 100 的数字]*

占整堂课百分比 (%)	_____

您认为大学英语课堂中，口语对学生英语学习重要吗？ [单选题] *

- ☐重要
- ☐不重要

如果不重要，请问为什么？ [填空题] *

依赖于（题目：您认为大学...）第 2 个选项

您对学生英语口语方面有测试或考试吗？ [单选题] *

- ☐有
- ☐没有

英语口语的成绩会影响学生的学业或者毕业吗？ [单选题] *

- ☐会
- ☐不会

您觉得您的学生喜欢在课堂上说英语吗？ [单选题] *

- ☐喜欢
- ☐不喜欢

如果不喜欢，您认为是什么原因？ [填空题] *

依赖于（题目：您觉得您的...）第 2 个选项

当学生说英语时犯了口语错误，您觉得纠正并及时反馈是不是很重要？ [单选题] *

- ☐重要
- ☐不重要

如果您认为不重要，请问您为什么这么认为 [填空题] *

依赖于（题目：当学生说英...）第 2 个选项

您认为您的学生希望您纠正他们的口语错误吗？ [单选题] *

- ☐希望
- ☐不希望

第三部分：此部分将帮助我们了解您在提供纠错反馈的实际过程中的一些看法和理念。

当您说英语时，您希望老师纠正那种错误？

请将下列错误类型按照重要程度排序。 [矩阵单选题] *

	完 全 不 重 要	不 太 重 要	一 般 重 要	重 要	非 常 重 要
语法错误, 例如:"I like play football" (这里的 play 应为 playing), "There is ten students in my class." (这里的 There is 应为 there are)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
发音错误, 例如:" I like esport."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
词汇错误, 例如:"he is very high." (这里的 high 应为 tall)"The film was a great exit, it won 5 oscars." (这里的 exit 应为 success)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
语用错误, 例如 "it was sure that he would keep its food." (虽然这句话表面上没有错误, 但代词 "it"所指内容不清楚)。	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
中文的不当使用, 例如: "I like 披萨 (这里应为 pizza)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

当老师用英语问了你一个问题, 你的回答出现以下错误:

老师: What did you do last weekend? 你上周末做了什么?

学生: I watch a film with my friends.我和朋友看了一部电影

以下为老师的不同纠正方式, 请选择你认为这些纠正方式的有效程度。[矩阵单选题] *

	完 全 无 效	无 效	效 果 一 般	有 效	非 常 有 效

1.Watch. Watch 是现在时，但是你需要用过去式，因为是过去发生的	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.watched。	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.对不起？请再说一次？	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.如果讨论过去的话动词应该怎么变化？	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.Last weekend I ...? 暂停一下，语调上扬	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.I WATCH a film? 重复和强调了错误的部分	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.摇头或者用动作示意	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

您最常用的两种反馈纠正方式是什么？请选择两个对应的数字序号 [多选题] *

- ☐1
- ☐2
- ☐3
- ☐4
- ☐5
- ☐6
- ☐7

请写下两种您认为您的学生会最喜欢的纠错反馈方式（请写下对应数字序号） [多选题] *

- ☐1
- ☐2
- ☐3
- ☐4
- ☐5
- ☐6
- ☐7

请问您有其他反馈的方式吗？如果有请写下，如果没有请略过此问题 [填空题]

当您的学生犯了一个口语错误，您觉得什么时候给学生纠正并且反馈最有效呢？[矩阵单选题]*

	完全无 效	无效	效果一 般	有效	非常有 效
在错误出现后立刻指出，不论是否打断学生的话	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
在学生说完整句话后指出	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
在整个相关口语活动结束后指出	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
在课堂结束时指出并总结	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

第四部分：学生感受

当您的学生在课堂上讲英语，而您打断了他去纠正他的口语错误。我们希望了解您认为他的感受会如何？[矩阵单选题]*

	从不	很少	经常	通常	总是
他会很开心	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
他会很沮丧	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
他会很尴尬	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
他会很感激	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
他会僵住了	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
他会感觉很糟糕，因为他的英语说的不好	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
他会想我以后会少说英语	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

第五部分：阻碍与建议

请问下列列出的点是否会成为您对学生的口语提供纠错反馈的阻碍因素？如果是，请告诉我们影响程度。[矩阵单选题] *

	没有影响	稍微影响	影响	较为影响	非常影响
学生英语水平较低	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
学生自身性格原因（如害羞，内向等等）	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
课堂过大，学生过多	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
课堂时间有限	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
和学生平时的私人关系不紧密	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
缺乏纠正反馈的专业知识	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
上课口语活动类型限制	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
学校教学目标的压力	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

如果您能想到其他阻碍因素，请告诉我们是什么。如果您没有选择，请略过 [填空题]

对于您在英语课堂中纠正学生口语错误时，您有没有什么意见或建议，或者什么地方希望学校或有关部门改进？如果有，请您详细叙述 [填空题]

Appendix 10 Questionnaire for Teachers (English)

Teacher Questionnaire on oral feedback.

This questionnaire is completely anonymous and the results will be used for a study on oral corrective feedback and language teaching. It takes about 20 minutes to complete.

What do we mean by oral corrective feedback (OCF)?

OCF: any indication you give to your students that there is something incorrect about what they have just said.

Section 1: Background information

In this section, we would like to know something about you and the context in which you teach. Please complete the following information.

Gender : Male/Female/Other	
Age:	Where are you currently teaching:
Academic degree:	Name and location of your school/centre:
Grade you currently teach:	Average number of students per class:
How many hours a week do you teach?	Usual length of one lesson:
Years of teaching experience:	Course materials you use:
Qualifications:	

Section B: Beliefs on providing oral corrective feedback

In this section, from question 1-4. We would like to know the belief you hold on providing oral corrective feedback.

1. How much time do you think your students spend speaking the target language during a typical lesson? (e.g. half of the lesson, 20 % of the lesson, ...): _____
2. How much time do you normally spend on pair or group work? (e.g. half of the lesson, 20 % of the lesson, ...): _____

3. Do you think it is important to give students feedback on language mistakes when they speak? Why/ why not?

4. Do you think your students expect to get feedback on their oral mistakes?

Section C: Beliefs on Oral Corrective Feedback in Practice.

In this section, from question 5-8. We would like to know the belief you hold on providing oral corrective feedback in practice.

1. A student makes a grammar mistake. How effective do you think the teacher's reactions are to help the student improve?

2.

Teacher: What did you do last weekend?

Teacher's reaction:	Not at all effective	Ineffective	Neither effective nor ineffective	effective	Very effective
1. No, not watch, watched.					
2. Oh, you watched a film. Which one?					
3. watched					
4. I'm sorry?/ Pardon?					
5. You need to use the past tense.					

6. Last weekend I ...? (pausing, with rising intonation)					
7. I WATCH a film? (stressing the mistake, with rising intonation)					
8. Shaking head or using other body gesture.					

Student: I watch a film with my friends.

Choose two of these feedback-types that you often use (give the numbers):

Choose two types that you think your students would prefer: _____

5. Do you use any other techniques to correct your students' spoken errors? Please explain:

--

6. When do you give individual students corrective feedback on their oral mistakes?

I give individual corrective feedback when ...	Never	Rarely	Often	Usually	Always
1. they make a grammar mistake					
2. they make a pronunciation mistake					
3. they make a vocabulary mistake					
4. they misuse of words within the wrong context, which causes unacceptable meaning					

5. they use Chinese to describe what they want to say.					
--	--	--	--	--	--

Section D: Students' Affective Response

How do you feel your students	Never	Rarely	often	usually	Always
they are happy					
they are frustrated					
they are embarrassed					
they are grateful					
5. they freeze up					
6. they feel bad because they speak English very badly					
7. they think they will speak less English in the future					

Section E: Challenges

In this section, from question 10-11, we would like to know challenges you are facing when providing OCF in the classroom, along with improvements that you wish to have.

10. what factors you feel will challenge your feedback practice?

	Not at all important	Not important	Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very important
1. Students' level					

2. Students' personality					
3. Classroom size					
4. Time constraints					
6. Personal relationship with your students					
motivation					
not included in CET					

If you can think of other factors about question 10, please write them here:

11. Would you like to change anything about the way you currently deal with your students' speaking mistakes? If yes, what and why?

Thank you for your cooperation!

Appendix 11 Questionnaire for Students (Chinese)

参与者声明:

请您仔细阅读参与者信息声明本知情同意书, 清楚了解本研究的目的和过程, 并在仔细阅读以上有关说明后, 经过充分的考虑, 自愿成为此项研究的参与者, 积极配合研究人员进行本项研究。

参与者姓名:

[填空题] *

第一部分: 此部分将帮助我们了解您的基本信息及英语学习经历。

性别 [单选题] *

☐男

☐女

年龄 [填空题]

专业 [填空题]

年级 [单选题]

☐一年级

☐二年级

☐三年级

☐四年级

每周英语课节数 [填空题]

班级人数 [填空题]

您从几岁开始学习英语 [填空题]

目前除了学校, 您还在其他地方学习、练习英语? [单选题]

☐是

☐否

请问您是否曾经在英语国家(例如美国, 英国, 加拿大) 学习或生活过? [单选题]

☐是

☐否

如果是，您在哪个国家，生活学习了多久？ [填空题]

依赖于（题目：请问您是否...）第 1 个选项

您每周在课外使用多长时间的英语？目的是什么？请在下列表格中做出选择[矩阵单选题]

	0	1-2 小时	3-4 小时	5-6 小时	7-8 小时	9-10 小时
做家庭作业	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
趣味阅读	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
看电视频道，电影，电视剧	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
听广播	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
与朋友聊天	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
与同事或客户交谈	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
阅读与工作相关的邮件，文件等等	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
写电子邮件，报告	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
打电话沟通工作	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
开会	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
做 PPT 展示	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

您在英语课上做以下活动的频率如何？请在对应栏中标记[矩阵单选题] *

	从不	很少	经常	通常	总是
语法或词汇讲解练习	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
跟读课文	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

听对话	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
阅读文章	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
用英语玩游戏	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
用英语进行小组讨论	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
以课堂为单位，在全班面前说英语	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

您喜欢在课堂开口说英语吗？ [单选题] *

- ☐喜欢
- ☐不喜欢

如果不喜欢，请问为什么？ [填空题] *

依赖于（题目：您喜欢在课...）第 2 个选项

您有英语口语方面的测试或考试吗？ [单选题] *

- ☐有
- ☐没有

如果没有口语考试，这会影响您练习英语口语的积极性吗？ [填空题]

依赖于（题目：您有英语口...）第 2 个选项

第二部分：您对于老师口语反馈的想法

此部分将帮助我们了解您的老师是如何纠正您口语错误并且给您反馈，以及您对此的看法。

若您在课堂上说英语时犯了一个错误，您是否希望老师进行纠正？ [单选题] *

- ☐希望
- ☐不希望

如果您不希望，请问为什么 [填空题] *

依赖于（题目：若您在课堂...）第 2 个选项

如果您的老师指出并纠正您的英语错误，您希望他用什么语言？ [单选题] *

- ☐中文
- ☐英文
- ☐大部分用英文，我不理解的地方用中文解释

当您说英语时，您希望老师纠正那种错误？

请将下列错误类型按照重要程度排序。 [矩阵单选题] *

	完全不 重要	不 太 重要	一 般 重要	重 要	非 常 重要
语法错误, 例如:"I like play football" (这里的 play 应为 playing), "There is ten students in my class." (这里的 There is 应为 there are)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
发音错误, 例如:" I like esport."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
词汇错误, 例如:"he is very high." (这里的 high 应为 tall)"The film was a great exit, it won 5 oscars." (这里的 exit 应为 success)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
语用错误, 例如 "it was sure that he would keep its food." (虽然这句话表面上没有错误, 但代词 "it"所指内容不清楚)。	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
中文的不当使用, 例如: "I like 披萨 (这里应为 pizza)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

当老师用英语问了你一个问题, 你的回答出现以下错误:

老师: What did you do last weekend? 你上周末做了什么?

学生: I watch a film with my friends.我和朋友看了一部电影

以下为老师的不同纠正方式, 请选择你认为这些纠正方式的有效程度。[矩阵单选题] *

	完 全 无效	无 效	效 果 一般	有 效	非 常 有效
1. Watch. Watch 是现在时, 但是你需要用过去式, 因为是过去发生的	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2.watched。	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.对不起？请再说一次？	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.如果讨论过去的话动词应该怎么变化？	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.Last weekend I ...? 暂停一下，语调上扬	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.I WATCH a film? 重复和强调了错误的部分	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.摇头或者用动作示意	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

您的老师最常用的两种反馈纠正方式是什么？请选择两个对应的数字序号 [多选题] *

- ☐1
☐2
☐3
☐4
☐5
☐6
☐7

您最喜欢的两种反馈纠错方式是什么？ [多选题] *

- ☐1
☐2
☐3
☐4
☐5
☐6
☐7

当您犯了一个口语错误，您觉得老师什么时候给您反馈最有效呢？ [矩阵单选题] *

	完全无 效	无效	效果一 般	有效	非常有效
在错误出现后立刻指出，不论是否打断你的话	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
在我这句话说完后指出	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
在整个相关口语活动结束后指出	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

在课堂结束时指出并总结	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
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第三部分：感受

你需要在课堂上讲英语，而老师打断你进行口语纠正。您收到老师的口语纠正反馈时的感受。请在标出相应反应频率

标题[矩阵单选题] *

	从不	很少	经常	通常	总是
我很开心	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
我很沮丧	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
我很尴尬	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
我很感激	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
我僵住了	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
我感觉很糟糕，因为我的英语说的不好	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
我想我以后会少说英语	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

第四部分：第四部分将帮我们了解您在接受老师纠正口语的过程中影响您体验感的因素，和您的建议。

在您的老师纠正您的口语错误时，请问以下因素有没有阻碍或影响了您的体验感？请您选择相应的程度[矩阵单选题] *

	没有影响	稍微影响	影响	较为影响	非常影响
自身英语水平较低	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
自身性格原因（如害羞，内向等等）	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
课堂过大，学生过多	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

课堂时间有限	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
和您老师平时的私人关系	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
没有足够的知识去解读老师的反馈	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
口语学习对我没什么用处	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
英语口语不在 4, 6 级考试范围内	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
其他	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

在您的老师纠正您的口语错误时，如果有其它因素影响了您的体验，请您写在下列方框中 [填空题]

依赖于（题目：在您的老师...）第 9 个行标题中的第 2;3;4;5 个选项

对于您的老师在英语课堂中纠正学生口语错误时，您有没有什么意见或建议？如果有，请您详细叙述 [填空题]

Appendix 12 A Questionnaire for Students (English)

Student Questionnaire

This questionnaire is completely anonymous and confidential. The results will only be used for a study about oral corrective and language teaching. You will need about 15 minutes to complete it. There are 4 pages.

Section 1: In this section, from question 1-4, we would like to know your basic information and your English learning experience.

Sex : Male/Female : Age: Major: Grade: School/Centre: Hours of English classes per week: Number of students in your class:
--

1. a. At what age did you start learning English? _____
- b. Are you learning English anywhere else now, apart from at this school? Yes/No
 Where and how many hours a week? _____
- c. Have you lived or worked in an English-speaking country (US, England, Canada, ...) Yes/No
- d. Where and for how long? _____
- e. How many hours a week do you use English outside of class to....

	0	1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8
do homework					
read for fun					
watch tv, films, series,...					
listen to the radio					
speak to friends					
speak to colleagues or clients					
read work-related documents (e-mail, reports, ...)					

write e-mails, reports,...					
speak on the phone for work					
take part in meetings					
give presentations					

2. How often do you do these activities in your English classes? Mark X in the corresponding column:

Activity	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
1. Grammar or vocabulary exercises				
2. Reading texts				
3. Listening to dialogues				
4. Playing games in English				
5. Speaking English in pairs or small groups				
6. Speaking English in front of the whole class, class debates				

4. Do you like speaking English in class?

Yes/No

Why (not)?

Section B: Beliefs on providing oral corrective feedback

In this section, from question 1-4. We would like to know the belief you hold on oral corrective feedback.

1. How much time do you spend speaking the target language during a typical lesson? (e.g. half of the lesson, 20 % of the lesson, ...): _____

2. How much time do you normally spend on pair or group work? (e.g. half of the lesson, 20 % of the lesson, ...): _____

3. Do you think it is important for teachers to provide OCF on language mistakes when you speak?

Yes, it is important.
 No, it's not important
 Why/ why not?

4. Do you expect to get feedback on your oral mistakes from your teacher?

Section C: Beliefs on Oral Corrective Feedback in Practice.

In this section, from question 5-8. We would like to know the belief you hold on providing oral corrective feedback in practice.

1. A student makes a grammar mistake. How effective do you think the teacher's reactions are to help the student improve?

Teacher's reaction:	Not at all effective	Ineffective	Neither effective nor ineffective	effective	Very effective
1. No, not watch, watched.					
2. Oh, you watched a film. Which one?					
3. watched					
4. I'm sorry?/ Pardon?					
5. You need to use the past tense.					
6. Last weekend I ...? (pausing, with rising intonation)					

7. I WATCH a film? (stressing the mistake, with rising intonation)					
8. Shaking head or using other body gesture.					

Choose two of these feedback-types that you often use (give the numbers):

Choose two types that you think your students would prefer: _____

5. Do you use any other techniques to correct your students' spoken errors? Please explain:

--

6. What types of errors do you wish to received more OCF?

I give individual corrective feedback when ...	Not at all import ant	Not import ant	Neithe r import ant nor uniim portan t	importa nt	Very import ant
1. they make a grammar mistake					
2. they make a pronunciation mistake					
3. they make a vocabulary mistake					

4. they misuse of words within the wrong context, which causes unacceptable meaning					
5. they use Chinese to describe what they want to say.					

Section D: Students' Affective Response

How do you feel your students	Never	Rarely	often	usually	Always
they are happy					
they are frustrated					
they are embarrassed					
they are grateful					
5. they freeze up					
6. they feel bad because they speak English very badly					
7. they think they will speak less English in the future					

In this section, we would like to know how you feel when they receive your oral corrective feedback

	Not at all important	Not important	Neither important nor unimportant	Important	Very important

1. Students' level					
2. Students' personality					
3. Classroom size					
4. Time constraints					
5. Personal relationship with your students					
Motivation					
Not included in CET					

If you can think of other factors about question 10, please write them here:

11. Would you like to change anything about the way you currently deal with your students' speaking mistakes? If yes, what and why?

Appendix 13 Examples of Extract 1

Extract example 2:

R: Do you want him to talk to you after class?

P: Well, No. I wish he can point it out to me in the class. After class, to be honest, for example, if I want to eat or do something in a hurry, I may not care about teacher's correction and feedback. If he provides OCF in class, I will write it down carefully and then practice what he tells me.

R: I see. That is, you can accept it very much. You really hope that he will correct you. There is no rejection.

P: yes.

R: I see. Generally speaking, will your teacher give you OCF in the class?

P: Yes, they do. For example, in the last oral class, I mispronounced a word, and then our teacher pointed it out to me in time after our group finished presentation. Then, I practiced this pronunciation and I can pronounce it well now.

R: I see. When you make a mistake, do you want your teacher to correct all of your mistakes or just pick one or two to give feedback?

P: Well, I hope to pick out all of them. because if he chooses one or two mistakes, which he thinks are more important, I may only remember these two mistakes he told me, and I may not care too much about other small mistakes.

R: Ok. If your mistake has affected your communication and expression, and hindered others from understanding you Do you think your teacher needs to give you some feedback at this time?

P: Well, I really need feedback at this time, If I don't get correction or feedback in time, I may have a lot of trouble and can't express clearly.

R: I see. For example, in your class, you are learning a grammar point, but you just made a mistake at this grammar point. Do you think your teacher should give you feedback at this time?

P: Well, I think it's because I'm in class. If he just talked about this grammar point and I still made a mistake, it means that this grammatical point should be difficult for me, and I may not understand it. if the teacher points it out and explain it to me, I think it can make me know more about this grammatical point. This is helping me to understand it.

R: I see. What if you make some mistakes in one sentence, but they are harmless mistake and they don't affect understanding at all. Do you still want your teacher to correct everything for you?

P: Well, I hope he can correct it because although these mistakes are harmless, well, if I forms this habit, it will be difficult for me to correct in the future, so I hope he can correct it.

R: I have several types of errors and I wish I can hear your opinion. The first is grammatical mistake, if you made a grammatical mistake when you spoke, do you think it's important and should receive OCF?

P: I think it's very important. Because to tell the truth, my own gramma is actually not very good. If you want to say something, but you are not even correct in grammar, then your sentence would be like an ill person, that is, the overall direction is not right.

R: Well, I see. Do you think pronunciation is important?

P: I think pronunciation is actually not so important compared with grammar, because I aim to teach primary school students and their English level might not be very high. My goal in the future is not to teach advanced pronunciation. I think I am OK with simple pronunciation, and I don't need too many corrections.

R: Do you think vocabulary is important?

P: It is very important. Our high school female teacher said that without words, you have no ability to talk. If you don't have enough vocabulary or you can't recognize the word, your English-speaking level will not be very high. In English. I think vocabulary is very important. there will be no meaning without vocabulary.

R: How do you think of pragmatic?

P: I think this is also very important, because in ordinary communication, if you misuse certain expression, it is still very embarrassing, especially in formal occasions.

R: Which two linguistic error do you think are the most important?

P: I think it's grammar and pragmatics.

R: Well, I see. OK, if you want to say something but you don't know how to say it in English, then you speak Chinese. Do you think the teacher should give you feedback or correct you when you use Chinese?

P: Well, actually, I don't think it's necessary. If I can't remember how to say it in English, maybe I really forget, but in fact, I can check it myself. In fact, I don't need the teacher to tell me at that time. I already know what I don't know how to express, and I can correct it myself.

R: Understand, When do you want the teacher to give you corrective feedback?

P: Well, I wish my teacher can provide OCF after I finish talking. To tell the truth.

Interrupting other people's words affects their thinking. If he interrupts me, I might forget how to say the rest. Especially for the exam. If i have prepared for a long time, and the teacher suddenly interrupt me because of a mistake. I am very nervous at the exam, and I may not be able to think of the following words, which will impact the result of the exam.

R: I see. If a group is having a presentation, if you make a mistake, do you want your teacher to correct you on the spot, or wait for the activity to end?

P: Well, I hope he can wait after the whole activity is completed, because after all, it's a group activity. If teacher correct you during the activity, other group member may be more nervous. I think it will be relatively better if teacher can summarize everyone's mistake at the end. .

R: Do you think it's effective if the teacher summarizes your mistakes until the end of the class?

P: Well, I think it's OK. In fact, I think it's all OK as long as not interrupting others when he's talking.

R: Now let's assume that, ah, for example, you said you watched TV yesterday, but you forgot to use the past tense. You said it was I watch TV instead of I watched TV. Now your teacher has two ways to correct you. Ah, one is that the teacher directly tells you that, you are wrong. It should be watched, or the teacher tell you the correct answer watched. Then, there is another kind. If the teacher doesn't tell you what's wrong, he adopts a way of guidance. For example, he says pardon, or if he says what we should say when it comes to the past tense. you will be more inclined to tell you what's wrong directly and tell you the answer, or more inclined to he guides you.

P: Well, I prefer my teacher to guide me, because to be honest, student will be more impressed under guidance than the teacher tells the answer directly.

R: Well, I see. There are several types of indirect mistakes. For example, your teacher didn't give you any clues,. For example, he said it was pardon or sorry. Can you repeat your mistake? Or, he simply repeated your wrong sentence, ah, directly, saying I watch a film I watch a film, and he repeated it to you when he emphasized it. Another is that it throws you some clues, for example, he said yesterday I or, as I just said, he said what we should say in the past, Which type do you think you would prefer?

P: I prefer "yesterday, I?"

R: Why do you think this is better?

Appendix 14 Example of Extract 2

Extract example:

R: Yes, you will correct the errors that affect understanding. You won't do too much if they don't affect understanding.

R: If I can understand, yes. If I think I don't understand, I'll ask them what they are trying to say. Anyway, yes, I'll go back and say something about it. If I don't understand, maybe their pronunciation is totally wrong. Ah, I think I'd better ask for this and correct it.

R: Yes, what impact do you think this feedback can have on students?

P: For example, he knows that he should not make it again next time. At least he won't mispronounce the word when he communicates with others next time.

R: to make sure he can notice his mistakes?

P: He knows what mistakes he has made. If he didn't say, I don't know he would make this mistake, and then I don't point it out, he may not know he made this mistake. he said it, showed it, and then pointed it out to him. If he really wants to practice, he will pay attention next time.

R: Well, it can help them realize their mistakes and prevent them from making them again.

P: Then next time he tries to pay attention. If he cares, he will naturally pay attention.

R: do you focus more on students' fluency or accuracy?

P: fluency is important. I won't require for accuracy that much. As long as they can communicate and I can understand.

R: OK, do you think your students want you to give them feedback?

P: My students want me to give them feedback. When I assigned task on the online platform, some students will ask me to offer them some reference or feedback and they think it may be better if I talk about the task. I am willing to do that but because of the limitation of time, umm, You see, our teaching materials is heavy and one unit needs to be completed within 4 classes, and then one unit has to cover reading, listening, speaking and writing. The time is very tight. I don't have time to expand, or provide extra feedback. I feel like I don't have time, and sometimes I don't even have time to talk about the class material.

R: Ah, OK, but you think students don't reject the feedback you give them. They still hope to hear your feedback..

P: Yes, they are still willing to receive feedback. If I am free, I will offer him feedback on the online teaching platform. I didn't do it when I was not free. As a good teacher, I really need to spend lots of time and energy on my students.

R: Yes, that's true. If you are in front of the whole class, do you think the student still want you to give him feedback? I think praise must be praised in front of the whole class. Ah, I think it's a big encouragement.

R: Right, but what if they make a mistake and you need to correct them?

P: Well, I might just correct them without being too straightforward. Sometimes, if I point out someone's mistakes, I will cite myself as an example. I often say I made the same mistake before. Anyway, whether it is true or not, I always say I was like this before. I will use this way, instead of put myself at a high point to tell my students that you are wrong, that is, I tried to build an equal relationship with my students. Then I'll mention, ah, maybe, just now, you guys may have a prominent problem. You should pay attention to it. Anyway, tell him how to go on, how to practice, tell some methods, and then let students help each other maybe.

When I praise someone, I may or will be very straightforward, that is, encourage other students to learn from him, and then let this student to share what he did. For example, the girl I mentioned before shared her experience of how to practice English speaking skill and I knew she listened to TED speech to to practice listening and speaking like this.

R: Yes, yes, yes. this method is very good for you, that is, you don't mean to correct student directly, but you use yourself as an example to make students feel better.

P: because now students are actually very fragile sometimes. Mentally fragile. I am worried about whether they can suffer my correction. No, it's not good. Ha, I'd better say I'm bad first to make them feel better.

R: It sounds like you are quite experienced. Do they think students need feedback for every mistakes or parts of it?

P: I think, um, I often should summarize draw out students' typical mistakes. It is impossible to get mistakes out. If I do that, students' whole sentences sound terrible and nothing right. I will pick out typical mistakes which will have a great impact, and people easily make.

R: I see, and then you will correct the errors that affect their overall meaning expression and communication.

P: Well, of course.

R: There is another situation, for example, the focus of our class, for example, talking about the past tense, he made a mistake about the tense but this mistake has no impact on understanding. Will you take it out to correct ?

R: Well, I think tense problems can happen at any time. Sometimes they use it correctly but sometimes and sometimes they use it wrong, you know? I feel like this kinds of mistake is unconscious. for example, you just said it correctly in the last sentence but wrong in the next sentence. Umm, I think I'll mention or remind it. If it is the focus for this class., it must be mentioned.

R: If it's the focus of this class, for example, the focus of this class is vocabulary, and the focus of this class is a few words, it makes mistakes in this. Will you emphasize its mistakes just because of the focus of this class?

P: If it is the key point, it must be emphasized.

R: Well, I see. Students will make different types of oral mistakes, which types of error do you pay more attention to? For example, grammatical errors, pronunciation errors and vocabulary errors... which do you think is the most important?

P: Well, I think at present, our students are more likely to make pronunciation mistakes. Just like today, I asked the student to learn to translate the sentence. I gave him the structure and wrote the key word, and then you string down a sentence. In fact, his grammar is not very good, that is, he didn't do that sentence very well, but his grammatical mistakes won't affect my understanding. I think I may be more about the pronunciation, because if the pronunciation is not good, I can't understand what word he is trying to say. I think the pronunciation may affect more about my understanding. I have listened to my students in recent years, that is, for example, I invite students to answer questions, If a student says something that he doesn't pronounce well, it may be more difficult for me to understand, but if his grammar is wrong, at least I can understand it. I know the meaning he wants to express.

R: Well, what if student misuse the vocabulary?

P: Do you mean It's not the accurate word? Umm, if my students wanted to express certain meaning, but the word he said is not accurate. I would say may be due to the influence of our mother language, when he said something but he couldn't express it well due to the limitation of his vocabulart, I thought I can guess what he wanted to express. If he couldn't remember that word. I'll remind him, I will ask him "Can you think of another word?" Then I will give him to time think about it. If he cannot remember the word, I would tell him directly and help him to enlarge his vocabulary. Sometimes the pronunciation and vocabulary are not accurate, and the expression of the scene is not appropriate. So I would say pronunciation, vocabulary go in front of the grammar.

