Teachers’ beliefs and practices about oral corrective feedback in university EFL classes

How to cite:
Yüksel, Doğan; Soruç, Adem and McKinley, Jim (2021). Teachers’ beliefs and practices about oral corrective feedback in university EFL classes. International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 31(3) pp. 362–382.

For guidance on citations see FAQs.

© 2021 The Authors

https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/

Version: Version of Record

Link(s) to article on publisher’s website:
http://dx.doi.org/doi:10.1111/ijal.12336

Copyright and Moral Rights for the articles on this site are retained by the individual authors and/or other copyright owners. For more information on Open Research Online's data policy on reuse of materials please consult the policies page.

oro.open.ac.uk
Teachers’ beliefs and practices about oral corrective feedback in university EFL classes

Do˘gan Yüksel1 | Adem Soruç2 | Jim McKinley3

1 Department of Foreign Language Education, Kocaeli University, İzmit/Kocaeli, Turkey
2 Department of Education, University of Bath, Bath, UK
3 UCL Institute of Education, London, UK

Correspondence
Adem Soruç, Department of Education, University of Bath, Claverton Down, Bath, BA2 7AY, UK.
Email: a.soruc@bath.ac.uk

This study examined (in)congruences between beliefs and practices of EFL university teachers on in-class oral corrective feedback (OCF). The participants were 20 university English language teachers from a private university in Turkey. Data were collected via video-recorded non-participant detached observation, a task about OCF to determine the beliefs of the teachers, and a stimulated recall interview. The results showed incongruence between what the teachers said they believed and what they did. However, teachers’ beliefs and practices were similar regarding whether the errors should be corrected, when errors should be corrected, and who should correct them. Particularly notable in this study was the finding that those teachers with the greatest incongruence almost always stood by their decisions, even after they watched their unsuccessful OCF practices.

KEYWORDS
teachers’ beliefs, classroom discourse, oral corrective feedback, detached observation, stimulated recall

Resumen
Bu çalışma, üniversitelerde İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğretmen okutmanlarının sınıfta sözlü düzeltici dönüt (SDD) konusundaki inançları ve uygulamaları arasındaki uyum(suzlugu)u incelemiştir. Katılımcılar, Türkiye’deki bir vakıf üniversitesinde çalışan 20 okutmandır. Veriler videoya...
INTRODUCTION

Oral corrective feedback (OCF) is one of the most common teacher moves in classroom discourse. Feedback is imperative for language learners, as it helps them to improve their understanding of, and communicative ability in, the language (Mackey & Goo, 2007; Nassaji, 2016; Russell & Spada, 2006). Besides, contrary to the arguments against error correction, we can come across "even more numerous and much more convincing reasons why corrective feedback should be an integral part of teaching practices" (Pawlak, 2014, p. 49). As Li (2018, p. 4) puts it, "research has unequivocally demonstrated the benefits of corrective feedback in facilitating L2 development"; therefore, it is not a question of whether feedback is effective or which feedback type is more effective (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2020). So, rather than investigating the values of different feedback types, we stipulate a need to investigate the beliefs of language teachers because their beliefs and practices influence the effectiveness of OCF (Sheen, 2007; see also Lyster et al., 2013). Li’s (2017) review of seven studies on teachers’ beliefs of CF revealed that only 39% of the teachers thought CF was important. More to the point, in a recent review, Li and Vuono (2019, p. 99) found that “teachers showed more inconsistency than consistency” in terms of their beliefs and practices on OCF. A deeper understanding of this inconsistency is a topic, which requires timely investigation. The main aim of this study is therefore to investigate (in)congruences between teachers’ beliefs and practices regarding OCF and to shed light upon the reasons for the (in)congruences via stimulated recall interviews.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In their state-of-the-art article, Lyster et al. (2013) provide an overview of research on oral corrective feedback, identifying types, frequencies, preferences, and theoretical issues, then moving to discussions of OCF regarding effectiveness, linguistic targets, learners’ age, and peer aspects. They conclude that classroom language teachers need to make their own decisions drawing on the techniques available to them. This means that ultimately, it is the individual teacher’s beliefs about teaching that influences their implementation of corrective feedback.
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." The literature about corrective feedback (see Li & Vuono, 2019, for an overview of the past 25 years of relevant research published in System) shows that some studies focus on learner beliefs (Agudo, 2015; Jernigan & Mihai, 2008; Lee, 2013; Loewen et al., 2009; Zhu & Wang, 2019), others focus on teacher beliefs (Agudo, 2014; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Hernandez Mendez & Reyes Cruz, 2012; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015), and some on both learner and teacher beliefs (Davis, 2003; Pawlak, 2013; Schulz, 1996, 2001). There are also studies that aim to address the relationship between teacher beliefs and their practices (Bao, 2019; Basturkmen et al., 2004; Dong, 2012; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kamiya, 2014; Kartchava, 2006; Mori, 2002; Olmez-Ozturk, 2019; Roothooft, 2014). In line with this last research focus, the present study aims to explore the congruence or incongruence between teachers’ beliefs regarding OCF and their real classroom practices.

2.1 | Beliefs about corrective feedback

More than 40 years ago, Hendrickson (1978) asked five overarching questions to challenge the mechanisms of corrective feedback. These are “Should errors be corrected?” “How should errors be corrected?” “When should errors be corrected?” “Who should provide error correction?” and “Which errors should be corrected?” In the examination of beliefs and practices of teachers, we used these questions to guide the study.

In our scan of relevant literature, we found that most of the studies that examine the relationship between the beliefs and practices of the teachers are conducted in ESL settings (e.g., Basturkmen et al., 2004; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kamiya, 2014; Kartchava, 2006; Mori, 2002), while there are also exceptions that are conducted in non-ESL settings such as Bao (2019), Dong (2012), Olmez-Ozturk (2019) and Roothooft (2014). Bao investigated the relationship between teacher beliefs and practices of OCF with eight Chinese as a second language university teachers in China, while Dong examined the beliefs and practices of two teachers of Chinese as a foreign language at a US university as a part of a master’s thesis. Olmez-Ozturk’s study was conducted in a Turkish EFL setting with eight teachers working in an intensive English program. In Roothooft’s study conducted in the Spanish context, 10 EFL Spanish teachers teaching in public and private institutions were examined for their beliefs and practices on OCF.

These studies reported both congruence and incongruence about the effectiveness (should errors be corrected?), focus (which errors should be corrected?), provider (who should provide error correction?), timing (when should errors be corrected?) and type (how should errors be corrected?) of OCF. Regarding the effectiveness of the OCF, both teachers in Junqueira and Kim’s (2013) study and one of the four teachers in Kamiya’s (2014) study thought that providing OCF is ineffective while practicing differently.

When it comes to the focus of the OCF (i.e., which errors should be corrected?), all teachers in the Basturkmen et al. (2004) study favored meaning-oriented mistakes of the learners but often addressed language-related mistakes, which revealed incongruence between their beliefs and practices. On a different level of focus, a teacher in Junqueira and Kim (2013) stated that teachers should address pronunciation mistakes but provide corrective feedback to grammar-related errors. On the other hand, the beliefs and practices of two teachers in Mori’s (2002) study were similar to each other in terms of the focus of their OCF.

Among the previous studies that examined the relationship between beliefs and practices of teachers about OCF, the most conspicuous studies are Dong (2012) and Bao (2019) who focused on the ideal provider of corrective feedback. Both teachers in Dong’s study believed that self-correction is more favorable while both at the same time opting for teacher correction. On the other hand, however, in Bao’s study, six (out of eight) teachers pointed out that teachers should provide OCF and followed a similar practice during their lessons.

In terms of the timing of the providing OCF, one teacher in the Basturkmen et al. (2004) study stated that she would provide feedback after the oral activity but did it during the activity. In Olmez-Ozturk’s (2019) study, half of the teachers were consistent about the timing and the other half reported and performed differently.
In most of the studies we reviewed, teachers were consistent about the type of OCF they preferred and the type they used (Bao, 2019; Dong, 2012; Kamiya, 2014; Kartchava, 2006; Mori, 2002; Olmez-Ozturk, 2019). For example, Dong’s two teachers preferred implicit feedback and used recasts, and Kartchava’s 10 teachers specifically stated that they use recasts, and they did. The only exceptions were the teachers in Basturkmen et al. (2004) and Roothooft (2014). The two teachers (out of three) in Basturkmen et al.’s study favored prompts but used recasts. Likewise, five of the ten teachers were not aware of the corrective feedback types they used in Roothooft’s study. Ultimately, we found the previous studies that examined the relationship between the beliefs and practices of the teachers on OCF were limited as they:

- were descriptive and/or anecdotal in nature;
- were conducted in non-EFL contexts;
- had a limited number of participants; or
- did not address all five aspects of corrective feedback.

To address this gap in the previous research, this study aims to shed more light on this topic by providing findings from an explanatory sequential (QUAN→QUAL) mixed-methods study in an English as a foreign (EFL) university setting with a larger number of participants and covering all five aspects of OCF as suggested by Hendrickson (1978), and it also includes a stimulated recall interview where the teachers were asked to reflect upon the reasons if a mismatch was encountered between their beliefs and practices.

The research questions for the study are:

1. What is the relationship between the stated beliefs of EFL teachers and their practices in terms of (a) effectiveness, (b) focus, (c) provider, (d) time and (e) type of OCF?
2. What are the reasons, if any, for the incongruence between the beliefs and practices of the EFL teachers about OCF?

3 | METHODOLOGY

This classroom-based explanatory sequential design study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017) had two stages of data collection (first quantitative, followed by qualitative) with three different methods (two methods in the quantitative stage). For transparency of the research, the data collection methods used in response to the research questions are shown in Table 1. In stage one, quantitative observation data regarding their practices were gathered by a three-hour video recordings of each teacher’s regular classroom hours. Also in this stage, beliefs of the university teachers were

| TABLE 1 | Research questions and corresponding data collection methods |
|---|---|---|---|
| Research question | Data collection method | Type of analysis | Purpose |
| RQ1: What is the relationship between the stated beliefs of EFL teachers and their practices in terms of (a) effectiveness, (b) focus, (c) provider, (d) time and (e) type of OCF? | Stage 1: Observation of classroom teaching (n = 20) Stage 2: Task (n = 20) | Quantitative content analysis Spearman’s rank order correlation analysis | Identify OCF practices Identify OCF beliefs and compare them with practices |
| RQ2: What are the reasons, if any, for the incongruence between the beliefs and practices of the EFL teachers about OCF? | Stage 3: Stimulated recall interview (n = 4) | Qualitative content analysis | Investigate why teachers’ practices did not match with their beliefs |
identified from a task that was based on the findings of Roothooft (2014) and Olmezer-Ozturk (2019) and analyzed using Spearman’s Rank Order Correlation (See Appendix). After analyzing the first two sources of data collection, for stage two, four teachers with the highest difference or incongruence rates between the beliefs and practices were chosen (Teachers 6, 10, 12, and 18) to gain deeper insight into the reasons for the incongruence via a stimulated recall interview.

To observe the real practices of the teachers, three regular classroom hours of each teacher’s speaking classes were video recorded, in total making 60 h of video recordings. These were “detached” observations, as the researchers were not in the classroom, avoiding the “observer’s paradox,” causing teachers and students to behave in a certain way in the presence of an observer (McKinley & Rose, 2019). Each of the classroom recordings was transcribed verbatim and OCF episodes were identified. Each episode was later coded using content analysis (McKinley & Rose, 2019) following the research questions and focus of the study. To help reduce bias, the researchers conducted the task immediately after the observations, and a quantitative analysis was completed. Within a week after the analysis of data from the first stage, the stimulated recall interviews were conducted with the selected teachers. These were also video recorded and transcribed, and analyzed using qualitative content analysis. Before any data collection took place, in accordance with Turkish ethical guidelines, the teachers were informed of the aim of the study, that they were free to withdraw from the study without showing any reason and that the study could be used for research purposes or for possible publication. All agreed and signed the consent form given after the explanation.

3.1 Setting and participants

The participants in this study were 20 EFL teachers in an intensive English language program at a Turkish private university. The age of the participants varied between 24 and 47 (M = 32.4) and their English language teaching experiences ranged between 1.6 years and 22 years (M = 7.8). Some teachers held bachelors’ degrees in the fields of English Language Teaching (n = 7), English Language and Literature (n = 4), Translation and Interpretation (n = 2) and Linguistics (n = 1). Six of the participants had graduate degrees in the fields of English Language Teaching (n = 4), Educational Statistics (n = 1) and English Language and Literature (n = 1). Four of the participants also reported that they had CELTA certificates.

The speaking classes had between 16 and 20 students in each video recording (M = 18.6). For general consistency, all classes were chosen from B1 level, decided upon the in-house placement and progress tests given by the university. All classes followed the same materials prepared in-house by the experienced staff of the university. The classes mostly had whole-group teacher-centered interaction with very few or almost no instances of pair and group work activities.

3.2 Data collection

3.2.1 Stage one (quantitative): detached observation

In the intensive English courses, although all four language skills were practiced, only speaking classes were selected for the detached observations assuming that there would be more interaction between the student and the teacher. All the teachers (n = 20) video recorded their own one-hour classes three times. The video recordings were made to observe the teachers’ practices in the real classroom when providing OCF. All the recordings were transcribed verbatim and prepared for quantitative analysis.

3.2.2 Stage one (quantitative): task

Based on Hendrickson’s (1978) five aspects of error correction, a task was developed for the study to collect data regarding the teachers’ beliefs. Participants were given 10 hypothetical error correction excerpts and were asked to
choose a type of OCF following Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) classification. This belief task was aimed to match the beliefs of the teachers with their practices collected through the observations.

3.2.3 | Stage two (qualitative): stimulated recall interview

After collecting the necessary data to investigate the relationships between beliefs and practices of the teachers, in the third stage of the data collection, only the teachers (n = 4) who showed incongruences between their stated beliefs and practices were invited for a stimulated recall interview. The interviews were made at least within a week of the observations to help the teachers remember what they did or why they did it. They were conducted in Turkish to allow teachers to speak easily, although there was occasional code-switching with English. During the interviews, the teachers were shown OCF episodes from their video recordings and encouraged to report their reasons for their choices and to reflect on their feedback type. However, the most important point was to collect the data regarding the mismatch between the beliefs and their practices; therefore, the teachers were encouraged to reflect on these episodes while watching, asking them to talk about the reasons for their feedback. All stimulated recall interviews were audio recorded, transcribed verbatim and analyzed using qualitative content analysis.

3.3 | Inter-rater reliability

In the content analysis of OCF episodes, the findings of previous studies were considered (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Olmez-Ozturk, 2019; Roothooft, 2014). The first researcher first went through the videos to note any instances of the five aspects of error correction. Then, two experienced EFL teachers were asked to do the same. To help with analysis consistency, a training manual was prepared, which included definitions of each type of OCF with examples. In terms of the inter-rater reliability (Hallgren, 2012), the results of the Cohen’s kappa analysis identified good agreement both between the researcher and the first external reviewer (κ = 0.887), and the researcher and the second external reviewer (κ = 0.874).

4 | RESULTS

The findings of the study are first presented identifying the relationship between beliefs and practices, organized according to Hendrickson’s (1978) five key aspects about OCF (stage one observation and task), followed by the reasons for incongruences from the four teachers with the greatest differences (stage two stimulated recall interview). As the interviews were conducted in Turkish with occasional use of English, the excerpts shown below have been translated by the researchers into English.

4.1 | Results about the relationship between the beliefs and practices

4.1.1 | Effectiveness of OCF

To identify the perceived effectiveness of the OCF, the participants were asked to rate their opinions on a percentile scale in the task. Also included in the task was the stated oral correction practices of the teachers, which were then compared with the classroom practices. The details of the responses of each participant together with the averages of perceived effectiveness, stated practices, and in-class actions are provided in Table 2.

As can be seen in Table 2, the teachers’ beliefs about the effectiveness of OCF and their stated correction percentages were quite similar with the averages of 65.25 and 63.5, respectively. Moreover, the average error correction ratios of the teachers was slightly higher than their beliefs and stated correction percentages but was still close. To
TABLE 2  The beliefs of teachers about error correction, the total number of errors and numbers of corrected errors

| Teacher | Perceived effectiveness (%) | Stated correction (%) | Number of all errors | Number of corrected errors | Error correction ratio |
|---------|----------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|------------------------|
| T1      | 90                         | 80                    | 56                   | 38                        | 68                     |
| T2      | 90                         | 90                    | 67                   | 60                        | 90                     |
| T3      | 75                         | 70                    | 48                   | 32                        | 67                     |
| T4      | 40                         | 40                    | 42                   | 21                        | 50                     |
| T5      | 20                         | 30                    | 70                   | 30                        | 43                     |
| T6      | 80                         | 70                    | 49                   | 43                        | 88                     |
| T7      | 70                         | 80                    | 57                   | 50                        | 88                     |
| T8      | 75                         | 70                    | 40                   | 32                        | 80                     |
| T9      | 75                         | 70                    | 32                   | 25                        | 78                     |
| T10     | 90                         | 90                    | 60                   | 45                        | 75                     |
| T11     | 75                         | 80                    | 46                   | 40                        | 87                     |
| T12     | 40                         | 40                    | 43                   | 32                        | 74                     |
| T13     | 50                         | 40                    | 48                   | 22                        | 46                     |
| T14     | 40                         | 40                    | 30                   | 12                        | 40                     |
| T15     | 50                         | 50                    | 58                   | 30                        | 52                     |
| T16     | 75                         | 60                    | 54                   | 32                        | 59                     |
| T17     | 75                         | 70                    | 39                   | 31                        | 79                     |
| T18     | 75                         | 80                    | 38                   | 25                        | 66                     |
| T19     | 80                         | 80                    | 60                   | 47                        | 78                     |
| T20     | 40                         | 40                    | 57                   | 28                        | 49                     |
| Average | 65.25                      | 63.5                  | 49.7                 | 33.75                     | 68                     |

examine the relationship between what the participants’ beliefs and practices were about the effectiveness of OCF, we conducted a Spearman’s rank order correlation analysis. The two were found to correlate significantly, as shown by a Spearman correlation test ($r = 0.73, p < 0.01$).

4.1.2  Focus of error correction

The results of the analysis of data from stages one and two revealed that the teachers do not correct all learner errors in the same way. One reason for this difference is the linguistic category of the error. In the task, the participants rated how often they corrected vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation errors. Table 3 illustrates what participants stated about their correction percentages and their actual practices obtained via video recordings. The averages of the beliefs and practices of the 20 teachers who participated in our study were similar in terms of correcting pronunciation (the difference was 2.1%) and vocabulary errors (the difference was 4.4%) but the gap was bigger for the beliefs and practices for correcting grammar errors (the difference was 10.9%). However, focusing on the averages only may not really portray the real picture as further correlation analysis revealed that the beliefs and practices of the teachers correlated significantly for grammar ($r = 0.74, p < 0.01$) and vocabulary errors ($r = 0.53, p < 0.05$) whereas there was no significant correlation for pronunciation errors ($r = 0.46$).
### TABLE 3 Beliefs and practices of teachers about grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary errors

| Teacher | Grammar errors | Pronunciation errors | Vocabulary errors |
|---------|----------------|----------------------|------------------|
|         | Belief (%) | Practice (%) | Belief (%) | Practice (%) | Belief (%) | Practice (%) |
| T1      | 70        | 65              | 90        | 70              | 80          | 70              |
| T2      | 80        | 90              | 100       | 92              | 80          | 90              |
| T3      | 50        | 45              | 80        | 78              | 80          | 76              |
| T4      | 10        | 25              | 60        | 62              | 50          | 65              |
| T5      | 10        | 18              | 20        | 60              | 20          | 50              |
| T6      | 90        | 85              | 90        | 96              | 90          | 92              |
| T7      | 70        | 90              | 70        | 92              | 70          | 86              |
| T8      | 60        | 70              | 80        | 77              | 80          | 92              |
| T9      | 90        | 82              | 90        | 75              | 100         | 78              |
| T10     | 70        | 58              | 90        | 89              | 90          | 86              |
| T11     | 20        | 80              | 50        | 95              | 50          | 92              |
| T12     | 30        | 72              | 30        | 76              | 50          | 70              |
| T13     | 10        | 42              | 60        | 44              | 50          | 52              |
| T14     | 30        | 32              | 60        | 36              | 60          | 54              |
| T15     | 40        | 43              | 50        | 48              | 50          | 65              |
| T16     | 60        | 52              | 60        | 58              | 70          | 72              |
| T17     | 50        | 78              | 80        | 78              | 80          | 86              |
| T18     | 80        | 72              | 90        | 61              | 80          | 64              |
| T19     | 70        | 81              | 80        | 71              | 80          | 82              |
| T20     | 20        | 48              | 40        | 54              | 70          | 46              |
| Average | 50.5      | 61.4            | 68.5      | 70.6            | 69          | 73.4            |

#### 4.1.3 Provider of OCF

In the observations, it was noted that there were three providers of OCF in the classroom setting. These are the learners themselves (i.e., self-correction), the peers of the learners (i.e., peer feedback) and the teachers (i.e., teacher feedback). The participants were asked to state who should provide OCF in the questionnaire and their actual practices were observed in the lessons they taught. The comparison of the beliefs and practices about the provider of the OCF yielded mixed results. The averages of the beliefs and practices of the teachers were different for self-correction (the difference was 9.9%) and teacher correction (the difference was 11.35%) but were quite similar for peer correction (the difference was 1.45%) (See Table 4 for details). However, the Spearman’s Rank Order Correlation analysis did not show any significant correlation for all three providers of OCF (self-correction correlation $r = 0.14$, peer correction correlation $r = 0.12$ and teacher correction correlation $r = 0.04$).

#### 4.1.4 Time of the correction

The teachers had to decide whether to immediately correct their students’ errors, or to do it later to keep the flow in the communication. In the task, the participants were asked for their preferred time to correct errors. The results
were then compared with what they did in the classroom. Table 5 illustrates the findings about the time stated and error correction made in the class. When their beliefs about the time for OCF were asked, the teacher opted for a balanced approach in average (immediate: 48% vs. delayed 52%) (however, when they were analyzed individually they mostly favored one side or the other). In practice, the average was quite imbalanced in favor of the immediate correction of errors (immediate: 79.6% vs. delayed 20.4%). When the relationship between these beliefs and practices were analyzed, both were found to correlate significantly, as shown by a Spearman correlation test ($r = 0.81, p < 0.01$ and $r = 0.78, p < 0.01$, respectively).

### 4.1.5 Types of OCF

Teachers made choices from a repertoire of OCF types or techniques while correcting their students’ mistakes. These ranged from implicit recasts and elicitions to explicit correction. In the task’s hypothetical samples about error correction, the participants mostly favored recasts (57%) and elicitations (23.5%). They chose clarification requests (6.5%), metalinguistic feedback (4%), repetition (5%) and explicit correction (4%) generally resulting in low percentages (see Table 6). When their actual classroom practices were analyzed, a similar proportion was found with slight changes. Recasts (61.35%) and elicitations (24.4%) were the most frequent OCF type, while the rest were quite inconsistent.
TABLE 5 Teachers’ beliefs and practices of teachers about timing of OCF

| Teacher | Stated time (%) | Practice (%) |
|---------|----------------|-------------|
|         | Immediate | Delayed | Immediate | Delayed |
| T1      | 30        | 70       | 88        | 12       |
| T2      | 10        | 90       | 65        | 35       |
| T3      | 80        | 20       | 96        | 4        |
| T4      | 90        | 10       | 88        | 12       |
| T5      | 50        | 50       | 86        | 14       |
| T6      | 20        | 80       | 69        | 31       |
| T7      | 30        | 70       | 82        | 18       |
| T8      | 40        | 60       | 78        | 22       |
| T9      | 10        | 90       | 62        | 38       |
| T10     | 80        | 20       | 86        | 14       |
| T11     | 90        | 10       | 94        | 6        |
| T12     | 100       | 0        | 92        | 8        |
| T13     | 90        | 10       | 84        | 16       |
| T14     | 20        | 80       | 86        | 14       |
| T15     | 30        | 70       | 68        | 32       |
| T16     | 80        | 20       | 92        | 8        |
| T17     | 10        | 90       | 62        | 38       |
| T18     | 20        | 80       | 82        | 18       |
| T19     | 10        | 90       | 48        | 52       |
| T20     | 70        | 30       | 84        | 16       |
| Averages| 48        | 52       | 79.6      | 20.4     |

The correlation between the stated and performed OCF types showed that teachers’ beliefs and practices had the most significant relationship regarding recast and elicitation, as revealed by a Spearman correlation test ($r = 0.81$, $p < 0.01$ for recast; $r = 0.85$, $p < 0.01$ for elicitation). However, clarification request ($r = 0.35$), metalinguistic feedback ($r = 0.17$), repetition ($r = 0.03$) and explicit correction ($r = 0.30$) had quite low levels of correlation.

4.2 Reasons for incongruence between the beliefs and practices

Four teachers (T6, T10, T12 and T18) were chosen to reflect upon the reasons for the mismatch between their beliefs and in-class practices as they had the highest difference rates between what they state and do in-class. The selection of the teachers for the stimulated recall interview was to inquire about the reasons for the mismatch between the beliefs and practices of the teachers. The teachers were also asked if they would like to re-evaluate their classroom practices or the answers they gave in the questionnaire. The reasons provided by the teachers appear in Table 7.

According to the data presented in Table 7, it appears the teachers might believe that OCF is important to provide negative evidence for the interlanguage development of the learners; however, the interviews revealed that contextual factors played a role in the actual classroom practices of the teachers. Of these contextual factors, as stated by our teachers, were the dynamics of the discussion (e.g., “The topic generated a lively discussion, so I did not want to interrupt with error correction”), characteristics of the learners (e.g., “I did not provide feedback because I waited for...
### TABLE 6  Teachers' beliefs and practices of teachers about types or OCF

| Teacher | Stated type | Practiced type |
|---------|-------------|----------------|
|         | Recast | Clarification request | Metalinguistic feedback | Elicitation | Repetition | Explicit correction | Recast | Clarification request | Metalinguistic feedback | Elicitation | Repetition | Explicit correction |
| T1      | 50 | 20 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 0 | 62 | 18 | 4 | 12 | 4 | 0 |
| T2      | 60 | 10 | 10 | 20 | 0 | 0 | 66 | 4 | 7 | 11 | 4 | 8 |
| T3      | 40 | 0 | 0 | 50 | 0 | 10 | 48 | 6 | 0 | 46 | 0 | 0 |
| T4      | 60 | 0 | 0 | 20 | 0 | 10 | 78 | 7 | 0 | 8 | 7 | 0 |
| T5      | 80 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 10 | 0 | 83 | 0 | 0 | 17 | 0 | 0 |
| T6      | 20 | 10 | 0 | 70 | 0 | 0 | 32 | 8 | 0 | 56 | 4 | 0 |
| T7      | 40 | 10 | 0 | 50 | 0 | 0 | 30 | 12 | 6 | 44 | 0 | 8 |
| T8      | 70 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 20 | 0 | 86 | 0 | 6 | 8 | 0 | 0 |
| T9      | 80 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 0 | 10 | 92 | 4 | 0 | 4 | 0 | 0 |
| T10     | 70 | 0 | 10 | 10 | 0 | 10 | 68 | 0 | 6 | 10 | 8 | 8 |
| T11     | 40 | 10 | 10 | 20 | 0 | 20 | 64 | 4 | 0 | 32 | 0 | 0 |
| T12     | 60 | 20 | 0 | 20 | 0 | 0 | 42 | 12 | 4 | 34 | 8 | 0 |
| T13     | 80 | 10 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 86 | 4 | 4 | 6 | 0 | 0 |
| T14     | 70 | 0 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 0 | 64 | 0 | 8 | 18 | 4 | 6 |
| T15     | 40 | 10 | 0 | 40 | 0 | 10 | 62 | 0 | 6 | 32 | 0 | 0 |
| T16     | 50 | 10 | 0 | 30 | 10 | 0 | 34 | 4 | 0 | 42 | 12 | 8 |
| T17     | 80 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 10 | 0 | 86 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 0 | 6 |
| T18     | 40 | 0 | 0 | 40 | 20 | 0 | 42 | 6 | 0 | 46 | 6 | 0 |
| T19     | 30 | 10 | 0 | 40 | 10 | 10 | 38 | 4 | 12 | 46 | 0 | 0 |
| T20     | 80 | 0 | 10 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 64 | 8 | 0 | 8 | 8 | 12 |
| Averages | 57 | 6.5 | 4 | 23.5 | 5 | 4 | 61.35 | 5.05 | 3.15 | 24.4 | 3.25 | 2.8 |
| Reason provided                                                                 | Type of Mistake | Type of Feedback                  | Change the feedback type? |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------------|--------------------------|
| I thought providing feedback for that activity was necessary.                    | Pronunciation   | Explicit correction               | No                       |
| I didn’t notice that mistake.                                                    | Vocabulary      | No feedback                       | No                       |
| I thought some students lost their focus and were talking off-topic so I provided explicit correction to regroup students. Normally, I wouldn’t do that. | Grammar         | Metalinguistic feedback           | No                       |
| I didn’t provide feedback because I waited for the learner to self-repair. He was a successful student. | Pronunciation   | No feedback                       | No                       |
| The topic generated a lively discussion so I didn’t want to interrupt with error correction. | Grammar         | No feedback                       | No                       |
| That student was shy and introverted so I decided not to give feedback.          | Vocabulary      | No feedback                       | No                       |
| I provided a recast there but I guess it went unnoticed.                         | Grammar         | Recast                            | No                       |
| I went with an elicitation but I guess the students did not know the correct word. | Vocabulary      | Elicitation                       | Yes                      |
| I repeated my student’s mistake but he did not understand.                      | Grammar         | Repetition                        | No                       |
| I explicitly corrected that student because he is a little bit behind his friends and needs more help. | Grammar         | Explicit correction               | No                       |
| That was a common mistake, which required extra focus and explanation.          | Vocabulary      | Metalinguistic feedback           | No                       |
| I wanted to give a chance for the whole class but nobody responded so after a pause I provided feedback there. | Pronunciation   | Elicitation                       | No                       |

the learner to self-repair.” “He was a successful student”; or “That student was shy and introverted so I decided not to give feedback”; or “I explicitly corrected that student because he is a little bit behind his friends and needs more help”), classroom management (e.g., “I thought some students lost their focus and were talking off-topic, so I provided explicit correction to regroup students. Normally, I would not do that”) or the type of the activity (e.g., “I thought providing feedback for that activity was necessary”). When further asked whether they wanted to change their general stance on corrective feedback, the teachers almost always believed that their actions were appropriate in their specific contexts, thus revealing their inconsistencies between their beliefs and practices.

To illustrate better, some reasons were provided for the OCF episodes. This was intentionally made to elicit the reactions of the teachers and provide a context with their responses and reasons. The excerpts are taken from different teachers and they are about different types of errors with different types of OCF.

**Excerpt 1 (taken from T6) Topic: future plans**

| Line | Student | Teacher Feedback |
|------|---------|------------------|
| 113  | S8      | He was determined [wrong pronunciation] to do it (+++) (*)     |
| 114  | T       | determined? [correct pronunciation] [rising intonation]        |
| 115  | S8      | Yeah (+++) determined [wrong pronunciation] to go back to school and do his best. |
| 116  | T       | I see (+++). Education is what we need.                        |

*each (+) signals a second of pause.
In Excerpt 1, the class is talking about future plans. In line 113, the student makes a pronunciation mistake, and the teacher provides a recast but it goes unnoticed as the student makes the same mistake again. In the stimulated recall interview, after watching the video, the teacher stated that he provided a recast and realized the student did not notice it. However, when asked whether he would change the type of feedback if he had the chance, he said “No” and stated that the topic continuation was more important than that small mistake there.

**Excerpt 2 (taken from T12) Topic: summer holiday**

|   |   |   |
|---|---|---|
| 82 | T | Were you in your sister’s home? | Teacher question |
| 83 | S4 | Yes. We had great time with my niece. He is a great friend. I enjoyed a lot. | Student response-Vocab mistake- |
| 84 | T | With your niece? | Clarification request |
| 85 | S4 | Yes, his name is Ali [a boy’s name]. He is great. | Student answer- No uptake- Topic continuation |
| 86 | T | But for males we use nephew. I mean (+) he is your nephew. Niece for girls, nephew for boys. | Metalinguistic feedback |
| 87 | S4 | Hmm (+++) Ali (+) nephew (+) yes. | Student response-Uptake- successful |

In Excerpt 2, the topic is the summer holiday. In line 82, the teacher starts the topic by asking a yes/no question. In the next line, the student makes a vocabulary mistake, which is quite common according to the teacher. In line 84, she provides a clarification request but the student does not show that he has understood the feedback. In the next line, the teacher provides metalinguistic feedback as a form of OCF. In the stimulated recall interview, after watching the video, the teacher stated that she first provided a clarification request, which was not understood by the student. Later, metalinguistic feedback was given because “That [use of niece instead of nephew] was a common mistake which required extra focus and explanation.” When asked if she would change the type of feedback (either the first one or the second) if she had the chance, the teacher said “No” and believed that “the context makes both corrections rational” (teacher’s own words).

**Excerpt 3 (taken from T18) Topic: future plans**

|   |   |   |
|---|---|---|
| 18 | S2 | My summer plans (+++) they are excel (+) We planned everything. | Student comment-Vocab mistake |
| 19 | T | Good (+) like what? | No corrective feedback- |
| 20 | S2 | Yes (+) I see (+) visit my classmate’s hometown (+) we will go to holiday together (+) Antalya together (+) | Topic continuation |
| 21 | T | Good. | Teacher evaluation |

In Excerpt 3, the class is discussing their future plans. Early in the discussion, the student makes a vocabulary mistake about a word choice (instead of using excellent, he uses excel). The teacher provides no corrective feedback, and the topic continues with the student’s explanation. In the stimulated recall interview, after watching the video, the teacher stated that she did not notice the mistake during the lesson, and she believed that mistake was not so important and would not change her practice if she had a chance.

**Excerpt 4 (taken from T6) Topic: summer holiday**

|   |   |   |
|---|---|---|
| 71 | S11 | I was with my sister. We did not ate dinner so we went to shopping mall. | Student mistake-Grammar |
| 72 | T | Hmm (+++) | No corrective feedback |
| 73 | S17 | In the mall, we had burger. It was Ok. | Topic continuation |
| 74 | T | After the dinner? | Teacher follow-up |
In another episode without corrective feedback, Excerpt 4, the topic is the summer holiday and this time one of the students makes a grammatical mistake. The teacher does not provide corrective feedback and the topic continues. In the stimulated recall interview, when asked to reflect on this, the teacher stated that he noticed the mistake but did not provide corrective feedback because “The topic generated a lively discussion, so I didn’t want to interrupt with error correction.” When asked if he would change his practice, he said “No,” as the teacher believed in “fluency in a speaking class more than accuracy about grammar.”

**Excerpt 5 (taken from T10) Topic: summer holiday**

|   |   |   |
|---|---|---|
| 43 | S16 | I stayed in a hotel [wrong pronunciation] in Izmir. The hotel was very big [wrong pronunciation] |
| 44 | T  | [to the whole class] your friend stayed in a [+++] where? [++++] [nobody answers] [silence] |
| 45 | S16 | In the hotel [wrong pronunciation] |

In Excerpt 5, the class is talking about summer holiday in the Speaking session. In line 43, the student makes a pronunciation mistake, and the teacher tries to give the floor to the whole class to facilitate peer feedback. However, everyone stays silent and in the next line, the student makes the same pronunciation mistake. In the stimulated recall interview, after watching the video, the teacher stated that “I wanted to give a chance to the whole class, but nobody responded so after a pause I provided feedback there.” When asked about his preference for the feedback and if he would change it, the teacher stated that he would change the decision regarding the provider of the feedback and would give explicit correction himself.

5 **CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION**

In this study, we examined the relationship between the OCF beliefs and practices of 20 EFL teachers who were teaching in an intensive English language program at a Turkish university. We examined the reasons for incongruence between the beliefs and practices of the teachers via stimulated recall interview protocols. Following Hendrickson’s (1978) classification, we focused on five key aspects about OCF, (namely the effectiveness, focus, provider, time, and type), and analyzed the relationship between the teachers’ practices as identified from 3 h of speaking course observation and video recording, and their beliefs based on their responses in a task.

According to the results of the task, the effectiveness of OCF as perceived by the participants was approximately 65%. Similarly, our participants stated that they would correct the errors approximately 63% of the time and their actual practices revealed a similar ratio such as 68%. When compared with seven previous studies as analyzed by Li (2017), which yielded an effectiveness rate of 39%, our participants had more positive beliefs about OCF and performed similar practices compared to their beliefs.

Regarding the focus of the OCF, our participants believed that grammar errors (50.5%), pronunciation errors (68.5%) and vocabulary errors (69%) should be corrected. In practice, they showed slightly higher application of OCF for each error type (grammar errors, 61.4%, pronunciation errors, 70.6%, and vocabulary errors, 73.4%) and their beliefs and practices built a significant relationship with grammar and vocabulary errors. When compared to Basturkmen et al. (2004), teachers who favored meaning-oriented mistakes of the learners but were found to focus more on correcting language-related mistakes, our teachers had more a consistent relationship between their beliefs and practices similar to the two teachers in Mori’s (2002) study who were well matched in terms of the beliefs and practices of their OCF. These findings also provide evidence against Li and Vuono’s (2019) review of previous studies, which showed inconsistency to a large extent regarding the harmony of beliefs and practices.
The beliefs and practices of the teachers in our study did not match when we analyzed the data about who should provide OCF, but rather significantly, those teachers with the greatest incongruences stood by their choices, even when shown the unsuccessful OCF in the stimulated interviews. In terms of the beliefs and practices about self, peer and teacher correction, there was no significant correlation according to Spearman’s Rho. In the literature on beliefs and practices about the provider of OCF, only Dong (2012) and Bao (2019) supplied data to compare with our findings. Two teachers in Dong’s study believed that self-correction was more favorable; however, they both used teacher correction, and similarly, as in our study, she found no correlation between the beliefs and practices of the teachers. However, the teachers in Bao’s study had parallel beliefs and practices in terms of the provider of OCF.

Our teachers’ beliefs and practices were similar in terms of the time of OCF according to Spearman’s Rho but the averages between the beliefs and practices varied considerably. The teachers stated that they would provide immediate feedback to their learners’ mistakes (48%) but provided immediate feedback in-class (80%). This gap was huge although the Spearman correlation revealed a significant relationship. In the literature, only two studies examined the timing of OCF; while the Basturkmen et al. (2004) study showed that one (out of three) teacher stated that she would provide feedback after the oral activity but did it during the classroom. Olmez-Ozturk’s (2019) study indicated that half of the teachers stated and performed similarly and for the other half it was opposite.

In the hypothetical samples about error correction in the task, most teachers favored recasts (57%) and elicitions (23.5%). When their actual classroom practices are analyzed, recasts and elicitions, (61.35% and 24.4%, respectively) were similarly the highest OCF types. Spearman’s correlation analysis revealed significant correlation between the beliefs and practices of the teachers when providing feedback with recasts and elicitions. It was also like many previous studies, in which the teachers were found to be consistent about the type of the OCF they preferred, and the type they used (Bao, 2019; Dong, 2012; Kamiya, 2014; Kartchava, 2006; Mori, 2002; Olmez-Ozturk, 2019).

Stimulated recall interviews revealed that the teachers were quite aware of their practices of OCF and, for the most part, they wanted to maintain their in-class practices. Furthermore, they stated they would not change their decision or choice if they had a chance. This finding is original and makes a clear contribution to knowledge in the area of corrective feedback because the study revealed that although teachers’ stated beliefs and in-class practices were congruent about whether the errors should be corrected, when errors should be corrected, and who should correct them, there was resistance in their decision of whether they would change their choice if they had another opportunity. Put another way, the teachers thought that their actions were correct and appropriate to their context, giving greater value on topic continuation and fluency in speaking over correction or accuracy.

This leads us to three pedagogical and research implications for consideration in teaching/learning situations in similar contexts, explained below.

First, the teachers should take into account their contextual dynamics or factors. The stimulated recall data displayed that the teachers thought that there are contextual constraints that they needed to consider when providing appropriate corrective feedback with their students in the actual classroom practices. This notable finding has additional pedagogical value, revealing that change is difficult, and is dependent on other factors (dynamics of the discussion, characteristics of the learners, classroom management, and the type of activity) as well as the nature of tacit knowledge. Further research can also be conducted on each of these factors to explore the extent to which they play significant role in teachers’ actual practices.

Second, special training of the teachers on OCF could play a pivotal role—–one which could be pursued in future research. The teachers were quite content with the difference between their beliefs and practices; however, one would ask whether their level of contentment varies according to any special training they receive. Besides, further research can be carried out to investigate to what extent this special training can impact teachers’ stated beliefs and their actual practices.

Finally, the congruence between the beliefs and practices of the teachers about OCF is an important phenomenon that requires further investigation. Other than the contextual factors about the discourse and learners, factors such as previous teaching experience and/or educational background can also influence the beliefs and practices of teachers, which might reveal valuable insights.
The results of the study should be evaluated considering its limitations. The research context was sampled conveniently, and therefore the research was conducted in a private tertiary institution in Turkey. As these institutions are very selective, and they provide ongoing in-service training and professional development for English language teachers, the participants in our research could be more aware of corrective feedback. Moreover, the students attending these types of universities pay high tuition fees, compared to free education in public universities, and both the students and administration of these private universities are particularly attuned to learning objectives, learning outcomes, and language development. Therefore, the students in these speaking classrooms are not representative of the whole population. Because of these reasons, more studies are still needed to shed further light on teachers’ oral corrective feedback beliefs and practices including more individual differences and contextual factors.

Another limitation might have stemmed from the research design of the study, specifically, the qualitative stage. Due to the nature of the stimulated recall interviewing process, some instructors may not have remembered what they had been thinking about during CF episodes or they might have been replaced with other more acceptable thoughts, which occurred only afterwards during the interview. This factor calls for caution in the interpretation of the results of the study.

Another final fact to consider is that having similar or different beliefs and practices may not be something good or bad without considering the impact of the context and specific aims of the courses. As Kamiya (2016) argues, if a mismatch between the beliefs and practices of the teachers has been observed, this can be considered as an indicator of on-going professional development processes and can be seen as a potential personal development opportunity rather than a shortcoming.

DISCLOSURE STATEMENT
There are no potential conflicts of interest. We, hereby, confirm that the work described has not been published previously, that it is not under consideration for publication elsewhere, that its publication is approved by all authors and tacitly or explicitly by the responsible authorities where the work was carried out, and that, if accepted, it will not be published elsewhere in the same form, in English or in any other language, including electronically without the written consent of the copyright-holder.

FUNDING DETAILS
This work was not funded. No institution had any role in the design and implementation of this study.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT
Data openly available in a public repository that issues datasets with DOIs

PEER REVIEW
The peer review history for this article is available at https://publons.com/publon/10.1111/ijal.12336.

ORCID
Doğan Yüksel https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9131-3907
Adem Soruç https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4165-6260
Jim McKinley https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9949-8368

REFERENCES
Agudo, J. (2014). Beliefs in learning to teach: EFL student teachers’ beliefs about corrective feedback. *Utrecht Studies in Language and Communication, 27*, 209–362.
Agudo, J. (2015). How do Spanish EFL learners perceive grammar instruction and corrective feedback? *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies, 33*(4), 411–425.
Schulz, R. (2001). Cultural differences in student and teacher perceptions concerning the role of grammar instruction and corrective feedback: USA–Colombia. The Modern Language Journal, 85(2), 244–258.

Sheen, Y. (2007). The effects of corrective feedback, language aptitude and learner attitudes on the acquisition of English articles. In A. Mackey, Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studies (pp. 301–322). Oxford University Press.

Zhu, Y., & Wang, B. (2019). Investigating English language learners’ beliefs about oral corrective feedback at Chinese universities: A large-scale survey. Language Awareness, 28(2), 139–161.

How to cite this article: Yüksel D, Soruç A, McKinley J. Teachers’ beliefs and practices about oral corrective feedback in university EFL classes. Int J Appl Linguist. 2021;31:362–382. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijal.12336

APPENDIX

Task on Oral Corrective Feedback

Dear participants,

The following questions are about oral corrective feedback on learners’ language mistakes during the classroom activities. Corrective feedback refers to any sign or indication you give to your students when there is a non-target-like item uttered by your students. As you may know, it can be in different forms (e.g., recast, repetition, elicitation, explicit correction, etc.) Please consult with the researcher if you would like to get extra information about the classification of corrective feedback or some sample sentences.

All of your answers will be kept confidential and will not be used in any form other than research purposes.

Thank you for your participation.

Name:
Gender:
Age:
Years of teaching experience:
Years of teaching experience in the university level:
Highest degree obtained:
Major:
Extra credentials/qualifications about your job:

1. If you would like to identify the effectiveness of giving corrective feedback on your students’ language mistakes, how would you rate it in a percentile scale?

   Here, if you choose 100, then it means it is extremely important and effective.
   Lower percentages would denote less importance about its effectiveness in your students’ language development:
   Effectiveness of Oral Corrective Feedback: ______

2. How often do you correct your students’ mistakes in classroom oral communication? Please use the following scale to answer this question.

   | Percentage |
   |------------|
   | 0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100% |

3. Teachers may provide or may choose not to provide oral corrective feedback on their students’ grammar, pronunciation or vocabulary mistakes. How often would you provide corrective feedback on your students’ different types of feedback? How would you rate each on a percentile scale? For example, if you give feedback on all of your students’ grammar mistakes, it would be 100%.
4. There are (at least) three sources in providing oral corrective feedback to learners’ mistakes in a classroom setting. The learners can correct their mistakes on their own (self-correction), their peers can correct these mistakes (peer correction) or teachers can treat them (teacher correction). On a weighted scale of 100, how would you distribute the three sources of feedback provider?

Here, you are asked to give percentages for each source and your total percentage should be 100.

For example

| Learners themselves | Their peers | Teachers | Total  |
|---------------------|------------|---------|--------|
| 20%                 | 10%        | 70%     | 100%   |

Your answer:

| Learners themselves | Their peers | Teachers | Total  |
|---------------------|------------|---------|--------|
|                     |            |         |        |

5. Teachers can give oral corrective feedback to their students’ mistakes immediately after the mistake (immediate feedback) or sometime later (delayed feedback). How would you put a percentage about the time you give feedback on? For example, you may choose to give immediate feedback 40% of the time and choose to give delayed feedback 60%. Remember that your total percentage will be 100.

| Immediate feedback | Delayed feedback | Total  |
|--------------------|------------------|--------|
|                    |                  |        |

6. Now, you will tell us how you would give feedback in some specific situations. Please choose one of the feedback types (the one you think most effective) to the following student mistakes.

Teacher: What did you do at home last night?
Student: I goed home late so I couldn’t do much.

A. Teacher: No, not goed, went.
B. Teacher: You went home late? Why? What did you do?
C. Teacher: I am sorry?
D. Teacher: You need to use the past form of the verb
E. Teacher: You... (pausing)? (rising intonation)
F. Teacher: I GOED home late. (stressing the mistake, with rising intonation)
Student: I study in Humboldt University?

A. Teacher: No, not in, at.
B. Teacher: You study at Humboldt University. Hmm. Where is it?
C. Teacher: Sorry? Can you repeat again?
D. Teacher: I study IN Humboldt University. (stressing the mistake)
E. Teacher: You study... (pausing)? (rising intonation)
F. Teacher: We use at instead of in when we talk about the university we study.

Teacher: Where did you stay in London?
Student: I stayed in a hotel [hotel]

A. Teacher: No, not hotel, hotel (correct pronunciation).
B. Teacher: You stay in a hotel (correct pronunciation)
C. Teacher: I am sorry? Can you say that again?
D. Teacher: I stayed in a HOTEL (stressing the mistake).
E. Teacher: I stayed in a... (pausing)? (rising intonation).
F. Teacher: We pronounce the hotel with /e/ sound not schwa sound.

Teacher: When do you wake up in the morning?
Student: I wake up in 8 AM.

A. Teacher: No, not in 8 a.m., at 8 a.m.
B. Teacher: I wake up at 8 a.m.
C. Teacher: Sorry? Can you repeat your sentence?
D. Teacher: I wake up IN 8 a.m.
E. Teacher: I wake up... (pausing)? (rising intonation).
F. Teacher: We use at when we talk about the time, not in.

Teacher: Did you call your friend last night?
Student: No, I got the wrong number.

A. Teacher: No, not wrong, wrong.
B. Teacher: Sorry? Can you repeat again?
C. Teacher: I got the... (pausing)? (rising intonation).
D. Teacher: Wrong number (correct pronunciation).
E. Teacher: /w/ sound at the beginning of the word "wrong" is silent. We don't say it in English.
F. Teacher: I got the wrong number.

Teacher: What makes you happy in life?
Student: I like reading books.

A. Teacher: No, not reading, reading.
B. Teacher: I like ... (pausing)? (rising intonation).
C. Teacher: I like READING books. (stressing the mistake).
D. Teacher: Sorry? Can you repeat again?
E. Teacher: reading books (correct pronunciation).
F. Teacher: The correct pronunciation is reading. We pronounce these two letters as /i:/

   Student: In the apartment I live, there are four stories.

   A. Teacher: No, not apartment, it is building.
   B. Teacher: In the… (pausing)? (rising intonation).
   C. Teacher: Apartment is a false cognate for Turkish speakers. We use building in English with that meaning.
   D. Teacher: In the building…
   E. Teacher: I am sorry?
   F. Teacher: In the APARTMENT I live, there are four stories. (stressing the mistake).

   Student: I didn’t remember him to come to the party. I should have called him in advance.

   A. Teacher: Remember and remind have different meanings. Remind is making someone remember. Be careful.
   B. Teacher: No, not remember, it should be remind.
   C. Teacher: You didn’t remind him to come to the party.
   D. Teacher: I didn’t… (pausing)? (rising intonation).
   E. Teacher: Can you repeat again?
   F. Teacher: I didn’t REMEMBER him to do come to the party. (stressing the mistake).

   Teacher: What did you do at the weekend?
   Student: I was really busy. [wrong pronunciation]

   A. Teacher: Can you say that again?
   B. Teacher: No, not busy, busy.
   C. Teacher: I was really… (pausing)? (rising intonation).
   D. Teacher: I was really BUSY. (stressing the mistake).
   E. Teacher: You were really busy. (correct pronunciation)
   F. Teacher: It is /i/ sound that we have in busy even though the letter is "u."

   Student: I sent the letter two months before. Did you receive them?

   A. Teacher: I sent the letter two months … (pausing)? (rising intonation).
   B. Teacher: I sent the letter two months BEFORE. (stressing the mistake).
   C. Teacher: You sent the letter two months ago?
   D. Teacher: No, not before, ago.
   E. Teacher: Sorry? Can you repeat again?
   F. Teacher: We should use “ago” here. Before isn’t suitable.

7. Do you think that it is important to give feedback to your student on language mistakes? Do you find it effective?
8. Do you think your students expect to get feedback on their oral mistakes?

Thank you for your time and cooperation.