

Pre-Service Teacher Performance and High-School Student Uptake of Oral Corrective Feedback in EFL Classes in Da Nang

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: oral corrective feedback; types; timing; target errors; student uptake; EFL pre-service teachers; high-school students.

The study investigates how pre-service EFL teachers at the University of Foreign Language Studies – the University of Danang (UFLS – UD) perceive and perform oral corrective feedback (OCF); as well as how high-school students respond to OCF. The questionnaire was given to a random group of 32 pre-service teachers, ten classroom observations were made, and five trainees were interviewed. The results demonstrate the types, timing, and target errors of OCF given to learners by novice teachers. Furthermore, despite some matches and mismatches between perception and in-class practices of OCF types, the majority of trainee teachers were aware of the significance and efficiency of correcting verbal errors. As a result, while there were some cases of needs-repair or no uptake produced by learners, successful repairs recorded predominated. The study concludes with practical recommendations to promote future EFL teachers' feedback-giving practices at UFLS-UD in enhancing their professional growth and students' speaking performances at high schools in Danang.

Introduction

There is no doubt that making and fixing mistakes is an important aspect of studying a foreign language. As a result, many types of research highlighting the efficiency of verbal and written comments, corrective feedback (CF) preferences, and their distribution have been carried out. English teachers care more about positive feedback concerning if, when, and how CF should be delivered (Ellis, 2017). As learners employ a word in a different context, mispronounce words, and so on, it is essential to get CF which helps them recognize and avoid mistakes in the future. Errors that are not corrected properly could become fossilized because they stick in learners' minds and somehow impede improvement toward language proficiency (Huan & Phuong, 2018).

However, some studies on this problem in Vietnam have been conducted mostly in university settings with English-major respondents. The author is aware of a lack of studies on the effects of oral corrective feedback (OCF) in Vietnam high schools, in which each English lesson lasts 45 minutes. According to Poulos and Mathony (2008), useful feedback could improve learning as well as teaching and ease the transition from school to higher education. Furthermore, in comparison to experienced teachers, EFL trainee teachers at UFLS-UD may have challenges in providing OCF to students because of lacking teaching expertise.

Thus, the goal of this research is to provide insight into how pre-service teachers perceive and deliver OCF to students during the teaching practicum. The way teenage learners in Danang modified their immediate output is also scrutinized due to their varied tastes, feelings, and reactions to educator correction.

Literature review

Overview of Speaking Skills in L2 Learning and Teaching

Speaking is regarded as a vital skill since it is required for verbal communication, explaining things, and is associated with listening (Islam et al., 2022). As reported by Bygate (2003), speaking a foreign language includes several sub-skills such as message development and management, negotiation of meaning, production, and accuracy. While accuracy relies on understanding grammar and pronunciation rules, the writer indicates that conversing in a foreign language is determined by an amalgamation of these sub-skills. Therefore, learners should acquire rules of the language and promote communication by paraphrasing, checking comprehension, or seeking information.

The term "communicative language teaching" is frequently discussed because traditional teaching failed to help learners speak in a foreign language. In light of second language acquisition studies since 1972, the aim of language learning is not to generate perfect grammar but to communicate efficiently in a specific situation. To promote fluency, language instructors are regularly recommended to design communicative speaking activities which include an information gap (Scrivener, 2005). Language competency is achieved through activities such as role-play or discussions (Teh, 2021).

In communicative teaching methods, it is important to handle grammar and fluency of English speaking individually. Accordingly, language teachers tend to move from controlled practice that emphasizes accuracy to free practice underscoring fluency.

Oral Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback (CF) is considered a form of negative feedback, which comes as a response to a learner's speech, including a language mistake. CF occurrences take account of triggers, feedback moves, and uptake (optionally). (Ellis and Sheen, 2006)

CF is also described as “any feedback provided to a learner, from any source, that contains

evidence of learner error of language form” (Russell & Spada, 2006, p. 134). In accordance with this description, CF could represent both written and verbal comments from an educator or another learner. The paper, on the other hand, discuss particularly OCF delivered by UFLS-UD pre-service teachers in a Vietnamese high-school classroom setting.

Types of OCF

Firstly, Lyster and Ranta (1997) grouped CF into six forms, subsequently developed a two-part discrepancy, and listed them into reformulations and prompts. Reformulations consist of recasts and explicit corrections giving the proper utterance, whereas the other four are referred to as "prompts." Sheen and Ellis's (2011) taxonomy retains these six types but demonstrates some new characteristics using two standards: explicit vs. implicit and input-providing vs. output-pushing. Then Lyster, Saito, and Sato (2013) upgraded the latest model of OCF classification, adding different single feedback moves on a continuum (see Figure 1).

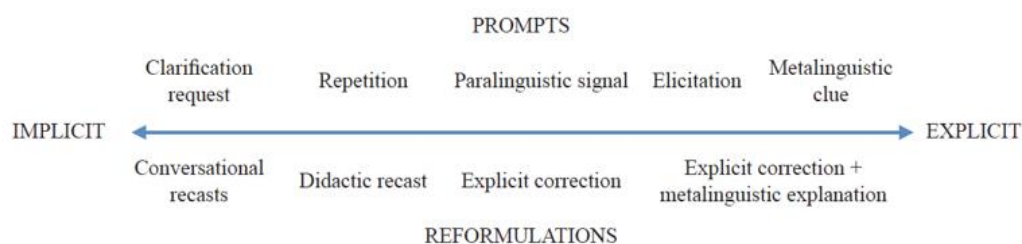


Figure 1. Classification of OCF

Clarification requests

The teacher shows he or she did not grasp what the learner said. (Ellis and Rod, 2009).

S: Yesterday I go to the beach. T: Pardon?

Recasts

Teachers correct implicitly without stating inaccurate utterances, so recasts are employed to avoid breaking down learners' communication. As a result, recasts can be either didactic or conversational. (Huan & Phuong, 2018)

Conversational recasts are commonly followed by a question tag. (Sheen and Ellis, 2011).

- S: Yesterday I go to the beach. T: “Ah, yesterday you went to the beach, didn’t you?”

Didactic recasts

- S: Yesterday I go to the beach. T: “Ah, you went to the beach.”

Repetition

The teachers repeat the learners’ incorrect utterances in separation, usually with adjusted intonation. (Lyster and Ranta, 1997).

S: Yesterday I go to the beach. T: I go to the beach? (Accompanied by a rising tone).

Paralinguistic signal

To signal that an error is made, the teachers perform a gesture or facial expression. (Ellis and Rod, 2009)

S: Yesterday I go to the beach. T: Moving the pointer finger over the shoulder to imply the past.

Elicitation

An effort elicits the correct utterance from the learner, for instance, by asking a prompting question. (Sheen and Ellis, 2011).

S: Yesterday I go to the beach. T: Yesterday I...?

Explicit correction

A direct signal indicates that a mistake has occurred and the correction is provided (Sheen and Ellis, 2011).

T: Not “go”, you should say “went”.

Metalinguistic clue

Linguistic explanations of the students' speeches do not explicitly provide an accurate form (Lyster and Ranta, 1997).

S: Yesterday I go to the beach. T: You should use past tense.

Explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation

Besides notifying errors and offering the proper form, a metalinguistic comment is also provided (Sheen and Ellis, 2011).

T: You should say "went" not "go". Yesterday shows action from the past.

The timing of OCF

The timing of CF has been debated from the outset of communicative language education. While some authors state it should be supplied immediately, others believe it should be postponed (Roothoof, 2014). In order to dodge interrupting, Chastain (1971) proposed teachers could delay reviewing typical errors till the end of communicative activities, whereas Doughty (2001) claimed, that it is indispensable for CF to be delivered promptly within the framework of meaning-grounded interaction.

In this current study, the timing of OCF was divided into two:

- Immediate feedback is given promptly following a student's incorrect utterance by interrupting them.
- A delayed comment is delivered after waiting for pupils to finish their sentences. (Ellis, 2009, cited in Ölmezer-Öztürk and Öztürk, 2016, p.118).

Target errors

Errors have been codified by Mackey et al. (2000) into four categories:

- Grammar error is recorded as students use incorrect word order, tense, conjugation, as well as particles.
- Pronunciation error is when learners mispronounce words and make mistakes related to suprasegmental features such as stress and intonation.
- Vocabulary error is the inappropriate use of vocabulary or code-switching to the first language due to being short of lexical resources.
- Semantic and pragmatic errors mean although there is no grammar, pronunciation, or vocabulary error, learners' communication is still misunderstood. (Hernández et al., 2012, p.68)

However, only the first three target errors were identified in the paper as they were likely to regularly arise in basic classes and expected to be observed by researchers.

Student OCF uptake and treatment sequence

Learners' immediate responses towards a given CF of the teacher are named uptake. Student uptake is categorized as repair and needs-repair uptake in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) taxonomy. Repair refers to uptake leading to the correction of a particular mistake the feedback is aimed at, whereas needs-repair uptake produces an utterance requiring further repair.

Likewise, no uptake is another instance that probably occurs. Lyster and Ranta (1997) indicate (cited in Phuong & Huan, 2018, p.117) "if there is no uptake, then there is topic continuation, which is initiated by either the same or another student (in both cases, the teacher's intention goes unheeded) or by the teacher (in which case the teacher has not provided an opportunity for uptake)". An error treatment sequence is adapted for the purpose of this present study (see Figure 2).

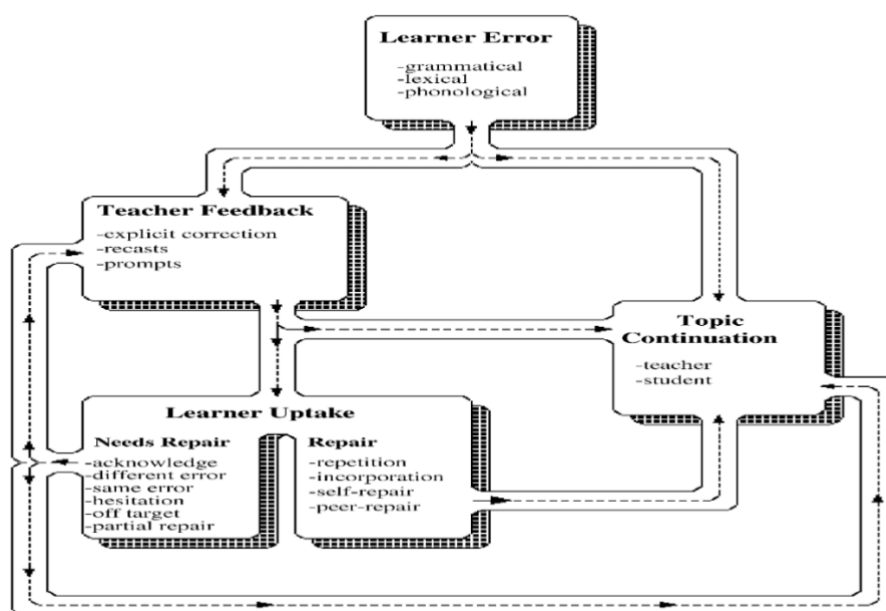


Figure 1. Error treatment sequence. Adapted from Lyster and Ranta, 1997, p.44.

Teachers' perception and practices toward OCF

In a study where 99 pre-service instructors participated in a perception survey and then ten observed, Kartchava et al. (2020) revealed recasts were the CF type preferred and carried out often in their classroom. Nevertheless, Junqueira and Kim (2013) investigated inconsistency in a novice and an experienced educator's attitudes as well as behaviors concerning the language targets of CF. Besides, as observing two experienced teachers and 50 teenagers at a private high school in the Mekong Delta, Phuong and Huan (2018) displayed that OCF types sharing the highest popularity were recasts and explicit correction. Meanwhile, clarification requests and metalinguistic explanations are beneficial for assisting learners in recognizing oral mistakes. Ha & Murray (2020) also conducted a study on six Vietnamese teachers in primary schools, who showed their high awareness of OCF advantages.

Teaching EFL has arisen as a part of language education in central Vietnam, but there was a little investigation on OCF accomplished in the environment. Thus, a study on how UFLS pre-service teachers perceive and perform OCF during the teaching practicum in Danang, along with high-school student uptake, is well-timed.

Research Questions

In order to attain research objectives, the following questions are addressed in the paper:

1. How do pre-service EFL teachers perceive oral corrective feedback?
2. How do pre-service EFL teachers give oral corrective feedback to students?
3. How oral corrective feedback is handled by high-school students?

Methods

Pedagogical Setting & Participants

The English teacher education program at UFLS-UD

The TEFL program at UFLS-UD is summarized as a four-year program that accepts Vietnamese students. The admission score for this program has been the highest of all available programs at UFLS. Language instruction for General English, Linguistics, and Professional courses in English. The pre-service teachers take some theoretical and practical courses during their program. Over the second year of the training, students have taken a variety of English-language classes that develop their overall proficiency and academic language skills. In the third and fourth years, students take professional courses such as English Translation Module 1 and 2, Psychology, Education Management, English Culture, and English Language Teaching Methodology. (ELTM) Module 1, 2 and 3; Language testing and assessment. In the program's final term, pre-service teachers participate in a teaching practicum in which they teach students in real classrooms from local high schools under the guidance of mentors and university supervisors. Some of them worked as English language teachers, private tutors, or Teaching Assistants while being enrolled in the TEFL program. Furthermore, during the three ELTM modules, students gained teaching experience through micro-teaching sessions in front of their peers and lecturers. The final semester of the program requires pre-service teachers to design and deliver full lessons for students while being observed. They have to prepare what they will teach ahead of time and submit lesson plans to their supervisors. During the teaching sessions, they are observed for reviews by their mentors, peers, and university supervisors.

Pre-service EFL teachers selected to participate in this research were current senior students at UFLS-UD, so they underwent the same education, training, and internship process described above.

Participants

Questionnaire respondents of the study comprised of 32 current EFL pre-service teachers (29 females and 3 males) at the UFLS - Faculty of Foreign Teacher Education. Simple random sampling was used, so Table 1 indicated the demographic features of the participants.

Table 1. Demographic Information of Study Participants (N=32)

Gender	No. (%)
Female	29 (90.63%)
Male	3 (9.38%)
Language learning experience	
English	14 (43.75%)
2 foreign languages	15 (46.88%)
More than 2 foreign languages	3 (9.38%)

Years of studying English	
7-10 years	10 (31.25%)
More than 10 years	22 (68.75%)
English proficiency (C1 & C2)	
Listening	19 (59.38%)
Reading	18 (56.25%)
Speaking	14 (43.75%)
Writing	16 (50%)
Teaching Experience	
About 1 year	14 (43.75%)
About 2 years	10 (31.25%)
About 3 years	4 (12.5%)
More than 3 years	4 (12.5%)

Afterward, the researchers randomly selected five teachers for classroom observations after getting their permission to conduct an in-class investigation. Subsequently, they are asked to join follow-up interviews at the end of their internship period. Table 2 below showcases their biographical summary.

Table 2. Biographical summary of five pre-service teachers

Trainee	Gender	English learning	English teaching experience	Overall English proficiency	Class grade
T1	Male	10 years	About 1 year	B2	Grade 11
T2	Female	More than 10 years	About 2 years (part-time teaching assistant, private tutoring session)	C1	Grade 10
T3	Female	10 years	About 1 year (part-time teaching assistant)	B2	Grade 10
T4	Female	More than 10 years	About 3 years (private tutoring lessons)	C1	Grade 11
T5	Female	More than 10 years	More than 3 years (private tutoring lessons, part-time teachers)	C1	Grade 11

During the two-month teaching practicum, five chosen trainee teachers taught more than 120 students from three different local high schools, namely Le Quy Don (LQD), Hoang Hoa Tham (HHT) and Tran Phu (TP), in the observed EFL classrooms. English has been a required subject in Danang from grade 1 to grade 12. The high-school education program includes three 45-

minute English classes every week beginning in grade 10. Students are expected to achieve a level equivalent to B1 on the CEFR-based rating scale by the end of grade 12. As a result, students in the 10th and 11th grades (at level A2) with at least five years of learning English were capable of following and responding to OCF techniques provided by teachers.

Design of the Study

In order to meet the study's aims, the authors of the paper adopted a descriptive research design to find out how UFLS-UD pre-service EFL teachers perceive and correct oral mistakes, along with how students respond to these feedbacks. In accordance with Cohen et al. (2003), questionnaires, observations, and interviews are among the most commonly utilized tools for this approach.

Data collection & analysis

A descriptive study employed a questionnaire (32 UFLS-UD pre-service EFL teachers), classroom observation, and semi-structured interviews (5 trainee teachers).

Questionnaires

An English questionnaire adapted from Ha & Murray (2020) and Gurzynski (2010) composes of two parts: background and perception. The background section consists of six personal questions about EFL pre-service teachers' language learning experience and teaching experience up to date. The second part focuses on six questions of OCF, which includes four 5-point Likert questions exploring their general perception, correction sources, types, and target errors of OCF; one multiple choice regarding timing; one open-ended question gaining an insight into instances in which OCF is unlikely to be provided. The questionnaire was conducted online via Google Forms due to the Covid-19 outbreak in Danang.

Once collected, the data were tabulated and analyzed using Ms. Excel. Having converted to a numerical rate ranging from 5 to 1, Likert-scale questions resulted in the average score indicating EFL pre-service's perception of giving OCF to their students regarding types and target errors. On the other hand, the data in percentage performed general perception, correction sources, and OCF timing. Open-ended questions revealing situations when OCF does not have a tendency to emerge were open-coded. The data is coded up by the authors, who added additional codes and categories as needed before tabulating it in percent.

Observations

Each of the five chosen pre-service teachers was observed in two 45-minute lessons (a total of ten lessons). Observation forms are combined from Phuong & Huan (2018) and Huong (2020) to explore pre-service teachers' practices and learners' uptake of OCF. It also covers the class, observation date, estimated time, and lesson topic. While observing, the author noted down students' mistakes, the teacher feedback, and learner uptake in transcript sections. Actual classroom practices were recorded so the researcher could review particular events which might be missing by play-back.

Observed English lessons were recorded, then reviewed. Authors then counted and categorized notes into target errors, correction timings, OCF strategies, and those student uptake before finally summarizing transcripts in observation sheets.

Interviews

Semi-structured interviews adapted from Ha & Murray (2020) were carried out in Vietnamese three weeks after observations to delve deeper into the reasons and difficulties behind OCF choices, as well as student reactions toward teacher correction during the teaching practicum. Eight guiding interview questions were designed to clarify and elaborate on data at the two previous stages. All interviews were recorded and took place in about 20 minutes on average.

Responses were audio-recorded with the interviewees' approval. As soon as the interview sessions had finished, the data was transcribed, translated, and coded. The researcher then read and reread scripts multiple times in order to open-coded aspects of interviewees' responses to find similar and different patterns. The following step was axial coding, which "seeks to make links between categories and codes" (Cohen et al., 2013, p. 493), to explore interrelationships. Extracts and quotes from answers were employed to illustrate, support and dispute results from two previous data sets, namely questionnaire and observation.

Results and discussion

Results

Pre-service EFL teachers' perception of OCF (N=32).

Table 3. Pre-service EFL teachers' general perception of giving OCF

General perception of giving OCF	Totally agree/Agree	Neutral	Disagree/Totally disagree
It is important to give students oral feedback on language mistakes.	90.63%	9.37%	
Without oral feedback in the classroom, students will continue to make the same mistakes.	84.38%	15.62%	
Students expect to get feedback on their oral mistakes.	68.75%	25%	6.25%
Some errors are more important to correct than others.	65.63%	25%	9.37%
It is easy to give OCF in English.	40.62%	59.38%	

Table 3, indicates that most pre-service teachers agreed with the fact that OCF played an important role in learners' language development. T3 highlighted students would definitely benefit from teacher correction, while T2 added, "OCF provision helps my teaching practicum

to be more natural, informative and less script-based.”. T1 and T4 also shared like “the internship was not that long for me to observe my students’ development. What a pity!”.

Nearly 85% of trainees emphasized a tangible advantage of OCF to reduce mistake repetition. “Learners will not make similar mistakes” or “They would know what’s wrong in their speech and remember it” can be seen in T4 and T5’s responses. More than 68% of respondents assumed that students expected to receive OCF on their mistakes as teachers pay attention to them. Similarly, approximately 66% supposed that there were some mistakes more crucial to amend than others. As T1 mentioned, slip-of-tongue errors were less important than mispronunciation.

However, the confidence in delivering OCF in English seemed to be vague because the figure for the “neutral” choice of this statement stood at about 59%. T2 reflected like “I have a neutral perspective on this because it largely relies on the situation as well as the kind of mistakes learners make. And it is often difficult to correct in English, especially when students make grammatical errors; feedback in English is occasionally not clear enough for them.”, while T3 indicated that OCF provision in English depended on various aspects, such as the complexity of context, student levels, teachers’ English competence and so on. T3 explained like “it is easier to correct good learners because they would recognize mistakes immediately, compared to weaker students” or “it is simpler if teachers’ knowledge is firm and broad enough to ensure their feedback is accurate”. Likewise, T1 emphasized “If I want to correct students, the most essential element is I myself have to pronounce correctly. I can’t give feedback to anyone if I’m wrong.”.

Table 4. OCF provision from three main sources

How often do you	Always/Often	Sometimes	Rarely/ Never
correct orals mistakes on your own?	75%	25%	
expect your students to self-correct?	59.38%	40.62%	
let your students correct each other?	65.63%	25%	9.37%

According to table 4, it is clear that pre-service teachers were likely to give OCF on their own (75%) rather than let students self-correct (59.38%) or peer correct (65.63%). All 5 interviewees shared that after eliciting, they would like students to fix errors rather than giving out correct forms themselves. Because they thought if students could recall what they had studied and fixed errors, OCF definitely contributed to their long-term memory. Though peer correction is acclaimed to be a good technique, especially in discussions and group work activities, trainee teachers preferred to correct oral mistakes by themselves, helping students improve their speaking performances. T1 elaborated, “my feedback on students’ oral mistakes was beneficial to them, especially pronunciation, my students’ pronunciation during my internship had improved a lot after my correction. I also hope that other teachers will try to give oral positive feedback with encouragement so that students will be more motivated and excited during classes.”.

Table 5. Pre-service EFL teachers' preferences for OCF types

Types of OCF	Mean value
Clarification requests	<u>3.25</u>
Conversational recasts	3.66
Didactic recasts	3.97
Repetition	3.47
Paralinguistic signal	3.41
Elicitation	3.84
Explicit correction	<u>3.31</u>
Metalinguistic clue	3.97
Explicit correction + metalinguistic explanation	4.16

As can be seen from table 5, explicit correction accompanied by a metalinguistic explanation was highly chosen as the favored OCF strategy by most pre-service teachers ($M=4.16$). T1 demonstrated, *"I personally believe this strategy would be more effective than others since it provides sufficient clarity and learners, hence, not only recognize mistakes but also comprehend why they are incorrect and what have to be done to correct them."* The second preferred ones were metalinguistic clues and didactic recasts, with $M=3.97$ for each, but the opposite was true for clarification requests as the least favorable type ($M=3.25$). T3 and T4 commented, *"I find metalinguistic clues quite helpful to high-school students"*. Meanwhile, clarification requests were declared intricate and confusing because students did not know what was wrong with their answers.

When it comes to recasts, T4 mentioned, *"this one seems to be useful because students would satisfy with being attended to and listened by their teachers"*. The third favored technique was elicitation ($M=3.84$) as T1 explained, *"it helps students develop their thinking skills but it is quite time-consuming in lessons"*. Elicitation was also acclaimed as T3's all-time favorite correction because students would brainstorm, self-correct and increase their power of recall to what they have learned. By contrast, the explicit correction came in the eighth place with $M=3.31$ as the second least favored OCF strategy. However, T5 went, *"this method was effective and time-saving for students to recognize their mistakes"*.

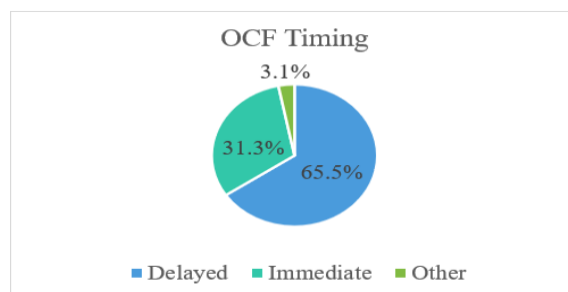
**Figure 3.** Pre-service EFL teachers' preferences for OCF timing

Figure 3 illustrates that delayed OCF is the most favored timing, with more than 65% of participants, followed by immediate one with a half of that. T1 compared these two timings, *“Immediate can decrease the confidence of the students, and I don’t think that people want to be interrupted by any reasons, whereas delayed seems better because it shows the respect of the teachers towards students.”* Besides, around 3% chose others as they highlighted their decision towards OCF timing depended on the situation, as can also be seen in T2 and T3's responses. During the knowledge formation stage, mistakes would be corrected immediately. Otherwise, teachers should wait until the practice stage. In addition, T5 drew attention to timely feedback based on target errors like *“it is essential to correct phonological mistakes immediately for students to repeat, compared to lexical and grammatical errors, delayed feedback was preferred without interrupting their flow of thought”*.

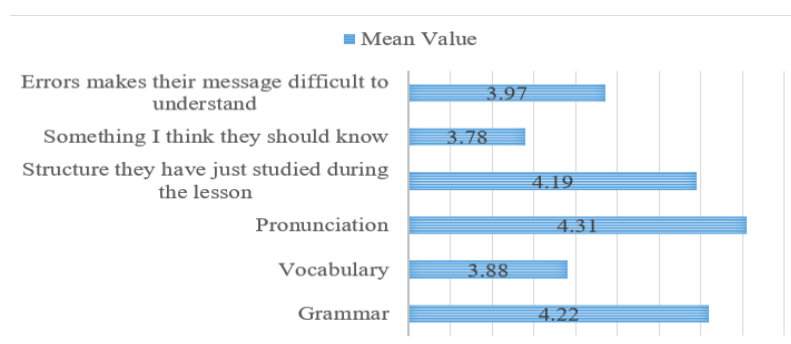


Figure 4. Pre-service EFL teachers’ target errors of given OCF

Figure 4 demonstrates pronunciation and grammar are two language elements that pre-service teachers seemed to correct verbally, with $M=4.31$ and 4.22 , respectively. T1 commented, *“Pronunciation and grammar errors are quite easy to recognize. But vocabulary errors should be carefully considered before giving feedback.”* They also paid more attention to correct “structures learners have just studied during the lesson” to achieve specific goals set in the lesson plan they prepare before each class. In contrast, “something I think they should know” is the type of mistakes on which pre-service teachers is less likely to give OCF.

Table 6. Situations when OCF is unlikely to be delivered

OCF-free situations	Frequency
Student-related	7 (17.07%)
<i>(Not overwhelming S, interrupting S’s flow of thought, hurting shy S, letting S explain ideas or content in English)</i>	
Mistake-related	9 (21.95%)
<i>(Minor/acceptable errors or too many errors are made)</i>	
Context-related	9 (21.95%)
<i>(Writing test/assignment, production stage, fluency practice)</i>	
No situation recorded so far/ No idea on this matter	16 (39.02%)

According to table 6, it was supposed to be three main reasons why pre-service teachers decided not to correct S's oral mistakes from their teaching experience, namely, mistake, context, and student-related situations. In terms of mistakes, more than a fifth of student teachers assumed that they did not deliver OCF if errors seemed to be acceptable and minor or too many errors were made. When it comes to context, writing test or written assignment is where errors should be handled in written format, not verbally. They also tended not to give OCF in the production stage or activities focusing on fluency. Regarding students' concerns, approximately 17% of novice teachers chose not to deliver OCF because of overwhelming students or interrupting their flow of thought. Furthermore, the personality of S is also taken into account. For example, if S is too shy, pre-service teachers suffered OCF constraints. Both five interviewees confirmed student's emotional reactions were vital, as reflected in the comments below:

T1: "Yes, there are always students who are sensitive. They rarely speak in my classes, so I tend to praise their effort to speak and I correct his/her mistakes generally for the whole class without mentioning that student."

T2: "Teachers have to consider their students' feelings. Because some learners are quite sensitive, I normally employ indirect approaches in those situations. I was split between the two at times – whether or not to correct him/her – but in a language lesson, I believe the most essential thing is for students to learn how to use the language efficiently and accurately, therefore I will always correct any errors."

T3, T4 and T5: "Though I do pay attention to students' feelings, I am going to change my ways of speaking to alleviate the degree of errors rather than ignore them."

Nevertheless, about 39% of surveyed participants claimed that they had never thought of any OCF-free situations when their students made spoken mistakes.

Pre-service teachers' OCF performance in the teaching practicum (N=5).

Before pre-service teachers' OCF delivery in actual class hours is showcased, it should be noted that ten observed lessons followed students' textbook (New English 10 and 11), which consisted of linguistic focus for every lesson, such as Speaking and Language (pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary).

Overall, **51 spoken errors** by high-school learners were identified during about seven hours of observing and recording, and **45 teacher responses** to the mistakes were made.

Table 7. OCF distribution in actual class hours

Types of OCF	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	Frequency (%)
Clarification requests	2	0	2	1	3	8 (17.8%)
Conversational recasts	0	0	0	0	0	<i>0 (0%)</i>
Didactic recasts	3	0	4	1	4	12 (26.7%)
Repetition	1	0	0	0	0	1 (2.2%)
Paralinguistic signal	0	0	1	0	0	1 (2.2%)
Elicitation	1	2	0	0	1	4 (8.9%)
Explicit correction	5	2	1	4	0	12 (26.7%)
Metalinguistic clue	0	1	1	2	0	4 (8.9%)
Explicit correction + metalinguistic explanation	1	0	0	0	2	3 (2.2%)
Total	13	5	9	8	10	45 (100%)

As seen in Table 7, the distribution of OCF types delivered by five teachers across ten lessons differed significantly. There were six times of no OCF recorded. Pre-services teachers made use of explicit correction and didactic recasts to correct mistakes during their actual teaching practices at an equal rate of 26.7% for each. For example, T4 uttered, “*cleaner not more clean*” to inform her S of the according grammatical error, while T2 performed the accurate stress of the new word “*infrastructure*” as soon as S mispronounced it. Following that, clarification request was utilized 17.8%. For instance, T1 replied “*yes?*” after an erroneous form occurred. In contrast, no one among five participants used conversation recasts to amend S's errors, which might be due to the fact that they have never experienced or learned about this OCF type. Besides, T1 and T5 were the ones correcting S verbally more often than others with a total of 13 and 10 times respectively; meanwhile, T2 rarely used OCF in her class with a half of T5's figure in the same amount of time. It came to a surprise that only T3 delivered OCF once in the form of a paralinguistic signal by shaking her head and frowning a bit. Though T3 praised elicitation, she did not utilize this technique in both her two observed lessons. Explicit correction along with metalinguistic clues was only employed by T1 to correct a grammatical error (conditionals type 1). T1 also demonstrated the usage of explicit correction more frequently than his counterparts, which is consistent with his comments on this type, “*in my opinion, this direct method is the most effective one, teachers can also ask students to repeat the sentence after giving feedback.*”

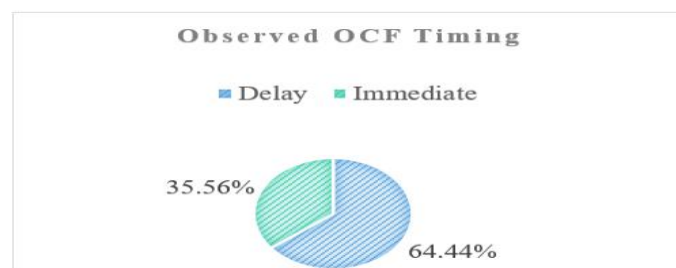


Figure 5. OCF timing in actual class hours

When it comes to the timing of OCF observed in classes, it is noticeable that more than 64% of OCF were put off till students had finished their utterances by 5 pre-service teachers. Immediate type accounted for approximately a third of the total OCF provision. T4 portrayed the equal use of both timing types, whereas the other 4 participants waited instead of interrupting Ss. At the same time, the author also noticed that during the production stage, especially when S had to give one to two minutes talks on specific topics, pre-service teachers were used to delaying the process of OCF by recording mistakes and telling the whole class later.

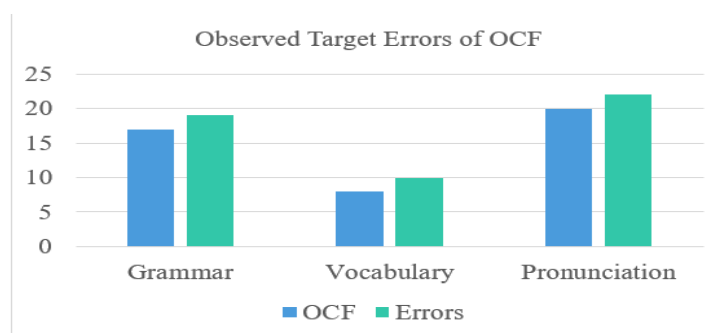


Figure 6. Observed targets errors of OCF

During the actual class hours, five pre-service teachers gave more OCF on phonological mistakes up to 20 times (around 45% of the total OCF), whilst as the number of vocabulary errors recorded was relatively low, just eight out of them were rectified by participants. Grammar errors was the target that all five novice teachers did deliver OCF to their Ss regularly. There were certain mistakes regarding vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation that pre-service teachers neither paid attention to nor had enough time to correct as they were afraid of failing to fulfill their lesson in 45-minute limit.

High-school students' uptake of OCF.

Table 8. Student uptake to OCF (N=45)

Types of student uptake	Frequency (%)
Repair	26 (57.78%)
Needs-repair	4 (8.89%)
No uptake	15 (33.33%)
Total	45 (100%)

As presented in table 8, nearly 58% of OCF resulted in student uptake as pre-service teachers successfully helped learners to give the correct form. Therefore, most high-school students in Danang were capable of handling OCF given by T. For example, T2 reminded on the importance of ending sounds, then the word “*disgrace*” was pronounced accurately by her student. Another example is that during a role-play, S came up with creative ideas but lacked lexical resources so they sometimes code-switched to Vietnamese like “*the atmosphere would be loãng hơn*”. Although T3 assisted them with equivalent English vocabulary, she noted down and finally commented that earlier they could paraphrase simply with alternative words they had studied. Ss welcomed that OCF positively.

However, no uptake accounted for more than a third of OCF moves. Some observed was mainly because trainees did not offer opportunities for student uptake. One particular case was that S was about to treat his/her mistake but T5 just called other Ss to answer the next question. Another case was that T1 moved on with the following activities without letting S correct themselves after underscoring the intonation of question tags. In terms of needs-repair, less than 5% OCF led to this type of uptake. For instance, though T4 amended how her student pronounced vowel sounds with the word “*sustainable*” about two to three times, S finally failed to deal with these errors. Overall, the researchers took notice of positive responses from students as most of them were willing and comfortable to treat their errors like whispering or repeating teacher corrections.

Discussion

Pre-service EFL teachers' perception and performance of giving OCF

Concerning pre-service EFL teachers' preferences toward OCF types, it is noted that respondents pondered they utilized explicit correction with metalinguistic clues the most because this strategy was to help students avoid ambiguity. Novice teachers thought Ss would benefit from OCF with not only accurate forms of errors but also metalinguistic comments, which might stand a reason why the metalinguistic explanation was also ranked as one of the second preferred strategies. The other high valued by pre-service teachers were didactic recasts since students would compare and figure out what their mistakes are. Also, this method would not break down their communication.

Based on the observation results from five cases, we can see briefly that there are some matches and mismatches between pre-service teachers' perceptions and in-class practices of OCF types. During the classroom, they made use of the explicit correction the most without metalinguistic feedback. It might be because time-stricken lessons forced novice teachers to reduce explanations so only correct forms were put forward. Additionally, it was interesting that clarification requests were considered to be the least voted strategy, in contrast, pre-service teachers often delivered them in classrooms. As this technique may be time-saving, and students could manage to self-repair or peer-repair. Their fondness for didactic recasts was observed in classes, showing consistency with their perception. However, although conversation recasts ranked the number four preferred type, none of five teachers practiced this OCF in actual

classrooms, which might be due to their little experience; as T3 pointed out, she used didactic recasts more regularly than conversation ones.

With regard to timing, UFLS-UD pre-service teachers gave a lot of credits to delayed OCF as they were afraid of interrupting students' flow of thought. Aside from that, they considered context, such as whether they wanted to focus on accuracy in the practice or fluency in the production stage, which would influence their selection on correction timing. This study supported Hernández et al.'s (2012) research finding that timing was determined by the intent the teacher has towards OCF.

Pronunciation was considered to be a common target mistake because two-thirds of those surveyed believed that some errors were more important than others in language development. It was consistent with Ha and Murray's (2020) conclusion teachers indicated their thought that pronunciation was likely to hinder dialogue and understanding (p. 20). However, grammar errors are more likely to be corrected by pre-service instructors than lexical ones, which contradicts the prior study. It could be due to differences in target participants (experienced vs. inexperienced teachers), student ages (primary vs. high school), and other factors.

In actual observations, there was no difference in timing and target errors. To avoid impeding students' speaking fluency, trainee teachers offered more delayed OCF. Both pronunciation and grammar mistakes were favored to be corrected, which was also observed during actual class hours when trainees faced fewer lexical errors than these two. Furthermore, surveyed participants tended to overlook oral errors based on mistakes, context, and student-related factors, but more than a third did not acknowledge these situations - in other words, the amount of spoken error correction.

High-school student uptake of OCF

With more than a haft of uptake moves observed during the observations, high-school learners were capable of handling OCF. Repairs occurred as trainees made room for student uptake, and OCF strategies were associated with classroom settings such as S' level of language proficiency, their age, and teachers' experience. This corresponds with Sheen & Younghee (2004) reference that “the rates of uptake following recasts can differ considerably depending on whether learners do or do not have a chance to uptake” (p. 268), and their capacity to perceive correction might be affected by their language competence. Students also portrayed positive reactions toward teacher correction. This trend was supported by the following reflections from all five interviewees:

T2, T4 and T5: “Most of the time, learners will repeat the sentence correctly, or I will have to instruct them to do so, but they are generally pretty optimistic and collaborative.”

T1 and T3: “Most learners recognize the error, nod their heads, and self-correct; but, for weaker learners, I have to correct them several times before they understand.”

Nonetheless, students made needs-repair utterances in certain circumstances, even when their teacher attempted to provide feedback. They recognized errors but were unsure how to reply or

even accurately mimic the teacher, particularly for sound-related mistakes. These could be fossilized errors not easily corrected over a short period of time, which need greater elaboration. As Linh (2018) pointed out, in spite of possible correction, students were unsure whether their correction was precise or satisfied teachers' expectations. However, trainees were unlikely to dwell on mistakes as no uptake reported a third due to time restrictions. Besides that, a few students simply resumed the discussion without paying attention to the teacher's correction, which may mirror their prior classroom experiences in response to OCF (Sheen & Younghee, 2004) and result in the same errors later in lessons.

Implications for teaching and learning activities to improve giving and handling OCF

Because participants had minimal familiarity with the various types of OCF and student treatment sequences, some implications are presented below to narrow this gap.

a. Professional development courses

It is critical to incorporate OCF language and strategies into professional development programs or training for pre-service teachers to participate in. For example:

- In the English Language Teaching Methodology 2 course, student teachers can learn more about whether, when, which errors, how, and who to correct, following the teaching Speaking section. Because the course aims to not only offer practical techniques to teach language elements and language skills but also supply guidelines for planning lessons. One approach is to initiate conversations about actual OCF instances, like presenting a set of OCF episodes and asking trainees to debate in the light of guiding questions (Ellis, 2009).
- In the Testing and Assessment course, as novice teachers are equipped themselves with delivering feedback, treatment sequence and learner uptake could be adopted to help them perceive feedback moves as well as immediate modifications. They should acknowledge making time for students to uptake and evaluate strategies based on modified output guidelines. To be specific, tips on discussing with students can address OCF. Higher-level learners can note down or converse about their positive and negative language learning experiences, which may cause problems. When it comes to beginners, a checklist or questionnaire could be used to explore their attitudes regarding OCF.
- At the end of the English Language Teaching Methodology 3 course, student teachers might share effective OCF strategies used with teacher educators and other trainees in their reflective journals or individual presentation. Since reflecting on OCF aids in assessing, change current feedback-giving practices and improve understanding of their teaching.

Future teachers can also take part in online workshops or sharing platforms open for Vietnamese EFL educators to get a deeper understanding of OCF and exchange feedback-giving strategies.

b. Micro-teaching sessions in three ELTM modules and the teaching practicum

Pre-service teachers are encouraged to practice various OCF strategies in micro-teaching sessions in order to become acquainted with correction procedures and evaluate their efficiency.

Furthermore, OCF-related comments from their peers, educators, and supervisors during this stage could be applied to actual practices in the teaching practicum, enriching their experience.

During the teaching practicum, trainees are motivated to observe the OCF performance of mentors in the actual classroom and consult them about students' backgrounds or preferences to facilitate error correction. Student teachers are also recommended to provide opportunities for uptake and observe feedback flows. Thus, they can tailor OCF types and timing to specific grades, classes, students, and target errors. Another way of accomplishing this is to begin with a simple indication that there is a mistake (e.g., clarification request), and if the student is incapable of self/peer-correcting, to go on with a more explicit strategy (e.g., explicit correction). As a result, novice teachers would be attentive to responses they receive from learners on their own OCF (Ellis, 2009).

c. Teaching practices with learners outside the TEFL program

Approximately two-thirds of participants had teaching jobs at local English language centers, were private tutors, or worked as teaching assistants. Therefore, pre-service teachers should inform students that making spoken errors is a sign of development in English, not something to be feared. As a result, learners may feel more comfortable sharing if OCF discourages them and hurts their emotions. Students might even find teacher correction difficult to notice and treat spoken mistakes. Regarding emotional concerns, mini-training sessions by giving remarks or asking the whole class to repeat instead of correcting individuals would be meaningful and helpful.

In addition, trainees can encourage learners to self-correct or peer-correct after teacher correction, record mistakes on their own, and later review notes. As Paul (2011, p.14) stated that “follow-up activities such as error feedback logs or revisiting an error at a later time might also support student learning.”. Since students might not be used to responding to OCF, they should be instructed briefly on what to say/do to correct spoken mistakes in particular cases. When it comes to fossilized errors, it would be better to host a one-on-one conference after class to both elaborate with metalinguistic explanations or learning methods and save learners' faces.

d. High schools

The results of this present research serve as a beneficial source of reference to learner uptake for in-service teachers due to the positive responses of most students toward OCF. Teachers might conduct a short investigation into OCF preferences and learner uptake from the outset of each academic year. Paul (2011) claims developing a record of mistake-related conversations and follow-up activities makes it possible to discover the efficiency of OCF. However, these oral corrections actually help second language acquisition stays unresolved. Furthermore, both inexperienced and experienced teachers could put into practice key suggestions from the above sections, which are sequentially recapped in an attributes model from Paul (2011, p.13) to customize OCF for particular needs of learners and promote high-school students' OCF treatment as well as language learning.

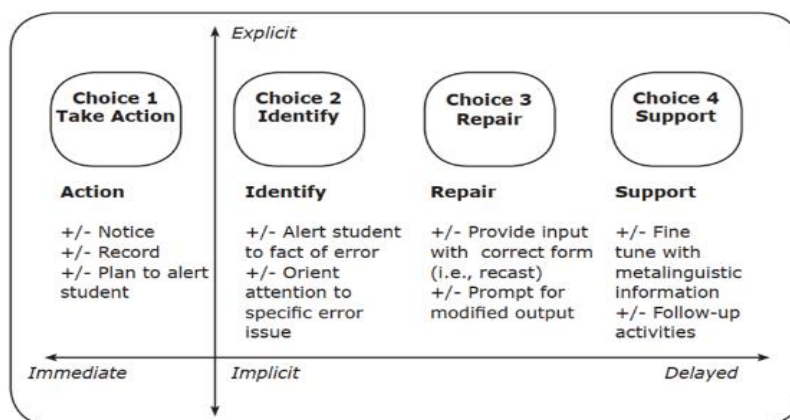


Figure 7. Errors Feedback Attributes Model (Paul 2011, p.13)

Conclusion

The study indicated UFLS-UD pre-service teachers' OCF performance in EFL lessons at Danang high schools. The majority of trainee teachers were aware of the significance and effectiveness of correcting verbal errors. One of the most remarkable findings was that explicit correction and didactic recasts were used more frequently during observed classes, whereas pre-service teachers were eager to provide metalinguistic hints to students' errors. Further research might be undertaken to examine the elements that influence novice teachers' decisions to reduce metalinguistic comments in the classroom, such as contextual and emotional cues, students' English competency, time constraints, and so on.

Because trainee teachers needed to ensure that their feedback was precise, they thought very carefully before correcting lexical errors, which the researchers noted as the lowest figure. Meanwhile, the majority of those questioned addressed pronunciation and grammar errors. Delayed OCF was thought to be more useful to students' speaking. Hence it was strongly voted for and used in actual lessons.

Furthermore, OCF provision from pre-service teachers was beneficial in assisting high-school students in recognizing their errors as uptake moves predominated. Students' emotions and feelings are also considered, but they have little influence on the decision because trainees are likely to fine-tune their remarks on oral errors somewhat. However, in order for students to create following free-error utterances, another study is necessary to investigate the distribution of student uptake following OCF techniques at a deeper level, as well as learners' prior experience with instructor correction.

Despite certain limitations in this present study, such as a small number of participants and a single one given an example of grammatical errors in the questionnaire, which might impact T's preference rankings of OCF types, another research might enlarge the size of participants and come up with more appropriate scenarios representing different target errors. Lastly, the researchers expect that the gap between future-to-be teacher perceptions and in-class practices of OCF, as well as learner uptake, would be bridged by implications proposed above.

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