Examining a Teacher's Feedback on Chinese Students' TOEFL Speaking Responses: Pedagogical Reflections on English Speaking Feedback Practices

by

Yangyang Xu

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction

University of Victoria

We acknowledge and respect the Lək^{w}əŋən (Songhees and X^{w}sepsəm/ Esquimalt) Peoples on whose territory the university stands, and the Lək^{w}əŋən and W̱ SÁNEĆ Peoples whose historical relationships with the land continue to this day.

Examining a Teacher's Feedback on Chinese Students' TOEFL Speaking Responses: Pedagogical Reflections on English Speaking Feedback Practices

by

Yangyang Xu

Supervisory Committee

Dr. Ruthanne Tobin, Supervisor
Department of Curriculum and Instruction

Dr. Tim Anderson, Co-supervisor
Department of Curriculum and Instruction

Abstract

This qualitative study explores the types and patterns of oral and written feedback provided by the researcher to seven Chinese high school students preparing for the speaking section of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). Informed by the theoretical framework of Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory (SCT) (1978) and Pajares' research on teacher beliefs (1992), the study aims to examine the nature of feedback given, its alignment with existing literature on corrective feedback (Ellis, 2021) and formative feedback (Shute, 2008), and the insights gained through autoethnographic analysis. Analyzed using Qualitative Content Analysis (QCA), the data in this study consisted of 27 feedback records (108 entries of written comments and audio-recorded oral feedback responses) that I provided to seven of my former students on their TOEFL speaking practice in a language training institute in China in 2022. Findings showed a near balance between the use of corrective feedback (CF) and formative feedback (FF). Though not mutually exclusive, CF and FF have different focuses. CF is "a response to a learner utterance containing a linguistic error (Ellis, 2009, p. 3)", while FF, as defined by Shute (2008), is information provided to the learner aimed at improving learning. In this study, a feedback instance is considered CF if it focuses on correcting specific linguistic errors (e.g., pronunciation, intonation, grammar), whereas a feedback instance is regarded as FF if it contains more elaboration and focuses on the learning process (e.g., providing ideas of a relevant example to support the statement a student made in their speaking practice). The findings showed both corrective feedback and formative feedback strategies were employed in the author's feedback practices, but there was a slight preference for corrective feedback approaches. A comparison with existing literature revealed three key divergences: (1) recasts were used explicitly for pronunciation demonstration rather than implicitly as in in-class

speaking practice, (2) feedback in this study was delayed and asynchronous, allowing students more time to process the information, yet lacking paralinguistic cues, and (3) high-achieving learners in high-stakes test-preparation contexts may also prefer and potentially benefit from explicit and elaborated feedback. Autoethnographic analysis found that the researcher's beliefs—centred on helping students improve delivery (pronunciation, intonation, and fluency), language use (grammar and vocabulary), and content (topic development) (Educational Testing Service, n.d.)—shaped the comprehensive nature of the feedback. The study concludes with implications for practice, acknowledges limitations such as small sample size and the absence of student perspectives, and proposes a future research direction for feedback on second language (L2) learners' speaking practice.

Table of Contents

List of Figures

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. Ruthanne Tobin. Her guidance, thoughtful feedback, and constant encouragement were instrumental in shaping this thesis. From our very first meeting, she showed genuine care and enthusiasm for my research. Her belief in my work helped me stay motivated, even when I faced moments of self-doubt. This thesis simply would not have been possible without her support.

I would also like to thank my co-supervisor, Dr. Tim Anderson, whose insights, particularly in the areas of theoretical framework and methodology, were incredibly helpful. His broad knowledge and clear explanations helped me structure my ideas and gave me the confidence to carry out my research plans.

At the same time, I want to acknowledge the professors whose courses I took during my program — Dr. Todd Milford, Dr. Anita Prest, and Dr. Ralf St. Clair. Thank you for your engaging courses and for creating a learning environment where I could grow both intellectually and personally.

I want to express my special thanks to Allen Learn, my English teacher back in 2006. As a Canadian teaching in China, Allen's passion, and kindness deeply inspired my career path.

To my parents, thank you for your constant emotional support while I studied in Canada. Though we were far apart, your care, consideration, and love never changed.

Finally, to my wife Ying — thank you for being my anchor. Your support, understanding, and unwavering belief in me helped me get through the most challenging stages of writing. When I felt overwhelmed or discouraged, you always stood by me. I could not have completed this journey without your love and patience.

Chapter 1: Introduction

In my ten years of experience working with Chinese adolescent learners of English, I have observed firsthand the challenges they face in communicating freely in English. Many Chinese students suffer from speaking anxiety due to feelings of inadequacy, arising from low scores on English tests and the fear of criticism from teachers (Jiang & Dewaele, 2019). This phenomenon is compounded by cultural and pedagogical practices in China, where students are often expected to mostly listen rather than interact, let alone challenge their teachers. This, in turn, exacerbates Chinese English learners' discomfort with making mistakes in front of peers, and undermines their confidence in their spoken abilities (Yuerong et al., 2017). The unwillingness to participate in speaking activities can be challenging for instructors who are striving to build a participatory learning atmosphere (Zhu & O'Sullivan, 2022). Additionally, many Chinese English teachers continue to prefer and heavily rely on grammar-translation methods[1] in high-stakes exam-oriented environments (Clark-Gareca & Gui, 2019). As a result, Chinese students have fewer opportunities to practice oral English in class. The hesitation to participate in oral classroom activities can hinder both their social and academic development. Thus, it is crucial for English teachers to create a safe environment where Chinese students can gradually develop the confidence to speak in English. Throughout my teaching career in China, I have always favored the communicative language teaching[2], which afforded my students

[1] Grammar translation is a traditional method in foreign language teaching, which involves little spoken communication and listening comprehension. Students improve their reading and writing skills by learning the translated grammatical rules, vocabulary, and reading passages from the target language into their native language (Benati, 2018).

[2] Communicative language teaching emphasizes learner participation in real communication, not just the study of language structures, enabling students to both experience and analyze language use (Savignon, 1987).

opportunities to participate in group work and practice oral English. In many Chinese classrooms, where the teacher is still the central figure, teacher feedback plays an essential role in determining whether students are willing to speak publicly or shy away from answering questions despite the fact that they already know the answers. This autoethnographic study aims to explore the types of feedback provided by the researcher to his students in 2022 who were preparing for the speaking section of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), and gain insights on how English as a Foreign/Second Language (EFL/ESL[3]) teachers can help Chinese learners become more comfortable and capable in speaking English through feedback.

1.1 Autobiographical Reflections

Before beginning my graduate program in Canada, I had accumulated over ten years of teaching experience in China as an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teacher. My main responsibility was to help students prepare for high-stakes tests such as TOEFL, while also improving their overall English proficiency, particularly their spoken fluency and accuracy. These teaching years allowed me to witness the diverse needs of students who invested substantial time, money, and energy in their English studies. For many of them, success in exams was a priority, yet I also wanted them to experience some joy in learning. To achieve this balance, I often combined test-oriented preparation with more communicative, engaging activities. For instance, I regularly organized group discussions and classroom debates on current issues, which gave students opportunities to express their opinions and practice public speaking in addition to strengthening their exam skills. At the same time, I provided consistent and

[3] An ESL teacher teaches English to students living in an English-speaking country, while an EFL teacher teaches English to students in a non-English-speaking country.

detailed feedback. Looking back, although I was attentive to feedback, I was not fully aware of the categories or strategies I was using.

My own language-learning experience strongly shaped my beliefs as a teacher. I studied English in China with Canadian and American teachers whose approaches emphasized communicative and task-based learning. Their influence helped me appreciate Western pedagogical methods that focus on interaction, meaning-making, and authentic use of language. At the same time, my awareness of Chinese students' exam-driven goals made me sensitive to the need for explicit preparation strategies. This dual influence led me to embrace both communicative approaches and test-focused instruction, which guided much of my teaching practices.

During my graduate study in Canada, I expanded and deepened my pedagogical understanding. Through coursework, I was introduced to key theoretical frameworks such as Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development, as well as research on corrective and formative feedback, assessment practices, and second language acquisition theories. Equipped with academic knowledge, I was able to interpret what I did in my classrooms from a clearer lens. It became apparent that my feedback practices could be systematically analyzed and understood within existing frameworks of feedback research. This realization inspired me to reexamine my own feedback on students' TOEFL speaking practice, transforming what was once an intuitive classroom practice into a scholarly investigation.

1.2 Research Problem

Despite the critical importance of helping non-native students feel comfortable enough to orally respond, research in this area remains limited. Yet, teacher feedback—both written and spoken—is essential for students' linguistic development (Ha, Nguyen, & Hung, 2021; Pawlak,

2013). Most research about teacher feedback on students' oral responses focus on teacher's immediate oral feedback in class, and there are few studies examining teacher feedback on students' after-class oral practice. This proposed study employs an autoethnographic approach, aiming to address the gap by analyzing the author's own feedback provided to seven Chinese students on their recorded oral practice for the speaking section of the TOEFL.

1.3 Context of the Study

This qualitative study aims to identify the nature and types of teacher feedback provided to seven Chinese high school students who took the author's TOEFL speaking preparation course in a language training institute in Beijing, China in the summer of 2022. Within this course context, I received their audio recordings of speaking practice, which was a part of their homework assignments, to assess their progress and provide feedback. The speaking tasks completed by the students were drawn from TOEFL practice tests used at the language training institute where the study took place. The questions were developed by the institute and aligned with the format of real TOEFL speaking tasks. Each assignment consisted of approximately four speaking tasks, which included both "independent" and "integrated types." Independent speaking tasks typically asked students to express and justify a personal opinion, such as "Do you prefer paper books or e-books? Why?" These responses were expected to last up to 45 seconds. Integrated speaking tasks required students to summarize information from reading and listening materials provided, with an expected response length of up to 60 seconds. Students completed these assignments at home. They had ample time to review the task questions, prepare their responses, and even re-record their answers as needed before submitting them to the teacher.

The data to be analyzed consist of my own written and oral feedback to their recorded oral responses to TOEFL speaking tasks. My written feedback (e.g., explanations of grammar),

oral feedback (e.g., pronunciation demonstrations), and sense making (pragmatics) on student's recorded oral practice assignments are analyzed in the study. I offer an autoethnographic reflection on providing feedback with the intention of better understanding my own pedagogical practices and of contributing to the scant literature on teacher's oral and written feedback on (Chinese) students' recorded oral practice.

1.4 Research Questions, Purpose and Objectives

Through an analysis of the author's feedback on Chinese TOEFL learners' oral practice, this proposed research addressed the following questions:

1. What types of feedback did I provide to Chinese high-school students on their oral responses to TOEFL speaking questions?
2. In what ways does the research on feedback to EFL/ESL learners align with or differ from the feedback I provided to my students?
3. What insights can be gained from reflecting on my feedback practices in relation to Chinese students' needs in preparing for high-stakes (TOEFL) speaking tasks?

Corrective feedback (CF) is defined by Ellis (2009) as a form of negative evidence that occurs as "a response to a learner utterance containing a linguistic error" (p. 3). It involves a correction prompted by someone other than the learner, such as a teacher, to address the error (Ellis, 2009). Formative feedback (FF) is the "information communicated to the learner that is intended to modify his or her thinking or behavior for the purpose of improving learning" (Shute, 2008, p. 154). Its two key features are verification, which involves judging whether an answer is correct, and elaboration, which provides relevant cues to guide the learner toward the correct answer (Shute, 2008). Although CF and FF are not mutually exclusive, they have different

focuses. CF focuses on helping learners correct specific errors, while FF aims to enhance learning by offering elaborated feedback (Shute, 2008).

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Teacher feedback is a key component of the educational process, and it plays a crucial role in both teaching and learning. Hattie and Timperley (2007) describe feedback as "information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding" (p. 81). These researchers purport that feedback is most effective when it helps students understand how to improve, rather than just identifying errors. In other words, feedback that directs attention to processes and self-regulation fosters deeper learning, while vague or overly positive feedback, without guidance, has little impact (Hattie and Timperley, 2007). In a qualitative study involving 395 students and 46 teachers in Spain on their attitude towards feedback in learning English, Roothooft and Breeze (2016) discovered that more than 60% of the students said they wanted frequent feedback, particularly corrective feedback, while over half of the teachers expressed concerns about the impact of corrective feedback on fluency and student confidence. In other words, teachers may overestimate the emotional risks of providing feedback, and underutilize this effective learning aid desired by students (Roothooft & Breeze, 2016). Yet, in the context of language learning, where acquisition is a gradual and often painstaking process, teacher feedback is especially important, as it helps students fix problems along the way of learning and thus enable them to feel confident due to their steady improvement.

2.1 Sociocultural Theory in English Language Learning Contexts

Sociocultural Theory (Vygotsky, 1978) has had, and continues to have, a significant impact on all types of teaching and learning spheres. Sociocultural theory is widely influential in the area of teaching oral English in the EFL/ELL context. In my particular study, I drew on research related to the role of teacher feedback in language learning. Vygotsky's original work

focused on a child's potential development "...as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86). According to this framework, learning occurs through social interaction and mediated experiences implying that learning is more effective when students are guided by a more knowledgeable individual, such as a teacher, in tasks they cannot yet perform independently. Teacher feedback, therefore, is one important device in helping learners bridge the gap between their current ability and their potential capacity. By offering constructive feedback, language teachers can tap into students' zones of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978), and provide effective support that enables students to overcome challenges in second language acquisition (SLA). Recent developments in second language learning research have increasingly turned to sociocultural theory to examine the multifaceted nature of written feedback, particularly with regard to learner engagement. In particular, Mao and Lee (2022) extended earlier sociocultural perspectives by offering a more elaborated framework for understanding how learners engage with feedback. Through exploring L2 student engagement with written feedback, they proposed a socioculturally informed framework that captures the complex and evolving nature of feedback processes. The authors reconceptualized engagement not as a static response, but as a dynamic and socially mediated activity. Mao and Lee argued that engagement with feedback must be understood as unfolding within particular social, cultural, and institutional contexts. They proposed a tripartite framework of engagement—cognitive, behavioral, and affective—that aligns with SCT's emphasis on the individual development in a sociocultural environment. In their sociocultural framework, the authors stress the importance of both personal characteristics (e.g., learners' prior experiences, mindsets, and internal resources) and environmental factors (e.g., classroom conditions, peer and

teacher relationships, and the nature of feedback tasks) in shaping how students respond to and engage with written feedback.

For Chinese English learners seeking to study in English-speaking countries, oral English is of predominant importance. Ching et al. (2017) highlighted the critical role of English-speaking proficiency for Chinese international students studying in the United States, emphasizing its necessity for academic success and social adjustment. Their study identifies language barriers, particularly in speaking, as a major challenge for such students, leading to social isolation, anxiety, and limited classroom participation. The authors note that insufficient speaking skills hinder students' ability to engage in discussions and express their knowledge, which is essential in English speaking educational contexts (Ching et al., 2017). However, because of the intense focus on passing exams that primarily assess students' knowledge in vocabulary and grammar, along with curricular constraints and institutional pressures, Chinese students often receive little training in spoken English (Clark-Gareca & Gui, 2019). As a result, many students struggle with essential communication in academic and social settings in English-speaking environments. For example, Gan (2013) conducted a study that explored the English-speaking difficulties of university students in mainland China and Hong Kong, revealing common speaking challenges such as limited linguistic competence, low confidence, and restricted opportunities for oral communication. For both mainland and Hong Kong students, fulfilling English exams is a part of the graduation requirement, including the College English Test (CET) for mainland students and International English Language Testing System (IELTS) for students in Hong Kong. Out of the 143 mainland Chinese students and 147 Hong Kong students in Gan's study, most expressed in survey questionnaires that they struggled with translating from their first language when speaking English, contributing to stress and reticence.

Despite differing educational systems, both groups faced a lack of speaking practice due to teacher-centered instruction, exam-oriented culture, and limited classroom interaction. In Hong Kong specifically, the prevalent use of Cantonese even in tertiary instruction further reduces exposure to spoken English.

Zhang and Zhang (2023) offered an example of how feedback operates within learners' Zones of Proximal Development (ZPD) through dynamic interaction. The authors discussed the role of written corrective feedback in second language writing, emphasizing the interactive process between teacher feedback and learner engagement within a sociocultural framework. Zhang and Zhang introduced dynamic corrective feedback (DCF) as a flexible approach that adjusts feedback based on learner responses, which can be used in conjunction with the ZPD to determine the level of support needed for learner growth. The study employed a qualitative approach to capture individual learner experiences and feedback interactions. The three participants were Chinese intermediate-level English learners, who completed a writing task and engaged in one-on-one tutorial sessions where they received DCF. The results revealed varying engagement patterns and development trajectories among the three participants in response to feedback: Abby showed a gradual increase in self-correction, needing scaffolding primarily in the initial stages; Becky was quick to notice and correct errors, demonstrating confidence in her responses; and Cici was slower to notice errors but proposed correct solutions once identified, showing a trend of decreasing scaffolding needs. The findings suggest that individual learners, within the context of this study, can have different ZPDs for the same linguistic structure, affecting their ability to self-correct. Therefore, teacher feedback should be customized to meet individual learner needs to help them foster independence.

While Zhang and Zhang (2023) provided a case-specific study of learner development, Storch (2018) offered a broader research agenda that positioned WCF within larger sociocultural and technological contexts. According to the author, WCF is sociocultural practice shaped by social, institutional, and technological factors. Drawing on Vygotskian principles, Storch underscored the importance of scaffolding and the zone of proximal development, arguing that WCF should be responsive to learners' current developmental stage and adjusted as they gain more autonomy. Feedback is therefore an ongoing, adaptive, and contingent form of assistance made possible by teacher–student interaction. Storch examined context-related and individual factors that influenced the provision and response to WCF. The research on WCF introduced seven research tasks, from the nature of WCF over time, to learners' responses to feedback. One particular research task was on the impact of material tools (computers) for providing feedback. In addition, Storch introduced a comparison between corrective feedback delivered through written commentary and digital audio files—a topic closely aligned with the current study, which examines both written and oral (audio-recorded) feedback on students' speaking practice, as discussed in the following chapters.

Storch's study advocates for more teacher–student interaction through oral feedback, emphasizing its role as a form of scaffolding to support learners' spoken English development. Teacher feedback can work as scaffolding, helping students move from their current level of spoken English proficiency to a higher level through structured support. But how can English teachers provide effective feedback that aligns with students' ZPD to support their speaking proficiency? Just as asking a five-year-old, "Why doesn't the sun fall?" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 80) disregards the child's cognitive capacity, telling an intermediate-level Chinese student to eliminate hesitation is not a realistic form of feedback. My study examined the corrective

feedback and formative feedback that I provided on students' oral responses to TOEFL speaking questions, and explored the nature of such feedback strategies with a view to developing insight into my feedback practices that may at the same time contribute to our collective understanding of this phenomenon.

2.2 Teacher Beliefs

The primary determining influence on teachers' pedagogical practices is their beliefs about learners, learning, and the assessment and evaluation of learning (Pajares, 1992). For this reason, I aimed to uncover my own beliefs about teacher feedback practices by examining the types of feedback I provided and considering the underlying beliefs that informed those choices.

According to Pajares (1992), all teachers have beliefs about their teaching, students, subject matter, and their responsibilities. Pajares offered a key framework, noting that beliefs act as filters for decision-making. Among 16 findings in their review, one states, "Beliefs are instrumental in defining tasks and selecting the cognitive tools with which to interpret, plan, and make decisions regarding such tasks; hence, they play a critical role in defining behavior and organizing knowledge and information" (Pajares, 1992, p. 325). This finding informs the current study, as beliefs guide teachers' pedagogical practices, including in the area of providing student feedback.

In some studies researchers have explored how teachers' beliefs about feedback influence classroom activities. For example, Brown et al. (2012) explored New Zealand primary teachers' beliefs about feedback, focusing on balancing academic improvement and student well-being. Using a mixed-methods approach, Brown et al. surveyed 518 teachers with the Feedback Orientations Questionnaire and conducted semi-structured interviews with 12 teachers. They found that teachers supported feedback practices which were aimed at improving academic

performance over those which prioritized student well-being. This tendency is attributed to the alignment with the national policy framework emphasizing assessment and feedback as tools to improve learning outcomes. These teachers' responses suggested they did not view feedback as solely a means to praise effort or boost self-esteem.

However, sometimes teacher beliefs may go against students' preferences. Li (2017) synthesized research on student and teacher beliefs about oral corrective feedback in second language learning, explicitly addressing its utility and ways of implementation in classroom settings. The researcher reviewed 26 empirical studies to provide an inductive review of major questions about CF beliefs: (1) Should errors be corrected? (2) How should errors be corrected? (3) When should errors be corrected? (4) Who should provide CF? and (5) Which errors should be corrected? Among other findings, Li found that students generally favor explicit oral corrective feedback to improve accuracy, while teachers often prefer implicit strategies to promote autonomy. This mismatch between students' preferences and teacher feedback practices may pose problems in providing effective feedback that encompasses both explicit and implicit strategies. Of course, not all teacher beliefs transform into actions in teaching practice. Lee (2009) investigated discrepancies between secondary school English teachers' beliefs about written feedback and their actual feedback practices in Hong Kong. Through a mixed-methods approach, Lee surveyed 206 teachers and conducted follow-up interviews with 19 to identify ten key mismatches, such as believing in selective feedback but providing comprehensive error correction, or valuing student engagement with feedback but offering minimal guidance for revision. Contextual constraints, such as time limitations, heavy workloads, institutional expectations, and lack of training, often prevent teachers from aligning their practices with their beliefs (Lee, 2009).

Additionally, factors such as culture and institutional demands can influence teacher beliefs. Sabarwal et al. (2022) used survey data of 20,000 teachers from economically disadvantaged countries, and found that teachers often hold fixed views about the learning abilities of underprivileged students. For example, according to the study, 43% of teachers think they can do little to help a student learn if their parents lack education. Additionally, teachers are more likely to believe high-performing students deserve extra attention than those falling behind (Sabarwal et al., 2022). This belief is problematic on many levels as teachers may make up their mind about disadvantaged students without careful attention to their potential and documented performance. Other factors, such as teaching experience, can also affect teacher beliefs and teaching practices. Farrell and Bennis (2013) conducted a case study exploring the beliefs and classroom practices of a novice and an experienced ESL teacher in a Canadian private language school. They found that the experienced teacher's practices generally aligned with his beliefs, while the novice teacher's beliefs had a weaker connection to her practices. These findings highlight how external pressures can influence teachers' beliefs about their teaching roles.

Teacher beliefs may evolve over time. Min (2013) in a case study of her own pedagogical practices as an experienced EFL writing teacher and researcher at National Cheng Kung University in Taiwan, analyzed her journal entries, a learning log, and written feedback samples, to investigate how her feedback beliefs evolved over one semester. Initially, her analysis was guided by four principles: clarifying writers' intentions, identifying problems, explaining problems, and making specific suggestions. By the end of the semester, these principles shifted to prioritizing understanding of students' intentions instead of merely fixing problems. This realization of the importance of students' intentions led to a change in her feedback practices from error-focused to more meaning-oriented comments. Min's study illustrates that teacher

beliefs are not static but can shift meaningfully through critical reflection and ongoing classroom experience.

When I taught TOEFL speaking preparation courses in China, one of my central beliefs was that successful performance required balanced attention to multiple aspects of speaking. This belief was reflected in my feedback practices, which consistently addressed all three dimensions of the TOEFL speaking rubric: delivery (pronunciation, intonation, and fluency), language use (grammar and vocabulary), and content (topic development) (Educational Testing Service, n.d.). In other words, my teaching and feedback practices aligned closely with my pedagogical conviction that feedback on students' oral responses must be comprehensive.

Another belief that was congruent with my practices was the importance of going beyond simple error correction. I felt that students benefited more when they understood not only what was wrong, but also why it was wrong and how they might improve. This belief was visible in my feedback, which frequently combined corrective strategies (such as pointing out errors or modeling correct forms) with elaborative explanations. In doing so, I sought to provide students with actionable insights and to encourage them to attempt revisions rather than simply accept corrections passively.

In addition, I strongly believed that feedback should motivate and inspire students. Many of my learners were under intense exam-related pressure, and I wanted my feedback to serve as both guidance and encouragement. Accordingly, I often blended corrective comments with positive reinforcement, highlighting what students had done well while also pointing out areas for improvement. This practice reflected my belief that feedback is not only a tool for improving accuracy but also a way to build learner confidence. Together, these teacher beliefs of mine demonstrate that my feedback was consistent with my underlying pedagogical beliefs.

Teacher beliefs play a significant role in pedagogical practices, as they often guide instructional choices. The current autoethnographic study aims to examine not only the types of feedback provided to the students, but also to explore and reflect on the researcher's beliefs about helping Chinese learners improve their speaking skills through feedback. I define the reflective process in keeping with Pajares (1992), who claims teacher beliefs act as filters for decision-making, influencing teaching practices. In this study, I examined my own feedback records, both written and oral, to explore how my teacher beliefs influenced my practices and whether my beliefs evolved throughout the term that I was teaching the 7 Chinese students.

2.3 Oral and Written Feedback

Teacher feedback can be divided into oral feedback and written feedback. Ellis (2010) notes that oral feedback is typically provided during or immediately after a learner's spoken response, allowing for real-time correction and quick adjustments. In contrast, written feedback is delivered after some delay, typically when the learner receives written feedback on their written work (Ellis, 2010). The immediacy of oral feedback can help maintain the natural flow of communication, as it allows learners to adjust their speech on the spot without disrupting the conversation (Lyster & Mori, 2006). Because of this, implicit oral feedback, such as oral recasts, is often preferred, as it enables the conversation to continue without a significant interruption. Sheen (2010) suggests that written feedback is more effective than oral recasts, particularly when it comes to improving grammatical accuracy. She argues that written feedback offers learners more time to process and internalize corrections, leading to a deeper understanding of language rules and structures. Further, oral recasts as a form of implicit feedback may lose their corrective function when students fail to recognize that they made an error. In the current study, recasts were employed for the sole purpose of pronunciation demonstration. The teacher recorded the

proper pronunciation of words and phrases for the student to imitate. Therefore, recasts in this study did not impede the flow of speech, nor did they cause difficulties for the student to recognize a previously made error.

In this study, both the author's oral and written feedback are forms of delayed feedback, as the teacher provided the oral and written feedback to the student within 24 hours after a student's oral assignment was handed in. In this specific context, the author's oral feedback does not have the disadvantage of disrupting the flow of communication, since the feedback was provided after the student response was completed in full. Instead, the feedback in the form of script and recorded audios provides the learners with unlimited opportunities to review, reducing learners' anxiety to understand teacher's immediate oral feedback, such as recasts. Therefore, it is valuable to explore the types of feedback the author employed, and draw insights from them.

2.4 Corrective Feedback

There are different forms of teacher feedback, one of which is the corrective feedback (CF). According to Ellis (2009), corrective feedback refers to responses to a learner's language errors that aim to provide guidance for improvement. CF can be further divided into explicit and implicit forms (Ellis, 2021). Explicit CF involves elicitation, metalinguistic explanation, explicit correction, and so on, where the teacher clearly identifies and provides the correct form to the learner (Ellis, 2021). Explicit CF provides clarity, making it obvious to the student that a mistake has been made and that a correction is needed. In contrast, implicit CF relies on more subtle strategies, such as recasts, clarification requests, and repetition, which prompt the learner to notice and correct their own errors without explicitly providing the correct form (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Implicit feedback, therefore, serves to indirectly signal to the learner that a correction is needed, encouraging self-correction rather than direct intervention. However, CF is only

effective when learners are able to notice the corrected form and recognize the error. While implicit feedback is often seen as fostering greater learner autonomy by encouraging self-correction, research suggests that in real classroom settings, many learners, particularly in high-stakes learning environments, prefer explicit corrections over more indirect forms of feedback (Sheen, 2010). In other words, implicit strategies such as recasts may not be as effective as explicit feedback in generating error correction, as students may find it difficult to locate the error and correct it on their own (Ellis, 2021).

Ranta and Lyster (2007) further categorized corrective feedback into two types: reformulations or prompts. Reformulations encompass recasts and explicit corrections, as both provide learners with corrected versions of their non-target-like output. Prompts, on the other hand, consist of various cues—such as elicitation, metalinguistic hints, clarification requests, and teacher repetitions—that encourage learners to correct their own errors without offering a direct reformulation. In a quasi-experimental study, Gooch et al. (2016) investigated the effects of recasts (i.e. a reformulation of the student's errors) and prompts (i.e., a signal of the student errors, with no corrections) on the pronunciation development of English /ɹ/ among 22 Korean adult EFL learners. The results showed that students who received the corrective feedback of recasts improved in controlled production of the English /ɹ/ sound, and students who received the corrective feedback of prompts enhanced both controlled and spontaneous production. Video-coding analysis further revealed that prompts led to a higher uptake rate (93%), meaning the prompts made students recognize their errors which led to more self-correction, indicating improved intelligibility. On the other hand, recasts, or pronunciation demonstrate in this case, supported greater accuracy in /ɹ/ production.

Li and Vuono (2019) defined corrective feedback as comments on the correctness of learners' second language production or comprehension (p. 94). Their review synthesized 25 years of System journal research, integrating oral and written CF to view it holistically. According to Li and Vuono, oral CF is aural, immediate, and language-focused, enabling real-time application, while written CF is visual, delayed, and covers language and content without immediate production. In other words, written CF, as opposed to oral CF, requires more time to think and produce than oral CF, which is typically spontaneous and often accomplished through face-to-face communication. Oral CF varies as implicit or explicit and input-providing or output-prompting, whereas written CF is always explicit, using "direct" versus "indirect" and "focused" versus "unfocused" distinctions (Li & Vuono, 2019). However, in this study, since I provided both written and oral feedback to students' recorded oral responses after they completed their answering the questions, the oral CF is not immediate as is the case of classroom teacher-student interactions.

Nassaji (2021) explored the role of corrective feedback from a sociocultural perspective, drawing on Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory, with data collected from various classroom and tutorial interactions involving ESL and EFL learners. Nassaji examined how feedback, negotiated within the learners' Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), facilitates language development through scaffolding and mediation, involving participants such as tutors, teachers, and students in collaborative tasks. The results demonstrated that scaffolded, negotiated feedback—tailored to learners' developmental needs—significantly enhanced learners' accuracy and self-regulation over time, as evidenced by reduced assistance requirements in subsequent interactions and post-tests, compared to non-negotiated or random feedback approaches (Nassaji, 2021).

The focus on form and meaning in corrective feedback is also an important consideration. Focus on form is a task-based approach that draws learners' attention to language features during communication, contrasting with focus on forms, which involves direct, explicit teaching of grammatical structures often decontextualized from communicative settings (Ellis, 2016). According to Ellis, focus on meaning can improve confidence and fluency for second language learners, but may result in limited accuracy in the target language. In many language learning settings, learners show a preference for getting corrective feedback explicitly from teachers over leaving their errors ignored (Lyster et al., 2013). The pursuit of higher scores serves as a strong motivation for these test-takers to have their errors corrected. In such situations, teachers' CF, with a focus on form, provides students with valuable information to identify areas for improvement and polish their language skills. For many Chinese students preparing to study overseas, the need for error correction is not only tied to language development but also to practical goals such as educational advancement or future employment. It is a learner's natural expectation that their mistakes would be addressed, especially after investing so much time and effort in learning a foreign language. The value of corrective feedback is indisputable but equally important is how corrective feedback is given. Teachers need to ensure that such feedback does not disrupt the communicative flow or exacerbate language learning anxiety. That is why the focus on meaning is an equally important part of corrective feedback. Additionally, it is crucial to consider learners' cultural backgrounds, proficiency levels, and personal learning experiences to avoid over-correction (Lyster et al., 2013), which could potentially discourage students from engaging in practice and risk-taking.

Teachers' corrective feedback plays a critical role in supporting language learning, particularly for Chinese EFL learners. Corrective feedback, whether explicit or implicit, oral or

written, focusing on forms or meaning, offers valuable opportunities for learners to identify and correct errors, thus improving both their language accuracy and fluency. This study aims to explore the different types of corrective feedback employed by the author, with an attempt to identify learner preferences.

2.5 Formative Feedback

Formative feedback plays a crucial role in supporting students' learning by providing valuable information aimed at improving performance. Shute (2008) defines formative feedback as "information communicated to the learner that is intended to modify his or her thinking or behavior for the purpose of improving learning" (p. 154). Like corrective feedback, formative feedback works as a scaffolding tool that aligns with Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development, as it provides learners with the support needed to move from their current level of understanding to a higher level of competence (Vygotsky, 1978). Formative feedback can help learners bridge gaps between current and desired performance levels, which enables learners to self-regulate and adjust their approach to learning (Shute, 2008). Shute emphasizes that formative feedback should be non-evaluative, supportive, timely, and specific, ensuring that learners understand how to improve rather than simply receiving a final score on their work.

Formative feedback consists of two key components: verification and elaboration (Shute, 2008). Verification is a simple confirmation of whether an answer is correct or incorrect, whereas elaboration provides additional information to guide learners toward the correct response (Lipnevich & Panadero, 2021). Since verification shares overlapping areas with corrective feedback, in this study, formative feedback mainly focuses on its elaborative aspects. Shute (2008) summarized the following elaborated feedback: attribute isolation, topic contingent, response contingent, hints/cues/prompts, bugs/misconceptions, and informative tutoring.

According to Shute (2008), attribute isolation feedback presents the learner information that addresses central attributes of a target concept, such as explaining a grammar rule. Topic contingent feedback looks at the bigger picture. For example, if a student constantly spends 60 seconds to answer the Independent Speaking Task in TOEFL, the teacher may tell them that the required answer time for the Independent Speaking Task is 45 seconds, and the time for the Integrated Tasks is 60 seconds. This piece of feedback does not focus on a specific language aspect, but a different topic of how to take the TOEFL exam. Response contingent feedback is targeted at a learner's specific response. The information may include explanation of the correctness or incorrectness of the response. Feedback that includes hints/cues/prompts presents the learner information on what to do next or else provides an example, without giving an explicit answer. Bugs/misconceptions feedback feature error analysis and diagnosis about a misconception. Informative Tutoring is the most elaborated feedback, according to Shute (2008), as it integrates verification feedback, error flagging, and strategic hints. In this study, the formative feedback I provided to my students mainly takes the form of Informative Tutoring, which is a form of integrated feedback that addresses student needs using a mixture of elaboration strategies.

Formative feedback, integrated into a learning cycle of goal setting, progress monitoring, and next steps, significantly enhances student learning outcomes (Brookhart, 2018). For example, Al Jahromi (2020) explored the impact of teacher and peer formative feedback on the oral presentation skills of 36 Bahraini university students at the University of Bahrain. Al Jahromi found significant improvement in students oral presentation skills, confidence, and attitudes toward presentations, with a notable preference for teacher feedback over peer

feedback, leading to higher summative scores and reduced anxiety, suggesting formative feedback's efficacy in enhancing L2 oral skills.

Formative feedback has tremendous potential in supporting student learning, yet it remains under-utilized or improperly used even in some of the more progressive education environments. Havnes et al. (2012) investigated how feedback is perceived and utilized by teachers and students in six Norwegian upper secondary schools. Surveys and focus group interviews were employed to explore feedback practices across academic and vocational programs. Havnes et al. discovered a generally weak formative assessment culture, with feedback often tied to grading rather than learning enhancement. Formative feedback deserves more attention to be better integrated into teaching practices to optimize language learning outcomes.

Wingate (2010) conducted a small-scale exploratory study to investigate the impact of formative feedback on first-year undergraduate students' academic writing development. The study was a part of a 10-week "Language Learning" program incorporating a series of instructional methods, such as reading and writing tasks, discussions, and detailed formative feedback on an ungraded essay and two graded assignments. The research aimed to determine (1) whether improvements in writing could be linked to the feedback provided, and (2) why some students engaged with feedback while others did not. Textual analysis of 39 students' assignments and interviews with 12 students revealed that those who acted on formative feedback demonstrated notable improvements in their academic writing. Motivation and self-perception emerged as key factors influencing whether students used the feedback. Highly motivated students or those with positive views of their writing abilities were more likely to engage, while those with low motivation or confidence often did not. Conversely, students who

did not utilize the feedback showed recurring issues in subsequent assignments. The reasons for neglecting the feedback included lack of interest in the writing program, anxiety about whether the feedback would make a difference, and purposeful avoidance of reading the feedback.

Not all formative feedback attempts are successful. Smith and Gorard (2005) conducted a study that investigated how formative feedback influenced student progress in secondary schools in Wales. A total of 104 Year 7 students (11 to 12 years old) were divided into four mixed-ability teaching groups. One group received enhanced formative feedback—with no marks or grades—for an entire year, while the other three groups continued to receive the typical assessment and feedback: marks and grades with minimal written comments. Based on a mixed-methods approach—including surveys, interviews, and classroom observations—the authors discovered that many students felt they received inadequate or unclear feedback. The result showed that progress in the formative feedback group was substantially inferior to the other three groups. Smith and Gorard argued that effective formative assessment lied not just in the provision of feedback, but on whether students were able to understand and act on it. The authors found that while teachers believed they were giving formative feedback, students often failed to perceive it as helpful due to unclear communication, lack of individualization, or absence of specific guidance. Moreover, students' ability and willingness to use feedback varied depending on their prior achievement, motivation, and the classroom environment. Smith and Gorard concluded that for formative assessment to be effective, feedback must be clear, timely, and explicitly linked to learning goals. Teachers also need to foster a classroom culture where students are encouraged and supported to apply the feedback to their learning.

To sum up, these studies highlight that formative feedback alone is not inherently effective—it must be clearly communicated, contextually relevant, and integrated into the

learning environment. Other factors, such as student motivation and expectation, as well as the classroom atmosphere, can also play crucial roles in determining whether feedback leads to meaningful learning results.

Chapter 3: Methodology and Methods

3.1 Qualitative research

This is a qualitative research study, which aligns with my ontological and epistemological beliefs as an educator and researcher. Ontologically, I hold the view, in concert with Berger, Luckman & Dobbin (2022) that reality is not objective but is socially constructed. Consider the analogy of money, for example. Objectively, a paper bill has no intrinsic value. Yet, society collectively agrees to assign it worth. Therefore, people can use bills to pay for goods or services. This value of money depends on people's shared beliefs. If that consensus breaks down, such as during a currency collapse, the same bill becomes worthless, even though the physical form of money stays the same. By the same token, I believe that in the field of second language acquisition, effective feedback is also a socially constructed reality. What counts as "effective" feedback is not an objective truth, but rather a shared belief shaped by educational policies, cultural expectations, teacher beliefs and student perceptions about the feedback. In one context, effective feedback might mean explicit correction and detailed written comments; in another, it could mean minimal teacher input to encourage learner autonomy. If the collective understanding shifts—for instance, toward valuing emotional support or communicative interaction—then the definition of what feedback is "effective" also changes. This example illustrates the social construct dimension of knowledge (Gergen, 2012). In language education, knowledge is shaped not just by linguistic facts, but also by shared social understandings. In the context of this research, teacher's feedback is shaped by my personal teaching experience, and the cultural and educational backgrounds of my students. I believe that there is no universal or fixed reality of "effective feedback"; rather, feedback is perceived and interpreted differently by different teachers and learners depending on their lived experiences.

From an epistemological perspective, I believe that knowledge is gained through reflection, interaction, and interpretation (van Manen, 1995). Therefore, the knowledge generated in this study arises from my autoethnographic reflection on the feedback I provided to my students. This study does not seek to establish universal truths about effective feedback; but rather, to gain an in-depth, context-rich understanding of my own individual feedback practices which reflect my beliefs about teaching and learning additional languages; in this case English as a Foreign Language. My practices were examined carefully and systematically as outlined in Chapter 4. Knowledge discussed in this study is not universal or objective. Instead, it is influenced by my role, beliefs as the teacher-researcher as well as by the context of the study. I sought to be aware and to bracket my assumptions to the greatest extent possible. These assumptions included: (1) Formative feedback and corrective feedback were at odds with one another, the former emphasizing elaborations and communication, while the latter targeted correcting linguistic inaccuracies. (2) Feedback analyzed in the study covered a full range of issues which Chinese second language learners might need help with, without acknowledging the limitations of the sample sizes. (3) Providing targeted and detailed feedback would naturally lead to student improvement in oral English. I did not fully consider until I read the research literature that how learners interpreted or acted upon that feedback significantly impacted their improvement. In this study, no student oral language performance, outcomes or perceptions were assessed.

In qualitative research, the researcher is acknowledged as an integral part of the research process, serving as the "key instrument" of data collection, analysis, and interpretation (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 181). Because of this, researcher reflexivity is essential to ensure transparency and integrity in the study. Reflexivity involves a continuous process of critical self-

reflection on the potential biases, assumptions, and positionality, and how these factors may shape the research process and findings (Berger, 2015). I am aware of the limitations in this study, which are primarily the absence of student voices and the small sample size. By acknowledging the limitations, I also want to clarify the scope of this study: the focus is not on evaluating the effectiveness of feedback strategies from the students' perspective, but rather on analyzing the patterns of feedback—specifically, the combination of formative and corrective feedback types in both oral and written forms. Through this autoethnographic review, I strive to generate insights into the strengths, constraints and interesting aspects of my feedback practices and how they align with established theories of language teaching and learning.

These ontological and epistemological positions of mine lead to the choice of a qualitative research approach, which emphasizes the exploration of meaning, context, and experience rather than the sole interpretation of numeric data. As Creswell and Creswell (2018) state, qualitative research allows researchers to interpret phenomena "in terms of the meanings people bring to them" (p. 182). This is particularly suitable for studies where the researcher's perspective, reflection, and interpretation are central—such as in autoethnography.

3.2 Autoethnography

An autoethnographic approach was used to explore my feedback practices as an English language instructor working with Chinese high school students preparing for the TOEFL speaking test. According to Ellis, Adams, and Bochner (2011), autoethnography is a research and writing approach that combines autobiography and ethnography to describe and analyze personal experiences to understand cultural phenomena. As both a process and a product, autoethnography blends autobiographical retrospection (writing about past experiences with hindsight) with ethnographic techniques (e.g., participant observation, interviews, artifact

analysis) (Ellis, Adams, & Bochner, 2011). Autoethnography is particularly suited to this study because it enables a deep, reflective examination of my own teaching experience.

A study by Pinner (2017) supports the powerful role of autoethnography in teaching development. According to Pinner, autoethnography can provide an informed and more descriptive view of past teaching experiences and benefit current practice. By re-examining a pivotal teaching moment, autoethnography revealed both strengths and unintended oversights in his instructional approach—insights that later improved his pedagogical practice (Pinner, 2017). Similarly, through close reflection on my own feedback and feedback practices—both formative and corrective, oral and written—this study reveals nuanced patterns in my teaching decisions and priorities. This "insider perspective" is especially valuable in EFL contexts, where culture, teacher–learner relationships, and exam pressures significantly influence classroom interactions.

Autoethnography is common in the field of educational research. For example, Donnelly (2015) examined their teacher identity development during her first term teaching adult ESL learners at a post-secondary institution in Ontario. The autoethnographic study explored how professional relationships and teaching experience worked to shape her teacher identity and pedagogical knowledge. Donnelly identified key turning points and emotional tensions in joining an educational professional community. Despite the collegial support, as a young teacher, her feelings of legitimacy and belonging were complex and evolving. Donnelly gradually developed her initial teacher identity during the first four months of teaching, but she realized that she still had key areas for growth, such as becoming familiar with other languages, inter-cultural mediation, and colleague collaboration.

In another autoethnographic study, Yazan (2019) reflected on his journey as a language learner, teacher, and teacher educator from his home country to the United States. Through the

analysis of his personal documents—such as diaries, syllabi, and email correspondences—Yazan identified 14 key episodes in response to his non-native English-speaking identity and bilingualism, and wrote a narrative account of each episode, such as his struggling experience trying to find a teaching position in a job market where native English-speaking teachers were not only revered, but also preferred. Yazan argued that teachers' linguistic labels (e.g., "native" or "nonnative") often determine how their professional competence is perceived—frequently in problematic ways. His findings revealed that teacher identity is not static but continually negotiated through interaction with institutional discourses and social perceptions of linguistic legitimacy. Yazan recognized autoethnography as a transformative practice for teachers, teacher candidates and teacher educators. For teachers, composing autoethnographies allows for the articulation of pedagogical beliefs, critical reflection on identity, and language ideologies. For teacher educators—particularly those exploring new linguistic and academic cultures—autoethnography offers a pathway to professional identity development and can also serve as a mentoring tool.

In the case of EFL instruction, where context, culture, and teacher-student interaction greatly influence pedagogical choices, autoethnography offers an in-depth view that third-party observations or survey-based research cannot capture. By closely examining my own feedback, I was able to reveal patterns in how formative and corrective feedback were used to address student needs in preparing for high-stakes English speaking tests. This "close-up" analysis uncovers the practical reasoning, instructional priorities, and underlying beliefs that shaped my feedback decisions.

Moreover, autoethnography allows the researcher to explore teaching as a lived, evolving process, rather than as a fixed set of techniques or procedures. Through reflective engagement

with my feedback practices, this method enables a detailed understanding of how feedback strategies were adapted over time, how they reflected my pedagogical beliefs, and how they responded to the specific challenges faced by Chinese EFL/ESL learners preparing for the TOEFL test.

3.3 Qualitative Content Analysis

To answer the first research question, "What types of qualitative feedback did I provide to Chinese high-school students on their oral responses to TOEFL speaking questions?", a Qualitative Content Analysis (QCA) method was used. Qualitative Content Analysis is a research method used to systematically analyze textual data by categorizing it into meaningful themes or patterns. It is widely applied in social sciences, health studies, and education to interpret written, spoken, or visual data (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Qualitative Content Analysis follows a systematic process, moving from data collection to coding, categorization, and interpretation (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). According to Hsieh and Shannon (2005), there are three main approaches to QCA: the inductive approach, the deductive approach, and the mixed approach. This study employs a deductive QCA approach, as it primarily focuses on analyzing two predefined types of feedback: corrective feedback and formative feedback.

In relation to content analysis, recent research has increasingly used this form of analysis to document and interpret the nature of feedback practices in education. Anderson (2021), for example, employed a multiple-case study design to examine the academic discourse socialization of four Chinese PhD students at a Canadian research university from the perspective of written feedback. Data were collected from semi-structured interviews, participant narratives, and written feedback artifacts. The researcher, using the students submitted writing samples

containing feedback, coded the data into feedback categories. Anderson analyzed how feedback functioned not only as a linguistic correction tool, but also as a socializing force for these international English as an additional language students. A content analysis of the student-submitted texts revealed that a substantial proportion of the feedback—ranging from 38% to 59%—was focused on language-related issues, such as lexical and syntactic inaccuracies, despite the participants' advanced academic status (as PhD students), including several with prior publication records. While three out of four participants regarded the feedback they received as constructive and motivating, even critical feedback, one participant—Sissy—experienced feedback as marginalizing and damaging to her sense of academic belonging, and even led to her social isolation to such an extent that she avoided departmental and student-led social gatherings both on and off campus. This contrast showed how feedback can have varying socializing effects, influenced by individual interpretations and positionalities. The study underscored the interactional nature of feedback, its potential for both support and harm, and called for future research on feedback as a form of language socialization across diverse contexts and educational levels.

Leki (2006) conducted another qualitative study on feedback for second language (L2) students employing QCA. This study examined how second language graduate students responded to feedback on their academic writing. Drawing from qualitative case studies of 21 L2 graduate students enrolled in U.S. universities, the study used interviews, student reflections, and samples of written feedback to explore how students interpret, and act upon feedback that they received. The findings revealed that students wanted more feedback on language and writing than on the content. Many students viewed feedback as a form of instruction, explicitly expressing that they needed help in identifying linguistic errors and getting information about

expectations. Leki discussed the difficulties of English for Academic Purposes courses in helping second language students in their disciplinary courses. The author offered suggestions of how disciplinary faculty could support the development of writing skills, such as "commitment to respond more to L2 students' language needs" and "a stated policy and practice of inviting students to consult about returned work" (Leki, 2006, p. 282). In both Anderson and Leki's research, qualitative content analysis played a key role in helping the researchers showcase the data in a clear and orderly manner, be it the feedback category and description, the demographic display of interviewees, the types of documents, or the number of written comments.

I chose qualitative content analysis because this method allows for the systematic categorization of data aligning with the pre-existing frameworks (Ellis, 2021; Shute, 2008). QCA enables the researcher to apply established coding schemes to structured data (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). This deductive orientation is appropriate given the study's aim of examining how feedback types align with recognized categories of formative and corrective feedback derived from Ellis (2021) and Shute (2008). The data in this study consisted of feedback provided to my previous students in the summer of 2022. The students were in grade 10, studying in a language training institute in Beijing, China. They were preparing for the TOEFL speaking test, with a strong intent to study in English-speaking universities. During the course period, I assigned oral practice to the students. The students submitted their assignments that they recorded on their cellphones, and in turn, I then listened to their recordings, and provided feedback to them. Since the feedback was provided to the students in a mixture of Chinese and English, the Chinese script will be translated into English. For example, a piece of feedback I provided could be "注意三单，应该是 *She goes to school*" which is translated as: "Be careful with the third-person singular form. It should be: *She goes to school.*"

In the following chapter, the author will analyze the oral and written feedback provided to seven Chinese high school students on their TOEFL speaking responses. The Appendix presents the formative and corrective feedback I provided to seven participants, identified by the pseudonyms Hang, Tian, Liang, Rui, Luo, Ming, and Lin. The data set consists of 27 feedback records collected over four weeks of speaking practice, labeled as "1, 2, 3, 4" for each student. Each of the six students received four feedback records, except for Tian, who submitted three speaking practices and therefore received three feedback records. A feedback record is defined in this thesis as a one-time instance of feedback provided by the researcher/teacher to his students regarding their oral practice assignment. In many cases, a feedback record contains only written feedback. When there was a need for a pronunciation demonstration, a digital recording of oral feedback was provided. Meanwhile, a feedback record may be composed of multiple feedback entries featuring different language aspects, such as pronunciation, grammar, content, and so on, across the subcategories of formative and corrective feedback.

The process of QCA in this study followed several structured steps. First, all oral feedback data were carefully transcribed and translated from the original mixture of Chinese and English into English-only transcripts. Written feedback, originally provided in Chinese or English, was also translated into English. This ensured that all data were uniform in language and format for analysis. Each feedback record was reviewed multiple times to ensure accuracy. Then, the feedback record was analyzed according to each feedback entry before being coded into different subcategories under formative and corrective feedback.

The categorization of feedback entries is in line with the frameworks established by Ellis (2021) for corrective feedback and Shute (2008) for formative feedback. The coding process

involved classifying each feedback entry into a subcategory of feedback, depending on the nature and purpose of the feedback provided.

Ellis (2021, p. 342) categorizes corrective feedback into eight subcategories, which are further divided into explicit and implicit types:

Explicit Corrective Feedback:

1. Direct correction – Indicating the response is incorrect without providing the correct form. E.g., “No, not “goed”.

2. Explicit correction – Providing the correct form while indicating where the error is. E.g., “Went,” not “goed”.

3. Elicitation – Prompting the learner to self-correct. E.g., “The man ____?”

4. Metalinguistic clue – Offering a hint about the linguistic feature. E.g., "You need the correct past tense form."

5. Metalinguistic explanation – Providing a full grammatical explanation. E.g., "Go" is an irregular verb; you need "went".

Implicit Corrective Feedback:

6. Recast – Reformulating the learner’s error implicitly. E.g., S1: "The man goed home." S2: "The man went home."

7. Clarification request – Requesting clarification to signal an error. E.g., "Sorry?"

8. Repetition – Repeating the learner’s error with emphasis. E.g., "The man goed home?"

Shute (2008, p. 160) outlines six subcategories of elaborated formative feedback:

1. Attribute isolation: “Elaborated feedback that presents information addressing central attributes of the target concept or skill being studied.”

2. Topic contingent: “Elaborated feedback providing the learner with information relating to the target topic currently being studied. May entail simply reteaching material.”

3. Response contingent: “Elaborated feedback that focuses on the learner’s specific response. It may describe why the incorrect answer is wrong and why the correct answer is correct. This does not use formal error analysis.”

4. Hints/cues/prompts: “Elaborated feedback guiding the learner in the right direction, e.g., strategic hint on what to do next or a worked example or demonstration. Avoids explicitly presenting the correct answer.”

5. Bugs/Misconceptions: “Elaborated feedback requiring error analysis and diagnosis. It provides information about the learner’s specific errors or misconceptions (e.g., what is wrong and why).”

6. Informative Tutoring: “The most elaborated feedback, this tutoring presents verification feedback, error flagging, and strategic hints on how to proceed. The correct answer is not usually provided.”

As mentioned in Chapter 1, formative feedback and corrective feedback are not mutually exclusive. They share overlapping features. For example, formative feedback may provide learners with “verification (indicating an error)” and a “corrective response” (Shute, 2008, p. 160), similar to corrective feedback. However, formative feedback places greater emphasis on elaboration, such as offering thoughts and ideas on sample responses for tackling an independent speaking task. In this study, a feedback entry is categorized as corrective feedback if it targets specific linguistic errors, such as grammar, vocabulary, or pronunciation, and so on. An entry is considered formative if it provides more elaboration—such as a “strategic hint on what to do next or a worked example or demonstration” (Shute, 2008, p. 160). For example, a feedback

entry such as, "You said: *He go to school*. It should be: *He went to school*." is an example of using a correction of grammatical error, and therefore was coded as *CF – Explicit Correction*. Similarly, a formative feedback entry can appear like this: "Great idea on this Independent Task! Think about an example, such as a time you were annoyed by a roommate and what you did and said. This way you will have more details in your response." This entry encourages ideas for improvement and is coded as *FF – Hints/prompts/cues*. Generally, corrective feedback emphasizes on error correction, while formative feedback offers more elaborated analysis of the problem and potential solutions. The patterns in the data will be interpreted to provide a detailed understanding of the instructor's feedback tendencies. The analysis will reveal what types of feedback was used more frequently, which provides opportunities for exploring why the teacher chose that strategy.

While the dataset is modest in size, I consider it to have originality, variety and depth, thereby appropriate for the detailed categorization in QCA for this research. By using QCA, this study aims to conduct an in-depth analysis of the types of feedback, as indicated in research question 1, which paves the way for understanding the relationship between existing literature on feedback and my actual feedback practices (research question 2), as well as uncovering broader insights into oral English teaching practices for Chinese learners (research question 3).

3.4 Ethical Considerations

This study draws on the author's own written and oral feedback provided to seven former students in 2022. Ethical approval was obtained from the Human Research Ethics Board (HREB) at University of Victoria prior to data collection. All ethical guidelines regarding participant consent, confidentiality, and data handling were followed in accordance with the board's protocols (Protocol Number: 25-0163).

Chapter 4: Findings

In this chapter I present the findings of the study which are organized around the three research questions. Each section corresponds to one research question and includes an analysis of the teacher's feedback using qualitative content analysis. The author began by identifying the types and frequency of feedback strategies used in response to students' TOEFL speaking tasks. Next, these practices were compared with the research literature on feedback in second language (L2) learning. The author concluded with a reflective discussion to share insights into the application of feedback in high-stakes exam contexts.

Three main findings emerged from my research. First, both corrective feedback (CF) and formative feedback (FF) strategies were employed throughout the course, with a slight preference for CF. Second, the differences between the existing literature and my real-life feedback practices suggest that contextual factors—such as high-stakes exam preparation, cultural expectations, and feedback delivery mode—can significantly influence how feedback strategies are implemented. A comparison with existing literature revealed three divergences: (1) recasts were used explicitly for pronunciation rather than implicitly as in in-class speaking practice, (2) feedback was delayed and asynchronous, lacking paralinguistic cues, and (3) both oral and written feedback were combined post-task, which is rarely discussed in classroom-based studies. Third, reflecting on my own feedback practices revealed three key insights: (1) teacher feedback, as a form of scaffolded support, must be tailored to learners' individual needs; (2) teacher beliefs—particularly about language learning and test preparation—play a central role in shaping feedback practices; and (3) successful TOEFL speaking preparation requires balanced attention to all performance aspects (pronunciation, intonation, fluency, grammar, vocabulary, and content).

My choice of analytical models for this study was directly informed by the literature I read and the courses I completed during my graduate program. In particular, the works of Ellis (2009, 2010, 2016, 2021) on corrective feedback and Shute (2008) on formative feedback provided the theoretical foundation for my analysis. Before my graduate studies, I was only familiar with corrective feedback from my teaching training experience, and it seemed most relevant to my classroom practice. Indeed, much of my feedback naturally aligned with corrective strategies, especially when addressing pronunciation and grammatical errors. For instance, I used recasts to demonstrate correct pronunciation, explicit correction to address lexical errors, and metalinguistic clues to help students understand grammar mistakes. These strategies reflected both my teaching habits and the corrective feedback models I encountered in the literature. However, while corrective feedback was a strong fit for many cases, I began to notice that some of my comments—particularly those related to content and topic development—did not fit neatly into this framework.

It was through Shute's (2008) research article on formative feedback that I found a better conceptual match for these practices. Explaining how to support an opinion with examples, or guiding students to elaborate on an argument, often required extended explanations that were less about correction, but more about scaffolding. For example, if a student argued that e-books are better than paper books, I might suggest using a concrete, lived example to strengthen their response. This type of elaboration aligned more closely with formative feedback as described by Shute (2008). Thus, the integration of both corrective and formative feedback frameworks allowed me to capture the full range of my practices. Graduate coursework and literature therefore directly influenced my decision to use these models in the analysis.

4.1 Analysis of Research Question 1:

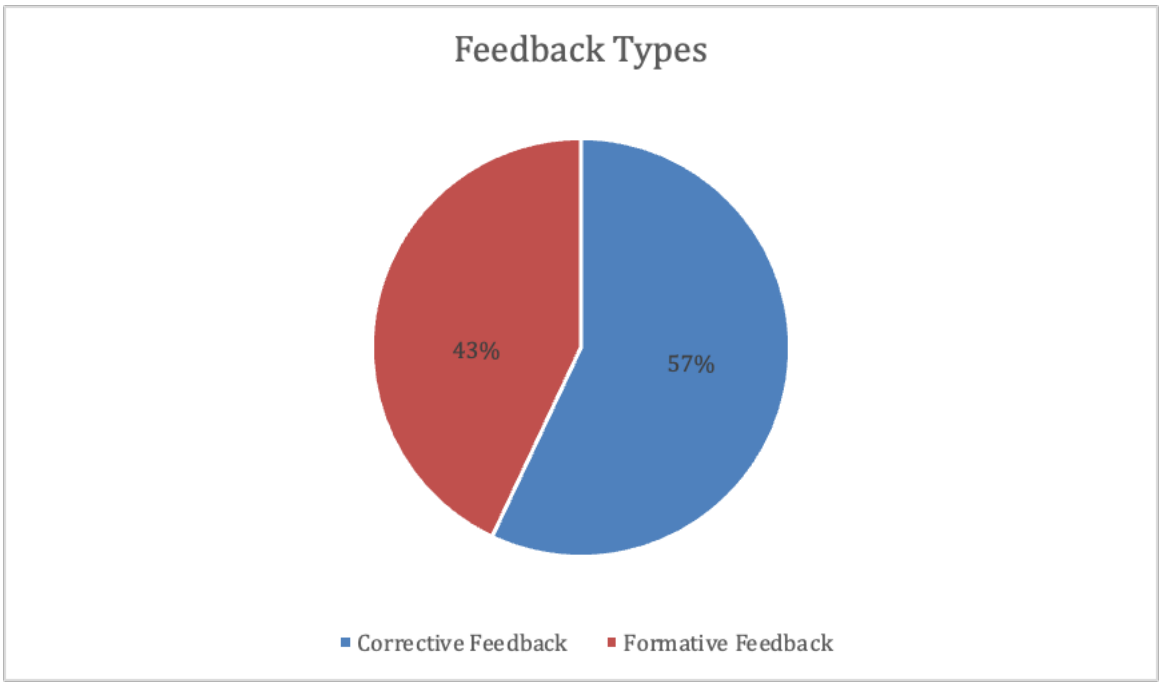
What types of feedback did I provide to Chinese high-school students on their oral responses to TOEFL speaking questions?

Figure 1. *Two main feedback types and subcategories*

Main Feedback Types	Total	Subcategory	Count
Corrective Feedback	62	CF – Explicit Correction	26
		CF – Metalinguistic Clue	14
		CF – Recast	9
		CF – Clarification Request	8
		CF – Metalinguistic Explanation	5
		CF – Direct Correction	0
		CF – Repetition	0
		CF – Elicitation	0
Formative feedback	46	FF – Response Contingent	13
		FF – Attribute Isolation	12
		FF – Hints/cues/prompts	12
		FF – Topic Contingent	4
		FF – Bugs/Misconceptions	3
		FF – Formative Tutoring	2

As shown in Figure 1, a total of 108 feedback entries were identified and coded, including 62 entries of corrective feedback and 46 entries of formative feedback. Both corrective and formative approaches were employed throughout the course, but there was a slight preference for the CF strategies (57%) over the FF ones (43%) (Figure 2).

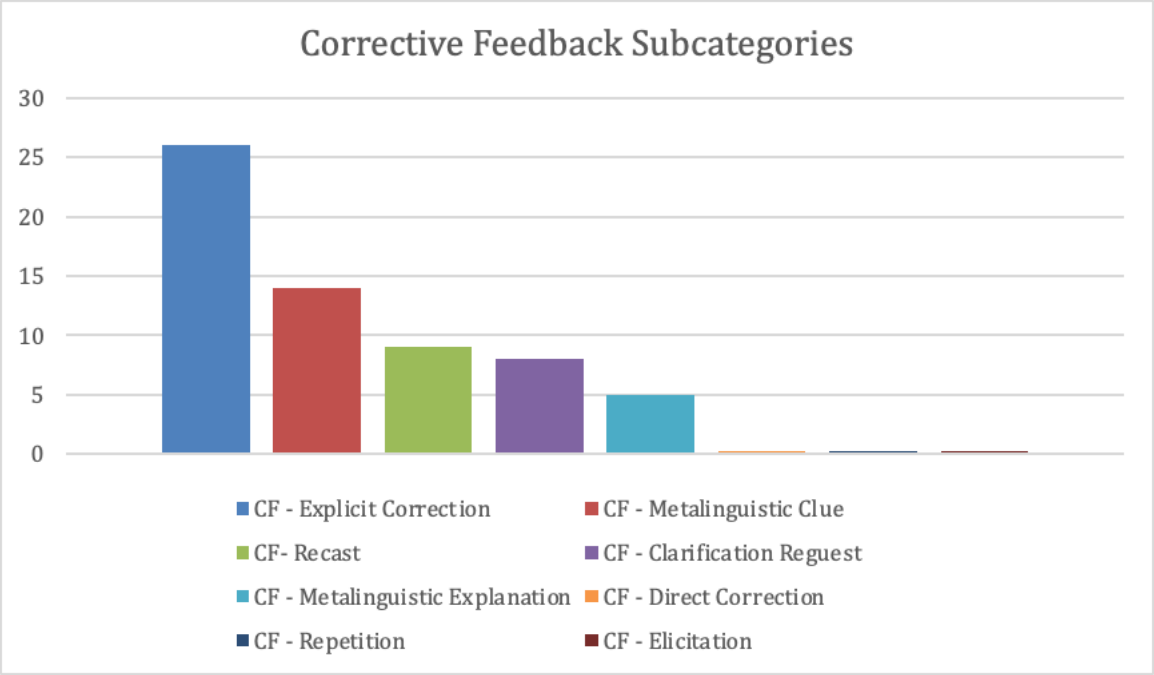
Figure 2. *Distribution of Corrective and Formative Feedback*



Among the CF subcategories shown in Figure 3, explicit correction emerged as the most frequently used type (26 entries), making over 40% of all CF instances. This suggests the teacher's preference for providing explicit, unambiguous correction of students' linguistic errors. For example, in feedback to Hang, *"adapt to the cold", not "adopt"* was a straightforward correction case (Appendix, Hang 3, Written, ① Explicit Correction). Similarly, Liang received explicit correction on the incomplete phrase *"if change", revised to "if they make this change"* (Appendix, Liang 1, Written, ③ Explicit Correction). Metalinguistic clues and recast were also frequently used, with 16 and 9 cases respectively. For example, Ming was reminded to stress the word "relict" at the first syllable (Appendix, Ming 3, Written, ③ CF – Metalinguistic Clue). Then in the following oral feedback, the teacher provided multiple pronunciation demonstrations, *"Relict behavior, relict behavior, relict"* to help Ming become familiar with the proper stress of the word (Appendix, Ming 3, Oral, ① CF – Recast). Clarification requests (8 instances) were also commonly adopted to ask for explanation of an unclear statement or a

possible error. For example, when Lin said, "*The place will be confused*", the instructor provided feedback by asking Lin to clarify what "*confused*" meant here (Appendix, Lin 2, ② CF – Recast).

Figure 3. *Corrective Feedback Subcategories*



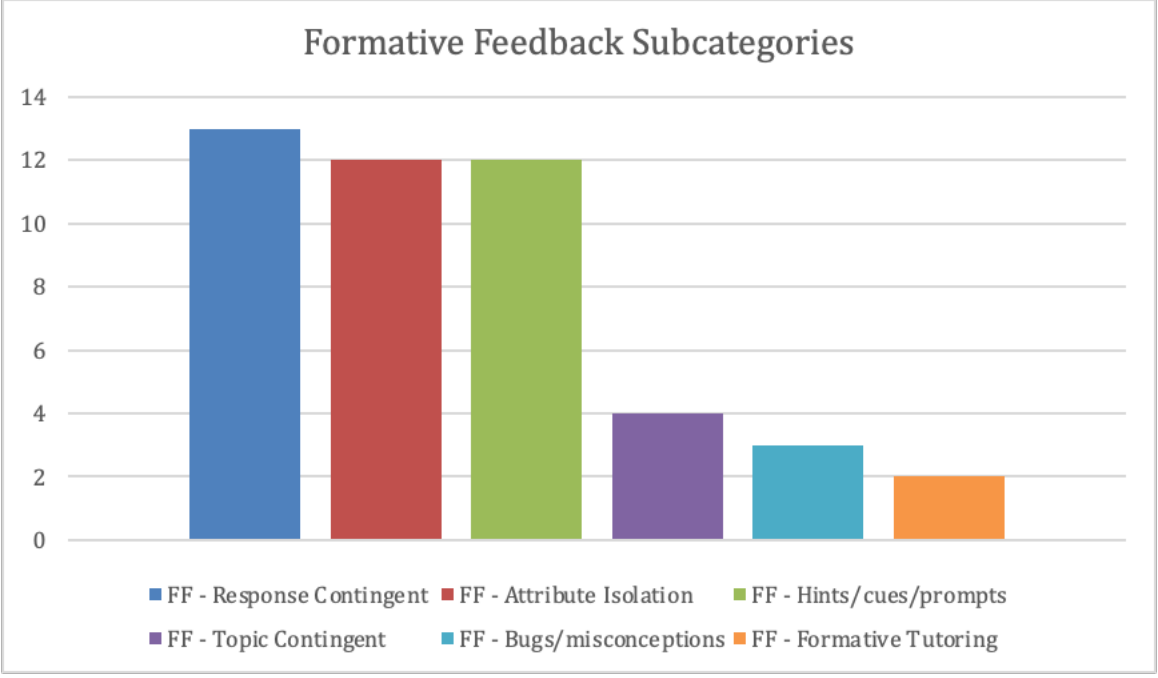
Unlike metalinguistic clues, which appeared in 16 feedback instances, metalinguistic explanations were only seen five times. This is mainly due to practical considerations, i.e. explaining metalinguistic knowledge (providing a full grammatical explanation. E.g., "Go" is an irregular verb; you need "went") takes more time of the teacher, and may be beyond what the student can absorb in that particular feedback interaction. For instance, a feedback entry provided to Luo (Appendix, Luo 2, Written, ② CF – Metalinguistic explanation) mentioned the concept of a "run-on sentence," where she used two verbs in a simple sentence: *"They come to university is to study."* In my real-life teaching experience, after eight hours of teaching and two hours of listening to students' oral practice and providing feedback, it would be nearly impossible

to give a mini lecture on the topic of "run-on sentence." Therefore, my feedback was kept concise in this case: "This is a run-on sentence, with two verbs. You want to delete *is*". This brief metalinguistic explanation was an attempt to save the teacher's time and make it easier for the student to comprehend.

Direct correction, elicitation, and repetition are three corrective feedback strategies in Ellis's (2021) framework. However, they were not seen in this feedback recount. The reasons for the absence of these strategies are different. First, direct correction, a CF approach that emphasizes negation, as in the example "No, not *goes*" (Ellis, 2021, p. 342), without giving the correction answer, was not favoured in my feedback practice because I believed saying phrases like "No," "Wrong," and "That's not right" were too forceful and potentially damaging to a learner's self-efficacy and thereby result in the student's unwillingness to accept the negative feedback. Explicit correction, on the other hand, avoids directly saying the student is wrong, but provides both the error and the correct form for the student to compare with, which I find to be a clear as well as face-saving strategy, which is also why explicit correction appeared the most in all feedback records. This practice aligns with the theoretical framework that views feedback as a socially and culturally mediated practice, reflecting my own beliefs as a teacher. On the other hand, the lack of elicitation and repetition was not because of my personal preference, but rather because of the form of delayed feedback on recorded oral responses. It would be more efficient, in a face-to-face scenario, to use elicitation, which is the teacher saying an unfinished sentence and leaving a part for the student to complete, and repetition, to repeat a mistake the student made and wait to get the student's response of self-correction. However, when providing delayed feedback on students' speaking practice, usually there were not multiple rounds of back and forth due to practical concerns about time and energy, which will be discussed in the next chapter.

The high frequency of explicit correction reflects both the researcher's teaching habits and beliefs. From my teaching experience, Chinese students preparing for the TOEFL speaking section actively seek explicit correction of grammatical, lexical, and pronunciation errors to avoid underperforming on the high-stakes test. Their awareness of the need for clear and intelligible speech is heightened by the TOEFL scoring system, which emphasizes intelligibility for both human raters and electronic raters. This need for such explicitness about intelligible speech explains my use of oral recasts for pronunciation, ensuring students avoid mispronunciations such as "a biter choice" instead of "a better choice."

Figure 4. *Formative Feedback Subcategories*



In the formative feedback subcategories, as presented in Figure 4, response contingent feedback, which appeared 13 times, was the most common type, followed closely by attribute isolation and hints/cues/prompts, both appearing 12 times. An example of response contingent feedback looked like this: "Content is almost complete. How many times have you tried to

answer these two questions?" (Appendix, Hang, 1, Written, ② Response Contingent). This piece of formative feedback on the student's work motivated the student to engage in dialogue with the teacher, making it possible for the teacher to better understand the student's level and their potential obstacles. Attribute isolation, as a type of formative feedback, provides the learner with information concerning specific attributes of a concept or skill. In this study, 10 attribute isolation feedback entries highlighted the positive aspect of a linguistic skill presented in students' responses, such as "Good shadowing work. Both the pronunciation and the clarity are excellent" (Appendix, Rui, 1, Written, ① Attribute Isolation). The other two entries of attribute isolation feedback reminded the students of areas still in need of attention, such as "Work more on fluency, as there are some noticeable pauses" (Appendix, Luo, 2, Written, ④ Attribute Isolation). The frequent use of hints/cues/prompts and response contingent feedback demonstrated an intention to scaffold students' development in content. Rather than merely correcting form, the teacher encouraged students to elaborate, justify, and exemplify their responses — a crucial skill in TOEFL independent speaking tasks where idea development and coherence are heavily evaluated. This understanding of the requirement for TOEFL speaking tasks is manifested in the formative feedback I provided to them. For example, Ming was encouraged to reconsider his reasoning by adding details about the benefits of online classes: "Think again about the reason in Task 1. For example, you could say that you don't have to commute between home and school when having online classes" (Appendix, Ming 2, Written, ② FF – Hints/cues/prompts). Similarly, Hang was prompted to explain her reasoning further in response to her misunderstanding of how to make an example in a speaking test: "You could use yourself as an example instead of your friend. It may sound a bit off if you claim that you know

everything about your friend, especially how they feel" (Appendix, Hang 2, Written, ② FF – Response Contingent).

Less frequent were FF types such as topic contingent (4), bugs/misconceptions (3), and informative tutoring (2), suggesting that students' misunderstandings on TOEFL speaking tasks were not common, and extensive tutoring or step-by-step guidance were rare. An example of formative feedback on bugs/misconceptions can be seen in Luo being advised that "the answer time for Task1 is 45 seconds, not 60 seconds. Therefore, the reasoning part should be more concise" (Appendix, Luo 1, Written, ② FF – Bugs/Misconceptions). It is worth noting that all these students were from the top tier high schools of Beijing, China, and were highly motivated and self-disciplined. Still, even the best students could make simple mistakes such as not remembering the required answer time. When this does happen, the teacher should provide the correct information, instead of assuming that high performing students do not make careless errors.

Overall, this distribution indicates that the instructor balanced addressing specific linguistic errors with offering elaborative guidance on TOEFL speaking strategies, reflecting a dual focus on improving language accuracy and fostering independent speaking skills suited to the exam.

4.2 Analysis of Research Question 2:

In what ways does the research on feedback to EFL/ESL learners align with or differ from the feedback I provided to my students?

This section examines how the types and patterns of feedback identified in this study align with or diverge from existing literature on feedback for EFL/ESL learners, focusing on both corrective feedback (CF) and formative feedback (FF).

First, the use of recasts in this study diverges from the way recasts are commonly described in the literature and is one of the modest contributions of this research to the field. Lyster and Ranta (1997) emphasized that recasts, though widely used in classrooms, were often not noticed by learners because of their implicitness and subtlety to avoid disruption of the flow of communication. Ellis (2009) observed that the degree of explicitness in recasts could vary greatly, depending on prosodic emphasis, and the combination with other CF strategies. In contrast, my use of recasts served as an explicit, stand-alone pronunciation demonstration tool, not a gentle, implicit correction embedded in real-time communication. This deliberate, overt form was chosen because of the specific demands of the TOEFL speaking test, where clear pronunciation and intelligibility are paramount for scoring well. For example, in Appendix, Ming and Hang were provided repeated, emphasized oral modeling of problematic words such as "relict" (Appendix, Ming, 3, Oral, ① CF – Recast) or "policy" (Appendix, Hang, 3, Oral, ① CF – Recast), to ensure they notice the correction and practice according to the demonstration.

Second, the feedback in this study was delayed and asynchronous, different from the real-time, face-to-face delivery described in many oral feedback studies (Ellis, 2009; Lyster & Mori, 2006). Without the possibility of using non-verbal cues like gestures or facial expressions—such as paralinguistic signals like "[The teacher] gestur[ing] with right forefinger over left shoulder to indicate past" (Ellis, 2009, p. 9)—I relied entirely on the verbal features within audio and written comments. This constraint made the feedback more direct, and explicit to compensate for the lack of multimodal cues. However, this delayed mode of feedback on recorded oral responses also offered unique advantages: it gave the teacher time to gauge the student's oral response carefully, and it allowed students to process the feedback and make corrections or further attempts. This could serve better for the learners because they could repeatedly review the

feedback at their own pace, which might reduce the stress and anxiety associated with immediate corrective feedback in real-time classroom settings.

Lastly, the literature on formative feedback, particularly Shute's work (2008), contains some differences with the feedback practices reported on in this study. Shute recommended that high-achieving learners may benefit from more facilitative, less directive feedback—such as verification-only comments or minimal scaffolding—because they are presumed to have greater self-regulatory abilities. However, my teaching experience with high-achieving Chinese students in elite Beijing high schools suggests that scaffolding, elaboration, and direct guidance remain necessary despite the students' high potential. Their strong motivation to maximize TOEFL scores and expectations for specific, detailed feedback led me to employ CF extensively alongside FF, 62 CF vs. 46 FF entries, as shown in Figure 1. This finding suggests that even highly capable learners in high-stakes test-preparation contexts may prefer and benefit from more directive and elaborated feedback.

These differences between the literature on feedback and my real-life feedback practices highlight how contextual factors—such as the preparation for high-stakes exams, cultural expectations, and feedback delivery mode—can significantly influence the employment of feedback strategies in ways not fully reported by existing feedback literature.

4.3 Analysis of Research Question 3:

What insights can be gained from reflecting on my feedback practices in relation to Chinese students' needs in preparing for high-stakes (TOEFL) speaking tasks?

The third research question seeks to explore insights from reflecting on my own feedback on these Chinese students' oral responses to TOEFL speaking tasks. The insights are drawn from

a sociocultural lens and based on literature addressing teacher beliefs which predominantly drives teacher behavior and instruction.

From a sociocultural perspective, Vygotsky (1978) points out that learning is a mediated process that occurs within the learner's Zone of Proximal Development, meaning that the teacher's guidance helps bridge the gap between what learners can do by themselves and what they can achieve with support. My feedback, both corrective and formative, served as a form of scaffolding tailored to the students' ZPD. The formative feedback focused on elaboration, prompts, and suggestions for improvement (e.g., "Be more specific when you say you have different opinions with your instructor. For example, your instructor suggests you take a certain course, but you want to take another course that interests you." Appendix, Ming 4). Formative feedback emphasizing elaboration helped students develop responses with greater clarity, coherence, and content depth. Corrective feedback, particularly the use of explicit correction and metalinguistic clues, provided immediate linguistic support on pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary, which are key areas for intelligibility in TOEFL speaking. In this way, feedback was not just about error correction, but instructional scaffolding suitable for students' language learning levels.

Another insight is derived from the feedback practices influenced by my own teacher beliefs. Pajares (1992) posits that teacher beliefs act as filters for decision-making in the classroom. One of my core beliefs in preparing students for the TOEFL speaking test is that teachers should offer feedback on all three scoring aspects identified by the Educational Testing Service (Educational Testing Service, n.d.): Delivery (pronunciation, intonation, and fluency), Language Use (grammar and vocabulary), and Topic Development (content and organization). These dimensions consistently appeared in my feedback. For instance:

- Delivery: Feedback on pronunciation feedback was given to Lin in the Appendix, “When doing shadowing, if the listening material is too fast and hard to follow, pause, cut a long sentence into smaller chunks, and then shadow.” Feedback on intonation feedback was provided to Rui, “Good shadowing work! Keep up! You did well in imitating the intonation here.” Feedback on fluency was offered to Luo, “Work more on fluency, as there are some noticeable pauses.”
- Language Use: Grammar correction was provided to Tian, “First sentence, grammar: *Some animals live in arctic have...* Here you want to use *living* instead of *live*.” Feedback on vocabulary was given to Liang, “The expression is *agree with*, not *agree for*.”
- Development: Content-focused feedback, encouraging clearer logic or more concrete examples, was offered to Ming, “Think again about the reason in Task 1. For example, you could say that you don’t have to commute between home and school when having online classes. It saves your time and energy. You live relatively far away from school. It’s tiring and time-wasting to take the subway.”

This structured, multifaceted feedback approach reflects my belief that helping students excel in TOEFL speaking requires a well-rounded comprehensive focus on all aspects of their performance. A test-taker may excel in grammar because of their previous experience learning in classrooms that focus on grammar translation, but has little knowledge about English intonation due to rare exposure to English colloquial environments, which is often the case in China. In such instances, the teacher needs to provide targeted assistance on intonation, by comparing different tones between English and Chinese, and thus help the students familiarize themselves with English intonation. TOEFL raters use very specific rubrics in connection with the above-mentioned three components: delivery, language use, and development (Educational Testing

Service, n.d.). Based on my experience, I believe learners tend to underperform because they lack effective guidance on integrating these scoring components. Thus, second language teachers would do well to focus on the specific aspects which students are lacking within the speaking scoring rubrics.

Reflecting on my feedback practices offers three insights: (1) Teacher feedback as a scaffolded support tool needs be tailored to learner needs; (2) Teacher beliefs—about the nature of language learning and test preparation—play a central role in shaping the teacher's feedback practices; and (3) Successful TOEFL speaking preparation involves balanced attention to all performance aspects.

The analysis of my feedback affirmed many of my teaching practices. For example, I provided a balance of formative and corrective feedback. Secondly, the feedback was kept concise, addressing both learner errors and areas for improvement, while still taking into account the need for face-saving. I also realized that I was cognizant of their zone of proximal development and their needs for both affirmation and ways to improve in terms of language learning. Additionally, I provided lots of examples that aligned with the corrections.

My study also pointed to areas for improvement: For example, I need to provide more types of oral feedback approaches such as clarification requests (corrective feedback) which may increase more student self-corrections and subsequently help the student more fully understand the nature and pattern of their errors. Also, I need to provide more oral feedback approaches such as hints/cues/prompts (formative feedback) to help the student clarify and elaborate their speaking responses to TOEFL tasks. An additional area for improvement is to increase more affirmative feedback such as identified in the appendix (e.g. "Good overall pronunciation" or "Good summary of the reading material"). Overall, this research experience has been

professionally enhancing, and I look forward to implementing changes in my future teaching career.

Chapter 5: Discussion

In this chapter I first provide a succinct summary of my findings and their significance, followed by implications for practice and finally suggestions for future research.

The types of feedback to Chinese high-school students on their oral responses to TOEFL speaking questions were both corrective and formative, which is important because the former targets accuracy while the latter places an emphasis on their thoughts, knowledge and meaning-making in the context of TOEFL oral practice. Included in corrective feedback is explicit correction, metalinguistic clues and recasts, which are so important because they offer students a more direct approach to recognizing and correcting errors. Formative feedback on the other hand, includes response contingency (elaborated feedback that focuses on a learner's specific response), attribute isolation (aspects of the target concept or skill), hints/cues/prompts (strategic clues, examples etc.). Being aware of these nuanced aspects of formative feedback and possessing knowledge of teachers' options in giving formative feedback make for powerful pedagogical tools that have the potential to significantly impact language learning outcomes.
In terms of the alignment/misalignment between my feedback to my students and the research literature on oral feedback practices, most of the feedback practices aligned with the literature such as using corrective feedback to attend to accuracy and using formative feedback to give students much-needed and elaborated understanding about their performance. Interesting differences between my feedback practices and those of the research literature included the use of recasts as an explicit strategy of corrective feedback. Most of the research literature has focused on recasts in real time in classrooms which differs significantly from recasts that were delayed and asynchronous. Delayed feedback in the form of audio recordings and text messages offers a distinct advantage because it gives students more time to process the information

provided by the teacher and subsequently to make revisions. The constraint of delayed feedback is that it lacks paralinguistic cues and may not be as coherent as in real time communication in class.

In relation to the insights gained from reflecting on my own feedback practices to my students learning about TOEFL speaking tasks, I discovered the critical importance of tailoring feedback to learner needs: there is no one-size-fits-all approach. Additionally, my own beliefs about teaching were unearthed and I recognized the importance of teachers' beliefs as a driving force behind pedagogical practice. Attending to all three aspects of the TOEFL speaking section: delivery (pronunciation, intonation, and fluency), language use (grammar and vocabulary) and content (information provided in the reading and listening materials) is crucial. I also experienced professional growth in that I recognized the need to improve by providing more oral feedback approaches such as hints, cues and prompts to help the students identify and elaborate on their speaking responses.

5.1 Implications for Practice

This study has two notable implications for English language teachers, especially those working with Chinese students preparing for high-stakes oral English tests, such as the TOEFL. One implication is for teachers to recognize the importance and value of combining written and oral feedback on recorded practice in response to oral assignments, complementing in-class communications. Although most research on corrective feedback focuses on real-time, in-class interactions, this study shows that delayed feedback on students' recorded oral practice can imply possible enhancement of oral language learning. This delayed feedback form offered the teacher time to carefully evaluate students' oral answers, and allowed students to revisit feedback at their own pace. A second implication is that feedback practices in test-preparation settings

need to be comprehensive and directive, tailored to the specific scoring criteria of exams. In the context of the TOEFL speaking exam, teachers need to be familiar with the scoring rubrics, which influences teacher feedback on certain aspects, such as fluency and accuracy. Furthermore, Furthermore, it is important for teachers to align their feedback not only with linguistic features, but also with learners' expectations and cultural backgrounds.

These implications make it incumbent upon teachers to provide feedback in test-preparation settings that are comprehensive and directive, and tailored to the specific scoring criteria of exams. Teachers can play a critical role in aligning their feedback not only with linguistic features but also with the performance expectations, the cultural and social preferences, as well as the experiences of their learners.

5.2 Limitations

This small-scale qualitative study may provide useful insights regarding teacher feedback. However, the small sample size consisting of seven high-school students from Beijing as well as the short four-week data collection time limit the study, and the findings cannot be generalized to broader populations or different educational settings.

Second, this study did not include student perspectives or responses. The analysis focused solely on the teacher's feedback. As a result, it was not possible to evaluate the effectiveness of the feedback from the learner's point of view. Without student interviews, reflections, or follow-up recordings, the data cannot reveal the long-term impact of the feedback on learners' speaking performance or development.

Another consideration is the very nature of autoethnographic reflection, which while offering insight is subject to researcher bias and some 'halo' effects. It is human nature that each teacher wants their best side to be reflected. However, I have taken time to examine my

assumptions and to the extent possible, bracket them. In hindsight, I would have also considered using a co-researcher to provide another perspective on the 27 feedback records to further aid in a fulsome or robust interpretation of the data set.

5.3 Future Research

To build on the findings of this study, future research would benefit from including student voices on their responses to teacher feedback. A more interactive research design could potentially capture how learners perceive different types of feedback, how they respond to it, and how their performance and preferences evolve over time. For example, a future study could document multiple rounds of teacher-student interactions in the following sequence:

- The teacher assigns a speaking task.
- Students submit recorded oral responses.
- The teacher evaluates and provides both written and recorded oral feedback.
- Students revise or redo their responses, and send them to the teacher again.
- The teacher gives further comments based on the updated attempts.

Such a design would allow researchers to explore how feedback is used, negotiated, and refined over time, and how it supports learning in effective and efficient ways. In addition, comparative studies across cultural or educational contexts—such as examining feedback practices between Western and East Asian test-prep environments—could provide a deeper understanding of how cultural expectations shape feedback preferences and effectiveness.

5.4 Conclusion

This study analyzed the types of feedback I provided to seven Chinese high school students preparing for the TOEFL speaking test. I also reflected on how my practices converged and diverged from extant literature, and in so doing, gained insights into how feedback can

support students in high-stakes EFL learning contexts. By applying the Qualitative Content Analysis approach, I examined 108 feedback entries across both oral and written modes, and subsequently categorized them into subcategories of corrective and formative feedback.

Findings revealed that my feedback practices emphasized explicit corrective feedback and elaborative formative strategies. Unlike much of the literature, which typically describes oral corrective feedback (OCF) in real-time, face-to-face classroom settings, the data in this study consisted of delayed, asynchronous feedback on recorded student responses. This method not only allowed for detailed, tailored feedback, but also gave students more time to process the feedback, which may reduce classroom anxiety.

From a sociocultural perspective, both corrective and formative feedback served as scaffolding to help learners progress within their ZPD. Consistent with Pajares' (1992) argument that teacher beliefs strongly impact teaching practices, I, too, recognized that my beliefs related to the importance of all three TOEFL scoring dimensions (delivery, language use, and development) heavily influenced the multifaceted nature of my feedback. Also, based on my experience, I believe that even high-achieving students need and benefit from detailed and directive feedback when preparing for high-stakes language assessments, such as TOEFL.

Studying teacher feedback on Chinese students' English-speaking performance offers valuable insights into how language teachers can build supportive, learner-oriented environments. Chinese learners, who may be hesitant to speak due to the fear of making mistakes, benefit from feedback that is constructive, engaging, motivating and encouraging. By understanding the nuances of different feedback types, teachers can adapt their strategies to address students' specific linguistic, cultural, cognitive, and affective needs thereby encouraging risk-taking, fluency, and confidence in speaking English. This type of communicative

competence contributes significantly to successful integration into a new linguistic and cultural community.

I hope that this study, while making an all-be-it modest contribution to the impoverished research area of teacher feedback to Chinese EFL/ESL students on their recorded oral practice, contributes practical insights that inform and enhance speaking pedagogy in high-stakes exam contexts. I also hope the study encourages language teachers to reflect critically on their feedback practices—not only in terms of what is said, but how, when, and why feedback is delivered—so that they can better support the language development of their students.

References

Al Jahromi, D. (2020). Can teacher and peer formative feedback enhance L2 university students' oral presentation skills? In S. Hidri (Ed.), *Changing language assessment* (pp. 95–131). Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-42269-1_5

Anderson, T. (2021). The socialization of L2 doctoral students through written feedback. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education, 20*(2), 134–149. https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2020.1726758

Benati, A. (2018). Grammar-translation method. In J. I. Liontas (Ed.), *The TESOL encyclopedia of English language teaching* (pp. 1–5). Wiley. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118784235.eelt0153

Berger, P. L., Luckmann, T., & Dobbin, F. (2022). From the social construction of reality: A treatise in the sociology of knowledge. In *The new economic sociology* (pp. 496–517). Princeton University Press. https://doi.org/10.1515/9780691229270-020

Berger, R. (2015). Now I see it, now I don't: Researcher's position and reflexivity in qualitative research. *Qualitative Research, 15*(2), 219–234. https://doi.org/10.1177/1468794112468475

Brookhart, S. M. (2018). Summative and formative feedback. In A. A. Lipnevich & J. K. Smith (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of instructional feedback* (pp. 52–78). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/9781316832134.005

Brown, R. F. V., Brown, G. T. L., & Timperley, H. S. (2012). Teacher beliefs about feedback within an assessment for learning environment: Endorsement of improved learning over student well-being. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 28*(7), 968–978. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2012.05.003

Ching, Y., Renes, S. L., McMurrow, S., Simpson, J., & Strange, A. T. (2017). Challenges facing Chinese international students studying in the United States. *Educational Research and Reviews, 12*(8), 473-482. https://doi.org/10.5897/ERR2017.3175

Clark-Gareca, B., & Gui, M. (2019). Chinese and American EFL teachers' beliefs about curricular and pedagogical practices: Cross-cultural similarities and differences. *Language and Intercultural Communication, 19*(2), 137–151. https://doi.org/10.1080/14708477.2018.1456546

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2018). Qualitative methods. In *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (5th ed., pp. 179–211). Sage Publications.

Donnelly, H. (2015). *Becoming an ESL teacher: An autoethnography* (Doctoral dissertation, Lakehead University). Lakehead University Knowledge Commons. http://knowledgecommons.lakeheadu.ca/handle/2453/743

Educational Testing Service. (n.d.). *TOEFL iBT® speaking rubrics*. ETS. https://www.ets.org/toefl/test-takers/ibt/scores/rubrics

Ellis, C., Adams, T. E., & Bochner, A. P. (2011). Autoethnography: An overview. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung / Forum: Qualitative Social Research, 12*(1), Article 10. http://nbn-resolving.de/urn:nbn:de:0114-fqs1101108

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

Ellis, R. (2010). Epilogue: A framework for investigating oral and written corrective feedback. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 32*(2), 335–349. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990544

Ellis, R. (2016). Focus on form: A critical review. *Language Teaching Research, 20*(3), 405–428. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168816628627

Ellis, R. (2021). Explicit and implicit oral corrective feedback. In H. Nassaji & E. Kartchava (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of corrective feedback in second language learning and teaching* (pp. 341–364). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108589789.017

Elo, S., & Kyngäs, H. (2008). The qualitative content analysis process. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 62*(1), 107–115. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2648.2007.04569.x

Farrell, T. S. C., & Bennis, K. (2013). Reflecting on ESL teacher beliefs and classroom practices: A case study. *RELC Journal, 44*(2), 163–176. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688213488463

Gan, Z. (2013). Understanding English speaking difficulties: An investigation of two Chinese populations. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 34*(3), 231–248. https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2013.768622

Gergen, K. J. (2012). Social construction and the educational process. In L. P. Steffe & J. Gale (Eds.), *Constructivism in education* (pp. 17–39). Routledge.

Gooch, R., Saito, K., & Lyster, R. (2016). Effects of recasts and prompts on L2 pronunciation development: Teaching English /ɹ/ to Korean adult EFL learners. *System, 60*, 117–127. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2016.06.007

Ha, X. V., Nguyen, L. T., & Hung, B. P. (2021). Oral corrective feedback in English as a foreign language classrooms: A teaching and learning perspective. *Heliyon, 7*(7), Article e07550. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2021.e07550

Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research, 77*(1), 81–112. https://doi.org/10.3102/003465430298487

Havnes, A., Smith, K., Dysthe, O., & Ludvigsen, K. (2012). Formative assessment and feedback: Making learning visible. *Studies in Educational Evaluation, 38*(1), 21–27. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stueduc.2012.04.001

Jiang, Y., & Dewaele, J.-M. (2019). How unique is the foreign language classroom enjoyment and anxiety of Chinese EFL learners? *System, 82*, 13–25. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2019.02.017

Lee, I. (2009). Ten mismatches between teachers' beliefs and written feedback practice. *ELT Journal, 63*(1), 13–22. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccn010

Lee, I. (2014). Revisiting teacher feedback in EFL writing from sociocultural perspectives. *TESOL Quarterly, 48*(1), 201–213. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.153

Leki, I. (2006). "You cannot ignore": L2 graduate students' response to discipline-based written feedback. In K. Hyland & F. Hyland (Eds.), *Feedback in second language writing* (pp. 266–286). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524742.016

Li, S. (2017). Student and teacher beliefs and attitudes about oral corrective feedback. In H. Nassaji & E. Kartchava (Eds.), *Corrective feedback in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 143–157). Routledge.

Li, S., & Vuono, A. (2019). Twenty-five years of research on oral and written corrective feedback in System. *System, 84*, 93–109. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2019.05.006

Lipnevich, A. A., & Panadero, E. (2021). A review of feedback models and theories: Descriptions, definitions, and conclusions. *Frontiers in Education, 6*, Article 720195. https://doi.org/10.3389/feduc.2021.720195

Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 19*(1), 37–66. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263197001034

Lyster, R., & Mori, H. (2006). Interactional feedback and instructional counterbalance. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28*(2), 269–300. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263106060128

Lyster, R., Saito, K., & Sato, M. (2013). Oral corrective feedback in second language classrooms. *Language Teaching, 46*(1), 1–40. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444812000365

Mao, Z., & Lee, I. (2022). Researching L2 student engagement with written feedback: Insights from sociocultural theory. *TESOL Quarterly, 56*(2), 788–798. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.3071

Min, H.-T. (2013). A case study of an EFL writing teacher's belief and practice about written feedback. *System, 41*(3), 625–638. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2013.07.018

Nassaji, H. (2021). Corrective Feedback from a Sociocultural Perspective. In H. Nassaji & E. Kartchava (Eds.), *The Cambridge Handbook of Corrective Feedback in Second Language Learning and Teaching* (pp. 85–108). chapter, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108589789.005

Pajares, F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research, 62*(3), 307–332. https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543062003307

Pawlak, M. (2013). The role of written corrective feedback in promoting language development: An overview. In W. Szubko-Sitarek, Ł. Salski, & P. Stalmaszczyk (Eds.), *Language*

learning, discourse and communication: Studies in honour of Jan Majer (pp. 3–21). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-00419-8_1

Pinner, R. S. (2017). Re-learning from experience: Using autoethnography for teacher development. *Educational Action Research, 26*(1), 91–105. https://doi.org/10.1080/09650792.2017.1310665

Ranta, L., & Lyster, R. (2007). A cognitive approach to improving immersion students' oral language abilities: The awareness-practice-feedback sequence. In R. DeKeyser (Ed.), *Practice in a second language: Perspectives from applied linguistics and cognitive psychology* (pp. 141–160). Cambridge University Press.

Roothooft, H., & Breeze, R. (2016). A comparison of EFL teachers' and students' attitudes to oral corrective feedback. *Language Awareness, 25*(4), 318–335. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2016.1235580

Sabarwal, S., Abu-Jawdeh, M., & Kapoor, R. (2022). Teacher beliefs: Why they matter and what they are. *The World Bank Research Observer, 37*(1), 73–106. https://doi.org/10.1093/wbro/lkab008

Savignon, S. J. (1987). Communicative language teaching. *Theory into Practice, 26*(4), 235–242. https://doi.org/10.1080/00405848709543281

Sheen, Y. (2010). Differential effects of oral and written corrective feedback in the ESL classroom. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 32*(2), 203–234. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990507

Shute, V. J. (2008). Focus on formative feedback. *Review of Educational Research, 78*(1), 153–189. https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654307313795

Smith, E., & Gorard, S. (2005). 'They don't give us our marks': The role of formative feedback in student progress. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice, 12*(1), 21–38. https://doi.org/10.1080/0969594042000333896

Storch, N. (2018). Written corrective feedback from sociocultural theoretical perspectives: A research agenda. *Language Teaching, 51*(2), 262–277. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444818000034

van Manen, M. (1995). On the epistemology of reflective practice. *Teachers and Teaching*, *1*(1), 33–50. https://doi.org/10.1080/1354060950010104

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes* (Vol. 86). Harvard University Press.

Wingate, U. (2010). The impact of formative feedback on the development of academic writing. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 35*(5), 519–533. https://doi.org/10.1080/02602930903512909

Yazan, B. (2019). An autoethnography of a language teacher educator: Wrestling with ideologies and identity positions. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 46*(3), 34–56. https://www.jstor.org/stable/26746049

Yuerong, C., Susan, L. R., Samantha, M., Joni, S., & Anthony, T. S. (2017). Challenges facing Chinese International students studying in the United States. *Educational Research and Reviews, 12*(8), 473–482. https://doi.org/10.5897/ERR2016.3106

Zhu, H., & O'Sullivan, H. (2020). Shhhh! Chinese students are studying quietly in the UK. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International, 59*(3), 275–284. https://doi.org/10.1080/14703297.2020.1813603

Zhang, X., & Zhang, R. (2023). Feedback, response, and learner development: A sociocultural approach to corrective feedback in second language writing. *SAGE Open, 13*(1), Article 21582440231157680. https://doi.org/10.1177/21582440231157680

Appendix

Student Name	Feedback Record	Modality	Transcript of Feedback Entries	Feedback Types
Hang	1	Written	① Good pronunciation and intonation, as well as overall fluency. ② Content is almost complete. How many times have you tried to answer these two questions? ③ In the reading material, does it say, 'Students should leave a cash deposit?' Take a look at the original material.	① FF – Attribute Isolation ② FF – Response Contingent ③ FF – Hints/Cues/Prompts
Hang	2	Written	① You said, "We have become cleaner." Why cleaner? Did you mean curing diseases? ② You could use yourself as an example instead of your friend. It may sound a bit off if you claim that you know everything about your friend, especially how they feel. ③ Nice idea for this question! ④ Pay attention to some expressions. You can simply change "He always cannot get to good grade" to "He always gets a poor grade."	① CF – Clarification Request ② FF – Response Contingent ③ FF – Attribute Isolation ④ CF – Explicit Correction

Hang	3	Written	① “Adapt to the cold”, not “adopt”. ② All key points are covered. Good! ③ The pronunciation of the word “policy”. ④ Change the expression “He studied dirty words” to “He learned more new words”.	① CF – Explicit Correction ② FF – Topic Contingent ③ CF – Metalinguistic Clue ④ CF – Explicit Correction
		Oral	① Okay, adapt to the cold. Adapt to the cold. Policy. Policy. Policy.	① CF – Recast
Hang	4	Written	① Grammar: “To getting some advices” should be “to get some advice”. ② The stress of the word “comfort” is on the first syllabus. ③ Content. In the end, you may want to say that friends could provide help to you, such as in learning. ④ The example and the reasoning are very good. The first half is great. ⑤ In the example, you said, “He is very independent.” But why is he “upset”?	① CF – Explicit Correction ② CF – Metalinguistic Clue ③ FF – Hints/Cues/Prompts ④ FF – Response Contingent ⑤ FF – Hints/Cues/Prompts

			Plus, it's not very common to have 'pen friends' these days. You could use an example saying that you have a friend who is studying in the US, and she finds the local people very friendly.	
Tian	1	Written	① Good overall pronunciation. ② Note "idea" is not pronounced "ideaer". ③ Note "It gonna cost" should be "it's gonna cost". ④ Key ideas in content are almost complete. ⑤ Pay attention to intonation. Too many falling tones, like in the if clause.	① FF – Attribute Isolation ② CF – Explicit Correction ③ CF – Explicit Correction ④ FF – Attribute Isolation ⑤ CF – Metalinguistic Clue
Tian	2	Written	① First sentence, grammar. "Some animals live in arctic have…" Here you want to use "living" instead of "live". ② Listen to the pronunciation of the name of the animal in the material: arctic snowy owl. ③ "I	① CF – Explicit Correction ② CF – Metalinguistic Clue ③ CF – Explicit Correction

			think that keep the quiet car on the train is a good idea". Change it to: "I think it's a good idea to have quiet cars." ④ Next sentence, "People are covering with electronic devices." Do you want to say, "People are wearing electronic devices?" ⑤ Phrases such as "learn new things" and "discover their hobby" are a bit abstract. You need concrete examples to explain. For example, a friend of yours uses a computer to develop an interest and learns new knowledge.	④ CF – Clarification Request ⑤ FF – Hints/Cues/Prompts
Tian	3	Written	① Be careful using the adjective "mean", which can mean someone is seriously bad. We don't normally use it on our family members. ② Add an example after the reason. For example, my parents criticize me when I get poor grades; however, my friends offer me help when I have some problems in math. ③ "Make	① FF – Bugs / Misconceptions ② FF – Hints/Cues/Prompts ③ FF – Hints/Cues/Prompts ④ CF – Metalinguistic Explanation

			mistakes" is a bit abstract here. An example may be when you learn English, you make some mistakes in grammar. Your mother still encourages you to speak English, because it's fluent overall. Another example could be learning how to ride a bicycle. ④ The phrase you used "all needs contribute" means everyone should contribute their effort in doing something. However, here you wanted to say, "Everything costs a lot." ⑤ Note the pronunciation of "foreigner". ⑥ Plus, the expression "foreign culture" is too abstract. You can mention the food, language, clothing, history, and so on.	⑤ CF – Metalinguistic Clue ⑥ FF – Hints/Cues/Prompts
Liang	1	Written	① Good summary of the reading material. ② Note the pronunciation of "officially". ③ The expression "if change" is not complete; change it to "if they make this change". ④ You	① FF – Attribute Isolation ② CF – Metalinguistic Clue

			said, “energy-infection”. It should be “energy-efficient”. ④ The expression is “agree with”, not “agree for”. ⑥ Note the pronunciation “campus” and “serve”.	③ CF – Explicit Correction ④ CF – Explicit Correction ⑤ CF – Explicit Correction ⑥ CF – Metalinguistic Clue
		Oral	① Officially. Officially. Officially. Energy efficient. Somebody agrees with… not agrees for. Campus. Campus. Campus. Serve. Serve.	① CF – Recast
Liang	2	Written	① Grammar, passive voice: We can be more self-disciplined. ② Copula: “We do not have time to free.” It should be “to be free”. ③ Also, you need to explain why you are not free. ④ Another grammatical error: “We should going to the gym.” It should be “We should go to the gym”. ⑤ Note the pronunciation of “personality”. Dress is not pronounced “draiss”. ⑥	① CF – Metalinguistic Clue ② CF – Explicit Correction ③ FF – Response Contingent ④ CF – Explicit Correction ⑤ CF – Metalinguistic Clue

			The example is unclear. Why does watching many videos influence his own personality? You need to explain. ⑦ Note the stress of the word "unique". ⑧ "I agree that students to agree with…" Here you want to use "should" to replace "to".	⑥ FF – Response Contingent ⑦ CF – Metalinguistic Clue ⑧ CF – Explicit Correction
		Oral	① Unique. Unique. Unique. Personality. Personality. Personality. Dress. Dress. Dress. Not dry-eyes.	① CF – Recast
Liang	3	Written	① Note it's "suggest somebody do", not "to do". ② Pronunciation: rack, destination, and squirrel. ③ Expression: "They eat nuts." "When winter is come…" Here it should be "When winter comes…"	① CF – Explicit Correction ② CF – Metalinguistic Clue ③ CF – Explicit Correction
		Oral	① Ack. Rack. Rack. Destination. Destination. Squirrel. Squirrel. Squirrel.	① CF – Recast
Liang	4	Written	① In your first sentence, what is the word that comes after "the reading proposes"? ② Pay attention to the	① CF – Clarification Request

			phrase “disagree with something”, as in “The woman disagrees with something”, not “The woman disagrees something”. ③ The idea “not noisy” or “quiet” should be covered in the response. ④ Pronunciation: species, select, threatened, habitat, awareness, macaw. ⑤ Also, population is not pronounced pollution.	② CF – Explicit Correction ③ FF – Response Contingent ④ CF – Metalinguistic Clue ⑤ CF – Explicit Correction
		Oral	① Species. Species. Select. Select. Threatened habitat. Threatened habitat. Awareness. Awareness. Awareness. Macaw. Macaw.	① CF – Recast
Rui	1	Written	① Good shadowing work. Both the pronunciation and the clarity are excellent. ② You didn’t summarize the reading material, and started directly from the listening material? ③ Grammar: “It usually costs 30 to 40 dollars.” Do not say “It’s usually cost…” ④ In one sentence, you said,	① FF – Attribute Isolation ② CF – Clarification Request ③ CF – Explicit Correction

			"Now he has less time." It's better to be a bit clearer and say, "Now he has less time to ride the bike."	④ FF – Response Contingent
Rui	2	Oral	① When pronouncing the vowel sound /e/, don't mix it with /i/. For example, bear is not pronounced beer. Another example is the word dance. Dance. Dancing around. Not dense.	① CF – Metalinguistic Explanation
Rui	3	Written	① Good shadowing work! Keep up! You did well in imitating the intonation here: "It's always businesspeople…"	① FF – Attribute Isolation
		Oral	① It's always businesspeople. It's always businesspeople.	① CF – Recast
Rui	4	Written	① Shadow one piece of listening material per day. Repeating simple things works wonder. ② Note the	① FF – Hints/Cues/Prompts ② CF – Explicit Correction

			pronunciation of the word “lack”. It’s not lake.	
		Oral	① Lack. Lack. Lack.	① CF – Recast
Luo	1	Written	① You said, “new technique”. Did you want to say, “new technology”? ② Please note the answer time for Task1 is 45 seconds, not 60 seconds. Therefore, the reasoning part should be more concise. ③ “Video games need to spend many time.” You want to use “cost” here, not “spend”, and replace “many” with “much”. ④ The example you gave is good with details. ⑤ “My sister don’t be taught…” It should be “… was not taught…”	① CF – Clarification Request ② FF – Bugs / Misconceptions ③ CF – Explicit Correction ④ FF – Attribute Isolation ⑤ CF – Explicit Correction
Luo	2	Written	① Good reasoning with an effective example. ② Grammar: “They come to university is to study.” This is a run-on sentence, with two verbs. You want to delete “is”. ③ All key points are covered. ④ Work more on fluency, as there are some noticeable	① FF – Attribute Isolation ② CF – Metalinguistic Explanation ③ FF – Attribute Isolation

			pauses. ⑤ You didn't mention the definition of the term in the reading material?	④ FF – Attribute Isolation ⑤ CF – Clarification Request
Luo	3	Written	① When doing shadowing, do not rush. Pronounce more clearly, such as the word "vegetables".	① FF – Topic Contingent
		Oral	① The listening material is pretty fast. When we are shadowing, we don't need to catch up with the speed. Instead, we want to imitate the pronunciation and intonation. We should first speak slowly but clearly. Vegetables. Vegetables. Vegetables.	① FF – Informative Tutoring
Luo	4	Oral	① Still, you need to slow down a bit. If you didn't catch some phrases in the listening material, simply roll back and listen to it again, and repeat till you are fluent. Take this part for example: "And you know what? That will be expensive. Even if it's only	① FF – Informative Tutoring

			two or three mornings a week, it's very expensive." Speak slowly, but clearly.	
Ming	1	Written	① Great shadowing work! ② "When I playing outside, I felt very comfortable." It should be "When I play outside, I feel very comfortable." ③ You mentioned lots of details in the example, with concrete nouns and opposition argument.	① FF – Response Contingent ② CF – Explicit Correction ③ FF – Response Contingent
Ming	2	Written	① Good shadowing work. Keep up! ② Think again about the reason in Task1. For example, you could say that you don't have to commute between home and school when having online classes. It saves your time and energy. You live relatively far away from school. It's tiring and time-wasting to take the subway.	① FF – Response Contingent ② FF – Hints/Cues/Prompts
Ming	3	Written	① Verb tense. Since the story happened "a long time ago", you should use past tense. ② Pronouns.	① CF – Metalinguistic Explanation

			Use the pronoun “it” when referring to a dog. If you are worried about misusing “he” as the pronoun for a dog, you can simply avoid using the pronoun and stick with the noun, which is the dog. ③ Note the stress of the word relict is in the first syllable. ④ When doing shadowing, do not over-pronounce the vowel sound. For example, ago is not pronounced a-giao.	② CF – Metalinguistic Explanation ③ CF – Metalinguistic Clue ④ FF – Bugs / Misconceptions
		Oral	① Relict behavior, relict behavior, relict. Long time ago, a long time ago, a long time ago.	① CF – Recast
Ming	4	Written	① Grammar: “If I going to the gym.” “He going to the gym.” Why “going”? ② Content: It’s fine to say that students are busy studying. However, does that mean they are so busy studying that they can’t spare any moment for the gym? In the example, you could say it takes time to recover	① CF – Clarification Request ② FF – Hints/Cues/Prompts ③ FF – Hints/Cues/Prompts

			from working out in the gym, or you used to go to the gym a lot in the past but got injured because of over-exercising. ③ Be more specific when you say you have different opinions with your instructor. For example, your instructor suggests you take a certain course, but you want to take another course that interests you.	
Lin	1	Written	① In task1, you stated three reasons. The last reason is "too many wars", which is not very close to the topic of this question, "healthful lifestyle". ② Since you mentioned food, you may want to clarify the logic? For example, people today eat better. They eat more meat, which provide sufficient protein. So, they are stronger and are not likely to fall ill. On the other hand, a hundred years ago, people did not have enough food, and many had mal-nutrition.	① FF – Response Contingent ② FF – Hints/Cues/Prompts

Lin	2	Written	① Overall good intonation and clarity! The reasons in task1 was sufficient. ② Word choice: "The place will be confused." What do you mean by "confused" here? ③ Collocation: "Primary school students should keep in the time." You wanted to say, "keep up with the times" here. ④ When stating reasons, try to avoid using "they can…" repeatedly, as you want to focus on one or two main reasons, not listing a whole lot of unrelated ones.	① FF – Response Contingent ② CF – Clarification Request ③ CF – Explicit Correction ④ FF – Topic Contingent
Lin	3	Written	① Grammar: "should provide", not "should to provide". ② The reason in task1 was well stated. ③ The key points in the reading and listening materials were covered in full, except for the last sentence, which should be "But the boss never changed his mind and continued to think that she was	① CF – Explicit Correction ② FF – Response Contingent ③ CF – Explicit Correction ④ FF – Attribute Isolation

			unreliable.” ④ Work more on fluency.	
Lin	4	Written	① When doing shadowing, if the listening material is too fast and hard to follow, pause, cut a long sentence into smaller chunks, and then shadow. ② Work more on liaison, “with you”.	① FF – Topic Contingent ② CF – Metalinguistic Clue
		Oral	① I’m not going to argue with you there. With you. With you. With you. With you.	① CF – Recast