Restudying Oral Corrective Feedbacks in EFL Classes of Jinan University—A Statistical Analysis of Discrepancies via SAS Software*

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Abstract—This paper intends to restudy teachers’ oral corrective feedbacks in English classes of Jinan University, China. Based on the data collection from classroom observations, questionnaires and interviews, with the use of SAS (Statistical Analysis System) software, the author discusses the findings of three research questions designed and reveals the discrepancies between students and teachers with regard to the frequencies of each technique teachers employed and student’s corresponding preferences. At the end of the paper, the author suggests the pedagogical implications of this research and points out that measure needs to be taken to deal with the discrepancies; otherwise it will affect the effectiveness of foreign language teaching and learning.

Index Terms—EFL class, oral corrective feedback, techniques, discrepancies, implications

I. INTRODUCTION

For a foreign language learner, making errors is almost inevitable. Although error treatment has for long been a controversial issue for linguists and language teachers, few would agree that we should just leave them alone. Corder S. P. (1967) argues that “errors are an integral part of language learning”. David Horner (1988) suggests that in language acquisition, corrective feedback is an indispensable component, and correction in itself is normally regarded and well received as it’s an essential classroom activity. Even Ellis (2008), who had held a skeptical view towards error correction, later admitted that “errors can show the psychological process of language learning, so they are not completely insignificant.” In fact, just as what Miroslaw Pawlak (2014) wrote, when learners are making errors, it is a fine good thing because they are testing their hypothesis about the target language they are learning. If they violate the rules, the feedbacks they receive will enhance their cognitive knowledge. For the teacher’s part, by analysis of the errors, he can also evaluate and assess their communicative competence on grammar, culture and context appropriateness. Therefore, error study, especially corrective feedback study, has both pedagogical implications for teachers as well as practical significance for learners.

II. PREVIOUS STUDIES

There were a few researchers who fixed their attentions on students’ and teachers’ beliefs and attitudes toward error correction. Ilona Leki (1991) was among the earliest. He argued that a given teacher and class of students must agree about what constitute improvement in writing and suggests that students’ expectations may need to be modified if students are to profit from teacher feedbacks on their compositions. Moreover, students are needed to alter their expectations if they intend to benefit from the teacher’s feedbacks. R. A. Schulz (1996) explored on this subject and conducted a pioneering research at University of Arizona, before reporting that discrepancies were most noticeable on the questions of error correction, the least agreement was on the desirability of correcting written mistakes, while the highest disagreement was found on the desirability of correcting oral mistakes. (ibid: 346) S. Loewen et al (2009) investigated a group of learners studying different target languages, such as French, Latin, Spanish etc, and revealed their different attitudes over the role of grammar instruction and error corrections and found that they were varied.

Nuriye and Selami (2017:37-51) fixed their attention on speaking class, however, and surveyed the teachers’ understanding and recognition of error correction before summarizing the strategies that the teachers employed in correction. Dea Rizky Ananda et al (2017) used qualitative approaches to find out what corrective feedback the students prefer, when and how the correction should be executed. Their research revealed that, for Indonesian college students investigated, repetition turned out to be most wanted and majority of the students preferred to be correctly immediately in classroom.

Domestically, Qiu Zhaojie (1997) did a research in this filed and published his paper in Foreign Languages World, an influential language journal reviewed by Shanghai University of Foreign Studies, one of the best universities in China.

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language studies. With the data collected from questionnaires and interviews, the students’ attitudes and requirements were obtained. He thought Hendrickson’s (1978) five questions speak for his needs and gathered information regarding the following five questions: (1) Is it a must learner’s errors should be corrected? (2) If yes, when the teacher should correct learner’s errors? (3) Of all errors, which should be not ignored? (4) How should the teachers correct the errors? (5) Who should take the initiative and do the correction job?

Guang Shi (2017) followed suit and employed Hendrickson’s five questions, explored the relationships between teachers’ and students’ attitudes, teachers’ actual corrective moves and their effects in college English classrooms in China. It was found that negotiation of form, favored by both teachers and students, had the best effects among all error correction types.

To summarize the previous researches conducted in other countries than China, they either focused too much on “form”, that is, adopted qualitative approach or were conducted in SLA context, while in China, English is being taught as a foreign language—English was not acquired, but learned for Chinese college students. The domestic researches heavily relied on Hendrickson’s five questions of “what to correct, whether to correct, when to correct and how to correct, who to correct”, without probing specifically into what practical techniques the teachers are using in classrooms, which provide more value to the teaching practice. What’s more, none of the researchers chose to observe the teacher’s classes and took inventory of the actual correction strategies the teachers employed and investigated students’ corresponding acceptances and preferences towards each one. Language teachers, especially when English is being taught as a foreign language (EFL) in China, researchers should attach more importance to gathering first-hand data from classroom teaching practice and the actual correction techniques.

This paper intends to fill this gap by collecting data from classroom observations, questionnaires, and interviews, and obtain information for the following three questions: 1) What are the practical moves in teachers’ corrective feedbacks and their respective employment frequencies? 2) What are the students’ views and preferences? 3) Are there any discrepancies between students’ attitudes and the employment frequency?

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Krashen: Affective Filter Hypothesis

Stephen Krashen (1982) put forward the Affective Filter Hypothesis and Input Hypothesis, in which he observed that input is the precondition for learning a language. The input should be comprehensible and better to be comprehended. It should also contain i+1, which means that it has to structure a bit beyond the acquirer’s current level, and but it is not enough to have input alone. In order to make the learners learn in an effective way, a low “affective filter” is necessary, because it allows the input “in”. (See figure 1)

![Krashen’s Affective Filter Hypothesis](image)

Though a hypothesis it is, the Affective Filter Hypothesis has significant connotations for language practitioners. It means that so long as the learner are learning in a highly-tense environment where they feel no security but anxiety, no comfort but dissatisfaction, no willingness but indispositions, even if the input is appropriate and sufficient which provide the i+1, he still cannot be a successful learner. A low-anxiety environment should be a prerequisite. As the teachers, we need to provide the learners a low or weak filter atmosphere. It holds true when dealing with errors on teacher’s part. Students are conscious of their self-image. So when the teachers are giving corrective feedbacks, if not processed as expected as they like them to be, emotions occur and filters arise. Even the best methodology can be filtered while everything left in learner’s mind is repulsion. Despite Krashen & Terrell (1983) later suggested that probably none of the methods can totally eliminate filters, the teachers’ goal in classroom practice is foremost guarantee that filters should not be built up inside the learners, or at least be minimized.

B. Learner-centeredness Approach

About 400 years ago, Galileo stated that he could not teach, his job was only to help the students discover it in themselves. Tudor (1996) said, “We are teaching people, not the material.” Hutchinson and Waters (1987) put forward the learner-centeredness approach and argued that the learning process should be totally decided by learner.
teacher’s role is to influence them, be a watcher, facilitator, coordinator and evaluator. The learner, with their internal knowledge, determines what to learn and how to learn it. Learner’s motivation and emotions, his acceptance of the teaching methodology is the key factor to the success of teaching. Adopting learner-centeredness approach, language teaching can never be a solo; instead, it should cater to the student’s views, attitudes, likings and expectations. Despite this approach was later challenged by other theorists and practitioners, it goes with saying that learning is mainly the learning’s job, especially when language learning is referred to. Hence, the teachers, with their oral corrective moves, which is an essential part of English classroom teaching, should never underplay the students’ feedbacks and the discrepancies, if possibly exist, between teacher’s corrective moves and students’ acceptance.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Questions

This research set out to investigate the actual oral corrective techniques teachers use in teaching practice in Jinan University, China and intended to find out the discrepancies between the teacher’s corrective moves and student’s expectations. To achieve this goal, the paper targeted at obtaining the answers for the following three questions: 1) What are the practical moves in teachers’ corrective feedbacks and their respective employment frequencies? 2) What are the students’ views and preferences? 3) Are there any discrepancies between students’ attitudes and the employment frequency?

B. Subjects

The research subjects included students, as well as teachers since both parties are involved. The number of subjects is 108, among which 37 males and 71 females. They are all from English Department, Shenzhen Tourism College of Jinan University, a key university which belongs to “211 project”. There were 4 full-time teachers from English department who participated in the investigation. Their courses included pronunciation course, intensive English and English listening & speaking.

C. Instruments

To obtain the original data, the researcher chose to observe the classroom, distribute questionnaires and interview the subjects. As an important part of the research, the paper chose SAS software to analyze the data. The employment of SAS software is to reveal the standard deviation and correlation of the two variables, namely the preferred corrective moves of the teacher and the students’ attitude towards each one.

D. Data Collection

The research underwent two periods. During the first period, the researcher, with the agreement of the teacher, sat at the rear part of the classroom and observe the classroom activity. He then noted down the correctives moves. In order not to interfere with the teaching operation, the research did not participate. During the second period, the research handed out the questionnaires to the students. With monitoring and guarantee that their feedbacks will not be shown to the teacher, students completed the survey independently. The researcher gathered the forms before interviewing them.

V. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. What Are the Practical Moves in Teachers’ Corrective Feedbacks and Their Respective Employment Frequencies?

Results:

Lyster & Ranta (1997) generalized six types of error correction techniques through classroom observation: (1) explicit correction, (2) recast, (3) clarification request, (4) metalinguistic feedback, (5) elicitation, and (6) repetition of error. For convenience of qualitative and quantitative analysis, the author will base the research on their research results. Yet in Jinan University, considering the different teaching environment and culture, the author also discovered that apart from these six, sometimes the teachers did not utter any words and simply resort to body language to imply there may be some errors in the students’ utterance. Moreover, under certain circumstances, the teachers simply interrupted, thus it was termed interruption.
As we can see from figure above, for the ratios of teacher’s employment of techniques, recast (32.3%) and elicitation (22.8%) ranked the highest while interruption ranked the lowest, with a ratio of only 1.5%. The following table presents specific numbers of corrective moves each teacher made in the class activity. Four teachers (1-4) taught pronunciation, oral and intensive English courses respectively. Table 1 elaborately records their usage frequencies of each technique and thus as teachers, their preferences can be revealed.

**Table 1. The Numbers and Ratios of the Moves**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Technique</th>
<th>Teacher 1 (Total: 146)</th>
<th>Teacher 2 (Total: 99)</th>
<th>Teacher 3 (Total: 90)</th>
<th>Teacher 4 (Total: 77)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recast</td>
<td>48 (33%)</td>
<td>30 (30%)</td>
<td>32 (36%)</td>
<td>23 (31%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicit Correction</td>
<td>34 (24%)</td>
<td>22 (23%)</td>
<td>18 (20%)</td>
<td>14 (22%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elicitation</td>
<td>21 (14%)</td>
<td>11 (11%)</td>
<td>10 (12%)</td>
<td>9 (9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarification Request</td>
<td>20 (14%)</td>
<td>14 (14%)</td>
<td>14 (13%)</td>
<td>10 (18%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetition of Error</td>
<td>13 (9%)</td>
<td>10 (10%)</td>
<td>6 (7%)</td>
<td>9 (10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metalinguistic Feedback</td>
<td>5 (3%)</td>
<td>4 (4%)</td>
<td>3 (4%)</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Body Language</td>
<td>2 (1%)</td>
<td>7 (7%)</td>
<td>5 (7%)</td>
<td>8 (8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interruption</td>
<td>3 (2%)</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
<td>2 (1%)</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Discussions:**

The teachers’ most preferred corrective moves are not necessarily producing best results.

From figure 2 and table 1, it was clearly presented that teachers, regardless of which course they are teaching, like to use recast as the primary technique to correct the students. It was partially because of its easy availability and teachers’ first reaction to students’ errors because they tend to repeat part or the whole lines that the students just said. As the initial of teacher’s doing so is to avoid hurting the students’ dignity while achieving the goal of correcting, recast has been proved to be the least effective method of correction.

Lyster & Ranta’s (1997) conducted a research 20 years ago and found that despite the teachers’ well intentions and partial likings towards recast, it had already been proved to be the most invalid and ineffective method. They even claimed that recast is not only useless, but also even prevent students from repairing the errors. In Lyster & Ranta’s research, for the four teachers, as part of the subject, of all the corrective moves, 55% are recasts for its easy access for tongue and operability. Nevertheless, later on, they were stunned by the fact that recast does not help students correct the error because they can not repair themselves at all when the next similar language context occur in which they are likely to make the similar mistakes. So they concluded that recast does not lead to any repair at all.

From what I can see in the English classroom teaching, the same things was happening—recast accounts for 32.3% of the total corrective moves. This is particularly worrisome. The researcher himself once saw a student who did a presentation on a smart gadget which enables the handicapped men to listen and feel through an application installed on smartphone:

*S: Through the use of this smart Application installed on our iPhone, we can manipulate their listening.* (Lexical
error)

T: Through the use of this smart Application installed on our iPhone, we can help with their listening (Recast)

The teacher repeated his utterance and recast a correct version. At the moment, the student’s uptake was positive and valid. However, several days later, when I was in the same class, he failed to use the same word again. Another student in intensive reading class, proved that elicitation was not effective either. She was then arguing with another classmate:

S: Katherine and I were good friends. He used to be with me whenever possible. (Grammatical)

T: Is Katherine a boy or girl? (elicitation)

S: A girl of course.

T: So you should use...?

S: She...

In this case, the girl’s uptake was immediate and impressive---she realized that she had made a mistake and instantly corrected them. The girl self-repaired the error once the teacher elicited her to correct herself while later on when she was delivering a speech on My Hero, she made the same mistake again. Although these incidences reconfirmed what Lyster and Ranta’s assumptions, it is a little bit rash to conclude that these 2 moves are ineffective at all. However, it at least indicated that the most preferred corrective moves do not necessarily overlap their efficacies.

B. What Are the Students’ Views and Preferences?

Results

In this section, the researcher handed out 108 pieces of questionnaires and managed to collect the data of students’ views and preferences towards each corrective technique that the teachers used. In accordance with students’ feedbacks, different scores are given from strongly disagree 0, disagree1, undecided 2, agree 3 to strongly agree 4. Table II reports specifically the scores for the eight techniques:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Techniques</th>
<th>Opinions</th>
<th>Strongly agree/Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Strongly disagree/Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Explicit Correction</td>
<td>64 (85.7%)</td>
<td>95 (95%)</td>
<td>1 (5.7%)</td>
<td>4 (4.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elicitation</td>
<td>55 (78.4%)</td>
<td>83 (83%)</td>
<td>1 (11.3%)</td>
<td>9 (16.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetition of Error</td>
<td>44 (76.4%)</td>
<td>81 (81%)</td>
<td>1 (13.2%)</td>
<td>6 (8.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Body Language</td>
<td>45 (72.6%)</td>
<td>77 (77%)</td>
<td>1 (14.2%)</td>
<td>6 (9.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarification Request</td>
<td>30 (61.3%)</td>
<td>65 (65%)</td>
<td>1 (14.2%)</td>
<td>16 (24.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metalinguistic Feedback</td>
<td>26 (53.8%)</td>
<td>57 (57%)</td>
<td>5 (4.7%)</td>
<td>27 (43.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recast</td>
<td>13 (21.7%)</td>
<td>23 (23%)</td>
<td>19 (17.9%)</td>
<td>33 (60.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interruption</td>
<td>0 (6.6%)</td>
<td>7 (7%)</td>
<td>8 (7.6%)</td>
<td>59 (85.8%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was suggested by table II that about 85.7% of the subjects preferred to be corrected explicitly. Of the 108 subjects, 64 expressed strong agreement and 31 expressed agreement to explicit correction. For elicitation, 78.4% (55) of the students echoed strong agreement and 28 fed back with agreement. It was quite surprising that body language was the third most preferred, with the percentage of 72.6%. 45 students told the researcher that they strongly agree and 32 students agree to it. On the other hand, understandably interruption was the least liked corrective technique; with 85.8% of the subjects reported they did not like to be interrupted while speaking as they think it is rude and rash since they have not finished the talk. “It holds me back from accomplishing my speech and is affecting the fluency,” one student said. Recast came next as the next most undesirable way of correction, with the a percentage as high as 60.3%. Totally only 27 students, of which 13 strongly agree and 14 agree, said they would accept this way, a comparatively low ratio as the total number of subjects is 108.

To obtain analytical data from SAS software and find out the discrepancies between the student’s preferences and teachers’ corrective methods, the author processed the data by adding up the total numbers of students who either strongly agree or agree a specific correction method. It was done for the easier operability of data processing and quantitative analysis.
Table III presents the figures of students who were holding favorable views towards the corrective techniques. This is done for the convenience of processing data in the next research question.

The highest column on Figure 3, as is evidently shown, is the explicit elicitation, while recast and interruption are the lowest two columns. What the author intends to do is to compare the data in Figure 2 and Figure 3, with the help of SAS software and find out their correlations, which is the main task of the next phase.

Discussions:
There are basically three facts that aroused the author’s interests from the results of research question 2. The first fact is that except for the recast and interruption which the students objected to apparently, there were no significant distinctions between the other 6 techniques, ranging over 17.2% to 11.7%. The reason for this is, if we delve into the psychological activity of the students, difficult for us to find out. That is the corrective moves that the teachers made are those which do not press them to correct right way and to large degree maintain their self image. While Jinan University is a key university in China which belongs to “211 project”, the majority of the students were rigorously recruited and chosen from high schools all over China, they have a higher self-esteem from years of successful academic career. They cannot stand being put down in front of their teacher and classmates; being corrected directly and abruptly a case. Therefore, it is understandable for them to be averse to the techniques which involve interruptions and recasts.

The second fact was discovered through the researcher’s analysis and collection of the interview recordings. The author interviewed the students and raised the questions about the reasons why they like or dislike certain corrective moves. They explained that it has something to do their favorite teaching style and the teachers’ personal charisma. For instance, one student who claimed to prefer clarification request explained the reason why he liked it because when teacher asked for correction and said, “Can you explain it in a clearer way, please?” the teacher proved to be patient and caring. Likewise, when correcting, if the teacher did not utter a single word, instead, he grimaced or shook his head with a smiling face or any other gestures, implicitly signaling that is a wrong expression, the teacher was a humorous veteran. Quite on the opposite, if the teacher uses the metalinguistic feedback, such as “not in that way”, he saw it as an indication that the teacher is being too arbitrary.

As for interruption, we still have some students who like it. For them, they do not care when and how the teachers correct them since any errors and mistakes are simply “intolerable”. “I do not care if my teacher corrects me to tears.
That is all about language learning.” One student said, “And when I was uttering a long sentence, if he does not interrupt me, both of us will forget about it after I finish.” While this is a minority, far more students reported that they feel hurt and discouraged when interrupted. Some even regarded it as a sign that they are academically inferior in the teachers’ minds, since when the academically better students made a mistake, teachers corrected them in a gentle and caring way. The learners with lower self-esteem often finish the learning task with unsatisfactory performance. Thus, it is the author’s belief that interruption should be avoided thoroughly.

C. Are There Any Discrepancies between Students’ Attitudes and the Employment Frequency?

With research question 1 and 2, as Figure 2 and 3 has shown, the teacher’s preferences of corrective technique and students’ corresponding attitudes were recorded and illustrated. For the next research question, the author is going to focus on “Are there any discrepancies between students’ attitudes and the frequencies of teachers’ corrective technique employment?” In this phase, a statistical software (SAS) will be employed. The major purpose of using SAS is to find out the standard deviation through comparing the two sets of data collected from questionnaire and classroom observations. Teacher’s employments of the each corrective technique are defined as variable one while student’s corresponding attitudes are defined as variable two. SAS software will then further analyze the correlation coefficients (CC) between the two sets of data. With the rationale of SAS software, if the CC is below 0, it indicates that there are no correlations, with which we can draw a conclusion that there are discrepancies between the teacher’s corrective moves and students’ expectations.

Results:

![3D Sequential Graph (gexuekui.stat3v8c)](image)

Figure 4 is full-color 3D sequential graph which indicates a sharp comparison between the two sets of data. Table IV shows the standard deviations (SD) of the two variables. According to Wikipedia, “In statistics, the standard deviation is a measure that is used to quantify the amount of variation or dispersion of a set of data values. A low standard deviation indicates that the data points tend to be close to the mean (also called the expected value) of the set, while a high standard deviation indicates that the data points are spread out over a wider range of values.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Valid N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Std.Dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student’s view</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12.47500</td>
<td>1.400000</td>
<td>19.50000</td>
<td>6.34705</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s employment</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12.50000</td>
<td>1.500000</td>
<td>32.30000</td>
<td>10.35705</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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As we can clearly see from this table, with student’s view 6.34 and teacher’s employment 10.35, as far as variance and diversity are concerned, the teachers application of the moves are more remarkable.

In the next part of the research, the author will find the correlations between the students’ view and teacher’s employment. The correlation coefficient (CC) is calculated to examine the relationship between the variables. By examining the CC, we are able find out whether the two sets of variables’ co relatedness. If the CC is above zero and higher, chances are that the variables are correlated. A low CC below zero will necessarily mean that the 2 variables are least correlated.

**Table V. Correlations of the two variables**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Student’s view</th>
<th>Teacher’s employment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student’s view</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s employment</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table tells that the CC is -0.03, smaller than 1.00. It conveys a clear message that the correlations between the student’s view and teacher’s employment are negative, or we shall put it more plainly, the two variables almost have no correlations. Figure 5 utilizes two curves to manifest their relationship more explicitly.

As is more observably displayed in this figure, there are 2 curves; the upper one being the teacher’s corrective technique curve and the one below is student’s view. The red line which passes through the figure is to tell the correlation of the two variables, or the two curves in the figure. According to the working mechanisms of SAS, the variables’ correlations are the greatest when the line across the figure is diagonal; a flat line implies the variables are least correlated. In this figure, the red line is nearly flat, almost parallel to the horizontal line at the bottom. Accordingly, a safe conclusion we shall come to that there exist limited correlations between the two variables, namely the student’s view and teacher’s employment.

**Discussions:**

With SAS software, we have processed the empirical data obtained from the teaching practice in Shenzhen Tourism College, Jinan University. Statistically, there are scarcely no correlations between the student’s expectations and the teachers’ actual corrective moves. Within the context of collaborative teaching, communicative teaching or even objective-oriented teaching approach, student-centeredness is a cornerstone upon which any theories or practices can never negate, especially when language teaching classes are concerned. A more or less blind conduction of error correction will inevitably lead the classroom teaching into an irreversible end, students being demotivated by the teacher’s haphazard usage of the corrective techniques and teachers on the other side, not aware of it at all. The bottom line is that the discrepancies we find from the research reflects that when treating errors of the students, they are not placed as the center of the teaching activities.
Nevertheless, in pedagogy, it has been long established recognition that “learner-centeredness” should be achieved as an ideal in teaching practice. No matter it is in the classes where language is acquired as a second language or learned as a foreign language, the bilateral intercommunication, together with the students’ affection, accounts for the effectiveness of the teaching. If we do not bear it in mind, according to Smith (1997), the consequences can be serious. He observed that the result is that students will feel deeply alienated and helpless, and become indifferent with unstable intellectual and psychological state, together with abnormal individuality and obsessive and sensitive self-consciousness. As Smith’s words may drive it too far, Nunan (1988) was more objective. He states that in classroom teaching, both learners and teacher should collaborate with each other, in an effort to sort out problems and make decision. The learners should be center of all classroom activities; even the choice of content, and the teaching methodology should be decided by them. As a teacher, he is just one participant in the classroom activity. What the teacher plans and teaches should all be resonant with the student’s needs. Scrivener (1994) generalizes the meanings of error correction and points out that the ultimate purpose of correcting students’ errors is to help them build up confidence; raise consciousness of articulating the target language more accurately while acknowledging their improvement and accomplishments. But given the fact that error correction was practiced in such a un harmonious way, the f ours aim suggested by Scrivener cannot be achieved easily.

The researcher also interviewed the four teachers, who unanimously asserted that they had adopted Communicative Approach, which is predominantly a recognized methodology in Chinese language teaching classes. While Communicative Language Teaching Approach argues that in the communicative activities, the teacher’s role is counselor, facilitator and organizer. However, according to the statistical analysis, obviously, when teachers are correcting errors, both parties lack of understanding both technically and psychologically. As a necessary result, student’s “affective filter” will probably be so much heightened that they lose motivation and interest. Thus necessary measures are called for.

VI. Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

Based on the research findings and analysis, the following conclusion shall be drawn. Firstly, apart from the six techniques suggested by Lyster& Ranta, two more, body language and repetition, were found by the author. Recast was most frequently used by the teachers whose classes were observed. 2) With the data collected through questionnaire and interview, students prefer to be rectified by explicit correction techniques while recast and interruption were disliked.3) Discrepancies do exist between students’ expectations and teacher’s preferences for corrective moves.

Pedagogically, this research has some practical implications: First, the teachers need to keep affective filter in mind, and aim at enhancing confidence and fluency as the purpose of correction. Second, the teachers should constantly evaluate the effectiveness of their corrective moves through seminars and interviews so as to find out the problems and use remedial measures to meet the student’s needs and expectations. Third, due to the fact that individuals differ from each other, the teachers can consider using diversified corrective techniques, with the precondition that students are encouraged and motivated. Finally, no matter what technique may be employed, students ought to be placed as the center of activity. A firm belief shall be held that with students’ confidence, strong motivation and moderate anxiety, teachers can obtain satisfactory effects from their corrective moves. The author sincerely hopes the research can help the current teaching practice and future researches.

REFERENCES


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