Beliefs and Practices:

A Case Study on Oral Corrective Feedback

in the Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (TCFL) Classroom

by

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ABSTRACT

This case study explores similarities and differences between the instructors' beliefs about oral corrective feedback and their actual practices in a summer Chinese program. This kind of feedback is beneficial for beginning college-level learners of Chinese to improve their speaking accuracy. The researcher conducted face-to-face interviews with two teachers of Chinese, focusing on their beliefs about oral corrective feedback in their language classrooms. In addition, the researcher recorded teacher-student interactions through class observation in order to analyze the teachers' actual practices of oral corrective feedback. The main findings show that the teachers hold similar beliefs on oral corrective feedback and its beneficial role in helping improve learners speaking accuracy. The fact is that they frequently provide oral corrective feedback in classroom, mostly using recasts. Implications are discussed in view of the necessity of using explicit feedback and recasts appropriately. In addition, this study demonstrates the need for specific professional development and teacher training about how to provide efficient corrective feedback.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

My interest in the topic of oral corrective feedback in the Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (TCFL) classroom is born of personal experiences as a tutor and a teaching assistant of beginning-level Chinese at an American state university. Chinese learners at the beginning level constantly produce words or speech with pronunciation or grammatical errors. Meanwhile, their teachers correct these errors in the classroom with patience and persistence. This phenomenon raised my interest in how researchers react to this pedagogical issue. Study of this topic revealed that many researchers agree that there has been a growing interest in corrective feedback in Second Language Acquisition in the last several decades (Chaudron 1988; Lyster 1997). In particular, oral corrective feedback has recently gained prominence in studies of second language education field (Lyster 1997; Sheen 2004, Ellis 2006). An (2006) noted that most studies on oral corrective feedback fall into two categories. Studies in the first category unitarily measure the quantity of the teacher's corrective types and corrective moves toward learners' grammatical errors in oral production. For example, Lyster and Ranta (1997) studied the distribution and frequency of six types of corrective feedback in a French immersion classroom at the primary level. Panova (2002) studied patterns and rates of corrective feedback in an adult ESL classroom. The other category noted by An contains studies which analyze the effectiveness of a certain type of corrective feedback. Given the difficulty of

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reaching consensus on the appropriate tool for measuring the effectiveness of corrective feedback, oral corrective feedback has inspired ongoing debates for a long time.

The present study reviews the current research on Chinese teachers' perception and application of oral corrective feedback. Inspired by the relevant research, this study then adds to the existing research by describing what teachers of Chinese believe and analyzing their corrective discourse through observation of their actual classroom practices. Furthermore, the present study includes the pedagogical implications of oral corrective feedback in promoting the Teaching of Chinese as a Foreign Language in the United States.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This section presents and reviews the research literature on teachers' beliefs regarding language teaching and issues being studied in the field of corrective feedback research.

Brief review of teacher's beliefs. Substantial research on the concept of belief has been done in recent years. However, researchers still find it difficult to define clearly the term of "belief" (Borg, 2001), since a teacher's belief involves individual thought processes, which are not readily observable or measurable. Eisenhart, *et al.* (1988) noted that the study of beliefs in various fields has resulted in diverse meanings for the term. The educational research community has been trying to adopt a single meaning or explanation but has failed to reach a consensus. About 30 years ago, Fenstermacher (1979) predicted that the study of teachers' beliefs would be the focus of research for working on effective teaching. More recently, Pintrich (1990) advanced the idea that beliefs will ultimately prove the most valuable psychological construct for teacher education. Fang (1996) notes that all teachers hold beliefs, however defined and labeled, about their work, their students, their subject matter, and their roles and responsibilities. Furthermore, Nisbett and Ross (1980) also pointed out that teachers' theories and beliefs represent their rich store of general knowledge of objects, people, events, and their characteristic relationships, which affect

teachers' planning and interactive thoughts and decision, as well as their classroom behavior. However, Prawat (1992) noted that teachers' approaches to teaching and learning are usually not consistent with their beliefs, which impedes the reform of education. To some extent, Prawat also views teachers as major obstacles in the development of education. Only when teachers are willing to reflect on their views and the gap between their belief and practices, as well as to work to address this gap with effort, will teaching and learning be effectively improved. He suggests that teachers should rethink their roles and reflect on their own teaching as well as on learners' learning processes, rather than just holding onto old beliefs, teaching the fixed contents dictated by the general curriculum, or insisting on static conceptions of learners.

Basturkmen, *et al.* (2004) holds a similar point of view as many other researchers do (Johnson, 1992; Borg, 2001; Pajares, 1992). They reported that teachers' beliefs guided or shaped their thoughts and behavior regarding their classroom teaching. To investigate the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practices in classroom, Basturkmen, *et al.* (2004) did an empirical study that focused on teachers' stated beliefs and practices regarding incidental focus on form in their classroom. They found that there were inconsistencies between the teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices. They conducted the study through collecting data and analyzing data that was obtained from observation of three teachers' classroom interactions and self-reporting. There were three parts in the self-reporting, including in-depth interviews, cued-response scenarios, and

stimulated recall. The results of this study showed clear differences among these three teachers' beliefs, which include the differences on individual behaviors. Moreover, all three teachers demonstrated inconsistencies in their stated beliefs about focus on form. They all expressed agreement about the importance of maintaining the communicative flow of the lesson. However, they actually repeatedly addressed some questions on the form, which indeed impeded the flow. Finally, the authors concluded that the relationship between teachers' stated beliefs and unplanned behavior in the aspects of focus on form in the classroom teaching was weak and tenuous.

An exploratory case study that has also examined teachers' beliefs and classroom practices on grammar teaching is that of Farrell and Lim (2005), which presents findings that indicate that teachers have complex belief systems. The authors conducted their study in a primary school in Singapore and collected data through pre-study interviews with two teachers. The data includes two non-participatory observations of the teachers' classes with pre-class and post-class interviews, as well as a collection of random samples from students' composition scripts. Interestingly, both teachers strongly believe grammar drills should be practiced in classroom language teaching. One of the reasons is their own experience of learning English in the past, from which they thought they benefited. Although they received training in new methodologies of teaching grammar, they deeply believed that the traditional methodology that had been most effective for them would also benefit most of their students. In addition, Borg (2001) notes that the

explicit theories teachers had about education and learners had also implicitly influenced the teachers' decision-making during the instructional process and the final practice. Ashton (1990) also holds the same idea that all teachers, whether pre-service, beginning, or experienced, hold implicit theories about students. These ideas influenced teachers' beliefs regarding teacher education and teaching practice.

Previous research on corrective feedback

Corrective feedback

Even though Truscott (1996, 1999) argued that error correction in both L2 grammar instruction and L2 writing should be abandoned because his substantial research indicated that it was ineffective and had harmful effects on language learning and teaching, nobody would deny that corrective feedback remains a common practice in classroom language teaching. Moreover, research on corrective feedback in language instruction has progressed tremendously over the past two decades. A considerable amount of varied research in this field has contributed to the theoretical understanding of second language acquisition. Now, the movement to abandon corrective feedback has all but subsided; on the contrary, much in-depth research on the effectiveness of corrective feedback in benefiting second language learners has been done, which also proves the value of corrective feedback in language teaching. DeKeyser (1993) pointed out that error correction is a controversial issue in the second language acquisition literature,

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because it is often subsumed under the more general term "negative evidence." In fact, corrective feedback (Fanselow, 1977), error correction (Hendrickson, 1978), negative evidence (White, 1989), prompts (Ammar and Spada, 2006), negative feedback (Carroll and Swain, 1993), focus on forms (Lightbown and Spada, 1990; Long, 1991) are all different labels referring to the same language teaching issue, namely "how competent speakers react to learners' language errors" (Lyster, 1997). The different labels reflect different research concerns and different approaches to data collection (Schachter, 1991).

Meta-analysis on the effectiveness of corrective feedback

In recent years, as the research on corrective feedback has accumulated, meta-analysis, which combines a large number of studies and summarizes the findings across primary studies, has become a preferred method of research synthesis regarding the effectiveness of corrective feedback (Li, 2010). Norris and Ortega (2000) carried out a meta-analysis on the effectiveness on second language instruction of focus on form. They collected empirical studies published between 1980 and 1998, and their results showed that explicit instruction had a significantly greater effect than implicit instruction.

Another meta-analysis study on the effectiveness of corrective feedback was conducted by Russell and Spada in 2006. They defined the term corrective feedback as "any feedback provided to a learner, from any source, that contains evidence of learner error of language form," which may be oral or written,

implicit or explicit. Their analysis collected 56 studies from 1984 to 2003 on the topic of corrective feedback, which divided these collected studies into different categories, and made comparisons to present an overview of research on corrective feedback. They found that although corrective feedback research is a relatively young field of inquiry, it is gaining momentum. As for the research design and context of these studies, more than 60% of the studies were experimental or quasi-experimental and the rest were observational or descriptive. Researchers of the published studies showed a preference for classroom-based research over laboratory context. Russell and Spada also found that most of the studies focused on learners' oral errors and teachers' oral corrective feedback rather than on the written corrective feedback. The findings of the meta-analysis indicated that researchers in their primary studies most frequently examined recasts out of the different types of oral corrective feedback and that they most frequently chose to examine feedback indicating the location of errors amongst other types of written feedback. Despite variables in these studies, the authors found that corrective feedback was beneficial and suggested that if the variables could be examined in a consistent manner, corrective feedback research could be further developed in the future.

Another meta-analytical approach worth looking at in terms of the effectiveness of corrective feedback is Li (2010), which retrieved 33 primary studies, including 22 published articles and 11 doctoral dissertations. Li (2010) noted that "the past decade has witnessed a rapid increase in empirical research on the effectiveness of

corrective feedback" (309-310). In fact, there was great interest among researchers to investigate the effectiveness of corrective feedback; some researchers have found that corrective feedback was effective in either written or oral form (Leeman, 2003; Lyster, 2004).

Experimental and observational research on corrective feedback

Various experimental/ quasi-experimental and observational studies have been conducted to examine the issues related to corrective feedback. One of the experimental studies designed by Ellis, *et al.* (2006) was aimed at investigating the relative efficacy of explicit and implicit types of corrective feedback through comparing the learning effectiveness of both during the instruction of a target grammatical structure, in this case, the past tense. The explicit type of corrective feedback refers to explicit error correction in the form of metalinguistic information and the latter one refers to implicit error correction in the form of recasts. They recruited 34 participants, a majority of whom were of East Asian origin and intermediate-low English proficiency, and divided them into three groups. In their methodological design, Group 1 received implicit feedback, Group 2 received explicit feedback, and Group 3 received no feedback as a reference for Groups 1 and 2. All the participants went through three phases of tests: a pretest prior to the instruction, an immediate test one day after instruction, and a delayed test, which was carried out two weeks after instruction. Three different testing instruments with different foci were employed during the study, including an oral imitation test, a written grammaticality judgment test, and

a metalinguistic knowledge test. The findings of this study indicate that explicit feedback in the form of metalinguistic information is ultimately more effective than implicit feedback in the form of recasts. Furthermore, explicit feedback seems more likely to promote the cognitive comparison that provides assistance with learning. The authors applied unique methodologies in their experimental study, incorporating online corrective feedback and classroom-based instruction, rather than being only laboratory-based, and gathering data through the context of learners' communicative tasks. However, this experimental treatment started after the teachers already introduced the target structure, which means the target structure wasn't new knowledge to the learners. To some extent, then, the results were less trustworthy. When the researchers began to collect data, they identified the learners' language proficiency level as intermediate low; however, the learners' cognitive level of the target knowledge was not at the same level because their previous exposure to various uncontrolled corrective feedback may have impacted their processing of new knowledge.

While some experimental studies showed significant findings on the effectiveness of corrective feedback, some studies ended up with no salient evidence to prove the researchers' hypotheses. DeKeyser (1993) was one of those who had unexpected findings in his research. He conducted a study among thirty-five Dutch-speaking high school seniors learning French as a second language. Two teachers of French with similar educational backgrounds used the same thematically-organized textbooks to teach these students for a full school year.

While one teacher was asked to correct learners' errors as frequently and explicitly as possible, the other one was asked to avoid error correction as much as possible in their French instruction. The treatment process involved two modalities of tests, one in oral form, which included three oral communication tasks-- interview, picture description, and story-telling, and the other one in written form—a fill-in-the-blank test. After he selected 10 class periods to do the transcription and data collection and analysis, DeKeyser (1993) found that some of the results met his hypotheses while some of them were beyond his expectation. Basically speaking, there were no statistically significant differences evident between the group that received extensive corrective feedback during normal class activities and the group that received very limited explicit corrective feedback. However, his findings in this study noted that learners with high language aptitude, high extrinsic motivation, and low anxiety benefited the most from error correction. Unlike most other studies on the effectiveness of corrective feedback which only focus on the moves or turns of external language form between teachers and learners, DeKeyser (1993) pointed out that components of mind, as well as learners' individual characteristics, have significant impacts on the learners' response to teachers' feedback and their processing of new knowledge.

According to Russell and Spada's (2006) statistics in their meta-analysis on the effectiveness of corrective feedback, the number of experimental/quasi-experimental studies was more than twice as much as the number of

observational/descriptive studies. Although the quantity of observational studies on corrective feedback is less than experimental studies, the results of observation studies are still valuable because they explore corrective feedback in an authentic classroom environment and in authentic classroom interactions.

One of the observational studies conducted by Panova and Lyster (2002) investigated the patterns of error treatment in an adult ESL classroom. More specifically, they studied the frequency distribution of different types of corrective feedback in the classroom. They transcribed 10 hours of classroom interaction and meticulously analyzed learner errors and teacher feedback, as well as learner uptake, which means the learner's response to teacher feedback. Totally, the authors collected 1,716 student turns and half of them were erroneous and in need of repair, and one quarter of 1641 teacher turns were corrective feedback provided by teachers, which indicated that almost half of the student turns with errors received corrective feedback. The results reported that the teachers had a salient preference for implicit recasting of student errors, and the frequency distribution showed that recasts were the most frequently used type of feedback, which was in accordance with the findings obtained in other observational studies with child and adult language learner (Fanselow, 1977; Lyster and Ranta, 1997). Immediate outputs like learner's uptake and repair were both treated as measurements of effectiveness of corrective feedback in Panova and Lyster's study. The findings of their study indicate that the less frequently used types of feedback, such as repetition and elicitation resulted in the highest rate of learner repair. On the

contrary, recasts, which dominated the feedback types in the classroom interaction, elicited the least learner uptake and repair. However, Mackey, *et al.* (2003) noted that although immediate incorporation of feedback into the production of modified output may not be a reliable indicator of the long-term effects of negative feedback, the hypothesized benefits of feedback make it an interesting object of investigation" (48).

Another descriptive study on the relationships of corrective feedback and learners' uptake is Sheen (2004), which has findings similar to those of Panova and Lyster's (2002) study. Sheen's (2002) is one of the very few studies which attempted to investigate corrective feedback across instructional settings. Besides one source of data collected by herself, she also adopted the existing data from published research, namely from Lyster and Ranta (1997), Panova and Lyster (2002), and Ellis, et al. (2001). The findings indicated that recasts were the most frequently used type of corrective feedback in four different communicative classroom settings, including French immersion, ESL in Canada, ESL in New Zealand and EFL in Korea. However, the rate of learner uptake and repair following recasts varied in different contexts, and the study suggested that if the language instruction were to focus more on linguistic form rather than meaning, the rate of learner uptake would be greater. This comparison between corrective feedback and learner uptake in four different contexts is an adventurous trial. However, some problems should be carefully taken into consideration. Actually, not only are the objective environments different, but the subjects of this study are

also totally different: the teachers had different educational backgrounds and teaching experience, the learners were of different ages and of different language proficiency levels, etc. The value of this research also shows that even in different contexts, language teaching shares some similar characteristics. And this is an interesting topic that researchers in different language contexts can learn from each other and get more valuable findings to promote language teaching.

Recast as one of the most frequently used types of corrective feedback

As researchers conduct more studies in the area of corrective feedback, the studies explore in ever greater depth each specific type of corrective feedback. In particular, recasts, among all types of corrective feedback, get the most attention. Long (2007) defined recasts as a reformulation of all or part of a learner's immediately preceding utterance. This reformulation may include non-target corrections, such as lexical or grammatical ones. Many studies show that recasts are the most frequently used type of corrective feedback. In Sheen's (2004) study, she compared four classrooms in different contexts where English was taught as a foreign language or a second language, and the results indicated that recasts were the most frequent feedback type used by different teachers. Lyster and Ranta (1997) collected observational data from four French immersion classrooms taught by four different teachers and found that recasts were the most commonly used type of feedback. Ellis et al. (2001) examined focus-on-form practices in intensive adult ESL classrooms in New Zealand. They reported that recasts were the most dominant type of feedback.

Although many studies report that recasts are widely used in language classrooms, the effects of recasts on language acquisition are still debated. Doughty and Varela (1998) noted that recasts have a beneficial effect on acquisition, especially when the recasts are more explicitly used in nature. However, Sheen (2004) doubted whether recasts promote acquisition of implicit knowledge, because the results of her study indicated that students were oriented to the form of language rather than the meaning by recasts or partial recasts. In addition, Lyster (1998) argues that the function of recasts is ambiguous, because sometimes students cannot differentiate between recasts and non-corrective repetition, which occurred equally frequently in the language classroom he observed. Furthermore, Lyster (1998) and Sheen (2004) both found that repair occurred less frequently following recasts than following other types of feedback. Although Sheen (2004) pointed out that repair cannot be taken as a measure of learning, it could be one of the measures to show whether learners have noticed the correction. That is to say, there's less noticing following recasts or fewer learners attending to the linguistic form. Ellis and Sheen (2006) further note that the significance of repair following recasts remains in debate and that the acquisitional value of recasts has been overestimated even though they have been used frequently. More importantly, they think researchers should not only focus on the cognitive aspect of recasts, but they should conduct some more studies on the social and sociocognitive aspects of recasts as well.

Research on corrective feedback in the field of Chinese

Although a few studies related to corrective feedback in Chinese have been published in recent years, some unpublished doctoral dissertations shed light on the development of research on corrective feedback in Chinese. One work worth mentioning here is Han (2010), which is a case study investigating the relative effects of implicit feedback in the form of recasts and explicit feedback in the form of meta-linguistic feedback on the acquisition of Mandarin classifiers by Chinese heritage language (CHL) and nonheritage language (non-CHL) learners. The results revealed that both types of corrective feedback effectively facilitated learners' language acquisition. In addition, learners' background as Chinese heritage also affected their notice of the feedback. One of the problems in this study is that the author recruited Chinese heritage learners as volunteer participants. Although she mentioned the average length of these Chinese heritage learners' stay in China, the length of time spent in China is not an adequate measurement of learners' language proficiency. In fact, there are far more factors having a greater effect on Chinese heritage learners' four modalities of language proficiency. What if they speak other dialects instead of Mandarin when they stay in China? What if they can understand Mandarin but communicate with others mostly in English? Therefore, it's difficult to extrapolate the Chinese heritage learner's language proficiency from the mere length of their stay in China. An's (2006) is another study investigating error correction in the zone of proximal development (ZPD) through oral interaction with beginning learners of

Chinese as a foreign language. An (2006) observed an oral tutorial session, in which one tutor helped two beginning students, examined the types of feedback provided by the tutor, and analyzed how errors in the target grammatical structures were eliminated. The findings of his study imply that grammatical accuracy is not the ultimate goal of language teaching and learning: meaningful communication is more important. Despite these implicit implications, An explicitly calls for all errors, whether salient or not, to be corrected from the beginning: he believes that it is short-sighted to ignore so-called "unimportant" errors. However, this is an extreme demand on language teachers that reflects a failure on An's part to take some factors into consideration, such as the time limit of classroom instruction, as well as individual differences in personality and motivation.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Research Questions

In this research, I specifically seek answers to the following questions:

1. What are the beliefs of teachers of Chinese on oral corrective feedback in the TCFL classroom?

2. What are their actual practices? How and when do teachers of Chinese provide oral corrective feedback in the TCFL classroom? What types of corrective feedback do they usually use in the TCFL classroom?

3. What are the similarities and differences between their beliefs and their actual practices?

Research Design

This case study was conducted in an American state university which runs a summer program offering beginning-level Chinese courses. There are two periods in this summer program, both of them are 5-week long.

This case study mainly investigated the beliefs of Chinese teachers in the summer program and their actual instructional practices regarding oral corrective feedback in a beginning-level Chinese language classroom. It gathered and analyzed data from participant teacher interviews and classroom observations.

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Data Collection

This section introduces the data collection process. As a qualitative research study, the study collected data from two sources: teacher interviews and class observations. I began my data collection with an online class search. I identified the two teachers scheduled to teach Chinese during the summer program, and I contacted them, introducing my study and getting their permission to interview them and to observe their classes.

The first data source is comprised of teacher interviews. The teachers I recruited as volunteers were Chinese teachers at an American state university who taught Chinese in the summer program. Teacher 1 (T1) is an American male who learned Chinese as a foreign language. Teacher 2 (T2) is a Chinese female and native speaker of Chinese. After I got the approval to do this research from the Institutional Review Board, I made an appointment to interview T1 one week after he started the summer program. I showed him the formal documents I have to conduct this study, and I got his permission to conduct audio-recording of the interview. During the interview, I collected information through asking questions about his educational background, teaching experience, and design of the curriculum and syllabus in the summer program, as well as by asking detailed questions about his understanding of his own practice of oral corrective feedback in his Chinese language classroom. I conducted a similar interview with T2 when she began teaching in the summer program later.

The second data source is made up of class observation. I chose to go to visit T1's and T2's classes randomly, which meant that I didn't inform the teachers in advance that I would attend their class at a particular time. The reason I did so is that I didn't want them to prepare for my visits and change their own habits of teaching to cater to my research. Basically, this was all I could do to reduce my influence on their teaching and to preserve the authenticity of their teaching. Moreover, my class observation covered various types of classes, including grammar instruction, dialogue study, language practice activities, *etc*. I didn't specify any particular type of class, because of the same reason that I didn't want the teachers to know which class I would visit. Therefore, these measures reduced the impact of my presence in the classroom.

As I interviewed the teachers and observed the classes, I also used an electronic device to make audio-recordings with the teachers' permission for future data analysis.

Coding schemes

This research mainly examines errors in two categories, pronunciation errors and grammatical errors, during teacher-student interaction. The first category includes errors on the initial consonant or the vowels, as well as the four tones. The latter one roughly includes errors on lexical choices and word orders.

This present study has adopted Lyster and Ranta's taxonomy of corrective types, which includes the following six types of corrective feedback: explicit correction,

metalinguistic clues, recasts, elicitation, clarification requests, and repetition. The error treatment starts with a learner's erroneous utterance followed either by the teacher's corrective feedback or by topic continuation. The learner may also respond to the teacher's corrective feedback, which is namely learner uptake. Uptake may be repaired or need repair in some way.

Different types of corrective feedback and examples:

T=Teacher   S=Student

Explicit correction directly points out that the learner's utterance is incorrect. Mostly, the teacher provides the correct form in this case.

  Example 1:

    1. S: 我昨天在图书馆看了王鹏。(Erroneous utterance)

    2. T：No, 看见了。(Explicit correction)

Metalinguistic clue refers to some information or comments posed by the teacher to guide the learners to think of the corrective answer, but the teacher doesn't provide the correct form.

Example 2:

    1. S：我不能功课。(Erroneous utterance)

    2. T：我不能功课？I CAN'T HOMEWORK? USE "把 "STRUCTURE.(Metalinguistic clue)

    3. S:把功课给你。(Uptake)

    4. T：对不起，我今天不能把功课给你。

This example shows a case in which a learner produces an incorrect utterance and the teacher indicates the error without explicitly saying "you are wrong." In this example, as is sometimes the case, the learner does not produce any uptake to repair their error. Next, the teacher provides a metalinguistic clue in English, which the leaner understands and is able to act on in order to repair the error immediately.

Recast is a type of corrective feedback in which the teacher implicitly reformulates the learner's error or provides the correct form without explicitly pointing out that the learner's utterance is incorrect.

Example 3:

1. T： 书店离 MM BULDING 远吗？

2. S：一点儿远？(Erroneous utterance)

3. T：有一点儿远，有一点儿远。(Recasts)

This is an example that clearly demonstrates recast during language teaching. In Turn One, a learner produces an incorrect utterance containing a grammatical error. In Turn Two, the teacher doesn't say the student is wrong; instead, she implicitly reformulates the sentence without interrupting the communicative practice. She sets up a question with the reformulation of the correct form of that grammar point, forcing the learner to respond to her question with that grammar point, too, in the correct form. However, we need to consider that even when the learner's uptake seems repaired, we cannot guarantee that the learner has mastered this grammar point and will have no problem in future use. On one

hand, the leaner uptake is grammatically right to the question. However, on the other hand, the student may have simply repeated the teacher's utterance without noticing his own error. Moreover, the uptake is not a full sentence, so it's not clear if the learner can use the correct form in his future utterance.

Elicitation refers to a corrective feedback in which the teacher elicits the leaners to produce the correct form by asking questions or by pausing to allow the learner to complete the teacher's utterance.

Example 4:

1. T: 怎么说 "these three students"?

2. S: 这个三个学生。(Erroneous utterance)

3. T：再来。(Elicitation)

4. S：这些三个学生。(Uptake with repair)

In Turn Two, the learner produces an erroneous utterance. In Turn Three, the teacher asks the learner to try again; in other words, she implicitly tells the learner that the former utterance is incorrect and encourages him to think about this grammar point for a while. Finally, in Turn Four, the learner successfully repairs the error.

Clarification request refers to a type of corrective feedback in which the teacher uses phrases like "Excuse me?" or "I don't understand," thereby indicating that the message has not been understood or that the learner's utterance contained some kind of mistake and that a repetition or a reformulation is required.

Example 5:

1. T: 凤凰城有几个季节？

2. S：2 个。(Erroneous utterance)

3. T：什么？Johnny, 再说一遍？(Clarification request)

4. S: 2 个。(Uptake but needs repair)

5. T：2 个对吗？(Elicitation)

6. S：哦，两个。(Uptake with repair)

In Turn Three, the teacher asks "what?" and requires the student to "say it again." This is certainly not the teacher's hearing or understanding problem, but a reminder to the learner that there is an error in his former answer. However, in this example, the learner repeats the erroneous utterance in his uptake. At this moment, he may think that the teacher really didn't hear clearly without realizing that the problem lay in his utterance. In Turn Five, the teacher elicits the learner to think over his oral production again. Finally he notices his error and repairs it by himself. This example demonstrates a combination use of two types of corrective feedback in the teacher-student interaction, which is commonly seen in language classroom teaching. It also reflects the flexibility of teacher's treatment on leaners' errors.

Repetition refers to corrective feedback in which the teacher repeats the learners' errors and adjusts intonation to draw their attention to it. Finally, it encourages learners to do the self-repair.

Example 6:

1. T：昨天晚上，你除了看电视， 还做什么了？

2. S：除了看电视，还吃了午饭。(Erroneous utterance)

3. T：午饭？(Repetition with rising intonation)

4. S：哦， 晚饭。(Uptake with repair)

In this case, the teacher repeats the learner's erroneous utterance with rising intonation to question the use of "*wufan*" in a context of talking about evening activity. In fact, in this example, the learner did not make a grammatical error, but he failed to negotiate the contextual meaning.

During class observation I employed audio-recording, and the instrument I used was a Sony recorder. Moreover, I adapted "IRF pattern" to transcribe the audio-recording. IRF is short of initiation-response-feedback, and is a system developed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1992) for the analysis of classroom discourse. The classroom discourses I focused on were comprised of teachers' responding to learner language errors in speaking.

For the recording of the interview, I jotted down notes on the teachers' answers to each of my questions and got an overarching idea of their beliefs and teaching experiences regarding oral corrective feedback. For the recording of the class observations, as I listened to my recording after class, I chose to focus on my target, the interactions when learners made errors in their speech and teachers responded to the errors, rather than transcribing word-by-word all interaction between teachers and students.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Data analysis. I interviewed T1 and T2 with the same 20 questions, both interviews lasted around 40 minutes.

T1's educational background and teaching experience. T1 is a fourth-year Ph.D. student who majors in Chinese literature at the School of International Languages and Literature at an American state university. He has been teaching Chinese for around 6 years as a Teaching Assistant. He mainly teaches Chinese to students at levels from novice-low to intermediate-mid. For the past two years, he has been teaching Second-year Chinese. He also taught in the same Chinese program last summer.

T1's Chinese class in the Summer Program. T1 taught First-year Chinese 1 (CHI 101), which is the very beginning level for Chinese learners, in this program. He had to finish 10 lessons of the textbook so as to prepare the students well for the next step of study toward First-year Chinese 2 (CHI 102). As a teaching assistant, he designed the curriculum and syllabus by himself. His teaching focused on Chinese pronunciation, grammar, elementary conversation, and development of basic reading and writing skills. His objectives were first to help improve student listening and speaking of Chinese and secondarily to help improve their reading and writing within a limited time of 5 weeks. Every workday, he had 3 periods of Chinese classes which lasted around 3 hours, which

was 3 times more than the work-load of regular Chinese classes during the Spring and Fall semesters. There were 7 American students in his summer class and no Chinese heritage learners.

T1's beliefs about oral corrective feedback in his language class.

Explicit vs. implicit correction. T1 does orally correct student errors on grammars and pronunciations in his class, but not all of them, because he takes time management into consideration and also he doesn't think it is necessary to do this. He believes that explicit correction of student errors in front of other classmates embarrasses them and hurts their confidence in language expression; therefore, he seldom uses explicit correction in treating student oral errors. In his theory, T1 believes in the value of trying multiple ways to treat student language errors implicitly. The method he cited most was "rephrasing," which, according to T1, means reintroducing the correct way of saying the utterance and also giving students opportunity to practice. Theoretically, he would like to return to that student with slightly different questions, so that the student could rework on the same structure with the correction in mind.

However, during the interview, he couldn't think of any specific example of how he implicitly corrects student errors.

When and how to correct student errors. T1 insists that he would not interrupt student language performance even though they may have pronunciation or grammatical errors in their expression, because his goal is to encourage students'

speaking Chinese with fluency and confidence. According to T1, an alternative to interruption would be to point out common errors prior to their speaking in order to help with their accuracy during the language performance. He prefers to wait to summarize their key errors until they finish speaking to avoid breaking their stream of expression. Sometimes he would like to wait until another time entirely to talk about their challenges, such as during office hours rather than during the class period. At that point, he would be able to discuss student errors in detail. However, when his students answer his questions with errors at the sentence level, he prefers to correct them immediately. For pronunciation errors, sometimes he would like to translate their mistaken tones and pronunciation, to let the students indirectly know that some of their pronunciation was incorrect; most of the time, however, he prefers to directly say the correct pronunciation right after the student's mispronunciation.

When discussing how to decide if corrective feedback was effective for learners, T1 thinks that he could judge from eye contact between him and the students; he believes that a student's eye contact will tell him if he/she noticed his correction and understood how to say that word or sentence in a correct way.

Knowledge of research on oral corrective feedback on Second Language Acquisition.

T1 admits that he didn't pay too much attention to the research, but he thinks he might have read some articles on this topic. Although he does not know any

details about the types of corrective feedback or about further discussion on the topic, he does have a vague idea of the term corrective feedback.

Class observation of T1.

I observed 7 class periods and made a total of 5 hours and a half of audio-recording of T1's class. I randomly visited the class, and the class types ranged from teaching new vocabulary, grammar instruction, student language activity, etc.

After I observed the classes, I headed down to transcribe the audio-recording to get the data I needed.

Statistics

In total, 93 student oral errors on both pronunciation and grammar were collected. T1 provided corrective feedback to 58 out of the 93 errors, and 35 out of 93 errors received no corrective feedback. Among the corrected errors, T1 used explicit correction 4 times and implicit correction 52 times. He used three different types of implicit ways to correct student errors, which were recast, metalinguistic clue, and clarification request. Moreover, recast was the one mostly used by T1, and there were 46 out of 52 errors corrected through recast. There were only 2 clarification requests used and 4 metalinguistic clues used.

Figure 1 Number and Ratio of Each Type of Corrective Feedback used in T1's

Class
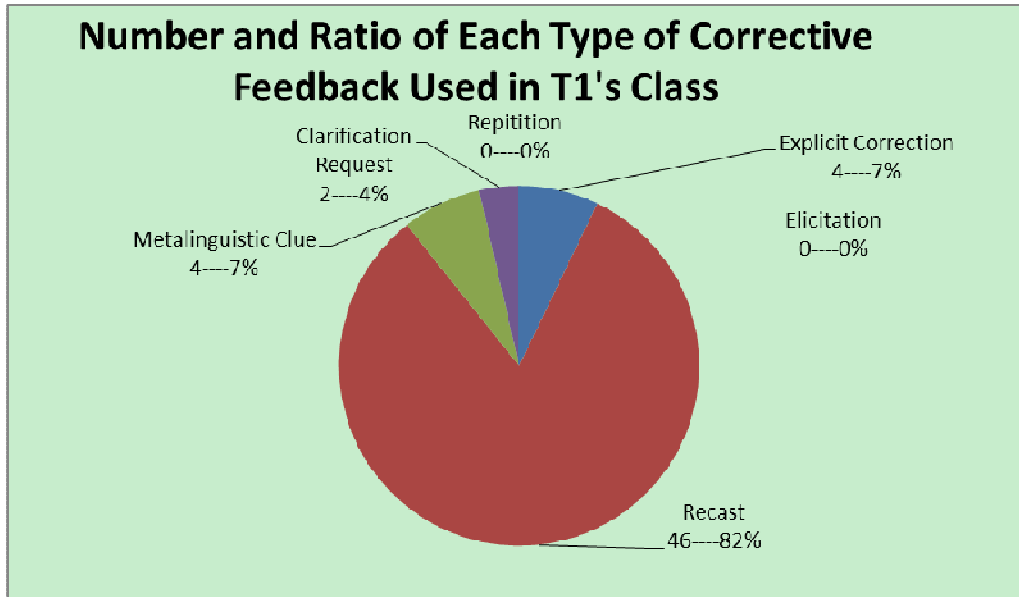
After careful investigation, I found that the majority of the 37 uncorrected student oral errors happened in a role play language activity; exactly 28 out of the 37 uncorrected errors were found in this section. Furthermore, the majority of the 28 uncorrected errors were pronunciation errors which didn't hurt the communication during the role play.

Interview of T2

T2's educational background and teaching experience. T2 is a third-year MA student who majors in Chinese pedagogy at School of International Languages and Literature. She is a native speaker of Chinese and has taught CHI 101 and CHI 102 as a Teaching Assistant for the past two years. She also taught the CHI

102 in the summer program last year. She is confident with her teaching and the design of her class.

T2's Chinese class in the Summer Program.

This class is a continuation of T1's CHI 101. As this program is very intensive, she gives a significant amount of input in her classes and she expects her students to first develop listening and speaking skills followed by reading and writing skills.

T2's beliefs about the practice of oral corrective feedback in her language class.

Explicit vs. implicit correction. T2 thinks she often corrects student oral errors and reports that, as a language teacher, she is pretty sensitive to their oral errors. However, she doesn't like to use explicit ways to correct errors because she doesn't think it's beneficial for the students. She also says that she has a "unique" way of making explicit correction. Because she has taught CHI 101 and 102 for the last two years and known the common errors the learners typically make, she points out these kinds of possible errors explicitly and makes comparisons with the correct usage to draw the students' attention . This preemptive correction helps them avoid such errors. When asked if her students would master those particular grammar points with no errors because she teaches in this way, she couldn't guarantee all students would get it correct, but she says that it's beneficial for most of the students.

When and how to correct student errors? T2 sometimes corrects student language errors immediately. Other times, she prefers to postpone the correction until the student finishes a certain language activity or even the class. She doesn't think it's necessary to correct every student error, and she usually picks out the "big errors" to address with corrective feedback if there are several errors in a student sentence. Sometimes, she even prefers to write the student error and the correct usage on the blackboard to draw the students' attention to it. To describe her preferred method of correcting student language errors, she used the term "to paraphrase," which initially confused me. However, after some discussion, I discern that what she really wants to say is "rephrase," which is similar to recast that she repeats the student sentence with a minor correction to the error. Recast is also the most used type of corrective feedback in her class.

Besides recast, she also uses other methods to provide corrective feedback. For example, she asks the students, "What did you say just now?" or asks them to "Say it one more time" when she detects errors, so as to give them another chance to do self-repair of their incorrect sentence. When I ask if the students would assume that she had simply not heard their answer clearly and would just repeat their initial incorrect response, T2 explains that she doesn't think her students would interpret the feedback as a mere repetition because these requests for clarification are already used as a signal to indicate that they said something incorrect and to encourage them to think over and do self-repair.

She also believes that when students are doing presentations or language activities, it is better not to interrupt them but let them maintain their pace of expression. She believes that if students are interrupted during an activity that already makes them nervous, they are likely to forget what they are going to say and the whole performance will be greatly influenced by the interruption.

How to judge the effect of her corrective feedback? T2 mentions that she watches student's facial expressions to judge whether the students notice and understand that she is correcting them. She may speak with dramatic slowness when she is offering a correction in order to catch their attention. She thinks it's important for students to respond to her corrections, and usually she prefers to ask some related questions to test if they clearly get the message after several other students practice for the class.

However, in her point of view, the effect of oral corrective feedback is hard to measure, because students may notice and understand the correct expression, or even repair their error at that particular moment when the teacher gives corrective feedback, but nobody can guarantee they won't make such an error again in other situations in future. However, she believes that it is necessary to provide corrective feedback to student oral errors because it's part of the whole process of language acquisition.

Knowledge of research on corrective feedback on Second Language Acquisition

T2 has some knowledge of research about oral corrective feedback because she majors in Chinese pedagogy and she has done some research on written corrective feedback. She expresses her willingness to learn more about this research topic, because it is closely related to her teaching.

Class observation of T2's class

I observed 10 class periods of T2's class with a total of 8 hours and a half of audio-recording. After meticulous transcription, the data shows that T2 didn't use explicit correction in her TCFL classroom during my observation.
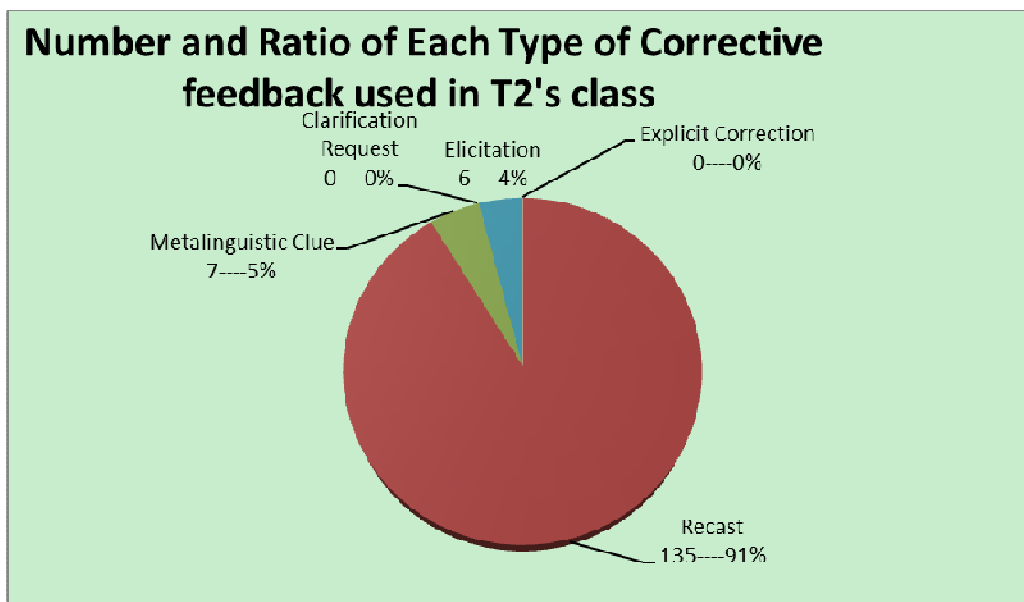
Statistics

In total, 163 errors were committed in the classes I observed, and T2 provided corrective feedback to 148 out of these 163 errors. She only had 15 student oral errors untreated. Among the corrected errors, 74 out of the 148 errors were pronunciation errors and the other 74 errors were grammatical errors. Corrective feedback was commonly employed through teacher-student interaction in T2's class, especially when T2 taught new vocabulary and gave new grammar instruction.

Among the errors which were uncorrected, 12 out of the 15 were pronunciation errors; consequently, there were only 2 grammatical errors in T2's class receiving no treatment, which indicates that T2 showed less tolerance of grammatical errors than pronunciation errors.

Types of corrective feedback. When T2 offered corrective feedback, she mainly used three types of corrective feedback, which were recast, metalinguistic clue, and elicitation. She didn't use explicit correction in her classroom teaching, nor did she use clarification request or repetition. Among the three types of corrective feedback used in her class, recast is absolutely the dominant one.

Figure 2 Number and Ratio of Each Type of Corrective Feedback Used in T2's Class

According to the statistics of the transcription, T2 mostly applies the implicit ways to provide corrective feedback to student language errors.

Recast is the dominant type of corrective feedback that T2 used in her teaching.

When to provide corrective feedback to student errors?

In investigating the distribution of corrective feedback in T2's class, I discovered that she provided corrective feedback during teacher-student interaction, student presentations, and student-student interaction. When students were practicing language through group work or individual presentation, she paid close attention not only to the communication but also to the form of language. T2 usually quickly provided recast after students, to some extent, jumped in their language practice. For this quick recast, T2 often only recasted the correct form of that particular error instead of recasting the whole sentence, which definitely drew student attention to their own errors.

Findings

Findings of teacher interviews

Answers to the first research question

What are the beliefs of teachers of Chinese regarding oral corrective feedback in the TCFL classroom?

To summarize the interview results, both teachers do provide oral corrective feedback to student errors in their TCFL classrooms. They avoid using explicit correction in order to avoid embarrassing the student who is making the error in front of other students. Therefore, they prefer to provide corrective feedback in implicit ways. The method they often use, in their own words, is to "rephrase" the error in a correct expression. Certainly, "rephrase" is not the only method they use to provide corrective feedback: T2 gives more explanation of other methods she

uses to elicit student self-repair. Both teachers use eye contact and the observation of facial expression to monitor whether students have noticed their corrective feedback. Also, both emphasize that they would not interrupt student performance or language activity to correct errors, because such interruption may increase the intensity of nervousness and hurt student confidence in speaking. Moreover, T2 thinks it is more helpful to have students do self-repair than to only provide correct usage. The fact remains, though, that it's hard to measure which is more efficient for students in improving their language acquisition on that specific error, because nobody can guarantee that the student won't make such an error again in the future. Regardless, it is definitely necessary to allow the student the opportunity to notice the error, receive the correct usage, or do self-repair in the TCFL classroom, because it is an important part in the process of internalizing the language. Neither teacher pays much attention to the current research on oral corrective feedback; both provide oral corrective feedback more based on their personal preference and intuition.

Answers to the second research question

What is the reality? How do the teachers of Chinese provide oral corrective feedback in TCFL classroom? When do they provide it? What types of corrective feedback do they usually use in the TCFL classroom?

According to the data analysis, the reality of T1's and T2's practices on oral corrective feedback is that both of them correct the majority of student errors on

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pronunciation and grammar. While I observed T1's class for less time than I observed T2's class, T1 had more errors uncorrected than T2, which indicates that T1 had more tolerance of student oral errors. Although T1 and T2 both use different types of corrective feedback in their TCFL classroom, recast is absolutely the dominant corrective feedback used by both. Compared with recast, the other types of corrective feedback are used far less than that of recast. Coincidentally, metalinguistic clue is the second most frequently used type of corrective feedback by both T1 and T2. Furthermore, they both use metalinguistic clue to correct more grammatical errors. In these cases, the teachers provide clues that remind the students of the usage and pattern of the grammar, which leads students to do self-repair. Meanwhile, T1 used explicit correction 4 times, but T2 did not use this method at all in her teaching activity.

Answers to the third question

What are the similarities and differences between their beliefs and the reality?

Generally speaking, T1 and T2 have a clear understanding of their own practices in the TCFL classroom. They believe that the type of corrective feedback they use most is the so-called "rephrase," which is confirmed by their practices in the real classroom. On the other hand, both of them think that it's beneficial for student language acquisition if the students can do self-repair with the teacher's assistance, but both very rarely used the corrective feedback that tends to stimulate more student repair.

Likewise, while T1 believes that he would avoid explicitly correcting student language errors in order to avoid embarrassing the student, the fact is that he did say "no" to student errors, which contradicts his belief.

T1 and T2 also claim that they would reinforce student understanding immediately after providing corrective feedback by asking that student similar questions to test if he/she can answer correctly after several turns of interaction with other students. However, in fact, they seldom tried this technique of returning the students to the same structure with a slight difference. Actually, due to time management and course scheduling, they couldn't spend too much attention and time on one individual with one kind of error: they had to move on to other students and other contents of the class.

T2 believes it's a not good idea to interrupt student performance or language activities; however, in reality, she did continuously jump into student presentations and role plays to provide corrective feedback and recast student oral errors. On the contrary, T1 implemented his beliefs in his classroom by privileging fluent communication during student performance.

To sum up, the purpose of providing corrective feedback is to help students with language acquisition and to improve the accuracy of their language expression. However, there is still some distance between teachers' beliefs and the reality of their practices. In order to close this gap, more research on corrective feedback in the TCFL classroom is definitely necessary.

CHAPTER 5

DISSCUSION

This research illuminates how Chinese teachers currently provide oral corrective feedback in the TCFL classroom. This is only a case study with very limited number of teachers, and both individual differences and preferences can impact the results. However, there are still numerous questions which demand more investigation by experts in the community of TCFL. I list just a few of them as follows:

The role of explicit correction

The teachers interviewed in this study both were eager to choose implicit corrective feedback instead of explicit correction. The shortcomings of directly saying " no" to students are rooted in their minds. For example, both believe that it would make learners lose face in front of other classmates, that the emotional consequences of such loss of face will hurt their motivation to answer questions or communicate with others in class. Therefore, explicit correction will ultimately have a negative long-term effect on their language learning. However, the fact is that, although T1 may not have noticed he used it because the correction occurred naturally and quickly in his class, he did use explicit correction several times in his class during my observation. Moreover, I observed an extreme case in T2's class in which one of her students once requested her to explicitly tell him every error he made and help him correct it. In this way, he thought he might improve his accuracy. The effect of his learning style will not be discussed here, since it's

impossible for teachers to correct all of a student's errors. However, to some extent, the request from the student revealed the value he sees in explicit correction. The benefits of explicit correction should also be discussed here. First, it is a clear identification of a learner-error that she/he used the linguistic forms incorrectly. Students certainly notice the signal which indicates their answer may contain errors. Furthermore, they may pay more attention to the teacher's correction, which may help improve themselves understand the correct form of a certain expression. In addition, explicit correction saves class time because the learner can figure out the problem immediately. It eliminates the need for several rounds of negotiation, which may ultimately leave the learner confused and not understanding what the teacher wants to convey implicitly. Therefore, considering the shortcomings and benefits of explicit correction, the suggestion for teachers would be against banning explicit correction from the language classroom. Using explicit correction wisely will help increase teaching efficacy. Although the degree to which it should be used is still a question for teachers and researchers, at least teachers of Chinese should confidently welcome explicit correction instead of treating it as a monster.

The role of recasts

In this study, the teachers used recasts dominantly in their TCFL classrooms, and they infrequently used other types of corrective feedback. This phenomenon suggests that teachers appreciate the simplicity of applying recasts in their teaching to improve learners' oral accuracy. However, as discussed in the

literature review, the effect of recasts in oral language instruction is still uncertain. Although the teachers interviewed in this case study realized that this is the most common way to provide corrective feedback, they used it mostly because of their personal experiences. They repeated what their own teachers did in the past as well as considered it an efficient way for learners to learn. However, the teaching method which they accepted during their times of learning may actually not benefit for their present students. And this phenomenon reflects that they have very limited knowledge of corrective feedback, so they don't know that they actually have other choices. In the classroom, recast is a quick and efficient way for teachers to correct learners' pronunciation errors because it is so salient for learners to notice the teachers recast the pronunciation of a certain word. However, when dealing with grammatical errors, there are multiple types of corrective feedback for teachers to choose from based on different scenarios.

Pedagogical implications

One of the inspirations for this study was the need of research that guides teachers how to provide effective and efficient oral corrective feedback. This need is especially urgent in beginning Chinese courses, because pronunciation and grammatical errors occur frequently among learners with lower cognitive levels of Chinese language acquisition. As we know, language acquisition takes time, but it is our goal as teachers to help learners successfully produce oral output with as few errors as possible. As T2 once mentioned, for a student, every response to a

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teacher's effort to correct learners' errors is part of the process of internalizing the correct knowledge. Therefore, oral corrective feedback, to some extent, serves as a way to shorten the processing time. From this perspective, it is acceptable to say that oral corrective feedback is effective for language learners. However, how to provide efficient corrective feedback is an ultimate target for teachers and researchers. This study produced very limited findings which would truly help increase the effectiveness and efficiency of oral corrective feedback in the TCFL classroom. In fact, there is increasingly need for more researchers who could contribute themselves to this field. Based on the situation described in this study, however, there are at least five suggestions for teachers of Chinese to promote the effectiveness of Chinese language teaching. First of all, teachers of Chinese should be aware that oral corrective feedback is a research topic being studied by many researchers. In addition, they can learn from the wealth of available information on corrective feedback in SLA. Thirdly, teachers should use explicit correction selectively in classroom teaching instead of treating it as taboo. Fourthly, they should purposefully reduce the rate of using recasts and switch from the unitary method to the diversity method of applying corrective feedback. Last but not least, teachers should be trained how to provide oral corrective feedback. On one hand, teachers need a more basic knowledge of corrective feedback; on the other hand, teachers should gather together to discuss this issue, which will help increase their awareness and also help the researchers to get practical views on this topic. This study has some interesting findings of

similarities and differences between teachers' beliefs and practices on oral corrective feedback, which may attract more attention of teachers and researchers. Finally, it will contribute to the research in this field by further involving more educators and researchers in the topic.

Limitations of the Study

First, this case study only recruited two teachers, which can hardly reveal the whole picture of how teachers apply oral corrective feedback in the TCFL classroom. Therefore, it is difficult to generalize any results that will reflect the fact of how teachers of Chinese apply oral corrective feedback in their classrooms. In addition, it is also hard to compare the results from just these two teachers; it may be that they sometimes coincidentally hold the same beliefs or have different practices. Although there is no perfect number of samples for a case study, for this study, if more Chinese teachers had been involved, the results would be more persuasive. Secondly, this study focused on two sources of data in the form of teacher interviews and classroom observation. If the researcher could have found out the learners' perspective on oral corrective feedback, the results would be more beneficial for teachers and researchers in the TCFL field.

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APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Interview protocol

Interviewer: _____   date:_____

Part 1.

1. What class are you teaching this summer?

2. How long have you been teaching Chinese?

3. What are the demographics of your class? For example, how many students do you have? What is their gender? How many are Chinese Americans? Are there others with previous experience of learning Chinese?

4. What is the variation of age among the students in your class?

5. What is the ideal number of students for a class at this level? Why?

6. Would you explain the overall course curriculum of this class? For example, your schedule, syllabus, etc.

7. Generally, how do you teach grammar and pronunciation?

8. How can you tell if you have achieved your teaching objectives?

9. How do you help students improve accuracy in pronunciation and speaking ability?

Part 2

1. What is your belief about error correction?

2. Do you always correct student errors? If not, how do you select errors to provide treatment?

3. Do you use explicit error correction in your teaching? What are some advantages and disadvantages of explicit error correction?

4. Do you use implicit ways to correct student errors? How do you implicitly correct student error? Can you give me some examples?

5. Do you think students notice when you implicitly correct their errors?

6. Do you have different techniques for correcting grammatical errors and pronunciation errors? Can you give me some examples?

7. Do you have an inclination to focus on the form of language or focus on the communication? How do you describe your tolerance toward student errors?

8. How can you tell whether your error treatment is effective for learners to acquire the correct information?

9. What do you know about corrective feedback? Would you explain what this term means to you and to others in the field of language pedagogy?

10. Do you know that there are mainly six types of CF? Do you know what are they? (give simple explanations to the types of CF)

11. Which types of CF you usually use in your teaching? Why?

12. What kinds of student responses to your error treatment are more effective for sustained language acquisition? Do you correct their errors and provide the correction or do you guide students to correct their errors themselves? Can you give some explanation?

PROTECTING HUMAN RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS CERTIFICATES

ASU Knowledge Enterprise
Development
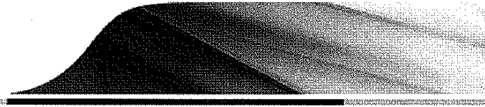
Office of Research Integrity and Assurance

To: Madeline Spring
DURHAM LAN

From: Mark Roosa, Chair
Soc Beh IRB

Date: 06/06/2011

Committee Action: **Exemption Granted**

IRB Action Date: 06/06/2011

IRB Protocol #: 1105006481

Study Title: Beliefs and Reality: A Study on Oral Corrective Feedback in the Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language Classroom

The above-referenced protocol is considered exempt after review by the Institutional Review Board pursuant to Federal regulations, 45 CFR Part 46.101(b)(1) (2) .

This part of the federal regulations requires that the information be recorded by investigators in such a manner that subjects cannot be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects. It is necessary that the information obtained not be such that if disclosed outside the research, it could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability, or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

You should retain a copy of this letter for your records.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Zhixin Dong is a Master student majoring in East Asia Languages and Civilizations (Chinese). She originally came from Chongqing, China and has experience of teaching English in a middle school. Now, she is pursuing further study at Arizona State University. She is particularly interested in teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language as well as in promoting cultural exchange between China and United States. This research is inspired by her experience of teaching Chinese at an American university. She hopes to have further opportunity to contribute to the field of teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language in the near future.