Learners’ preferences for oral corrective feedback and their effects on second language noticing and learning motivation

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ABSTRACT

This mixed-method study investigates 147 university-level Chinese second language (CSL) learners’ perceptions of corrective feedback (CF) with respect to their general attitudes, their preferences for CF types, their perceptions of the effects of CF on second language (L2) learning noticing and motivation, and their expectations of language teachers’ in-class CF techniques. Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected by means of a specially designed questionnaire and in-depth interviews conducted with CSL learners in three universities in Tianjin, China. Additionally, learners were divided into different groups with respect to their individual differences in terms of language proficiency level, degree of extraversion, and degree of anxiety. One-way ANOVA tests were used in order to quantitatively compare differences in the perceptions of learners across groups. In addition, the qualitative results of the interviews were used to confirm and explain the results of the questionnaire by means of content analysis.

The results revealed that the learners generally hold positive attitudes towards CF, acknowledge the facilitative role of their preferred CF types on noticing and learning motivation, and appreciate the provision of CF in accordance with their preferences. Furthermore, learners in different language proficiency levels, with different degrees of extraversion and degrees of anxiety exhibit distinct attitudes towards the three types of CF probed in this study: explicit correction, recasts, and prompts. These results are discussed in terms of the discrepancy between learners’ preferences and teachers’ practices that has been revealed in the literature. Pedagogical implications outlined to help language teachers to understand the effectiveness of CF, to successfully organize classroom activities, and to effectively scaffold learners with appropriate CF during the learning process.
RÉSUMÉ
Cette étude à méthode mixte enquête sur la perception de 147 étudiants chinois en langue second sur la rétroaction corrective (RC) en prenant en compte leur attitude générale, leurs préférences des types de RC, leurs perceptions de l'effet de la RC sur leur conscience des formes linguistiques et sur leur motivation, et leurs attentes des techniques de RC du professeur de langue en classe. Des données quantitatives et qualitatives ont été recueillies au moyen d'un questionnaire spécialement conçu, ainsi que par l’intermédiaire d’entrevues approfondies avec des apprenants de trois universités à Tianjin, en Chine. En plus, les apprenants ont été divisés en différents groupes en fonction de leurs différences individuelles concernant leur niveau de maîtrise de la langue, leur degré d'extraversion et leur degré d'anxiété. Des tests d'analyse de variance à sens unique ont été utilisés afin de comparer quantitativement les différences de perception des apprenants entre les groupes. En outre, les résultats qualitatifs des entrevues ont été utilisés pour confirmer et expliquer les résultats du questionnaire au moyen de l'analyse de contenu.
Les résultats ont révélé qu’en général, les apprenants ont une attitude positive envers la RC, approuvent l’utilité du rôle des types de RC préférés sur leur attention et leur motivation à apprendre la langue, et apprécient la prestation de la RC correspondant à leurs préférences. En plus, les apprenants dans les groupes de compétences linguistiques différents, avec différents degrés d'extraversion et d'anxiété, ont montré des attitudes distinctes envers les trois types de RC investigués dans cette étude: les corrections explicites, les reformulations et les incitations. Ces résultats sont traités en comparant les préférences des étudiants et les pratiques des professeurs en classe qui ont été démontrées dans la documentation. Les implications pédagogiques sont présentées pour aider les enseignants de langue à comprendre l'efficacité de la RC,
d'organiser avec succès les activités en classe, et d'aider l’apprenant avec des RC appropriées pendant le processus d'apprentissage.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In the first chapter, I will introduce the background to the current study, which investigates (a) language learners’ perceptions of corrective feedback (CF) (i.e., techniques language teachers use to correct learners’ errors); (b) its effect on learners’ noticing and motivation of second language (L2) learning, and (c) the individual factors that influence their perceptions of effective CF. Accordingly, I will provide a brief summary of the research topic, the gap in previous research, and the goal of the current study.

1. Problem Statement

In order to understand the process of second language acquisition (SLA) and to help language teachers to utilize effective teaching techniques that successfully scaffold the L2 learning process, researchers have sought to identify the essential components of effective L2 learning and the contributing factors such as the linguistic environment (including CF), noticing, motivation, and learners’ individual differences (e.g., aptitude, anxiety, learning style, etc.).

CF, also known as negative feedback or error correction, has attracted increasing attention in the last two decades (Sheen, 2010, 2011; Lee, 2013). Studies have been conducted in both laboratory and classroom settings in order to comprehensively understand how teaching strategies, specifically language teacher’s CF techniques, can facilitate L2 learning. Moreover, pedagogical implications have been provided for organizing effective L2 classes (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006).
Noticing is considered essential for language learning. It has been shown that learners can hardly acquire the new language without conscious attention to the mismatch between the target structures and their ill-formed utterances (Schmidt, 1996). Moreover, motivation has been widely acknowledged to be another influencing factor in L2 learning. Without initial willingness or interest, learners would not start learning a target language (Dörnyei, 2005) and would not invest the time and effort required for L2 learning (Ortega, 2009).

In addition, the effects of L2 teaching on L2 learning outcomes have been associated with learners’ individual factors in terms of their perceptions of language learning and their personalities (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Dewaele & Furnham, 2000; Ortega, 2009; Sheen, 2010). For instance, extraverted learners have been shown to have more self-confidence and thus speak more fluently than introverted learners (Dewaele & Furnham, 2000); highly anxious learners proved less capable of dealing with stressful learning environments and attended fewer learning activities involving risks in using the target language (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994).

The impact of these factors on L2 learning has been separately investigated by various previous studies (Lee, 2013; Schmidt, 1996; Dörnyei, 2005; Dewaele & Furnham, 2000; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994). Nonetheless, relatively few studies have investigated how CF, individual differences, noticing, and motivation interact and function together in L2 learning process. Oladejo (1993) and Kaivanpanah, Alavi, and Sepehrinia (2012) revealed the influence that learners’ language proficiency level had on their perceptions of effective CF. Dörnyei (2005) stated that learners’
perceptions and evaluations of their teachers’ CF would impact their learning motivation. However, studies are lacking that provide a comprehensive understanding of the complex process of how learners’ individual differences influence their perceptions of CF, and how their perceptions of CF and L2 learning further interact with each other.

Therefore, the present research aims to focus exclusively on classroom-based studies and to demonstrate whether and how learners’ individual factors influence their perceptions of the effectiveness of CF as well as their preferences for specific CF types. Moreover, it will investigate how learners’ perceptions and preferences affect their learning behaviors in terms of noticing and motivation. Additionally, the present study aimed at a new target language (i.e., Mandarin) rather than the dominant ones in current research area such as English and French, and was conducted in a Chinese Second Language (CSL) context in order to provide evidence in an instructional environment that differs from the relatively widely studied English Second Language (ESL) or French Second Language (FSL) learning contexts.

2. Study Purpose

The present study aims to investigate learners’ perspectives of CF with respect to their general attitudes towards CF, their preferences for different types of CF, their perceptions of the effect of CF on their noticing and learning motivation, and their expectations of teachers’ CF techniques in language classes. The impact of learners’ individual factors in terms of language proficiency level, degree of extraversion and degree of anxiety on their perspectives of CF will be examined as well.
This research will draw on questionnaire and interview data, in order to reveal learners’ perceptions of CF, and how the discrepancy between their preferences and language teachers’ in-class techniques can influence their L2 learning process and outcomes. Therefore, it will present pedagogical implications and provide suggestions for future L2 teaching activities. In order to help further generalize the research problem into various contexts, this study involves university-level CSL learners in Tianjin, China.

In the following chapter, I will provide a detailed review of the previous studies related to the current one. Based on previous findings, evidence revealing the overall effects of CF on L2 learning and the differential effects of various types of CF will be presented. In addition, how CF affects learners’ noticing and motivation will be analyzed, and the individual factors that impact on learners’ perceptions of CF will be discussed. At the end of the next chapter, I will present the research questions of the current study.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, I will present seminal theories and findings of the previous research pertaining to CF, noticing, learners’ individual factors and motivation. Additionally, I will discuss the underlying interrelationship among these factors and will suggest how this study will investigate how they influence each other, from learners’ perspectives, in order to fill the gap in the current literature.

1. Oral CF and SLA

Corrective feedback (CF), also known as error correction or negative feedback, has been paid increasing attention in the last two decades. By providing CF, language teachers “respons[es] to learner utterances containing an error” (Ellis, 2006, p.28). Furthermore, specific types of CF help draw learners’ attention to the mismatch between their nontargetlike output and the correct linguistic structure by means of (a) indicating the source of an error, (b) providing the target form, or (c) referring to the linguistic nature of the error with metalinguistic explanation. Considering the importance of positive evidence in language teaching and learning, certain researchers questioned the role of CF as negative evidence (Krashen, 1982; Schwartz, 1993; Truscott, 1999). Krashen (1982) argued that CF would be helpful for writing but would be useless for oral production. Similarly, Schwartz (1993) regarded the impact of CF as superficial and temporary, denying its substantial role in improving learners’ language ability. Among them, Truscott (1999) held the most critical as well as negative attitudes towards CF, claiming that CF was harmful for learners’ language
development and thus should be abandoned. On the contrary, other researchers argued that, unlike first language (L1) acquisition in which positive evidence plays the most important role, L2 learning benefits not only from positive but also negative evidence (Long, 1996). Ellis and Sheen (2006) further showed that certain types of CF contained positive and negative evidence at the same time. In addition, a growing number of studies have investigated the effectiveness of CF and demonstrated the contributive role of CF in L2 learning (Ellis, 2006; Ellis et al., 2006; Li, 2010; Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013).

1.1 CF Effectiveness

In Russell and Spada’s (2006) meta-analysis of the effectiveness of CF on L2 grammar learning, the mean effect size of the 15 studies included was 1.16, which was considered large. These results suggested that CF facilitates L2 acquisition, at least in learners’ grammar learning. In addition, all 5 studies including post-tests indicated medium or large effect sizes, which suggested that the effects of CF could be lasting. It is worthy to note that of these 15 studies, 6 were conducted in laboratory settings, where it can be easier for researchers to control intervening variables and for learners to notice CF (Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Nicholas, Lightbown, & Spada, 2001).

Mackey and Goo’s (2007) meta-analysis of 28 interaction studies confirmed the influential role of research setting in CF effectiveness and in learning outcomes. According to their analysis, the effect size was medium for classroom studies (0.57 for immediate posttests and 0.76 for delayed posttests) while considered large for laboratory studies (0.96 for immediate posttests and 1.20 for delayed posttests). Li
(2010) reported similar results and concluded that larger effect sizes were demonstrated in lab studies than in classroom studies. He attributed this difference to “the fact that in the classroom context, there is more distraction and feedback is often not directed toward individual learners” (p.345). Consequently, “classroom-based studies are more likely to lead to a better understanding about the kind of interaction that occurs in classrooms where the teaching is the only proficient speaker and interacts with a large number of learners” (p.159), as Spada and Lightbown (2009) have argued.

Accordingly, Lyster and Saito (2010) based their meta-analysis exclusively on classroom studies and revealed the significant and durable impact of CF on learners’ language development with the substantial effect size of 0.74. Therefore, all of these studies demonstrate the general facilitative role of CF in L2 acquisition and its pedagogical value as “a tool not only for noticing target exemplars in the input, but also for consolidating emergent L2 knowledge and skills” (Lyster et al., 2013, p. 5).

1.2 CF Type

In addition to the role played by CF in L2 acquisition and its effects in different research settings, another variable that has received much attention is the type of CF and its relative effects.

1.2.1 Implicit CF and explicit CF

According to Schmidt’s (1990) Noticing Hypothesis whereby noticing is necessary for all learning, the degree of explicitness of CF has been considered to substantially influence its effectiveness. Carroll and Swain (1993) defined explicit
feedback as “overtly stat[ing] that a learner’s output was not part of the language-to-be-learned” (p.136) while implicit feedback is the opposite and always takes the form of recasts (Long, 1996). Several laboratory studies have demonstrated the supportive impact of implicit CF on L2 learning (Mackey & Philp, 1998; Long, Inagaki, & Ortega, 1998; Han, 2002; Iwashita, 2003). Long et al. (1998) indicated that learners who heard recasts of the adverb placement scored significantly higher than those who heard correct models, and than those in the control group in Spanish L2 learning context. Similarly, Zhu (2002) showed that recasts contributed to learners’ noticing and maintenance of tense consistency with the evidence that the recast group significantly surpassed the non-recast group in both the posttest and the delayed posttest. In Loewen and Nabei’s (2007) study probing Japanese English foreign language (EFL) learners, though all CF groups significantly outperformed the control group, the difference across the CF groups was not significant. Erlam and Loewen (2010) reported a similar result: no differences were found on learners’ French gender agreement, with implicit or explicit recasts. It is necessary to note that these studies, each with a relatively small sample size, were conducted in laboratory settings, in which the effectiveness of recasts appears to be greater than in classrooms.

By contrast, classroom studies have shown advantages for explicit CF over implicit CF (i.e., recasts). Carroll and Swain’s (1993) study demonstrated that the “explicit hypothesis rejection” group, in which explicit metalinguistic explanations were provided for learners’ errors, significantly outperformed other groups receiving implicit types of CF and the control group receiving no CF. Ellis et al. (2006)
compared the effects of explicit CF in the form of metalinguistic explanation and that of implicit CF in the form of recasts, on learners’ past tense learning. In general, the metalinguistic feedback was demonstrated to be significantly more effective than recasts for both the imitation and grammaticality judgment posttests. Likewise, Sheen (2007) indicated that the metalinguistic group significantly outperformed both the recast and the control group while no significant difference emerged between the recast group and the control group.

However, simply distinguishing CF as explicit or implicit can be problematic. Firstly, though recasts are generally considered implicit, they can be quite explicit according to the context, learners’ degrees of familiarity, and teachers’ techniques of delivery (Nicholas et al., 2001; Erlam & Loewen 2010). Moreover, the criterion of effectiveness is ambiguous, as it can be influenced by both learners’ intrinsic features (e.g., age, aptitude) and extrinsic factors (e.g., instructional environment) (Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Lyster et al., 2013). Accordingly, the results of the comparison between explicit and implicit CF should be interpreted with caution.

1.2.2 Explicit correction, recasts, and prompts

In Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) seminal study, explicit correction “refers to the explicit provision of the correct form”(p.46) with teachers’ clear indication of the error; recasts “involve the teacher’s reformulation of all or part of a student’s utterance, minus the error” (p.46); and clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition were grouped as prompts according to their common feature of providing clues to the error source and prompting learners to self-correct.
Among prompts, clarification requests indicate “problems in either comprehensibility or accuracy, or both,” so that “a repetition or a reformulation is required” (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p.47); metalinguistic feedback contains metalinguistic comments, information or questions indicating the linguistic nature of the error; elicitation refers to language teachers’ techniques of “directly elicit[ing] the correct form” (p.48) by means of (a) pausing at the error and eliciting students’ completion with the target form; (b) using questions to elicit students’ correction; or (c) directly requesting students to reformulate their nontargetlike utterance; and repetition refers to teachers’ repetition of the students’ errors highlighted by intonation. Table 1 shows examples for each CF type.

Table 1. Examples of different CF types (adapted from Lee, 2013, p.2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CF types</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
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| **Explicit correction** | S: On May.  
T: Not on May, In May. |
| **Recasts**       | S: I have to find the answer on the book?  
T: In the book |
| **Clarification requests** | S: What do you spend with your wife?  
T: What? (Or, Sorry?) |
| **Metalinguistic feedback** | S: There are influence person who.  
T: Influence is a noun. |
| **Elicitation**   | S: This mountain is very high.  
T: It’s very…? |
| **Repetition**    | S: I will showed you.  
T: I will SHOWED you? |

Investigating and comparing the effectiveness of CF in accordance to this distinction, Lyster and Saito’s (2010) meta-analysis revealed positive effects for each of the three CF types. Moreover, the results suggested a significant advantage for prompts over recasts; while the difference between explicit corrections and the other two “remained indistinguishable” (p.290). Similar results were reported by several
other studies. In Ammar and Spada’s (2006) research with francophone ESL learners, the prompts group scored significantly higher than the recasts group in both the written and oral posttests. Moreover, learners with low pretest scores benefited more from prompts than from recasts. Lyster (2004) demonstrated that learners receiving instruction with prompts outperformed the control group on all eight measures of the posttest while the recasts group outperformed the control group on five of the eight measures. In addition, the prompts group significantly surpassed the recasts group in written tasks, although no significant differences were reported in the oral tasks. For Chinese EFL learners, prompts improved their accuracy more effectively than recasts (Yang & Lyster, 2010) in their use of regular past-tense forms whereas prompts and recasts were equally effective for irregular forms.

These previous studies have investigated different target structures and were conducted in various settings. Therefore, hardly any precise conclusion of which type of CF is more effective can be drawn according to their results. In addition to the features of CF itself and the instructional factors, learners’ noticing of the errors and the CF, as well as their individual factors has been demonstrated to impact the effectiveness of CF (DeKeyser, 1993; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Sheen, 2007, 2010).

2. Noticing and CF in SLA

Noticing with attention has been widely discussed and accepted as essential for L2 acquisition, best explained by Schmidt’s (1990, 1995) Noticing Hypothesis. This hypothesis was based on the case study by Schmidt and Frota (1986) of Schmidt’s five-month Portuguese learning during his stay in Brazil. The self-reported materials (i.e., class notes and journal) and the recorded speech demonstrated that the target
forms Schmidt was able to output were the ones he had consciously noticed in the input from the language course or from the interlocutors while other unnoticed forms never appeared in his production. Consequently, the researchers concluded that learning occurred with the learner’s noticing of the mismatch between his utterance and the target structures of the interlocutors. Based on this initial evidence of the correlation between noticing and L2 learning, Schmidt further referred to noticing as the brain registering the occurrence of the new language form and stated that “what learners notice in input is what becomes intake for learning” (Schmidt, 1995, p.20).

Compared to Schmidt’s affirmation that “noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input to intake” (Schmidt, 1990, p.129), other researchers (Tomlin & Villa, 1994; Gass, 1997) questioned its crucial role and contested noticing as the prerequisite for language learning. Moreover, Ellis (2002) proposed that noticing was necessary in two conditions: (a) a relative high possibility for learning the target form with relatively low attention; and (b) the initial encounters of the linguistic structures, especially the complex ones. In spite of the dissent regarding the necessity of noticing, the “weak form” (Ortega, 2009) of the Noticing Hypothesis (that noticing is facilitative of second or foreign language learning) has been widely embraced and confirmed (Gass, 1997; Leow, 2001; Rosa & O’Neill, 1999; Rosa & Leow, 2004; Mackey, 2006; Egi, 2010).

A series of empirical studies conducted by researchers at Georgetown University (Leow, 2001; Rosa & O’Neill, 1999; Rosa & Leow, 2004) have investigated the role that noticing plays in L2 learning. In Leow’s (2001) study, according to a think-aloud protocol, learners were categorized into two groups with respect to their levels of awareness: a high-awareness group with those who reported both cognitive change and meta-awareness and a low-awareness group with those who reported cognitive
change but no meta-awareness. The results demonstrated that the high-awareness group significantly outperformed the low-awareness group in both the recognition and the written production assessment tasks. Considering that the pretest results of these two groups showed no significant differences, the researcher concluded that “more awareness contributed to more recognition and more accurate written production of the targeted forms” (p.139).

However, the classification used this research remained ambiguous for demonstrating the actual status of awareness. In the other two studies (Rosa & O’Neill, 1999; Rosa & Leow, 2004), the levels of awareness were more precisely and convincingly categorized as: (a) awareness at the level of understanding, referring to the explicit evidence of learners’ grasp of the fundamental linguistic rule of the target form; (b) awareness at the level of noticing, referring to learners’ comments on the target form without recognition of the rules; and (c) no report of awareness. Similar results revealed that the level of awareness had significantly impacted learners’ intake as learners having reported higher levels of awareness generally performed better in the posttests.

Rutherford and Smith (1985) discussed the role of “consciousness-raising” in L2 learning and called for a “deliberate attempt to draw the learner’s attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language” (p.274). Smith (1991) further developed the term “consciousness-raising” into “input enhancement” (p. 118) and presented a framework for making the target forms salient with external manipulation as well as internal learning strategies. CF, with “extra information signaling unacceptability” (p.123) in nature, was demonstrated to have effectively functioned as enhanced input (Lightbown & Spada, 1990). Likewise, in Mackey’s (2006) study probing the relationship between feedback and ESL learners’ noticing of
target L2 forms, noticing was assessed by means of learning journals, classroom observations and questionnaire responses. In the experimental group receiving CF, the number of learners who reported high levels of noticing of all the three targets forms—question forms, plural forms and past tense—significantly exceeded that of the control group having received the same input but with very limited feedback (p.413). Moreover, significant development for the formation of questions emerged in learners who had noticed the target structure. Accordingly, the researcher argued that CF had played a notable role in promoting learners’ noticing of linguistic forms in an L2 classroom context. Egi (2010) likewise demonstrated that on the occasions when learners had noticed the teachers’ CF and the mismatch between the input and their own production of the target form, their repair and uptake were more likely to occur. These results indicated that, as a result of reinforcing the conspicuousness of learners’ problematic utterances, CF could effectively draw learners’ attention to the target forms (Long, 1996).

Truscott (1999) questioned the effectiveness of CF, with one of the problems stated as learners’ incapability of noticing and recognizing their teachers’ corrections. He considered this problem as frequent, resulting from the following causes: (a) students did not hear the teacher clearly; or (b) they have heard their teacher however failed to perceive the teacher’s intention or mistook the correction for something else. Several previous studies confirmed Truscott’s argument. Nabei and Swain’s (2002) case study of an adult ESL learner demonstrated that the learner had occasionally paid no attention to her teacher’s CF, or noticed it superficially. The participant acknowledged that, on occasion, she barely perceived the teacher’s CF as that “the teacher [had] ‘changed’ something to make the previous utterance more target-like” (p.54), however being unwilling to deeply investigate the nature of the corrections. In
Roberts’ (1995) study of Japanese foreign language learners’ noticing and understanding of their teachers’ CF, participants were asked to point out their teachers’ corrections and explain the problem of the errors in the interviews conducted. The results were less promising: approximately 35% of the CF was noticed and 21% understood. Similar results were reported in additional studies: The ESL learners failed to notice 12% of the selected episodes containing CF and the Italian foreign language learners failed to notice 4% of that (Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000). Moreover, Moroishi (2002) demonstrated that 24% of the language teacher’s recasts received no comments of noticing from the learner during the interviews. Similarly, the percentage of unnoticed CF in another study of Arabic learners by Mackey et al (2007) was 48.9%. In Yoshida’s (2010) stimulated recall interviews, learners admitted that sometimes they were unable to notice their teachers’ CF, especially when it was offered implicitly.

With respect to these results indicating the impact of noticing on CF effectiveness, researchers further analyzed the contributive factors on learners’ noticing of CF. Nabei and Swain (2002) suggested that their participant’s noticing of CF was influenced by “her degree of engagement in the conversation” (p.53), as she noticed CF better in group discussions compared to teacher-fronted lessons and paid more attention to CF for her errors than that for others. In addition, learners’ noticing can also be affected by the type and content of CF (Mackey, 2006). Mackey et al. (2000) demonstrated that lexical, semantic and phonological feedback was more accurately perceived than morphosyntactic feedback while learners in Moroishi’s (2002) study noticed morphosyntactic feedback more than phonological and lexical feedback. Moreover, Mackey et al. (2007) indicated a larger proportion of noticed feedback for morphosyntactic and lexical errors over that of phonology. In spite of the
contradictory results, the type of CF has been demonstrated to be another variable affecting learners’ noticing.

A number of previous studies have revealed the effect of learners’ perceptions of CF on their noticing. However, their preference, as one component of their perception, has received relatively little attention. The current research aims to investigate whether, and to what extent, learners’ preferences for different types of CF will affect their noticing of corresponding CF, in order to fill the gap in the literature and gain comprehensive understanding of this problem from the perspective of learners’ intrinsic willingness, and to better answer the question, “what situations make CF noticeable?” (Yoshida, 2010, p.295).

3. Learners’ individual differences, CF, and L2 learning

In addition to the features of different types of CF and learners’ noticing, their individual differences interact to affect L2 learning process. DeKeyser (1993) demonstrated the correlation between the effectiveness of CF and learners’ individual characteristics in terms of aptitude, motivation, anxiety, and pervious learning achievement. According to Vygotskian sociocultural theory, “the effectiveness of CF lies in its propensity for scaffolding interaction to construct a zone of proximal development (ZPD)” (Sheen, 2010, p.170). In other words, with the assistance of CF, learners will be able to produce the target utterance which is beyond their current competency. Consequently, the facilitative effects of CF can vary from one learner to another, as specific CF failing to challenge one learner can meanwhile be incomprehensible to another. Therefore, it is necessary for researchers who examine the effectiveness of CF to take learners’ individual factors into consideration.
3.1 Learners’ preferences for CF

Some previous studies clearly showed learners’ preferences for receiving CF for every error. For young learners, Oladejo (1993) demonstrated that 90% of the 147 Singapore secondary school pupils preferred comprehensive CF rather than selective CF. Fifty-four percent of the 1328 high school ESL students in Montreal expressed that they would like their oral errors to be corrected “all the time” (Jean & Simard, 2011). In a university context, the majority of the 500 Singapore students in Oladejo’s (1993) study disagreed with the teachers ignoring the grammatical errors which did not inhibit communication. Zhu (2010) revealed that 70% of the Chinese EFL students preferred their teacher to correct every mistake for them. Those students reasoned that they would improve more with CF for every error and would not get frustrated by constant error correction and CF. These results were confirmed by Lee’s (2013) study among 60 adult advanced-level learners who expressed strong preferences for being corrected for all errors.

By contrast, after watching an English L2 teaching video containing CF, some students in Lasagabaster and Sierra’s (2005) research in Spain commented that constant CF by the teacher would make the learner feel interrupted: “if the teacher corrected everything, it would be torture. She has to correct, but not everything” (p.119).

Two main reasons for these learners’ contrasting opinions can be the different instructional settings (Asian versus Western) and students’ age. Learners in Oladejo’s and Zhu’s studies, and almost all of the participants in Lee’s study, had prior English
education in Asian countries. Under the predominant teacher-centered form-focused language classes there, students are used to being corrected for their grammatical errors all the time. Moreover, CF is often regarded as a signal that the teachers have paid careful attention to the learner’s speech and have strong willingness to help them. Though the majority of high school students in the Montreal study agreed to get CF for all their errors, the percentage (54%) is not as high as the Asian ones. In addition, for advanced learners in student-centered settings such as the Spanish university, a larger portion of learners felt interrupted and sometimes annoyed by too much CF.

Furthermore, previous studies showed learners’ different preferences for whether to be provided CF in class. Learners in Lasagabaster and Sierra’s (2005) research were concerned about receiving CF in front of the class as “the pupil may feel embarrassed, especially if he is shy” (p.118). According to the questionnaire results in Lee’s (2013) study, learners, however, strongly disagreed that CF occurring in front of classmates would make them embarrassed. Schulz (2001) demonstrated that the 94% of the 824 US and 95% of the 607 Columbian learners disagreed with the statement that teachers should not provide CF when students made mistakes in class. Moreover, 90% of the Colombian learners and 70% of the US students admitted that they also learned from their teachers’ CF provided to their classmates.

Moreover, learners’ preferences for particular types of CF are another issue that has been widely discussed. According to previous studies, no clear consensus has been revealed. In Lee’s (2013) study, certain learners linked clarification requests with their teachers’ lack of attention; others disliked metalinguistic CF, regarding it as
beyond their proficiency. Therefore, they expressed that these CF disagreements may cause classroom embarrassment and discouragement for their further conversations in class. In contrast, learners demonstrated strong preferences for recasts and metalinguistic CF in Kaivanpanahet al. (2012). The authors assumed the results of the latter study were accounted for by the dominant position of teachers in Iranian classrooms and learners’ familiarity with each other. Learners in Oladejo’s (1993) research preferred to get CF with relevant comments and guidance for self-correction, or CF pointing out the error and providing the correct answer the most. Lee (2013) indicated learners’ strong preferences for direct and explicit CF. On the contrary, learners in other studies preferred CF which gives opportunities for self-correction. According to Zhu (2010), learners preferred to get CF pointing “what area that the mistake is in” rather than having the teacher “tell the student he has made a mistake” or “give the student the correct answer directly” (p.120). And 6 out of the 7 Japanese L2 learners claimed that they preferred to receive a clue as CF such as clarification or elicitation in order to have a chance to self-correct instead of getting the correct answer directly (Yoshida, 2008). It is worth noting that only 7 students participated in this study and the particular type(s) of CF that learners preferred to receive was not clearly investigated.

For immediate and delayed CF, learners in Lee’s (2013) research showed a strong preference for immediate CF rather than delayed CF, while others had no clear preference (Kaivanpanah et al., 2012). In addition, some learners appreciated teachers’ CF which gave them the chance to repeat the correct utterance, in order to allow them
to pay more attention to their error as well as to better remember the correction (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Lee, 2013). Moreover, learners also held clearly positive attitudes towards CF with longer explanations comparing students’ untargeted utterances and the correct ones (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005). Since students’ preferences for immediate/delayed CF and for recasts were not studied as well as that of different types of CF, more studies are still needed for future discussion.

3.2 Learners’ language proficiency level and CF

Learners’ language proficiency level has been demonstrated to affect their perceptions of CF, specifically their preferences for particular types of CF. According to Kaivanpanah et al. (2012), the Iranian advanced learners supported elicitation and self-correction more strongly over the other two groups of lower level learners. These preferences were clearly related to their better knowledge of language and more confidence in their language ability. Higher level learners were meanwhile more capable of identifying the intention of the teacher’s elicitation such as “Sorry, what?” On the other hand, elementary learners showed clear preferences for metalinguistic CF, which was likely to derive from their need to acquire more linguistic knowledge of the target language to improve faster.

In brief, learners with higher proficiency, having confidence in their capability, expressed preferences for less direct CF, in order to improve more by trying to self-correct and to avoid humiliation of having errors pointed out in class.

3.3 Personality and L2 learning

Personality, defined as a person’s character and nature that “account for
consistent patterns of feeling, thinking and behaving” (Pervin & John, 2001, p.4), is a factor that SLA researchers have started to investigate recently (Ortega, 2009). As stable traits of a person, personality suggests that, regardless of the actual context, an individual will remain constant in the way in which he/she thinks and behaves (Dörnyei, 2005).

Therefore, researchers are interested in the relationship between specific personality types and language learning outcomes. Three models have been mainly accepted and used to define personality in SLA research. The first is Eysenck’s (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1964) model of personality in which three principal personality dimensions are identified as extraversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism. The second widely accepted model of personality is the Myers and Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) (Myers & Briggs, 1976). This model characterizes individual traits with four dichotomies including extraversion/introversion, sensing/intuition, thinking/feeling, and judging/perceiving. The “Big Five” model (Goldberg, 1992, 1993) contains Eysenck’s first two dimensions--extraversion and neuroticism--and three additional dimensions: conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness to experience. In current empirical studies, the “Big Five” model has played a dominant role (Funder, 2001; Ortega, 2009) due to “provid[ing] a good representation of the central features of personality” (Dörnyei, 2005, p.13).

3.3.1 Extraversion

Extraversion comprises the overlapped dimension of all three models of personality. Accordingly, it has attracted the most attention of researchers and has
become the most widely studied dimension of personality. In the “Big Five” model (the model used in the current study), high scores of extraversion are related to sociable, gregarious, active, assertive, passionate, and talkative; while low scores are associated with passive, quiet, reserved, withdrawn, sober, aloof, and restrained.

Furnham (1999) argued that extraversion facilitates short-term memory, ability to resist stress and anxiety, and fluency. In Verhoeven and Vermeer’s (2002) study probing the relationship between personality and L2 learning outcomes with 69 secondary school students, extraversion was suggested to significantly associate with monitoring and strategic competence. Extraverted learners in Dewaele’s (2004) research demonstrated a tendency to use colloquial words more frequently than their introverted peers. According to Dewaele and Furnham’s (2000) study investigating the effect of extraversion on L2 French learners’ fluent speech production, medium sized effects were reported for six of the seven target variables, with phonological accuracy the only one showing no correlation with extraversion. Moreover, their high-stressed oral exam had a considerable effect on less extraverted learners, but not on the more extraverted ones.

The researchers explained that the increased pressure caused hesitation on the part of introverted learners for making errors and prevented them from producing longer utterances. This can be considered as a parallel problem concerning CF whereby relatively pressured situations may be created when learners’ errors are being corrected, especially with prompts which encourage learners’ automaticity in producing the target forms. As a consequence, learners with different degrees of
extraversion may perceive CF distinctly and express preferences for particular types of CF. However, few studies have investigated the relationship between extraversion and learners’ perceptions of CF, as well as how their perceptions affect their L2 learning, which comprises one of the goals of the current study.

3.3.2 Anxiety

It has been less doubted that anxiety influences L2 learning and performance. As Arnold and Brown (1999) stated, it “is[was] quite possibly the affective factor that most pervasively obstructs the learning process” (p.2). The “Big Five” model also contains a dimension related to anxiety, namely, neuroticism: high scorers are associated with worrying, anxious, insecure, depressed, self-conscious, moody, emotional, and unstable; while low scorers pertain to calm, relaxed, unemotional, hardy, comfortable, content, even tempered, and self-satisfied.

Previous studies have demonstrated the interference of anxiety in L2 learning, with high-anxiety learners scoring lower than low-anxiety learners in language courses (e.g., MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994). In addition, a tendency of speaking less and avoiding risks in learning, especially in classroom activities, emerged among learners of higher anxiety (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994). MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) further suggested that a common behavior of high-anxiety language learners was being too nervous to say anything in the L2 in front of the class.

According to these conclusions, the ZPD created by CF can be substantially stressful for learners of high-anxiety, due to the fact that the corrections are likely to be beyond their current ability. This situation will even be challenging when CF is in
the form of prompts, which require learners to locate the errors and to self-correct in front of others in a relatively short time. Sheen (2011) has called for more studies examining “anxiety in relation to the different micro-processes of language learning” (p.135). Therefore, the current study will investigate whether learners’ degrees of anxiety affect their perceptions of CF.

Furthermore, motivation has been demonstrated to influence L2 learning (Dörnyei, 1994). Different from other learners’ individual differences discussed in this section (i.e., learners’ preferences, their language proficiency level and personality), which are stable features, motivation, can be influenced by external factors (Ortega, 2009). Therefore, it is worth being discussed in the next section separately.

4. Motivation and CF in SLA

Motivation, defined as the “combination of the learner’s attitudes, desires, and willingness to expend effort in order to learn the second language” (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 343), has been indicated to have a significant impact on learners’ second or foreign language acquisition processes and their achievements (Dörnyei, 1994; 2005; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Ortega, 2009). Motivation stimulates learners’ primary passion for learning a second or foreign language; in addition, it ensures learners to put constant efforts into sustaining the entire learning process, often long-lasting and sometimes arduous. Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) argued that learners, even the ones with extraordinary capacity and aptitude, were unable to accomplish learning a second or foreign language successfully if they lacked sufficient motivation.
In late 1950s, from a social psychological perspective, Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert (1972) developed their influential model of motivation positing that learners’ integrative motivation would exert influence on their learning outcomes (Dörnyei, 2005). With the increasing amount of the classroom studies investigating the effect of learning motivation as well as with the desire to extend the understanding of L2 motivation in an actual educational context, researchers generally turned their attention from the analysis of the isolated components of motivation and their operation, to the connections between individuals and their learning contexts, as how the latter “play a facilitative, neutral or inhibitory role with respect to further learning, including L2 learning” (McGroarty, 2001, p.86). Having taken the dynamic nature of L2 motivation into consideration, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) drew up their Model of L2 Motivation, in an attempt to describe the process of how learners’ initial desires transform into learning goals, how their intentions interact with their learning context, and how their retrospective evaluation of the learning experience will determine their motivation in the future (Dörnyei, 2005).

In Gardner’s (2001) Socio-Educational Model of Second Language Acquisition and his motivation theory, learners’ attitudes toward the language teacher and the L2 course formed their attitudes towards the learning situation, which is one of the three main constituents of his conceptualization of integrative motivation. CF, having been demonstrated to be an important component of effective L2 teaching, would therefore have an impact on learners’ estimation of their language teachers and the L2 courses.

Dörnyei’s (2005) motivation model separates three main stages. In the first
Preactional Stage, learners’ attitudes towards the L2 and its speakers, their expectation of success, their beliefs and strategies, and the environmental support together generate learners’ initial motivation. In the second Actional Stage, the learning experience (i.e., quality, teachers’ support, class structure, etc.) plays the principal role in maintaining learners’ self-regulatory actions and determines the extent of the negative effects of distracting factors. The last Postactional Stage involves learners’ retrospective evaluation of the learning experience and their determination of destinations in the future.

Therefore, regardless of the differences across the three models introduced above, CF is similarly considered as a main contributing factor for learners’ motivation. Accordingly, teachers’ CF would affect the quality of learners’ learning experience by means of scaffolding their understanding and utilization of the target language, creating a pleasant learning environment in class, and contributing to an effective class structure; moreover, CF would function as one of the main components of the learning process which would be evaluated afterwards. Consequently, if learners were not satisfied with the language class in which CF comprised one of the most important techniques of language teachers, they would get discouraged and fail to sustain the learning activities during language instruction. Moreover, after evaluating the learning process and their improvement in the language program, the unsatisfactory learning experience would impede them from consistently striving for their ultimate goal of learning the target language in the future.

The effects of language instructions, particularly teachers’ feedback, on learners’
motivation have been widely acknowledged (Inbar, Donista-Schmidt, & Shohamy, 2001; McGroarty, 2001; Noels, 2001). Inbar et al. (2001) suggested the quality of the teaching program as the factor that had the most significant influence on learners’ intention to carry on their acquisition of Arabic. Learners expressed sensitive expectation of the quality of language class and their learning situation (McGroarty, 2001). As a result, language teachers’ failures in providing informative and consistent feedback had a negative effect on learners’ intrinsic motivation (Noels, 2001). These results have shed evident light on language teachers’ substantial roles in motivating the learners.

In their research probing into language teachers’ motivational strategies, Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) investigated 200 Hungarian English teachers’ opinions of a selection of 51 strategies and how frequently they operated them in their teaching practice. According to their questionnaire, one of the main teacher-specific motivational components in the learning situation level was considered teachers’ feedback (p.206). In the process of the systematic “socialization of student motivation” (p.207), teachers’ feedback had an influential impact on building learners’ self-confidence and arousing their learning passion. In his previous study, Dörnyei (1994) had defined feedback as the process that “carries a clear message about the teacher’s priorities and is reflected in the students’ motivation” (p.278). However, it is necessary to bear in mind that, according to Dörnyei, teachers’ feedback should be dominantly positive and include praise (1998, p.211), and the informational feedback, such as comments on learners’ achievement, should comprise a larger proportion than
the controlling feedback judging learners’ performance in comparison with standards of proficiency (1994, p.278).

Guilloteaux and Dörnyei’s (2008) large-scale research of more than 1300 EFL students investigated the effect of language teachers’ teaching strategies on students’ language learning motivation. The researchers examined “the amount of attention the students pay in class and the extent of their participation and volunteering in tasks” (p.58) and analyzed students’ responses to their Motivational State Questionnaire. One of the observational variables measured in their study was whether language teachers encouraged students to self-correct and self-revise, which comprised CF in the form of prompts. The results demonstrated a “highly significant positive correlation” (p.69) between teachers’ practices and learners’ motivated performances. In addition to students’ behavior in class, teachers’ motivational teaching strategies were “associated with a more general appreciation of the whole course” (p.60). However, drawing on 25 motivational variables of which 3 related to teachers’ feedback, this study aimed at showing the whole picture of the effect of teachers’ motivational practice on students’ learning process, instead of that of their feedback, or corrections.

Few studies have investigated the relationship between teachers’ corrective feedback and learners’ language learning motivation, one of which is DeKeyser’s (1993) research on the efficiency of oral error correction and the contributing factors in terms of learners’ individual characteristics. This study confirmed his hypothesis of the positive interaction between learners’ motivation and the effect of error correction
with the result that students with stronger motivation took better advantage of language teachers’ error corrections, particularly on their oral fluency and oral accuracy.

As Ortega (2009) argued, the correlation between motivation and language learning behavior has always been reciprocal in a way that higher motivation benefits L2 learning and successful L2 learning experience conversely stimulates motivation. In consequence, future research is needed to investigate whether and how teachers’ techniques of corrective feedback influence learners’ motivation and their L2 learning process. Bell’s (2005) study of teachers’ perceptions probing effective foreign language teaching revealed language teachers’ conflicting opinions concerning error correction: (a) less agreements were achieved in teachers’ attitudes towards error correction in general; (b) close percentages expressing agreement and disagreement emerged in 2 of the 7 items with respect to error correction; and (c) more than 10% of the language teachers suggested uncertainty about the role of error correction in L2 classes. Taking the “reinforcing cycle” (Ortega, 2009, p.189) of the motivational process and language teachers’ concerns into consideration, it is essential to conduct complementary research which focuses on the effect of CF on their language learning motivation, in particular the discrepancy between learners’ expectation of CF and their teachers’ practices in class. These potential studies (as well as this present one) will play a supportive role in teachers’ understanding of the function of CF, and of the interrelationship between CF and learning motivation, in order to answer their frequent question of “what to do about error correction” (DeKeyser, 1993, p.501):
specifically, how to effectively embed CF into their teaching curriculum and improve the teaching and learning activities in future L2 classes.

In conclusion, CF has proven to play a scaffolding role in learners’ acquisition of the target language. Moreover, it correlates with noticing and motivation, the two widely acknowledged variables that will influence language teaching and learning process. Meanwhile, the effectiveness of CF varies with respect to its type and the instructional settings.

Nevertheless, although previous studies were conducted to investigate learners’ preferences for CF in various contexts, few have probed the interrelation between learners’ preferences and the effectiveness of CF in general as well as of CF of certain type(s). Schulz (1996) stated that the discrepancy between learners’ perceptions and their language teachers’ practices in class “can have negative effects on instructional outcomes” (p.349). Considering CF, Allen et al. (1990) noted the detrimental effect of inconsistent CF on L2 learning process. In consequence, learners’ perceptions of CF should receive more attention as a result of the potential “relationship between learners’ preferences in the classroom and the effectiveness of learning” (Kaivanpanah et al., 2012, p.17).

Therefore, the present research aims to examine learners’ perceptions of CF in detail, to investigate the contributing factor(s) of their preferences, and to study the effect of their preferences on their noticing and motivation in the L2 learning process. Accordingly, more comprehensive understating of learners’ beliefs and their role(s) will be gained in order to tailor future language teaching activities in accordance with
learners’ expectations.

5. Research Questions

In the present study, I aim to investigate university-level Chinese second language (CSL) learners’ perceptions of corrective feedback. This research will first focus on learners’ (a) attitudes towards CF; (b) preferred type(s) of CF; (c) perceptions of the effects of CF on noticing and motivation; and (d) expectations of language teachers’ CF in class. Secondly, it will investigate the differences between learners at different language proficiency levels as well as with different personalities in terms of extraversion and anxiety. Moreover, I will analyze learners’ preferences for specific types of CF in response to different kinds of errors as well as in response to their use of their L1(s) in class. The study has been designed to answer the following research questions:

1. What are university-level Chinese second language (CSL) learners’ perceptions of CF with respect to their (a) attitudes towards CF; (b) preferences for different types of CF; (c) perceptions of the effects of CF on noticing and motivation; (d) expectations of language teachers’ techniques of CF in class?

2. Are there significant differences in learners’ perceptions of CF in terms of their language proficiency level, their degrees of extraversion, and degrees of anxiety?
   If so, what are they?

3. What type(s) of CF do learners prefer in response to pronunciation, lexical, and grammatical errors as well as their use of L1?

   In the next chapter, I will present the method of the present study including the
research setting, the participants, the research procedures, the instruments used for collecting data, and the data analysis.
CHAPTER 3

METHOD

This method chapter comprises detailed information about the research setting, the participants, the research procedures, the methods used for data collection and data analysis, and the ethical considerations of the privacy and confidentiality of all the participants.

1. Research setting

The present research was conducted in three public universities in Tianjin, China. Under the curriculum criteria created by Hanban, the non-government organization affiliated with the Ministry of Education of China, the course settings were similar in all the universities. The main goal of the Chinese language programs in the universities was to prepare learners for Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi (HSK), translated as Chinese Proficiency Test. Since HSK consists of two parts—a written test and an oral one, the programs contained two kinds of courses as well: (a) the input course in which linguistic knowledge such as new vocabulary and grammatical structures were taught to learners and (b) the output course in which learners were provided opportunities such as participating oral dialogues and doing presentations to practice the target structures learned in the input courses.

Each learner must take a language proficiency test designed by the teaching teams of the universities before entering the programs. According to their scores, they were assigned to one of three levels—beginner (Level 1), intermediate (Level 2) or advanced (Level 3), which are in accordance with the three competencies in HSK. At each level, learners had four courses per week: two input courses and two output ones. As introduced above, they learned linguistic knowledge in the input courses and practiced the target structures in the following output ones. Each course lasted 100
minutes, with a 10 minute-break in the middle.

Though the number of learners in each level was unequal, there were approximately 20 learners in each class and were two to four classes in each level at each university. Targeting learners in all the three levels, the present research was able to investigate whether learners’ perceptions of CF vary according to their language ability.

2. Participants

One hundred forty-seven learners in the three universities participated in the present study. However, many of the participants surprisingly chose to not fill in the information section in the questionnaire in which their age, nationality, language background and learning experience were required. Therefore, the only information concerning the participants was that they are adult learners aged from 18 to 29, majoring in Asian Studies or Chinese Literature. Among them, 48 were from Level 1, 74 were from Level 2, and 25 were from Level 3, according to the introduction by the director of their programs.

3. Procedures

3.1 Research Design

The present research uses a mixed method design, in which “both quantitative and qualitative data are collected simultaneously” (Creswell, 2009, p. 228). This study focuses primarily on the quantitative data collected by the questionnaire which was specifically designed for the study. In order to investigate the detailed reasons for learners’ responses to the questionnaire and gain more comprehensive understanding, qualitative data were collected through in-depth semi-structured interviews. In total, 24 learners volunteered to take part in the interviews.
3.2 Data collection

Data collection began in May 2014 and lasted for two and a half months in China. The study was first explained to all learners so that they could decide whether or not to participate. The following day, the researcher distributed the consent forms together with the questionnaire to all learners and those who were willing to participate needed to sign the consent form to give permission prior to responding to the questionnaire. The administration of the questionnaire took approximately 30 minutes: 5 minutes for the instructions and 25 minutes for answering. The researcher ensured that all the learners who were willing to participate understood the items in the questionnaire, and collected all the completed questionnaires. The in-depth interviews were carried out after all the questionnaires were collected. The interviews were conducted in private outside the classrooms in places chosen by the participants and lasted for approximately 15 minutes each. The questionnaire is anonymous and the confidentiality of the participants was protected during the whole process. The participants received a Chinese craft as a gift. All the learners who were interviewed received a coaster with traditional Chinese patterns on it as a gift. The language teachers were given a McGill notebook as compensation.

4. Instrumentation

4.1 Questionnaire

In the absence of any standardized instruments investigating learners’ perceptions of CF, the researcher specifically designed a questionnaire for the present study. Some questions were inspired by those used by Jean and Simard (2011) and Schulz (1996, 2001) in their studies of teachers’ and students’ preferences for CF. In order to avoid comprehension difficulties, the administration of the questionnaire and the questionnaire itself were in both English and Chinese (Mandarin).
The questionnaire consists of three parts. The first section contains 21 Likert-scale questions eliciting learners’ (a) attitudes toward CF; (b) preferences for different types of CF; (c) perceptions of the effects of CF on their noticing and motivation; and (d) expectations regarding CF techniques used by teachers. All the questions were formulated as statements in order to enable learners to express whether they strongly disagreed (1), disagreed (2), agreed (3), or strongly agreed (4).

Of the 21 questions, 6 were designed to investigate whether learners held generally positive attitudes towards CF as well as their feelings when being corrected, as Table 2 presents.

Table 2. Questions related to learners’ attitudes towards CF

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I like it when my teacher corrects my error(s) in my oral performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>If my teacher corrects me in my oral performance, I will feel interrupted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>If my teacher corrects me in my oral performance, I will feel frustrated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I would be more comfortable / confident if my teacher never corrected me in my oral performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I would like my teacher to correct me every time when I make a mistake.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I would not like my teacher to correct me too many times because I would feel overwhelmed.</td>
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</table>

In addition, 5 statements were related to CF types with one general statement asking whether learners have preferences for CF types and four statements concerning specific CF types—explicit correction, recast and prompts. Table 3 shows the statements used.
Table 3. Questions related to learners’ preferences for 3 types of CF

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<th>Question</th>
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<tr>
<td>7) It makes no difference which technique my teacher uses to correct my mistake(s), because I do not have any preferences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8) When being corrected, I would like my teacher to explicitly tell me that I have made a mistake and provide me the correct way of saying it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9) When being corrected, I would like my teacher to “repeat” my sentence with the correct form but without telling me she/he is correcting me and continue our previous topic.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10) I like it if I have the chance to correct my mistake(s) by myself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11) Generally, I do not feel embarrassed when my teacher asks me to correct the mistake(s) myself but I do not know how.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The third part of this section focused on whether CF affected learners’ language learning with respect to their noticing and motivation. Seven questions were asked among which one was about learners’ general perception of the effect of CF; three were about the effect of CF on noticing and three were about CF’s effect on learning motivation, as presented in Table 4.
Table 4. Questions related to learners’ perceptions of the effect of CF

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<td>12) My willingness to participate in the classroom activities/conversations will not be influenced no matter which way my teacher uses to correct my mistake(s).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13) It would be easier for me to notice my teacher’s correction if it were a type of correction I like.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14) If my teacher corrected me using the way I prefer, I would likely to pay more attention to how she/he is correcting me and the mistake(s) she/he has pointed out for me, and the correct form(s).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15) It will be harder for me to notice my teacher’s correction when she/he corrects me using the way I do not like.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16) If my teacher corrected me using the way I do not like, I would likely to pay less and less attention to how she/he is correcting me and the mistake(s) she/he has pointed out for me, and the correct form(s).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17) If my teacher corrected my mistake(s) using the way I like, I would be likely to take a more active part in classroom activities/conversations (in order to have more chances to get my teacher’s corrections).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18) If my teacher corrected my mistake(s) using the way I do not like, I would be likely to take a less active part in classroom activities/conversations (in order to avoid getting my teacher’s corrections).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The last part contained three questions regarding learners’ expectations of their teacher’s CF and whether they would communicate with their teachers concerning the CF techniques used in class. Table 5 presents these questions.

Table 5. Questions related to learners’ expectations of CF

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19) Generally, I will not say so or show my feelings even though I am not satisfied with the way(s) my teacher uses to correct my mistake(s).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20) I like it if my teacher can understand my preferences and pay attention to how I would like to be corrected.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21) I like it if my teacher can use the way I like to have my mistake(s) corrected.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second part of the questionnaire consists of four multiple-choice questions. By giving specific contexts, this part elicits learners’ preferences for CF type in response to particular kinds of error (pronunciation, grammatical, and lexical) and
learners’ use of L1. These multiple-choice questions were then used to confirm the data collected in the Likert-scale section and to further study learners’ preferences for CF in response to specific types of errors and situations in class.

As an example, Table 6 provides the multiple-choice question concerning pronunciation errors. The other ones for lexical and grammatical errors followed the same format.

Table 6. An example of the multiple-choice questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>When I mispronounce a word while speaking Mandarin in class, I would like my teacher to:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A) Ask me to “Say it again?” without directly pointing out the mistake I have made.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B) Directly point out my error, as “The pronunciation of XX was wrong, try again”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C) Point out my mistake and tell me the correct pronunciation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D) Reformulate the word with the correct pronunciation without telling me she/he is correcting me and continue our previous topic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E) Telling me “There is a mistake in the sentence, could you try to say it again?” and encourage me to correct it myself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F) Repeat my sentence, pausing before the word that I have mispronounced to give me the chance to self-correct.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G) Repeat my error using stress or special intonation to highlight it, but give me the chance to self-correct.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The questions concerning use of L1, as Table 7 presents, did not include directly pointing out the mistake, highlighting the mistake, or repeating the mistake because concerning that the use of L1, as the problem source is obvious to the learners and thus the language teachers seldom use those techniques to remind them the existence of the “error”. Moreover, teachers may not be able to speak learners’ L1.

In order to gain a more comprehensive understanding of learners’ preferences for different types of CF in this section, in addition to explicit correction (option C) and recasts (option D), prompts were further divided into four types: clarification requests (option A), metalinguistic feedback (option B), elicitation (option F), and repetition
(option G). This classification is adapted from Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) influential study. The researcher added one more type of clarification requests with a cue to the error source (option E) because some learners in the pilot research suggested that they sometimes misunderstood the reason of their teachers’ clarification requests as they had not said the sentence clearly enough instead of as the existence of a mistake. As a result, some expressed preference for clarification requests with a clear hint that there was an error in their sentence.

Table 7. The multiple-choice question concerning use of L1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A.</td>
<td>Directly say this word for me, as “a new can guan (restaurant)” and continue our previous topic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.</td>
<td>Tell me explicitly as “can guan, in Mandarin, the word is ‘can guan (restaurant)’”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C.</td>
<td>Ask me “What is the meaning of restaurant?” and encourage me to try to correct myself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>Give me some cues such as “In Mandarin, restaurant is ‘can…”’ and encourage me to try to correct myself.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The third section was a personality test, known as the Big Five Inventory (BFI), adapted from the Berkeley Personality Lab (John & Srivastava, 1999) with permission. BFI is a self-report inventory designed to measure five main dimensions of a person’s characteristics with 44 short phrases in total. Participants were asked to indicate to which degree they agree with the 44 items describing a characteristic. Each dimension includes 8 to 10 items. In accordance to the scoring instruction by the Berkeley Personality Lab, a score was given for each dimension according to the participants’ responses to the items included. The present study focused on two of the five dimensions—extraversion and anxiety, which have been shown in the literature to be closely related to language acquisition (Ortega, 2009).
Before the implementation, 20 students from a similar instructional setting—another public university in Nanjing, China—assisted the researcher in piloting the questionnaire in order to provide constructive feedback. According to the administrations, learners reported that they did not have difficulties in understanding and responding to the questions. However, they suggested that they preferred to have the multiple-choice section as the first part because the examples in this section would help them understand some of the statements in the Likert-scale part. As a result, the order of the sections was altered and two repetitive statements in the Likert-scale section were removed.

4.2 In-depth interviews

The interviews were semi-structured with six guiding questions, as presented in Table 8, intended to complement the questionnaire by focusing on the reasons for learners’ answers on the questionnaire. Moreover, the interviews also confirmed learners’ perceptions of CF with respect to their attitudes, preferences for different types of CF, perceptions of the effect of CF, and expectations of teachers’ CF. In order to be analyzed in detail; each interview was audio-taped and transcribed in its entirety. In addition, the interviews were conducted in either Chinese or English according to learners’ choices and those in Chinese were translated into English for analysis.
Table 8. Guiding questions of the interviews

1. Would you like to be corrected in class?
2. What kind of correction do you prefer to get?
3. How does your teacher usually correct your errors? How do you feel about the way your teacher corrects you? (With detailed reasons)
4. When the teacher repeats your sentence, will it be easy for you to notice the difference between your original sentence and his/her repeated one, if there is any?
5. Will the way that your teacher corrects you influence your noticing of the errors?
6. Will the way that your teacher corrects you influence your motivation?

5. Data Analysis

The data collected by the questionnaire were analyzed statistically by comparing the responses of learners, having been divided into low-extraversion/anxiety or high-extraversion/anxiety groups. According to the scoring instructions of the BFI, each dimension contains 8 questions with a total score of 40 and each participant can be assigned two scores—one showing their degrees of extraversion and the other showing their degrees of anxiety. Following this procedure, participants were firstly divided into low/high extraversion groups by comparing their scores of extraversion with 20, the mean score; and then into low/high anxiety groups by comparing their scores of anxiety with 20, the mean score. Then, the four-point Likert-scale questions were analyzed via one-way ANOVA in order to test the differences among participants at different levels, with different degrees of extraversion and anxiety (Yockey, 2011). The significance level was set at 0.05. Because the sizes of each group were unequal, the Brown-Forsythe test was used instead of ANOVA when the test of homogeneity of variances was significant. In those cases, 0.05 was set as level of statistically significance.

The second part of the questionnaire was analyzed by means of frequency
distributions to show the number of participants that chose one of the four or seven possible answers in the multiple-choice section (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 2003).

The results of the semi-structured interviews were first coded: the researcher labelled the commonly expressed words, ideas and opinions while reading and took notes for future interpretations. During the content analysis process, thorough comparisons of the main ideas of learners who had different preferences for the three investigated types of CF were made. In addition, the reasons provided were included. Based on the analysis, the recurrent themes were classified and interpretations were made.
CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The data of the present study comprise two parts: (a) the quantitative data collected through the questionnaire; and (b) the qualitative data collected during the in-depth semi-structured interviews. In this section, I will present the results of the quantitative and qualitative data analysis. Further interpretation and detailed discussion will be in the following discussion chapter.

1. Results of the questionnaire—the Likert-scale section

The Likert-scale section contains four parts: learners’ attitudes towards CF; their preferences for different types of CF; their perceptions of the effects of CF on noticing and motivation; their expectations regarding the teacher’s CF in class. Participants were asked to rank statements according to whether they strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), agree (3), or strongly agree (4). In order to answer the first research question probing learners’ perception of CF, learner responses were grouped as a whole and their frequency was analyzed. Raw numbers were presented for the participants’ responses according to each of the four rankings (i.e., strongly disagree, disagree, agree, and strong agree) and percentages were provided for overall disagreement (strongly disagree + disagree) and overall agreement (strongly agree + agree).

For the second research question, which investigated differences between learners’ perceptions of CF with respect to their language proficiency levels, degrees of extraversion, and degrees of anxiety, a one-way ANOVA was computed to detect
significant statistical differences. The Brown-Forsythe test was also used when the
test of homogeneity of variances indicated a significant difference. Additionally, when
the ANOVA revealed a significant difference between groups, learners were divided
according to their levels, degrees of extraversion, and degrees of anxiety and the
frequency of their answers will be analyzed. Both the raw numbers and the
percentages were presented for the participants’ responses according to each of the
four rankings.

1.1 Learners’ perceptions of CF

1.1.1 Attitudes towards CF

In response to the statement that they liked teachers’ CF, of the 147
participants, only 2 strongly disagreed and 7 disagreed (6%) while 64 agreed and 74
strongly agreed (94%). Concerning the amount of CF, 57 learners strongly agreed and
57 agreed (78%) that they wanted to be corrected for every error, while only 28
disagreed and only 5 strongly disagreed (22%). Yet, 1 strongly agreed and 53 agreed
(37%) with feeling overwhelmed by CF for very error while 62 learners disagreed and
31 strongly disagreed (63%). These results showed that among the many learners who
would like to get CF for every single error, some of them nonetheless expressed
feeling overwhelmed by so much CF.

In addition, the results demonstrated that learners did not hold other negative
feelings towards CF as strongly as feeling overwhelmed. Eight strongly agreed and 48
agreed (38%) that CF was interruptive while 2 strongly agreed and 25 agreed (18%)
that CF caused feelings of frustration. Only 8 strongly agreed and 14 agreed (15%)
with the statement that they felt comfortable not being corrected.

1.1.2 Preferences for different types of CF

Seventeen learners strongly disagreed and 70 disagreed (59%) with the statement that they did not have preferences for any particular type of CF, while 51 agreed and 9 strongly (41%) agreed.

In response to the statement expressing a preference for explicit correction, 65 agreed and 49 strongly agreed (78%), while 31 disagreed and 2 strongly disagreed (32%). In response to the statement expressing a preference for recasts, 58 agreed and only 5 strongly agreed (42%), while 62 disagreed and 22 strongly disagreed (58%), thus demonstrating a more negative than positive attitudes towards recasts as CF. In contrast, learners’ attitude towards prompts as CF was more positive: In response to the statement expressing a preference for prompts, 82 agreed and 38 strongly agreed (82%), while 21 disagreed and only 6 strongly disagreed (18%).

The finding that 60% of the learners hold negative attitudes towards recasts and over 80% like to have prompts as CF clearly demonstrates a preference for prompts over recasts from the learners’ perspective.

1.1.3 Perceptions of the effect of CF on noticing and motivation

Whereas 8 learners strongly agreed and 62 agreed (48%) with the statement that their teacher’s CF would, in general, have no influence on their classroom performance, learners tended to indicate that if the CF was a type they preferred then it would have positive effects on their noticing and motivation. That is, 25 learners strongly agreed and 95 agreed (82%) with the statement that, if given preferred CF,
they would be more likely to notice the CF, while 23 disagreed and only 4 strongly disagreed (18%). Similarly, 33 strongly agreed and 97 agreed (88%) with the statement that they would pay more attention to teacher’s CF if it was a type they preferred. In addition, 48 strongly agreed and 85 agreed (91%) that preferred CF would encourage them to take a more active part in class. It is worth noting that none of the learners strongly disagreed with the last statement, indicating their positive perceptions of the influence of preferred CF types on their classroom participation.

1.1.4 Expectations of teacher’s CF

Regarding the statement that they want teachers to understand how they would like to be corrected, 53 learners strongly agreed and 87 agreed (95%), while only 5 disagreed and 2 strongly disagreed (5%). Likewise, 42 strongly agreed and 95 agreed (93%) with the statement that they want their teacher to correct their errors using CF types they prefer, while only 8 disagreed and 2 strongly disagreed (7%).

These results demonstrate learners’ desire for their teachers to pay attention to their preferences for CF and to provide their preferred CF during class. However, in sharp contrast to the finding that more than 90% of the learners expressed a desire to be corrected in the way they prefer, 35 learners strongly agreed and 69 agreed (71%) that, even if they were not satisfied with their teachers’ CF, they would not express their feelings to their teachers; 39 disagreed and only 4 strongly disagreed (29%) with this statement, indicating they would communicate their preferences to their teachers.

1.2 Perceptions of learners in different levels

The perceptions of learners at three different proficiency levels are analyzed in
this section. Level 1 comprises beginners \((n = 48)\), Level 2 includes intermediate learners \((n = 74)\), and Level 3 \((n = 25)\) has advanced learners.

1.2.1 Attitudes towards CF

To analyze the learners’ attitudes towards CF, the homogeneity of variance across the three levels was checked by using Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances, which was not significant \((p = .336)\), thus meeting the assumptions for ANOVA. The ANOVA showed no significant difference between groups with respect to their attitudes towards CF, \(F(2,144) = .632, p = .533\).

1.2.2 Preferences for different types of CF

Levene’s Tests of Equality of Error Variances found no significance between groups for any CF types: explicit correction \((p = .414)\), recasts \((p = .330)\), and prompts \((p = .618)\), thus meeting the assumptions for ANOVA. The ANOVA showed no significant difference between groups with respect to their attitudes towards recasts, \(F(2,144) = .265, p = .768\) and prompts, \(F(2,144) = .481, p = .619\), while significant differences emerged in their attitudes towards explicit correction, \(F(2,144) = 4.768, p = .010\).

Tukey’s HSD post hoc procedure indicated that learners in Level 1 \((M = 3.23, SD = .751)\) and those in Level 2 \((M = 3.15, SD = .734)\) had significantly more positive attitudes towards explicit correction than their peers in Level 3 \((M = 2.68, SD = .802)\). There was no significant difference between learners in Level 1 and Level 2.
Table 9. Number (and percentage) of responses for explicit correction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opinion</th>
<th>Level 1 (n = 48)</th>
<th>Level 2 (n = 74)</th>
<th>Level 3 (n = 25)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>number</td>
<td>percentage</td>
<td>number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>45.8</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to this result, learners in Level 3 hold clearly more negative attitudes towards explicit correction as CF. Figure 1 graphically presents these results.

Figure 1. Relative frequencies of responses for explicit correction

1.2.3 Perceptions of the effects of CF on noticing and motivation

Levene’s Tests of Equality of Error Variances revealed no significance between groups concerning their perceptions of the effects of CF on noticing ($p = .987$) and motivation ($p = .739$), thus meeting the assumptions for ANOVA. In this regard, the ANOVA showed no significant differences between groups, neither with respect to their perceptions of the effect of CF on noticing, $F(2,144) = 1.340, p = .265$, nor with respect to motivation, $F(2,144) = .579, p = .562$.

1.2.4 Expectations of teachers’ CF

To analyze the learners’ expectations of teachers’ CF, the homogeneity of variance between learners in three levels was checked by using Levene’s Test of
Equality of Error Variances, which was not significant ($p = .342$), thus meeting the assumptions for ANOVA. The ANOVA showed no significant differences between groups with respect to their expectations of teacher’s CF, $F(2,144) = 1.586, p = .208$.

1.3 Perceptions of learners with different degrees of extraversion

According to the scoring instructions of the BFI, the dimension of extraversion contains eight questions with a total score of 40. By comparing each learner’s individual score and the mean score, which is 20, learners were assigned to either the low-extraversion (LE) group ($n = 38$) or the high-extraversion (HE) group ($n = 109$). Results of the perceptions of learners in the two groups are presented next.

1.3.1 Attitudes towards CF

Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances was not significant ($p = .342$), thus meeting the assumptions for ANOVA. The ANOVA showed no significant difference between the LE and HE groups with respect to their attitude towards CF, $F(2,144) = 1.401, p = .120$.

1.3.2 Preferences for different types of CF

To analyze the learners’ preferences for different types of CF, the homogeneity of variance between the two groups was checked by using Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances, which was not significant for any CF types: explicit correction ($p = .064$), recasts ($p = .061$), or prompts ($p = .255$), thus meeting the assumptions for ANOVA. The ANOVA showed no significant differences between groups with respect to their attitudes towards recasts, $F(2,122) = .988, p = .486$, but revealed significant differences between groups in their attitudes towards explicit correction, $F(2, 122)$
=1.622, \( p = .047 \), and towards prompts, \( F(2, 122) = 3.405, p < .001 \).

Table 10. *Number (and percentage) of responses for explicit correction*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extraversion Opinion</th>
<th>Low ((n = 38))</th>
<th>High ((n = 109))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>34.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 10, 14 of the 38 learners in LE group (37%) disagreed with the statement affirming a preference for explicit correction, which is proportionally higher than results for the HE group in which only 17 of the 109 learners disagreed (16%), 38 strongly agreed (35%), and 52 agreed (48%), as illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 2. *Relative frequencies of responses for explicit correction*

Table 11. *Number (and percentage) of responses for prompts*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extraversion Opinion</th>
<th>Low ((n = 38))</th>
<th>High ((n = 109))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>47.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Concerning a preference for prompts, a higher proportion of learners in the HE group hold positive attitudes: of 109 learners in this group, 32 strongly agreed (29%)
and 64 agreed (59%); of their 38 peers in LE group, 6 strongly agreed (16%) and 18 agreed (47%). Meanwhile, a significantly higher proportion of learners in the LE group expressed disagreement with the statement affirming a preference for prompts: 12 disagreed (32%) and 2 strongly disagreed (5%). In contrast, of the 109 learners in the HE group, only 9 disagreed (8%) and 4 strongly disagreed (4%) (See Figure 3).

**Figure 3. Relative frequencies of responses for prompts**

1.3.3 Perceptions of the effects of CF on noticing and motivation

Regarding participants’ perceptions of the effect of CF on motivation, Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances confirmed the homogeneity of variance between the two groups \(p = .105\), thus meeting the assumptions for ANOVA. The ANOVA showed no significant difference between groups with respect to their perceptions of the effect of CF on motivation, \(F(2,122) = 1.448, p = .099\). However, Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances was significant with respect to learners’ perceptions of the effect of CF on noticing \(p = .002\). Consequently, the difference between the HE and LE groups in their perceptions of the effect of CF on noticing in was checked by the Brown-Forsythe test, which was not significant \(p = .549\).
1.3.4 Expectations of teachers’ CF

To analyze the learners’ expectations of their teachers’ CF, the homogeneity of variance between the two groups was confirmed by Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances ($p = .201$), thus meeting the assumptions for ANOVA. The ANOVA showed no significant difference between groups with respect to their expectations, $F(2,122) = 1.240$, $p = .222$.

1.4 Perceptions of learners with different degrees of anxiety

Similar to extraversion, the dimension of anxiety also contains eight questions with a total score of 40. Accordingly, learners were assigned either to the low-anxiety (LA) group ($n = 60$) or the high-anxiety (HA) group ($n = 87$). Results of the perceptions of learners in the two groups are presented next.

1.4.1 Attitudes towards CF

To analyze the learners’ attitudes towards CF, the homogeneity of variance between LA and HA groups was checked by using Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances, which was not significant ($p = .117$), thus meeting the assumptions for ANOVA. The ANOVA revealed a significant difference between groups with respect to their attitudes towards CF, $F(2,126) = 1.690$, $p = .043$.

In order to investigate the statements towards which the two groups showed significantly different attitudes, a one-way ANOVA was done for each of the six statements in this part of the questionnaire. For all six statements, there was homogeneity of various across both groups. The one-way ANOVAs revealed significant differences between the groups with respect to their positive attitudes
towards CF ($p = .0002$) and also their negative feelings towards CF including feelings of being interrupted ($p = .0003$), frustrated ($p = .0025$), and uncomfortable ($p = .0154$).

I will now compare the frequency between groups for each of the four statements with tables and graphs.

### 1.4.1.1 General positive attitudes

Although more than 90% of the learners in both the LA and HA groups agreed or strongly agreed with the statement expressing a general positive attitude towards CF, there was a significantly higher proportion of learners in the LA group (i.e., 41/60 or 68%) strongly agreed with this statement compared to the HA group (46/87 or 53%). Moreover, 2 learners disagreed (2%) and 8 strongly disagreed (13%) with this statement in HA group, whereas only 1 disagreed (2%) in LA group and none strongly disagreed. Figure 4 clearly shows the differences mentioned above.

**Figure 4. Relative frequencies of responses for the positive attitudes towards CF**

### 1.4.1.2 Negative feelings

In addition to expressing different levels of agreement concerning overall positive attitudes, the two groups also expressed significantly different opinions about negative feelings pertaining to interruption, frustration, and discomfort, when being
corrected.

**Figure 5. Relative frequencies of responses for feeling of interruption**

As displayed graphically in Figure 5, of the 87 learners in the HA group, 32 agreed (37%) and 5 strongly agreed (6%) that they felt interrupted by CF, whereas of the 60 learners in the LA group, only 8 agreed (13%) and 3 strongly agreed (5%). Similar results were reported concerning feelings of frustration: 20 learners in the HA group agreed (23%), while only 5 in the LA group did (8%) and 16 strongly disagreed (18%) in the HA group, while 24 in the LA group did (40%), suggested in Figure 6.

**Figure 6. Relative frequencies of responses for feeling of frustration**

Likewise, in the HA group, a higher proportion of learners agreed (14%) and strongly agreed (8%) with the statement expressing their feelings of discomfort.
compared to the LA group, in which only 2 agreed (3%) and 1 strongly agreed (2%).

Figure 7. Relative frequencies of responses for feeling of discomfort

It is worth noting that despite the differences between the HA and the LA groups concerning the degrees of agreement with statements expressing positive attitudes, significantly more learners in both groups disagreed or strongly disagreed with all three negative feelings of CF, which confirmed the result that learners generally hold positive attitudes towards CF.

1.4.2 Preferences for different types of CF

To analyze the learners’ preferences for different types of CF, the homogeneity of variance between the two groups was checked by using Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances, which was not significant for any CF types: explicit correction ($p = .551$), recasts ($p = .773$), or prompts ($p = .460$), thus meeting the assumptions for ANOVA. The ANOVA revealed significant differences between groups with respect to their attitudes towards all the three CF types: explicit correction, $F(2, 126) = 2.314, p = .003$; recasts, $F(2,126) = 1.792, p = .028$; and prompts, $F(2, 126) = 2.504, p = .001$. 
As shown in Table 12, 10 of the 60 learners in the LA group (17%) disagreed with the statement affirming a preference for explicit correction, which is proportionally lower than results for the HA group in which 21 of the 87 learners (24%) disagreed. Meanwhile, significantly more learners in the LA group (43%) strongly agreed than their peers in the HA group (26%), as illustrated in Figure 8.

**Figure 8. Relative frequencies of responses for explicit correction**

![Figure 8. Relative frequencies of responses for explicit correction](image)

Table 13. *Number (and percentage) of responses for recasts*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Anxiety Opinion</th>
<th>Low ($n = 60$)</th>
<th>High ($n = 87$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>number</td>
<td>percentage</td>
<td>number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>10 (16.7)</td>
<td>12 (13.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>28 (46.7)</td>
<td>34 (39.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>20 (33.3)</td>
<td>38 (43.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>2 (3.3)</td>
<td>3 (3.4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Concerning a preference for recasts, 38 learners in the HE group agreed (44%) and 34 disagreed (39%), while 20 of their 60 peers in the LA group agreed (33%) and
28 disagreed (47%). The blue and red columns in Figure 9 clearly show the difference.

Figure 9. Relative frequencies of responses for recasts

Table 14. Number (and percentage) of responses for prompts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Anxiety Opinion</th>
<th>Low ((n = 60))</th>
<th>High ((n = 87))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>number</td>
<td>percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>58.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 14, 17 of the 87 learners in the HA group disagreed (20%) with the statement affirming a preference for prompts, which is proportionally higher than results for the LA group in which only 4 of the 60 learners disagreed (7%).

Meanwhile, 5 in the HA group strongly disagreed (6%) and only 1 in the LA group strongly disagreed (2%). Moreover, a significantly higher proportion of learners in the LA group strongly agreed (33%) compared to their peers in the HA group (21%), as illustrated in Figure 10.
However, it should be noted that in both groups, proportionally more learners agreed (58% in the LA group and 54% in the HA group) and strongly agreed (33% in the LA group and 21% in the HA group), which again demonstrates learners’ generally positive attitude towards prompts.

1.4.3 Perceptions of the effects of CF on noticing and motivation

Levene’s Tests of Equality of Error Variances revealed no significance between groups concerning their perceptions of the effects of CF on noticing ($p = .083$) and motivation ($p = .154$), thus meeting the assumptions for ANOVA. In this regard, the ANOVA showed no significant differences between groups, neither with respect to their perceptions of the effect of CF on noticing, $F(2,126) = .873, p = .620$, nor with respect to motivation, $F(2,126) = 1.607, p = .393$.

1.4.4 Expectations of teachers’ CF

Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances was significant with respect to learners’ expectations of teachers’ CF ($p = .031$). Consequently, the difference between the HA and the LA groups in their expectations of teachers’ CF was checked by the Brown-Forsythe test, which was not significant ($p = .256$).
2. Results of the questionnaire—the multiple-choice section

The multiple-choice section consisted of four multiple-choice questions pertaining to contexts of pronunciation, grammatical, lexical errors as well as using of L1. This section presents analysis to answer the third research question probing the types of CF learners prefer to receive on different types of error and following the use of L1 in the L2 class.

The participants were asked to choose one of the options as the type of CF they preferred to get considering the situation described in the statement. The classification of CF was adapted from that in Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) study, which included explicit correction, recasts, prompts (i.e., clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition), with one more type of clarification requests added to include a cue to the error source. Of 147 participants, 137 completed this section. I will do a frequency analysis for each question, in order to demonstrate learners’ preferences concerning particular contexts. Raw numbers are presented in the tables and percentages are used in the explanations.

2.1 Learners’ preferences for CF in response to pronunciation errors

Table 15. *Number of responses for pronunciation errors (n = 137)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronunciation errors</th>
<th>Relative Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>explicit correction</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recasts</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prompts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metalinguistic feedback</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elicitation</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clarification requests</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clarification requests with cue</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>repetition</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 15, of the 137 participants, 38% chose explicit correction as their preferred CF with respect to pronunciation errors, while 18% preferred metalinguistic feedback and 16% preferred recasts. In total, more than 70% of the
learners chose one of these three types of CF.

2.2 Learners’ preferences for CF in response to lexical errors

Table 16. *Number of responses for lexical errors (n = 137)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lexical errors (wrong word choice)</th>
<th>Relative Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>explicit correction</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recasts</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prompts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metalinguistic feedback</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elicitation</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clarification requests</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clarification requests with the cue</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>repetition</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similar results appeared in Table 16 concerning lexical errors: 37% of the learners preferred explicit correction, while 20% preferred metalinguistic feedback and 12% preferred recasts. However, it is worth noting that the frequency of the responses for elicitation was 11%, which is close to that for recasts.

2.3 Learners’ preferences for CF in response to grammatical errors

Table 17. *Number of responses for grammatical errors (n = 137)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammatical errors</th>
<th>Relative Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>explicit correction</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recasts</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prompts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metalinguistic feedback</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elicitation</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clarification requests</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clarification requests with the cue</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>repetition</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These results suggested that metalinguistic feedback was the most welcomed CF for grammatical errors (39%). Meanwhile, 20% of the learners expressed preferences for explicit correction and 12.4% for clarification requests with a cue to the error source.
2.4 Learners’ preferences for CF in response to the use of L1

Table 18. *Number of responses for the use of L1 in L2 class (n = 137)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use of L1</th>
<th>Relative Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>explicit correction</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recasts</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prompts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metalinguistic feedback</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clarification requests</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 18, in response to their use of L1, 32% of the learners preferred metalinguistic feedback, whereas 31% preferred recasts and 28% agreed with explicit correction. This result indicated that except clarification requests, learners do not have significantly different preferences for the other three types of CF.

Finally, Table 19 summarized how the learners perceived specific types of CF concerning the three kinds of error as well as the use of L1.

Table 19. *Learners’ perceptions of CF with respect to the types of error and use of L1*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CF</th>
<th>Error</th>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
<th>Lexical</th>
<th>Grammatical</th>
<th>Use of L1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>explicit correction</td>
<td></td>
<td>52</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recasts</td>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prompts</td>
<td>metalinguistic feedback</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elicitation</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>clarification requests</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>clarification requests with the cue</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>repetition</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These results demonstrated that explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback were generally accepted irrespective of the type of error whereas recasts were welcomed in response to pronunciation and lexical errors and other types of prompts were preferred with respect to grammatical errors.

3. Results of the semi-structured interviews

Twenty-four semi-structured in-depth one-to-one interviews were conducted in
order to complement the quantitative data collected through the questionnaire. These
interviews were audio-recorded, then transcribed, translated, and coded through a
content analysis, which revealed six main themes. The purpose of the interviews was
to confirm (or disconfirm) the results of the questionnaire by soliciting the reasons
motivating the learners’ questionnaire responses, as well as to provide more
information about their preferences for CF techniques and their perceptions of the
potential effects of CF on their language learning. In order to protect their privacy and
identity, all participants’ names were replaced by numeric codes.

3.1 Attitudes towards CF and the amount of CF

The first theme discussed in the interviews was whether learners held positive
attitudes towards CF and the amount of CF they preferred to receive. Generally,
learners agreed that they benefited from their teachers’ CF, because it helped them to
avoid repeating the problematical utterances, and they presented willingness to be
corrected for every single error they made in class. The learners provided explanations
such as the following: (a) they preferred to be corrected the first time they made an
error, rather than continuing to make it owing to lack of awareness; (b) as they were
capable of retaining a certain percentage of the linguistic structures taught in class, a
larger quantity of correction would be beneficial for increasing the amount of
knowledge they could acquire and memorize; and (c) with the goal of “master[ing] 

Chinese as the Chinese do,” certain learners wanted to be severe toward themselves in
order to push themselves to pick up and become competent in the target language
speedily.
These expressions were consistent with learners’ responses to the questionnaire which showed a general preference for CF on their errors, and if possible, on every one. However, despite the fact that some learners demonstrated preferences for receiving CF for every error, they were meanwhile concerned with the problem that corrections for each learner’s each error would be time-consuming. With respect to the time limitation of the classes, selective corrections for the “important ones” (i.e., errors that impede comprehension), as long as they were feasible, were considered “acceptable.”

3.2 Types of CF

Similar with the results of the questionnaire, learners expressed support for various types of CF. Precisely, their preferences clustered around explicit correction and prompts. According to the interviews, they provided a variety of reasons in terms of the effectiveness of CF, the negative feelings different CF brought about, as well as the opportunities for self-correction generated by CF.

On the one hand, specific learners claimed a preference for explicit correction with the explanation that being offered directly by the language teachers, the regarded authority in class, explicit correction was believed to be accurate; on the other hand, some learners further indicated worries considering prompts as CF, which elicit self-correction, with concerns such as (a) they were likely to fail to come up with the correct structure, even with sufficient time; or (b) they would ironically make other errors while trying to “correct” resulting from the lack of competency to locate the error. Moreover, certain learners voiced that they would suffer from embarrassment,
as well as from “feeling alone and panic” when being unable to self-correct. They additionally expounded the main causes of the negative feelings as (a) the apologetic emotions of having wasted their classmates’ restricted time in class and (b) experiencing anxiety of being focused on and probably being secretly judged by others (See Excerpt 1).

Excerpt 1.

Learner 1: “…embarrassed…because if they [the classmates] give me time to think about it…I am taking their time and [maybe] I don’t know the answer.”
Learner 22: “I am easy to get nervous, I don’t want my classmates to watch me and listen to me. They may think my error as really simple and even stupid.”

Meanwhile, the insufficient time in class was another main reason that learners favoured explicit correction, because allowing learners to think about the target utterance was thought to be a waste of time. Consequently, they were neither willing to “occupy others’ time” nor to wait for others’ self-corrections. On the contrary, they would rather have the time in class spent on teachers’ instruction and explanations.

In contrast, a large proportion of the learners suggested a preference for prompts. The most frequently mentioned advantage of this type of CF was its efficacy in assisting them in self-acquiring the target knowledge. Many learners agreed that they would better understand and acquire the structures they came up with by themselves than the ones solely offered by the teachers. They reasoned that the process of recalling, reflecting, and producing the structure would help them to transform it from “knowledge to memorize” to “knowledge of my [their] own.” Moreover, the pressure of having to come up with the proper structure themselves would force them to
deliberately concentrate and reflect on it. In other words, compared to “just have a
look at the teacher’s correction,” the substantial efforts spent on recalling the structure
were reported to have a positive impact on learners’ acquisition of the target
structures.

It is necessary to note, however, that although most of the learners agreed that
prompts helped them remember the target structure, one learner, describing herself as
a person frequently getting nervous, claimed that she could memorize the teacher’s
explicit corrections more distinctly and easily, because she “always forget what I [she]
have[has] said,” including her self-corrections.

In addition to the issue of memorizing, some other learners preferred prompts for
the reason that self-corrections would “challenge and push [them] to think,” rather
than passively receiving the utterance in other types of CF, effortlessly. Meanwhile,
some learners indicated that they were not annoyed struggling since their initial goal
was to understand and master the language, instead of finishing the tasks within the
given time of each class and that of the entire program.

Moreover, they further approved of prompts for better preparing them to
communicate in contexts in the actual world: with explicit corrections on every
occasion, learners would get used to being provided the correct structures, which
seldom would the interlocutors in the real world outside the classroom do.

Consequently, learners, being aware of the necessity of generating utterances in the
target language independently, appreciated the opportunities for self-correction
deriving from prompts (See Excerpt 2).
Excerpt 2.

Learner 16: “We want to use the language outside the classroom, if you are always given the answer, you will always be used to have the answer, however, in the real life, nobody will give you the answer.”

Other learners, however, with the exclusive goal of enhancing Chinese language ability, displayed no preferences for specific type(s) of CF as long as they could comprehend their errors and the corrections. Additionally, some expressed the inclination for a mixture of varied types of CF adapted in accordance to their language proficiency level, the kind of error, and the type of target L2 knowledge. First of all, certain learners suggested that teachers should be aware that, for beginners who were less capable of self-correcting, prompts would be time-consuming. As a result, providing explicit corrections, straightforwardly and briefly, would contribute to the effective use of class time by allowing teachers to focus more on teaching the linguistic structures in the beginning stage, which would productively develop learners’ language capacity. Nevertheless, for intermediate, advanced or beginner learners with higher aptitude, prompts would facilitate their mastery of and their output with the target structure(s), in addition to barely understanding the input. At the same time, learners expressed that different types of CF could be given in accordance to the language structures: for the ones they have learnt previously and thus should have the ability to recall, prompts would be the most effective CF whereas for recently encountered structures with which learners were less familiar, explicit corrections, by means of repeating and emphasizing the target structure, would facilitate memorization. In addition, learners had meantime taken the type(s) of error
into consideration. They preferred to be directly and explicitly corrected for inaccurate pronunciations or lexical errors, mentioned as “small mistakes” in their interviews, while being encouraged to locate the grammatical errors and to self-correct.

3.3 Immediate and delayed CF

With respect to the delivery time, CF can be divided into immediate CF, which is provided right after learners’ mistakes, and delayed CF, which is given after the completion of learners’ whole utterance (Sheen, 2011).

In the interviews, the learners held distinct opinions of immediate or delayed CF. Some expressed preferences for being interrupted and provided immediate CF so that they would be able to notice and correct the mistake at once, otherwise they would probably “forget what I[they] have said”; others, however, preferred delayed CF because being corrected “in the middle of the speech” would create interference and confusion, resulting in “get[ting] lost and forget[ing] what I[the learner] am[is] going to say.”

Moreover, one learner supported delayed CF from a unique perspective, saying that having heard the whole sentence would permit the teachers to enhance the quality of their CF since the teacher would catch the learner’s opinion thoroughly, which was considered significant in providing more precise CF. In the learner’s own words, teachers “can correct more correctly because they have understood what exactly your opinion was.”

3.4 Noticing of CF and clarified CF

In this theme, learners were asked whether and in what situation(s) they would be
able (or unable) to notice teachers’ CF and to locate the difference between their utterances and the teachers’ corrections. Learners responded that it was challenging for them to notice the difference(s) in the following situations: (a) when the difference is unobvious, for example, “changing the order of only two words in a long sentence,” which “I [they] have already forgotten when completing”; (b) the first time they encounter the linguistic structure, because “not know[ing] the structure at all, [there is] no need to say to notice the correction for it”; and (c) learners, especially beginners, usually produce sentences in the target language by means of translating form their L1, so that after the completion of their sentences, they continue to think in their L1, being “unready to switch to Chinese [the target language].” In this case, the teacher’s CF, in the target language, would be ignored or “excluded” from their thinking and noticing system.

According to the learners, the problem of unawareness was mainly reported with recasts as CF, in which the corrections were implicitly embedded into the teachers’ “repetitions” of the learners’ utterances. Moreover, learners suggested that their responses to recasts be treated as the symbol of their uptake with caution, as in the learner’s explanation in Excerpt 3.

Excerpt 3.

Learner 16: “Sometimes we don’t understand what the teacher say [said], then we say ‘yep’ to show politeness and let the class move on. Teachers really [do] not know whether the students really understand. We understand the meaning but not all the words.”

Meanwhile and surprisingly, they expressed strong willingness to have the CF
clarified, even in the case of prompts for which the learners themselves are responsible for achieving the correction. This is a topic that learners had paid extraordinary attention to, with the evidence that a large proportion of the learners, without being asked during the interview, spontaneously recommended techniques that could be used to clarify CF. The techniques mentioned included: (a) detailed explanations: learners prefer teachers to point out the error precisely as well as to provide metalinguistic explanations with their corrections, by “explain[ing] me why” and “tell[ing] me what is the matter with my sentence,” especially for grammatical errors;(b) visual aids: they suggested the teachers to use the blackboard to facilitate their understanding; some learners pointed out that having the written items rather than merely the auditory stimulation would assist them to compare their expression with the error-free one and to retain the latter; and (c) emphasizing the target form with additional instances, yielding alternative occasions to process the target of the feedback.

3.5 Tone of CF

The tone and attitude of the language teachers when offering CF was an unpredicted theme, brought up by some of the learners who expressed more concern about their teachers’ approaches than the specific type of CF. Learners valued teachers’ “happy and nice ways” and were averse to being rectified strictly or being criticized. Excerpt 4 is a representative quote of the negative consequence of teachers’ inappropriate tone while providing CF.
Excerpt 4.

Learner 23: “If the teacher makes you feel like stupid and impatient. Then I don’t like at all…the teacher is [should be] patient. If the teacher gets snappy, I don’t want to learn with that teacher. Instead of learning, I find I just close up and don’t get what the teacher says.”

3.6 Effects of CF on language learning

Concerning the effects of CF, the majority of the learners agreed that their teacher’s CF had an influence on their language learning, especially on their motivation and classroom participation. First of all, learners viewed CF as the symbol of whether the teachers had taken responsibility for their role in class and also expressed feeling perplexed when noticing the teacher had ignored specific errors. Moreover, they interpreted teachers’ use of CF as a sign of their attention and willingness to support learners’ acquisition. Particularly appreciated was that being listened to and supported by the teacher could effectively relieve learners’ pessimistic senses of isolation. In addition, the quality of teachers’ CF would influence learners’ learning motivation because, if not being given accurate and consistent CF, learners expressed wanting to take a less active part in the classroom interactions and to even put an end to participating in future classroom activities. Furthermore, specific learners were concerned about their teachers’ methods of providing certain types of CF. Taking prompts as an example, these learners stated that, if the teacher took a passive role waiting for learners’ self-corrections instead of actively guiding them, they would definitely start to lose passion with feelings of “always being wrong” and “can never succeed,” which would prevent them from energetically performing in
class.

In summary, the results of the questionnaire and the in-depth interviews have demonstrated learners’ perceptions of CF from the following aspects: In general, learners hold positive attitudes towards CF and support different types of CF with various reasons. Moreover, they agreed that CF, in particular their preferred type(s), would have a positive impact on their noticing of errors and their learning motivation by means of classroom participation. In addition, they appreciate language teachers’ attentions of learners’ preference for CF and long for adapted CF in accordance to their preferences and desires, which is considered more effective in assisting L2 acquisition.

Additionally, differences was showed among learners in three language proficiency levels, in groups of two degrees of extraversion and two degrees of anxiety, with respect to their attitudes towards CF and the types of CF preferred. Meanwhile, in the results emerged a noticeable tendency that a large proportion of learners preferred prompts or explicit corrections over recasts as well as preferred CF clarified regardless the specific type.

In the next chapter, I will discuss the main findings of the current study by addressing the research questions respectively and will explore implication for L2 learning and teaching activities. I will also probe the discrepancies between learners’ perceptions demonstrated in the current research and language teachers’ practices indicated in previous studies and discuss potential teaching strategies in order to deal with the problems in language classrooms and promote learners’ language learning.
CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION

In this chapter, I will present the main findings of the current mix-method research in detail and discuss learners’ perceptions of CF as well as the contributing factors in a CSL context in China. In order to answer each of the research questions, I will integrate and discuss the quantitative and qualitative results, then compare the current results with those of related previous studies, and, finally, provide pedagogical suggestions for L2 teaching and learning.

1. Research Question 1

What are university-level CSL learners’ perceptions of CF with respect to their (a) attitudes towards CF; (b) preferences for different types of CF; (c) perceptions of the effects of CF on noticing and motivation; (d) expectations of language teachers’ CF techniques in class?

The first research question investigated the learners’ perceptions of the general role that CF plays in the L2 learning process with respect to its effectiveness and impact, as well as the teaching practices they expected to be exposed to in the classroom. I will discuss each of the four included aspects: learners’ general attitudes, their preferences, their perceptions of the effects of CF, and their expectations, respectively.

1.1 Attitudes towards CF

In the current study, learners showed strong positive attitudes towards CF and expressed that they preferred to be corrected rather than having their errors ignored. This finding is consistent with previous studies: Jean and Simard (2011) reported
learners’ favorable attitudes towards CF; 90% of the participants in Schulz’s (1996) study regarded CF as being of vital importance; and in Brown’s (2009) study, learners further believed that their teacher’s ability to provide CF appropriately and immediately was one of the main qualities of effective language teaching.

Moreover, a large proportion (more than 90%) of the participants in this study expressed willingness to receive CF on every single error, whereas only a few reported negative responses such as feeling overwhelmed, interrupted, frustrated, or uncomfortable. Similarly, previous studies conducted in various geographical and instructional contexts (Chenoweth, Day, Chun, & Luppescu, 1983; Jean & Simard, 2001; Oladejo, 1993; Zhu, 2010) have demonstrated learners’ preferences for “get[ing] their oral errors corrected all the time” (Jean & Simard, 2001, p.474) over having selective CF for errors that inhibited communication (Oladejo, 1993). Relatively few studies have reported learners’ negative opinions towards getting feedback on their errors (e.g., Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005).

According to previous studies, however, teachers have exhibited hesitation about providing too much CF and have shown a preference for ignoring learners’ errors that do not impede understanding (Jean & Simard, 2001). Two main reasons were provided: teachers were concerned that CF would interrupt the coherence of learners’ utterances and that this would break the communicative and interactive flow (Brown, 2009). Moreover, they worried that too much CF, especially in front of the whole class, would increase learners’ language anxiety (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005).

Learners’ strong support for CF suggests a facilitative role in L2 acquisition, at least from their perspectives. Moreover, their positive and relatively relaxed attitudes towards being corrected suggest that it is unnecessary for language teachers to overly worry and that they should provide CF with greater ease in the future. In addition,
there is less necessity to exaggerate learners’ “vulnerability.” Therefore, in future language teaching activities, teachers should increase their use of CF since learners generally find it more helpful than anxiety provoking.

1.2 Preferences for different types of CF

According to the quantitative results of the questionnaire probing learners’ preferences for different types of CF, prompts were ranked in first place, followed by explicit correction, and finally recasts. It is worth noting that the results suggested that learners’ preferences for prompts and explicit corrections were nearly equal (supported by 82% and 78% of the learners, respectively), both of which surpassed the 42% of learners who preferred recasts.

Learners’ preferences for explicit correction have been reported in several previous studies, regardless of whether their language proficiency was elementary, (Kaivanpanah et al., 2012), intermediate (Odalejo, 1993) or advanced (Lee, 2013). Furthermore, in Lasagabaster and Sierra’s (2005) study pertaining to students’ judgment of teachers’ error correction practices, although the learners did not show preferences for specific type(s) of CF, they expressed expectations for having feedback followed by explicit explanations of the underlying linguistic knowledge in order to improve the learners’ awareness of the corrections.

Meanwhile, the overt support for explicit CF was also demonstrated during the in-depth interviews in the current study: many of the learners spontaneously mentioned the necessity of supplementary explanations of CF and further recommended techniques to make CF explicit in terms of metalinguistic knowledge, visual support, and additional examples of the target forms. Learners in the interviews explained that explicit correction would show them where exactly the problem was as well as “what is the matter with my [their] sentence[s]”, demonstrating that they
preferred explicit feedback because this includes both error correction and grammatical explanations. Accordingly, Kaivanpanah et al. (2012) concluded that explicit correction satisfied learners’ demands of “increase [ing] their knowledge and competence in the use of target language structures” (p.11).

Compared to explicit correction, learners’ advocacy of prompts has not been widely demonstrated in previous studies. Zhu (2010) found that learners preferred to get CF that shows “what area that the mistake is in” (p.120) rather than CF that provides the correct forms. Similarly, 6 out of the 7 Japanese L2 learners claimed that they preferred to receive a clue as CF (i.e., clarification or elicitation) in order to have a chance to self-correct instead of getting the correct answer directly (Yoshida, 2008).

In the current research, learners’ preferences for prompts were clearly suggested: according to the interviews, learners’ preferences for prompts are due to three main reasons: (a) the advantages of prompts for facilitating their noticing and understanding; (b) the long-lasting effect on their memorizing as a result of their “forced” concentration on prompts; and (c) the contributive role of the challenge to self-correct, brought about by prompts, in their deliberate thinking and learning.

According to the interviews, two main explanations were provided regarding learners’ highly support for prompts. Firstly, the language programs in which the learners studied are generally long lasting (more than one year), therefore the learners know each other well and the classroom atmosphere is pleasant and friendly, in general. As a result, learners demonstrated few worries about making errors or being corrected in front of friends. For instance, a Japanese student who described herself as timid expressed that at the beginning she was afraid of being asked for the correct answer. However, when she became familiar with all her classmates, she felt relaxed and thus preferred to have more chances to self-correct. Secondly, some learners
mentioned that language teachers frequently shared their experiences of learning a
second language and encouraged the learners to not take their errors excessively
serious and to bravely correct them. Accordingly, the shared opinion formed among
learners was that it was normal to make errors or to fail to come up with the correct
utterances, since learning a new language was arduous and time-consuming.

These findings suggest that language teachers can use particular teaching
strategies in order to help form an amiable class environment and to successfully
counteract the potential side effect of increasing learners’ anxieties and worries to
self-correct that often comes with prompts.

1.3 Effects of CF on noticing and motivation

The results of the questionnaire demonstrated that the learners’ preferred type(s)
of CF was perceived as playing facilitative roles in their noticing and motivation. The
interviews confirmed this finding. Learners expressed that their preferred CF was
naturally the one that proved to be most advantageous for them. If their teachers
frequently provided their preferred CF, learners would be satisfied with their teaching.
In consequence, they would be more likely to pay attention to the instruction in class
that included CF, and thus, it would also be more likely for them to notice the CF and
its underlying intention. If their language ability were to improve, especially through
their preferred CF, their motivation for participating in the class activities would
substantially increase. For instance, one learner appreciated the chance to self-correct
and expressed that he would like to make more Sample Dialogues in class if he could
consistently have prompts as CF in order to challenge himself.

This finding is consistent with Schulz’s (1996) statement that students’
perceptions would influence their learning processes and outcomes. Therefore, it is
important for teachers to find out learners’ opinions about CF, which the present study
has done. Considering this finding, language teachers can adjust their pedagogical techniques, especially those related to CF, in light of different learners’ preferences and needs, to enhance the effectiveness of CF as well as their language programs.

1.4 Expectations of teachers’ CF

Almost all the participants expressed expectations for their teachers to understand their preferred and expected CF and to provide CF accordingly. However, a fairly small portion (less than 30%) of the learners claimed that they would express their feelings about CF to their teachers.

This finding poses a problem for language teachers: on the one hand, they are expected to understand learners’ needs in order to organize effective teaching activities and to scaffold the L2 learning process; on the other hand, learners showed hesitations for expressing their feelings and desires to their teachers. Schulz (1996) warned that “students whose instructional expectations are not met may consciously or subconsciously question the credibility of the teacher and/or the instructional approach” (p.349) and, as a result, may become less willing to invest time and effort into the classroom activities, as well as to their L2 learning process.

The results of the interviews confirmed Schulz’s opinions: CF is generally one of the main components of learners’ evaluations of their teachers’ authority and the quality of their teaching activities. They expressed that if a teacher continually failed to provide effective and consistent CF as they had expected, they would doubt their teachers’ willingness to support their learning, or even their teaching qualification and ability. In my interviews, certain learners further claimed that they might doubt the competence of their teachers and reject future participation in classroom activities and interactions if they are unsatisfied with the teaching methods.

Regarding this finding, it is of considerable importance for language teachers to
cautiously observe the learners during their class performances and pay substantial attention to their individual differences, in order to gain better understanding of learners’ preferences and expectations and, accordingly, to adjust their teaching methods and techniques.

2. Research Question 2

*Are there significant differences in learners' perceptions of CF in terms of their language proficiency level, their degrees of extraversion, and their degrees of anxiety? If so, what are the differences?*

The second research question proposed to probe the relationship between learners’ individual differences (i.e., language proficiency level, degree of extraversion, and degree of anxiety) and their perceptions of CF. In this section, I will present the findings where significant differences across groups were found, and additionally discuss the causes in relation to previous studies.

2.1 Language proficiency level

Across three language proficiency groups (i.e., beginning, intermediate, and advanced), significant difference only emerged in learners’ perceptions of explicit correction. Advanced learners demonstrated obviously more negative attitudes towards this type of CF. The current finding confirmed the results of Kaivanpanah et al. (2012): In their study, the Iranian advanced learners’ preferred self-corrections and prompts in the form of elicitation, whereas the elementary learners supported explicit metalinguistic CF, which would provide more linguistic knowledge and therefore help them improve rapidly in the early stages of learning.

This difference can be explained with respect to advanced learners’ superior
knowledge of the target language as well as their stronger confidence in their language capability for producing the required forms. In my interviews, learners in higher levels generally expressed fewer difficulties in noticing their teachers’ intention when providing implicit CF such as prompts. Additionally, they stated that self-repair resulting from prompts played a facilitative a role in memorizing target structures and transforming them into their own knowledge store. Certain learners considered that having their errors corrected directly through explicit corrections could be humiliating for advanced learners and would dampen their confidence or even their learning motivation.

2.2 Degree of extraversion

The results demonstrated significantly different attitudes towards explicit correction and prompts between the high-extraversion and the low-extraversion learners. Learners in the LE group expressed stronger negative feelings towards these two types of CF.

In the BFI, people with low extraversion scores were portrayed as passive, quiet, reserved, withdrawn, sober, aloof, and restrained. Additionally, Furnham (1990) argued the trait of extraversion facilitated learners’ ability to resist stress and anxiety. Similarly, the less extraverted learners were influenced more significantly by the pressure test in Dewaele and Furnham’s (2000) study. Thus, according to previous research findings, low-extraversion learners face more difficulties dealing with stressful situations. This explained LE learners’ negative attitudes towards explicit corrections and prompts: compared to recasts in which the teacher reformulates the learner’s utterance with implicit correction, CF in the other two forms can be either more obvious or extra challenging. Learners will be directly corrected in front of the whole class by means of explicit correction and will need to come up with the correct
forms while being scrutinized by their classmates. Consequently, less extraverted learners intended to avoid the potential demanding conditions, and therefore prefer recasts.

2.3 Degree of anxiety

Significantly different findings were demonstrated in the present study with respect to learners’ general negative feelings as well as their distinct attitudes towards different types of CF.

2.3.1 Negative feelings towards CF

The findings suggested that, in general, learners of HA group held less positive attitudes towards CF and reported more negative feelings such as interruption, frustration, and discomfort. Truscott (1999) pointed out that certain learners do not welcome (sometimes even detest) being informed that they have made an error. In this view, their aversion to the experience of being corrected is one of the main factors considered to diminish the effectiveness of CF. In the interviews of this research, some learners who labeled themselves as nervous and shy admitted that occasionally they disliked their teachers’ corrections in class due to feeling stupid and ashamed.

2.3.2 Preferences for different CF types

In terms of CF types, significant differences were revealed for all three types of CF. Similar to the results of learners with low degrees of extraversion, high-anxiety learners displayed significantly more negative attitudes towards explicit correction and prompts. In addition, learners with higher anxiety scores expressed notable support for CF in the form of recasts.

In Yoshida’s (2008) research, Linda, classified as the quietest learner who got nervous easily, was the only one who did not suggest preference for the chances to self-correct. MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) suggested a common problem of anxious
learners as being too nervous to speak in the target language in front of the class. Additionally, the researchers revealed a tendency for high-anxiety learners to produce fewer utterances and to participate less in classroom activities in order to avoid the risks of embarrassment such as failing to come up with the target structures or to accomplish the tasks.

During my interviews, these statements were confirmed: some learners’ opposition to being explicitly corrected resulted from their worries of having all the classmates know their errors and, thus, experiencing the “danger” of being judged by others; moreover, others expressed feeling anxious when becoming the “focus” of the whole class. In consequence, they disapproved of CF in the form of prompts, which required their self-corrections and frequently made their classmates concentrate on them, waiting for their answers.

3. Research Question 3

What type(s) of CF do learners prefer in response to pronunciation, lexical, and grammatical errors as well as their use of L1?

The last research question aimed to investigate what type(s) of CF learners preferred according to particular target structures. Learners’ preferences for CF regarding three kinds of errors (pronunciation, grammatical, and lexical) and their use of L1 were studied.

3.1 Pronunciation errors

The results demonstrated that learners preferred explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, and recasts, respectively. This result suggested that, with respect to phonological errors, learners preferred to have the accurate pronunciation
provided in teachers’ CF in order to imitate and repeat. In the interviews, they further confirmed that in terms of pronunciation errors, it was not difficult for them to realize the intention of their teachers’ CF or to locate their errors and the corrections. By contrast, the opportunity to self-correct was considered unnecessary and even excessive for this type of error.

Similarly, teachers in Lasagabaster and Sierra’s (2005) study supported “the right model and its repetition” (p.120) as an effective correction facing pronunciation errors. According to Lyster et al. (2013), these three preferred CF types (i.e., explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, and recasts) share common features of indicating that learners’ pronunciation was incorrect and of providing an accurate model for learners to imitate and compare. Concerning this finding, explicit feedback would be effective for correcting phonological errors, while the chances for self-corrections of prompts seem redundant to learners. In future practices, language teachers can accordingly provide accurate and direct CF in order to correct learners and strengthen their memory of the correct pronunciations.

3.2 Lexical errors

With respect to lexical errors, the pattern repeated itself: explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, and recasts remained the first three types of CF supported by learners. This result is understandable since lexical knowledge is arguably difficult to infer from context alone and thus difficult for learners to self-recall and self-correct. Therefore, CF that delivers the correct word is more direct, efficient, and helpful.

However, it is worth noting that compared to the overwhelming superiority of the three preferred CF types concerning pronunciation errors, the percentage of learners who preferred recasts and elicitation with respect to lexical errors was close (12% and 11%, respectively). This finding indicated that unlike learners’ obvious and dominant
preferences for CF that provided correct forms for the pronunciation errors, some of them started to show preferences for CF allowing self-corrections (i.e., elicitation in this case) when facing lexical errors. Consequently, language teachers can continue to rely on explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback, similar to the strategies used to respond to pronunciation errors. They can additionally increase the amount of CF in the form of prompts regarding lexical errors, especially for the more active learners and those with relatively higher proficiency and vocabulary knowledge, so they can benefit from the opportunities to recall their lexical sources of the target language.

3.3 Grammatical errors

The results of the questionnaire suggested that the preferred types of CF with respect to grammatical errors were metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction, and prompts in the form of clarification requests with a cue to the error source. Moreover, some learners expressed dislike towards recasts because (a) compared to explicit CF, they were occasionally unable to notice the error and/or the teachers’ correction in recasts and (b) compared to prompts, recasts provided no opportunities for self-correction and thus were less effective in facilitating learners’ understanding and memorization of the target forms.

Similarly, learners in Yoshida’s (2008) study attributed their lack of noticing recasts to their inattention or to their insufficient ability to recognize the difference between their previous utterances and the language teachers’ error-free forms. Kennedy (2010) also reported that due to learners’ inadequate language proficiency, they would fail to notice the intentions of teachers’ CF in the form of recasts.

Concerning these findings, language teachers can better utilize the advantages of explicit CF (i.e., explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback) as well as prompts: the former can be provided when it is necessary to emphasize the target forms and the
underlying linguistic knowledge; and the latter is especially appropriate for deepening learners’ understanding of the usage of the target structures and for facilitating their own practices regarding the target forms. By contrast, teachers should reduce their use of CF in the form of recasts regarding grammatical errors since its implicit features undermine its effectiveness of inducing learners’ noticing as well as their mastery of the target grammatical knowledge.

3.4 Use of L1

Considering the problem of using L1, learners suggested no preferences for CF except for disapproval of clarification requests. Learners suggested that they were clearly aware of the problem when misusing their L1. Moreover, their use of L1 may implicitly suggest that they were unable to recall the target word or structure, and thus needed their teachers’ assistance. Therefore, teachers’ clarification requests such as “what” or “could you say that again” were generally considered unhelpful or even offensive, or humiliating, according to certain learners in the interviews.

It is understandable that when learners obviously display their less sufficient capability of producing the required forms, explicit and direct CF indicating the target structure will be most effective and helpful. As a result, language teachers should provide more recasts or explicit correction as CF instead of prompts, in order to successfully scaffold learners and to avoid the risks of causing antipathy. Considering occasions when it is crucial for learners to come up with the answer themselves, teachers should provide prompts with particular strategies, for instance, they could offer the initial part of the required word or the target structure to elicit learners’ production with this “hint” in the CF.

In summary, learners demonstrated clear preferences for explicit correction and
metaliguistic feedback irrespective of the types of error (pronunciation, lexical or grammatical) and the use of L1. Nonetheless, in the cases where teachers’ accurate version is necessary for learners’ future imitation and repetition (e.g., specific pronunciation and lexical errors), recasts were embraced; and considering grammatical errors, prompts were welcomed with the advantage of eliciting learners’ self-corrections, which facilitated their memorization and mastery of the target forms.
CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

In this last chapter, I will first summarize the overall findings of the present mixed-method study. Secondly, I will present the pedagogical implications for L2 teaching and learning as well as provide practical advice for effective CF techniques and teaching activities targeting future L2 classrooms. Finally, I will discuss the limitations of this research and suggest directions for future studies.

1. Overall findings

The present research investigated learners’ perceptions towards CF in terms of their general attitudes, their preferences for different CF types, their perceptions of the effects of CF on noticing and learning motivation, and their expectations of language teachers’ CF techniques used in class. Moreover, it probed learners’ preferences for specific type(s) of CF with respect to their individual differences (i.e., language proficiency level, degree of extraversion, and degree of anxiety). Conducted in a CSL environment in universities in China, this study enriches the related research field by presenting results in a distinct instructional context.

1.1 Learners’ attitudes towards CF

Generally, learners held positive attitudes towards CF. They suggested that CF played an effective role in deepening their understanding of the target structure, facilitating their mastery, and preventing them from repeating the problematic utterances in contexts outside of the classrooms. Moreover, a large portion of the learners showed willingness to have CF for every single error in order to (a) be aware of their errors and eradicate them immediately to avoid recurrence and to (b) encourage them to acquire the target language with a relatively strict requirement which tolerates no error.
1.2 Learners’ preferences for different types of CF

In the present study, learners’ preferences for three different types of CF in the form of explicit correction, recasts, and prompts were investigated. Attitudes toward the three CF types were distinct both in general and among learners with different levels of language proficiency, extraversion, and anxiety.

Learners, in general, favored explicit correction and prompts rather than recasts. They attributed the reasons to the advantages of the two preferred types of CF: explicit correction, directly provided by the teachers, was considered obvious, short, and accurate. In addition, prompts, which generate opportunities for learners to invoke their language resources and metalinguistic knowledge of the target language in order to self-correct, effectively assisted their understanding and memorization of the target language structures. By contrast, CF in the form of recasts, with its implicit features, was occasionally difficult for learners to notice and realize, and thus was disapproved of generally. However, when learners were divided into groups according to their individual differences, the results were distinct from the general ones, when considering their preferences for different type(s) of CF.

Learners in higher proficiency levels suggested less positive attitudes towards explicit correction because (a) this CF type was obvious and thus unchallenging because it required little effort, and (b) it was direct and not tactful, and thus sometimes led to public humiliation. In addition, learners with lower extraversion disapproved both explicit correction and prompts. They reasoned that these two types of CF initiated stressful conditions which would impede their L2 learning. Furthermore, learners with higher anxiety expressed relatively more pessimistic attitudes towards CF and reported feeling interrupted, frustrated, and uncomfortable. Similar to low-extraverted learners, high-anxious learners disapproved of explicit correction and
prompts, and moreover, significantly favored recasts. This finding could be due to the fact that compared to the other two types, recasts brought about less risk which high-anxiety learners sought to avoid during the L2 learning process.

1.3 Learners’ perceptions of the effects of CF on noticing and motivation

Learners believed that having preferred CF would facilitate their recognition of the correction and of their teachers’ intention underlying the CF. Additionally, satisfied by their preferred CF, which they perceived as effective for scaffolding their individual L2 learning process, they would be encouraged to pay deliberate attention to their teachers’ instructions to a large extent. Moreover, motivated by the possibility to be corrected in their preferred way, learners expressed willingness to take a more active part in classroom interactions and learning activities.

1.4 Learners’ expectations of language teachers’ CF techniques in class

With respect to learners’ expectations of their teachers’ CF, learners suggested a general desire for their teachers to understand their perceptions of the effectiveness of CF and their preferred CF type. Additionally, they expressed an inclination to have a larger proportion of their errors corrected by their preferred CF in the future.

Moreover, learners took CF as an important element of high-quality language teaching and confirmed the significant role effective CF played in their language learning. However, a less optimistic finding emerged: despite learners’ strong enthusiasm to have their preferences understood and respected, seldom would they express their feelings overtly to their teachers. Therefore, teachers need to attentively observe learners’ needs and correspondingly adjust their teaching activities.

2. Implications

In this section, I will discuss the pedagogical implications with respect to the findings of the current and previous studies and provide practical suggestions for
language teachers in order to effectively assist L2 learning and to organize facilitative L2 classes.

2.1 Improving teachers’ perceptions of CF

The present study revealed that, in general, learners perceived recasts as the least effective one, and preferred explicit correction and prompts over recasts. The in-depth interviews suggested that it was occasionally difficult for learners to notice the corrections embedded in recasts and when they mistook their teachers’ intentions of providing recasts as simple affirmation and repetition.

Similarly, Zhu (2010) demonstrated that learners preferred to get a hint of the error source rather than having the correct answer told to them directly. Six of the seven participants in Yoshida’s (2008) study appreciated the chances for self-corrections. In addition, Lyster and Ranta (1997) demonstrated that recasts were the least likely to elicit learners’ uptake, which some researchers have suggested is “related to learners’ perceptions about feedback at the time of feedback” (Mackey et al., 2000, p. 492) and even “facilitative of acquisition” (emphasis in the original; Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001, p. 287).

However, both teachers in Yoshida’s (2010) study preferred recasts as CF. They reasoned that compared to other CF types, recasts, which could be provided shortly and implicitly, were less intimidating and therefore caused less risk of causing negative emotions, such as embarrassment or anxiety. Furthermore, a range of previous studies have indicated that recasts are the most frequently used CF in language classes (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lee, 2013; Yoshida, 2010).

Accordingly, recasts may be less effective and learners prefer them relatively less than the other forms. Consequently, it is necessary for language teachers to improve their perceptions of the effects of different types of CF and reduce their excessive
beliefs in and dependence on recasts. Schulz (1996) warned that ignoring learners’
learning expectations would have harmful effects on their motivation. Allen et al.
(1990) furthermore argued that CF lacking high quality would have detrimental effect
on learning. Consequently, language teachers need to take their learners’ desires into
consideration and should no longer attribute their overuse of recasts to the time
limitation (Yoshida, 2010), but improve their techniques of CF by successfully
implementing various feedback types.

2.2 Improving learners’ understanding of the role of CF

The current study indicated that some learners—those with low-extraversion or
high-anxiety—were more opposed to CF and were more concerned about the negative
feelings it generated. In addition, they suggested preferring recasts over the other two
types. Nevertheless, the interviews revealed that their preferences, to a large extent,
related to their desire to avoid embarrassing or stressful experiences, instead of
exclusively to the substantial effectiveness of CF. Considering the ample evidence in
previous studies of the facilitative role of CF (Ellis, 2006; Ellis et al., 2006; Li, 2010;
Lyster et al., 2013) and the successful effects of the other two types (i.e., explicit
correction and prompts) in providing correct forms and in inducing learners’ uptake
and repair (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), these learners’ understanding of the role of CF and
their teachers’ purpose of providing CF should be improved with appropriate teaching
strategies.

In Plonsky and Mill’s (2006) research, the students’ understanding of and
attitudes towards their teachers’ feedback significantly improved after the teachers’
introduction and explanations of the approaches that would be used for correcting
their errors. In addition, learners in the current study expressed an appreciation of
their teachers’ consistent reminder that making errors was normal and even helpful for
learning a new language. Moreover, they pointed out that they appreciated their teachers’ own shared experiences of making errors when learning an L2 and, as a result, their worries and anxiety facing CF were effectively reduced.

Respecting learners’ needs does not require language teachers to give up their directive role in the teaching process. Instead, they have a role to play in shaping their learners’ attitudes towards CF and guiding them to effectively utilize CF in order to benefit from it.

2.3 Tailoring in-class CF techniques

As Truscott (1999) has pointed out, a remaining problem in L2 classrooms as well as in error correction is that teachers often fail to account for learners’ individual differences in their pedagogical practices. Bell (2005) confirmed Truscott’s statement that less agreement among teachers emerged pertaining to the effect of individual factors. Teachers were uncertain about whether and to what extent learners’ characteristics would influence their language learning and achievements.

However, learners in the present study expressed a strong desire to have their teachers understand their feelings and to be provided with their preferred CF more often. According to Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008), teachers’ teaching strategies, including supportive CF, substantially influence learners’ motivation. Moreover, in the interviews of the present study, learners overtly pointed out that, even if it was not practical to satisfy all learners, their teachers could at least “put students into different kinds [personality groups] and teach them accordingly.”

Therefore, language teachers need to face the challenge of better knowing their learners’ characteristics and learning styles and, accordingly, adjusting their teaching strategies. Lyster et al. (2013) put forth that an essential quality of good teachers was to provide various types of CF in accordance with the educational context, as well as
with each learner’s unique characteristic. By tailoring their CF techniques in class, language teachers can make their students “feel that their perceived needs are being catered to” (Oladejo, 1993, p. 73) and, as a consequence, substantially induce and sustain learners’ learning motivation, which is essential to successfully support their L2 learning.

3. Limitations

Some methodological limitations remain in the present study. Firstly, this research used a sample size of 147. When participants were divided into different groups in terms of their language proficiency levels, degrees of extraversion, and degrees of anxiety, the number of learners in certain groups was uneven: 109 learners were high-extraverted while 38 were low-extraverted; 25 learners were in the advanced group and 74 in the intermediate group. However, this condition reflects the common distribution of language studies: high-extraverted people may be more interested in learning a new language and as the language proficiency level becomes higher, the number of learners will decrease. Concerning this situation, the effect of the interaction between extraversion and anxiety was not included in the present study, since the assumption of equal variances for each of the cells (four in this study as HE&HA; HE&LA; LE&HA; LE&LA) would be violated. In further research, more learners would participate with a longer recruitment, helping to balance the number of learners in different groups. Therefore the interaction of learners’ degrees of extraversion and anxiety could be discussed in addition to the separate investigations of these two main effects.

Secondly, the requirements of the participating universities prevented the researcher from conducting classroom observations and, thus, the effects of preferred CF on learners’ classroom performances as reported in the questionnaires and
interviews were self-reported and subjective. In the interviews, some learners suggested that sometimes they responded positively towards their teachers’ CF as a result of their intentions to show politeness instead of their understanding of the CF. Considering this, further studies with classroom observations could pay further attention to the instances that a learner expressed verbal agreement however with facial expression of discontent, in order to investigate the interactive strategies learners will use, facing teachers’ different types of CF.

4. Future directions

The current research contributes to a comprehensive understanding of learners’ perceptions of CF in a CSL context which has not been previously well investigated. In addition, it helps shed light on learners’ opinions about effective CF and the impact of their preferences of CF on their noticing and motivation, problems requiring substantial attention and investigation in SLA in the future.

Accordingly, it will be necessary to conduct further research probing the relation between learners’ perceptions of CF and their L2 learning. Relatively few studies have been conducted in Chinese (Mandarin) learning contexts, thus our understanding is insufficient. Considering that the linguistic features, the general language teaching style, and the ethnic, social and cultural environment of Mandarin is distinctly different from that of Western language(s) (e.g., English, French and Spanish), more research needs to be conducted in relation to Chinese learning (e.g., Mandarin and Cantonese). In addition, complementary studies can be conducted in a larger variety of instructional contexts and regarding different target languages, in order to bring about a comprehensive discussion of the effect of individual differences on the effectiveness of CF.

Furthermore, the present research aims to demonstrate the correlation between
learners’ preferences for specific type(s) of CF and their noticing and motivation in language classes; therefore data were mainly collected by means of questionnaire and in-depth interviews. Future research can investigate whether learners’ preferences for specific type(s) of CF actually affect their noticing, motivation, and learning outcomes with a pre-test, posttest and experimental versus control group design. A sample research question can be: if learners are consistently provided their preferred/not-preferred CF, whether and how will their noticing of CF and the target form(s), their motivation, and their L2 learning outcomes be influenced?

Finally, longitudinal research can be conducted to investigate whether learners’ perceptions of and preferences for CF are consistent and stable, especially when they are provided specific type of CF after some time. These studies will contribute to a dynamic comprehension of learners’ perceptions and the effects of CF on L2 learning process.

In summary, in spite of the evidence of the facilitative role of CF in L2 learning, learners’ perceptions of the influence of CF on language learning as well as their opinions about the effectiveness of different types of CF are topics that need further investigation and discussion. In addition, relatively few studies have demonstrated how learners’ individual factors interact with their perception of CF and how these variables interact to influence their learning process. Accordingly, further research is required in order to thoroughly understand the role of CF, the effectiveness of different types of CF, and the contributing factors, in order to fill the gap in the literature and to provide pedagogical suggestion for future language teaching.
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APPENDIX Ⅰ QUESTIONNAIRE (ENGLISH AND MANDARIN)

第二语言习得问卷
Second Language Learning: Questionnaire

国籍 Nationality

年龄 Age

性别 Gender

年级 Grade

我参加过汉语水平考试（是□/否□）________（级别）________（成绩）
I have taken HSK (Yes□/ No□) if so, _______ (level) ________ (score)

我曾经在________（国家或地区）学习中文______年______月（数量）
学习的方式,请选择:自学□/家庭教育（父母/亲属）□/语言课程□/其他（请说明）

I have been learning Mandarin: for _______year(s) ______month(s) in________ (nation or area)
By the following means (please choose one):
self-learning□/home schooling (with parents/relatives) □/language program
□/other (please specify) ______________________________

我认为我的中文水平是：初级□/中级□/高级□/接近母语□
I perceive my level of Mandarin as(beginner□/ intermediate□/ advanced□
/native-like□)

掌握除母语外以外的其他语言_______，掌握程度：初级□/中级□/高级□/接近母语□。
Other language backgrounds (expect first language): __________ (language), (level:
beginner□/ intermediate□/ advanced□/ native-like□)

[对于您在中文部分已经回答了的问题，您可以选择跳过下面相应的英语翻译部分。
For the questions you have filled in the above section in Mandarin, you can skip
the homologous ones in the below section in English.]

一、请选择你对下列表述的同意程度

Please choose to which degree you agree/ disagree with each statement.

代表 Strongly Disagree□，2 代表 Disagree□，3 代表 Agree□，4 代表 Strongly Agree□。

1）我喜欢老师纠正我在口语表达中出现的错误。
I like it when my teacher corrects my error(s) in my oral performance.

1 非常不同意 Strongly Disagree □ 3 基本同意 Agree□
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Basic Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2) When the teacher corrects me in my oral performance, I feel interrupted.

1) Strongly Disagree | 3) Basic Agree
2) Disagree | 4) Strongly Agree

3) When the teacher corrects me in my oral performance, I feel frustrated.

1) Strongly Disagree | 3) Basic Agree
2) Disagree | 4) Strongly Agree

4) If the teacher does not correct me, I feel more comfortable / confident.

1) Strongly Disagree | 3) Basic Agree
2) Disagree | 4) Strongly Agree

5) I would like the teacher to correct me every time I make a mistake.

1) Strongly Disagree | 3) Basic Agree
2) Disagree | 4) Strongly Agree

6) I do not like too many corrections, as it makes me feel overwhelmed.

1) Strongly Disagree | 3) Basic Agree
2) Disagree | 4) Strongly Agree

7) When being corrected, I would like the teacher to explicitly tell me that I have made a mistake and provide the correct way of saying it.

1) Strongly Disagree | 3) Basic Agree
2) Disagree | 4) Strongly Agree

8) When being corrected, I would like the teacher to “repeat” my sentence with the correct form but without telling me she/he is correcting me and continue our previous topic.

1) Strongly Disagree | 3) Basic Agree
2) Disagree | 4) Strongly Agree
我希望老师能够给我机会自己改正错误。

I like it if I have the chance to correct my mistake(s) by myself.

1  非常不同意  Strongly Disagree □ 3  基本同意  Agree□

2 基本不同意  Disagree□ 4 非常同意  Strongly Agree□

当老师尝试让我自己改正错误而我不知道怎么改正时，我不会觉得尴尬。

Generally, I do not feel embarrassed when my teacher asks me to correct the mistake(s) myself but I do not know how.

1  非常不同意  Strongly Disagree □ 3  基本同意  Agree□

2 基本不同意  Disagree□ 4 非常同意  Strongly Agree□

老师使用什么方法纠正错误没有什么区别，我没有偏好。

It makes no difference which technique my teacher uses to correct my mistake(s), because I do not have any preferences.

1  非常不同意  Strongly Disagree □ 3  基本同意  Agree□

2 基本不同意  Disagree□ 4 非常同意  Strongly Agree□

当老师用我喜欢的方式给我纠错时，我更容易意识（注意）到他（她）在给我纠正错误。

It would be easier for me to notice my teacher’s correction if it were a type of correction I like.

1  非常不同意  Strongly Disagree □ 3  基本同意  Agree□

2 基本不同意  Disagree□ 4 非常同意  Strongly Agree□

如果老师能够用我喜欢的方式给我纠正，我会越来越重视老师如何给我纠正错误，纠正了什么错误。

If my teacher corrected me using the way I prefer, I would likely to pay more attention to how she/he is correcting me and the mistake(s) she/he has pointed out for me, and the correct form(s).

1  非常不同意  Strongly Disagree □ 3  基本同意  Agree□

2 基本不同意  Disagree□ 4 非常同意  Strongly Agree□

当老师用我不喜欢的方式给我纠错时，我不太容易意识（注意）到他（她）在给我纠正错误。

It will be harder for me to notice my teacher’s correction when she/he corrects me using the way I do not like.

1  非常不同意  Strongly Disagree □ 3  基本同意  Agree□

2 基本不同意  Disagree□ 4 非常同意  Strongly Agree□

如果老师经常用我不喜欢的方式给我纠错，我会越来越不关注老师如何给我纠正错误，纠正了什么错误。

If my teacher frequently corrects me using the way I do not like, I would not focus on how she/he is correcting me, or what mistake(s) she/he has pointed out for me, and the correct form(s).

1  非常不同意  Strongly Disagree □ 3  基本同意  Agree□

2 基本不同意  Disagree□ 4 非常同意  Strongly Agree□
If my teacher corrected me using the way I do not like, I would likely to pay less and less attention to how she/he is correcting me and the mistake(s) she/he has pointed out for me, and the correct form(s).

1 非常不同意 Strongly Disagree □ 3 基本同意 Agree □
2 基本不同意 Disagree □  4 非常同意 Strongly Agree □

16）如果老师能用我喜欢的方式纠正我的错误，我会更喜欢在课上回答问题、参与对话、讨论（以有更多的机会让老师帮我纠正语言使用的错误）。

If my teacher corrected my mistake(s) using the way I like, I would be likely to take a more active part in classroom activities/conversations (in order to have more chances to get my teacher’s corrections).

1 非常不同意 Strongly Disagree □ 3 基本同意 Agree □
2 基本不同意 Disagree □  4 非常同意 Strongly Agree □

17）如果老师总是用我不喜欢的方式纠正我的错误，我会越来越不喜欢在课上发言，参与对话、讨论。

If my teacher corrected my mistake(s) using the way I do not like, I would be likely to take a less active part in classroom activities/conversations (in order to avoid getting my teacher’s corrections).

1 非常不同意 Strongly Disagree □ 3 基本同意 Agree □
2 基本不同意 Disagree □  4 非常同意 Strongly Agree □

18）老师用什么方法纠正我的错误，不会影响我在课上回答问题、参与讨论的积极性。

My willingness to participate in the classroom activities/conversations will not be influenced no matter which way my teacher uses to correct my mistake(s).

1 非常不同意 Strongly Disagree □ 3 基本同意 Agree □
2 基本不同意 Disagree □  4 非常同意 Strongly Agree □

19）一般情况下，尽管我不喜欢老师纠正错误的方式，但我不会说出来或者明显地表现出来。

Generally, I will not say so or show my feelings even though I am not satisfied with the way(s) my teacher uses to correct my mistake(s).

1 非常不同意 Strongly Disagree □ 3 基本同意 Agree □
2 基本不同意 Disagree □  4 非常同意 Strongly Agree □

20）我希望老师了解和重视我喜欢怎样被纠正错误。

I like it if my teacher can understand my preferences and pay attention to how I would like to be corrected.

1 非常不同意 Strongly Disagree □ 3 基本同意 Agree □
2. 基本不同意 Disagree□ 4 非常同意 Strongly Agree□

21）我希望老师能够以我喜欢的方式纠正我的错误。
I like it if my teacher can use the way I like to have my mistake(s) corrected.

1 非常不同意 Strongly Disagree □ 3 基本同意 Agree□
2 基本不同意 Disagree□ 4 非常同意 Strongly Agree□

二、根据给出的情景，请选择最能代表你的意愿的选项。

According to the contexts given, please choose the description that best represents your preference.

Among the choices, mistakes are underlined and bolded words indicate the teachers’ stressed tones.

1. 当我说中文但是发音错了，我希望我的老师：

When I mispronounce a word while speaking Mandarin in class, I would like my teacher to:

A □ 告诉我“再说一次？”但是不明确指出我发音的错误。

Ask me to “Say it again?” without directly pointing out the mistake I have made.

B □ 指出我发音错误，例如：“XX 词发音不对，再说一次”。

Directly point out my error, as “The pronunciation of XX was wrong, try again”.

C □ 指出我发音错误，并且告诉我正确的发音。

Point out my mistake and tell me the correct pronunciation.

D □ 用正确的发音重复这个词，但是不明确告诉我他（她）在纠正我的发音，并且继续之前的话题。

Reformulate the word with the correct pronunciation without telling me she/he is correcting me and continue our previous topic.

E □ 告诉我“这个句子里有错误，能不能再说一遍？”并且让我尝试自己改错。

Telling me “There is a mistake in the sentence, could you try to say it again?” and encourage me to correct it myself.

F □ 重复我的句子，在我发音错误的地方停顿来提示我，并给我自己改正的机会。

Repeat my sentence, pausing before the word that I have mispronounced to give me the chance to self-correct.

G □ 用重音或提高语调来重复我的错误，但是给我自己改正错误的机会。

Repeat my error by highlighting it using stress or special intonation, but give me the chance to self-correct.

2. 当我用错了词（如：这是一片袜子。）我希望我的老师：

When I use the wrong word while speaking Mandarin in class (e.g., zheshiyipianwazi.), I would like my teacher to:
A □ 重复我的说法，使用正确的词，但是不明确告诉我她在纠正我的错误，如“这是一双袜子。”并且继续之前的话题。

Rephrase my sentence with the correct word, as “zhe shi yi shuang wa zi” (This is a pair of socks.) but without telling me she/he is correcting me and continue our previous topic.

B □ 明确告诉我正确的词“一双，这是一双袜子。”

Explicitly tell me the correct word, as “yi shuang, we use ‘yi shuang’ (‘a pair of’) in Mandarin”.

C □ 提示我正确的说法，但是尝试让我自己改错，如“想一下，当形容两个一组的东西，我们用什么词？”

Give me some cues such as “think about it, when you want to show two things are the same and are often used together, which word do we often use?” but give me the chance to self-correct.

D □ 告诉我“这个句子里有错误，能不能再说一遍？”并且让我尝试自己改错。

Telling me “There is a mistake in the sentence, could you try to say it again?” and encourage me to correct it myself.

E □ 用重音或提高语调来重复“一片袜子”，但是给我自己改正错误的机会。

Repeat and highlight the mistake “yi pian wa zi” with stress or special intonation, but give me the chance to self-correct.

F □ 告诉我“再说一次？”但是不明确指出我发音的错误。

Ask me to “Say it again?” without directly pointing out the mistake I have made.

G □ 重复我的句子，在我错误的地方停顿来提示我，并给我自己改正错误的机会。

Repeat my sentence pausing before the mistake “yi...wa zi(a... of socks)”, to give me the chance to self-correct.

3. 当我想不出一个词用中文怎么说而说了母语（以英语为例），如“我昨天去了新的…嗯…restaurant…。”我希望我的老师：

When I do not know (or forget) how to say a word in Mandarin but use the word in my first language instead (taking English as an example), as “wo zuo tian qu le xin de…en (er)…restaurant…” I would like my teacher to:

A □ 直接说出这个词的说法，并且继续之前的话题，如“新的餐馆…”。

Directly say this word for me, as “a new can guan (restaurant)” and continue our previous topic.

B □ 明确地告诉我“餐馆，在中文里，这个词是‘餐馆’”。

Tell me explicitly as “can guan, in Mandarin, the word is ‘can guan (restaurant)’”.

C □ 问我“restaurant 是什么意思？”并让我尝试自己改正。

Ask me “What is the meaning of restaurant?” and encourage me to try to correct myself.
Give me some cues such as “In Mandarin, restaurant is ‘can...’” and encourage me to try to correct myself.

4. 当我说中文并且出现了语法错误（如：我明天去了图书馆。）我希望我的老师用（__）的方法纠正我：

When I make a grammatical mistake (e.g., wo ming tian qu le tu shu guan.), I would like my teacher to correct me by:

A ☐ 重复我的说法但是把错误改正，但是不明确告诉我她在纠正我的错误，如“嗯，我明天要去图书馆。”并且继续之前的话题。

Rephrasing my sentence with the correct form but without telling me she/he is correcting me, as “En (Em), wo ming tian yao qu tu shu guan (I will go the library tomorrow)” and continuing our previous topic.

B ☐ 指出“明天去了”出现了错误，并且告诉我正确的说法是“明天要去”。

Pointing out “ming tian qu le” was wrong, and providing the correct form—“ming tian yao qu (will go to the library tomorrow)”.

C ☐ 告诉我“明天”是将来时态，而“了”表示已经发生，正确的说法是“明天要去”，因为“要”表示将会发生。

Telling me “ming tian” (tomorrow) is a sign of future tense, however, “le” refers to something that has already happened, so the correct form should be “ming tian yao qu (will go to the library tomorrow)” because “yao (will)” refers to something that is going to happen.

D ☐ 告诉我“这个句子里有错误，能不能再说一遍？”并且让我尝试自己改错。

Telling me “There is a mistake in the sentence, could you try to say it again?” and encourage me to correct it myself.

E ☐ 直接问我“能不能再说一遍？”而不指出这是因为我的句子中有错误。

Asking me “Could you say it again?” without directly telling me there is a mistake in my sentence.

F ☐ 重复我的句子，在我错误的地方停顿来提示我，并给我自己改正的机会。

Repeating my sentence, pausing before the mistake “ming tian...tu shu guan(tomorrow I...to the library)” but give me the chance to self-correct.

G ☐ 用重音或提高语调来重复我的错误，但是给我自己改正错误的机会。

Repeating and highlighting my mistake “ming tian qu le” using stress or special intonation, but give me the chance to self-correct.

一、下面列有一些适合或不适合你的特征。例如，你是否同意你喜欢花时间和别人呆在一起？请在每个描述的前下划线上写下相应的数字，指明你在多大程度上同意或不
同意该描述。

Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who likes to spend time with others? Please write a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.

1. ______ Disagree Strongly 非常不同意
2. ______ Disagree a little 有点不同意
3. ______ Neither agree nor disagree 无所谓
4. ______ Agree a little 有点同意
5. ______ Agree Strongly 非常同意

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I am someone who…我认为我自己……

1. ______ Is talkative 爱说话
2. ______ Tends to find fault with others 喜欢挑剔别人的毛病
3. ______ Does a thorough job 工作很周密
4. ______ Is depressed, blue 压抑而忧郁
5. ______ Is original, comes up with new idea 具有独创性，会产生新点子
6. ______ Is reserved 含蓄的
7. ______ Is helpful and unselfish with others 乐于助人，无私
8. ______ Can be somewhat careless 可能有点粗心
9. ______ Is relaxed, handles stress well. 放松的，可以很好应对压力
10. ______ Is curious about many different things 对许多不同而事情感到好奇
11. ______ Is full of energy 精力充沛
12. ______ Starts quarrels with others 经常与他人发生争吵
13. ______ Is a reliable worker 是个可信赖的人
14. ______ Can be tense 可能会紧张
15. ______ Is ingenious, a deep thinker 有独创性，思想深刻
16. ______ Generates a lot of enthusiasm 具有很大的热情
17. ______ Has a forgiving nature 天性宽以待人
18. ______ Tends to be disorganized 倾向于缺乏条理
19. ______ Worries a lot 有很多忧虑
20. ______ Has an active imagination 想象力活跃
21. ______ Tends to be quiet 比较安静
22. ______ Is generally trusting 大体上信任他人
23. ______ Tends to be lazy 比较懒惰
24. _____ Is emotionally stable, not easily upset 情绪稳定，不容易焦虑
25. _____ Is inventive 善于创造
26. _____ Has an assertive personality 性格决断
27. _____ Can be cold and aloof 可能会冷淡孤僻
28. _____ Perseveres until the task is finished 坚持到任务完成
29. _____ Can be cold and aloof 可能会喜怒无常
30. _____ Values artistic, aesthetic experiences 重视艺术、美学的经历
31. _____ Is sometimes shy, inhibited 有时羞怯、拘谨
32. _____ Is considerate and kind to almost everyone 几乎对每个人都友善及体贴
33. _____ Does things efficiently 做事有效率
34. _____ Remains calm in tense situation 在紧张情境中仍保持冷静
35. _____ Prefers work that is routine 喜欢从事常规性的工作，不喜欢不确定性
36. _____ Is outgoing, sociable 外向，好交际
37. _____ Is sometimes rude to others 有时对他人粗鲁
38. _____ Makes plans and follows through with them 制定计划并加以贯彻
39. _____ Gets nervous easily 容易紧张
40. _____ Likes to reflect, play with ideas 喜欢反省、思考各种想法
41. _____ Has few artistic interests 没有多少艺术兴趣
42. _____ Likes to cooperate with others 喜欢与他人合作，而非竞争
43. _____ Is easily distracted 容易分心
44. _____ Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature 精通美术、音乐、或文学

THANK YOU VERY MUCH! 😊

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APPENDIX II OUTLINE OF THE IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How does your teacher usually correct your oral errors? Could you provide an example?
2. How do you feel about the way your teacher corrects you? If possible, would you change anything?
3. Could you list three ways you would like your teacher to correct your error, could you tell me the reasons?
4. Will it be easier for you to notice your teacher’s corrections and the correct form if she/he corrects you using the way you like? Could you give me an example?
5. Will you more actively participate in the classroom interactions with the teachers if you can get the corrections you like? Could you give me an example?
6. Do you think your teacher has paid enough attention to your preferences for these corrections? If not, would you like her/him to pay more attention? Do you think it is necessary? Why?
APPENDIX III CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS

(ENGLISH AND MANDARIN)

Informed Consent Form (Learner)

Dear Student,

The purpose of this letter is to invite you to participate in a thesis study conducted by Wei Zhao, an MA student in Department of Integrated Studies in Education, McGill University and supervised by Professor Roy Lyster. The aim of the research is to investigate second language learners’ preferences for different techniques used by their teachers to correct their oral errors in class and to study whether their preferences will affect their noticing of the teachers’ corrections and learning motivation.

By investigating learners’ perception of corrective feedback and their effects, we hope that the findings will help language teachers to better understand learners’ individual differences and needs in order to more effectively scaffold their learning.

The research will take place from late April to June. If you choose to participate, you will be asked to answer anonymously complete questionnaire which takes approximately 20 minutes. Moreover, some of the participants will be interviewed individually at the university which will take up to 40 minutes. The classes will be observed and either audio or video taped. All the notes and the audio or video tapes will only by used to help ensure the accuracy of the transcriptions, for research purpose.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You may withdraw at any time during the study without any negative consequences. This research uses anonymous questionnaires so the completed questionnaires, once submitted, cannot be withdrawn. However, you may refuse to answer any questions you don’t want to. Your responses will not be disclosed to any of your teachers, which means that your answers will not influence your relationship with them. Moreover, your identifiable information will be stored in a safe place, to which only the researcher and her supervisor will have access and your identity will be kept anonymous in any publications in the future.

There are no potential risks or discomfort that you might experience as a result of participating in this study and so I would greatly appreciate your cooperation and support in this regard. If you need additional information about this study, please contact Wei Zhao at wei.zhao3@mail.mcgill.ca or at +1 (514) 651-8998/+86 139-2008-8565. Also, if you have any questions or concerns regarding your rights or welfare as a participant in this research, please contact the McGill Ethics Officer at 514-398-6831 or lynda.mcneill@mcgill.ca

Sincerely,

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I agree to be video-recorded. Yes______ No______
I agree to be audio-recorded. Yes______ No______

I agree to have the data from this study used for research purposes and I understand that any information that might identify me will always be kept confidential. Yes______ No______
_____________________(Signature) ______________________ (Date)

Thank you for considering this request.
尊敬的同学：

您好！

我们真诚邀请您参加这项由麦吉尔大学 (McGill University) 硕士生赵惟和指导教师 Roy Lyster 教授主持的学术研究。这项研究主要调查汉语第二语言学习者更偏好课堂老师的哪种纠错方式，评估这种偏好对学习者认知和掌握正确表达方式的作用及对其学习动力的影响。

通过研究学生对于课堂纠错反馈的认识及其影响，我们希望借以帮助语言导师深入地了解学生的个体差异和不同需求及其作用，从而更好地引导和支持学生学习。

这项研究计划从四月末开始至学期结束。参与者需要填写一份问卷调查（预计用时 20 分钟），同时，部分参与者将被邀请参加一对一的较深入的访问（预计用时 40 分钟）。研究者将观察和记录语言课程并以录音或影像的形式准确记录，所有这些记录将只被用于后续研究和数据分析。

您全程的参与都将将是自愿的，这意味着您可以选择不回答您不想回答的问题，并且可以随时退出这项研究而不会对您造成不良后果。当您退出时，你可以同时要求退回涉及您个人信息的数据。但出于研究目的，数据将被匿名化并严格保密，任何研究者都无法获取您的任何信息或作答内容。

我们保证这项研究不会给与您造成任何风险或不适，并真诚希望能够得到您的许可和支持。如果您需要更多有关此次研究的信息，请联系赵惟 wei.zhao3@mail.mcgill.ca 或 +1 514-651-8998 /+86 139-2008-8565。此外，如果你对研究计划中有关您的个人权益的内容有任何疑问或顾虑，请联系麦吉尔大学 Ethics 办公室+1 514-398-6831 或 lynda.mcneil@mcgill.ca

我同意录音记录。是______ 否______
我同意影像记录。是______ 否______
我了解我的所有个人信息将被匿名并严格保密，并同意将研究数据用于此次研究。
是______ 否______
_________________(签名) ________________(日期)

衷心感谢您予以考虑并再次热诚邀请您参与此次研究，谢谢您的配合！