



Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge some important people who assisted me in completing this thesis.

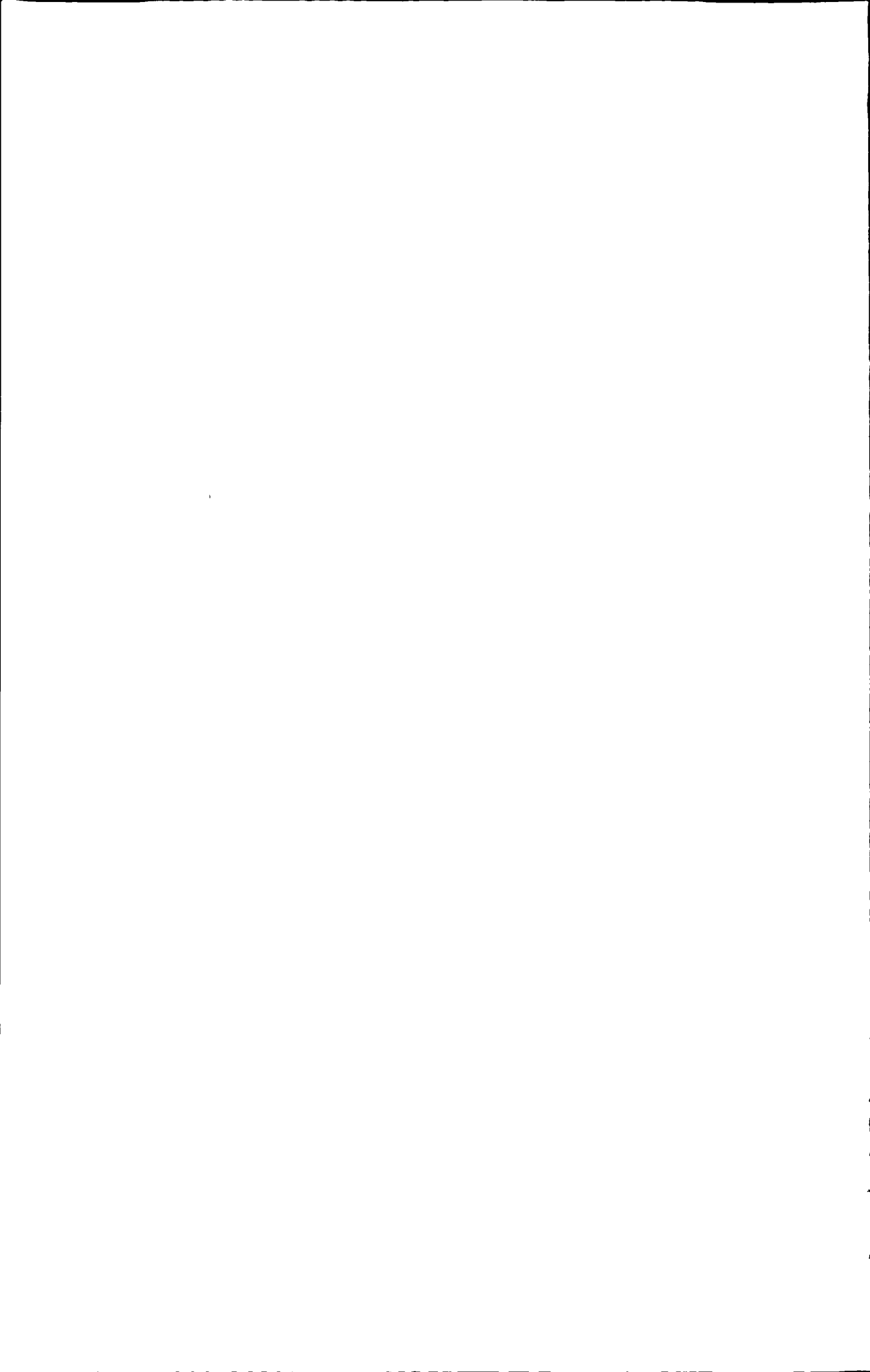
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Abstract

China pays great attention to English education. English is an important compulsory course in elementary education, secondary education and tertiary education. To Chinese students, the most common way to learn English is studying in classrooms. Thus, English teachers' classroom speech is a crucial language input to Chinese English learners. It reflects, to a certain degree, the basic professional quality of teachers, as well as their teaching ideas and professional development. In addition, teacher speech shall be a qualified target language that is worth being studied and followed by students. This paper is dedicated to the research of grammatical errors in classroom speech made by English teachers of Chinese universities. Though they are slips of the tongue, these errors indicate cognitive problems of Chinese English learners.

The data from this paper come from 30 clips of online national-level quality classes and 15 regular classes. The author transferred the teacher speech in these 45 clips of videos or recordings into transcripts. The author then linguistically judged and classified grammatical errors, and did research on the internal relations among the quantity, types and different variants (these teachers' career lengths, professional titles, class types, and the types and locations of their colleges), based on Corder's procedures of error analysis. Contrastive analysis is adopted to analyse the causes of these errors.

The research has shown that:

1. Plenty of grammatical errors occur in English teachers' classroom speech in Chinese university. Some of which occur repeatedly, thus affect students' cognition to the target language.
2. These grammatical errors mainly include four categories: verb tense, article, singular and plural forms of countable nouns, and word order. Some of these errors are interlingual errors, whose reoccurrence is mainly due to the differences between the native and the target languages. The negative transfer of mother tongue occurs. Some other errors are intralingual errors, which are expressed through the incomplete application of rules, overgeneralisation, and over-simplification.
3. In regard to quantity of errors, teachers from foreign language colleges make the least grammatical errors in classroom talk, followed by normal universities, while teachers from



comprehensive universities make the most grammatical errors. In regard to locations, teachers from East China make fewer errors, while their counterparts in West China make more errors. As for the teaching experiences, errors from teacher speech reduce along with the increase of teachers' career lengths. In regard to class types, teachers from regular classes make more errors than those who from online national-level quality classes and teachers in College English courses make more errors than teachers in English major courses.

The findings of this research are not only capable of providing practical reference for the English teaching in Chinese universities, but also helping teachers to analyse their own classroom speech, and urging them to self-examination, thus improving the language capabilities of English teachers.

Key words: teacher speech, grammatical errors, error analysis, contrastive analysis, negative transfer



摘要

中国是英语教育大国,无论是中小学基础教育阶段,还是高等教育阶段,英语都是重要的必修课程。对于中国的学生来说,课堂环境中的英语学习是最主要的方式。因此,英语教师的课堂话语是英语学习者的重要语言输入。它在一定程度上反映了教师的基本业务素养,反映了教师的教育教学理念和专业发展过程。同时,英语教师课堂话语应该是值得学生学习和效仿的符合目的语规范的语言。本文旨在研究中国大学英语教师课堂话语的语法错误,这些错误属于口误,但也反映了中国英语学习者在认知层面上的问题。

本文的文本数据来自于 30 节网上的大学英语国家级以及省级精品课和 15 节随堂课。作者将这 45 节课的视频或录音中的教师话语转写成文字,将其中的语法错误进行语言学分类,根据 Corder 的错误分析步骤,研究错误的数量和类型与不同的变量(教师的教龄、职称、课程类型、所在院校类型和地域差异)之间的内在关系,同时对数据进行对比分析,研究表明:

1. 中国大学英语教师的课堂话语在英语语法上存在较多口误。其中一些错误在课堂上反复出现,影响学生对目标语的认知。
2. 这些课堂话语中的语法错误主要集中在四方面:动词时态、冠词、可数名词单复数以及句法上的语序问题。其中一些错误属于语际错误,它们的反复出现最重要的原因来自于母语与目标语的差异,母语对目标语产生负迁移。另外一些属于语内错误,表现在对规则的不完全运用、过度概括以及过度简化。
3. 从错误的总量上看,外语类学校的教师课堂话语的语法错误最少,其次是师范类院校,综合类院校的教师所犯的语法错误较多。从地区分类上看,华东地区的教师话语语法错误较少,而华西地区的错误较多。从教师的教学经验上看,随着教师教龄的增长,教师课堂话语数量递减。从课程类型上看,随堂课的教师话语错误比网上精品课的高,英语专业课的教师所犯语法错误较大外教师少。

研究结果不仅可以为中国大学英语教学提供实证性的参考材料,也可以帮助教师分析自己的课堂话语,促进教师进行反思,从而提高英语教师的语言能力。



关键词：教师话语；语法错误；错误分析；对比分析；负迁移



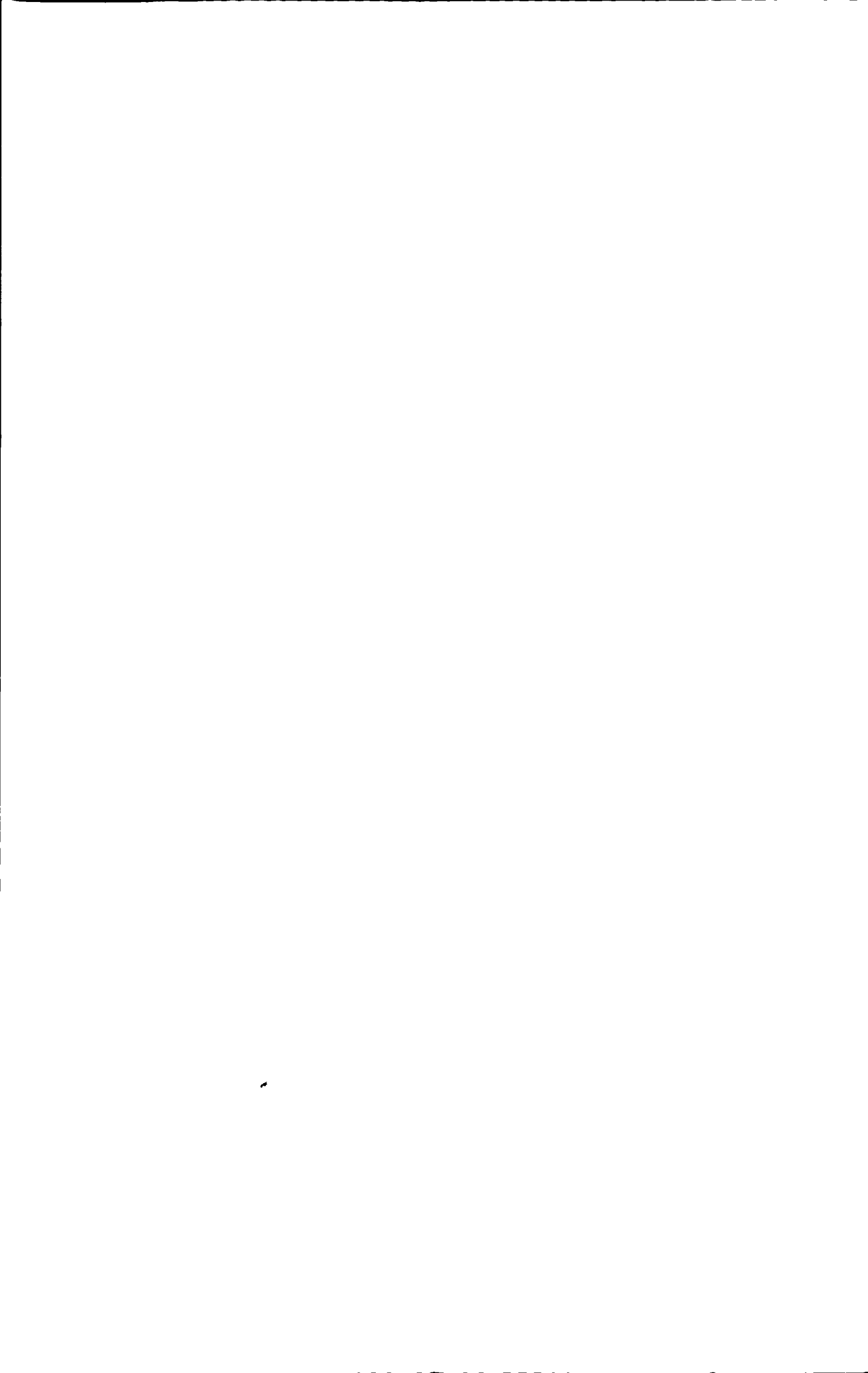
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Chapter One Introduction

1.1 Motivation of the Study

Krashen (1981) suggests that it is plausible that the classroom can accomplish both acquisition and learning simultaneously. The classroom is the place where comprehensible input and modified interaction are available. Teacher is an important source of input. It is necessary that language teachers analyse objectively the language input they have provided and how input has affected the output of the students.

The objective of this study is to identify grammatical errors in teacher speech in class. Such a study of errors becomes a tool of diagnostic significance because the study can provide non-native speaker English teachers with insights into causes of errors. The findings of this study can be used to guide teacher trainers or education system in designing a proper policy in education development.

In 1991, Prodromou summarises some roles that teachers played in the classroom teaching as manager, model, counsellor, informant, and facilitator (as cited in Zhou & Zhou, 2002, p. 62). Liang Zhengliu (2004, p.9) further elaborated the role of teacher. He proposes that teacher's role is traditionally considered as the source of knowledge or the implanter of knowledge, but the roles is gradually becoming numerous as administrator, organiser, catalyst, facilitator, consultant, diagnostician, guide and model of learning. Regarded as a knower, teacher is the learning model in class. For example, students read after the teacher in a foreign language classroom. Teacher speech, mainly consists of target language in an EFL classroom, is the main language source for students to imitate, so the quality of teacher speech is of great importance.

Apart from paying attention to the fluency and abundance of teacher speech, Chinese university English teachers shall also keep an eye on fundamental grammar by improving the preciseness and accuracy of speech. The teacher speech is an important input of students' English learning, especially for teachers that teach

English major classes, as the objects are English major students who will be working in the English language field. Incorrect discourse affects students' cognition, thus unfavourable for students' professional development. From the broad perspective, the quality of teacher speech of university English teachers directly affects the quality and development of college English teaching in China.

1.2 Purpose and Significance

In these studies of language errors made by learners in the process of foreign language learning, researchers attempt to prove or disprove the hypotheses that interference from the mother tongue is the major source of error in foreign language learning and that errors are a valuable source of information about the learning process. To some extent, teacher speech reflects their basic qualities and their teaching philosophy. This, in a way, reflects the development of teachers' profession.

The present study aims to furnish data that may prove useful in further language error analyses and studies of the causes of errors in foreign language learning by presenting the errors made by Chinese university English teachers. Very few studies have reported or analysed these errors. Zhao Shikai (1999) indicates certain aspects of grammatical comparison by analysing errors easily made by English-speaking and Chinese-speaking learners studying Chinese and English respectively, based on morphology and syntax in traditional grammar. (Yang Zijian & Li Ruihua, 1990, p. 34-42) Grammar is concerned with the written language. Equally the spoken language has a grammar. Through the analysis of the grammatical errors in teacher speech in University English classes, we are able to have a deeper understanding about the meaning and value in education work, hence, helping us to build a more concrete foundation for our teaching career.

1.3 Layout of the Thesis

The content and organisation of this paper are as follows: Chapter 2 presents a review of the linguistic literature and theories concerned with teacher speech and studies in this domain both at home and abroad. In Chapter 3, the theoretical frameworks of this study, Contrastive Analysis (CA) and Error Analysis (EA) are

introduced and relative studies on this domain are also discussed. In Chapter 4, the research methodology is illustrated and research questions are raised. Chapter 5 applies an *error analysis* to the errors found in the data collected in terms of morphology and syntax. In Chapter 6, some possible sources of the grammatical errors are investigated based on CA and EA. On the basis of the *error analysis*, a hierarchy of Chinese university teachers' problems in their speech is established and implications for the teaching of English are discussed in the last chapter, Conclusion.

Chapter Two Literature Review

2.1 Classroom Discourse

Discourse is the behaviour where language is its media. (Johnstone, 2008, p. 2) It is the production of meaning and is “used to underscore that meaning are process rather than pre-given entities.” (Clegg & Bailey, c2008, p. 389) Bailey (1991, p. 61) defines discourse analysis as “a variety of procedures for examining chunks of language, whether spoken or written.” In their opinion, discourse analysis is mainly concerned with attempts to study the organisation of linguistic units above sentences, such as oral exchanges or written texts, and particularly the interactions among speakers.

Nunan (1991, p. 116) thinks that classroom discourse is “the distinctive type of discourse that occurs in classrooms.” It contains students’ discourse and teachers’ discourse. Nunan (1991) puts forwards that unequal power relationship between teachers and students is a special feature of classroom discourse. Classroom discourse is language produced in classroom, which includes students’ discourse and teacher’s discourse. Classroom discourse is different from classroom language. Language refers to language system itself while discourse indicates the use of language in certain context, with certain purpose. (Chen Xiaotang, 2009, p. 4) Chen (2009, p. 1-2) indicates that a generalisation of classroom discourse should consist of teacher’s blackboard-writing, students’ in class assignments, teaching related audio materials and textbooks.

Allwright (1983, p. 191) narrowly regards classroom-centered research as the research that treats the language classroom not just as the setting for investigation but, more importantly, as the object of investigation. Walsh (2002, p. 4) characterises the features of an institutional discourse setting as follows:

1. teachers largely control the topic of discussion;

2. teachers often control both content and procedure;
3. teachers usually control who may participate and when;
4. students take their cues from teachers;
5. role relationships between teachers and learners are unequal;
6. teachers are responsible for managing the interaction which occurs;
7. teachers talk most of the time;
8. teachers modify their talk to learners;
9. learners rarely modify their talk to teachers;
10. teachers ask questions (to which they know the answers) most of the time.

Huang Xiaoping (2006) briefly summarised the theoretical background and three research methods of the microanalyses of classroom discourse. Those three methods are ethnography of communication, conversation analysis, and systemic functional linguistic analysis. Huang also discussed about the current stage of China in this research field and its future development in foreign language teaching research. Huang's study is a great contribution in light of the development of foreign language education in China.

In China, linguists and educators conduct a series of studies on English teachers' classroom discourse, the definition of which arouses different voices from researchers. English teachers' classroom discourse is the language that occurs when teachers are organising and implementing teaching activity in English class. The major language in English language class is English, and sometimes learners' native language, Chinese may also occur. (Chen Xiaotang, 2009, p. 2) Zhang Min (2002) holds a different opinion and defines English teachers' classroom discourse as the use of target language rather than learner's native language in foreign language classroom by teachers.

Chen Xiaotang (2008) considers that the ways of applying classroom discourse directly affects the teaching quality of English teacher. He indicates that logic and coherence are essential features of teachers' classroom discourse. In his research, he also discussed about the standards on how to determine logic and coherence in classroom teaching. Together with some practical examples, he analysed the

phenomenon that English teachers lack logic and coherence in their classroom discourse. Chen (2010) further emphasizes the importance of the authentic feature of teachers' classroom discourse. He suggests that English teachers keep their classroom discourse authentic from three aspects: situational authenticity, linguistic authenticity and content authenticity.

2.2 Teacher Speech in Class

2.2.1 Definitions of Teacher Speech

In the academic domain, teachers' classroom discourse is often addressed as "teacher talk". However, different scholars adopt different names, such as teacher speech in class, teachers' instructional language, teacher language in the classroom, to name a few. Among all those names, "teacher talk" is most frequently used.

Rod Ellis (1984, p.342) asserts that "teacher makes adjustment to both language form and language function in order to facilitate communication. These adjustments are referred to as teacher talk." Upon Chaudron's survey in 1988, Ellis concludes eight features of teacher talk and indicates that "teachers modify their speech when addressing L2 learners in the classroom in a number of ways and also they are sensitive to their learners' general proficiency level." (Ellis, 1994, p. 583) Spolsky (2000, p.33) also describes TT as a simplified speech which is used to suit the language learners' comprehension ability. It is a kind of speech characteristically modified in phonology, vocabulary, syntax and discourse. Simplification of the language is meant to simplify the language forms used by the speaker. For example, language simplifications can be in the form of lexical simplifications where speakers may avoid the use of difficult lexical items or reduce their usage of these items. It can also be in the form of syntactic simplifications such as avoiding the use of subordinate constructions.

Richards et al. (2000, p. 471) indicates that "teacher talk is the variety of language used by teacher when undergoing the teaching." Johnson (1998, p. 320) regards teacher talk as "the term used to describe the register which teachers use in class with learners." In their viewpoint, teachers' behaviours, such as error treatment,

simplification, reduction, explanation and talking time distribution are all aspects of teacher talk. They define teacher talk in a broader scale as a register or genre. Similarly, Cook (2000, p.119) defines teacher talk from a broader perspective. He considers it as the amount of speech supplied by the teacher rather than the students. English teacher talk is used for teaching language knowledge, implementing classroom communication and coordinate classroom activities. These goals can be achieved by repetition, explanation, paraphrase and exemplification.

From the above, a conclusion can be drawn that teacher talk is considered as a simplified code that supplies second language learner with comprehensible language input. This type of code can assist learner to understand language better and apply language knowledge to communication. In domestic academia, teacher talk is translated as “课堂关照语”(ke tang guan zhao yu), and addresses this type of feature as formal feature. (Dai & Li, 1998, p. 2) Similarly, Lin Ruchang (1996, p. 8) suggests that teacher talk is a simplified new language register that has developed from caretaker speech/baby talk/motherese language and foreigner talk. Zhao Xiaohong (1998, p. 17) considers teacher talk as a language that teacher use to coordinate and teach in the classroom. Zheng (2002, p. 22), in his paper, refers teacher talk to the use of the language, the target language of the learner, adopted by the teacher.

Teachers, by using target language, assign teaching activities, give instructions, model language patterns, and give feedbacks on students' performance. The term teacher speech itself refers to the register used by a teacher when addressing students individually or in groups within classroom settings. Teachers may simplify their speech in class to instruct students with low language proficiency, but the simplified features are not the research focus in this paper. Therefore, teacher speech in class is adopted here to refer to the teachers' classroom discourse.

2.2.2 Characteristics and Functions of Teacher Speech

Teacher speech is a kind of distinctive genre which is marked by a particular set of vocabulary that is associated with teaching.

Teacher speech in class has its own characteristics. Firstly, by merely considering its style, teacher speech belongs to the spoken language category, for it contains the

features of oral speech. For example, there are pauses, hesitations, slip of the tongue, and disfluency. Secondly, it is obviously different from impromptu or oral speech. That is, teacher speech in class is prefabricated before the actual discourse. Teachers usually prepare their lessons before class, such as preparing related questions and speeches. The grammar of teacher speech may often appear to be complex, and its vocabulary might seem literary. The special characteristics of teacher speech make it share both the features of oral and written language. However, some features of teacher speech also cause it to be different from oral and written language, and hence it is difficult to be defined. In a communicative language classroom, “good” teacher speech means “little” teacher speech and it is the “quality” rather than the “quantity” that counts.

Nunan (1991, p.181) expresses the idea that teacher talk is essential to both classroom coordination and students’ language learning. This is not only because perfect coordination and pass on of teacher talk promote the ideal teaching effect, but is also because teacher speech itself acts as a model for the usage of target language. It is another essential path for students’ language input.

Cook (1996, p.118) further contends that foreign language learners have no choice except classroom formal learning to arrive at the objective of foreign language learning. That means that teacher speech is an instrument of implementing teaching plan, and also the main source of language input of foreign language learners in language classrooms. Therefore, the quantity and quality of teacher speech in class have an important impact on the process of foreign language teaching. Liang Zhengliu (1999, p. 30) indicates that the key to improve classroom teaching quality is to maximise teacher’ potential in teaching. Teachers should not merely be a source of knowledge in teaching, but should also become a guide and a model of learning. Quality input allows students to achieve better output, which then makes learning more effective.

2.2.3 Researches on Teacher Speech in Class

Researches on teachers’ classroom discourse in earlier days focused more on the quantity, which means the time length of teacher’s speech in class. At that time, most

people agreed on the point that teacher should talk less in order to promote more students talking in class. Therefore, “good” teacher speech is equivalent to “little” teacher speech. However, people gradually came to question the idea that a good teacher is the silent teacher, since discourse in language class is not only a tool used by teachers to teach, but also the content of what students learn in their study process. The process of communication between teachers and students is in fact their process of learning to use language. Similarly, the language they use in their communication process is their learning content.

Thereafter, the main focus of researches on teachers’ classroom discourse shifted from its quantity to its quality. People neither paid attention to the time length of teacher or students talking in class, nor did they care about the ratio between teachers’ talk and students’ talk. Many researchers began to study which types of teacher talk are beneficial for students’ learning progress, and which are those that might discourage students to learn. For example, Cullen (1998) and Walsh (2002) studied the effectiveness of teachers’ classroom discourse.

2.2.3.1 Researches on Teacher Speech Abroad

In the 1950s, the classroom-based research emerged and based on empirical studies, it witnessed an unprecedented development in the 1970s and 1980s. A number of books and papers were published successively, including *Classroom Foreign Talk Discourse: forms and functions of teachers’ questions* (Slinger & Long, 1983, p. 268-285), *Classroom-centred Research on Language Teaching and Learning: a brief historical overview* (Allwright, 1983, 191-204), *Classroom Second Language Development* (Ellis, 1984), *Second Language Classroom: research on teaching and learning* (Chaudron, 1988), *The Classroom and the Language Learner: Ethnography and Second language classroom research* (Leo van Lier, 1988) and *Observation in the Language Classroom* (Allwright, 1988), to name a few.

Chen Xiaotang (2009) concludes research methods from three different perspectives: linguistic perspective, language teaching perspective and discourse analysis perspective.

2.2.3.1.1 Researches from a Linguistic Perspective

The research from a linguistic perspective puts its emphasis on the linguistic features of teacher speech in class, including the features of phonetics, speech tempo, vocabulary, grammar and syntax. Many linguistic studies investigating teacher speech in class at universities focus on the lexical (e.g., lexical phrases by Mattinger & DeCarrico, 1992; idioms by Simpson & Mendis, 2003; reflexivity by Mauranen, 2001; evaluative adjectives by Swale & Burke, 2003; pronouns by Fortanet, 2004), rhetorical (e.g., Dudley-Evans, 1994; Young, 1994), and topical structures of teachers' classroom discourse (Hansen, 1994; Crawford, 2004). (Csomay, 2007, p. 337)

From this perspective, people find that, due to students' English capability, English teachers would usually make slight changes to the way they speak, and most teachers intend to simplify their language. For example, they may slow down talking speed, elevate their speaking tone, purposely exaggerate their pronunciations, have more gaps between sentences, reduce the use of liaison, attempt to use more simplified high-frequency words, try to avoid colloquial terms and use more simplified sentence structure instead of using subordinate clauses, to name a few. This is defined as the modification in teacher speech in class.

Chaudron (1982), based on the transcripts and analysis of subject-matter lessons taught to English as a second language learners in several school levels, describes the phenomenon of vocabulary elaboration in teachers' speech in class. He also investigates the features of teacher speech used for elaborating vocabulary, such as "phonological, morphological, syntactic, and discourse structures, as well as semantic-cognitive relationships." (Chaudron, 1982, p. 171) The result shows that the teachers' overelaboration of vocabulary meanings through increased redundancy causes a lot of difficulties in students' understanding, especially those non-native learners. Many other researches on vocabulary modification of teacher speech came out during the 1970s and the 1980s, such as Henzl (1973, 1979), Mizon (1981), and Kleifgen (1985).

In addition, syntax modification is one of the most investigated and quantified aspects of teacher speech in class. There are some conflicting study results on the length of utterance. (Gaie, 1977; Henzl, 1979; Mizon, 1981; Early, 1985; Hakansson,

1986; Ishiguro, 1986) They believe that teachers choose to use shorter sentences in EFL classrooms. On the other hand, the syntactic complexity of teacher speech in class catches a number of researchers' eyes. Based on the amount of tensed and non-tensed verb forms in teacher speech, such researchers as Wesche & Ready (1985), Pica & Long (1986), Mannon (1986) and Steyaert (1997) find no significant differences in degree of syntactic complexity for teachers' speech to L2 learners. On the contrary, other studies support the hypothesis that teachers adjust the complexity of their speech downward when speaking to L2 or less proficient language learners. (see Henzl, 1973; Gaies, 1977b; Long & Sato, 1983; Hyltenstam, 1983; Early, 1985; Ishiguro, 1986; Chaudron, 1988)

2.2.3.1.2 Researches from a Pedagogic Perspective

Relevant researches from a pedagogic perspective transferred their focuses to pedagogic function of teacher speech, which explained different functions of teacher speech in class and the frequency of these discourse to occur. From the pedagogic perspective, researchers conduct their respectively studies in the amount of teacher speech in class, teacher's question in class and teacher's feedbacks on learners' performances. With regard to the amount of teacher speech in class, researches find that about 70% of the utterances in language classrooms are produced by the teacher. (Flander 1970; Chaudron, 1988; Cook 1991) Allwright (1991, p. 2) also indicates that based on observations of some different classes, "both in content area subjects and in language instruction, ...teachers typically do between on half and three quarters of the talking done in the classroom." By investigating two English lessons in secondary schools in Hong Kong, Tsui (1985, p.17) claims that teacher speech takes up the major portion of all speech in language classroom (i.e. over 80% of all speech).

In 1969, Barnes (as cited in Ellis, 1994, p. 587) classified four types of questions in language classroom: factual questions which begin with "what", inferential questions which begin with "how" and "why", open questions which have no ready-made answers, and social questions that influence student behaviour by means of control or appeal. Long and Sato (1983) investigate the forms and functions of ESL teachers' questions in the classroom. According to their research result, 79% of the

questions which request information from the students are display questions. It shows a sharp contrast with the frequency of the questions addressed by native speakers in natural discourse, where display questions rarely occur. Nunan (1991) investigates teacher questions in language classrooms and classifies these questions into display questions and referential questions, which become the basic framework of studies of teacher questions in other research papers. In terms of the purposes of questions in language classrooms, Richard and Lockhart (2000) further classify the questions into categories: procedural, convergent and divergent. In addition, they also indicate that language teachers are tended to restrict their questions to those students who sit in the middle front row or up the middle aisle of the classroom. Apart from these researches mentioned above, many scholars such as Kearsley (1976), Rowe (1986), Pica and Long (1986), McDonough and Shaw (1993) and Ellis (1994) all conducted systemic researches on teacher's question in language classrooms.

Feedback to learner's performance which plays an important role in language classrooms, also obtains a lot of interests from researchers. Ur, in 2000, puts forward that feedback has two main distinguished components: correction and assessment. Hendrickson's study (as cited in Richards & Lockhart, 2000, p. 189) in 1978 reveals three main issues in teacher's error correction in language classrooms, including whether learning errors should be corrected, which kinds of learner errors should be corrected and how errors should be corrected. Richards and Lockhart (2000) and Ur (2000) provide some strategies and techniques for error correction in language classrooms. Vigil and Oller (1976), Whedall and Merrett (1984), Oliver (1995), Penny (1996), Lyster and Ranta (1997), Schwartz and White (2000), and Harmer (2000) all made their contributions on the studies of teacher's classroom feedback.

2.2.3.1.3 Researches from a Discourse Analysis Perspective

It is discourse analysis perspective that use language analysis as a base to analyse the appropriateness and actual results of teacher talk in class. The book *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers* published in 1991, written by Michael McCarthy, is designed to help English teachers learn to make discourse analysis while teaching and apply these analyses to teaching. This is the first time that a discourse-analytic

approach to language teaching has been made accessible to professionals in this field. Furthermore, the book *Discourse and Context in Language Teaching: a guide for language teachers* (1991) written by Marianne Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, is also a classic piece of work that aims to aid language teachers to correctly recognise language and understand language learning on the basis of text analysis.

Bellack et al.'s study in 1966 is the pioneer in the discourse analysis researches of language classrooms. Based on the description of classroom discourse, they provide a research framework including four aspects: structure, solicit, respond and react. (Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p. 98) In 1975, Sinclair and Coulthard suggested using hierarchy of units of interaction to analyse classroom languages. Sinclair and Coulthard published their work *Towards an Analysis of Discourse: the English used by teachers and pupils*, in which they proposed a model for the description of teacher-pupil talk IRF structure describes three different stages of teacher speech in class. They are initiation, response and feedback or follow-up. Based on this structure as a research framework, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) studied teachers' questioning, including question types (referential questions or display questions), suitable time to raise questions, waiting period after raising a question and feedbacks or comments on students' answers.

Leo Van Lier (1988) discusses three issues, namely turn-taking patterns, learner-initiative and repair, by a comparison between L2 classroom communication and natural communication. Van Lier (1988, p. 160) points out that some pitfalls of traditional discourse analysis and suggests teachers and other investigators describing and analysing teachers' speech in foreign language lessons, with the help of recorded data.

Walsh (2002, p. 4-5) indicates that many researchers (e.g. Johnson, 1995; Seedhouse, 1996; van Lier, 1988) attempt to analyse "teacher-and-learner talk." Also, through discourse analysis, some researchers (e.g. Long, 1983; Swain, 1985; Pica, 1994; Willis, 1996; Foster, 1998) focus their researches on the interdependence of interaction, input, output and the need for negotiation for meaning.

In September, 2001, a special issue called *Microanalyses of Classroom Discourse:*

a critical consideration of method was published in *Applied Linguistics*. It is the first special issue published in this journal since 1989. In view of the importance of anthropology, sociology and systemic functional linguistics, this issue aims to foreground the method behind the classroom research and to engage the readers in “metamethodological discussion of several microanalysis frameworks for classroom discourse.” (Zuengler & Mori, 2002, p. 285) These researchers (Zuengler & Mori, p. 283-288; Duff, p. 289-322; Mori, p. 323-347; Young & Nguyen, p. 348-372; Rampton et al. p. 373-392; Green & Dixon, p. 393-406) choose three-well defined methodologies, namely ethnography of communication, conversation analysis, and systemic functional linguistic analysis, in order to provide clear principles and guidelines for how to approach data.

Based on a framework of discourse analysis, Kraker (2000) examines teacher-student discourse from a sociocultural perspective so as to explore the nature of effective instruction for school-age students with learning disabilities. Based on observation of teacher discourse in a classroom, Kraker’s research result reveals that teachers’ classroom instructions and feedbacks are of great importance for effective language teaching. He further suggests some implications for educators and researchers in the field of learning disabilities, for it is challenging “to examine effective instructional approaches relative to specific learning disabilities while at the same time recognising the powerful influence of the social context.” (Kraker, 2000, p. 311)

Walsh (2002) examines the ways in which teachers, through their choice of language, construct or obstruct learner participation in face-to-face classroom communication. The result of his research reveals that teachers’ capability to control their use of language is of great importance and Walsh further proposes some implications and suggestions for in-service teachers and teacher education.

Sharpe (2008) examines excerpts of teacher speeches from two history lessons that occur at the first year of high school in an independent Australian boys’ school. She identifies a number of teacher talk strategies which support students in their understanding of the process of historical inquiry. Also, she indicates that only being

aware of various discourse strategies, can teachers plan lessons which support a dialogic classroom environment.

Ewert (2009) employs two frameworks, namely negotiation and scaffolding to investigate the discursive quality of two teachers in second language writing conferences. The result reveals that “the combinations of negotiation and scaffolding moves allow teachers to vary assistance in relation to the proficiency of the learners and promote greater learner participation in the review of their writing.” (Ewert, 2009, p. 253)

Regarded as an important language input, teacher speech in class is usually studied from its forms in English speaking countries. The relative studies abroad on the teacher talk are mainly focused on the amount and type of teacher talk, its effects on language comprehension, teacher questions, feedbacks and error correction.

2.2.4 Researches on Teacher Speech at Home

Yang Min (2001) used teacher talk and student talk in classroom as a starting point to introduce an important topic in the research field of western language teaching, which is the research on the foreign language classroom teaching. This, in a way, supplied us with theory and practical cases on foreign language classroom teaching, and also proved that the logic and method used for research on classroom observation was a valuable reference. Most studies and surveys carried out at home in recent years have put more emphasis on the quantity of teacher talk rather than on its quality.

Currently, naturalistic inquiry is widely used as a method of researches on teacher talk. By gathering a certain number of sample classroom recordings on typical lessons, such as intensive reading, listening or oral presentation and data on research surveys, people are able to explore the hidden problems in English teachers' classroom discourse, and the relationship between teachers' role in classroom and learners' language habit.

Jia Aiwu (1999) proposes the idea that improvements in English classroom discourse model are necessary. Both teachers and students should think critically about their feedbacks from each other. This may admit students more opportunity to

express themselves in class and further elevate students' understanding ability and expressiveness. Jia further puts forward that this method may promote the formation of cognitive thinking structure which can be transformed to students' intrinsic knowledge.

Hu Fuzhen (2002) points out the phenomenon that the teacher's individual discourse right is going to be deprived or lose consciously or unconsciously. Hu, therefore, proposes that the development of equal communication and teacher's self-consciousness is a must. Based on Hu's research, Jiang Yin (2003) and Xing Sizhen (2004) further the studies on teacher's discourse right from a sociological perspective. Only in the possession of individual discourse right, can teachers initiate their self-consciousness and promote their professional development steadily and continuously.

Yang Xueyan (2003) focused on EFL classroom interaction and reviewed the researches on language teacher classroom strategies. This allows people to understand which type of classroom behaviours is beneficial for students, so that classroom teaching results can be improved. Base on this idea, she elaborates on the practical significance of these types of researches in an EFL classroom in China. She also discusses about this kind of researches in terms of its significance to foreign language teaching and second language acquisition.

Cai Longquan (2003) analysed teachers' instructional language and its causal relation with students' reluctance and inability to speak. By examining the quantity of teachers' classroom language, along with the amount, property and delivery of teacher's instructional language, Cai observes that teachers either speak too much or speak with little variations in their vocabulary. Excessive teacher talks can possibly bereave students' opportunities to express their ideas in class and the tedious language can constrain the range of language contact and imitation of students. Furthermore, bad timing of speech may also kill students' desire to talk. Cai proposes three relevant suggestions under the condition of learner-centred teaching, where he asks teachers to reshape their speech in class.

Yao Peizhi (2004) explored the basic features of teacher talk in foreign language

teaching from four perspectives, namely the bilingual, standardisation, context and communication. She points out that the quality level of teacher talk not only reflects teachers' qualification, but also is closely related to the successful output of the learners in classroom.

Through classroom observation, Pei Xuemei and Li Min (2006) made a quantitative analysis on senior high school English classroom interaction structure and teacher language from the angle of language function. Results reveal that the main classroom interaction structure in high school English classes is IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback/Follow-up). It promotes frequent interactions and is more likely to be successful. Most of time, teachers use questions to initiate interactions, and maintain and balance the interactions through meaning negotiation, prompt feedback, meta-language and body language.

Wang Quanfang (2008) analysed the current situation of teacher talk in English classrooms and states that problems do exist in traditional 'teacher-centred' teaching method, which makes teacher the centre of a class. Therefore, more improvements on the quality of teacher talk are required. She also indicates that many teachers make inaccurate feedbacks on learners' behaviours in class. Therefore, she proposes some strategies that are able to help improve the quality of teacher talk, enhance the effectiveness of teaching and benefit the learners overall in their language acquisition.

2.2.4.1 Researches on Teacher Speech in Chinese Universities

Zhang Zhengju and Li Shufen (1996), who were representative scholars in the early research of teacher talk in EFL classroom, discussed the English teacher talk in Chinese universities in terms of its definition, characteristics, and compositions.

Lin Ruchang (1996) introduced recent researches on teacher talk as a register in overseas linguistic field. In addition, on the basis of sample tests and conclusions, he elaborated the status quo of the use of teacher talk in foreign language teaching in Chinese colleges, which has led to further theoretical discussions on the inspirations that teacher talk gives us.

Based on class observations and recordings, Zhao Xiaohong (1998) analysed the teacher talk in English reading classes in Chinese universities from four aspects: the

quantity and quality of teacher talk, teachers' questioning, teachers' feedbacks on students' answers, and teachers' interpretations of texts. Her research indicates that a teacher's lecture takes up 65% to 90% of class teaching. There are too many repeats from teachers' lectures in reading classes, which excurses from the theme and largely affects teaching effectiveness. Also, much more display questions than referential questions in teachers' questioning. The research also points out that most teachers go blindly in correcting students' grammatical errors, wait too little time for students' answers and even interrupt students' expressions. Last but not least, teachers' interpretations focus on vocabulary and grammar rather than text content, which is opposite to the teaching aim of reading classes.

Through class recordings and questionnaires, Zhou Xing and Zhou Yun (2002) conducted a systematic analysis on teacher talk under the "student-centred" teaching mode in terms of quantity, ways of questioning, interactional modification, and feedbacks. The research proves that compared to the traditional teacher-fronted classroom teaching, the new teaching mode provides students with more opportunities to practise two-way communication and negotiation of meaning in target language. This will be beneficial to language acquisition.

Xu Erqing and Ying Huilan (2002) conducted a research, using *New College English* as a textbook, on classroom discourse of English teaching in universities. The result shows that the analysis of English classroom discourse is not limited in teacher's language. Instead, it involves the joint contribution of both students and the teacher. Xu and Ying also discover that though discourse structures are complex, IRF structure still exists and interactions between the teacher and students are close to real communication.

Zhang Min (2002) discusses the different linguistic features and interactional modes between spontaneous speech and teacher talk. He argues that as the main language input and teaching medium in classroom teaching, teacher talk has its limitations in its modes and functions, such as unitary simplification and one-way interaction. These limitations are unfavourable to the improving of students' communication capacities. Based on Yang Wenyong's research (2001), Zhang also

briefly discusses some ways to improve the effectiveness of teacher talk, in terms of information effect and relations in classroom interactions.

Xu Feng (2003) did a qualitative and quantitative research on the trial of classroom questioning in university English classes through class recordings and questionnaires. It proves the importance of proper classroom questioning, and points out some existing problems in teachers' classroom questioning at present.

Research conducted by Liu Jiarong and Jiang Yuhong (2004) comprehensively examined characteristics of university oral English classes, including talk quantity, talk types and length, types of code switching produced by teacher and students, as well as the distribution and relations of talk rights in classroom. The result shows that only if the teacher offers students more opportunities to communicate with the target language in bilingual classes, and provides students with greater rights to speak and independence in controlling talking turn, can the quality and quantity of students' oral output be improved.

Based on the literature about language input and its relation with second language acquisition, Chen Qin (2004) analysed the effect of college English teacher talk on second language acquisition in student-centred classes. He points out that teacher, the coordinator and guide in a classroom, creates a negotiating and encouraging context by properly using functional language, which has positive influences on the students' language output.

Through class recordings and questionnaires, Kong Huifang and Zhang Ping (2005) investigated and analysed teacher talk on intensive English reading classes for English majors, in terms of its modes, structural ratios, and types of feedbacks and corrections. In addition, Yang Yanhui and Ren Ting's research (2009), based on Krashen's language input hypothesis and Long's interaction hypothesis, discusses the definition, categories and features of teacher talk in college English intensive reading classes. It reveals the current situation of teacher talk in the reading classes, and explores some influencing factors which may help improve teaching effect.

Through analysis of recordings of two extracts from College English classes, based on Conversation Analysis methodology, Zhou Junping (2006) proves that

teacher talk can either increase the opportunities for student participation, or hinder the participation. Furthermore, he also indicates that teachers can promote second language acquisition by monitoring and reflecting their use of teaching language, and focusing on the quality of teacher talk.

Chen Lijiang (2006) investigated teachers' feedbacks in the classes for sophomore English majors in a normal university. Through analysis of the types of English teachers' feedbacks on students, she finds that these feedbacks differ in terms of gender. She also explores the cause of these differences. She argues that foreign language teachers should properly use remarks, while recognising gender differences, in order to assure the effectiveness of classroom interactions and the success of communication.

Hu Qingqiu (2007a) analysed both Chinese and foreign teachers' English classroom discourse in terms of question types, exchange structures, and feedback types. The result shows that there are differences and similarities: the sum of discourse is similar, while foreign teachers' discourse is much more than that of students'; the number of questions made by Chinese teachers is over 4 times more than the number of questions made by foreign teacher, and the types of questions are different too; the exchange structures and feedbacks of both sides are similar.

By using quantitative description and qualitative analysis, Weng Xiaomei and Yu Yingji (2007) reveal the promotions and impacts of teacher talk on classroom interaction. Their study focuses on such aspects of teacher talk that closely related to classroom interaction: its utterance amount, its formal features, and its contents and functions.

Using class recordings, Hu Qingqiu (2007b) conducted an analysis of English classroom discourse of five excellent college teachers of English. The result shows the following features: the talking time in class is not all nominated by teachers, instead, students also have their share of talking time; referential questions normally outnumber display questions; most of the exchange structures are complex, however, IRF structure still accounts for a certain part; the ratio of discursual feedbacks is a little higher than that of evaluative feedbacks.

Xian Xiubin and Sun Xiaoli (2007) adopted natural investigation method. Using the recorded lessons of six distinguished university lecturers as examples, they made a systematic analysis on teacher talk time, questioning, interactive modification, negotiation of meaning, feedback and IRF discourse chains. From the results, they conclude that the distinguished teachers' classroom discourse is greatly different from each other. Therefore, textbook itself is barely enough to determine the features of classroom discourse, for it is the teachers' pedagogic belief that matters. Even student-centred classroom discourse is not exactly the same as natural conversation.

Yao Yu and Cheng Meng (2007) think that most university students do not have a good reading and comprehension skills, so changes for teaching strategy are necessary in order to achieve better results in teaching. They began by analysing teachers' classroom discourse in some University English lectures. Together by adopting the Comprehensible Input theory, they introduce some alternations and suggestions that can lead to better teaching effect in University English classes.

Yu Hong (2007) wrote a relatively detailed review on discourse analysis of English teacher talk under a Chinese classroom circumstance. She analyses discourse analysis and the current stage of its researches. At the present, China's researches on foreign teacher discourse analysis focus on the feature of teachers' interaction with students. The subject of the studies is mostly tertiary education group. However, empirical researches on how teacher talk can promote language learning from a cognitive aspect and enhance negotiation of meaning are relatively less.

Wu Dianning (2007) discussed different gender talks of English teacher. In his paper, by studying discourse quantity, questioning methods, feedbacks, gesture and classroom lead-in in classroom teaching and their influences on the learners' language acquisition, conclusion is drawn that gender difference may result in different teaching styles. Long Lirong (2009) analysed university English teachers' classroom discourse from a gender angle. His result shows that male and female teachers are different from each other in mainly four areas, namely amount of teacher talk, teacher questions, teacher feedback and classroom directives. By analysing the teaching genre of both male and female teachers, Long's paper surely contributes to the improvement

of English teaching.

Although those research data might not be enough to describe the entire picture of English teaching, they surely reflect some aspects of second language acquisition in China. Indeed, those data provide reliable references for future researches on second language teaching and are valuable in many ways. (Chen Qiuxian, 2007, p. 6)

Chapter Three Theoretical Framework

Contrastive analysis, error analysis and interlanguage are the three major theoretical frameworks of second language learning. Contrastive analysis used to be the major field in applied linguistics concerned with drawing the pedagogical implications of structural differences and similarities between languages. Its main objective was that of facilitating the learning of a second language. Error analysis and interlanguage are two reviewed together on the ground that they are closely related, although historically it is studies in error analysis which have led to the new field of research in interlanguage.

3.1 Contrastive Analysis

3.1.1 Definition and Scope

Contrastive Linguistics is also known as Contrastive Analysis or Contrastive Studies. Carl James (1980) defines Contrastive Analysis (CA), from three dimensions, as “a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inverted (i.e. contrastive, not comparative) two-valued typologies (a CA is always concerned with a pair of languages), and founded on the assumption that languages can be compared.” (1980, p. 3) Xu Yulong (1992, p.13) proposes that Contrastive Linguistics is one of the most important branches in linguistics. Its function is to make synchronic comparison between two or more languages, in order to describe their differences and especially how one differs from another. Those research results can then be applied to other research fields.

Contrastive research is a research method that makes an enormous contribution to making language an independent research subject. In the 1820s, the founder of comparative research, German linguist Humboldt, organically combined diachronic research and synchronic research. He introduced many profound thoughts, which is

the bedrock for the formation of modern language theories. (Zheng Shupu, 2001, p. 50)

The term “contrastive linguistics” was first used by American linguist Benjamin Lee Whorf in his article *Language and Logic*, published in 1941. Whorf argues that, compared to Comparative Linguistics in Europe since the 19th Century, Contrastive Linguistics is a synchronic research. Through observations and analysis on two or more languages, their similarities and differences at various levels such as phonetics, vocabulary, grammar, semantics or discourse are revealed, and the philosophical, psychological or logic causal roots of these similarities and differences are clarified. The synchronic comparison within one language is a major research approach of such sub-disciplines as phonetics, grammar and lexicology, which forms up the mainstream of contemporary linguistics. (Xu Yulong, 2002, p.2) Comparative Linguistics is a diachronic research, which describes the development of languages from different language families. It focuses on the inner connections between language families, and elaborates their systems and characteristics, in order to establish a certain pedigree. (Zheng Yanan and Huang Qidong, 2008, p.138) As research approaches, comparison and contrast are interdependent. In language research, comparisons usually arise as contrasts, for example, general vs. individual, local vs. global, and error vs. correct. Qian Jun (1990, p.12) points out that comparative historical linguistics, comparative typological linguistics and contrastive linguistics are three different research types of comparative linguistics.

3.1.2 Development of Contrastive Linguistics:

American linguist Fries, in 1954, wrote *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language* by using contrastive research. He argues that “The most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner” (1954, p. 9). This theory argues that studying foreign languages is a process during which connections are built between learner’s native language (i.e. mother tongue) and new study tasks (i.e. foreign language).

CA is founded on the assumption that L2 learners will tend to transfer the formal

features of their L1 to their L2 utterances. Lado's *Linguistics Across Culture*, published in mid-1950s, is a classic in applying the Contrastive Analysis theory. Lado puts it that "individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture." (1957, p. 2) He argues that linguistic components that are similar to the learner's mother tongue are easier to learn, otherwise, harder. This viewpoint was later referred as contrastive analysis hypothesis. The core of this view is that the principal barrier to foreign language acquisition is the interference of the first language system. In his opinion, all L2 errors can be predicted by identifying the differences between learners' native language and target language. Lado provides specific practices for contrastive analysis: how to compare phonetics, grammar, vocabulary, writing system and two different cultures. Lado's research aims at the application of comparative linguistics in second language acquisition.

Since 1962, applied linguistics in America has enjoyed a rapid development. A series of research books have been published, and their systematic comparative researches focus on phonetics and grammatical structures, including *The Structure of English and German* (H.L.Kufner, 1962), *The Sound of English and German* (W.G.Moulton, 1962), *The Structure of English and Italian* (Agard & Pietro, 1965), *The Sounds of English and Italian* (Agard & Pietro, 1975), *The Sounds of English and Spanish* (Stockwell & Bowen, 1965), to name a few. From a theoretical perspective, American linguists discuss bilingualism and language contact phenomena. *Language in Contact* (Wejnrejm, 1953) and *The Norwegian Language in the United States* (Haugen, 1953) are both good examples. Language contrastive research in Europe undergoes a long history. Researches in such fields as second language acquisition, psycholinguistics, error analysis, and translation increasingly indicate the important application value of contrastive linguistics. (Qian Jun, 1990, p. 15)

However, contrastive analysis emphasises too much on the interference of the mother tongue, and does not pay enough attention to learner's initiative. (Wang Chuming, 1990, p. 65) Contrastive linguistics started to decline in the 1960s and 1970s. It was not until 1980 when three influential books were published, which

symbolises the turning point of the development of contrastive linguistics. They are *Contrastive Analysis* (James, 1980), *Contrastive Textology: Comparative Discourse Analysis in Applied Linguistics* (Hartmann, 1980) and *Theoretical Issues in Contrastive Linguistics* (Fisiak, 1980). These three books break through the narrow vision of contrastive analysis, and open up a wide field for the re-born comparative research.

Later, contrastive linguistics embraced another rapid development. Representative scholars such as Krzeszowski who focuses on theoretical research, Connor who focuses on metaphors and the contrast of written language, Snell-Hornby who focuses on semantics, Oleksy who focuses on pragmatics, and Chesterman who focuses on meanings and functions all made significant contributions. *Contrastive Functional Analysis* (Chesterman, 1998) raised the Western contrastive linguistics onto a new level. (Pan Wenguo, 2006, p.16). Chesterman (1998, p. 198-199) indicates four aspects which can be served by his functional analysis. They are cross-cultural behaviour patterns, translation, foreign and second language acquisition as well as language awareness in single language.

In 1990, contrastive linguistics had its new breakthrough in China. It is also the year when the remarkable book *Papers on English-Chinese Contrastive Study*, written by Yang Zijian and Liu Ruihua, was published. Afterwards, *A Contrastive Analysis of Chinese and English and Translation* written by Liu Miqing and *Contrastive Linguistics* written by Xu Yulong, were published respectively in 1991 and 1992. Those books raised the curtain on the research of contrastive linguistics. Meanwhile, China Association for Comparative Studies of English and Chinese (CACSEC) was established in 1994, which made English and Chinese contrastive research a spotlight of China linguistic research in the 1990s. A series of influencing books, namely *Contrastive Studies of English and Chinese* (Liu Chongde, 1994), *Language and Culture: Contrastive Studies Between English and Chinese* (Li Ruihua, 1996), *An Outline of Chinese-English Contrastive Study* (Pan Wenguo, 1997), *Contrast Analysis between English and Chinese Figures of Speech* (Li Guonan, 1999), *Essays on the Contrastive Study of Chinese-English Syntax: A Cognitive-functional Approach*

(Zhao Shikai, 1999), *English-Chinese Comparative Semantics* (Wang Fengxin, 2001) and *A Contrastive Study of Cohesion in English and Chinese* (Zhu Yongsheng, 2001), were published respectively. According to Wang Juquan and Zheng Lixin's study (as cited in Pan Wenguo, 2006), statistics from 1995 to 2003 illustrates that there are a total of 124 books and papers, relating to English-Chinese contrastive research, published during this period.

In the past 20 years, along with China's reform and opening to the world, foreign language teaching and translation industry have become more prosperous. At the same time, learning Chinese also becomes a trend around the world. All those aspects promote and trigger the rapid development of contrastive linguistics in China. Research on contrastive linguistics has already broadened its research field from traditional syntactic structure to pragmatics and discourse analysis.

In foreign language teaching, the role played by learner's native language cannot be neglected. Lu Shuxiang (1977) states in his speech *Studying Grammar by Contrast*, that we can only predict the difficulties that foreigners are encountering in learning Chinese, when we fully understand their language. By strictly following this rule, teaching Chinese as a foreign language can then become more effective. Through long-term foreign language teaching, people came to realise that promoting Chinese and foreign language contrastive research can improve the quality of foreign language teaching. By performing scientific contrastive analysis, teachers are able to grasp a better understanding of the language they teach, which then allows them to compile high quality teaching materials and teach in a finer manner. Han Hong (2006, p. 45) suggests that on one hand, the demand for foreign language teaching promotes the development of contrastive linguistics. On the other hand, the results of contrastive studies guide and improve foreign language teaching. Foreign language teaching is a cross language transformation between native language and target language. The main idea is to find and deal with the difference between these two languages, and eventually cultivate students' ability to do this type of transformation successfully.

3.1.3 Language Transfer

It is widely accepted that in the process of second language acquisition, learners

depend extensively on their native languages. Discussions of transfer often begin with the work of American linguists in the 1940s and 1950s. Transfer is viewed not merely as the mechanical transfer from L1 to L2, but a complicated cognitive procedure influenced by various factors. Odlin (2001, p. 27) defines transfer as “the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired.”

It is certain that, in the process of foreign language learning, learners will subconsciously use their first language knowledge, such as pronunciation, grammatical rules and thoughts of their native language into target language. Language transfer can be divided into two categories: positive transfer and negative transfer. Odlin (2001, p.36) thinks that the comparisons of the success of groups with different native languages often show that cross-linguistic similarities can produce positive transfer in several ways. On the other hand, negative transfer is a kind of interference which involves divergences from norms in the target language. The study of transfer depends greatly on the systematic comparisons of languages provided by contrastive analyses.

3.1.4 Contrastive Studies on English and Chinese Grammar

Any type of second language grammar, or even first language grammar, is created by people unconsciously while they compare their native language with other languages. (Han Hong, 2006, p. 43)

In the year of 1981, four books on contrast of grammar were published, namely *Chinese and English Comparative Grammar* by Ren Xueliang, *Essentials of English and Chinese Comparative Grammar* by Zhang Jin and Chen Yunqing, *A Comparison of English and Chinese Grammar* by Zhao Zhiyi, and *A Manual About Chinese and English Grammar* by Wu Jiemin.

3.2 Error Analysis

3.2.1 Significance of Errors and Error Analysis

In 1967, Corder published *The Significance of Learners' Errors*, and in this paper, he proposed the concept of errors. According to him, errors are no longer something

negative or suggest learner's failure in language learning; instead, errors are normal and vital for learning to occur. Corder (1967) thinks that by a gradual process of trial and error and hypothesis testing, learners will then slowly and tediously succeed in establishing closer approximations to the system used by native speakers of the language. (Richards, 1974, p. 27)

In this notable paper, Corder (Richards, 1974, p.25) further asserts that the significances of errors can be displayed in the following three ways:

1. These errors tell the teacher that if he or she undertakes a systematic analysis, he or she will realise the improvements that learners have made and how far towards the goal the learners have progressed. Furthermore, teacher will also be able to tell what remains for students to learn.
2. How do people learn or acquire a language? What steps or strategies will learners take to explore this language? In response to these questions, errors will also supply researchers many evidences and information regarding language learning.
3. To learners themselves, those errors are indispensable, for we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn. Learners can take mistakes as a way of testing their hypotheses about the nature of the language they are learning.

Errors are no longer regarded as undesirable, but as a guide to the inner working of the language learning process. Feedbacks on errors allow the teachers to know the actual effect of their teaching and teaching material. Error Analysis (EA), as a research method in applied linguistics, helps teachers assess the students' learning in general and the degree of match between the students' learning syllabus and the teacher's teaching one. EA has eventually brought forth an important theory of second language learning, which is interlanguage theory. (Zhou & Zhang, 2004, p.23) EA provides insights into sources of learners' areas of difficulties—L1 transfer and psychological processes of the learners' cognitive systems and their learning strategies.

3.2.2 Definition and Scope of Error Analysis

The theoretical linguistic basis of Error Analysis (EA) is Noam Chomsky's

Transformational-Generative Grammar. This theory suggests that language learning is not merely a process of imitation and memorising, but is a process of creatively using language. The psychological basis of EA is Language Acquisition Device (LAD). From examining how children learn language, people come to understand that making language errors does not mean the failure in language learning. However, they can lead directly to the view of a highly structured learner's language and help teachers to peek in on the learner's internal processing grammar and built-in syllabus essential in language acquisition.

Corder, in 1971, put forward in his paper *Idiosyncratic Dialects and Error Analysis* that Error Analysis is known to do with the investigation of the language of second language learners. (Richards, 1974, p. 158) Carl James (2001, p.1) defines "a language error as an unsuccessful bit of language." He further indicates that "Error Analysis is the process of determining the incidence, nature, causes and consequences of unsuccessful language."

Error Analysis proponents, on the other hand, have challenged the usefulness of Contrastive Analysis (CA) both on theoretical and practical grounds. EA is different from CA, for that EA is not designed to predict how first language may affect second language learning, but to explore how learners process information in second language learning, through gathering and examining all kinds of errors that learners make.

Brown (1980, p. 166) indicates that "Error Analysis became distinguished from Contrastive Analysis by its examination of errors attributable to all possible sources, not just those which result from negative transfer of the native language." Adopting EA can aid people to avoid the inherent limitations of CA. People are neither limited to analysing errors caused by language transfer, nor restricted to making hypotheses based on those errors that learners might encounter. However, EA allows people to discover some common errors made by learners, especially those caused by the complex structure of foreign language itself. Xu Yulong (2002, p. 326) states that EA requires us to divide students into different categories, and therefore CA is essential. Hence, in comparison to CA, EA possesses a closer relationship with classroom

teaching. In other words, EA is more useful to language teachers. Both CA and EA have their own advantages, and they cannot be replaced by each other. Instead, those two methods complement each other in the process of target language learning. In EA, CA is no longer used to predict the errors that might occur in foreign language teaching and learning, but is used to explain which errors are caused by native language interference.

EA is an analytical tool that is used to identify linguistic errors learners make. The fundamental theory of EA is interlanguage theory. Interlanguage is "a system that has a structurally intermediate status between the native and target languages." (Brown, 1980, p. 203) This system is very similar to other language systems, especially in terms of phonetics, lexis, grammar, semantics and pragmatics. Interlanguage surely has incorrect aspects, but it also has correct aspects. Through EA, people can pay attention to these errors resulting from interlingual interference and also be aware of those errors caused by intralingual interference.

Haded (1998, p. 55) argues two goals of EA: a tool of general linguistics and a technique of applied linguistics. The former is used to elicit information on second language acquisition while the latter serves linguistic research and the improvement of teaching material. EA has been used to significantly change the teaching and learning of second language by having learners react to new linguistic phenomena and by providing useful insights about second language acquisition process. For EA, the goal is clearly pedagogical. Most of its work is carried out in classrooms and the result of such study has helped teachers to assess the student's learning in general and the degree of match between the student's learning syllabus and the teacher's teaching syllabus. In brief, error analysis is a means to secure evidence of learners' cognitive systems and learning strategies.

3.2.3 Development of Error Analysis

EA focuses on exploring the psychological process in foreign language learning and helps to correct those errors through seeking for the causes. The learner's possession of learner's native language is facilitative and the error made by the learner is just evidence of learner's strategies of learning. (Richards, 1974, p. 27)

As a branch of applied linguistics, Error Analysis began its heyday from the late 1960s. With the development of psycholinguistics and Chomsky's Transformational-Generative Grammar, EA became the acceptable alternative to the Behaviourism-tainted Contrastive Analysis (CA) of the 1950s. Corder is the founder of EA theory. He also did a systematic analysis on this theory, such as classifying errors, identifying source of errors and proposed a systematic approach to understand EA. After Corder's research, many studies of learners' errors came on the scene gradually. The two most significant books, written by George (1972) and Burt & Kiparsky (1972) were published at the same time. According to James (2001, p. 12), "George's work is a remarkably perceptive account of the major causes and types of learner error, full of suggestions for ways to avoid or remedy errors." Burt and Kiparsky (1972, p. 1) propose the term "gooficon" and define it as "a collection of goofs and their explanations, from the point of view of English grammar." They deny the significant effect of a learner's mother tongue. Later, Dulay & Burt (1974) after studying errors made by second language learner—children under the age of 13, maintain that second language acquisition by children before puberty does not rely on native language transfer but rather on an active mental organisation process. Bowerman (1988) conducted a case study on children's native language acquisition. Based on her results, she admits that children overgeneralise the grammatical rules in the process of native language learning and she further suggests that attention should be paid to reducing overgeneralisation instead of the overgeneralisation error itself.

In China, in the 1970s, people began to recognise EA as an important method in second language acquisition. Researchers no longer predict the possible errors that learners might make, but contribute efforts into the description and explanation of all kinds of errors, so as to understand how learners process second language information. Gui Shichun (1985, p. 244) explained in this book *Psycholinguistics*, that EA is a tool for language teachers, for they are able to target the commonness and individuality in learners' errors. Meanwhile, Gui (1985) lists four types of errors and two different attitudes to errors. Wang Chuming (1990) states that EA helps people to realise that

foreign language learning is a process of creative language construction. Errors that learners make reveal the psychological learning process. Through EA, people are able to find out the learning strategies adopted by different learners, and hence explore the development of Interlanguage.

With the gradual development of EA, many language researchers in China studied this theory from various perspectives. Firstly, they researched about the application of EA in foreign language teaching, and published a large number of papers respectively. For example, Zhang Guoyang and Zhu Yafu (1996) made a comprehensive description of the historical background of EA and discussed three implications to foreign language teaching practice. They suggest a correct attitude towards learners' errors, different treatments on different errors and a teaching arrangement in line with the learning process of foreign languages. Similar researches were made by Wang Yuehong (2001), Ying Jie and Hong Yang (2006), Zhao Ying (2009), and etc. Ye Yunping (2002) explored both syntactic and lexical errors made by second-year English majors in their English writing. Through analysis of these errors, Ye finds that incomprehensibility of the message and first language interference are the most remarkable source of the errors. He further suggests that a well-designed vocabulary-based syllabus is necessary in writing teaching. Du Jinbang (2006) and Yan Tao (2006), from the same perspective, studied students' errors in English writing and they also discussed the methods of teaching writing in China.

Secondly, Chinese researchers deepened their studies to the strategies of applying EA. Hao Xingyue (2003), based on his error classification: the Surface Error Type and the Root Error Type, introduced three strategies of error corrections, namely the overall correction, the non-correction and the selective correction. Zhu Yuehong (2003) indicates that EA is of great importance not only as a theoretical framework, but also as a practical method. Zhu, in her paper, suggests some strategies in EFL teaching.

Thirdly, people began to do research on the development of EA and CA. For example, Dai Weidong and Shu Dingfang (1994) make a brief description of CA, EA and Interlanguage (IL), and claim the contribution of these three theories in practical

language teaching and learning. Wei Liqiu (2001), from different aspects, compares EA with CA and draws some implications for the treatment of language learners' errors. Dai Weidong and Cai Longquan (2001) believe that interlanguage indicates the birth of a new type of cognition in L2 learners. They put forward that the cognition of interlanguage is a dispensable premise for English teaching in China. Liu Xiaojie and Sun Lin (2003) studies the relationship among CA, EA and IL, and put their research emphasis on EA. They propose that language learners and language teachers are required to define different kinds of errors and adopt respective correction strategies to each error.

Finally, they studied EA's implication to language learners, from the perspective of language transfer. Guo Chunjie and Liu Fang (1997) reveal the importance of native language interference in the process of second language learning and its influence on the language output. Wen Qiufang and Guo Chunjie (1998), from the same perspective, studied six senior high school students' English composition in order to disclose the relationship between thinking in L1 and L2 writing ability. Dai Weidong and Wang Dong (2002), concentrated on four problems—definition, comparison, prediction and generalisation, discuss the language transfer from a boarder scope. Similar researches also are conducted by Li Li (2003), Li Ying (2010), and so forth.

All these researches indicate that errors are inevitable for learners in the process of foreign language learning. Therefore, EA is an encouraging research approach in second and foreign language acquisition.

3.2.4 Procedures of Error Analysis

In order to discover and account for why errors occur, the EA approach makes a comparison of a learner's output and the target language. Corder (1974) suggests five steps of EA:

1. Selection of samples of learners' language.

It is usually started with learner's linguistic products in either written or oral form. At this stage, researchers decide what samples of learner language to use for analysis and how to collect these samples. Ellis (1994, p. 49), according to the size of the

sample, suggests three types of EA: massive sample (several samples of language use from a large number of learners), specific sample (one sample of language use collected from a limited number of learners) and incidental sample (only one sample of language use produced by a single learner). He further mentions that three factors of language (medium, genre and content) and three factors of learners (level, mother tongue and language learning experience) need to be considered when conducting collecting samples of learner language.

2. Identification of errors.

After collection of samples, it is essential to decide what constitutes an error and how to recognise the error. Many researchers claim that errors should be distinguished from lapses. To identify what the error is, it is necessary to draw a distinction between error and mistake. According to Corder (1967), mistakes and errors are technically two different phenomena. "It will be useful therefore hereafter to refer to errors of performance as mistakes, reserving the term error to refer to the systematic errors of the learner from which we are able to reconstruct his knowledge of the language to date." (Richards, 1974, p. 25) A mistake is a performance error that is either a memory lapse or physical states, such as tiredness, in which it is a failure to utilise a known system correctly. It is of no significance to the process of language learning. (Richards, 1974, p. 25) Errors will continuously occur as learners use the language they learnt. Unfortunately, learners will not realise their own errors at most of the time, and therefore they are not able to correct themselves. Theoretically speaking, mistakes can be occasional, and usually learners should be able to discover and correct their own mistakes.

3. Description of errors.

Based on different criteria, errors made by language learners are classified on this stage. It requires, therefore, attention to the surface properties of the learners' utterances. Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) argue the need for descriptive taxonomies of errors that focus only on observable, surface features of errors, as a basis for subsequent explanation. (as cited in Ellis, 1994, p. 54) That means at this stage, it does not attempt to identify the sources of the errors.

4. Explanation of errors

Explanation is concerned with establishing the source of errors. For example, is it an error of native language interference? Is it an error of overgeneralisation? Many researchers regard this stage as the most important aspect for second language acquisition, for it involves an attempt to establish the processes responsible for second language or foreign language acquisition. Corder regards explanation of errors as an ultimate objective of EA. He explains that the stage is “psycholinguistic, inasmuch as it attempts to account for how and why the learner’s idiosyncratic dialect is the nature it is.”(Richards, 1974, p. 169)

5. Evaluation of errors

Error evaluation is in many ways related to second language teaching. It involves areas such as whether errors are severe, or might cause misunderstanding, interrupt communication and whether those errors require correction. Ellis (1994, p. 63) illustrates three main research questions which have been addressed in error evaluation studies. These questions include “(1) Are some errors judged to be more problematic than other? (2) Are there differences in the evaluations made by native speakers and non-native speakers? and (3) What criteria do judges use in evaluating learners’ errors?” Ellis also indicates that in many EA studies, however, the evaluation of learners’ errors has generally been handled as “a separate issue, with its own methods of enquiry.” (1994, p. 48)

3.2.5 Classifications of Errors

Error Classification (EC) is an indispensable part of EA research, especially at the stage of error description. EC assists to determine the direction of error analysis research, specifies data collecting area, supplies reference standards, summarises error analysis results and triggers correction of error, which as a result enhances second language learning.

Error analysis, based on linguistic categories, usually classifies errors into three different types, namely phonetic errors, lexical errors and grammatical errors. Grammatical errors can be separated into morphological errors and syntactical errors. Traditional method of error analysis places more emphasis on the expression of

language, however, overlooked the application of language. According to Ellis (1994, p. 54), this type is closely associated with a traditional EA undertaken for pedagogic purposes, for the linguistic categories can be chosen to be in accordance with those found in structural syllabuses and language textbooks. For example, Politzer and Ramirez (1973) begin with more general categories: morphology, syntax, and vocabulary. This kind classification allows for both a detailed description of specific errors and also for a quantification of a corpus of errors.

Corder (1967) from a cognitive perspective made a clear distinction between error and mistake. Afterward, in 1971, he divided errors into two categories, namely error of competence and error of performance. And he also further distinguished two types of error in error of competence: intralingual error and interlingual error. Corder (1974) began his research from the development features of learners' interlanguage, and divided errors into three categories. The first type of error occurs before the formation of learners' language system, which is called pre-systematic errors. Learners make this type of error for they are unaware of a particular rule in the target language. The second type of error is systematic error, which usually occurs when learners misunderstood or made inaccurate assumption to some language rules in the target language. Incorrect assumption causes learners to apply language rules to wrong places. The third type is post-systematic error, where learners know the correct target language rules and can apply them correctly. However, learners use these rules inconsistently for they might temporarily forget those rules.

Corder's taxonomy of errors is the cornerstone of the studies on error classification. Accepting Corder's opinion, Richards (1971) categorises errors into three types, namely interlingual errors, intralingual errors and developmental errors. He agrees that intralingual errors reflect the general characteristics of rules of target language while interlingual errors are caused by the interference of the learner's mother tongue. Furthermore, he points out that "developmental errors illustrate the learner attempting to build up hypotheses about the English language from his limited experience of it in the classroom or textbook." (Richards, 1974, p. 174) His taxonomy is based on cognitive linguistics and the core of his study is target language rather

than learners' mother tongue. Richards (1971) also subdivides intralingual errors into over-generalisation, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules and false concept hypothesised errors.

In order to deal with the problem of identifying sources, Dulay and Burt (1974, p. 115) classified the errors they collected into four broad categories:

1. Interference-like Goofs—those that reflect the structure of the L1, and are not found in L1 acquisition data of the target language.
2. L1 Developmental Goofs—those that do not reflect native language structure, but are found in L1 acquisition data of the target language.
3. Ambiguous Goofs—those that can be categorised as either Interference-like Goofs or L1 Developmental Goofs.
4. Unique Goofs—those that do not reflect L1 structure, and are also not found in L1 acquisition data of the target language.

Until the 80s, error analysis development in western countries developed to a perfect stage. Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) categorise errors according to four different standards. The first is linguistic category, which consists of phonetics, grammar, morpheme and semantics. The second category is surface strategy taxonomy, in which errors can be divided into omission, addition, double marking, regularisation, disordering error. In addition, based on comparative taxonomy, errors can be separated into developmental, interlingual, ambiguous and other types of errors. Finally, according to communicative effect taxonomy, errors can be divided into global error and local error. Global error occurs in main structure of a sentence, which causes misunderstanding and adversely affects social activities. On the other hand, local error appears in some minor parts of the sentence, which has nothing to do with understanding and communication.

Brown (1982) divides the development of learners' interlanguage into random stage, emergent stage, systematic stage and stabilisation stage. Random stage appears when learners are lack of understanding in the rules of target language, which causes errors in language output and those errors are random and irregular. At emergent stage, learners know some rules of the target language, and continuously adjust their

language structures to be in accordance with habit of target language. Some rules are already internalised, and language output and input is highly uniformed. However, the grammatical system of target language is still unstable, and those errors made by learners are very different from each other. At systematic stage, errors that occur are systematic, where learners are able to discover and explain their own errors. However, they are barely able to correct themselves. At Stabilisation stage, most errors are the result of learners' negligence or temporary forgetting of some language rules.

Lott (1983, p. 258-259) subdivides transfer errors into three categories:

1. Overextension of analogy: the learner misuses an item because it shares features, whether phonological, orthographic, semantic, or syntactic, with an item in the L1.
2. Transfer of structure: the learner utilises the rules of the native language in terms of phonology, lexis, grammar or pragmatics, instead of those of the target language.
3. Interlingual/intralingual error: the learner makes an error of grammar or misuses a vocabulary item because the grammatical or lexical distinction does not exist in the native language.

In China, researches on error analysis are integrated and summarised by Cai Longquan and Dai Weidong (2001). They suggest that "error classification should be self-evident, interactive, systematic and objective" no matter adopting superordinate or subordinate taxonomy. They propose some supplementary ideas to error classification and integration. Those ideas include learners, learning content and learning behaviour. At the level of Learners, learners' knowledge consists of world knowledge, cognitive capability and cognitive strategy. Learning content is composed by target language, which includes four essential aspects, namely phonetics, grammar, vocabulary and semantics. Learning behaviour is closely related to learners' focus in learning process. By concluding the above three basic levels, Cai Longquan and Dai Weidong introduce three types of error, which are cognitive error, linguistic error and behaviour error.

Luo Xiaojie (2003) macro classifies errors according to linguistic, psychological and social aspects. With reference to different learning stages, errors can be divided

into error, mistake and pragmatic failure. According to cognitive approach of language learning, Gui Shichun (2004) raises the hypothesis that errors can be recognised under three different levels: lexical perceptual errors, such as spelling, identifiable at single-word level; lexico-grammatical errors like substitution, identifiable at inter-word level; and syntactical errors, like sentence fragment and construction deficiency, identifiable at sentential level. Wang Weihong and Xiong Dunli (2004, p. 73) study the relation among different error taxonomies and summarise Ellis’s study (1994) in figure 1:

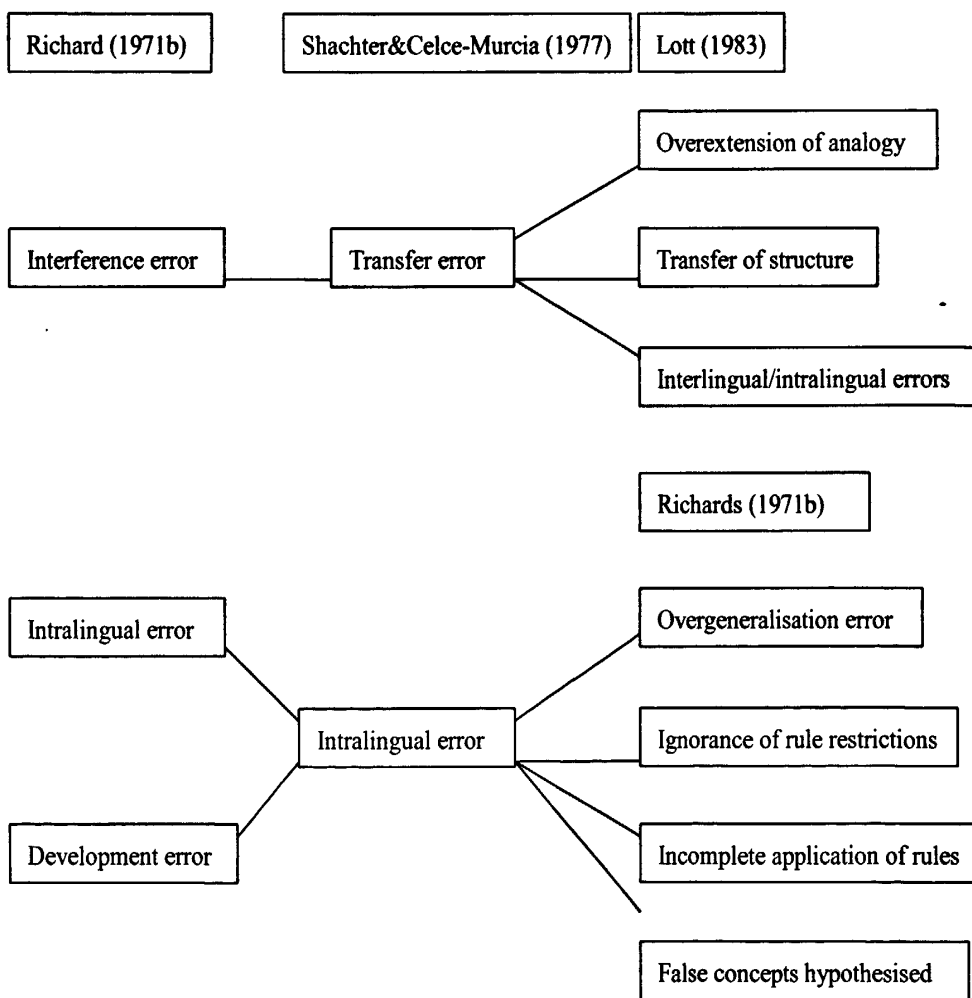


Figure 1 Summary of Error Taxonomies

Source: Wang Weihong and Xiong Dunli (2004, p. 73)

3.2.6 Sources of Errors

With the deep studies of language acquisition, many researchers find that the negative transfer of the mother tongue is not the sole source of errors found in learners' target language productions, for they find some other possible sources of errors that exist. For example, "the construction of evolving systems of grammatical and phonological rules" (Richards & Sampson, 1974, p. 5) is a part of it. Richards (1971) discovered that several errors made by learners were not the result of negative transfer from mother tongue, but were due to other variables independent of source language influence.

Selinker (1972) proposes five different processes which are central to second language learning. The first is the process of *language transfer*, in which items and rules in learners' version of the target language can be directly traced back to the native language. If these items and rules are a result of identifiable items in training procedures, the second process called *transfer of training* will be dealt with. And the third is *strategies of second language learning* in which errors are directly traceable to the materials used in learning. If these rules are a result of an identifiable approach by the learner to communication with native speakers of the native language, *strategies of second language communication* should be investigated. Finally, *the overgeneralisation of target language* needs to be mentioned when there is a clear overgeneralisation of target language rules and semantic features.

Richards and Sampson (1974) propose seven factors that may have an influence on and characterise second language learner approximative systems. They are "language transfer, intralingual interference, sociolinguistic situation, modality, age successions of approximative systems, and universal hierarchy of difficulty." (p. 5-9)

Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977, p. 447) indicate that it would be wise for investigators to suggest causes of error very cautiously, for a large number of learners' errors are ambiguous with regard to source. Gass (1984, p. 115) also notes that not all of learners' errors are ascribed to interference from the native language. Haded (1998, p. 56) holds that "the learner's deviations from the standard norms of L2 are a

reflection of his developmental strategies while trying to approximate utterances in the TL.”

Taylor (1986, p. 159), in place of Halliday’s three functional categories of the language system (interpersonal, ideational, and textual), proposes four error sources (see table 3), which enable researchers to describe how the general problems of writing may be manifested in errors at the clause, sentence or essay levels.

According to Ellis (1994, p. 57), psycholinguistic sources concern the nature of the L2 knowledge system and the difficulties learners have in using it in production. Sociolinguistic sources involve such matters as the learners’ capability to adjust their language in accordance with the social context. Epistemic sources concern the learners’ lack of world knowledge, while discourse sources include problems in cohesive textual organisation.

James (2001, p. 179), according to the main diagnosis-based categories of error, classifies learners’ errors into four major categories: interlingual, intralingual, communication-strategy, and induced. He, afterwards, proposes five sources of induced errors, namely, materials-induced errors, teacher-talk induced errors, exercise-based induced errors, and errors induced by pedagogical priorities, and look-up errors. (2001, p. 191-199)

In the past, people paid too much attention to predicting what the language learner will do, and did not pay enough attention to what the learner actually does. Only by conducting EA studies, will linguists be able to find both the errors that are attributable to the learner’s native language and some errors that are not necessarily the outcome of native language interference; instead, they are the consequences of the learning process itself.

3.2.7 Relevant Studies on Grammatical Errors

Compared with some Chinese university students of English majors and adult learners, Liu Shaolong (1998) studied nine school children’s errors in terms of English parts of speech. Liu finds that some errors are made both by children and adults and some errors are not only made by the Chinese speakers, which suggests that speakers of any languages are not easily be able to avoid some errors in the

process of language learning, due to language universals and language acquisition device. Liu Shaolong (2000) conducts a qualitative error analysis of the verb “BE” acquisition in Chinese school children and university students. Based on the categorisation and description of BE patterns, he summarises six kinds of syntactic patterns of BE acquisition and put forward ten hypotheses. (2000, p. 77)

Based on “the Chinese learners’ English corpus, Su Hongxia (2002) analysed errors of verbs made by Chinese learners of English. Focusing on three high frequency verbs, namely buy, wait and learn, she explores the sources of errors and provides eight suggestions for language learners. Fan Changrong and Lin Hai (2002) investigated Chinese speaking learners’ errors in terms of English tense and aspect in EFL and ESL environment respectively. They find that these learners are inclined to use present perfect tense in the past time and combine achievement verbs with a duration phrase in one sentence. They suggest a new conceptualisation of tense-aspect realisation logic in L2 acquisition. (2002, p. 414)

Guo Yufei (2007) and Wang Zhenping and Li Caiping (2010) exerted EA in the research of syntactic errors made by Chinese speakers when they learn English. They indicate that the negative transfer from learners’ mother tongue is the main source of these errors. They also propose some strategies to help learners conquer negative language transfer and to promote teaching and learning of English grammar. A relevant research was also carried out by Wang Shangwu and Ai Maiti (2007).

Chapter Four Research Method

4.1 Introduction: Slips of the Tongue

This study is neither an attempt to generate a theoretical account of English or Chinese language structure nor an analysis of complete set of errors that EFL teachers in Chinese universities made in their classroom speeches. Rather, it is a case study attempting to understand grammatical problems in teacher speeches of EFL teachers at universities in China.

Teacher speech in class belonging to spoken language is real-time and unpredictable. It is more likely and frequently for speakers to make mistakes in their speeches while thinking and organising language contents. This is largely due to the unfamiliarity of the rules and the lack of time to use rules to monitor the language output. (Zhao Ying, 2009, p.104) Carroll (2000, p. 193) regards spontaneous speech errors as “slips of the tongue” which are commonly mentioned in the scientific analysis of speech errors. Slips of the tongue are very common language phenomena, which occur extensively in people’s daily communications. Zhang Ning (1990, p. 29) points out that slips of the tongue is a mistake that occurs when ordinary people accidentally deviate from correct phonetic, semantic or grammatical forms during speech acts. Carroll (2000, p. 194), from a psychological perspective, illustrates eight major types of slips of the tongue: “shifts, exchange, anticipation, perseveration, addition, deletion, substitution and blend.”

It seems probable that errors are more likely to occur when people are tired, anxious, or drunk. The grammatical errors in teacher speech in EFL classrooms may attribute to slips of the tongue, for teachers are regarded to have already acquired mastery of English grammatical rules and should be proficient in English language. Although Corder (1967, p. 25) puts forward that slips of the tongue are related to

language performance, many linguists hold different opinions. Aitchison (1998) explains that language competence and performance are closely interrelated and it is weird to only focus on one and neglect the other. (as cited in Gui Shichun, 2004) Gui (2004) suggests that error should generally include the error of performance and the error of competence, because errors originate from inaccuracy in language performance. He indicates that various inaccuracies can be traced to cognition. Most researchers argue that slips of the tongue are a speech result, but a speech process which reflects people's cognitive features. (Li Xianju & Huang Li, 2008, p. 14) Therefore, in this paper, an error analysis of teacher speech in class will be carried out and the sources of these errors will be discussed from cognition.

4.2 Research Questions

The study sets out to answer these following questions:

1. What patterns of grammatical errors are mostly found in teacher speech in EFL classes for English majors in Chinese universities?
2. Are there any differences in the amount and patterns of these errors, due to the differences in data, such as types of institutions, locations of institutions, types of courses, teachers' professional titles, teaching experiences, and academic degrees?
3. What are some possible sources of these errors?
4. What implications in teacher education can be gathered from this study?

4.3 Research Subject

The subjects selected in this study are 45 university EFL teachers in different areas of China. They are all non-native speakers of English since their mother tongue is Chinese, and they teach English in Chinese universities. The general comparability of these teachers with respect to various factors (types and locations of their institutions, teachers' professional titles, teaching experiences, class type) are considered and investigated in this research. These teachers are approximately of different chronological ages, 27-70yrs, having different lengths of working experiences. Meanwhile, their professional titles are various in three groups, namely professor, associate professor and lecturer and they also have different academic

degrees, such as doctor, master, and bachelor. The subjects are selected from three types of institutions, namely foreign language institution, normal institution, and comprehensive institution while these institutions are respectively located in North China, South China, West China and East China. The subjects used in this study are distributed as shown in table 1 and the area distribution is shown in table 2.

Types of Institution	Professional Title			Total
	Prof.	Associate Prof.	Lecturer	
Foreign Language Institution	5	5	5	15
Normal Institution	5	5	5	15
Comprehensive Institution	5	5	5	15
Total	15	15	15	45

Table 1 Distribution of Subjects

Types of Institution	Geographic Location					Total
	East China	South China	West China	North China	Central China	
Foreign Language Institution	3	3	3	3	3	15
Normal Institution	3	3	3	3	3	15
Comprehensive Institution	3	3	3	3	3	15
Total	9	9	9	9	9	45

Table 2 Distribution of Geographic Locations of Institutions

4.4 Data Collection

Among these 45 EFL classes (45 minutes per class) given by the subjects, 30 are classes for English majors while 15 are College English classes which are complementary to the study. These resources of samples are either online national-level quality classes (Jingpinke) or regular classes on campus (see Table 3).

Types of Institution	National-level Quality Class	Regular Class
Foreign Language Institution	10	5
Normal Institution	10	5
Comprehensive Institution	10	5
Total	30	15

Table 3 Distribution of Classes

The videos of these 30 national-level quality classes are downloaded from Internet or viewed online. The 15 regular classes are observed and recorded, for observation is “one of the most common ways of collecting data about teachers’ knowledge and knowledge use.” (Bartels, 2005, P. 2) Then these videos and recordings of teacher speech are transcribed in full by the researcher and her peers, which provide data in high quality and authenticity. Bartels (2005, p. 4) indicates that subjective aspects can be alleviated by including data from other participants in the class, recording classes and analysing transcripts.

Class recordings represent warts and all the teacher speech occurring in the classrooms. However, parts of the transcripts are marked unintelligible. It is necessary to note here that these 15 regular classes are recorded under normal classroom conditions with no specialist equipment. Consequently, background noise, simultaneous speech and other types of interference have, at times, rendered the recordings unintelligible.

4.5 Research Procedures

This paper is designed to make detailed and systematic analyses of naturally occurring errors of teacher speech in class. Error Analysis (EA) is adopted as the research method, for EA attempts to categorise the errors into different groups and then account for the possible reasons by comparing the theoretical grammatical construction between the two languages. This study is conducted by following by Corder’s five steps in EA research:

1. Collect data

The error analysis in this paper employs specific samples which consist of 45 English classes given by 45 university EFL teachers in China. Medium of language is oral while genre of language is lecture. Contents of these classes include courses for English majors and college English courses. The level of subjects is advanced English learner and their mother tongue is Chinese.

2. Identify errors: What is the error?

Ellis (1994, p. 51) defines an error as “a deviation from the norms of the target language.” Therefore, it is necessary to select a standard norm for the analysis of these oral productions. In this study, David Brazil’s book, *A Grammar of Speech* is regarded as a reference. As it is mentioned above, the grammatical errors in teacher speech attribute to slips of the tongue. The analysis in this paper examines only deviations in correctness rather than deviations in appropriateness which refer to pragmatic errors.

3. Quantify and classify errors

On this stage, the data are analysed at three levels: (1) a categorisation and description of the grammatical errors (2) statistical comparisons of the error quantity based on different variables of subjects and the frequency of each error category (3) presentation of the most frequent errors in this research which is the basis of next stage, explanation of errors. The grammatical errors are categorised as an aid in presenting data rather than to create a basis of extensive speculation concerning the sources of the errors. For this reason they were categorised along traditional lines into errors in morphology and syntax.

4. Explain errors

Analyse all the errors for their causes. Is it an error of NL interference? Is it an error of overgeneralisation? On this stage, it will decide what errors are attributable to a transfer of mother tongue and what errors result from other sources such as overgeneralisation and ignorance of rule restrictions.

5. Evaluate errors

It is of great importance to evaluate these errors in teacher speech, for which is the major learning material and direct imitating target for students. Whether these grammatical errors can adversely affect students’ cognitions is based on the

seriousness of these errors.

Chapter Five Results and Data Analysis

5.1 Classification of Data

Traditionally, grammar has been discussed in terms of morphology and syntax, the former handling word structure such as word inflection and derivation, the latter handling syntactic structures. Following to Polizer and Ramirez's (1973) error taxonomy, the data in this paper will be described from two levels: morphology and syntax.

5.1.1 Morphological Errors

5.1.1.1 Noun Morphology Errors

Noun morphology errors found in this study occur both in inflection and derivation. The inflective change here refers to the plurality of nouns which is realised by adding suffix “-s”, “-es” or other morphological devices. This kind occurs in teacher speech in this study and some examples are illustrated below:

Example 1: There are still four **paragraph*, right?

Example 2: Why does the author use these writing **strategy* to show the difference?

Example 3: So each group has to prepare one of the **report*.

Example 4: Please try to find some personal **informations* of your partner.

Example 5: every Chinese **students* in America

In Example 1 and Example 2, the suffix “-s” is required to agree with the numeral and plural form of demonstrative pronoun “these”. Errors of this kind occur many times when preceded by numerals and other quantifiers. In Example 3, a very plausible omission of “-s” is in the phrase “one of” happens. It is hard to explain the need to mark plural on a noun governed by the quantifier “one”. Example 4 and Example 5 belong to the over use of plurality. “Information” is an uncountable noun which has no plural form, because this rule of plurality only applies to countable

nouns rather than uncountable nouns. Example 5 violate the agreement rule, for singular form should be used to be in concord with the determiner “every”. James (2001, p. 155) defines this phenomenon as “overinclusions”.

There are only a few derivative errors of nouns in teacher speech, just with 4 out of the total 50. Some teachers mistake the noun “summary” for its verb form “summarise”, “savings” for “saves”, “dream” for “dreaming” and “unconsciousness” for “unconscious”.

5.1.1.2 Verb Morphology Errors

The verb morphology errors in the sample teacher speech fall into four categories: third-person singular verb incorrect, simple past form incorrect, past participle incorrect, Present Participle, and Root form of the verb incorrect.

5.1.1.2.1 Third-person Singular Verb Errors

“The third-person singular “-s” is a facet of concord and it’s suffixed to lexical verbs (*drinks*) and to auxiliaries (*has, is, does*).” (James, 2001, p. 155) Among the errors of this kind in the data, the failure to attach the necessary “-s” is a fairly frequent error. The reverse phenomenon is the wrong attachment of “-s” which also occurs. One of the remarkable errors in this study is that the sum of errors in the third-person singular verb form is 63, which takes 34.6% of the morphology errors and 14.7% of the total errors.

Example 1: She **quit* her job.

Example 2: Business news usually **tend* to be very uninteresting and dull, right?

Example 3: **Do* a cup of hot tea reach the temperature more quickly if you put milk in it first?

Example 4: They **refers* to the number, numeral.

In Example 1 and Example 2, the omission of “-s” occurs, which disagrees with the third person singular personal pronoun “she” and subject “business news”. In Example 3, the auxiliary verb “does” is misplaced by its inflective form “do” which is not in accordance with the subject “a cup”. Example 4 overuse the rule by wrong attaching “-s” to the verb which occurs after a third person plural form pronoun.

5.1.1.2.2 Past Participle Errors

The omission of “-ed” is most frequent errors in past participle incorrect, which occurs in present perfect tense (have/has + pp.), past perfect tense (had + pp.), and passive voice (be + pp.).

Example 1: Let’s review what we have **learn* last class.

Example 2: He had **began* his career by 1890.

Example 3: Something should be **get* ride of.

In example 1, there is an omission of “-t” or “-ed” after the verb “learn” in a present perfect tense, which turns to be the most frequent errors in all the errors of this category. In example 2, the past participle “begun” is mistaken by the past tense verb “began”, which occurs only once in all the errors. Example 3 has a problem in voice instead of tense. A past participle “got” is required after “be” in the formation of passive voice.

5.1.1.2.3 Other Verb Morphology Errors

Errors in root form of the verb and present participle incorrect are very few with just 10 and 5 respectively.

Example 1: we can **got* it.

Example 2: Certainly **adds* you to one of my friends.

Example 3: What does “on the latch” **means*?

Example 4: Although he doesn’t **has* a private car, he has a carpet, right?

Example 5: we just not **using* the word die we just use.

Example 6: Then beside this, you are **do* some research work.

Example 1 violates the rule that modal verb should be followed by root form of a verb, by adding the past form of the verb “got” after “can”. In example 2, “add” is mistakenly substituted by the third-person singular verb form “means” in an imperative sentence. Example 3 and Example 4 are interrogative sentence and negative sentence respectively, in which root form of a verb is required after the auxiliary verb “does”. In Example 5 is a simple past tense sentence which needs the root form “use” instead of the present participle “using”. In Example 6, there is an omission of the “-ing” after the root in the formation of present participle in a present

continuous tense. No similar error is found in past continuous tense sentences of the data.

5.1.1.3 Adjective and Adverb Morphology Errors

In the production of Chinese learners, according to many researches, the comparative adjective/ adverb incorrect is the most remarkable one in adjective and adverb morphology errors. In this study, however, none of errors of this kind is found. In contrast, the errors are mainly the confusion in different parts of speech, such as “exact” and “exactly”, “interested” and “interesting”, “important” and “importance”, “emotional” and “emotion”, “careful” and “carefully”, just to name a few.

5.1.1.4 Indefinite Article Morphology Errors

This is a fairly frequent error in morphology errors, for there are different two derivatives of the indefinite article.

Example 1: Is it **a* international business?

Example 2: Do you think you are **an* net-worm?

In Example 1, “a” is misused for “an” before a vowel while in Example 2, the reverse phenomenon “a” mistaken for “an” occurs in a consonant.

5.1.2 Syntax Errors

According to James (2001, p. 156), syntax errors affect texts larger than the word and can be divided into “phrase, clause, sentence and ultimately paragraphs”. In the following part, the grammatical errors of teacher speech in class will be classified and discussed based on James’s taxonomy.

5.1.2.1 Phrase Structure Errors

In an attempt to do EA at phrase level practically, James suggests using the “tripartite structure: modifier + head + qualifier (MHQ).” (2001, p. 157) M and Q can be refined in terms of positional subclasses m1, m2, m3... and q1, q2, q3, etc. Therefore, this paper generally discusses the phrase structure errors from two main aspects: noun phrase and verb phrase, where adjective phrases, adverb phrases and preposition phrases could be inside.

5.1.2.1.1 Noun Phrase Errors

5.1.2.1.1.1 Misuse of Determiners

The omission or overuse of the either definite or indefinite article is one of the most frequent errors in determiners.

Example 1: The teacher poses the question because he thinks this is *Ø extremely difficult question.

Example 2: This is *Ø topic that we are going to talk about.

Example 3: If you have *a questions, you can just put up your hand.

Example 4: So before Christmas, we buy *the other stockings in other colours and styles.

Example 5: It's *a very complicated, right?

Example 6: Find out how *the different they are.

In Example 1, the infinite article is needed to determine the number of the noun "question" and here "an" should be used in front of the vowel /i/. In example 2, definite article "the" is required for specific reference which is caused by the object clause. Example 3 and 4 are the overuse of definite and indefinite articles, in which "a" cannot be put to determine a plural noun and "the" cannot be used as a general reference. In Example 5 and 6, the indefinite article "a" and definite article "the" are used to modifier adjectives, which violent English grammatical rules

5.1.2.1.1.2 Misuse of Pronouns

The confusion of pronouns either by number or by gender occur in several instances. The most frequent error, however, is the misuse of demonstrative pronouns.

Example 1: And keep *this three questions in mind.

Example 2: And second choice is for students to make a choice by *themselves.

Example 3: Another thing is you have to make *you anxious readers understand.

In Example 1, there is misselection of a noun phrase constituent: the singular demonstrative pronoun "this" for the intended plural "these". In Example 2, "themselves" is an error, for there is no singular form of the reflexive pronoun "themselves". In Example 3, the possessive pronoun "your" is mistaken by the objective personal pronoun "you".

5.1.2.1.2 Verb Phrase Errors

5.1.2.1.2.1 "Be" Verb and Auxiliary Verb Errors

“Be” verb and auxiliary verb errors also obviously occur in this study, especially in the forms of omissions in sentences.

Example 1: So what kind of associations do you have if you *Ø here in law school.

Example 2: What *Ø the advantages of buying things online?

Example 3: What *Ø you usually buy if you do the shopping

Example 4: What *does his work?

The “be” verb and auxiliary verb errors are mostly occur in the forms of omissions in the sentences, such as the omission in Example 1. Errors of this kind most frequently occur in interrogative sentences, such as in Example 2 and Example 3. In Example 4, there appears a misuse of the auxiliary verb “does” for the “be” verb “is”, for the speaker maybe mistaken the part of speech of “work” here.

5.1.2.1.2.2 Non-finite Forms of Verb Errors

Another use of the verb phrase is the constituent: gerund and infinitive.

Example 1: You should keep your eyes *to contact on others.

Example 2: I want you just, *make full use of your mind and not be confined by this author.

Example 3: And the local people use green banana to *helping out.

Example 4: So *be a teacher is not enough for us to be effective teachers.

In Example 1, the gerundive “contacting” should be selected instead of the infinitive “to contact” This kind of error also replays in Example 3, which the gerund “helping” is misused for the required the infinitive “to help”. In Example 2, the infinitive “to make” is mistaken for the root form verb “make”. Example 4 is a nominalisations in which the simple verb “be” rather than the “-ing” form “being” is used.

5.1.2.2 Clause Errors

“While phrase errors involve violations in the internal or textual relations between parts of phrases, clause errors involve whole phrases entering into the structure of clauses.” (James, 2001, p. 157) The frequent errors occurring in clause level are disagreement of subject and predicate verb, and syntactic blend.

5.1.2.2.1 Disagreement of Subject and Predicate Verb

Disagreement of subject and verb person, number, or tense occurs in a few instances:

Example 1: They **refers* to the number, numeral.

Example 2: The choices **is* up to you

Example 3: Whether you were a good player or not, which really **depend* on your daydreaming, your imagination.

In Example 1, the predicate verb “refers” is an overuse of the third-person singular form and is not in concord with the subject “they” in person. In Example 2, “is” doesn’t match with the plural subject “choices” in number while in example 3, “depend” is not in accordance with its subject clause in tense.

5.1.2.2.2 Syntactic Blend (or Hybrid)

There are a lot of syntactic blends in the clauses of teacher speech. (see the examples below) This is an amalgam of two independent correct sentences. For instance, Example 1 is an amalgam of “You would be likely to get it” and “You would most likely get.”

Example 1: You would **be* most likely get it.

Example 2: Can you tell me what*’s topic did the two speakers talking about?

5.1.2.3 Sentence Errors

At the sentence level, the selection and combination of clauses come into larger units. Among the errors studied, the most frequent errors at sentence level are those in sentence tense and word order.

5.1.2.3.1 Errors in Tense

Tense errors discussed at this stage will be divided into three levels: disagreement with temporal adverbial, disagreement in one sentence, and disagreement across sentences.

Example 1: because at that time, you **are* at a low level.

Example 2: Just now we **start* our journey to look for our fathers.

Example 3: He **jump* over the bar, and got quite the success.

Example 4: If you exercise your imagination, you **achieve* a better result.

Example 5: Where did the father go to meet the Reverend? The father *go to the train to meet the Reverend.

In Example 1 and 2, errors appear because of the disagreement with the past tense temporal adverbials “at that time” and “just now”. Therefore, “were” should be used instead of the simple verb “are” and “-ed” inflective suffix should be added after the verb “start”. Errors in Example 3 and 4 belong to disagreement in one sentence and Example 5 violates the rule of disagreement across sentences which have a closely logical relation.

James (2001) indicates that past tense “-ed” is both omitted and overused in the productions of second language learners. It is multifunctional, and error incidence probably varies according to different tenses: past, perfect, passive or adjectival. In this study, the tense error turns out to be the most frequent of all the errors at sentence level, especially in past tense, undoubtedly because some tasks in class require teachers to tell stories and experiences which inevitably involved the use of a large number of verbs in the past tense.

5.1.2.3.2 Errors in Word Order

Errors in word order in the data are categorised into two aspects: errors in inversion sentences, errors in the interrogative sentences, and errors in objective clauses. As for inversion, Example 1 displays an error in inversion, for the existence of propositional phrase at the beginning of the sentence, the rest should be inverted.

Example 1: Only by the sitting, *we can see the culture of learning.

In interrogative sentences, the “verb-subject-object” word order should replace the “subject-verb-object” word order in declarative sentences. There are a few errors of this kind in teacher speech, such as the examples below.

Example 1: Then why *he drank that?

Example 2: But why *he was so popular outside of his house?

That the mandatory “subject-verb-object” word order of English is a problem for some of the teachers. In contrast, a fairly characteristic error is the word order in the objective clause. (see examples below)

Example 1: And then you will think how *can you trust it properly.

Example 2: Please tell me what **are the differences*.

Example 3: This article just tells why **do author love* Wisconsin.

In objective clauses, a declarative sentence word order is required, however, in Example 1, 2 and 3, interrogative pronoun and interrogative adverb interfere speakers' judgement and they also adopt an interrogative word order. "can you" in example 1 should be replaced by "you can" while "are" in example 2 should be moved to the position after "the differences". In Example 3, "do author love" should be rewritten into "author loves".

5.1.2.3.3 Errors in Other Aspects

The misuse of conjunctions in complex sentences is also one of the errors in teacher speech.

Example 1: Though we've spent time whole term last year, **but* you look new.

Example 2: Because I gave you a lot of examples last class, **so* now, would you please give me your own examples?

In Example 1 and 2, there are two pairs of conjunctions which cannot be used in one sentence. This will be discussed in Chapter 6.

5.2 Some Statistical Comparisons

A total of 429 grammatical errors are counted in the transcripts of teacher speeches in this study. Of these, 77 are made by teachers from foreign language institutions, 126 by teachers from normal institutions, and 226 by teachers from comprehensive institutions.

Institution Type	Grammatical Errors		Total Errors	Error (%)
	Morphology Errors	Syntax Errors		
Foreign Language	24	53	77	17.9
Normal	64	62	126	29.4
Comprehensive	94	132	226	52.7
Total	182	247	429	100

Table 4 Statistical Comparison 1

Figures in Table 4 indicate that grammatical errors in the teacher speech from foreign language institution are the least, taking up 17.9% of total errors. The 129 Errors made the teachers in normal universities are a little more, taking up 29.4% of total errors. Errors made by teachers in comprehensive universities are the most, which is three times of the errors made by teachers in foreign language institutions, and takes up half of total errors collected in this study. It is worth mentioning that, the quantity of syntax errors made by teachers in normal institutions is slightly lower than morphology errors. While the quantity of syntax errors is more than that of morphology errors in both the other two kinds of institutions.

Quantities of grammatical errors in teacher speech differentiate in various classes (see Table 5 below). In statistic analysis, the author divides these courses into classes for English majors and college English classes, according to various objects, which are English majors and non-English major students. The research finds that grammatical errors made by teachers of classes for English majors are less than those made by teachers of college English.

In addition, the classes for English majors in Table 5 below include intensive reading, British or American literature, linguistics, translation and business English. By counting the average number of grammatical errors in teacher talk per class, it is found that teachers from classes for English majors make fewer errors, with only 8 per class, than teachers from College English classes, with 16 in one class.

Course Type	Number of Errors per class
Classes for English Majors	8
College English	16

Table 5 Statistical Comparison 2

What's more, errors occur in National-level quality classes are much less than those occur in regular classes (see Table 6).

Class Type	Average Number of Errors per class
National-level Quality Class	14
Regular Class	6

Table 6 Statistical Comparison 3

It can be seen from figure 2 that there is a common point in the research of grammatical error of teacher talk in these three types of colleges, which is that the quantities of errors decrease as the professional title of teachers rises up. Figures in normal institutions change more obviously, which means the professional title of a teacher has the largest influence on the amount of grammatical errors, while the same influence in foreign language institutions is the smallest.

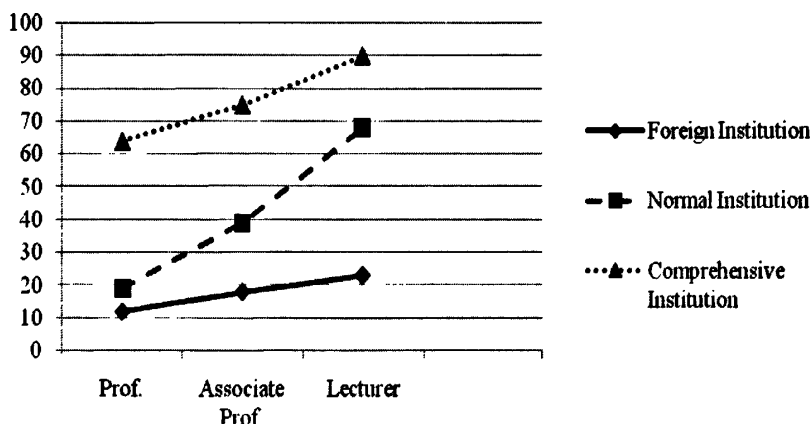


Figure 2 Statistical Comparison 4

Teacher's teaching experience largely affects the quantity of grammatical errors in teacher speech. The quantity of errors decreases as the teacher getting more experienced. This result is more evident on teachers with less than 5 years of teaching experience and those with between 5 to 15 years of experience, in which the quantities of grammatical errors are more different (see figure 3 below).

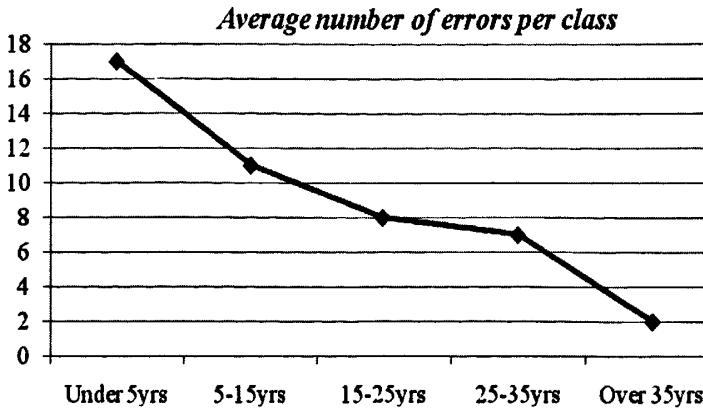


Figure 3 Statistical Comparison 5

By classifying the regions of teachers, it is found that grammatical errors of teacher speech made by teachers in East China are the least, only taking up 9.3% of total errors. Grammatical errors made by teachers in West China are the most, which is 35.7% - more than one third of total errors. Figures in North and South China are similar, 15.4% and 16.8% respectively. Grammatical errors made by teachers in Central China take up 22.8% of total errors, second only to teachers in West China (see figure 4 below).

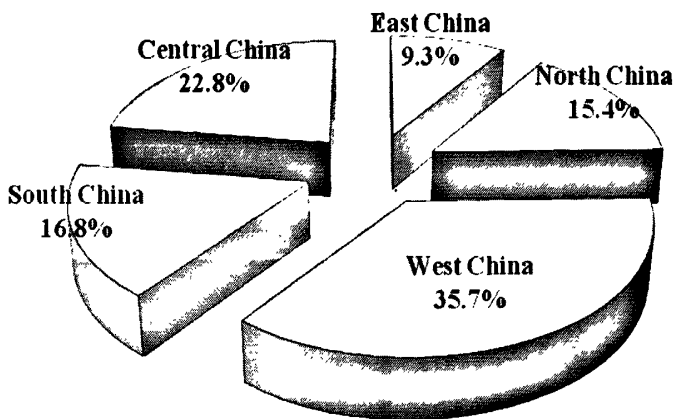


Figure 4 Statistical Comparison 6

Through analysis and integration of each type of the errors produced in teacher speech, the following picture is obtained: Errors in verb tenses, articles, noun plurality, and word order are the four areas that trouble the teachers most (see Table 7).

Type of Error	Total Errors	Error (%)
Verb Tense	120	28
Noun Plurality	50	11.7
Article	47	11
Word Order	30	7
Total	247	57.7

Table 7 Statistical Comparison 7

The findings in table 7 shows that the amount of error is the highest with verb tense 28% followed by noun plurality 11.7% and article 11%. The error in word order ranks fourth with an error rate of 7%. It is remarkably that these four types of error take up 57.7% o of the total 429 errors.

Also, when conducting a detailed investigation in the inner of the verb tense errors, the conclusion could be drawn that the third-person singular verb errors are the most frequent ones which are over half of the total verb tense errors. Wrong tense-sequence in the sentences is the second and past and present participle errors rank the third (see Table 8).

Type of Verb Tense Error	Total Errors	Error (%)
Third-person Singular verb	63	52.5
Wrong Tense-sequence	37	16.7
Past and Present Participles	20	30.8
Total	120	100

Table 8 Statistical Comparison 8

Chapter Six Sources of the Grammatical Errors

It is difficult to find the precise cause of each error, for explanation of errors inevitably involves some guessing about underlying psychological process. The sources of error are very complicated and they are psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, epistemic, or even residing in the discourse structure. (Taylor, 1986, p. 159) Errors reveal either the problem of learners' competence or performance. Grammatical errors of teacher speech are regarded as slips of the tongue which are not only failures in language performance, but also reflections of the problems in language competence. For the teacher speech examined in this study, two main possible causes of errors must be considered: interlingual errors and intralingual errors.

6.1 Mother-tongue Influence: Interlingual Errors

According to Richards (2002, p. 233), an interlingual error is "an error which results from language transfer, that is, which is caused by the learner's native language." On this stage, the mother-tongue, Chinese may interfere with the target language English in teacher speech. Gui Shichun (1985, p. 234) illustrates that the process of learning new knowledge by utilising existing method is called transfer of learning. There are two kinds of study transfer; one is positive transfer, which is translated as facilitation. For instance, positive transfer occurs when the language being studied is similar to the mother tongue of the learner. Thus, the learner is able to learn a foreign language based on some already acquired knowledge of the mother tongue. The other one is negative transfer, also known as interference. Negative transfer occurs if the language being studied is far different from the learner's mother tongue, or just appear to be similar. (1985, p.235) Odlin (2001, p.32) indicates that "by comparing the performances of speakers of at least two different native language, researchers can better determine any effects of negative transfer. " Adults who are learning foreign languages tend to analogise with known language facts, so it is necessary to avoid interference.

Take the four main errors in verb tense, noun plurality, article, and word order, in this study, as examples. First, Hu Zhuanglin (1990) indicates that Chinese verb does not have tense. According to Halliday (2007), tenses in Chinese can be understood by “Mirror concord”, which means that they can be expressed through adverbials and clauses that indicate the time. In English, however, tenses are important in the formation of this language. Problems with verbs, which account for most of the errors is a typical example of mother tongue interference. As there is no verb modification in Chinese, the adding of specific time point or period is adequate to express things happen at various times. Nearly 28% of total errors belong to verb tense errors. The following are examples:

Example 1: because at that time, you **are* at a low level.

Example 2: Just now we **start* our journey to look for our fathers.

Example 3: He **jump* over the bar, and got quite the success.

Example 4: If you exercise your imagination, you **achieve* a better result.

Example 5: Where did the father go to meet the Reverend? The father **go* to the train to meet the Reverend.

From Example 1 and 2, it can be seen that Chinese speakers are not accustomed to the tense in English sentence, since there is no tense in Chinese verbs. Errors in Example 3, 4 and 5 belong to the tense disagreement in one sentence and logical relation.

Furthermore, Ren Xueliang (1981, p. 49) points out that personal nouns in Chinese has a grammatical category of number, which does not exist with other nouns. Even with personal nouns, plural form is not always necessary. English nouns have the category of number, which widely exists. All countable nouns have plural forms. In this study, 11.7% of the errors occur in noun plurality. It is showed as following:

Example 1: There are still four **paragraph*, right?

Example 2: Why does the author use these writing **strategy* to show the difference?

Lack of suffix “-s” is the most common errors in this kind, which occur many times when preceded by numerals and other quantifiers. Linguists have classified

Chinese as an isolating language and English as an inflectional language. An inflectional language is one whose words consist of stems to which complex morphemes are added to mark various grammatical categories and relations. An isolating language consists of words which are monosyllabic stems invariable in form. That's why Chinese learners may have some problems in English morphology.

Also, article does not exist in Chinese, while in English, both indefinite and definite articles indicate the determination of nouns. (Ren Xueliang, 1981, p. 272) That's why zero article usage and overuse of the definite article "the" occur frequently in teacher speech. In addition, Lv Shuxiang (1977) puts forward that interrogative and non-interrogative sentences in English has different word orders (only accidental if the same), while the word order in Chinese is the same. (Yang Zijian, Li Ruihua, 1990, p.23) In the research, article errors in teacher speech take up 11% of the total errors and errors in word order are 7%. The following are some examples:

Example 1: Is it **a* international business?

Example 2: Do you think you are **an* net-worm?

Example 3: Then why **he drank* that?

Example 4: But why **he was* so popular outside of his house?

Finally, Wu Jiemin (1981, p. 115-116) argues that in English, conjunctions that indicate relationship between main and subordinate clauses are not allowed in the main clauses. On the other hand, in Chinese modifier complex sentences, if some conjunctions exist in the clause, they must be used correspondingly in the main sentence. For instance, conjunctions that guide the adverbial clause in English should only be used in the subordinate clause. For example, *but* and *though*, *because* and *therefore*, *so*, *hence*, *for* cannot co-exist. However, in Chinese transitional, causal, and conditional clauses, if "though" and "because" are used in the subordinate clause, "but" and "therefore" shall be used correspondingly. Conjunctions can only be omitted in inversion sentences.

It seems safe to say, then, that the intrusion of Chinese, though certainly not the only cause of error of Chinese university teacher speech, plays a considerable role.

6.2 Target Language Causes: Intralingual Errors

Gui Shichun (1985, p. 235) argues that although the best way to overcome language interference is to conduct contrastive analysis between two languages, there are quite a few difficulties regarding grammar and vocabulary, despite some developments on the studies of phonetics. This is because the grammar and vocabulary system of any two languages are very complex, and it lacks a unified mode to analyse. He further suggests that a simple way is to make learners differentiate two languages where confusion tends to occur, and consciously create contexts during teaching, so that learners can overcome interference during practicing.

On this stage, the sources of some errors in teacher speech in this study can be concluded as overgeneralisation errors, incomplete application of rules and oversimplification errors. Overgeneralisation is an error that occurs when learners improperly summarise grammatical rules. For example, use the same rule of the past tense changes for irregular verbs as for regular verbs by adding “-ed” after all verbs; add “-s” after all nouns when expressing the plural form.

The error caused by incomplete application of rules mainly involves the lack of rules. For example: “She told me **where was* I going to have a dinner tomorrow evening.” In this sentence, though the teacher understands the rule of inversion in interrogative sentences, another rule is overlooked: no inversion is needed in interrogative sentences as object clauses.

Oversimplification errors refer to the language simplification adopted by speakers to make their learning task easier. For example, in this study, there are some errors in adverb and adjective morphology such as “exact” and “exactly”, “interested” and “interesting”, “careful” and “carefully”.

Chapter Seven Conclusion

Dulay and Burt (1974, p. 95) refer to errors as goofs and defined that “error...for which no blame is implied.”It means that an error is a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflecting the interlanguage competence of the learner. During the analysis of oral errors collected in this research, the author finds that a lot of errors have much to do with the mother tongue. Some are also the misuses of the rules and usages of English.

7.1 Summary of the Thesis

This thesis is a tentative study of the grammatical errors of university English teacher speech in China. According to Corder’s five procedures of error analysis, 45 classes of 45 English college teachers in China are collected. According to the data, it can be concluded that there exist a lot of grammatical errors in teacher speech, which may adversely affect students’ cognitions.

Among them the 45 English teachers are the research subjects, and 15 of them come from language institutions, 15 of them come from normal institutions, and the other 15 are from comprehensive institutions. These three types of institutions are located in various parts of China, namely East China, South China, West China, North China, and Central China. In the aspect of the total volume of errors, teacher speech of the teachers from foreign language institutions has the least grammatical errors, followed by those from normal institutions, while teachers from comprehensive institutions make the most errors. As for locations, teachers from East China make fewer errors than teachers from West China. In terms of teaching experiences, the quantity of errors decline as the teaching experiences increase. In terms of class types, errors made by teachers in charge of normal classes are more than those made by teachers in charge of national-level quality class; teachers from classes for English majors make fewer errors than those who from College English classes. The

professional title of teacher also has influence on the teacher speech: grammatical errors in teacher speech decrease as the professional title rises. It is worth mentioning that, this is more evident in teachers from normal institutions, while professional title has the least influence on grammatical errors made by teachers from language institutions.

Secondly, by classifying, describing, calculating and integrating these grammatical errors, it can be found that grammatical errors in teacher speech mainly concentrated on four areas, namely verb tense, articles, noun plurality, and word order. The possible sources of the errors in terms of these four areas are interlingual errors and intralingual errors. The former refers to the mother-tongue influence and the latter are discussed in learning process.

7.2 Implication of the Research

In Walsh's opinion, teachers play a vital role in understanding, establishing and maintaining patterns of communication which will facilitate second language learning. (2002, p. 5) Teachers control the development in language classrooms through the ways in which they use language. Apart from paying attention to the fluency and abundance of teacher speech, Chinese university English teachers shall also keep an eye on fundamental grammar by improving the preciseness and accuracy of speech. The teacher speech is an important input of students' English learning, especially for teachers that teach English major classes, as the objects are English major students who will be working in the English language field. Incorrect discourse affects students' cognition, thus unfavourable for students' professional development. From the broad perspective, the quality of teacher speech of university English teachers directly affects the quality and development of college English teaching in China.

Teachers should be more aware of the importance of appropriate language use in the EFL classroom. Teachers are required to do reflection on their speech in class by making audio or video recordings of their lessons. Walsh (2002, p. 20) claims that "only by working with their data are teachers likely to be able to modify their

classroom verbal behaviour." Classroom environments that promote learning are thus those in which the teacher's role is one of facilitator of learning and co-constructor of new information through joint negotiation rather than a transmitter of given information.

7.3 Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research

First of all, the analysis on the teacher speech of college English teachers in China is an enormous task, and the research on their grammatical errors is also a large scale research object. The present research is a case study based on the teacher talk of 45 teachers. It is not substantial to reflect the general situation of grammatical errors made by college English teachers in China in terms of the scale. Next, the classification method used in the present research is based on traditional grammar, which is still an open debate in the academic field. Linguists have not come up with a universal standard toward the classification of errors in error analysis research. Various researchers classify language error from different angles, according to different needs, which is highly subjective.

What's more, this study is partly based on the classroom observation. According to Bartels (2005), observation is good for looking at whether teachers really use the knowledge from applied linguistics courses in their teaching practice, and also produces data for examining their routines and schemata. However, observation can be very time consuming, so most researchers limit the number of classes they observe, which then raises questions about the generality of the findings.

Based on the limitations of this study mentioned above, further research could be a comprehensive study at a larger scale in China. And also, a new approach other than Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis may be adopted, since Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis have their own weakness and limitation. Furthermore, Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977:447) conclude that error analyses cannot in principle provide any evidence of this 'error-avoidance' behaviour. Therefore, Taylor (1986, p. 150) holds the opinion that a good analyst, operating on standard structuralist principles, should therefore be able to draw upon his or her own knowledge of the language. In

this way he or she will be able to make judgements about what is not in the text, as well as on the correctness of what is.

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Appendix: The Classification of Errors

Foreign Language Institution

Morphology Errors

1. Noun Morphology Errors

Plural Forms of Nouns

...but all we missed are **intonation*.

Then the questions are about the six serving **boy*.

It can be different **purpose*.

...so maybe you have different **idea*.

2. Verb Morphology Errors

Third-person Singular Verbs

Who **want* to have a try?

Unit 4 **tell* you about this

Business news usually **tend* to be very uninteresting and dull, right?

It also **meet* with challenges from others.

While synonym **refer* to the same meaning, antonym refers to the oppositeness of meaning.

Who **want* to try first?

For example, the first **wish* to do something. He wishes to have car of his own.

The first two points are true, so preacher **believe* in the girl.

Root Form of the Verb

What did these two speakers **talking* about?

Did he **found* that the ducks all gone?

Although he doesn't* *has* a private car, he has a carpet, right?

Past Participle Incorrect

Let's review what we have **learn* last class.

The first two students have **order* them out.

...so all of these terms can be **group* together.

3. Adjective and Adverb Morphology Errors

To be **honestly*...

Well, they think words like Politian, hide, liberty are **disapproval* and the other group are more **approval*.

And sometimes it's a little bit* *noise*.

These are not only for the sick men, but also for the **health* ones.

4. Indefinite Article Morphology Errors

He was the first one who gained **a* international reputation in the American literature history.

Syntax Errors

1. Phrase Structure Errors

Noun Phrase Errors

Misuse of Determiners

What's * \emptyset meaning of "long for"? (the)

What's * \emptyset meaning of harm? (the)

What's * \emptyset meaning of "stocking"? (the)

...but in what sense do you think furniture is * \emptyset big concept. (a)

We know Japanese people have * \emptyset hard history. (a)

Misuse of Pronouns

Now look at **this* pictures.

You remember **this* two words.

...and another thing is you have to make **you* anxious readers understand.

...so **this* two girls, would you like to show us your conversation?

Thank you for your corporation and your smile and **you* coming.

Misuse of Propositions

And **at* the process of this reading, we ask ourselves questions.

**In* this morning, I am going to talk about semantics.

Verb Phrase Errors

Verb "be"

The difference ** Ø* very obvious. (is)

...so what kind of associations do you have if you ** Ø* here in law school. (are)

Auxiliary Verbs

Non-finite Forms of Verbs

...keep your eyes **contact* on others.

...so the communication **take* place is also important for us

I want you just ** Ø* make full use of your mind and not be confined by this author. (to)

While ** answer* the questions, we will be familiar with the details of the text.

Misuse of Propositions

You will do this when you want to make a good impression **with* others.

...because you share the same opinion **of* the author.

Maybe you can talk about the picture and share ** with* your story.

He still loves **on* these patients

2. Clause Errors

Disagreement of Subject and Predicate Verb

They **refers* to the number, numeral.

If we say John is poor, the sentences **tells* us John is not rich.

Well, a pair of complementary antonyms **are* different.

I think the difference between the two types of antonyms **are* like this point.

Tasks and fulfilling tasks **needs* team work.

But as far as younger kids, this kind of spirits **are* missing.

Syntactic Blend or Hybrid

And **she's* spent about 33 dollars there,

First **I'd* want to make you clear that all these follow-ups, round-ups and news analysis are also regarded as long stories in writing

Can you tell me **what's* topic did the two speakers talking about?

3. Sentence Errors

Errors in Sentence Tense

And the third reason is that nowadays newspaper **met* with serious competition with electronic media.

First of all you need to tell your readers how Chinese people **leave* this thought and how they lived worked.

Last time I put in and I would like to check if you **take* in or not when I **putting* out.

He **is* just with his friends and when he **come* back, it was so late.

Do you think teenagers today have the spirits that they forefathers **has*.

We know Japanese people **have* a hard history and they struggled a lot for better life

You know, after his novel was published, it **become* very successful.

Where did the father go to meet the Reverend? The father **go* to the train to meet the Reverend.

The princess said **it's* a new world, a very attractive place.

Maybe because the princess was not allowed to go out of the palace or maybe because she **falls* in love with the prince.

Errors in Negative Sentences

This side * Ø not refer to the front or the back. (does)

Errors in Interrogative Sentences

...and what * Ø the style of this article? (is)

Then why **he drank that?*

But why **he was* so popular outside of his house?

So why **he* cannot find himself?

What * Ø it mean? (does)

What * Ø the Chinese for that? (is)

Errors in Connection Sentences

Errors in Conjunctions

We recall * Ø the team did by replaying the ppt. (what)

Word Order

And then you will think how **can you* trust it properly.

Can we specifically say how **did he treat* the people around him?

Others

Take yourself seriously nor when there is **take* joking on you.

Normal Institutions

Morphology Errors

1. Noun Morphology Errors

Plural Forms of Nouns

Yesterday one of my **friend* told me that his computer was lost.

Why does the author use these writing **strategy* to show the difference.

There are 8 multiple **intelligence* in his theory.

How about your **neighbour* who are laughing?

There are two **category*, one is creativity and the other is basic skill.

Last week, we analysed the text from the language points and some of the **idea*.

The person has more **age* than his appearance.

So each group has to prepare one of the **report*.

So we first of all have different jobs and then we have different job **description*.

Actually all of these **guy* will apply to his description.

You need some **technique*.

Second, we also need some indirect **description* because sometimes you need other people's recognition.

They decorate Christmas tree with very colourful lights and many other **decoration*.

Now we have all these **expression*, and you are supposed to use these **expression* for the blanks.

Classification must include all of the **topic*.

So first let's have some fun by doing two brain **teaser*.

The questions demand witty or humorous **answer*.

Well, so why not give her a big **hands*?

Three **thousands*...

Look at those **picture*.

There are still four **paragraph*, right?

2. Verb Morphology Errors

Third-person Singular Verbs

...but it only **have* one chance to fill in the blanks with what you hear.

She **quit* her job.

Here first one **have* being done for you.

What **are* the most insecure place.

...because author **give* us the explanation in the following part of the text.

And from another angle or another perspective, it **look* different.

We can see he **get* a good education, right?

Can you tell me a person who also **work* like that?

Everybody **know* the story that he was assassinated.

Up to now, nobody **know* who is behind him and who is the murderer.

Brown is a black father who **want* his child to enter a white school in Topeka in Kans.

Up to now, nobody **know* who is behind him

She **have* one Muslim friend and husband.

First of all, I'd like you to do skinny-scanny work, because skinny-scanny work only **request* you to read very fast.

...so in this paragraph the author **use* exemplification to argue.

The last paragraph **function* as a transitional paragraph.

The author **explain* the last part in the following paragraphs.

Work **provide* everything and maybe work provides great benefits and opportunities.

I know writing **sound* boring and hopefully with my help we can have a good time today.

He has the gift. He **write* a book in a particular style.

The teacher **pose* the question because he thinks this is an extremely difficult question.

**Do* a cup of hot tea reach the temperature more quickly if you put milk in first

His gift of dancing style with no one **have* imagined.

So here, in the classification I say a writer **organise*, or sorts, things into categories.

If, you know, teacher is very kind, vey soft-hearted, that teacher usually **give* everybody very high mark.

His foundation just **ask* people to donate one Yuan every month to help the poor

Character **change* into Johnny.

As we know, it **tell* us to have the power to contribute something to the world.

...so the author **write* about his reflections

...so in this part the author **have* introduced his purpose why he wants to tell the story.

Which one **impress* you most?

...and which person **impress* you most?

Root Forms of verbs

And it is actually the identity you take in second life where you can **makes* Avatar's fly?

Certainly **adds* you to one of my friends.

What does "on the latch" **means*?

Past Participle Incorrect

Something should be **get* rid of.

...so we have **listen* to the passage the second time, can you give me some of the words.

You have **get* from the tape.

The Chinese dinner is **know* for all kinds of food.

Present Participle Incorrect

Do you think the author is just **tell* the story in order to tell the story?

3. Adjective and Adverb Morphology Errors

Now we will see more **detail* analysis of the some of the cultural background.

Maybe **sudden* they do not have work.

He will refuse a huge dinner and stick to a **health* meal.

4. Indefinite Article Morphology Errors

...and how to write **a* effective classification essay?

...so this is **an* season.

Syntax Errors

1. Phrase Structure Errors

Noun Phrase Errors

Misuse of Determiners

I think it's really *Ø good idea to know a bit about our writer. (a)

Find out how **the* different they are.

...because this is *Ø kind of political speech and JFK represents USA of capitalist country.

I'm going to read you a description of **a* famous combination figures

While talking about work, I have to start with jobs instead of work because why people work is such *Ø big topic. (a)

The teacher poses the question because he thinks this is *Ø extremely difficult question. (an)

So before Christmas, we buy **the* other stockings in other colours and styles.

That's *Ø peculiar expression. (a)

...so this is just *Ø example of stack papers. (an)

This is *Ø much better way. (a)

Don't leave our **a* critical category.

If I have one word to describe **the* human touch, the first word I prefer to use is love.

**The first his* job was a gardener.

Misuse of Pronouns

I cannot find a picture of **himself* in that present. (personal pronoun)

So here on this screen you see all **this* beautiful eggs.

Anyway, I'll get **this* pictures for you next time....

...so **this* two fall in love with each other.

**This* five things should be remembered when we write classification.

Misuse of Propositions

His computer was lost on his business trip **in* Beijing.

Verb Phrase Errors

Verb "be"

Also the next thing we are going to do *Ø a text analysis. (is)

Who **is* behind him was also unknown because he was killed by another person.

...almost all the people would **Ø* busy going to the department stores to do some shopping.

You will **Ø* certain of what is smelly feet, very disgusting, right? (be)

None-verb Form

So what do you do **find* out it about your partner?

Now let's **to say* this conflict is also a kind of conflict between two social systems.

Now I want you **find* some clues about indirect description with other people's recognition about Steven Hawking in your textbook.

So **be* a teacher is not enough for us to be effective teachers.

I ask a few students **talk* about how they classify holidays

Misuse of Pronouns

So in order to get **your* acquainted with how to express your idea.

Misuse of Propositions

What does it mean **Ø* giving examples that fit into each category? (by)

All right, let's move on **Ø* the second part. (to)

2. Clause Errors

Disagreement of Subject and Predicate Verb

Alex Haley's roots **was* once very popular with American readers, or even readers across the world.

Mood and emotion always turns **turn* without any reasons

3. Sentence Errors

Errors in Sentence Tense

Why don't you guys have a bit of talk and share your experiences about when and where you first **use* internet.

The virtual life **become* a shock and also she has decided where to go.

At that time nobody **pick* up anything lost on the road and nobody **keep* their door closed at the night.

How can we distinguish what **happen* in the past and what is happening nowadays?

He **begin* his political life by being a representative of US congress.

But civil union just removed the Missile, but it **has* some conditions.

When he went to Thailand, he **renounce* his citizenship and **claim* to be Thailand citizenship.

In this novel, we know the author went to Africa land and searched for their ancestors, and finally he even **find* the arrangement of his family in one of the very small villages.

Errors in Interrogative Sentences

How **Ø* she feel about this object on the internet for a while? (does)

Why **Ø* people work? (do)

What else **Ø* we do? (do)

How **Ø* you know the answer? (do)

Errors in "There be" Sentence Pattern

There **are* this kind of rules, discriminating rules.

Errors in Connection Sentences

Errors in Conjunctions

Something **that* should be kept and passed down from one generation to another.

We also believe that the text we read is just **that* the original text.

Errors in Agreement with Main Clause

Subject/ object disagreement

I asked a few students to talk about how they classified **your* holidays, and what **did you do* during holiday.

If we include too many categories, they will blur **your* classification.

Word Order

Please tell me what **are the differences*.

I'd like to ask you when **is Valentine's day*.

Do you see what **are these things*.

In the first hour, we talked about how **did you spend* your holidays.

So do you know what **is a dough*.

And can you think about why **are there* so many people go to America?

Do you think what **is his American dream*?

I'd like you to think about and predict what **may the author* write about based on the title.

Tell me what **did he buy*.

Comprehensive Institutions

Morphology Errors

1. Noun Morphology Errors

Plural Forms of Nouns

For the whole text the author just used eight examples and eight **evidence* to support his centre ideas.

We have a fraction **number* like this

In these **year*, many people around us often go to travel.

Taste the delicious **foods*.

**Gourmand* are the people who like eating delicious food.

...so maybe we can find some sea **animal* there.

Now here, we have two major **focus*.

There's one Chinese **student* in America.

Basically, we will cover four **step*, and the four **step* will be like this.

Would you like some **invention* around us?

That's why people's health **become* worse.

A statement means quota's view and several **evidence* to support the statement.

The writer talks about different **attitude* towards the development of science and technology.

In each paragraph there should be a topic **sentence*.

When these **word* are used together what is the meaning of this phrase, do you know?

Sometimes some **student* like to ask the question like this

This is the vivid **picture* that comes to today's discussion.

Now you can go quickly through the first two **paragraph*.

We have found out these three **group*.

I will ask you to divide those **text* into different parts according to the meanings

...but they have a very very good **achievements* in high schools

...or something like this about your personal **informations*.

...so there are four pie **chart* here, right?

Big **company* are very successful in the international market.

These are some **sample* for negotiations.

Derivation of Nouns

That is a **summarize* at the end of the last period.

People use different kinds of systems in insecure states to protect their **saves* even possession.

...so how about our **dreaming*?

This activity occurred in our **unconscious*.

2. Verb Morphology Errors

Third-person Singular Verbs

For the whole text the author just uses eight examples and eight **evidence* to support his centre ideas

He also **think* of the danger.

**Do* your team get the champion?

The writer **bring* the conclusion.

The other effect **imply* that the invention and the changing development **is* more than we can take.

That's why the author **use* the word "furthering" the fragmentation of society.

Is there anyone who **want* to spend the money on travel?

Almost everyone **want* to do so.

Let's see who **want* to see the different people?

In this part, this author **provide* us with her reason why she **like* to travel.

She's trying to lead you into the scene that she **want* to tell you.

Everyone **know* metaphor.

Each of you **give* me one answer.

When talking about science and technology, it's undoubted that human society **have* changed a lot.

When you seldom go out, your body **get* fewer exercises.

He just **make* a joke here.

That is to say, father **play* a very important role in our life.

He **teach* us and also **educate* us.

Your father **want* you to come downstairs to have the lunch.

So that is to say, father **are* becoming less and less important.

My daughter, how I'm going to miss her, if she **go* to university.

If a person who **believe* in cultural imperialism, do you think he will regard other people's culture as superior?

He **regard* New England as the centre of the world.

And this **start* him thinking a lot of things.

Because online, somebody usually **offend* others and someone will tell dirty jokes.

If the bank **transform* some of money to another country, will it...?

Root Form of the Verb

We can **got* it.

We can **reviewed* our homes and also **reviewed* our dreams.

Many people will **involved* in such activities.

So usually we know by saying someone is going to die, we just not **using* the word die.

Past Participle Incorrect

During the first period we have **talk* about.

Have you ever **know* the kind of machine?

It is **say* that light travels fast, but imagination travels fast.

So he hasn't **try* to tell us something in detail.

Well, so, have you ever **think* of why people travel?

We have **know* the reasons why people travel.

It was **build* thousand years ago.

This city was **build* on mountains.

Why is it **calls* a new information age?

...so person narrator will be **employ*.

All of you have **learn* each word of this little phrase.

What kind of things or what kind of groups have you **find*?

Local people have **went* to seek help from a nearby village.

Culture specific means something that are **share* by all human beings.

The humour will be **lose*.

Yes, a very good idea, so have you ever **thought* about the advantages and disadvantages of chatting online?

Have you even **sit* in a plane like that?

He was **beated* by another guy.

Present Participle Incorrect

We'll stop here and your assignment after class will be **write* an argumentation.

The teacher is sitting, students are sitting in a circle and no one is beginning and no one is **end*.

Then beside this, you are **do* some research work.

What's the sentence **talk* about her?

3. Adjective and Adverb Morphology Errors

I am not mentioning the **exactly* number.

And I'm sure all of the students here must be very **interesting* in it

I think you mentioned some words which are **importance*.

So this article is rather **emotion* rather than objective

Very **interest*...

Listen **careful*...

4. Indefinite Article Morphology Errors

Anybody can raise **a* example?

Today we will have **a* oral English class.

Do you think you are **an* net-worm?

So we are learning in **a* English classroom.

And in unit 2 we learnt **an* narration.

Is it **a* international business?

Syntax Errors

1. Phrase Structure Errors

Noun Phrase Errors

Misuse of Determiners

...because you can't recall **the* more.

Of course, there is **Ø* slight difference in meanings. (a)

We have **a* better knowledge about Kunqu drama.

The author showed **Ø* example of his friend. (an)

This is **Ø* topic that we are going to talk about. (the)

If you have **a* questions, you can just put up your hand.

Your hometown is *Ø cradle. (a)

...because *the English language is full of idioms which are very difficult for us to learn.

We know kick means just strike with *the feet while the bucket is *the deep round container with a flat bottom.

What is *Ø meaning of annoys? (the)

And after she grew up, she became *Ø teenager. (a)

She is very *Ø nice mother. (a)

It's *a very complicated, right?

Leak can be used as *Ø noun and as a verb. (a)

It's not *Ø balance. (a)

That means we should take the bad weather into *the consideration.

You think it's *a very good when you see that

Make *a pair work together.

That's *Ø form they may take when they are engaged in international business? (the)

We'll have *Ø discussion in this part. (a)

What you usually buy if you do *the shopping?

Misuse of Pronouns

Anybody would like to read *this two paragraphs first?

And keep *this three questions in mind.

I will give you 3 minutes to read *this several parts, ok?

So if you compare *this two, we say both of them are intelligent.

Can *anybody of you tell the meaning of abusive?

We can say *this three groups of people are not the father groups we want.

And second choice is for students to make a choice by *themselves.

Verb Phrase Errors

Verb "be"

We should always *Ø aware in mind that we need to be very attentive in dealing with

figures. (be)

And the following is about what the topics *Ø about Carrefour year. (are)

If we *Ø always in a culture, we can never feel it or sense it. (are)

When you *Ø shopping, you can use Internet. (are)

Maybe you *Ø too shy to speak. (are)

You will not *Ø hungry to death. (be)

The point is when they *Ø selling cars here in China, which form they take? (are)

Auxiliary Verbs

What **does* his work?

None-verb Form

So in order **have* a better understanding of the text A I here have two questions for you.

You can image a guy **climb* up a pole.

It is difficult for you **recalling* them.

We remember **write* down the capital letter, it is likely that we may forget this.

If you are asked **use* one word to describe their feelings, what is it?

So I think maybe you have some interesting things **share* with us.

I want my husband **go* outside do something.

After **preview* the lesson, do you agree with her guess?

And the local people use green banana to **helping* out

So when **are* chatting online, we should be careful.

Now simply **says* pros and cons means advantages and disadvantages of something.

Your task is, first of all, **summarise* the passage in your own words

Misuse of Propositions

Do you agree **of* this point?

While you dream **in* night, you exercise your imagination.

How many times have you been **in* Chengdu?

Misuse of Pronoun

Do you think **yourself* can teach **you* a lot of things?

It will hurt **other*

2. Clause Errors

Disagreement of Subject and Predicate Verb

Whether you are a good player or not, which really **depend* on your daydreaming, your imagination.

And that is why we **puts* upon this section on figures region for such a long time.

Most of what the signs have reflected **is* true, right?

it means great changes **has* taken place, right?

The choices **is* up to you.

It is a typical example of idiom which **are* very difficult for us to understand.

This is the vivid picture that **come* to today's discussion

Conclusion of this part **show* striking contrast between mother and daughter, especially in the area of feelings.

These standards sometimes **is* cultural specific.

Here pros and cons just **means* advantages and disadvantages of something.

That means the doctor thinks the advantages **is* important.

Now these **is* some new words in this passage you should pay attention to.

We just **means* he died.

Errors in Word Order

This is **a also* very long sentence.

Under what kind of condition or situation, **we can* do that?

Syntactic Blend or Hybrid

Maybe just because **you're* belong to a certain constellation.

**That's* will be your task.

Well, today we will **be learn* unit 3 “understand science”.

He **is disappear*.

And I **was turn* my eyes from the nearest mechanic

Joint venture means **have* business with their partner

You might have found many terms or words **are related* to law.

This Unit **is* only focus on selling

That’s one solution **is* to ask for refund.

3. Sentence Errors

Errors in Sentence Tense

If you exercise your imagination, you **did* achieve a better results.

He always **think* of his body and he was thinking of his body over the bar, and then he gained the success.

He **jump* over the bar, and got quite the success.

Then again and again he **tries* several times, he finally succeeded.

We **have* just now *talked* about a lot of very serious and also somewhat sad topic.

It seemed to me that it probably **begin* in earnest after World War 2.

They think about what **they do* in the past.

In Canada they only have Prime Minister and they **didn't* have Queen.

So at that time, the only thing they **can* do is to look for superstitious way right?

He was born 1867 and **die* in 1959.

...because at that time, you **are* at a low level.

Just now we **start* our journey to look for our fathers.

Once they were homeless and this father **lose* his job, he **try* to make a struggle to make the balance end.

Also in China, such things **happened* nowadays.

40,000 people in front of one restaurant, **take* photos with infamous at that time, Ronald McDonald.

The first impression she **get* from the city is a bird view she got on her plane

So what did you go? You **go* to Nanshang Park.

The author **pay* a visit to Petersburg, but before she visited the city, she **has* some ideas and some knowledge about this city,

Errors in Sentence Voice

Pictures may **process* by Photoshop.

According to consumer protection law, Door to door selling, and TV shopping still **permit* by law.

Those sentences **give* from the princess.

Errors in Word Order

Only by the sitting, **we can* see the culture of learning

Errors in Interrogative Sentences

Oh, are **we should say* that we live in the age of statistics?

What **Ø* that mean? (does)

What **majority of fathers are* playing?

How much **we 'll* miss each other?

What **are* pros and cons mean?

Why **we cannot* say chatting online is bad?

Why **it's* natural to have international business?

The point is when they selling cars here in China, which form **Ø* they take? (do)

What **Ø* you usually buy if you do the shopping. (do)

What **Ø* the advantages of buying things online? (are)

So can anyone explain to me how fast its international business **Ø* expanding according to the picture? (is)

...and what else **Ø* similar to it? (is)

Errors in "There be" Sentence Pattern

But there **are* still a convenient one that can be set on your knee.

There **are* a lot of information about his works, his life, etc.

...so in China there*Ø two forms of business. (are)

There **are* only one competitor in the world.

Errors in Connection Sentences

Errors in Conjunctions

Though we've spent time whole term last year, **but* you look new.

Though the Olympic games have undergone a lot of difficulties, **but* I am sure with our determination and with concerted efforts, we can hold very successful Olympic in Beijing in 2008.

So maybe imagination is *Ø you want here. (what)

Teacher's role **that* is the guide in learning activities.

We have only seen in the red barns those cows and the big grass, **this* come together and become very beautiful scenery.

Errors in Agreement with Main Clause

Subject/ object Disagreement

We can bring it to our house and don't have to go out, if **you* have no time.

I asked him whether **you* asked for the refund.

Word Order

We can get a basic idea of what **is the text* about.

If you go somewhere, you will ask what **is the delicious food* in this place.

Let's see what **is the city*.

Then she began to talk about how **did she go* to Petersburg.

This article just tells why **do author love* Wisconsin.

...and we know what **is our responsibility*.

Now let's see what **does the author say*.

The author tells us **what's the difference* between making friends online and making friends in real life.

Now let's see what **does this sentence mean*.

Others

The creative of the paragraph what did he say?

You are **the very capable of guy*.

You know an image another person.



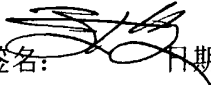
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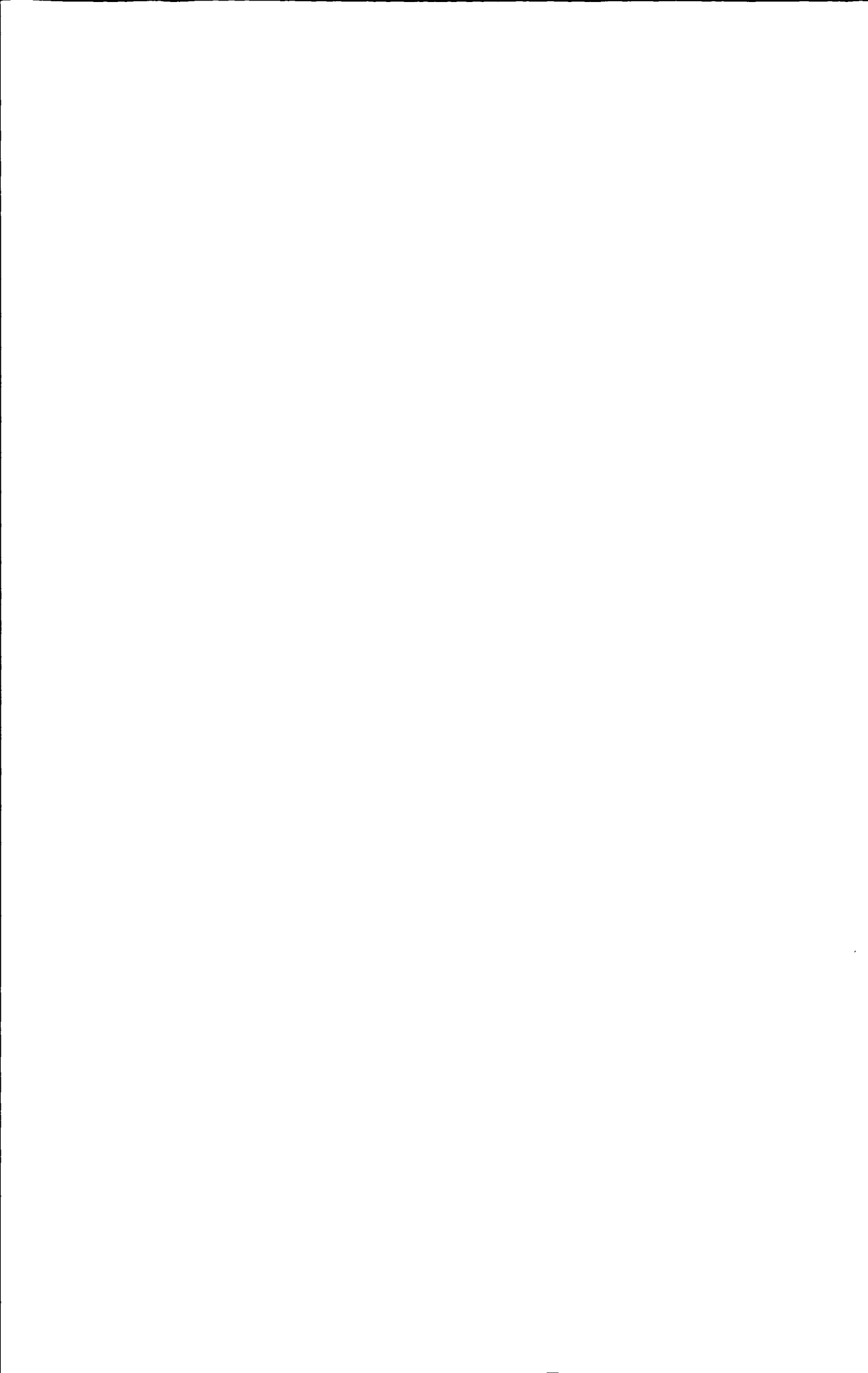
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