TEACHERS' AND LEARNERS' PREFERENCES FOR ERROR CORRECTION

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Abstract

of

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This study investigated (1) teachers' and learners' opinions about error correction, including the necessity, frequency, timing, type, method, and delivering agent of error treatment; and (2) the relationship between anxiety and preferences for error correction among students. One hundred sixty adult ESL students and 18 native English speaking teachers in two language institutes at Northern California universities participated in the surveys. The student participants' proficiency levels varied from low intermediate to advanced, and they were assigned to either a low anxiety group or a high anxiety group based on their language anxiety scores. The results revealed that both the teachers and students agreed that student errors should be treated, but students wanted more correction than their teachers thought. The teachers and students had significantly different opinions about timing, method, and delivering agents of error correction, as well as types of errors that need to be corrected. In contrast, a significant difference between the high and low anxiety groups was found only in delivering agents of error correction.

_____, Committee Chair
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_____
Date

DEDICATION

To my husband, Kang-Wook Kim, and my children, Daniel and Katie.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Purpose of the Study

This study examines teachers' and students' preferences for error correction and compares the differences between them, suggesting more effective ways of treating students' spoken errors in ESL settings. It also investigates the relationship between students' anxiety levels and their preferences for error correction by implementing a speaking anxiety questionnaire.

Two of the most common teaching approaches are meaning-focused and form-focused. The former is communicative language teaching, which is based on the idea that a target language is acquired through communication rather than through direct instruction. This communicative approach places less emphasis on accuracy and gives more importance to the effectiveness of communication. Conversely, the latter, form-focused instruction, involves the process of interlanguage construction by drawing learners' attention to or providing opportunities to practice specific linguistic features (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998; Ellis et al., 2001).

To date, the role of corrective feedback in language acquisition has been a highly controversial issue. Some researchers believe that exposure to naturally occurring samples of a target language is all that learners need to develop their second language (L2), and error treatment is harmful rather than helpful. According to Krashen (1982), the teaching of grammar should be abandoned because it interferes with the natural course of L2 learning. Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis proposes that language acquisition occurs when learners receive comprehensible input slightly more advanced (i+1) than their current level of interlanguage development (i).

Based on Krashen's (1982) comprehensible input hypothesis, Schmidt and Frota (1986) conducted a diary study of Schmidt's acquisition of Portuguese in Brazil. They argue that L2 learners need to be consciously aware of the difference between what they are saying

and what native speakers are saying before the learners can modify their output. Corrective feedback juxtaposes the learner's form (i) with the target language form (i+1), which is an ideal position for the learner to notice the gap. They argue that noticing the gap at a subconscious level does not lead the learner to automatic correction, but this conscious awareness of the gap is a necessary first step for improvement.

Although a great deal of L2 learning takes place through exposure to comprehensible input (e.g., Krashen, 1998), learners may need feedback on errors when they are not able to discover the differences between their interlanguage and the target language. In other words, form-focused instruction induces learners to pay conscious attention to forms in the input and thus aids interlanguage development.

Allwright and Bailey (1991) point out that only the learner can do the learning necessary to improve performance, regardless of how much error treatment is provided. Inevitably, most teachers have experienced the frustrations of correcting the same mistakes over and over instead of listening to a student's flawless English speaking. Teachers, however, need to be careful when providing corrective feedback because error corrections have both negative and positive effects. The positive effects of error correction can make language learning more effective since it helps L2 learners notice the gap between their utterances and the target forms, which elicits uptake or repair. This can promote changes in their interlanguage systems and lead them to the next linguistic developmental stage. Moreover, when learners understand that making mistakes is a part of the learning process, and that their teachers try to help them learn target forms, they are likely to take risks and build up confidence through practice. On the other hand, the negative effects can hinder learners' language development rather than facilitate learning since error correction may create barriers between teachers and their students and raise the students' level of anxiety. This can prevent students from acquiring communicative ability by making them hesitant to speak and afraid to make mistakes. As Burt (1975) notes, some errors are more important than others; therefore, teachers should use error correction selectively interms

of its importance in order to promote learning.

Many studies have investigated the relative effects of implementing various feedback types and strategies and have suggested that providing learners with a variety of corrective feedback can help them acquire correct forms. There is no one way that can always work, but rather different learners need different types of feedback. Other factors such as language anxiety might affect language acquisition because anxiety can impede learners' ability to process input and to form the target language (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994).

Despite the provision of various types of corrective feedback that attempt to guide learners to the target language, learners can be dissatisfied with a language class because of mismatches between students' and teachers' expectations. Learners' beliefs and perceptions may be essential to effective L2 acquisition (Brown, 2009). Schulz's (1996, 2001) studies also found that learners' perceptions and interpretations towards teaching methods have the greatest influence on their achievement. Understanding students' perceptions can be the first step toward leading them to acquire correct forms. As Brown (2009) points out, "L2 teachers and their students may have similar or disparate notions of effective teaching" (p. 46). Therefore, it is important for teachers to know their learners' preferences for corrective feedback in order to maximize its potential positive effect on language development.

Although many studies have investigated teachers' preferences for and the effectiveness of corrective feedback in second language acquisition (e.g., Carpenter et al., 2006; Henderickson, 1978; Lyster, 1998; Lyster & Panova, 2002; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Philp, 2003), relatively few studies have investigated the difference between teachers' and students' preferences for error correction (e.g., Ancker, 2000; Brown, 2009; Fukuda, 2004; Yoshida, 2008). Also, to my knowledge, no studies have explored whether learners' individual characteristics, especially anxiety, influence their preferences for corrective feedback. For example, the majority of studies have investigated the relationship between

students' language performance and anxiety: the correlation between students' writing performance and anxiety (Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999); the effects of test anxiety on listening test performance (In'nami, 2006); and the effect of anxiety on reading performance (Saito, Garza, & Horwitz, 1999). Although Sheen (2008) conducted a study in order to investigate the correlation between anxiety and students' uptake, Sheen's study focused on only one type of corrective feedback, namely, recasts. This study used Fukuda's (2004) questionnaires; however, unlike Fukuda's study, the participants in this study are ESL students in the U.S., and anxiety factors are also included in order to examine the relationship between anxiety and students' preferences for corrective feedback.

1.2 Research Questions

The following research questions, adapted from Hendrickson (1978), will be addressed in this study.

1. Are there any differences between teachers' and students' perceptions of effective error correction practices, specifically regarding the provision of error correction, the appropriate time of correction, the types of errors that need to be corrected, and the choice of correction providers?
2. In a comparison of students in a high anxiety group and students in a low anxiety group, are there any differences in their preferences for teachers' corrective feedback?

1.3 Pilot Study

The pilot study investigated: (1) teachers' and learners' preferences for error correction; and (2) the relationship between students' anxiety levels and their preferences for types of corrective feedback. For the study, 28 ESL students who were taking speaking classes in a language institute at a university in Northern California and 2 teachers teaching oral skills participated in a survey. The students had studied English more than six years and were from various L1 backgrounds, including Korean, Japanese, Spanish, Chinese, Arabic, and Spanish. The participants filled out a questionnaire asking their opinions about

error correction. The student participants were also asked to complete a language anxiety questionnaire to measure their anxiety levels. Based on the students' anxiety scores, 10 students were assigned to a high anxiety group, and 10 students were assigned to a low anxiety group. A t-test was performed to examine whether the difference between the two groups was statistically significant. The findings showed that both teachers and students believed that error correction is necessary for language development, and they perceived that global errors that impede a listener's understanding should be treated. Both the students and teachers agreed that correcting spoken errors after the student finishes speaking is most desirable in terms of when to give corrective feedback. While the students wanted their teachers to correct their individual errors, the teachers seldom corrected their students' individual errors. The students in the high anxiety group wanted to receive more error treatment from their teachers than the students in the low anxiety group. The findings indicated that more anxious students tended to be more conscious about their errors in their spoken English than less anxious students. After the pilot study, several questions that tended to be problematic for the students were changed to ensure that the questions were understood by all students.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Definition of Terms

2.1.1 Errors vs. Mistakes

In general, errors have been viewed as language learners' speech that deviates from the model they are trying to master (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). Corder (1967) has made a distinction between mistakes and errors. He uses the term "errors" to refer to systematic errors of the learner's underlying knowledge of the language. These errors display the learner's current developmental level of the target language. On the other hand, he uses the term "mistakes" to refer to incorrect forms caused by memory lapses, slips of the tongue and other instances of performance errors. Corder states that L2 learners can correct their own "mistakes" with assurance, but their "errors" are not amendable since their current linguistic developmental stage, interlanguage, does not have the ability to recognize the difference between their utterance and that of the native speaker. Corder argues that errors are indispensible in language learning because through the errors, learners test their hypotheses about the nature of the language they are learning. Corder also points out two explanations with respect to learner errors. First, "the occurrence of errors is merely a sign of the present inadequacy of the teaching techniques" (p. 163). That is, if it were possible for teachers to achieve a perfect teaching method, there would be no occurrence of student errors in the target language. The second explanation is that despite teachers' best efforts, the occurrence of errors is inevitable because errors occur for many reasons. The reasons can be: interference from L1, overgeneralization, an incomplete knowledge of the target language, the complexity of the target language, and fossilization. Therefore, teachers should be more concerned with how to deal with students' errors than the simple identification of them. For this study, I will use the terms "errors" and "mistakes" interchangeably because sometimes it is difficult to distinguish students' errors from mistakes.

2.1.2 Categories of Errors

Researchers have categorized errors in various ways. Burt (1975) classified errors into two categories: global errors and local errors. Global errors refer to errors that significantly hinder communication and "those that affect overall sentence organization, such as wrong word order, missing, wrong, or misplaced sentence connectors" (p. 56). On the other hand, "local errors affect single elements in a sentence but do not usually hinder communication significantly such as errors in noun and verb inflections, articles, and auxiliaries" (p. 57). Burt points out that correction of one global error clarifies the intended message more than the correction of several local errors. Furthermore, Burt argues that high-frequency errors should be the first errors teachers should correct. From a slightly different perspective, Chaudron (1977) categorized the range of errors from the strictly "linguistic (phonological, morphological, syntactic) to subject matter content (factual and conceptual knowledge) and lexical items" (p. 32).

Mackey et al. (2000) categorized four types of errors in their analysis of L2 interactional data. The four error types that had triggered the teacher's use of corrective feedback were phonology, morphosyntax, lexis, and semantics: (1) phonological errors were non-target-like pronunciation; (2) morphosyntactic errors were omitted plural *–s* and the preposition *in*; (3) lexical errors were inappropriate lexical items; (4) semantic errors were incorrect meanings or expressions. Some researchers also included a category that is relevant only to the specific target language. For example, Yoshida's (2008) Japanese classroom study categorized errors into five types that triggered the teachers' use of corrective feedback. For the study, Yoshida employed the coding scheme used in Mackey et al. (2000) and modified the categories of errors by adding Japanese Kanji reading errors.

2.1.3 Types of Corrective Feedback

Researchers have used various operationalized definitions of corrective feedback, and they use different terms to refer to the similar practices. For example, Schegloff et al. (1977) define the term correction as "the replacement of error or mistake by what is

correct" (p. 363). Chaudron (1977) defines correction as "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to or demands improvement of the learner's utterance" (p.31), which is the most common conception employed by researchers. Lightbown and Spada (1999) define corrective feedback as "any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect" (p.171). Corrective feedback includes both explicit and implicit feedback. Teachers can provide corrective feedback either without interrupting the flow of conversation (implicit feedback) or overtly with an emphasis on the ill-formed utterance (explicit feedback). Long and Robinson (1998) make a distinction between negative and positive feedback: negative feedback points out to the learners that their utterances are faulty in some way, and all feedback that is not negative is positive. Long (1996) defines negative feedback as "implicit correction immediately following an ungrammatical learner utterance" (p. 429). Long claims that negative feedback is generally facilitative of L2 acquisition because negative feedback, such as recasts, contains positive evidence, which provides the correct form.

Lyster & Ranta (1997) developed six types of corrective feedback used by teachers in response to learner errors:

1. *Explicit correction* refers to the explicit provision of the correct form. As the teacher provides the correct form, he or she clearly indicates that what the student said is incorrect (e.g., "Oh, you mean," "You should say").
2. *Recasts* involve the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error.
3. *Clarification requests* indicate to students either that their utterance has not been understood by the teacher or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or a reformulation is required. A clarification request includes phrases such as "Pardon me?"
4. *Metalinguistic feedback* contains comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct

form (e.g., “Can you find your error?”).

5. *Elicitation* refers to a technique that teachers use to directly elicit the correct form from the student. Teachers elicit completion of their own utterance by strategically pausing to allow students to “fill in the blank.”
6. *Repetition* refers to the teacher’s repetition, in isolation, of the student’s erroneous utterance. In most cases, teachers adjust their intonation so as to highlight the error.

2.2 Teachers’ and Students’ Preferences for Error Correction

Horwitz (1988) notes that teachers need to know learners’ beliefs about language learning in order to foster more effective learning strategies in their students because severe disappointment caused by a mismatch between students’ expectations about language learning and the realities they encounter in the classroom can impede language acquisition. Researchers have investigated teachers’ and students’ perceptions of error correction and found mismatches between them. For example, Schulz’s (1996, 2001) studies revealed that students’ attitudes toward grammar instruction and error correction were more favorable than their teachers’ attitudes; that is, learners want more error correction. Thus, when their instructional expectations are not met, their motivation can be negatively affected, and they may question the credibility of the teacher. Schulz (1996) argues that “such lack of pedagogical face validity could affect learners’ motivation” (p. 349). The discrepancies between students’ and teachers’ expectations can negatively affect L2 students’ satisfaction with the language class and can potentially lead to the discontinuation of L2 study. Teachers, therefore, need to explore their students’ perceptions and expectations to close the gap and maximize the effects of teaching.

Ancker’s (2000) action research investigated teachers’ and students’ expectations toward error correction by surveying teachers and students in 15 countries. The survey asked whether teachers should correct every error students make when using English. Interestingly, the findings showed a big gap between the teachers and the students. For example, when the students and teachers were asked whether teachers should correct

every error students make when using English, only 25% of teachers answered “yes” while 76% of students answered “yes.” The most frequent reason given for not wanting correction was the negative impact of correction on students’ confidence and motivation, whereas the most frequent reason given for wanting correction was the importance of learning to speak English correctly. Ancker suggests that to close the gap between teachers’ and learners’ expectations, teachers should establish clear objectives in lesson plans, discuss the learning process with students, and employ alternative types of corrective feedback that can be effective and encouraging to students.

Yoshida (2008) investigated teachers’ and learners’ preferences for corrective feedback types in Japanese classrooms through audio recording and stimulated recall interviews with participants. The findings showed that recasts were the teachers’ most favored corrective feedback type over elicitation and metalinguistic feedback due to the time limitation of classes and their awareness of learners’ cognitive styles. On the contrary, the learners preferred to have an opportunity to think about their errors in order to come up with the correct forms before receiving correct feedback from their teachers.

Fukuda (2004) investigated teachers’ and students’ opinions about error treatment by surveying teachers and students in Japanese high school oral communication classes. The results of the survey revealed significant differences between the teachers and students regarding error treatment. Overall, the students wanted more error treatment than their teachers believed. Based on the findings, Fukuda suggested that the effective error treatment is extremely complex since it depends on many factors, including students’ needs, preferences, personalities, proficiency levels, and motivation.

The previous studies have investigated teachers’ and students’ perceptions about error correction (Ancker, 2000; Yoshida, 2008; Schulz, 1996, 2001), but did not compare the differences between individual teachers and their respective students. Unlike the previous studies, Brown’s (2009) study identified and compared teachers’ and students’ ideals of effective teacher behaviors by conducting a survey that consists of a 24-item Likert-scale

questionnaire covering several areas of foreign language pedagogy. Forty-nine teachers and their students across nine languages at the University of Arizona participated in the survey. The survey revealed that the students seemed to favor a grammar-based approach, whereas their teachers preferred more communicative instruction. For example, 73% of the teachers disagreed with the statement "Effective foreign language teachers should mostly use activities that practice specific grammar points rather than activities whose goal is to merely exchange information." The findings corroborate Schulz's (1996, 2001) studies, which found that students favored grammar teaching over communicative instruction. The teachers also strongly felt that grammar practice needed to be embedded in meaningful contexts. Brown pointed out that fundamental differences in perceiving the process of L2 acquisition and the realistic goals for L2 learning are the source of the mismatches between teachers and students. For example, students who value grammar teaching and explicit error correction may perceive that L2 acquisition is all about mastering the grammar of a language. Furthermore, following Horwitz's (1988) recommendation, Brown suggests that foreign language teachers check their students' perspectives and discuss the rationale behind the instructional strategies.

2.3 Error Correction and Second Language Acquisition

It is inevitable for learners to make mistakes when they attempt to use the target language before they have mastered it. Teachers, therefore, should be prepared to handle the variety of errors that could occur in learners' speech (Burt, 1975). The role of corrective feedback in the process of learning a second language has been debated. As Krashen (1982) argues, corrective feedback may not benefit learners in acquiring the correct form if they are not ready to learn. Then the question is whether treating errors will facilitate speedy acquisition of the correct form or will simply be futile until the learners reach a stage of interlanguage development where they can make use of such feedback to modify their ill-formed utterances. However, if a teacher chooses not to treat an error in one learner's utterance, the other learners in the classroom may assume that the form is

correct. Consequently, this assumption could lead some learners to internalize incorrect forms, i.e., fossilization.

The next question is whether teachers should deal with errors immediately or wait until learners finish with the messages they are trying to convey. Immediate error correction may inhibit a learner's willingness to speak in class at all because it can interrupt the learner in the middle of a sentence. On the other hand, although delayed feedback can allow the learner time to finish what the learner is trying to say, the feedback may become less effective as the time between the error and treatment increases.

Hendrickson's (1978) study investigated whether, when, which, and how student errors should be corrected and who should correct them. The findings are: correction promotes language learning; there is no general consensus as to when errors should be corrected; frequently occurring errors and errors that impair communication should be corrected; and various corrective feedback types are used by teachers.

Teachers use various strategies to help their learners notice errors, but they are not always efficient because sometimes such feedback is ambiguous. Chaudron (1977) conducted a study to provide teachers with a better understanding about when and how to correct learners' errors. In this study, Chaudron created a model that was designed to elicit correct performance in French immersion classrooms in Canada. The model describes error treatment strategies regarding how teachers correct different errors simultaneously and select certain errors over others. The study found that student errors included phonological, lexical, and content errors. The study findings indicated that the use of emphasis, repetition, and reduction in correcting the learners' errors increased the chances of students' successful self-correction.

Havranek's (2002) classroom-based experimental study investigated situational, linguistic, and personal factors that promote the effectiveness of corrective feedback in foreign language learning. He observed 207 German native speakers at different ages with different proficiency levels. Interestingly, the findings indicated that the learners who

observed corrective feedback processes (observers) benefited more than the learners who received corrections (receivers). Both the receivers and observers were most likely to use the corrected structures successfully in the test when they received recasts combined with elicited self-correction. The study suggested that teachers can promote learning when they provide level-appropriate recasts combined with other feedback and allow their students to observe feedback processes in the classroom. Allwright and Bailey (1991) also point out that providing corrective feedback aimed at L2 learners' current level can guide them in moving ahead in their interlanguage development. Conversely, it may not be helpful if corrective feedback is beyond the learners' stage of interlanguage development.

2.3.1 Corrective Feedback Types Used in Language Classrooms

There are a wide variety of techniques for the treatment of student errors and sometimes teachers' and L2 learners' perspectives differ on the desirability of error treatment (e.g., Anker, 2000; Yoshida, 2008). Moreover, teachers appear not to treat all errors.

Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study investigated the distribution of types of corrective feedback and the distribution of uptake following different types of corrective feedback by analyzing teacher-student interaction in elementary French immersion classrooms. Lyster and Ranta defined uptake as immediate learner responses following corrective feedback and divided uptake as either "repair" or "needs-repair" (p. 49). They developed six categories from the analysis of teacher-student interaction (see pp. 8-9). The study revealed that recasts were the most frequently used corrective feedback type (over 50% of all error correction) among the teachers, but recasts were not the most effective type of corrective feedback to elicit the students' uptake since almost 70% of recasts did not lead to successful uptake (repair). In contrast, unambiguous corrective feedback, such as clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition of error, more often led to successful uptake. However, explicit feedback without ambiguity did not help

students repair their ill-formed utterances. Lyster and Ranta explained that the ineffectiveness of recasts might be due to teachers' frequent use of repetition of students' well-formed utterances.

Lyster (1998) also investigated which types of corrective feedback led students to uptake or repair. In this study, Lyster distinguished recasts from the negotiation of form. That is, recasts supply target-like forms, whereas the negotiation of form provides signals to facilitate repair. The findings showed that the learners made the majority of phonological repairs by repeating the teacher's recasts, and they made the majority of grammatical and lexical repairs through the negotiation of form that elicits peer and self-repairs. The findings suggest that recasts do not provide the learners with negative evidence, so they fail to convey what is unacceptable in the target language.

Likewise, Lyster and Panova (2002) observed teacher-student interaction in an ESL adult class and found that the teachers favored recasts over other types of feedback, such as clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, or elicitation, despite the ineffectiveness of recasts for eliciting L2 learners' successful uptake. These findings corroborated Lyster and Ranta's (1997) findings. Mackey and Philp's (1998) study examined the effects of intensive recasts in relation to learners' level of proficiency. Mackey and Philp found that learners at high developmental levels who received intensive recasts showed a greater improvement in sentence structures than learners who did not receive intensive recasts. Furthermore, the research findings indicated that learners who were more developmentally ready to acquire the target forms benefited more from recasts than those who were not ready to do so. Lyster & Panova's (2002) study showed that teachers provided learners with differentiated error treatment according to the learners' proficiency levels. Based on the findings, they suggested that teachers had a tendency to provide a specific type of corrective feedback, recasts, more frequently to lower level students than higher level students when correcting their students' errors. The findings are interesting when we consider the fact that more proficient learners can benefit more from recasts than less

proficient learners by noticing recasts better (e.g., Mackey & Philp, 1998).

Lyster (2004) investigated the extent to which teachers used different types of corrective feedback to respond to students' specific error types. The findings revealed that teachers provided corrective feedback with a certain degree of consistency according to the types of errors. The teachers tended to recast grammatical and phonological errors and to negotiate lexical errors. In a similar vein, Mackey et al.'s (2000) study showed that recasts were most commonly used on the learners' morphosyntactic errors.

2.3.2 Learners' Perceptions of Corrective Feedback

Research findings have shown that recasts are the most frequently used type of feedback by teachers in the language classroom (e.g., Lyster & Panova, 2002; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Yoshida, 2008). However, some researchers have claimed that learners often did not perceive recasts as corrective feedback; instead, they saw recasts as simple repetitions of their utterances due to their implicitness and ambiguity (Ellis et al., 2001; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Even though the effectiveness of recasts has been widely debated and investigated in and out of language classrooms, many teachers favor recasts as corrective feedback in the L2 classroom due to the advantages of providing recasts: the unobtrusive nature of recasts in the flow of communication, the immediacy of recasts, and the widely shared belief that the provision of feedback immediately following an error is essential for learners to notice a contrast between their faulty utterance and the target form. In addition, recasts can provide correct forms without risking embarrassing the learners (Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Lyster, 2004; Lyster & Panova, 2002). For these reasons, researchers have investigated a number of different aspects of recasts, including: whether recasts contribute to learning (e.g., Doughty& Varela, 1998; Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Long & Robinson, 1998; Mackey & Philp, 1998); the extent to which recasts lead to learner uptake (e.g., Egi, 2007; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Philp, 2003; Sheen, 2006); and the relative effects of recasts on successful uptake over other corrective feedback such as models and prompts (e.g., Long et al., 1998; Lyster, 2004). Therefore, it is important

and necessary to review the studies on recasts in SLA for a better understanding of how learners interpret recasts.

Mackey et al.'s (2000) study investigated learners' perceptions of interactional feedback provided in the form of recasts through task-based dyadic interaction. The findings showed that learners had relatively accurate perceptions about lexical, semantic, and phonological recasts. Conversely, they had problems in perceiving recasts that targeted morphosyntactic features. Although recasts provide learners with target-like forms, recasts are ambiguous because they are often hard to differentiate from non-corrective repetitions. Some learners, therefore, do not perceive them as corrective feedback, but rather as another way to say the forms; as a result, the learners may not produce uptake. These findings showed that learners should be aware of the deviation of their speech from the target language model in order to make a change in their utterances and to acquire the target forms (Schmidt & Frota, 1986).

Philp's (2003) experimental study investigated to the extent to which L2 learners notice recasts in dyadic interactions. For this study, Philp used three independent variables that may affect noticing of recasts: the proficiency level of the learner, the length of recasts, and the degree of difference between the recast and the learner's utterance. By observing 33 adult ESL students' accurate immediate recall, Philp found that the three variables constrained the learners' accurate recall: the high level learners noticed recasts more consistently than the low level learners; all groups recalled shorter recasts with greater accuracy than long recasts; and the learners recalled recasts with fewer changes more accurately than recasts with three or more changes. The research findings suggest that rather than comprehensible input, shorter recasts or recasts with fewer changes can elicit the learners' modification of their non-target-like forms by helping them recognize inadequacy in the utterance, which, in turn, can lead them to L2 development.

Carpenter et al. (2006) conducted a study in order to investigate learners' interpretations of recasts in interaction by implementing think-aloud protocols. The

researchers examined whether there was a difference in the learners' abilities to recognize the corrective nature of recasts when the recasts were heard with or without their immediate discourse context. They also investigated whether learners identify nonlinguistic cues when deciding whether utterances are recasts or repetition. In this study, learners who were provided with their original errors identified recasts better than those who were not. Interestingly, the learners did not report observation of nonlinguistic cues. This indicates that the students did not rely on nonlinguistic cues from the interlocutors to identify differences between recasts and repetitions.

2.3.3 Deciding Who Will Treat Oral Errors

The most common source of feedback to learners in an L2 classroom is the teacher. If it is not the teacher who treats the error, then it could be either the learner who made the error or peers in the classroom. In most cases, the teacher is the one who offers the learner the opportunity to modify the error. However, L2 learners need to notice inadequacies in their utterances and make changes in their developing interlanguage systems. Thus, teachers need to provide learners with level appropriate corrective feedback that can promote their language learning. Also, teachers need to allow students time for self-repair, whether it is initiated by self or others (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). When a teacher waits after posing a question to a learner, the possibility of a learner's correct response will increase. In so doing, teachers can guide students in producing the target language accurately and fluently by internalizing the correct forms, which is the long-term goal of language teaching.

Likewise, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) findings revealed that student-initiated repairs in error correction are important in L2 learning since they help learners consolidate their current knowledge of the target language and lead the learners to revise their hypotheses about the target language.

2.4. Language Anxiety and Language Learning

Previously, teachers' and learners' perceptions about error correction and the

relationship between error correction and language learning have been discussed. In addition to corrective feedback, personality factors within a learner, such as anxiety, can contribute to successful language learning. Language anxiety has been claimed to be one of the most important affective factors influencing the success of language acquisition. A growing number of studies have shown negative correlations between anxiety and language learning (e.g., Cheng et al., 1999; Matsuda & Gobel, 2003; Saito et al., 1999). Brown (2000) notes that undertaking any complex task can generate anxiety, and language learners are susceptible to anxiety due to the complexity of learning a second or foreign language. Allwright and Bailey (1991) also point out that language learning is more stressful than other subjects because it is a complex process. Language learning requires learners to master multiple areas, including pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. For example, learners need to make a conscious effort not to make errors on pronunciation, word stress, and word order when they speak an L2. Moreover, speaking forces learners to produce structures that they have not yet acquired, so speaking in front of the class could be a very anxiety-provoking activity (Krashen, 1998). Given that, development of communicative competence would be quite challenging for anxious students. For highly anxious language learners, speaking in class can be perceived as stressful rather than beneficial. Thus, anxiety can affect the communication strategies students employ in the language class. Language anxiety can discourage students from taking risks in order to avoid embarrassment, so they can miss out on the opportunity to practice their speaking. Accordingly, language anxiety could slow down language progress by inhibiting learners from responding to language input from the teacher (e.g., Horwitz et al., 1986).

Many researchers believe that anxiety often has a negative impact on the ability to speak (e.g., Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Horwitz et al., 1986). In contrast to this claim, MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) argue that anxiety is not necessarily bad because it can help learners improve accuracy in speaking. They distinguish between debilitating anxiety, which gets in the way, and facilitating anxiety, which actually helps learners do better than

they might otherwise. For instance, before a test or a public speech, facilitative tension, such as nervousness, keeps a learner alert and thus motivates him or her to study harder. Based on the findings that anxious students took more time to learn a list of vocabulary and had more difficulty in recalling the list than less anxious students, they suggested that debilitative anxiety can interfere with the acquisition, retention, and production of the new language. When learners are encouraged to produce the target language, their elevated anxiety level inhibits them from processing input and speaking in class. The findings showed that excessive anxiety can make learners lose confidence and lead them to poor performance. Their other study (1994), which investigated the relationships between cognitive processes and language anxiety in language acquisition, also found significant correlations between anxiety and performance.

Researchers define language anxiety in various ways. For instance, Brown (2000) defines anxiety as “feelings of uneasiness, self-doubt, apprehension, or worry” (p. 151). MacIntyre & Gardner (1994) defined language anxiety as “the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning” (p. 284). They divided performance anxiety into three categories: communication apprehension that comes from fear of difficulty in understanding others and making oneself understood; test anxiety caused by a fear of failure; and fear of negative evaluation that derives from apprehension about negative evaluations from others. Conversely, Horwitz et al. (1986) regarded foreign language anxiety as “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” rather than the combination of the three fears (p. 128). From a slightly different perspective, Matsuda and Gobel (2003) state that individual variables have an effect on foreign language (FL) anxiety and divided the variables into two types: static and dynamic. While the static variables, gender and first language, do not change over time, dynamic types of variables, such as language proficiency, motivation, and self-esteem, change over time and differ among individuals.

Horwitz et al. (1986) developed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) with 33 items based on an analysis of potential sources of anxiety in language classrooms. The study showed that anxiety influences language learning and production. However, it is difficult to say whether it is the anxiety that gets in the way of developing good speech skills or whether poor speech skills create the anxiety. Language anxiety can be the cause, effect, or both in language learning. For example, lack of self-confidence and unfamiliar learning or teaching environments can lead the learners to debilitating anxiety. Horwitz et al. suggest that teachers should first acknowledge the existence of foreign language anxiety, and then they can either help learners learn to cope with the anxiety–provoking situations or make the learning context less stressful. In so doing, language learners can alleviate language anxiety and attain confidence in speaking.

A number of researchers have investigated the relationship between anxiety and second language learning. For instance, Saito et al.'s (1999) study examined whether the level of foreign language anxiety varies according to the specific target languages, including French, Japanese, and Russian, and the relationship between second language reading and anxiety. They assessed students' reading anxiety by using the FLCAS and foreign language reading anxiety scale (FLRAS). They used a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." The findings revealed that the students who perceived their target language reading as difficult displayed a significantly higher level of reading anxiety than those who perceived it as less difficult or easy. The findings suggested that students' perceptions of reading unfamiliar scripts and writing systems and cultural material can provoke anxiety.

Matsuda and Gobel's (2003) study also investigated the relationships among general foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA), foreign language reading anxiety (FLRA), gender, extended overseas experience, and classroom performance. By implementing the FLCAS and FLRAS, they found that self-confidence in speaking English seemed to play an important role in classroom performance.

Cheng et al.'s (1999) study examined the relationships between the FLCA and second language writing anxiety (SLWA), as well as their associations with second language speaking and writing achievement. The study showed that the classroom anxiety variables tended to have higher correlations with the speaking course grades than with the writing course grades. They claim that students feel insecure or anxious in the context of second language learning due to low self-confidence, which results in negative expectations about their performance. Thus, students are less likely to cope with their anxiety effectively and become easily disengaged from anxiety producing tasks, which could impair their progress in language learning.

In'nami's (2006) study investigated the extent to which test anxiety affects listening test performance by using structural equation modeling in a Japanese EFL setting. The study showed that three factors of anxiety, such as general test worry, test-irrelevant thinking, and emotion, do not affect listening test performance. The findings contrast with Horwitz et al.'s study (1986), which found a negative relationship between anxiety and foreign language learning. In'nami points out several explanations regarding the results. First, the participants' personal characteristics, such as relatively high proficiency level or positive test performance experience in the past, might have lowered their level of test anxiety. In addition, listening tests were less threatening than speaking tests to the participants because they were accustomed to these listening tests.

Unlike previous studies that have relied on questionnaires, Yan and Horwitz's (2008) qualitative study examined how anxiety affects students' performance in interaction with other learners and how situational factors influence language learning by interviewing six English learners in China. The results revealed that comparison with peers, learning strategies, and interest and motivation were the most immediate sources of anxiety in language learning. Moreover, the students perceived foreign language anxiety as a negative impact on second language learning. Yan and Horwitz suggested that teachers should identify and modify sources of anxiety in specific language learning settings in order to

reduce students' anxiety and thus create a more effective language learning environment. For instance, they suggested that teachers need to develop class activities that encourage cooperation rather than competition and that raise students' interest and motivation.

Nowadays, many language learners are interested in the development of speaking proficiency, and a number of studies have shown that anxiety is negatively correlated with language performance and learning in the second language (MacIntyre & Gardner; 1989; Saito et al., 1999). Likewise, Philip (1992) points out that this language apprehension is more likely to intensify in an oral communication test situation. Philip conducted a qualitative study that investigated the effects of anxiety on students' oral exam performance in terms of test scores and several performance variables related to accuracy and the amount of comprehensible speech. The findings showed that students with higher anxiety tended to receive lower grades than less anxious classmates. Moreover, students with higher anxiety tended to say less, to produce short communication units, and to use fewer dependent clauses and target structures than less anxious students. In this study, Philip also investigated the students' attitude and affective reactions to oral language tests and found that the students, regardless of their proficiency level, regarded the assessment as a very unpleasant experience. Interestingly, the highest level student expressed her negative attitude toward the exam even after she received an A on the oral exam. Philip concluded that anxiety and oral performance had moderate correlations as does the influence of other variables such as personality, motivation, and willingness to take risks.

Satar and Keynes's (2008) study found that the students in a high anxiety group were more likely to lose their confidence as they were struggling to put their thoughts into words. The reason is that the students with high anxiety are more anxious about properly expressing themselves than the students with low anxiety. Woodrow's (2006) study also investigated the relationship between speaking performance and second language anxiety by collecting data from a survey. The findings showed that giving oral presentations, performing in front of classmates, and communicating with native speakers outside the

classroom were the most anxiety provoking situations. Considering these two studies, it is crucial for teachers to provide students with a safe learning environment that can alleviate anxiety.

Recently, Sheen's (2008) study examined whether language anxiety is a factor that influences learners' ability to modify output from recasts. The findings showed that only the low anxiety group of students benefitted from the recasts. It is an interesting result since recasts, implicit corrective feedback, are often regarded as nonthreatening feedback and provide learners with the target-like form, so they do not provoke anxiety. Furthermore, the study revealed that the less anxious learners produced higher levels of modified output from recasts than more anxious learners. Sheen points out that the communicative tasks might have served as a source of the learners' anxiety because the activities require students' active participation. Highly anxious students may fail to modify their ill-formed utterances due to language anxiety by failing to process the input provided by recasts. The findings indicate that language anxiety is a factor determining the effectiveness of recasts that can promote learning.

Numerous studies have investigated the effects of corrective feedback and suggested that there is no one method that can be effective for all language learners, so providing various types of corrective feedback can promote language development. Although teachers can provide their students with more effective corrective feedback by understanding their preferences for corrective feedback, relatively few studies have compared the differences between teachers' and students' opinions about error correction. Moreover, many researchers have examined the relationship between learners' anxiety and language performance, and they have found that anxiety can affect learners' linguistic performance and their language development (e.g., Cheng et al., 1999; Horwitz et al., 1986; In'nami, 2006; Matsuda & Gobel, 2003; Philip, 1992; Satar & Keyne, 2008; Woodrow, 2006). To my knowledge, except Sheen's (2008) study, no study has investigated whether anxiety influences learners' perception of and preferences for corrective feedback.

Focusing on only one type of corrective feedback, recasts, Sheen investigated the relationship between anxiety and learners' uptake. Sheen's (2008) study showed the negative correlations between anxiety and the effectiveness of recasts. Given that, it is crucial for teachers to understand how anxiety can influence the effectiveness of different types of corrective feedback, and how students may prefer different types of corrective feedback depending on their level of anxiety. By providing students with optimal error treatment that can meet their expectations, teachers can increase the effects of error treatment and thus maximize students' learning. Therefore, this study attempts to examine the followings: (1) teachers' and students' preferences for error correction, and (2) the relationship between students' anxiety levels and their preferences for error correction.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Participants

The participants in this study were 160 students who were taking oral skills classes in language institutes at two large universities in California, and 18 ESL teachers who were teaching the oral skills classes at the same two universities. The student participants' proficiency levels varied from low-intermediate to advanced. Their English proficiency was assessed by the institutes' placement tests, which included reading, writing, grammar, and oral interview components. The reason for recruiting the students who were at least low-intermediate level was to prevent students from incorrectly responding to the questions due to their limited comprehension skills. All student participants were adult ESL learners and varied in terms of age and linguistic background: 67 male and 93 female students participated in the survey and the ages of the students ranged from 21 to 36 years old. The students represented eleven different first languages: Korean, Japanese, Chinese, Taiwanese, Arabic, Indonesian, Thai, Turkish, Italian, Portuguese, and Spanish. They have been studying English more than six years on average, and most of their English education was received in their native countries, in EFL settings. The majority of the student participants have been in the USA less than three months. Of the eighteen teacher participants, thirteen teachers have taught oral skills for more than six years.

3.2 Instruments and Procedures

3.2.1 Anxiety Questionnaire

A language anxiety questionnaire was used to elicit language learners' self-reports of anxiety over English oral performance in ESL classrooms. The language anxiety questionnaire was adapted from Sheen (2008), who created the questionnaire based on Dörnyei and McIntyre (2006). The questionnaire contains a total of eight items using a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" (see Appendix).

In scoring the questionnaire responses, all items in the survey were adjusted so that

the responses consistently ranged from 1 (least anxious) to 5 (most anxious) throughout the survey. For instance, Question 3 asked how students feel when they have to speak English in front of their classmates. The least anxious students would strongly disagree with the statement, whereas the most anxious student would strongly agree with the statement. Therefore, the choice of the responses starts with “strongly disagree,” which is worth 1point. The total scores of each student were calculated, and the highest score was 40.

3.2.2 Student and Teacher Questionnaires

For this study, the researcher distributed questionnaires, adapted from Fukuda (2004), to teachers and students in order to investigate teachers’ and learners’ preferences for error correction.

Two different questionnaires were used in this study: one is a questionnaire for students, and the other is a questionnaire for teachers. Each questionnaire has two sections. The first section includes twenty-two questions investigating teachers’ and students’ perceptions of the necessity of error correction and frequency of error correction, preferences for timing of error correction, types of errors that need to be corrected, types of corrective feedback, and delivering agents of error correction. The second section is designed to collect participants’ demographic information, including their genders, native languages, the length of English teaching/learning, and students’ proficiency levels. Therefore, the demographic section consists of four question items for students and three items for teachers.

3.2.3 Procedure

The questionnaire was administered to the students by the researcher in classrooms and cafeterias located around the institutes. Before signing the consent form, the students were informed that their participation was voluntary and the survey was anonymous. Also, the student participants were informed that they were free to withdraw at any time and for any reason after signing the consent form. Each participant was given an opportunity to read the consent form, and then completed the consent form. After collecting all student

consent forms, the researcher distributed the questionnaire. The students were asked to read the general instructions for the survey and informed that they could skip any questions that they would feel uncomfortable answering. They were given no additional information relevant to the nature of the research project. As for the questionnaires administered in the classrooms, the teachers were asked to leave the classroom in order to make the students feel comfortable as they were answering the questions. Five students were excluded from data analysis because they did not fill out the anxiety questionnaire. The researcher distributed the questionnaire to ESL teachers in their classrooms, the teacher's office, mailbox, and via e-mail. When the teachers informed the researcher they had completed the questionnaire forms, the researcher collected them in person.

3.3 Data Analysis

The collected data were analyzed in order to answer two research questions: (1) Are there any differences between teachers' and students' perceptions of effective error correction practices? (2) Among students, are there any differences between a high anxiety group and a low anxiety group in their preferences for teachers' corrective feedback?

In order to answer the first research question, two questionnaires were implemented, a questionnaire for teachers and a questionnaire for students. The students and teachers were asked to rate each item on a 5-point scale, from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." "Strongly agree" was worth 5 points, and "strongly disagree" was worth 1 point. The items were divided into six categories: necessity of error correction, frequency of error correction, timing of error correction, types of errors, methods of corrective feedback, and delivering agents of corrective feedback. The six categories marked by the participants were tallied. In scoring the questionnaire on preferences for error correction, the data were simplified by collapsing the 5-point scale used to elicit responses (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree) into a 3-point scale (strongly agree/ agree, neutral, disagree/ strongly disagree).

The mean of language anxiety scores was calculated in order to answer the second research question that investigates the relationship between language anxiety and preferences for error correction. Based on the students' responses to the language anxiety questionnaire, they were classified as having low or high anxiety by using the total mean score (M = 23.24) for the whole sample (N = 160). In order to even out the distribution of the participants, learners who scored more than one standard deviation above the mean were classified as "high anxiety," and learners who scored more than two standard deviations below were classified as "low anxiety." As a result, 70 students were assigned to a high anxiety group, and 70 students were assigned to a low anxiety group. In order to determine whether there were statistically significant differences between the two groups, a t-test was performed. The difference between the two groups was extremely statistically significant as in Table 1 ($p < .0001$). In other words, the two groups were significantly different from each other with regard to their anxiety levels.

A t-test was performed to determine if there were statistically significant differences between the two populations: students (Ss) versus teachers (Ts) and high anxiety group (HA) versus low anxiety group (LA).

Table 1. Summary of Statistically Significant Group Differences in Anxiety

Group	N	Mean	SD	*df*	T-value	*p*
HA	70	18.90	2.36	138	21.439	< .0001***
LA	70	27.51	2.39			

*$p < 0.05$ **$p <$ 001 ***$p < 0.005$

Chapter 4

RESULTS

4.1 Students vs. Teachers

4.1.1 Necessity of Error Correction

In Question 1 of the questionnaire, the students were asked to respond to the statement, "I want to receive corrective feedback." Teachers were asked to respond to the statement, "Students' spoken errors should be treated."

As Figure1 illustrates, the mean of the students (M = 4.48) was higher than the teachers (M = 4.0). This finding indicates that the students wanted to receive more error treatment than their teachers provided.

Table 2 shows the responses of the students and teachers regarding the necessity of error correction. Ninety-four percent of the student participants and 88% of the teacher participants responded "strongly agree" or "agree" on Question 1. Interestingly, 54% of the students strongly agreed that they wanted their errors to be corrected by their teachers, whereas only 11% of the teachers strongly agreed with the statement. None of the students and teachers disagreed with the statement. The findings indicate that both the students and teachers think students' spoken errors should be corrected, but the students believe in the necessity of corrective feedback to a much greater extent. The difference between their responses was statistically significant ($p < 0.005$). As previous studies (e.g., Ancker, 2000) have shown, the students wanted their errors to be treated more than the teachers thought.

Figure 1. Mean Responses on the Necessity of Error Correction: Ss vs. Ts

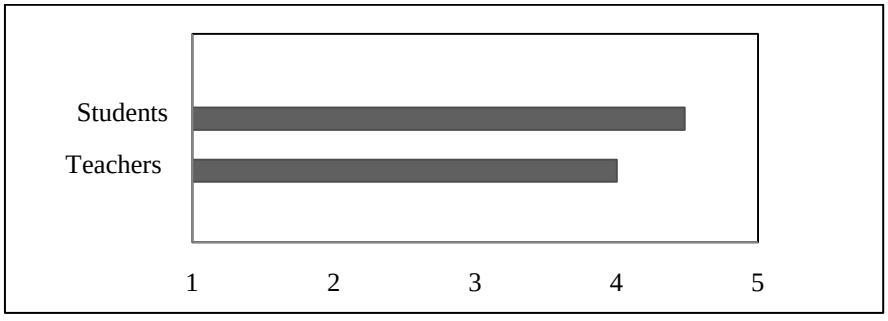

Table 2. Student/Teacher Responses on the Necessity of Error Correction

Groups	Necessity (%)				
	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Ss (n =160)	54	40	6	0	0
Ts (n = 18)	11	77	12	0	0

Table 3. Comparison of Responses on the Necessity of Error Correction: Ss vs. Ts

Groups	N	Mean	SD	T-value	*p*
Students	160	4.48	0.61		
				3.1709	0.0018***
Teachers	18	4.0	0.49		

*$p < 0.05$ **$p <$ 001 ***$p < 0.005$

4.1.2 Frequency of Error Correction

Question 2 asked students, “How often do you want your teacher to give corrective feedback on your spoken errors?” and teachers, “How often do you give corrective feedback on students’ spoken errors?” Responses to the question were also on a 5-point scale with “Always, Usually, Sometimes, Occasionally, or Never.” “Always” was worth 5 points, and “never” was worth 1 point.

Figure 2 displays the mean responses of the students (4.13) and teachers (3.33) regarding the frequency of error correction. A significant discrepancy between the students and teachers was found.

Table 4 provides the responses of the students and teachers to the frequency of error correction. Thirty-eight percent of the students thought that their spoken errors should be “always” corrected, whereas none of the teachers always corrected their students’ errors. Almost the same percentage of the students and teachers agreed that students’ spoken errors should be “usually” corrected, 41% and 44% respectively. There was 1% of the

students who thought that their errors should “never” be corrected while no teachers thought so. Table 5 indicates that there was a significant difference between the teachers and students ($p < 0.005$). The findings are similar to the previous findings in that students usually expect teachers to correct their errors more frequently (Ancker, 2000; Schulz, 1996, 2001).

Figure 2. Mean Responses on the Frequency of Error Correction: Ss vs. Ts

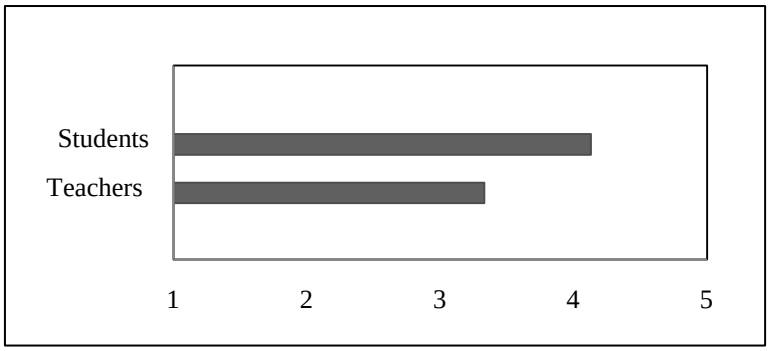

Table 4. Student/Teacher Responses on the Frequency of Error Correction

Groups	Frequency of Error Correction (%)				
	Always	usually	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
Students (n = 160)	38	41	17	3	1
Teachers (n = 18)		44	44	12	

Table 5. Comparison of Responses on the Frequency of Error Correction: Ss vs. Ts

Groups	N	Mean	SD	T-value	*p*
Students	160	4.13	0.85		
				3.8511	0.002***
Teachers	18	3.33	0.69		

*$p < 0.05$ **$p < 001$ ***$p < 0.005$

4.1.3 Timing of Error Correction

Questions 3 to 6 are related to the appropriate time to correct students' spoken errors. The category consists of four questions for students: (3) As soon as errors are made even if it interrupts my conversation, (4) After I finish speaking, (5) After the activities, and (6) At the end of class. For teachers, the category consists of four items: (3) As soon as errors are made even if it interrupts the student's speaking, (4) After the student finishes speaking, (5) After the activities, and (6) At the end of class. The students and teachers were asked to rate each question with "Always, Usually, Sometimes, Occasionally, or Never." "Always" was worth 5 points, and "never" was worth 1 point.

The students' and teachers' mean responses on the timing of error correction are illustrated in Figure 3. Of the four choices, "after the student finishes speaking" received the highest mean from the students and teachers, 3.84 and 4.0 respectively. "As soon as errors are made" received the lowest mean from the teachers (M = 2.33), whereas "at the end of class" received the lowest mean from the students (M = 2.98).

The survey results are illustrated in Table 6. For Question 3, over half of the students strongly agreed or agreed that their spoken errors should be corrected as soon as they are made even though it hinders the flow of conversation. On the contrary, only 11% of the teachers regarded correcting their students' errors right after they made them as the appropriate time. This finding suggests that interrupting their students' speaking in order to treat errors was not a good option for teachers. Unlike the students who were focused more on accuracy in their spoken English, the teachers regarded fluency as well as accuracy as a crucial factor for their students' development of speaking skills. As Table 7 illustrates, there was a significant difference between the students and teachers about providing corrective feedback as soon as the students made errors ($p < 0.001$). For Question 4, although there was no statistically significant difference between the students (69%) and teachers (88%), the difference was somewhat recognizable. The teachers considered "after the student finishes speaking" to be the most appropriate time to treat errors to a larger

extent than the students. For Question 5, almost the same percentage of the students and teachers regarded “after the activities” as the appropriate time to treat students’ spoken errors. Both the teachers and students believe that correcting spoken errors after students complete the communicative activities can enhance both accuracy and fluency since this allows the students to engage in communication without interruption caused by error treatment. There were discrepancies among the students in regard to correcting errors at the end of class. Thirty-six percent of the students strongly agreed or agreed that student errors should be corrected at the end of class, whereas 41% of the students disagreed or strongly disagreed. Likewise, a discrepancy among the teachers was also found in regard to correcting students’ errors at the end of class. Thirty-eight percent of the teachers agreed that correcting student errors at the end of class was good, while almost the same percentage of the teachers (39%) disagreed. Table 7 shows that the students and teachers had no statistically significant different opinions about when to treat spoken errors except for Question 3.

Figure 3. Mean Responses on the Timing of Error Correction: Ss vs. Ts

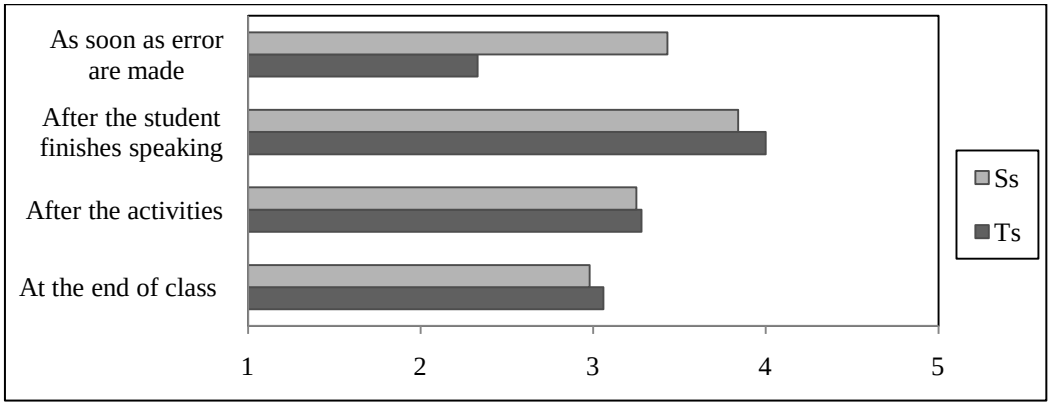

Table 6. Student/Teacher Responses on the Timing of Error Correction (%)

Timing of treatment	Groups	Strongly agree/ Agree	Neutral	Disagree/ Strongly disagree
As soon as errors	Ss	52	24	24
are made	Ts	11	17	72
After I finish	Ss	69	23	8
speaking	Ts	88	11	0
	Ss	47	24	26
After the activities	Ts	50	28	22
	Ss	36	23	41
At the end of class	Ts	38	23	39

Ss (n = 160) Ts (n = 18)

Table 7. Comparison of Responses on the Timing of Error Correction: Ss vs. Ts

Timing of treatment	Groups	Mean	SD	T-value	*p*
As soon as errors are made	Ss	3.43	1.11	4.698	< 0.0001 ***
	Ts	2.33	0.77		
After I finish speaking	Ss	3.84	0.92	0.70	0.48
	Ts	4.0	0.49		
After the activities	Ss	3.25	1.05	0.1088	0.914
	Ts	3.28	0.83		
At the end of class	Ss	2.98	1.22	0.2693	0.788
	Ts	3.06	1.00		

*$p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$ ***$p < 0.005$, Ss (n = 160) Ts (n = 18)

4.1.4 Types of Errors that Need to Be Treated

The questions in the fourth category asked which types of errors should be corrected by the teachers. The category consists of five types of errors: serious spoken errors, less

serious errors, frequent errors, infrequent errors, and individual errors. The students and teachers were asked to rate each question with “Always,” “Usually,” “Sometimes,” Occasionally,” or “Never.” “Always” was worth 5 points, and “never” was worth 1 point.

As Figure 4 illustrates, Question 7, “Serious spoken errors that may cause problems in a listener’s understanding” received the highest mean from both the students and teachers. Comparing the students and teachers, the mean of the student responses in every question, except the one regarding serious errors, was higher than that of the teachers. Overall, the findings indicate that the students wanted more error correction regardless of the types of errors than teachers did.

Table 8 shows the percentage of the students’ and teachers’ responses to Questions 7 through 11. All of the teachers responded that students’ serious spoken errors should be always or usually treated, whereas 71% of the students wanted their serious spoken errors to be treated always or usually, and 22% of the students wanted their serious spoken errors to be treated sometimes. In general, the teachers treated their students’ errors less frequently than the students expected; however, the teachers showed a strong preference for correcting serious spoken errors that may cause problems in a listener’s understanding. It is not possible for a teacher to correct all the errors made by students in a classroom setting. Taking this into consideration, it is natural for teachers to focus on the most important errors that can cause misunderstanding between the speaker and listener. This finding shows that the teachers consider that being understood by the listener is the most important factor for ESL learners to convey their thoughts and keep conversation going. By treating serious errors, the teachers can help their students decrease misunderstanding between the speaker and listener and increase the students’ awareness of using target-like forms in their speaking. Unlike the teachers, the students did not seem to take their serious errors gravely. While both the teachers and students had a similar opinion about frequent errors, they showed a discrepancy in treating infrequent errors. Forty-two percent of the students wanted corrective feedback always or usually on their infrequent errors, but only

6% of the teachers usually provide their students with corrective feedback on the infrequent errors. Table 9 shows a significant difference between the teachers and students. The finding indicates that teachers are more focused on more frequent errors made by their students rather than infrequent errors. Another significant difference was also found between the two groups in Question 11, which asked about correcting students' individual errors. Thirty-four percent of the students always wanted their individual errors to be treated, but none of the teachers always corrected individual errors made by only one student. Sixty-two percent of the students always or usually wanted their individual errors to be treated by their teacher, whereas only 11% of the teachers usually treated this type of error. Given the findings, teachers focus more on serious spoken errors than individual errors. It is not realistic to expect that teachers provide their students with corrective feedback on individual errors in a classroom setting. These findings indicate that teachers focus more on serious and frequent errors made by their students rather than correcting infrequent and less serious errors. By focusing on serious and frequent spoken errors, teachers can help their students enhance both accuracy and fluency.

Figure 4. Mean Responses on the Types of Errors that Need to Be Treated: Ss vs. Ts

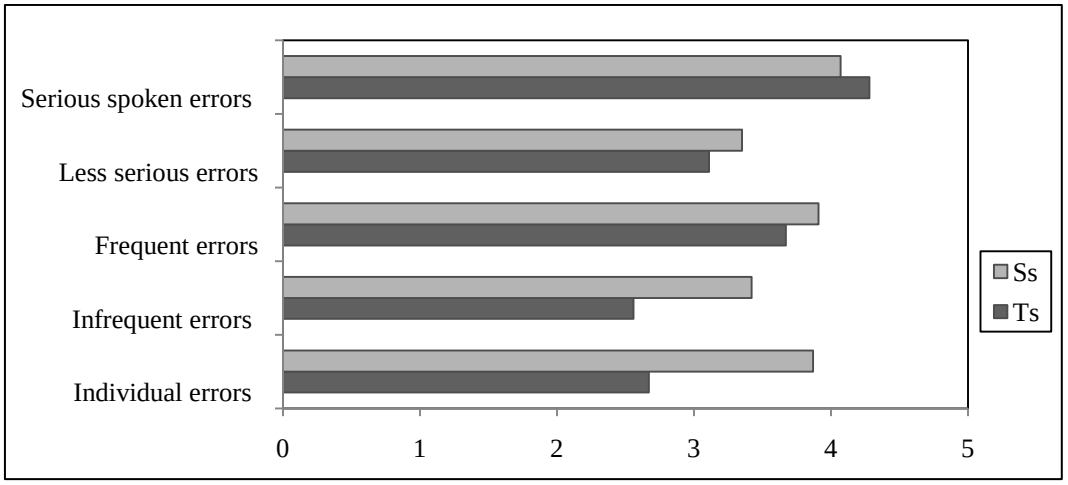

Table 8. Student/Teacher Responses on the Types of Errors that Need to Be Treated (%)

	Always		Usually		Sometimes		Occasionally		Never	
Types of errors	Ss	Ts	Ss	Ts	Ss	Ts	Ss	Ts	Ss	Ts
Serious	42	28	29	72	22	0	6	0	1	0
Less serious	12	0	31	28	37	55	19	17	1	0
Frequent	28	5	40	67	26	22	5	6	1	0
Infrequent	13	0	29	6	47	50	10	39	1	5
Individual	34	0	28	11	28	50	9	34	1	5

Ss (n = 160) Ts (n = 18)

Table 9. Comparison of Responses on the Types of Errors that Need to Be Treated: Ss vs. Ts

Types of errors	Groups	Mean	SD	T-value	*p*
Serious	Ss	4.07	0.98		
	Ts	4.28	0.46	0.8935	> 0.05
Less serious	Ss	3.35	0.94		
	Ts	3.11	0.68	1.0472	> 0.05
Frequent	Ss	3.91	0.89		
	Ts	3.67	0.84	1.0899	> 0.05
Infrequent	Ss	3.42	0.89		
	Ts	2.56	0.70	3.9588	0.0001***
Individual	Ss	3.87	0.01		
	Ts	2.67	0.77	4.8877	0.0001***

*$p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$ ***$p < 0.005$, Ss (n = 160) Ts (n = 18)

4.1.5 Method of Corrective Feedback

The fifth category asked the students and teachers about their preferences for types of corrective feedback. The category consists of eight methods of corrective feedback, including clarification request, repetition, implicit feedback, explicit feedback, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, recasts, and no corrective feedback. The students and teachers were asked to rate each item on a 5-point scale, from “Very effective” to “Very ineffective.” “Very effective” was worth 5 points, and “very ineffective” was worth 1 point.

Figure 5 shows the mean responses of students and teachers to each of the eight types of corrective feedback and their preferences for them. Elicitation (M = 3.74) and explicit feedback (M = 3.7) had the highest mean among the students, whereas explicit feedback (M = 3.78) and repetition (M = 3.67) had the highest mean among the teachers. No corrective feedback had the lowest mean among both the teachers and students. These findings show that both the students and teachers value corrective feedback on spoken errors. Table 10 presents a percentage compilation of student and teacher responses. Explicit feedback and elicitation were the most favored methods of corrective feedback among the students, and an almost equal percentage of the students rated the methods as very effective or effective, 64% and 66% respectively. The findings indicate that the students wanted their teachers’ explicit corrective feedback on their non-target-like utterances, but on the contrary, they also wanted to have an opportunity to come up with the target-like language forms by themselves rather than entirely depending on their teachers’ help. Explicit feedback helps the students learn what the target-like form is by directly pointing out the error, whereas elicitation can help them develop self-editorial skills by providing the students with time to think about the target form. The findings suggest that the students might expect their teachers to know and use various types of corrective feedback in a flexible way that suits their current proficiency level regarding the target item. For instance, if the students make errors that they can correct by themselves, they prefer their teachers to simply guide them to notice the ill-formed utterances so that

they can restate the utterances with the target-like forms by themselves. In that case, the teachers' explicit comments on the error can keep their students from consolidating their relevant knowledge on their own and moving on to the next level of automatization. In other words, the teachers' explicit feedback may deny students' opportunities to produce "pushed output" (Swain & Lapkin, 1995), which is believed to be beneficial to acquisition. On the other hand, if the errors are beyond the students' current level, they want their teachers' direct and explicit error correction. Overall, the students' apparently contradictory responses seem to indicate their expectations of the teachers' moment-by-moment flexible treatment of their errors.

There were discrepancies between students' and teachers' preferences for the methods of error correction (see Table 10). Unlike the students, repetition was the most favored method and explicit feedback was the second most favored type of corrective feedback among the teachers. The results show that a higher percentage of the teachers rated explicit feedback as a more effective method than elicitation, which suggests that the teachers believe that directly pointing out their students' errors and providing the correct forms are more effective than encouraging them to find the target-like forms by elicitation. The teachers might want to guide their students to recognize non-target-like utterances without confusion. Seventy-seven percent of the teachers regarded repetition as effective corrective feedback, whereas only 53% of the students rated the method as effective. The finding indicates that the teachers believed that repetition can allow their students to think about their utterances once more, so that they can notice an error they made in their speaking. The students did not regard repetition as an effective feedback type to help them find the target-like forms to the same degree as teachers. From a student's perspectives, repetition can be confusing because it might not always be clear whether the teacher is repeating the student's utterance to indicate the problem or to acknowledge the content.

The highest discrepancy between the students' and teachers' responses was on metalinguistic feedback, and a statistically significant difference was found ($p < 0.005$).

Thirty-eight percent of the students responded that metalinguistic feedback was effective, whereas no teachers regarded it as effective. The finding suggests that some students believe that they can benefit from their teachers' explanations on their errors because it can help them notice what makes their utterances ungrammatical. On the other hand, teachers may not consider this as an ideal type of corrective feedback in a classroom setting. There were discrepancies between the students and teachers regarding no corrective feedback. Interestingly, 78% of the teachers rated no corrective feedback as ineffective, and no teachers regarded it as effective, whereas 60% of the students rated it as ineffective, and 15% of the students rated it as effective. Given that 94% of the students agreed with the statement "I want to receive corrective feedback when I make mistakes," the findings indicate the students' inconsistent opinions about error correction. The same percentage of the students (53%) rated repetition and recasts as effective methods of error correction. Conversely, a high discrepancy was found among the teachers regarding the effectiveness of repetition and recasts on their students' spoken errors. Specifically, 77% of the teachers regarded repetition as effective, whereas only 33% of them considered recasts as effective feedback. Also, regarding the effectiveness of explicit feedback and elicitation, almost an equal percentage of the students rated the two methods as effective, whereas more teachers rated explicit feedback (72%) as an effective method over elicitation (67%). Although there were no statistically significant differences between the two groups in opinions about explicit feedback, the findings show the teachers' and students' different opinions on corrective feedback.

Figure 5. Mean Responses on the Methods of Corrective Feedback: Ss vs. Ts

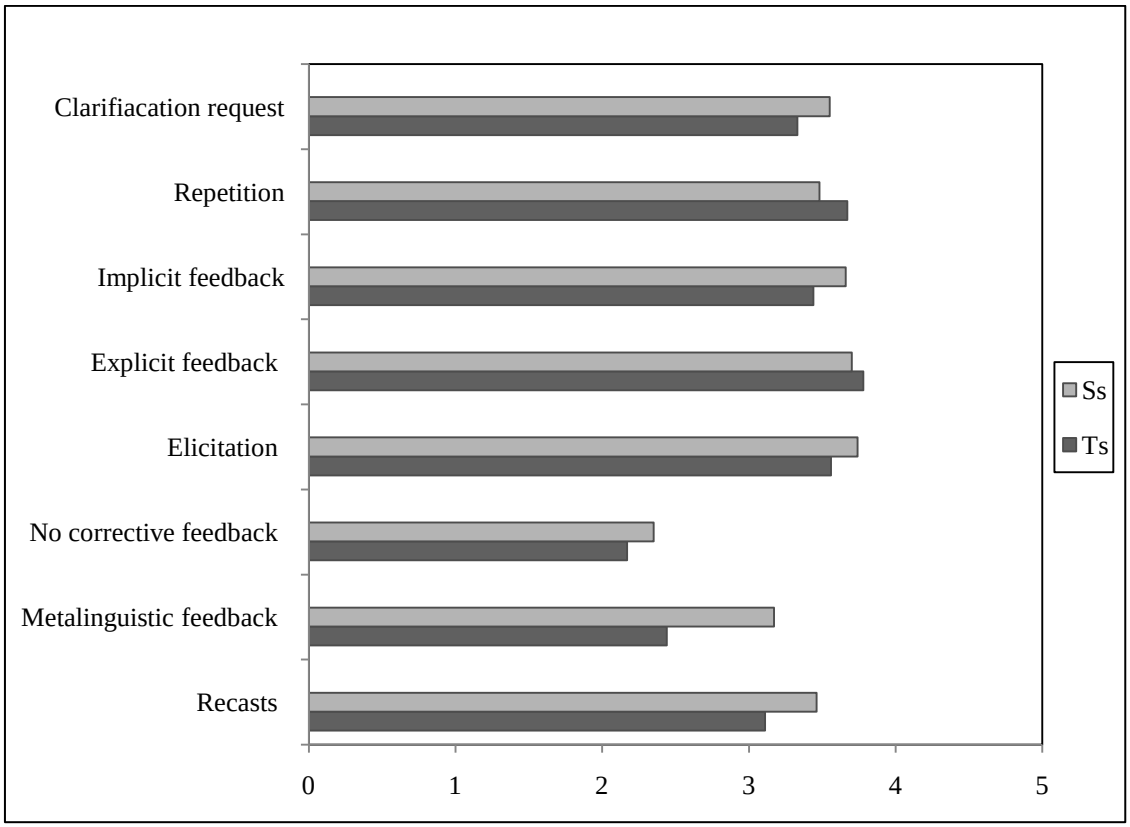

Table 10. Student/Teacher Responses on the Methods of Corrective Feedback (%)

Types of Feedback	Groups	Very effective/ effective	Neutral	Ineffective/very ineffective
Clarification request	Ss	56	29	15
	Ts	44	44	12
Repetition	Ss	53	32	15
	Ts	77	6	17
Implicit feedback	Ss	60	22	18
	Ts	55	28	17
Explicit feedback	Ss	64	21	15
	Ts	72	23	5
Elicitation	Ss	66	20	14
	Ts	67	22	11
No corrective feedback	Ss	15	25	60
	Ts	0	22	78
Metalinguistic feedback	Ss	38	35	27
	Ts	0	61	39
Recasts	Ss	53	29	18
	Ts	33	39	28

Ss (n = 160) Ts (n = 18)

Table 11. Comparison of Responses on the Methods of Corrective Feedback: Ss vs. Ts

Types of corrective feedback	Groups	Mean	SD	T-value	*p*
Clarification request	Ss	3.55	0.98		
	Ts	3.33	0.69	0.9152	> 0.05
Repetition	Ss	3.48	0.95		
	Ts	3.67	0.84	0.7923	> 0.05
Implicit feedback	Ss	3.66	0.09		
	Ts	3.44	0.20	0.7923	> 0.05
Explicit feedback	Ss	3.7	1.11		
	Ts	3.78	0.73	0.2901	> 0.05
Elicitation	Ss	3.74	0.98		
	Ts	3.56	0.70	0.7916	> 0.05
No corrective feedback	Ss	2.35	1.09		
	Ts	2.17	0.51	0.7008	> 0.05
Metalinguistic feedback	Ss	3.17	1.01		
	Ts	2.44	0.78	2.9396	0.0037***
Recasts	Ss	3.46	1.04		
	Ts	3.11	0.21	1.3524	> 0.05

*$p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$ ***$p < 0.005$, Ss (n= 160) Ts (n = 18)

4.1.6 Delivering Agents of Error Correction

The last group of questions asked the students who should correct their errors. The statement in the question was “The following person should treat students’ errors.” There were three choices: classmates, teachers, and students themselves. The three questions attempted to elicit opinions regarding the value of peer-correction, teacher-correction, and self-correction. The students and teachers were asked to rate each question with “Strongly agree,” “Agree,” “Neutral,” “Disagree,” “Strongly disagree.” “Strongly agree” was worth 5 points, and “strongly disagree” was worth 1 point.

Figure 6 illustrates the means of students' and teachers' responses on delivering agents of error correction. Teachers received the highest mean from both the students (M = 4.47) and teachers (M = 4.34). As Table 12 illustrates, both the teachers and students regarded teachers as the most appropriate people to correct student errors, 94% and 91% respectively; therefore, there was no significant difference between the two groups. Also, there was no discrepancy in opinions of peer-correction between the teachers and students. The finding indicates that the mean of peer-correction was the lowest among the three choices; that is, both the teachers and students did not strongly believe in the effectiveness of error correction delivered by classmates. For self-correction, 71% of the students and 89% of the teachers strongly agreed or agreed that students should correct their own errors by themselves. Even though a statistically significant difference was not found between the two groups, the teachers valued self-correction more than the students did. The findings indicate that the teachers and students preferred self-correction to peer-correction.

Figure 6. Mean Responses on the Delivering Agents: Ss vs. Ts

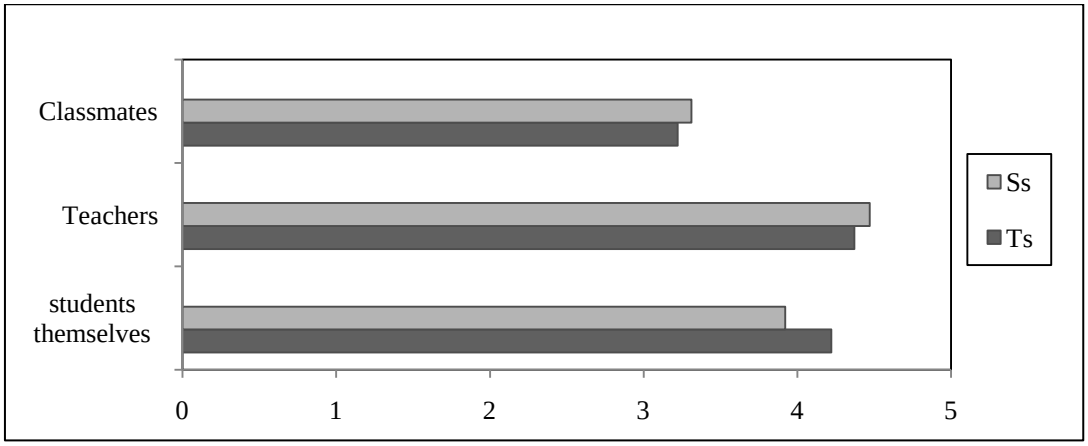

Table 12. Students/Teachers Responses on the Delivering Agents (%)

Agents		Strongly agree/Agree	Neutral	Disagree/ Strongly disagree
Classmates	Ss	46	38	16
	Ts	44	39	17
Teachers	Ss	91	8	1
	Ts	94	6	0
Students	Ss	71	21	8
themselves	Ts	89	11	0

Ss (n = 160) Ts (n = 18)

Table 13. Comparison of Responses on the Delivering Agents: Ss vs. Ts

		Mean	SD	T-value	*p*
Classmates	Ss	3.31	0.85	0.0423	> 0.05
	Ts	3.22	0.88		
Teachers	Ss	4.47	0.67	0.048	> 0.05
	Ts	4.37	0.61		
Students	Ss	3.92	0.94	1.3264	> 0.05
themselves	Ts	4.22	0.65		

*$p < 0.05$, Ss (n= 160) Ts (n = 18)

4.2 High Anxiety Group vs. Low Anxiety Group

According to the language anxiety scores, 140 student participants were placed in either a high anxiety group or a low anxiety group. This section reports on the responses from the high anxiety and low anxiety groups with regard to the preferences for error correction.

4.2.1 Necessity of Error Correction

Figure 7 shows the mean responses of the high and low anxiety groups. The high

anxiety group (M = 4.53) and low anxiety group (M = 4.49) had almost the same mean, and there was no significant difference between the two groups regarding the perception of the necessity of error correction.

Table 14 provides the responses of the high and low anxiety groups to the necessity of error correction. Ninety-four percent of the students both in the high and low anxiety groups responded “strongly agree” or “agree” on Question 1. As illustrated in Table 15, a significantly different opinion about the necessity of error treatment was not found between the high and low anxiety groups. No students in either group disagreed with the statement. The findings show that the students in the two groups wanted their errors to be corrected. In other words, the students in both groups had strong opinions about the importance of error correction regardless of their level of anxiety in speaking English.

Figure 7. Mean Responses on the Necessity of Error Correction: HA vs. LA

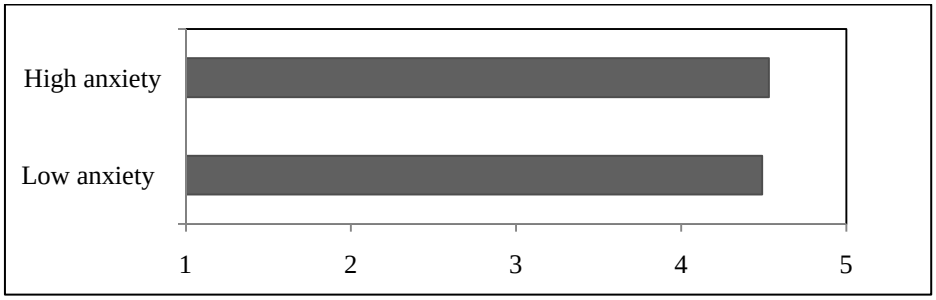

Table 14. High/Low Anxiety Group Responses on the Necessity of Error Correction

Groups	Necessity (%)				
	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
HA (n = 70)	58	36	6	0	0
LA (n = 70)	54	40	6	0	0

Table 15. Comparison of Responses on the Necessity of Error Correction: HA vs. LA

Groups	N	Mean	SD	T-value	*p*
HA	70	4.53	0.61		
				0.4174	> 0.05
LA	70	4.49	0.61		

*$p < 0.05$

4.2.2 Frequency of Error Correction

Figure 8 shows the mean responses of the high and low anxiety groups in regard to the frequency of error correction. The two groups had almost the same mean: high anxiety group, 4.10; low anxiety group, 4.19, which shows that the two groups shared the same opinion about the frequency of error correction.

Comparing the students in the high anxiety group and the students in the low anxiety group, there were no significant differences regarding the frequency of error correction (see Table 17). As illustrated in Table 16, 79% of the students in the high anxiety group and approximately the same percentage of the students (81%) in the low anxiety group responded that they wanted their teachers to at least usually give correct feedback on their spoken errors. Overall, the results indicate that the majority of the students, regardless of their anxiety levels, were conscious of their spoken errors, so they wanted their errors to be corrected by their teachers most of the time.

Figure 8. Mean Responses on the Frequency of Error Correction: HA vs. LA

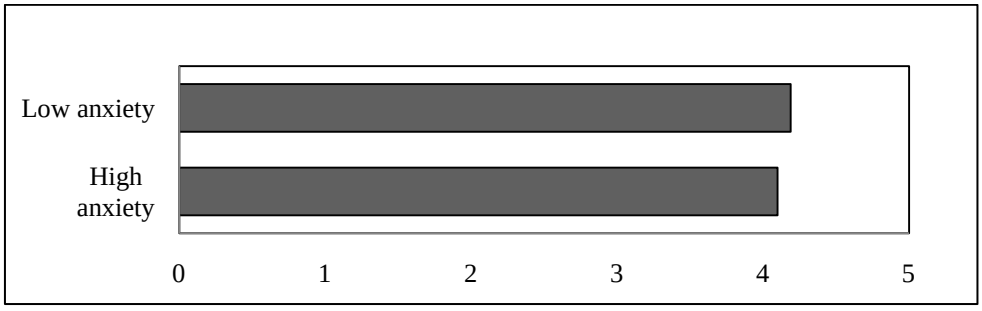

Table 16. High/Low Anxiety Group Responses on the Frequency of Error Correction

Groups	Frequency of Error Correction (%)				
	Always	usually	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
HA (n=70)	39	40	13	7	1
LA (n =70)	40	41	17		2

Table 17. Comparison of Responses on the Frequency of Error Correction: HA vs. LA

Groups	N	Mean	SD	T-value	*p*
HA	70	4.10	0.90		
				0.5873	> 0.05
LA	70	4.19	0.82		

*$p < 0.05$

4.2.3 Timing of Error Correction

Figure 9 shows the high and low anxiety group mean responses on the timing of error treatment. “After the student finishes speaking” received the highest mean from the high anxiety group (M = 3.87) and the low anxiety group (M = 3.80), and the mean responses were almost the same. Of the four choices, “At the end of class” received the lowest mean responses from the two groups: high anxiety group (M = 3.13) and low anxiety group (M = 2.79).

The opinions of the students in the high and low anxiety groups about the appropriate timing of error correction are illustrated in Table 18. Over 50% of the students in the high and low anxiety groups strongly agreed or agreed that their spoken errors should be corrected immediately even though the corrective feedback interrupts the conversation. On the other hand, 73% of the students in the high anxiety group and 64% of the students in

the low anxiety group regarded “after they finish speaking” as the most appropriate time for their teachers to treat their spoken errors. The results indicate that the students in both groups wanted to receive treatment after they completed their speaking without any interruption caused by corrective feedback. Immediate error treatment can interrupt the flow of communication and even make students feel embarrassed or afraid of making errors. The students did not favor delayed error correction.

Sixty percent of the students in the high anxiety group considered “after the activities” as the appropriate time for their errors to be treated, whereas only 36% of the students in the low anxiety group regarded it as the appropriate time. Although there was no significant difference between the two groups regarding timing of error correction (see Table19), the difference was somewhat noticeable. For Question 6, 43% of the students in the high anxiety group considered correcting their errors at the end of class as the appropriate time, whereas 36% of the students in the high anxiety group strongly disagreed or disagreed. Like the high anxiety group, 29% of the students in the low anxiety group regarded “At the end of class” as the appropriate time for their teachers to treat their errors, whereas 48% of the students in the low anxiety group considered the timing as inappropriate. The findings show that even students in the same anxiety group had different opinions about when to treat their spoken errors..

Figure 9. Mean Responses on the Timing of Error Correction: HA vs. LA

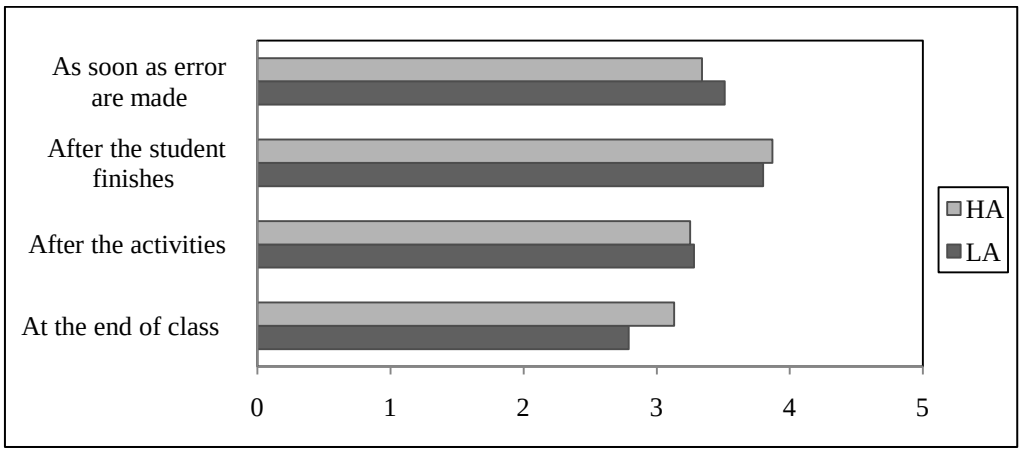

Table 18. High/Low Anxiety Group Responses on the Timing of Error Correction (%)

Timing of treatment	Groups	Strongly agree/ Agree	Neutral	Disagree/ Strongly disagree
As soon as errors	HA	55	18	27
are made	LA	51	27	22
After I finish speaking	HA	73	19	8
	LA	64	26	10
After the activities	HA	60	17	23
	LA	36	32	32
At the end of class	HA	43	21	36
	LA	29	23	48

HA (n = 70) LA (n = 70)

Table 19. Comparison of Responses on the Timing of Error Correction: HA vs. LA

Types of treatment	Groups	Mean	SD	T-value	*p*
As soon as errors	HA	3.34	1.09	0.8949	> 0.05
are made	LA	3.51	1.18		
After I finish	HA	3.87	0.92	0.4439	> 0.05
speaking	LA	3.80	0.49		
After the activities	HA	3.25	1.05	0.1875	> 0.05
	LA	3.28	0.83		
At the end of class	HA	3.13	1.21	1.6457	> 0.05
	LA	2.79	1.25		

HA (n = 70) LA (n = 70)

4.2.4 Types of Errors that Need to Be Treated

As Figure 10 shows, of the five types of errors, “serious spoken errors that may cause problems in a listener’s understanding” had the highest mean from the students in the low anxiety group (M = 4.16), whereas “frequent errors” had the highest mean from the high anxiety group (M = 3.97). Both “frequent errors” and “individual errors” had almost the same mean from both the high and low anxiety groups. “Infrequent errors” had the lowest mean from the two groups. The findings show that as a speaker, the students were aware of the importance of being understood by the listener without misinterpretation in order to keep the conversation going. At the same time, the students also expect their teachers to point out individual errors regardless of their anxiety levels.

Table 20 shows that 64% of the students in the high anxiety group and 79% of the students in the low anxiety group wanted serious errors to be always or usually treated. Seventy-four percent of the students in the high anxiety group and 67% of the students in the low anxiety group wanted their frequent errors to be always or usually corrected. For Question 11, 71% of the students in the high anxiety group and 58% of the students in the low anxiety group wanted their individual errors to be always or usually treated. Half of the students both in the high and low anxiety groups wanted their less serious errors to be always or usually corrected. Less than half of the students in both groups wanted their infrequent errors to be corrected always or usually. Of the five questions asking about which types of errors should be treated, the students in both groups had similar opinions. Thus, there was no significant difference between the two groups (see Table 21).

Figure 10. Mean Responses on the Types of Errors that Need to Be Treated: HA vs. LA

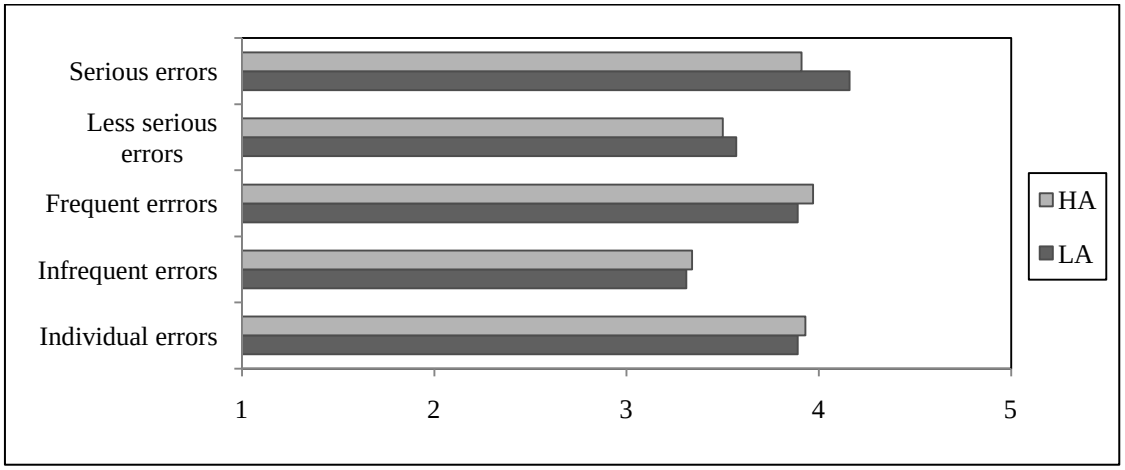

Table 20. High/Low Anxiety Group Responses on the Types of Errors that Need to Be Treated (%)

Types of errors	Always		Usually		Sometimes		Occasionally		Never	
	HA	LA	HA	LA	HA	LA	HA	LA	HA	LA
Serious	38	49	26	30	26	10	9	11	1	0
Less serious	10	16	40	36	40	40	10	7	0	1
Frequent	30	28	44	39	21	26	4	7	1	0
Infrequent	14	13	24	30	43	36	19	19	0	3
Individual	33	40	38	18	19	31	9	10	1	0

HA (n = 70) LA (n = 70)

Table 21. Comparison of Responses on the Types of Errors that Need to Be Treated: HA vs. LA

Types of errors	Groups	Mean	SD	T-value	*p*
Serious	HA	3.91	1.06	1.3838	> 0.05
	LA	4.16	1.02		
Less serious	HA	3.50	0.81	0.4948	> 0.05
	LA	3.57	0.89		
Frequent	HA	3.97	0.90	0.5603	> 0.05
	LA	3.89	0.91		
Infrequent	HA	3.34	0.95	0.1728	> 0.05
	LA	3.31	0.11		
Individual	HA	3.93	1.00	0.2467	> 0.05
	LA	3.89	1.06		

*$p < 0.05$, HA (n = 70) LA (n = 70)

4.2.5 Method of Corrective Feedback

As Figure 11 illustrates, there were differences of opinion between the high and low anxiety groups about the methods of error correction. Their rank order was slightly different. The students in the high anxiety group rated explicit feedback (M = 3.80) as the most effective type of feedback and elicitation (M = 3.76) as the second most effective, whereas the students in the low anxiety group regarded elicitation as the most effective and explicit feedback (M = 3.74) as the second most effective (M = 3.66). No corrective feedback was the least popular method among the students in both groups. The students in the high anxiety group regarded metalinguistic feedback (M = 3.16) as the second least effective, whereas the students in the low anxiety group regarded recasts (M = 3.11) as the second least effective corrective feedback.

As Table 22 displays, the percentage of responses to each method was very similar. Sixty-seven percent of the students in the high anxiety group regarded explicit feedback as

effective, and the method was the most popular type of corrective feedback. Sixty-one percent of the students in the low anxiety group regarded the method as effective, and the method was second in the low anxiety group. The same percentage of the students (64%) in both groups rated elicitation as an effective type of corrective feedback. Elicitation was rated as an effective type of corrective feedback by the highest percentage of the students in the low anxiety group, whereas the method was rated as effective by the third highest percentage of the students in the high anxiety group. Sixty-five percent of the students in the high anxiety group rated implicit feedback as an effective method, whereas 57% of the students in the low anxiety group viewed the method as effective. Among the students in the high anxiety group, implicit feedback (65%) was regarded as the second most effective type of corrective feedback.

Fifty-nine percent of the students in the two groups viewed no corrective feedback as ineffective. This finding shows that not all of the students view “no corrective feedback” as an ineffective method although the feedback type was the least popular among the students regardless of their anxiety levels. The finding suggests that the students may value the time they can practice their speaking in class without correction. Given the fact that some students can notice their spoken errors right after they make mistakes, no corrective feedback is sometimes useful. Sixty percent of the students in the high anxiety group regarded clarification request as an effective type of corrective feedback, and the method was the fourth most popular type of corrective feedback among the students in the high anxiety group. On the contrary, recasts (56%) were the fourth most popular feedback type among the students in the low anxiety group and clarification request (54%) was the fifth most popular method among the students in the low anxiety group. Interestingly, discrepancies among the students in the same group were found in responses to the effectiveness of metalinguistic feedback on their errors. For instance, the students in both groups were divided into two groups regarding the effectiveness of metalinguistic feedback. In the low anxiety group, 46% of the students rated metalinguistic feedback as ineffective,

whereas 37% of the students rated the method as effective. Likewise, in the high anxiety group, 24% of the students rated the method as ineffective, whereas 38% of the students rated the method as effective. In comparison to the high anxiety group, the low anxiety group does not seem to care for their teachers' linguistic hint or clue without directly pointing out their errors. Table 23 illustrates the differences between the high and low anxiety groups, and no statistically significant differences were found. That is, the student participants have similar opinions about the methods of corrective feedback.

Figure 11. Mean Responses on the Methods of Corrective Feedback: HA vs. LA

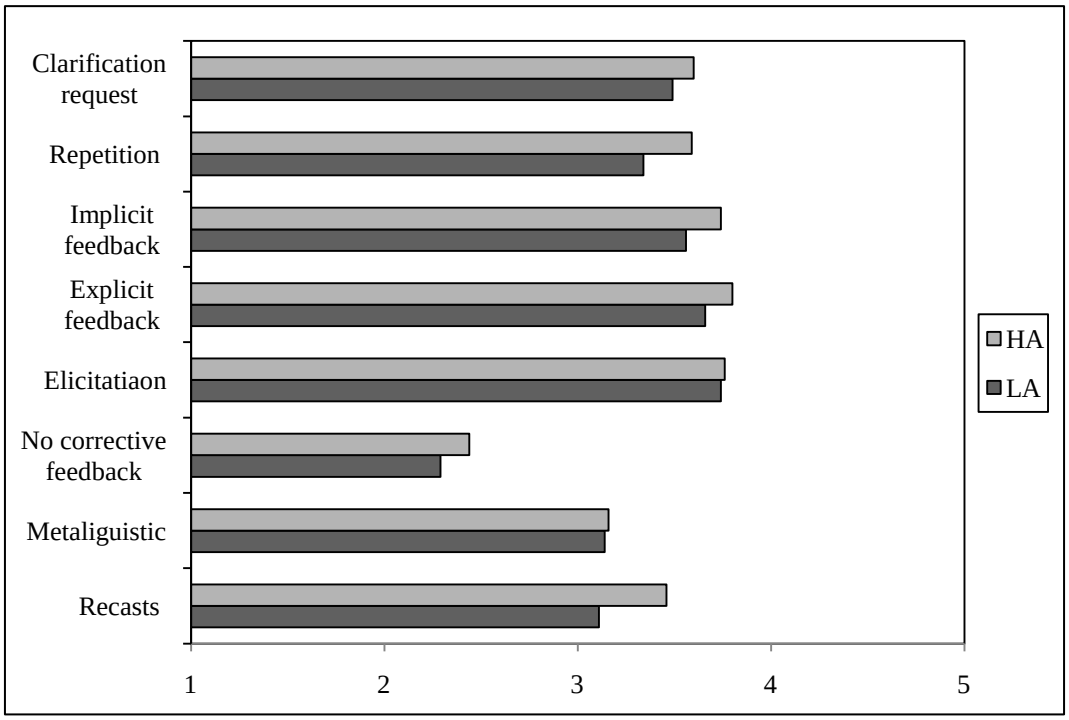

Table 22. High/Low Anxiety Group Responses on the Methods of Corrective Feedback (%)

Types of Feedback	Groups	Very effective/ effective	Neutral	Ineffective/very ineffective
Clarification request	HA	60	30	10
	LA	54	26	20
Repetition	HA	54	34	12
	LA	50	29	21
Implicit feedback	HA	65	19	16
	LA	57	19	24
Explicit feedback	HA	67	21	12
	LA	61	19	20
Elicitation	HA	64	26	10
	LA	64	18	18
No corrective feedback	HA	17	24	59
	LA	14	27	59
Metalinguistic feedback	HA	38	38	24
	LA	37	27	46
Recasts	HA	53	29	18
	LA	56	24	20

HA (n = 70) LA (n = 70)

Table 23. Comparison of Responses on the Methods of Corrective Feedback: HA vs. LA

Types of feedback	Groups	Mean	SD	T-value	*p*
Clarification request	HA	3.60	0.91		
	LA	3.49	1.06	0.6854	> 0.05
Repetition	HA	3.59	0.94		
	LA	3.34	1.02	1.4649	> 0.05
Implicit feedback	HA	3.74	1.00		
	LA	3.56	1.25	0.9711	> 0.05
Explicit feedback	HA	3.80	1.03		
	LA	3.66	1.21	0.7506	> 0.05
Elicitation	HA	3.76	0.91		
	LA	3.74	1.09	0.0844	> 0.05
No corrective feedback	HA	2.44	1.11		
	LA	2.29	0.14	0.8248	> 0.05
Metalinguistic feedback	HA	3.16	1.00		
	LA	3.14	1.13	0.0790	> 0.05
Recasts	HA	3.46	1.04		
	LA	3.11	0.21	0.0778	> 0.05

*$p < 0.05$, HA (n = 70) LA (n = 70)

4.2.6 Delivering Agents of Error Correction

Figure 12 shows the mean responses of the students in the high anxiety and low anxiety groups on the delivering agents of error correction. Teachers were the most favored agent in the two groups regardless of their level of anxiety. Of the three types of delivering

agent of error correction, classmates were the least favored agent among the students both in the high (M = 3.44) and low anxiety groups (M = 3.06). The findings indicate that the students most highly valued their teachers' error correction, and they valued their own error correction over peer correction.

As Table 24 shows, at least 90% of the students in both groups agreed that teachers should correct their students' errors. There was a difference between the two groups regarding self-correction. Seventy-six percent of the students in the high anxiety group agreed that they should correct their own errors by themselves, whereas 65% of the students in the low anxiety group agreed with the choice. Although there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups, it is worth noticing that more anxious students valued self-correction. There was a significant discrepancy between the two groups regarding opinions about receiving error treatment from their classmates (see Table 25). Fifty-one percent of the students in the high anxiety group agreed that their classmates should correct their spoken errors, whereas only 27% of the students in the low anxiety group agreed with the choice. This finding shows that more anxious students are more open to the corrective feedback from various agents, such as teachers, peers, and themselves, than less anxious students. This indicates that more anxious students are more concerned about accuracy than less anxious students. Thus, their anxiety level increases when they speak English in class.

Figure 12. Mean Responses on the Delivering Agents: HA vs. LA

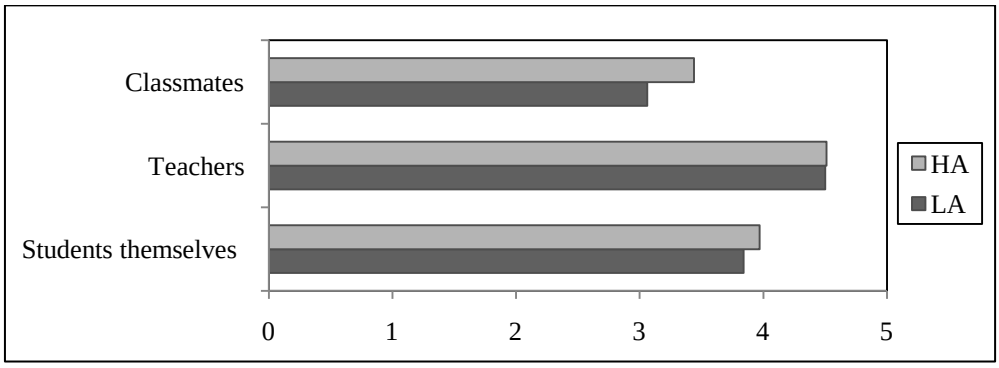

Table 24. High/Low Anxiety Group Responses on the Delivering Agents (%)

Agent		Strongly agree/ Agree	Neutral	Disagree/ Strongly disagree
Classmates	HA	51	37	12
	LA	27	49	24
Teachers	HA	95	4	1
	LA	90	10	0
Students	HA	76	20	4
themselves	LA	65	21	14

HA (n = 70) LA (n = 70)

Table 25. Comparison of Responses on the Delivering Agents: HA vs. LA

		Mean	SD	T-value	*p*
Classmates	HA	3.44	0.75	2.6155	0.009**
	LA	3.06	0.98		
Teachers	HA	4.51	0.65	0.1271	> 0.05
	LA	4.50	0.68		
Students	HA	3.97	0.10	0.7742	> 0.05
themselves	LA	3.84	1.10		

*$p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$, HA (n = 70) LA (n = 70)

4.3 Summary and Discussion

Some researchers argue that error treatment may not be beneficial for L2 learners to acquire target forms if they are not ready to learn (e.g., Krashen, 1982). Other researchers argue that error correction on students' spoken errors plays an important role in second language learning (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Based on the previous studies on error correction, this study investigated students' and teachers'

opinions about error correction and their preferences for types of error correction in ESL classrooms. In addition, this study examined the relationship between anxiety and preferences for error correction by including language anxiety in the questionnaire for students. Three questionnaires were used to examine the two study questions: two questionnaires for students and one questionnaire for teachers. The two questionnaires for students included questions on error correction and language anxiety. The questionnaires on error correction consisted of six categories, asking students' and teachers' opinions about error correction.

4.3.1 Students vs. Teachers

The results show that the majority of both the students (94%) and teachers (88%) agreed that students' spoken errors need to be corrected. However, the need for error correction seems to be perceived more strongly by the students than by the teachers. Fifty-four percent of the students strongly agreed with the statement "I want to receive corrective feedback when I make mistakes," whereas only 11% of the teachers strongly agreed with the corresponding statement. The difference between the two groups is statistically significant, and it indicates that students want to receive more error treatment than their teachers think.

For the second question regarding the frequency of error correction, an extremely significant difference was found between the students and teachers ($p < 0.005$). Thirty-eight percent of the students responded that their errors should be treated always, whereas no teachers marked "always." Seventy-nine percent of the students thought that their errors should be at least usually corrected, whereas 44% of the teachers responded that they usually correct their student errors. Like Schulz's (1996) study, the students' attitude toward error correction was more favorable than their teachers' attitude. Language learners wanted more correction than they were receiving from their teachers. Although overcorrection may discourage students from speaking, students' unmet expectation of error correction from their teachers may have a negative effect and discourage them from

striving to improve their speaking skills.

In the third category, the questions asked about the timing of error correction. An extremely significant difference between the students and teachers was found in regard to correcting errors as soon as students made them ($p < 0.0001$). Fifty-two percent of the students agreed with the statement "As soon as errors are made even if it interrupts my speaking," whereas only 11% of the teachers agreed with this. The teachers' response might be related to their concern that their immediate correction can be disruptive and even discourage students from participating in class discussion actively. Both the students (69%) and teachers (88%) regarded correcting spoken errors after students finish speaking as the most appropriate time. However, it should be noted that a significantly higher percentage of the teachers agreed with the statement than the students. The big gap between the two groups may be due to the teachers' beliefs that students can benefit more from delayed feedback that allows them to finish the message they are trying to convey. In so doing, the teachers can avoid interrupting their students in the middle of a sentence and also prevent the students from losing willingness to speak in class. This finding indicates that teachers are more concerned with L2 learners' ability to convey their ideas than with their ability to speak in perfectly well-formed sentences.

It is interesting to note the disagreement among the students regarding correcting their errors at the end of class. The students were divided into two groups: one group (36%) agreed that teachers should correct their students' errors at the end of class, whereas another group (41%) disagreed with the correction time. Likewise, 38% of the teachers agreed that teachers should postpone error treatment until the end of class, whereas another 39% of the teachers disagreed with the postponed error treatment. These findings corroborate Hendrickson's (1978) study which found that there is no general consensus among teachers about when to correct student errors. The preferences for error correction may be an individual choice, and every teacher has his or her own idea about when to treat student errors. Given the fact that different students need to be treated differently, teachers

should offer a variety of treatment by identifying their individual students' expectations. It is important for teachers to know the effectiveness of immediate, delayed, or postponed error treatment by implementing various strategies in ESL classrooms, and thus provide corrective feedback at the most appropriate and effective times.

The fourth category consisted of four choices and the questions asked the participants what types of errors should be corrected. All the teachers responded that serious errors should be treated at least usually, whereas only 71% of the students responded that their serious errors should be at least usually corrected. Almost the same percentage of the students (68%) and teachers (72%) responded that frequent student errors should be treated. Both the students and teachers agreed that serious errors, which hinder communication, and high-frequency errors should be corrected. These findings reveal that the teachers do not treat all the errors that occur, but they correct serious errors that cause misunderstanding as well as common and recurrent errors among the students. This shows that teachers try to spend more time on more important errors in order to promote the students' learning due to time constraints in classes. As Burt (1975) claims, correcting one global error clarifies the intended message more than the correction of several local errors. However, the students also wanted their teachers at least usually to correct infrequent (42%) and individual (62%) errors as well.

The fifth category asked about the preferences for corrective feedback. Of the eight types of corrective feedback, repetition was the most favored, explicit feedback was the second most favored, and elicitation was the third most favored type of corrective feedback among the teachers. The teachers believed that repetition informs the students that an error has been made and thus can lead them to produce the target-like form by modifying the ill-formed utterance. The teachers highly valued explicit feedback over implicit feedback since direct feedback that points out the location of the error can increase the chance of modification and accelerate learning. The teachers also favored elicitation that can help learners produce target-like forms.

In contrast to the teachers' preferences, elicitation was the most favored, explicit feedback was the second most favored, and implicit feedback was the third most favored type of corrective feedback among the students. These findings suggest that the learners want to have an opportunity to repair their own errors by responding to the teacher's request that prompts them to modify their ill-formed utterances. Ironically, on the one hand, the students want the teacher to provide them with unambiguous, rather direct corrective feedback on their errors, but on the other hand, they also want to receive a hint about the error in their utterance instead of an explicit comment on the error. Interestingly, a significant difference was found regarding the opinions about metalinguistic feedback. The students valued metalinguistic feedback more than the teachers. The students' opinions may be largely influenced by the grammar-based instruction that is prevalent in many classrooms in EFL contexts, where they learned English previously. The learning experiences may have convinced the students that explicit rather than implicit feedback enhances their learning. Also, the students may expect their teachers to have superior knowledge to offer corrective feedback.

Over 50% of the students regarded recasts as effective corrective feedback, whereas only 33% of the teachers regarded the method as effective. It is a surprising result since many previous studies have shown that recasts are the most frequently used corrective feedback by teachers in the L2 classroom although they are not the most effective method to correct learners' spoken errors due to ambiguity and implicitness (e.g., Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Lyster, 2004; Lyster & Panova, 2002; Sheen, 2006; Yoshida, 2008). The findings indicate a discrepancy between teachers' beliefs and their actual practices. In other words, they do not use the type of feedback they consider most effective in actual teaching. Considering the fact that the findings were based on a survey, the teachers may not be aware of their actual practices. Thus, their responses were based on their ideal types of corrective feedback.

Not surprisingly, teachers were the most popular source of feedback in classrooms.

Over 90% of students and teachers agreed that teachers should correct students' spoken errors. The second choice of delivering agent of error correction was students themselves. Less than half of the students and teachers agreed that classmates should correct their errors. The advantage of students' self-correction has been highlighted by many researchers (e.g., Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Chaudron, 1977; Hendrikson, 1978), and the present study findings also show that both teachers and students valued students' self-correction. As noted in the literature review, language learners are the ones who make changes and thus develop their interlanguage system. The long-term goal is for language learners to be capable of self-correction by internalizing the correct forms, so they can produce the target language accurately and fluently without assistance from teachers.

Numerous studies (e.g., Chaudron, 1977; Lyster & Ranta, 2007; Sheen, 2006) have shown that error treatment is a complex process, and teachers have a wide variety of techniques available for the treatment of errors. The studies suggest that teachers strive to meet their learners' needs and thus maximize their learning by providing appropriate feedback according to students' proficiency levels. For this reason, teachers' feedback is not always systematic; instead, teachers selectively use corrective feedback by making choices "between the moment when an oral error occurs and the actual treatment that follows" (Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p. 100).

4.3.2 High Anxiety Group vs. Low Anxiety Group

For the first question regarding the necessity of error correction, the same percentage of the students (94%) in the high and low anxiety groups agreed that they wanted to receive error correction from their teachers. These results suggest that regardless of their anxiety level, students value their teachers' error treatment and believe that their teachers' corrective feedback on their mistakes can facilitate their second language learning. As Horwitz (1988) states, teachers need to know learners' expectations about language learning in order to maximize students' opportunities to acquire the target language accurately.

For the second question regarding the frequency of error correction, no significant difference was found between the students in the high and low anxiety groups. Seventy-nine percent of the students in the high anxiety group and 81% of the students in the low anxiety group responded that their errors should be at least usually corrected. Unlike EFL settings where the student participants studied, the students have more opportunities to be exposed to the target language in ESL settings. Taking this into consideration, the students might be more motivated and willing to take advantage of the opportunity regardless of their anxiety levels.

In regard to the timing of error correction, "after I finish speaking" was selected as the most favored correction time by both the high (73%) and low anxiety (64%) groups. The students in the high anxiety group preferred delayed error correction to immediate error correction. "At the end of class" was the least favored correction time among the students in both groups: the high anxiety group (43%) and the low anxiety group (29%). As shown in the findings, the students with high anxiety preferred delayed (73%) and postponed error correction (60%) to immediate error treatment (55%), and they did not want to be interrupted by error treatment while speaking. Also, they did not want to wait so long before receiving feedback. For the high anxiety group, "after the activities" (60%) was the second most favored time to receive error treatment. This finding suggests that more anxious students want to participate in classroom activities without worrying about making mistakes and being interrupted. As Allwright and Bailey (1991) argue, immediate error correction decreases students' motivation to speak and obstructs the flow of communication. In a similar way, long delayed or postponed feedback is not effective. Considering the students' preferences for the timing of correction, teachers need to be aware of the advantages and disadvantages of immediate, delayed, and postponed error correction in order to provide their students with effective corrective feedback. In addition, teachers need to consider students' anxiety levels in making a decision about when to correct errors. Taking these together, it is not an easy task for teachers to decide on

the best time for error treatment.

No significant differences were found between the high and low anxiety groups regarding types of errors that should be treated. However, there was a big gap between the two groups in regard to individual errors: More students in the high anxiety group wanted to receive feedback on individual errors. This may suggest that the students with high anxiety are more anxious about their unique problems in using the target language and want to improve their performance in those problematic areas.

There was no statistically significant difference between the high and low anxiety groups regarding the types of corrective feedback. Elicitation, explicit, and implicit feedback were three most popular types of corrective feedback in the two groups; however, the rank was different. For the high anxiety group, explicit feedback was the most popular, whereas elicitation was the second most popular type of feedback. No corrective feedback was the least popular type of feedback, and metalinguistic feedback was the second least popular type of feedback. This finding suggests that the learners think grammatical explanations do not help them modify their original utterances, or produce target-like forms. Overall, the students in the high anxiety group wanted more corrective feedback than the students in the low anxiety group. The findings suggest that the students in the high anxiety group were conscious about accuracy in spoken English; in turn, this consciousness might elevate the level of anxiety. In this study, students in both the high and low anxiety groups regarded recasts as an effective corrective feedback type. These findings reveal the complexity of the decisions teachers must make in order to provide their students with appropriate corrective feedback.

Teachers were the most popular delivering agent in both the high and low anxiety groups alike. However, they showed a significantly different opinion regarding classmates as the delivering agent. Fifty-one percent of the students in the high anxiety group valued their classmates' error correction, whereas only 27% of the students in the low anxiety group valued their classmates' corrective feedback. Moreover, the high anxiety group showed more

confidence in treating their own spoken errors than the low anxiety group. These findings suggest the more anxious learners appreciate and value all sources of feedback in order to enhance their speaking competence.

Chapter 5

CONCLUSION

5.1 Summary

The purposes of this study were to investigate: (1) teachers' and learners' opinions about error correction, including the necessity, frequency, timing, type, method, and delivering agent of error treatment; and (2) the relationship between anxiety and preferences for error correction. The findings show that both the teachers and students agreed that student errors should be treated, but students wanted more correction than their teachers thought. A discrepancy was found between the teachers and students regarding the timing of error correction. Unlike the teachers, the students regarded immediate error correction that can interrupt the flow of conversation as effective. Both the teachers and students believed that serious and frequent errors should be treated, but the students wanted to receive more error treatment. The students wanted error treatment even on infrequent and individual errors. Repetition, explicit feedback, and elicitation were the three most favored types of feedback among the teachers, whereas elicitation, explicit feedback, and implicit feedback were the most favored types of corrective feedback among the students. Teachers were the most popular source of feedback among both the teachers and students.

Regardless of their anxiety levels, the students in both the high and low anxiety groups agreed that student errors should be treated, and "after students finish speaking" was the most favored correction time. Of the eight types of corrective feedback, both groups regarded elicitation, explicit feedback, and implicit feedback as the most effective types of feedback. No corrective feedback was the least popular type of feedback, and metalinguistic feedback was the second least popular type of feedback. The students with high anxiety welcomed all sources of error correction, but the students with low anxiety did not value their peers' error correction.

The findings show that the teachers and students had significantly different opinions about timing, method, and delivering agents of error correction, as well as types of errors

that need to be corrected. In contrast, a significant difference between the high and low anxiety groups was found only in delivering agents of error correction.

5.2 Limitations

The present study is limited in that the number of participants was small, so it is difficult to make generalizations. Another limitation is that the anxiety questionnaire consisted of only eight items that assess speaking anxiety. Also, the criterion measures of preferences for error correction involved only questionnaires because it would have been time-consuming to have interviews with all the students. Teachers react to learner errors both verbally and nonverbally, and the latter may not be easily measured through a survey. The surveys use questions that are decontextualized from real classroom situations, and thus there are inherent limitations to depicting how anxiety works in relation to different types of corrective feedback and diverse situational variables. In addition, this study only compared the levels of language anxiety and preferences for corrective feedback; however, it is possible to predict that there may be differences among the learners of varying proficiency levels.

5.3 Implication for Future Research and L2 Teaching

Future studies need to go beyond the simple identification of relationships between teachers and students or between the pairs of learner characteristics regarding preferences for error correction in order to overcome limitations of the present study and obtain more reliable results. Studies that encourage learner reflection through interviews or diary entries may have the potential to yield a richer understanding of learners' perceptions of how anxiety functions in their language learning, which, in turn, might lead to a clearer understanding of the general role of anxiety in language learning.

The findings of this study showed that both the teachers and the students agreed that error correction is necessary for L2 improvement. In general, there were more significant differences between the teachers and students regarding error correction than between the high and low anxiety groups. Based on the findings, I would like to suggest several

teaching guidelines related to error correction. Teachers should correct student errors instead of ignoring them as if there were no errors in their utterances. Given the fact that teachers' immediate error correction decreases students' motivation to speak (Allwright & Bailey, 1991), spoken errors should be treated after students finish speaking. Also, teachers should use various types of feedback to facilitate the effects of error correction and promote language learning. Teachers should also consider students' anxiety when making a decision on the degree of explicitness. Teachers can build students' confidence and self-esteem in their foreign language ability via encouragement and positive reinforcement. In this respect, teachers should be sensitive when correcting their students' errors and should remind them that it is natural for language learners to make errors in the process of acquiring the target language. The teachers' responses to students' errors may play the most important role in helping them alter their speaking for the better. Teachers, however, cannot and should not correct all the errors made by their students. Although students want to receive error treatment as much as possible, in reality, constant corrective feedback from the teacher can discourage students from participating in activities in class and increase anxiety. As a result, students feel uncomfortable and lose motivation to practice their speaking in class. To become good speakers, students need an environment that makes them feel encouraged to speak. They can learn by trial and error, by taking risks, and thus improve their speaking. Also, language learners need both time and opportunity for repair in the classroom. Teachers have to help their students become capable of self-correction in order to speak the target language accurately as well as fluently. Teachers can help learners gain confidence by providing them with a less stressful environment, and thus lead them to second language acquisition. To enhance effectiveness of error treatment, teachers need to assess their students' developmental stages accurately and identify the "optimum moment" that the learners are ready to notice the gap (Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p. 104). By trying to understand and acknowledge students' beliefs, teachers can minimize conflicts that may contribute to student frustration, anxiety, and lack of motivation (e.g., Schulz, 1996).

Teachers, therefore, need to understand their students' various needs, concerns, and expectations toward error correction by using a variety of tools, such as questionnaires, interviews, and observations to determine the students' needs (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). In so doing, teachers can promote students' learning.

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire for Teachers

Data collected from this anonymous survey will be used for completion of a master's degree in Teaching English to Speakers Of Other Languages at Sacramento State University. The information gathered will be used for research on corrective feedback in language classrooms.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the opinions of teachers and students about error correction. There are no risks or benefits to you from participating in this research. Please do not put your name on this questionnaire.

Please circle the information that applies to you. Make sure to mark only one.

1. Students' spoken errors should be treated.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

2. How often do you give corrective feedback on students' spoken errors?

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

※ Students' spoken errors should be treated at the following time.

3. As soon as errors are made even if it interrupts the student's speaking.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

4. After the student finishes speaking.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

5. After the activities.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

6. At the end of class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

※ How often do you treat each of the following types of errors in oral communication classes?

7. Serious spoken errors that cause a listener to have difficulty understanding the meaning of what is being said.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

8. Less serious spoken errors that do not cause a listener to have difficulty understanding the meaning of what is being said.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

9. Frequent spoken errors.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

10. Infrequent spoken errors

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

11. Individual errors made by only one student.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

※ How do you rate each type of spoken error correction below?

Teacher: Where did you go yesterday?
Student: I **go** to the park.

12. Could you say that again?

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

13. I go? (Repetition: The teacher emphasizes the student's grammatical error by changing his/her tone of voice.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

14. You went to the park yesterday? (Implicit feedback: The teacher does not directly point out the student's error but indirectly corrects it.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

15. "Go" is in the present tense. You need to use the past tense "went" here. (Explicit feedback: The teacher gives the correct form to the student with a grammatical explanation.

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

16. Yesterday, I…..(Elicitation: The teacher asks the student to correct and complete the sentence.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

17. Really? What did you do there? (No corrective feedback: The teacher does not give corrective feedback on the student's errors.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

18. How does the verb change when we talk about the past? (Metaliguistic feedback: The teacher gives a hint or a clue without specifically pointing out the mistake.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

19. I went to the park. (Recast: The teacher repeats the student's utterance in the correct form without pointing out the student's error.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

※ The following person should treat students' errors.

20. Classmates

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

21. Teachers

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

22. Students themselves

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Demographics

Please circle the information that applies to you. Make sure to mark only one.

23. Gender

Male	Female

24. How long have you been teaching English?

1 year	2-5 years	6-9 years	More than 10 years

25. How long have you been teaching oral skill classes?

1 year	2-5 years	6-9 years	More than 10 years

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire for Students

Data collected from this anonymous survey will be used for completion of a master's degree in Teaching English to Speakers Of Other Languages at Sacramento State University. The information gathered will be used for research on corrective feedback in language classrooms.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the opinions of teachers and students about error correction. You could feel uncomfortable with some of the questions, but you may skip any question you prefer not to answer. There are no benefits to you from participating in this research.

Please do not put your name on this questionnaire.

Please circle the information that applies to you. Make sure to mark only one.

1. I want to receive corrective feedback (e.g., provide a hint for me to self-correct, tell me that I made an error, or correct my error.) when I make mistakes.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

2. How often do you want your teacher to give corrective feedback on your spoken errors?

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

※ When do you want your spoken errors to be treated?

3. As soon as errors are made even if it interrupts my conversation.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

4. **After I finish speaking**.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

5. After the activities.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

6. At the end of class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

※ How often do you want each of the following types of errors to receive corrective feedback?

7. Serious spoken errors that may cause problems in a listener's understanding.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

8. Less serious spoken errors that do not affect a listener's understanding.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

9. Frequent spoken errors.

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

10. Infrequent spoken errors

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

11. My individual errors (i.e., errors that other students may not make.)

Always (100%)	Usually (80%)	Sometimes (50%)	Occasionally (20%)	Never (0%)

※ How would you rate each type of spoken error correction below?

> **Teacher:** Where did you go yesterday?
> **Student:** I **go** to the park.

12. Could you say that again?

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

13. I go? (Repetition: The teacher highlights the student's grammatical error by using intonation.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

14. I went there yesterday, too. (Implicit feedback: The teacher does not directly point out the student's error but indirectly corrects it.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

15. "Go" is in the present tense. You need to use the past tense "went" here. (Explicit feedback: The teacher gives the correct form to the student with a grammatical explanation.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

16. Yesterday, I….. (Elicitation: The teacher asks the student to correct and complete the sentence.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

17. Really? What did you do there? (No corrective feedback: The teacher does not give corrective feedback on the student's errors.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

18. How does the verb change when we talk about the past? (Metaliguistic feedback: The teacher gives a hint or a clue without specifically pointing out the mistake.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

19. I went to the park. (Recast: The teacher repeats the student's utterance in the correct form without pointing out the student's error.)

Very Effective	Effective	Neutral	Ineffective	Very Ineffective

※ The following person should treat students' errors.

20. Classmates

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

21. Teachers

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

22. Myself

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Demographics

Please circle the information that applies to you. Make sure to mark only one.

23. Gender

Male	Female

24. Your first language

Korean	Japanese	Chinese	Spanish	Other:

25. How long have you been studying English?

1 year	2-5 years	6-9 years	More than 10 years

26. What is your speaking or listening class level?

Beginning	Intermediate low	Intermediate	Intermediate high	Advanced

Language Anxiety Questionnaire

Instructions*: Please reflect on your personal feelings regarding language leaning. Carefully read each statement and indicate to what extent you agree or disagree by circling the statement that best describes how you feel. There are no right or wrong answers, just those that are right for you.*

You could feel uncomfortable with some of the questions, but you may skip any question you prefer not to answer.

Please circle the information that applies to you. Make sure to mark only one.

1. **I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

2. When I give my answers in this class, I often lose confidence.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

3. I feel good when I have to speak English in front of my classmates.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

4. I'm afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

5. **I'm generally nervous when participating in my English class.**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

6. **When speaking in this class, I'm not worried about English grammar.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

7. I'm enjoying my English lessons in this class because I'm comfortable with this level of English.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

8. **I'm afraid of speaking right after the teacher corrects my errors.**

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

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